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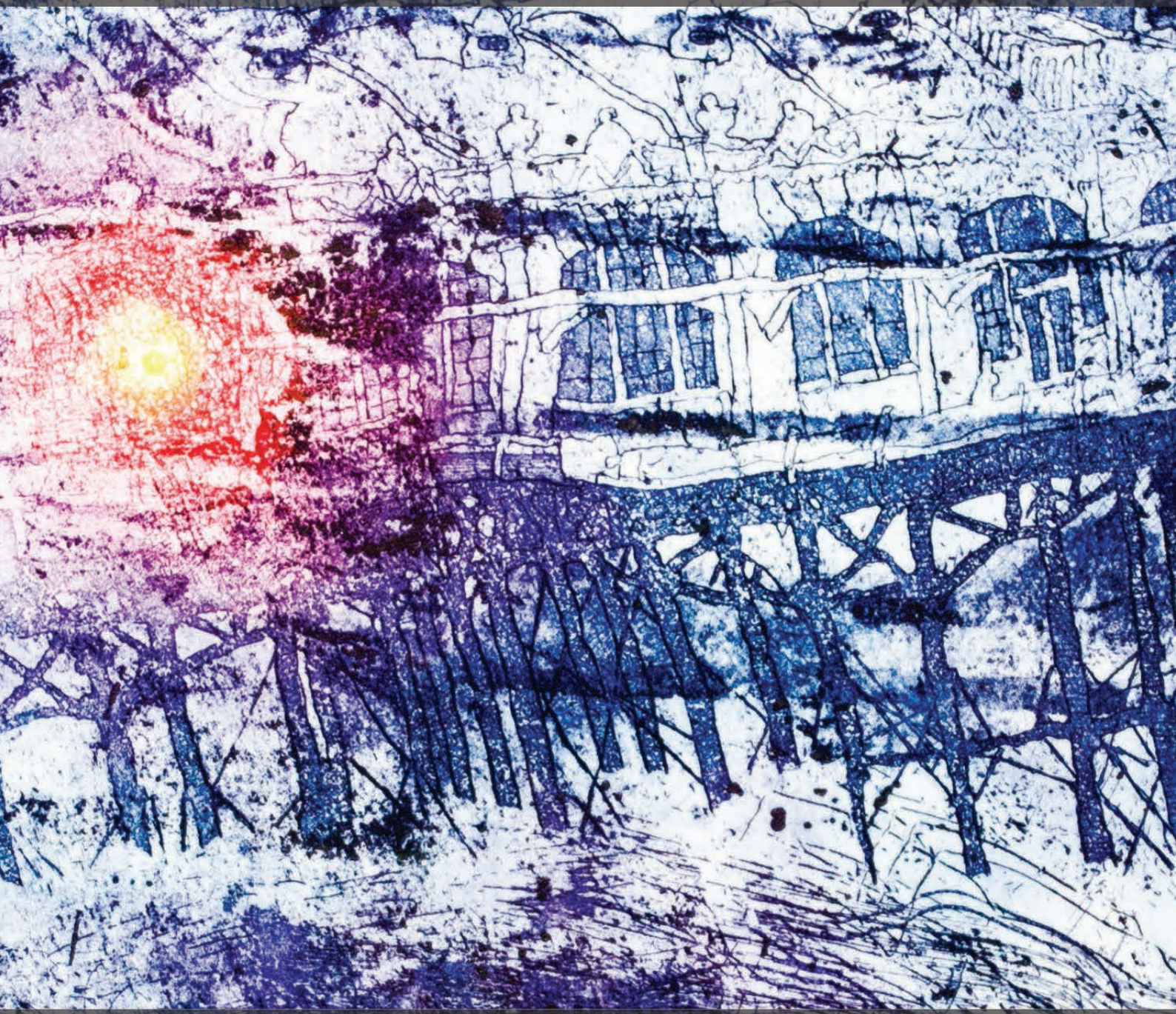

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Integrating Literature in the ESL Classroom: A Case Study

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The European Conference on Language Learning 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
With the appearance of the Communicative Approach in the late 70's and very early 80's, using literature in the English classroom was ignored. The tendency in the EFL classrooms was to teach "usable, practical" content. However, since the 1980s literature has found its way back into the EFL classroom to improve communicative and cultural competence and enhance " critical thinking " (Bretz, 1990: 335). Besides, studies, like those of Lazar (1993), Cook (1994), and Shanahan (1997), strongly recommend the integration of literary texts into the ESL/EFL curriculum. Many writings on this subject advocate a content-focused curriculum that includes literature (Liddicoat and Crozet 2000). Practice showed that using literature in language teaching is very beneficial as it led to cultural enrichment, language advancement, and personal growth. This is in line with Erkaya (2005) views on the benefit of integrating literature in the English curriculum. The paper shows how literature was integrated in the general English classroom and how it played a role in equipping students with a number of skills including critical thinking, analytical skills, formulating and expressing independent opinions, presenting one's own interpretations independently, improving language competence, such as reading, speaking and writing skills. It also played a role in enhancing their cultural awareness. The paper also discusses the challenges and perspectives of introducing literature into foreign language curriculum.

Keywords: literature, curriculum, ESL classroom, skills, short stories, questionnaires, reflection

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Introduction

The role of literature in enhancing ESL teaching and learning has been the subject of interest to many foreign language teaching researchers, especially in the 20th century. Using literature in the English classroom was ignored in the 1970s, in the 1980s throughout 1990s literature has found its way back into the EFL classroom for its value in improving language and critical thinking skills. In the 21th century, many teachers evade adding up a literature component to the curriculum as they have not been trained on integrating literature to the ESL classroom. As a researcher I was interested in adding up short stories to the curriculum. Practice showed that using literature in language teaching is very beneficial as it led to cultural enrichment, language advancement, and personal growth. This is in line with Erkaya (2005) views on the benefit of integrating literature in the English curriculum. The paper shows how literature was integrated in the general English classroom and how it played a role in equipping students with a number of skills including critical thinking, analytical skills, formulating and expressing independent opinions, presenting one's own interpretations independently, improving language competence, such as reading, speaking and writing skills. It also played a role in enhancing their cultural awareness.

Instructional context

I teach in the Higher Technological Institute. I most of the time teach General English to university level students. My students ages are 18-23. The number of the students in each class varies from 60 to 90. Their proficiency in the language varies as they come from different educational backgrounds. The students come from all over Egypt: Cairo (30%), Ismailia (15%), Suez (5%), Sharkiya (10%), and Upper Egypt (40%). They are low-middle, middle and upper-middle class. Many of them own laptops, have internet access via their phones, in the library of the institute and at home. The problem lies with those students whose parents see that internet is a luxury so they do not subscribe to internet service and with those who stay at the institute housing hostel that does not have internet access. 99 percent of the students are being introduced to using technology in education for the first time. The funny thing is that most of those who have smart phones or laptops have no access to the internet and if they have it so slow. Most of my students are graduates of public schools only 20 percent are either private or international (19 % private schools and 1% international schools). As such, most need to work hard on their English to prepare themselves for the market.

As denoted, some students have been learning in private schools where English is the first language. Others, have been learning English for the last three years. A third group knows only the alphabet. Besides, they are interested in the subjects they learn more than English, as English is a secondary subject in comparison to the subjects they major. Still, all students understand the importance of English in practical life. So, many of them attend, ask questions, and do the exercises I give. In addition, some are interested in improving their level, so they ask for materials they can do on their own pace. They also ask for soft copies and hard copies for the lectures they did not attend. They even sometimes ask for previous courses materials in order to revise and recap. They also say I am so serious but funny and they do the exercises to improve, but they want some fun for refreshment.

The class time is three hours. A break is given after each hour. There are no computers in the classroom and the computer laps are used for teaching engineering subjects like Matlab and Oracle. I sometimes, take my computer and sound amplifiers in order to introduce videos. Some students use their mobiles or laptops to look up new words online. The students are studying general English to be prepared for the market. They need it in their career interviews. Their career demands reading, writing, communicating in English when they deal with pamphlets or foreign clients. Still, the curriculum is basic English and being a secondary subject, many students underestimate it and do not exert real effort to do the extra curriculum activities or the assignments I give. They start taking courses and doing extra material on their own. The problems I continuously face are the different levels of students, their large numbers, and different levels of proficiency.

I want to help students get interested in learning English, enhance their proficiency and improve their critical thinking skills. I thought about using short stories . We can read together some in class and assign others as home assignments and then quickly discuss them in class. The format of these stories will be both paper-based and electronic in order to engage the students in the readings. The short stories should cover all range of topics.

Hypothesis

The most suitable type of literature to add up to ESL classroom is the short story as it can be covered in one or two teaching sessions. The chosen texts should be challenging and cover many topics. Gillian Lazar denotes: “the text should be sufficiently challenging without being so difficult as to be demotivating….[It] should be within the student’s grasp, in terms of their linguistic, intellectual, and emotional capacities” (1990, p. 206). Reading a whole, unabridged and non-simplified literary text gives the students a sense of accomplishment and adds up to their confidence.

I think using short stories will help all students of all proficiency levels. Students of all levels will learn something from reading the short stories. They will see vocabulary in context. They will see grammar in use. They will be exposed to new words. Writing their opinion on the short stories will improve their critical thinking skills and they will gain confidence that they can express themselves. The idea of choosing short stories on more than one topic is motivation and interest. It will also teach them that they can learn independently via reading on all subjects they like.

As Parlindungan Pardede (2011) denotes in his article “Using Short Stories to Teach Language Skills”:

The notion that the main objective of EFL teaching is to help students to communicate fluently in the target language cause many teachers still believe that an EFL class should focus on mastering linguistic elements only. However, recent trend in EFL teaching indicates the necessity of integrating literature because of its rich potential to provide an authentic model of language use. Among literary genres, short stories seem to be the most suitable choice for this due to its potential to help students enhance the four skills—listening, speaking, reading and writing—more effectively because of the motivational benefit embedded in the stories.”

Odilea Rocha Erkaya asserts this idea in the article "Benefits of Using Short Stories in the EFL Context" (2005) : "Using literature as a vehicle for the teaching of a second or foreign language has provedvery beneficial to the EFL and ESL students' learning experience. Notable researchers such asSusan Louise Stern (1985), Yorio (1971), Mckinely (1974), Walsleben (1975), Gorman (1979), and povey (1979) have all attested to the idea of the effectiveness of the implementation of literature in the language class. Povery, thus, proposes that, "Literature gives evidence of the widest variety of syntax, the richest variation of vocabulary discrimination. It provides examples of the language employed at its most effective, subtle, and suggestive" (162).

As for my concerns, will all students like the stories I add up to the curriculum. Will the steps I take concerning adding short stories really help all students of different proficiency levels improve. Will the students accept the idea of expressing their opinion as they have never been trained on the idea of evaluation and expressing their opinion? Will the administration accept the idea of adding up short stories to the curriculum of general English. As for the steps I will take to make things more smoothly, I will speak to my colleagues and supervisors before I take steps. I will speak to my students and explain to them the relevance of expressing opinion and how self-expression is a skill that can be improved.

Research on story teaching and the L2 acquisition shows that it improves students' reading and writing skills speaking and listening skills. The more short stories topics, the better the results as students feel the stories cover many ideas the students want to learn about. It can also offer intellectual, emotional involvement, and enrich their learning experience. The short story should be chosen according to the students' level of English proficiency.

I. Pre-reading activities: to enhance students vocabulary
II. In-class oral reading: to improve oral and spoken abilities, and critical skills
III. Textual analysis and group work: to improve reading comprehension and writing skills
IV. Out of class reading assignments: to improve students reading, writing, critical thinking skills and extend the learning behind the walls of the classroom.

Texts used

I used a number of short stories written by writers from all over the world. I also used short stories for Arab writers writing in English and short stories translated form Arabic text written by renowned Arab writers. The texts I used are "The Director and Other Stories from Morocco", by Leila Abouzeid, Naguib Mahfouz at Sidi Gaber: Reflections of a Nobel Laureate, 1994-2001 Hardcover – October 1, 2004
by Naguib Mahfouz (Author)

Sample Short story

The Lighting Bug

Japan is homogenous. This is a word I did not learn until many months after visiting the United States. But I felt the power of this word as soon as I moved here.

Homogenous means being of the same type or group. It means fitting in. It means how I did not feel when I came here to the United States. I remember not even knowing how to order French fries, because the phrase we use in Japan is "fried potatoes." Because I knew the phrase was English, I thought that is what Americans would call them. I remember wondering why the cashier did not understand me. I saw fried potatoes everywhere, yet when I told her I wanted them, she just stared at me. Was it my accent? Was it my color?

I was not homogenous anymore.

This is a strange feeling coming from Japan. In Japan, there are very few minorities. There, I am the majority. People dress like me, they eat like me, they ARE me. White is exotic. Black is exotic. Only Japanese is normal. And now in the United States, I was exotic.

Back in Japan, my older sister was at her desk studying for a college entrance examination, and something flew into her sight. At first she didn't recognize what it was. It was a bug that was black, tiny, and moving slowly. She quickly learned that it was a lightning bug because the bug's behind lit up. She was so happy to see it that she kept it as a pet in a glass. The very day after that she was also studying at her desk when a black, tiny bug flew into her sight. As she reached to grab it, she realized that the bug on her desk was a cockroach. Upon seeing that, she screamed very loudly and then, without mercy or a second thought, killed it quickly. What a difference a lightning bug and a cockroach are for her!

And so I learned there are two kinds of ways to look at people also. I will call it "good" exotic and "bad" exotic. For example, when I walk into a math class, immediately students wanted to sit next to me, and at least two people asked for my number. On the first day. It did not take long to realize that Americans had a positive stereotype about Asians in science and math classes. On the other hand, when I went to a dance club, it was almost impossible for me to get the courage to ask an American girl to dance, although I had my American roommate there to encourage me. I felt like I was foreign, even ugly. Perhaps this is not true. I do not mean to offend, and perhaps it is my own fear of feeling different. I simply don't look like that so-blue-eyes boy as he glides across the floor. I look like me.

I have to decide if, even though I do not look like him, that I am also something and someone who these girls will dance with. There are many Japanese stories that reminded me to be brave, and I decided to be brave. I walked to a group of girls and said, in my broken English, if anyone would like to dance. One girl turned away not just with her eyes but with her body. Another looked at her friend and both began speaking as if I were not there. But the fourth girl said yes. I could not help smiling.

So I think that, on days that we are not homogenous, we must make a decision. When we meet those who are different from us: are we the cockroaches, or the lightning bugs? And, I think, it is our own choice—it is something we must believe about ourselves.

As for me, I choose to glow.

By Hara Yung

Questions to Think About

1. In what places or situations do you feel the most different?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
2. What does Haru mean that he chooses to glow? How does one do that?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……

Data Collection Techniques

I always conduct questionnaires. The main purpose of the questionnaires is to gather as much information as possible to make sure whether they are really improving, whether they like the way things go and if they would like to increase or decrease the number of the short stories. I will analyze the different answers provided by the students to make sure if things are going well, whether I am on the right track or my plan needs adjustment. I conducted three questionnaires at the beginning of the course, at mid course and after the course.

Here is the first paper-based questionnaire:

Answer the following questions. Feel free to write as much as you like to fully explain your answer.

1) Would you like to add up short stories to our curriculum?
2) Would you like to read short stories written by Arab writes in English or translated short stories written by famous Arab writers?
3) Do you think reading short stories would be interesting?

Here is the Mid course questionnaire:

Student Questionnaire

This survey is anonymous. Your teacher will not see your individual response.

1. I like adding up short stories to the curriculum.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

2. When we read the short stories together, the teacher encourages us to share ideas and opinions with one another in class.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

3. The teacher tries to help when I am struggling to understand something.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

4. The short stories help us understand the language grammar not just memorize it.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

5. Discussing the short stories heIp me contribute some good ideas and thinking in this class.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

6. My teacher asks me to explain and give reasons for what I think.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

7. I can engage in all the learning activities related to the short stories in class and out of class.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

8. My teacher listens to my opinion when discussing the short stories.

   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

9. My teacher gives us assignments and lessons that pushes me to think hard about what we are studying.
   1 2 3
   Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

10. My teacher encourages us to build on and extend other people's ideas.
    1 2 3

Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

11. My teacher respects my opinion and encourages my ideas.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

12. I'm certain I can understand and master the ideas I learn through the short stories.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

13. Reading short stories at home gives me the opportunity to really explore and understand new ideas, learn vocabulary and new expressions.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

14. The teacher encourages us to discuss our work with classmates.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

15. My teacher does not let us make fun of someone opinion.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

16. My teacher does not allow students to make fun of other students' ideas in class.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

17. Even if the ideas are difficult and hard to understand, I can learn them.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

18. My teacher makes sure that students don't say anything negative about each other in class.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

19. My teacher really wants us to enjoy learning new things.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

20. My teacher lets us ask other students when we need help with our work.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

21. I'm certain I can figure out how to do the most difficult and challenging assignments.
1 2 3
Not at all true Somewhat true Very true

22. My teacher recognizes us for trying hard and taking chances.

1	2	3
Not at all true	Somewhat true	Very true

Answer the following questions. Feel free to write as much as you like to fully explain your answer.

Do you think adding up short stories to the curriculum help you improve?
What ideas should the range of short stories cover?
Here is the final questionnaire:
Answer the following questions feel free to write as much as you like to explain your answers:
Did reading short stories develop your language skills?
Did it improve your personal reflection?
Did reading short stories increase your cultural understanding/ tolerance? How?

How I use the data collection tool:

Student Reflection and Teacher Refection Journals:

After each time they read a short story in class or at home students are required to write a reflective paragraph and commentary on the short story and the learning experience they attained after reading the text. The main reason is make sure that the short story was a good choice and that it really help move a step forward in their trial to master the language.

Students guided reflection questions:
As for me my teacher reflection journals will be done in two phases. The first after each class and the second after reading students' reflections. This method will provide me with very valuable qualitative data about my student's thoughts. It will also make them gain the habit of reflection. Reading my reflections will compliment students reflection so the next time I add up stories to the curriculum the pace would be better and the learning experience would be better.

Student Reflection

Write your opinion about the stories you read?
Answer the following and give reasons for your rating:
Reading the assigned short stories enhanced your imagination

1	2	3
Not at all true	Somewhat true	Very true

Reading the assigned short stories make the learning process interesting

1	2	3
Not at all true	Somewhat true	Very true

Reading the assigned short stories enhance creativity

1	2	3
Not at all true	Somewhat true	Very true

Reading the assigned short stories motivate you to reflect upon your views

1	2	3
Not at all true	Somewhat true	Very true

Reading the assigned short stories make the learning process interesting

1	2	3
Not at all true	Somewhat true	Very true

Conclusion

Using literature in the English classroom is an old trend that came back in trend. Practice showed that using literature in language teaching is very beneficial as it led to cultural enrichment, language advancement, and personal growth. The students' answers to the questionnaires' shows that when literature was integrated in the general English classroom it played a role in equipping students with a number of skills including critical thinking, analytical skills, formulating and expressing independent opinions, presenting one's own interpretations independently, improving language competence, such as reading, speaking and writing skills. Practice also showed that the most suitable kind of literature to be added to the general English curriculum is the short story as some students do not like poetry; the more topics the short stories cover, the better students like it.

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Student Anxiety and Learning Difficulties in Academic English Courses

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Abstract
Anxiety and learning difficulties are an increasingly common feature in language learning courses in all educational levels. By the time students with these issues enter university, they may have had a variety of positive or negative experiences with foreign language learning, and may have developed a number of coping mechanisms to manage their conditions. The purpose of this paper is to examine learning difficulties and anxiety experienced by Finnish university students in their compulsory academic and field-specific English courses. In Finland, all university degrees include courses on academic English reading, writing, communication and presenting, and every year a number of students bring up their challenges with English, either before the course, during it, or in many cases only after having failed the course. With a case study of five university students, the paper introduces when and how students reveal their anxiety or learning difficulty with academic English, how those issues are considered during the course and how the students perceived their learning process during the course. Results demonstrate that Finnish university students experience a variety of anxiety and learning issues, and while some are proactive in bringing these forward to the lecturer, many reveal their problems only after a failed performance or grade. However, most students seem to appreciate the measures taken by the lecturer to address their issues and concerns during the course. This implies that language teachers, lecturers and instructors should actively support their students and be aware of potential sources of anxiety and learning difficulties.

Keywords: foreign language study, language learning difficulties, performance anxiety, English for academic purposes, higher education, study and teaching

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1 Introduction

Anxiety and learning difficulties are an increasingly common phenomenon in various educational levels, from kindergarten and primary school to higher education. These issues also play a significant role in language learning throughout an individual's lifetime because language learning itself can be a source of anxiety. However, the various facets of using a foreign language, such as speaking, listening, reading, writing, presenting and test-taking can also be separate sources for concern for many students.

The purpose of this study is to examine learning difficulties and anxiety experienced by Finnish university students in their compulsory academic and field-specific English courses. In Finland, all university degrees include courses on academic English reading, writing, communication and presenting, and every year a number of students bring up their challenges with English, either before the course, during it, or in many cases only after having failed the course.

This paper will introduce the foundations of learning difficulties in foreign language learning and common challenges with academic English as experienced by Finnish university students, including social anxiety, panic disorder, depression and performance anxiety. The study will include a case study of five Finnish students from the academic year 2016-2017 with expressed learning difficulties, how they approached their learning difficulties, and what measures were taken in the courses to facilitate their progress and development of essential study- and work-related English skills.

1.1 Academic English in Finnish Universities

Since the mid-1970s, all HE degrees in Finnish universities have included compulsory language and communication requirements, a unique tenet even internationally (Räsänen, 2008; Tuomi & Rontu, 2011). All university graduates in Finland must have attained skills in at least one foreign language that enable them to follow developments in their field and to work in an international environment (Opetusministeriö, 2004). These requirements aim at preparing students for their studies, careers and extended lifelong language learning throughout their lives.

A vast majority of Finnish students elect English as the university foreign language and therefore complete courses on academic and field-specific English for their degrees. These courses include academic and subject-specific reading, writing, oral and communicative proficiency, developed through tailored practice on academic text comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, listening comprehension, development of formal writing skills, oral fluency and presentation skills. Most Bachelor's degrees will include one or two courses focusing on academic reading skills and academic communication skills, however some degree programmes where English plays an extended role both in the studies and in working life, such as Business and Economics or Law, will have more courses and requirements for English even in the Bachelor's level. This is to support the students' transition to the Master's level in which much of the teaching and learning take place in English.

1.2 Anxiety as a Social Phobia

Anxiety is not a new phenomenon, not in society or in education but the explicit prevalence of anxiety appears to be on the increase. Anxiety is considered an emotional and behavioural disorder that is processed internally, and it is related to phobias, mood disorders and depression (Westwood, 2004). Anxiety is typically categorised as either social phobia, general anxiety disorder, panic disorder or post-traumatic stress disorder (Cullinan, 2007). The first three are considered most frequently diagnosed among young adults.

Anxiety can also be divided into trait anxiety or state anxiety. In the former, anxiety is considered a personality characteristic and in the latter, related to specific situations (Mifka Profozic, 2013). In addition to state and trait anxiety, the term situation-specific anxiety has been used in the study of anxiety. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), foreign language anxiety, language-skill-specific anxiety (e.g. listening anxiety, speaking anxiety, reading anxiety, and writing anxiety), test anxiety, and classroom anxiety belong to that category. With school-related anxiety, test-taking has been considered particularly poignant (Webber & Plotts, 2008; Zeidner, 2010).

While test-taking is a solitary task, exposure to which can be limited to certain times and situations in university studies, social phobia can have a profound effect on university students in their subject studies and in their language and communication courses. Social phobia is a clinically significant phobia that is characterised by anxiety caused by certain social or performance situations, often leading to avoidance behaviour (Downing, 2007). Social phobia may also be either generalised, i.e. pertaining to all social or performance situations, or restricted to specific types of performance, such as public speaking (Downing, 2007).

Further, students suffering from a generalised anxiety disorder can similarly be very anxious about social or performance situations in which they are exposed to a new situation, new people and possibly evaluation (McGrath, 2005). This stems particularly from the fear of being humiliated or embarrassed and thus seen negatively by others.

1.3 Anxiety in Language Learning

University students in their academic and field-specific language and communication courses may therefore be suffering from various types and levels of social or general anxiety but for many students the foreign language is the main cause for concern. Language anxiety is the overall feelings of worry, fear and negativity associated with a learned foreign language (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012), and it is therefore often considered to be situation-specific anxiety where anxiety is experienced during language learning or communication (Mifka Profozic, 2013). While foreign language anxiety has also been seen with students who have chosen to specialise in foreign language study (Ewald, 2007; Toth, 2010), it may be more prevalent with students in their academic and field-specific language courses.

Language learning anxiety can manifest as dread, sweating, forgetfulness, tension, avoidance or absenteeism (Ewald, 2007), and it can affect various levels of language

use, i.e. the input stage, the processing stage or the output stage (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 2000). However, the output stage, i.e. speaking activities, oral language use and oral presentations, are considered most affected by foreign language anxiety (Gregersen, 2005; Woodrow, 2006), especially since this type of anxiety does not frequently transpire in the student's mother tongue (Chang, 2012).

Therefore, some scholars also argue that language learning anxiety may not be a general personality trait but instead an indicator of basic language problems, rather than an indicator of situation-specific and situation-driven feelings of uneasiness (Mifka Profozic, 2013). After all, low self-efficacy beliefs and fear of failure have been known to result in anxiety, stress and the exacerbation of self-perceived issues (Westwood, 2004)

1.4 Social Anxiety in Performance Situations

In the context of academic English courses for non-native speakers at university level, similarly to general language learning anxiety, performing in front of the class has been the most stressful element for students (Woodrow, 2006). Anxiety or stress can also affect short-term memory (Lapointe, Blanchette, Duclos, Langlois, Provencher & Tremblay, 2012), which may result in the heavy reliance on notes or reading, which in academic presentations are discouraged.

Particularly with students who have had stressful or unpleasant presentation experiences in the past, speaking publicly or in front of their peers can be daunting, and the idea of presenting may have developed into an anxiety reaction referred to as classical conditioning. Classical or reflex conditioning refers to a situation where the emotional reaction becomes connected with a stimulus, so that previous experiences with language or performing, or indeed performing in a foreign language, are associated by the student with unpleasant stimuli and experiences (Toth, 2010; Westwood, 2004). Santrock (2001) claims that much of the anxiety with students is connected to classical conditioning.

Therefore, when discussing anxiety in academic and field-specific language use in higher education, the phenomenon can be seen to relate to both language learning anxiety and performance anxiety, and therefore within the EAP/ESP course context, the issue can be difficult to fix. Dörnyei (2005, p. 198) has aptly asked of anxiety: "Is it a motivational component? A personality trait? Or an emotion?"

2 Research Questions

The research questions guiding this study into anxiety and learning difficulties with non-native university students in their academic English courses are as follows:

1. How and when do Finnish university students express their anxiety or learning difficulty in an academic English course?

2. How is the student's anxiety or learning difficulty taken into consideration during the course?

3. What is the role of the university lecturer/teacher/instructor in easing students' anxiety?

3 Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected with five students who in the academic year 2016-2017 had demonstrated self-expressed anxiety before, during or after an academic English course. The students provided written consent that their information could be used anonymously in this study. The students represented three different degree programmes, Business and Economics, Social Work and Environmental Policy, and were all in the later stages of their Bachelor's degrees. One of the five participants was male, the other four females, and their ages ranged from 22 years to 31 years.

The students had been in contact about their anxiety or learning difficulty either before the academic English course, at the beginning of the course, or after a failed performance on the course. In their own words, the students were suffering from anxiety, a diagnosed severe learning difficulty, panic disorder, depression, or a combination of the above. The students naturally do not represent all students at the university who suffer from the mentioned conditions, but can be argued to represent a cross-section of students in a case-study setting.

4 Results

4.1 "Ben"

In case 1, the student with a pseudonym "Ben", was a 25-year-old male student of Business and Economics. He was in his third and final year of Bachelor's studies and attended a blended learning course for academic writing and presentations required for his degree. During the online elements of the course, the student demonstrated no problems with the online communication and tasks or the writing assignments completed independently and returned online. However, in the academic presentations delivered on campus in small groups of 4-5 students, the student read the majority of his presentation from his notes, an element that in the course will result in a failed presentation.

After being privately notified that the presentation would not be passable, the student and I arranged a new time for him to deliver the presentation again, with feedback provided on why the presentation failed and how he should prepare for the second attempt. During this feedback, the student seemed upset but I attempted to console him that he was not the first or the last person to be asked to retake the presentation. We also agreed that he could bring a friend for support for the second attempt presentation. Later the same day "Ben" sent an email, describing how he was sorry for reading the presentation and that he suffered from depression and a panic disorder. This played a role in his heavy use of notes during the presentation (cf. Lapointe et al., 2012) but he would attempt to utilise less notes in his second attempt.

For the second attempt the student arrived with his friend for support, he appeared quite apprehensive before and during his presentation but had significantly improved his delivery so that the presentation was passed successfully. After being notified the presentation was passed, the student expressed relief and appreciation over the

process of being able to give his presentation again. He was hopeful that future presentation in English would proceed better but he was also conscious of the challenges posed by his condition and that his mental health issues would continue to play a role in his studies.

4.2 “Nina”

Case 2 student, pseudonym “Nina”, was also a student of Business and Economics, aged 23 and in the third and final year of her Bachelor’s degree. She had missed the business presentation on her course in the previous academic year because of an undisclosed illness and sick leave but was now supplementing the course by delivering the required presentation. The presentation was assessed as failed because of the heavy use of notes and reading.

Similarly to “Ben”, “Nina” also contacted me by email after she had received feedback on her performance and was asked to deliver it again. In the email, the student explained she suffered from a panic disorder but had tried to deliver her presentation without her anxiety medication. She expressed feeling disappointed she had not been able to do so successfully but would try to speak more from memory in the second attempt.

In the second attempt, a week later, the student was clearly on her anxiety medication, and delivered a moderately improved presentation that was deemed passable under the circumstances. While the student spoke slightly more from memory, the delivery was not very lively because of the medication and the student was quite lethargic and unresponsive during the feedback session after the presentation. She did not make comments about the process or having to deliver her presentation again, but seemed pleased to receive the news of having passed the presentation.

4.3 ”Tara”

In this case the student of Social Work, pseudonym “Tara”, was in contact by email before her required course on academic reading skills began. In the email, she explained she suffered from a panic disorder and wished to know what the course entailed and how much contact she would have to have with other students on the course. She was particularly concerned about speaking in English to the class or having to take part in pair or group discussions.

In my response, I explained the course learning outcomes, content and typical classroom tasks in detail and assured the student that if she so wished, she would be exempt from answer rounds or pair discussions. She would also not be obliged to speak with the entire class listening, and that I would regularly check on her progress during the course.

The student responded quickly to the email, thanked me for the information and seemed to react positively to the proposed measures and tailoring offered for the course. However, after this response, the student never signed up for the course, never showed up to the course or was in contact with me again.

4.4 ”Laura”

In the fourth case, “Laura” was a 22-year-old student of Social Sciences who had registered normally for her course on academic reading skills. After the first meeting on the course, she stayed behind to talk and showed a diagnosis for a severe learning difficulty in foreign languages. Diagnoses such as these are not usual in Finland and are provided by registered learning and health care personnel, typically during the student’s upper secondary education and preparation for the Matriculation Examination. In the national Matriculation Examination accommodations are made for students with official diagnoses for learning difficulties (Pirttimaa, Takala & Ladonlahti, 2015).

In our initial conversation, “Laura” seemed slightly apprehensive about the course and how she would manage, but was eager to take part because she recognised the importance of academic English for the progression of her studies. In this conversation, we discussed the course programme and various classroom tasks in detail and she was assured that she could skip any answer rounds if she wished. She had also made good friends from her fellow students and was assured she could work together with them on most classroom tasks. The course was already planned to include an active use of pair and group work.

During the course the student made good progress and from a group of 25 students it would have been difficult to pinpoint her as someone with a learning difficulty had I not known this in advance. “Laura” opted to forgo some answer session and classroom discussion tasks during the course but otherwise seemed to develop her skills well on the course. I had made the conscious decision to check on her progress every week and to check if any of the course tasks or assignments were particularly unsuitable to her. Because of her official diagnosis, she was also offered more time for the final exam on the course but she completed the exam without extra time and passed the exam in the first attempt. In the course feedback she was very appreciative of the tailored approach to the course and expressed a sense of achievement for developing her skills and passing the course.

4.5 ”Mona”

The final case student, “Mona”, was slightly older at 31 years of age and a student of Environmental Policy. She enrolled to an intensive blended learning course for academic communication skills, including a presentation, to which she was referred to by another English lecturer. The student had a history of failing this particular course on another campus but had recently attended a special support course for student struggling with their academic English communication. As she was required to complete the communication course to obtain her Bachelor’s degree, she had been recommended to take the blended learning course in which most of the communication took place in an online environment.

The student participated actively in the online components of the course, including written discussion forums, listening practice and written assignments. The first issue was with a video task in which students were asked to record a 5-minute video on their preparation process for the upcoming presentation. “Mona” emailed me to ask if she would send the task in writing, to which I replied that all students should practice

their oral skills before the presentation. To this the student replied that she had no access to video or audio recording on her computer (although this was a requirement on the course) but offered to send a recording in the post. A counter-offer of a voicemail message was quickly rejected as the time limit made her feel anxious. At this point the student revealed she suffered from severe performance anxiety and was dreading the upcoming presentation.

The presentations on the course were organised to be delivered on campus but in small table groups of 4-5 students, to entice more comfortable and interactive presentation sessions. As the session began, the student was positioned to the back corner of the classroom away from the other students, in what could be described as an avoidance position (cf. Dowling, 2007; McGrath, 2005). During the presentation process, she seemed less interested in listening to her table's presentations and more focused on her own materials but she took part in the discussions following the presentations. Her own performance was last and she was visibly anxious but ultimately managed well. She also received encouraging feedback from the table audience following her presentation and seemed relieved when the process was over.

In the written course feedback submitted online, "Mona" was very grateful for passing the presentation and the course and appreciated the tailored methods used on the course. She had found the process useful but suspected her problem of 'freezing' while speaking or presenting would persist. However, her experience on the course was positive and she found the support from the lecturer important in the process.

5 Conclusions

As the five student cases introduced in this study demonstrate, university students can suffer from a variety of anxiety issues in connection with their academic and field-specific language study. However, despite the varying conditions, ages or degree programmes, all students shared a common denominator: the lecturer. This highlights the role of the teacher in alleviating the language or performance anxiety experienced by students.

Similarly to the language learning classroom in other educational levels, also at university lecturers should foster a positive learning environment and to acknowledge the various skills levels and potential learning difficulties of their students. To ease anxiety, lecturers can try to build a friendly and encouraging learning environment in which they emphasise the role and importance of progress and improvement over perfect performance and present themselves as pedagogically aware instructors, intent on helping students with their learning (Chang, 2012; Ewald, 2007).

Pedagogical awareness also includes awareness of the effectiveness of different study and learning methods. Individual classroom accommodations such as working frequently in pairs and small groups has been found to be particularly beneficial for those suffering from language anxiety (Downing, 2007; McNamara, 2006). The co-operative element of learning can thus ease students' concerns as they receive peer support in their daily tasks and overall development, instead of being scrutinised and evaluated constantly in front of their peers. The overall concept of empathy towards the students, both as individuals and as a group, will support not only those with anxiety or learning difficulties, but all students. McKee and Scandrett (2016) have

shown that when lecturers, teachers and instructors show interest in the lives of their students and in their experiences and concerns, this connection will create a positive language learning environment. After all, academic support from the teacher is considered the most significant factor in alleviating language learning anxiety (Huang, Eslami & Hu, 2010).

In the end, students with social, emotional and behavioural issues can experience difficulties with their communication skills (McNamara, 2006), especially in connection with foreign language learning or use. In addition, a combination of performance anxiety and language anxiety can be a potent mixture of unease, apprehension and fear. This is frequently evident for instance in academic English courses where non-native students must deliver a presentation in front of their peers. For most students the situation creates some apprehension but for some with anxiety or other learning issues, the situation can seem next to impossible.

Therefore, language lecturers, instructors and teachers must strive to instigate positive classroom environments, emphasise their pedagogical expertise to promote acceptance of all learners and to support the learning process of all learning as individually as possible (Dörnyei, 2005). In this manner, lecturers can protect all students' motivation, encourage self-evaluation and ultimately create motivational conditions for language learning.

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Negotiating Participation in Second Language (L2) Academic Community: Asian Female Students' (Indonesian, Japanese, Chinese) Identities and Investments in a TEFL Post- Graduate Program

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Abstract
This study reports on a qualitative multiple case study that explored academic discourse socialisation of female Asian L2 learners in a British university. Grounded in the stereotype of "the shy Asian girls" (Bremer et al., 1996; Day, 2002; Lippi Green, 1997; Miller, 2003; Norton, 2000, 2001; Pon et al., 2003; Toohey, 2000; Yoon, 2007) that the Asian female students tend to be quiet, passive, timid, or indirect, the study examined how the female Asian L2 students negotiated their participation which related to their identity and investment construction in a new L2 academic communities, particularly in open-ended class discussions. The participants included 3 females graduate students from Asian countries (Indonesia, Japan, and Chinese) who have different language learning experiences and backgrounds. Interviews and classroom observations were collected over the entire 1st semester (3 months) to provide an in-depth analysis of the students' perspectives about their class participation in three different course and instructors. Three case studies illustrate that the students faced major challenges in negotiating language competence, identities development, and investment achievement. It was also implied that the stereotype of 'the shy Asian girl' is not a culture-based generalisation but was rather caused by situation specific. Feeling marginalised, inferior, less competent and the issue of racism was the situation which disadvantaged the Asian students to develop identity and achieve the investment in L2 classroom. This study has implications for pedagogy on how to stimulate international students' participation in L2 and how to promote equal opportunity in the classroom.

Keywords: Identity, Investment, Class participation, Asian learners, Silence, Academic community

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Introduction

In an attempt to critically conceptualise the relationship between language learning and culture, Norton and Toohey (2011) propose that learning is a social process in which culturally and historically situated participants engage in culturally valued activities, using cultural tools. In this relationship, target language (TL) or Second Language (L2) is one of the cultural tools which functions as for communication and/or medium of instructions when engaging in a new academic community as well as the social community. In a multicultural classroom, such as TEFL class that the author currently takes (the cultures from 3 Asian countries and 1 European; Indonesian, Japanese, Chinese and Slovak), L2 discourse acquisition by the culturally diverse classroom members seemed to be quite problematic. This insignificant linguistic or cultural learning may lead learners to discourse disengagement that result in silence and lack of participation. This notion may have grounded on newcomers to language communities may find that their participation is limited and that they are not embraced in the manner they had anticipated (Norton, 2000 as cited in Kinginger, 2009). Furthermore, the issue of L2 participation and socialisation is closely related to important issues such as identity, competence, power, access, and agency (Duff, 2002; Norton & Toohey, 2002). Concerning this, through the author observation in three classes of TEFL program in one of the Universities in Birmingham, United Kingdom, it was discovered that the students who tended to be less participating, silent and reticent, were the Asian. Compared to Pakistani, African, Arabian students in bigger classroom that involved more complex nationalities, the stereotype such as the "shy Asian girl" (Bremer et al., 1996; Day, 2002; Lippi Green, 1997; Miller, 2003; Norton, 2000, 2001; Pon et al., 2003; Toohey, 2000; Yoon, 2007 cited in Dooley, 2009) was relatively strengthened. However, in a more culturally homogenous class, in which consist of 90% Asian female students, the class seemed to be actively engaged in oral presentations, posing and answering questions. Indeed, a commonly held stereotype that Asians in general, and Asian women particularly, tend to be quiet, passive, timid, or indirect, did not always apply to the focal women, (Cheng, 2000; Takano, 2000 as cited in Morita, 2004). In relation to this, the connections are clear, Granger (2013) argues that it is between culture, ethnicity, and gender on one hand, and a classroom silence or verbosity on the other hand. Based on the author's personal experience as well as relevant research elaborated above, this mini-research will give the author a deeper insight into her initial hunches about the Asian women's participation related to their L2 identity and investment in new academic communities.

Literature Review

(Female) Asian students' participation in L2 Academic Community

Learners for some cultures and educations systems are viewed as performing reticent, passive and silent. Recent ESL literature has often reported that Asian L2 learners (especially East Asian such as China, Japan and Korea) are non-participating and silent. They are viewed as learners who hesitate to respond, never ask questions, shy and over-dependent on the teacher (Braddock et al., 1995; Jones et al., 1993; Tsui, 1996; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996 as cited in Cheng, 2003). Cheng (2000) reported the conclusion from Flowerdew and Miller (1995), Turner and Hiraga (1996), that reticent and passive behaviour results from certain cultural attributes of Asian

societies. This claim seems to be factual for a simple reason that the expectations on Asian students are to be "respectful and silent recipient[s] of the teacher's knowledge" (Jones, 1999). By the same token, it has been suggested that Asian students may regard asking questions as time-wasting and lacking consideration for other students (Milner & Quilty, 1996). However, Cheng (2000) is in opposition to these accusations and argues that "many Asian students do have a strong desire to participate in L2 classroom activities and are indeed observed to be quieter than expected in certain circumstances which caused by situation-specific rather than culturally pre-set" (p.435). This is to say that cultural attribute is not the only predictor of passive behaviour and reticent of learners, particularly for the Asian. In addition to this, gender has been also mentioned as one of the factors of silence, it is rather related to ethnicity, race or both as female students are often observed to participate orally much less than males (Morita, 2004; Jule, 2005). Nevertheless, the lack of confidence of female students due partly to the lack of opportunity engendered by teacher attitudes, as has been reported by Ellwood and Nakane (2009) that Australian teachers' reluctance to call on Japanese students because they were seen as silent when other students engaged in discussion, was rooted in stereotype.

Identity

Norton (2000) has theorised identity as multiple, a site of struggle, and subject to change. This theory examined the relationship between an L2 learner and the social world which establish across time and space, and how the learner understands the future possibilities. By the same token, it is the engagement of identity and negotiation when a language learner interacts in the L2, either orally or in written mode. Furthermore, Norton (2000) claims that the idea of identity should focus on the power relation of the language learner and the second/target language (TL/L2) speakers. To better able understand the relationship between identity and power, it is mentioned that power is not a fixed, pre-determined quantity, but can be mutually generated in interpersonal and intergroup relations (Norton, 2000). In other words, the power relation can oblige the various range of identities that the L2 learners can negotiate in their academic communities.

Motivation to Investment

In the field of Second Language Learning (SLL), the concept of motivation has been a complex phenomenon. One of the most influential concepts introduced into Second Language (SLA) is the instrumental and integrative motivation concepts by Gardner and Lambert (1972). According to these notable researchers, the instrumental motivation is a desire to learn target language for immediate or practical goals such as money, praise from teacher etc. Whereas the integrative motivation has been defined as personal growth and cultural enrichment through successful integration with the target language community, for instance, someone does the homework with awareness that the knowledge could be useful for his/her future career.

On the contrary, the concept of motivation proposed by Gardner and lambert (1972) was not in line with findings of Norton's research (Norton Pierce, 1995; Norton, 2000). She found out that the concept was not reliable to describe the complex relationship between identities and language learning in her research with immigrant women in Canada. Provided that, she proposed the conception of 'investment', which

has been informed by her reading primarily in social theory. Norton's conception of investment that is inspired by the work of Bourdieu (1977), signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of the learners to the target language and their sometimes-ambivalent desire to learn and practice it (Norton Pierce, 1995). She took the position that if learners invest in the target language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will, in turn, increase the value of their cultural capital—economic analogy.

Methodology

Research Questions

The data analysis and interpretation were guided by the sets of questions as follow:

1. How do the female Asian students from 3 different cultures (Indonesian, Japanese, Chinese) negotiate identities and investment in new L2 academic communities?
2. To what extent do these negotiations confirm or dispel the stereotype of 'The Shy Asian Girl'? in other words, what voices lie behind the stereotype?

Methods

This study was grounded in an interpretive tradition to look at perceptions, feelings, ideas, thoughts, actions as heard or observed (Oakley, 2000 as loosely adapted in Thomas, 2013) where the researcher aimed to be an insider, interacting with participants. It employed an ethnographic case study approach to seek depth rather than breadth in its scope and analysis which its goal is not to universalize but to particularise and then yield insights of potentially wider relevance and theoretical significance (Duff, 2012). Furthermore, the study documented the participants' thoughts, feelings and efforts which were altering, revealing their attempts and struggles towards their social world.

Context and Participants

This study was undertaken at one of Top-Leading Universities in the United Kingdom which located in Birmingham. Drawing on Friedman (2012) that the site and participants are selected in accordance with specified criteria, or a sample of convenience, in which they are selected because they are accessible to the researcher, therefore, the author selected the participants who were the author's females' classmates in TEFL program. They are of Indonesian, Japanese and Chinese origin respectively. In this case, the author initially did select her classmates from three different cultures because they simply represent Asian cultures that embody three different traditions, backgrounds and thoughts which are related to the topic of this study. Table 1 provides a more detailed overview of the 3 students.

Table 1. Overview of Case Study Participants

	DEWI	MAKI	LING LING
Program	MA in TEFL	MA in TEFL	MA in TEFL
Age	23	42	22
Gender	Female	Female	Female
First Language	Bahasa Indonesia	Japanese	Mandarin Chinese
Previous degrees	BA in English Education	BA in English Education	BA in English Literature
Professional experience	High school teacher of EFL in Indonesia (8 months)	High school teacher of EFL in Japan (15 years)	None
Previous experience in the UK	None	Joined student exchange program in Epsom, London, the UK in 1996 (4 weeks)	None
Plan after graduating	Study at doctoral level at the same University or at any other University in the UK	Go back to current teaching job in Japan	Look for a teaching job or any kinds of job in the UK that can possibly improve her English language learning

Data Collection

The data were collected from the participants' participation in the L2 academic community which constituted TEFL program classroom. Multiple data collection was obtained from open-ended discussion session as a whole class as well as smaller scope discussion such as group discussion. My goal is to view this case from several points which are better than viewing from one so that it required triangulation where more than one method is used to collect the data (Denzin, 1978 as cited in Thomas, 2013). First, the observational field notes were taken from unstructured observation since the author immerse herself in the situation in to understand what is going on there. The observation was taken from some of the courses on a weekly basis almost for the entire 1st semester (24 lectures in 3 courses; 3 hours per lecture, 216 hours of observation in total). Second, to complete the data collection in this study, a semi-structured interview was conducted personally to the participants in one to one basis (3 interviews; approximately 50 minutes each). The interview had a list of issues in the form of questions which the author wanted to cover, however, those issues are flexible, rather a reminder of what the author intended to cover. The hallmark of the semi-structure interview is that the author can ask and prolong the discussion on a point if she/he wish to know more (Thomas, 2013).

Data Analysis

In following a tradition in qualitative research, the research used inductive analysis of data from a small set of participants. The semi-structured interviews of these three participants were analysed to address their participation incorporating identity and investment in the TEFL program. In addition to the coding of these interviews, the field notes of classroom observation and the researcher's diary were also reviewed multiple times and coded inductively with focus on identity and investment through classroom participation.

Result and Discussion

Asian Females' Identities and Investment Negotiation in the Classroom

In analysing the data, it became clear that the major challenge for the Asian female students in this research was negotiating competence, identities and power relation so that they could participate as a member of the classroom in each course in TEFL program. The participants experienced various ways of negotiations depend on the classroom situation of the course they were attending as well as on their personal history, goals and values. In this research, I focus on the negotiation of competence, identity and investment which seemed to be the dominant issue to the students' experiences in these three different courses in TEFL program.

It was found out that all participants negotiated participation differently in each course during the 1st semester (3 months). However, they had confessed that their participation was insignificant. The reason for this inconsiderable participation related with the shifted identity of each participant that influenced by investment in each course in this TEFL program. In the course A, for instance, the composition of students was culturally nearly homogenous. Composed of 90% Asian female students which constituted a smaller size of class (30 students), the participants in this course feel more comfortable to participate and successfully gained their identity as 'equally competent' with the others, rather than in heterogeneous class which involved native speaking students. In addition to this, the instructor pedagogical teaching in course A who was viewed as thoughtful and considerate also became a major investment for the participants to gain confidence in participating. The identity is given by the instructor course A by addressing students with their names, apparently stimulated confidence, that the students felt truly appreciated and accepted as part of the classroom community.

> "I think it's because she knows everybody's name, she gives identity to us in this class like you feel you belong to this class. So I can express myself. (Lingling, December 15th, 2016 from interview)

Unlike in course A, the most of the participants in course B felt more pressure which led to the lack of participation and silence. One of the reasons was caused by the composition of the classroom members. In course B, the students were more culturally heterogeneous. The course involved 60 students which constituted larger size of the classroom with mixed nationalities. Apart from the Asian, British, American, Canadian, Indian, Pakistani, and Arabian students also attended the course. With this more complex nationality involved in the L2 classroom, these Asian students who perceived their L2 as imperfect, cannot achieve the return on their investment. Given that, they hesitated to participate because they were afraid of being judged by their L2 native speaking classmates who looked them down and seemed unfriendly

> "There is a Canadian girl because she looked not very friendly of course they did try to speak to me and, I try to and we talked but the conversation didn't go very well. Yeah in course A I don't mind (participating), but depends on the people that is sitting there and maybe it's because of those people speaking English and very proficient maybe I will I be a bit hesitate

> to speak English because I don't want them, because my English not perfect sometimes I feel very afraid to even if I like talking with people you know very well" (Maki, December 15th, 2016 from interview)
>
> "sometimes into other classes you have a lot of Native speakers they can understand lesson in one second and then they can absorb in one second and then the teacher goes to another topic even when you cannot understand the last questions they will move to another question it's very stressful" (Lingling, December 15th, 2016 from interview)

The students from English speaking countries who were assumed as L2 highly proficient, were to blame as the obstructers to their identity acquisition because they think that the instructor practised discrimination and marginalised the Asian. Lingling confessed that the instructor also chose which group of students to be taught to and left the others who are non-English speaker behind.

> "I think the lecturers just make contact with them and I think like me, I have language barrier student, where we are left by the teachers and also by the classroom we cannot get something useful from this classroom, yes because I found one teacher but I don't what want to tell you who, she sometimes only focus on the native speakers students maybe the English native speakers students are smarter but I think teachers have to teach everyone" (Lingling, December 15th, 2016 from interview)

Therefore, even if the students were highly motivated to learn, they did not seem to get the return of what they have invested in this course, then they were likely to see the course as useless. Their identities as "the forgotten" ones are strengthened in this typical classroom where the instructor consciously or unconsciously marginalise some group who were viewed as "hard to teach" or "the silent when the others engaged". Furthermore, this course was taught by several different instructors who had different personalities and diverse pedagogical teaching in its weekly meeting. This might be caused by the curricular requirements that were imposed by the University as one of the institutional policies. However, this set of different lecturers disadvantaged the students with imperfect English in terms of adapting to a certain instructor pedagogical teaching. Different instructors in this course implied different teaching method, English accent, personalities, assessment and further the investment which cause the Asian student's identity shifted from time to time.

However, in course C, although the classroom was big in size, all participants from this study confessed that they felt less pressure and more comfortable. The composition of classroom members was culturally mixed likewise in course B. They were more eager to participate in the group discussion rather than in whole class discussion because of the assistance of the instructor who would supervise to each table when the discussion was in progress. In addition to this, the course content was regarded as not too demanding since it was related to the daily topics such as stress, time management, assertiveness and others which reflected the students' daily experiences. Furthermore, the instructor teaching method was also acknowledged as total and well prepared that made them more serious in learning. They explained that it is important to be comfortable and feel secure, one of the ways is by sitting with

people that they know well, friendly and unlikely to judge them. It is then told that when the people on the table were not familiar, they were unlikely to participate.

Voices lie behind the stereotype 'The Shy Asian Girl'

Dewi was 23 years old and came to UK funded by the Ministry of Education of her country to pursue the MA degree. She was graduated cum laude from English educational program and had 8 months teaching experience. She came to the UK with a strong motivation to learn about language education and improve her English accent. Prior to her arrival, she was expecting to speak English a lot in university as well as during TEFL program that she attended. The fact that in course A all the students were from Asian countries, did not meet her initial expectation in communication. She was disappointed and thought that the return for her investment in this course would not be achieved as she found out that the other Asian students in course A also faced the same L2 difficulties like she did. The reason why she did not participate and became silent in course A, B and C were not merely because of the fear of judgement as "not competent" from instructors or her classmates, but because she thought that it was not that necessary to ask when she could still find the answer from the handbook or simply just asked to her friends. She asked or answered questions when it was really needed. She mentioned that this was her learning method she found convenient. Rather than maintaining participation in the courses in TEFL program, Dewi invested a lot outside the classroom-based community by joining debate club, becoming a student representative, volunteering teaching student grade A level and so on.

Maki, a 42-year-old, came to the UK for the second time. 20 years ago, she joined a student exchange program in Epsom, London for 4 weeks. However, when she came back to the UK for Master degree, she was unconfident with her English competent and feel afraid to speak openly in course B and C. She claimed that it was her introverted personality which made her feel extremely nervous if she had to speak in front of people she did not know very well. She bluntly confessed that it was difficult to follow the fast-paced discussion on topics in course B and C since the instructors themselves speak English fast, whereas she needed time to digest some words that she might not be familiar with. However, even though in some courses she did not achieve the return on the investment, socially, she tried a lot to be accepted as a part of a community

Lingling is a 22-year-old Chinese girl and freshly graduated from English Literature program in China. The same case with Dewi, Lingling was also disappointed finding out that her classmates mostly came from the same country as hers. She regretted that her Chinese classmates used to speak Chinese in the discussion and questioned why they came to the UK if they still spoke L1 in L2 classroom. She did not participate in course B and C as much as she did in course A. She mentioned that she was afraid of being judged by those "unfriendly" native speakers that seemed not having interest in anything about her. She thought that she was not a fool or unintelligent when she was unable to speak English L2 well, she was just unfamiliar with the language. This unfriendliness and unfamiliarity contributed to her silence so that she could not participate and express what she was thinking comfortably. In fact, in these courses she was complete silence in an open-ended discussion session, yet, still tried to convey her opinion in group discussion. However, her disappointment in course A of

not having native speakers' classmates turned out to be an advantage because she apparently 'felt like home' being in a class filled with the Asian students. She reasoned that people from Asia had the same way of thinking and lifestyle although they speak different languages.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

In this study, I have explored the participants' participation negotiation in relation to their identity and investment. It was concluded that the participants developed various identities in different courses. In a course which was culturally homogenous, with the instructor who actively encouraged the students to get engaged with the classroom discourse such as course A, the participants developed identities as the real learners so that they could participate in a less pressure situation. Meanwhile, in the courses which were more heterogeneous with some native speakers involved such as course B and C, they completely silent in open discussion, yet still tried to participate in group discussion. In these courses, they developed an identity as less competent and marginalised member of the classroom. Moreover, the marginalisation practised by the instructors in course B made participating even more difficult for them. Given these points, the returns of their investments in different courses were achieved variously. Ling-ling and Maki could get the return of their investment in course A because the instructor was favourable and the classroom situation was less stressed than course B and C. However, Dewi thought that the homogenous class was not a good investment for her language learning since she was not forced to speak L2 in a culturally Asian classroom. Therefore, she invested outside the classes by actively joining clubs and becoming a student representative. It was also implied that the stereotype of 'the shy Asian girl' is not a culture-based generalisation but it was rather caused by situation specific. Feeling marginalised, inferior, less competent and the issue of racism was the situation which disadvantaged the Asian students to develop identity and achieve the investment in L2 classroom of TEFL program.

This study has implications for pedagogy on how to stimulate international students' participation in L2 and how to develop equal opportunity in the classroom. Instructors/teachers/lecturers/educators should be aware of the L2 classroom situation and indicate the students with difficulties in following the lesson or understanding the content. The classroom community should give the L2 learners opportunities to express themselves as the member of the community by creating friendly and less pressure classroom discourse so that they will be able to get the return on their investment and develop their identity as the real learners who participate and engaged in classroom activities. This is to say that native speaking students or even instructors are not simply the dominant group, target, or norm but groups of peripheral participants who also need to be socialised into increasingly heterogeneous communities (Lave & Wenger, 1991, as cited in Morita, 2004). This study suggests the instructor to be more active in encouraging students in the L2 classroom by ignoring their cultural/personal preferences, but to perceptively identify how the students shaped or being shaped by classroom interaction.

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Authentic Situation Video Clips Enhance Learners' English Writing

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Abstract
Authentic situation video clips can motivate students' enthusiasm and enhance students' language skills. This study investigated the effect of authentic situation video clips as teaching tools on students' English writing. One hundred and forty-nine participants from two groups who enrolled in the English Writing for Careers course at Burapha University in 2016 were assigned to watch five authentic situation video clips acted by their teacher independently on the class Facebook page. They took midterm and final examinations that incorporated components from the video clips. These examinations tested the students' English writing skills. Their average midterm and final examinations' scores were compared to show their English writing progress. The results showed that the average final exam scores (71.11%) was a little higher than that of the midterm scores (69.5%). Other, less tangible benefits included students' increased motivation, enthusiasm, involvement in the learning processes, and benefiting from online peer feedback. The study has important implications for L2 writing teachers and material developers.

Keywords: authentic situation video clips; English writing skill; students' motivation.

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Introduction

Authentic situation video clips acted out by a teacher can be interesting and beneficial teaching material. The clips may excite students because they are usually interested in their teachers. This motivates students' enthusiasm and enhances students' language skills. In this study, we consider the effect of authentic situation video clips as teaching tools on students' English writing.

Background literature

Jefferson (2008) Written communication is important in the work place for three reasons. First of all, it enables readers to read and study at their convenience. The second aspect is that it can be permanently recorded for future reference. Lastly, it is a good way to transmit information to others.

Workplace writing is a kind of genre. Each genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and contains choice of content and style. (Swale, 1990)

Writing for particular purposes in a Writing for Careers course includes topics like writing curricula vitae or resumes, emails, or complaints. These topics should be taught using organizational structure and linguistic features.

Lave and Wagner (1994) compared the characteristics of school-based learning activities to authentic activities and suggested that school activities are very different to real-life problem solving activities.

The researcher noted that authentic situation video clips can motivate language learning, be more meaningful learning environment, and create a communicative English language learning environment.

Methodology

Five authentic situation video clips acted out by the researcher (the instructor) were used as teaching tools in the English Writing for Careers course, and all students in the class experienced activities that could be applied in their real lives.

These five video clips were posted on the group Facebook page set up for the class during the fifteen weeks of the course. All one hundred and forty-nine students enrolled in the English Writing for Careers course. They watched all clips at their convenience and interacted with their peers via Facebook. All clips were acted out by their instructor (the researcher). The situations in all clips happened in the instructor's real life, and they could happen in students' future daily lives.

The midterm and final examination scores were compared to check the progress of students' English writing skill.

Results

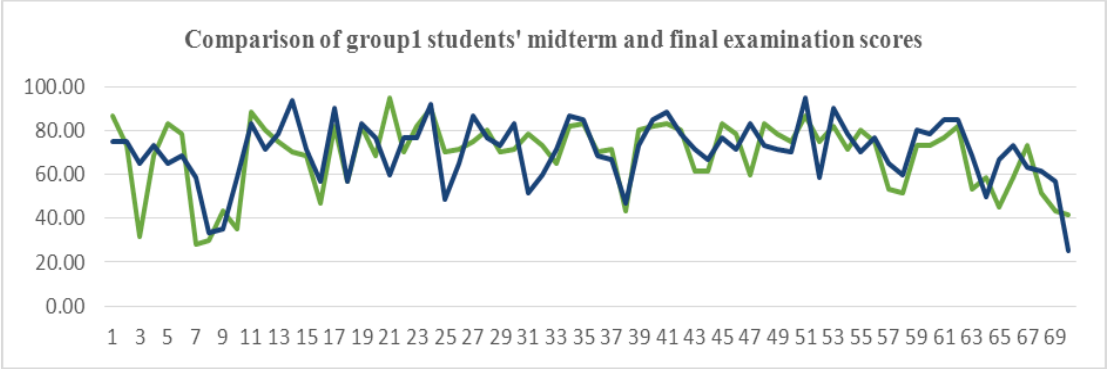

Figure 1: Comparison of group 1 students' midterm and final examination scores

Figure 1 shows a comparison between the average midterm and final scores of the participants in group 1. The blue line shows that the final score is little higher that the midterm score.

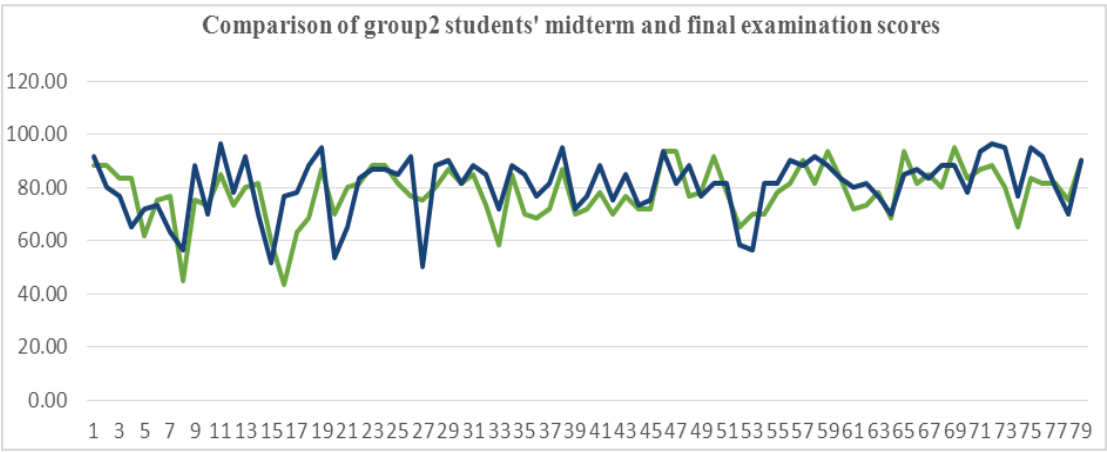

Figure 2: Comparison of group 2 students' midterm and final examination scores

Figure 2 shows that the average final score (the blue line) was higher than the average midterm score (the green line) for the participants in group 2.

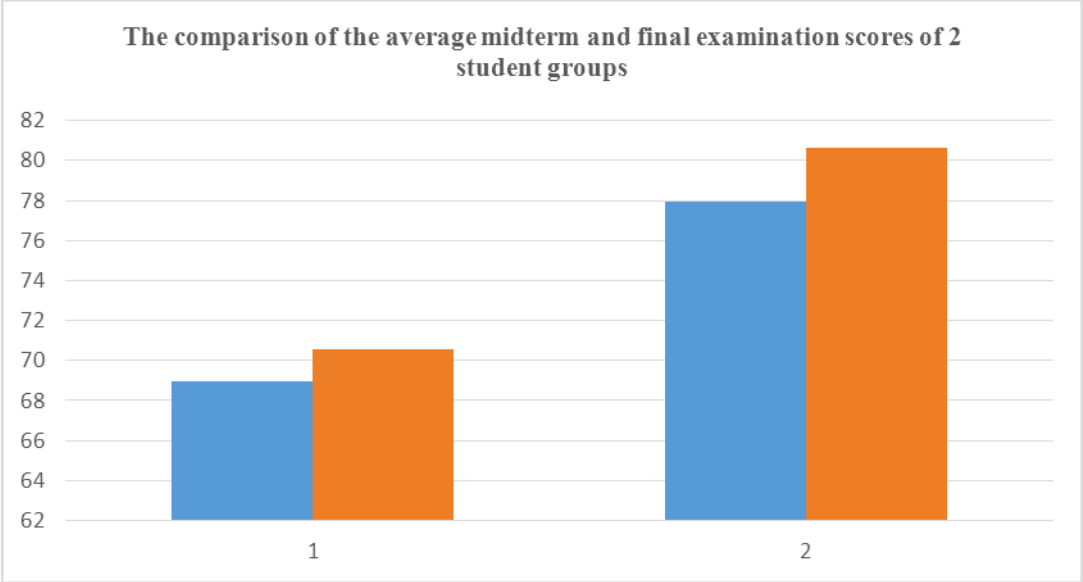

Figure 3: Comparison of the average midterm and final examination scores of 2 student groups

Figure 3 shows the progress of the participants' writing skills in groups 1 and 2 from the comparison of the average score of participants' midterm and final scores.

The results showed that the participants have made progress in writing. Although the results showed a little progress in their writing, the data from the individual interviews and student comments on the class Facebook page confirmed that they were highly motivated and actively involved in the lessons and activities.

Discussion

As stated earlier, the students' writing skills improved after the use of authentic situation video clips acted out by the researcher (the instructor). This could be due to the authentic materials. Authentic materials are materials that are expected to have some use other than language learning. (Gardner and Miller, 1999)

Woottipong (2014) claimed that authentic materials are useful for foreign language teaching with a number of benefits. They activate students' background knowledge of the world, give examples of real-life communication in real situations and atmosphere. They also contribute to language acquisition and help focus on the language skills that students actually need. Kuimova and Zvekov (2016) concluded that it is not like an audio or printed text because they are highly informative and educational. The video consists of variety of speech aspects: content, visual information about places and events, appearance and non-verbal behavior of the person who is in a real situation.

The authentic situation video clips stimulate students' enthusiasm because they are the real situations in daily life they may experience. They are interested and feel comfortable to watch them. As they watch them, they acquire language learning skill.

The result of the research showed a small but measurable improvement (3%) in average students' scores between the midterm and final examinations. But this is only part of the picture. Student feedback in the classroom and on the Facebook page showed substantial improvement in enthusiasm, engagement with the materials, motivation and interest in the topic. Taking all of these factors into account, it can be concluded that authentic situation video clips can significantly improve learners' writing skills over time.

Conclusion

This action research was conducted to examine the effect of authentic situation video clips as teaching tools on students' English writing. It was revealed that although it made a little progress in the participants' writing skills, the participants' motivation level was highly impacted. I can conclude that teaching writing through authentic situation video clips enables students to write better. One reason is that the authentic situation video clips were based on real-life situations involving a teacher who they know. Students feel more comfortable with their teacher and they are excited. The findings have important implications for L2 writing instructors and material developers.

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A Critical Review of Three Current Cantonese Textbooks Published for Teaching Cantonese for Mandarin Speakers in Hong Kong

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Abstract
Despite the growing importance of Mandarin, Cantonese has not died out in Mainland China. There are at least over 66 million Cantonese speakers in the world, and Cantonese is classified as a language in need of preservation. The dialect is still the primary language used in Hong Kong, and spoken in the Chinese communities in Asia and overseas countries (Kovacs, 2015; Lee and Leung, 2012; Wong, 2011; Chey, 2015). Recently, there has been a rising demand for Cantonese courses in Hong Kong by students, visitors and immigrants from Mainland China. This group of learners is very different from the non-Chinese learners in their cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Nevertheless, there has been very limited research conducted on teaching Cantonese for Mandarin speakers in the field of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL). In view of the developmental trend towards a more "conversational," "situational," "contextual" and "functional" teaching approach in TCFL (Lee, 2004, pp. 83-84), this paper aims to review critically the teaching materials and teaching approaches presented in three Cantonese textbooks published in the 2010s in terms of the current pedagogical methods. The three Cantonese textbooks studied were edited and published in Hong Kong respectively by Wu in 2011; Zheng, Zhang and Gao in 2014; and Kong in 2014. In addition to evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of these current Cantonese textbooks, the paper will also explore how the materials can be used and supplemented to teach elementary Cantonese courses more effectively to Mandarin speakers.

Keywords: current Cantonese textbooks published in Hong Kong, Cantonese teaching pedagogy

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Background of the study

Despite the growing importance of Mandarin, Cantonese has not died out in Mainland China. According to the research and interviews conducted by US-China Today in 2016, the rise of Mandarin has been exaggerated, and Cantonese is still "influential and relevant. The voice to protect the local culture by Hong Kong people only reinforces them to use the language more (Harbeck, 2016). There are at least over 66 million Cantonese speakers in the world, and Cantonese is classified as a language in need of preservation. The dialect is still the primary language used in Hong Kong, and spoken in the Chinese communities in Asia and overseas countries. Recently, there has been a rising demand for Cantonese courses in Hong Kong by students, visitors and immigrants from Mainland China. This group of learners is very different from the foreign learners in their cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Nevertheless, there has been very limited research conducted on teaching Cantonese for Mandarin speakers in the field of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL).

Purposes of the study

In view of the developmental trend towards a more "conversational," "situational," "contextual" and "functional" teaching approach in TCFL (Lee, 2004, pp. 83-84), this study aims to review critically the teaching materials and teaching approaches presented in three Cantonese textbooks published in Hong Kong in the 2010s in terms of the current pedagogical methods. The three Cantonese textbooks studied were edited and published in Hong Kong respectively by Wu in 2011; Zheng, Zhang and Gao in 2014; and Kong in 2014. The study will evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of these three current Cantonese textbooks. It will also explore how the materials can be used and supplemented to teach elementary Cantonese courses more effectively to those who speak Mandarin as their mother tongue. The paper is divided into five parts. First is the introduction to the background and purpose of the study, as presented above. Second is a review of Kong's (2014), Zheng's (2014) and Wu's (2011) work respectively. Following the book review section is a comparison and contrast of the three current Cantonese textbook reviewed. After that is the evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of the three Cantonese textbooks examined. Finally is to provide suggestions on how the teaching materials of the three textbooks can be used and supplemented to teach the language more effectively to Mandarin speakers. The following first provides a brief review of Kong's (2014) book.

A brief review of Kong's (2014) *Elementary Cantonese*

Kong's *Elementary Cantonese* (*初學廣東話*) was published by Wanli Jigou-Wanli Shudian in 2014 in Hong Kong. In the preface of the book, Kong (2014) mentions the purpose of writing the book and its intended target readers. She states that the book is intended and tailored-made for those who come from Mainland China and speak Mandarin as their mother tongue. It aims to introduce to them the language, life style and local culture of Hong Kong people, and to enhance their interest in learning Cantonese for daily communication in Hong Kong (p.3). The book introduces the phonetics, lexis, and syntax of Cantonese systematically. She particularly points out a few specific characteristics of Cantonese that make it different from Mandarin. First, there are many colloquial words in Cantonese that are not easy to understand for Mandarin speakers; for example, "傾偈" (聊天)，"飲筒" （吸管)， "火牛" (變壓

器) . Second, Hong Kong Cantonese is influenced greatly by English. It has its special style; for example, transliterations of English words are used such as “巴士” (bus) “多士” (toast), “士多啤梨” (strawberry) . Third, Hong Kong Cantonese is influenced less by Mandarin in the way Guangzhou Cantonese is. Misunderstanding is always caused by vocabulary that have specific meaning in Mandarin such as “主食,” (meaning rice, bread, noodles type of dry food); “改簽” (meaning to change the ticket). Fourth, there is vocabulary commonly mispronounced by the Mainlanders because of the interference of Mandarin sound system such as “幸福” is mispronounced as “辛苦”, “一個杯” as “一個碑”, and “歐洲” as “澳洲.” Finally, there is Cantonese vocabulary specially created by Hong Kong people such as “叻” (meaning intelligent), “慳” (to save), “𠸎” (lift), “諗” (think), “嘅” (the same as 的), “啲” (something), “嘢” (thing, matter). As for the Pinyin system, the book adopts the pinyin system introduced in the *Dictionary of Cantonese Sounds* (*廣州音字典*) edited by Rao Bing-cai 饒秉才 (Kong, 2014, p.3).

There are altogether sixteen chapters in Kong’s (2014) book, each focuses on a specific daily life topic. The sixteen topics covered in the book include numbers, bargaining for prices, self-introduction, shopping, asking questions, making phone calls, taking a bus, shopping in the supermarket, making order in a restaurant. As regards the contents and structure of Kong’s *Elementary Cantonese* (初學廣東話), each chapter of the book basically employs a similar structure as outlined below:

1. Passage
2. Vocabulary
3. Life in Hong Kong
4. Grammar (lexis, syntax)
5. Expression habits (common daily life habitual expressions)
6. Comparisons of Cantonese and Mandarin (lexis and sounds)
7. Phonetics (vowels and consonants)
8. Exercises (drilling on tones, pronunciation of individual sounds and phrases, phonetic transcription by listening to the audio, complete information gap activities)

Kong’s (2014) work has the following characteristics which distinguish it from the two other Cantonese textbooks studied. First, the book uses simpler vocabulary which targets at those zero beginners who have little prior background in Cantonese. Each chapter contains a short passage of about eight to fifteen lines between two speakers. Following that is a vocabulary list of about 30 phrases used in the passage. The vocabulary is explained side by side with its corresponding pinyin and a Mandarin equivalent for reference. The passages are longer in later chapters with more than twenty lines each and the vocabulary lists expand accordingly in later chapters. The vocabulary introduced is usually two-character expressions used in different daily life situations.

Second, there is much emphasis on cultural knowledge. The book introduces a lot of culture topics about Hong Kong. Other than the language, it describes interesting culture elements in every chapter such as festivals in Hong Kong, respect for privacy, taboo words, interesting street names, animal metaphors used derogatively in

describing humans, a shopping paradise, Hong Kong weather, transportation in Hong Kong, vegetarian food, relations with relatives and a food paradise. Learners are learning a lot of culture subjects related to history and the society at the time when they are learning the language.

Third, there is also a heavy emphasis on colloquialism. The book introduces a lot of colloquial expressions used for daily communication; for example, the words used specially to describe money and cash in Hong Kong (p.31). It pays particular emphasis on words mixed with English commonly used in Hong Kong such as "努力 keep fit", "keep 住新材唔好走樣" (p.83), and words pronounced similarly but expressed differently in different characters between Cantonese and Mandarin such as "餛飩" in Mandarin versus "雲吞" in Cantonese.

Fourth, there is a great proportion of material on phonetics. There is much emphasis on learning the phonetic knowledge as revealed from the exercises outlined at the end of each chapter. Exercises include drilling practice on tones, identification and categorization of the Cantonese vowels and consonants, filling out the blanks in Cantonese words according to the pinyin given, transcription of the sounds after listening to the audios, etc.

A review of Zheng's (2014) *Hong Kong Cantonese Course* (Revised Edition)

Zheng's (2014) *Hong Kong Cantonese Course*（*香港話 粵語教程*） was published by Joint Publishing (H.K.) Company Limited in April 2014. In the preface of the book, Li Jia-shu mentions that *Hong Kong Cantonese Course* is intended for those who would like to learn Hong Kong Cantonese. There has been a long history in teaching and learning Cantonese in Hong Kong. But in the past, most learners were foreigners who lived and worked in Hong Kong. Therefore, the learning materials were mostly designed for this group of learners to meet their needs. In recent years, with close contact between the Mainland and Hong Kong, and with more and more immigrants coming from China to Hong Kong, the learners of Cantonese have been shifted from foreigners in the past to the Mainlanders who speak Mandarin as their mother tongue. The book targets at this specific group of learners.

According to Li (2014), because of different exposures between Hong Kong and Guangzhou, there are obvious differences between the two languages in terms of their phonetics, lexis and grammar. *Hong Kong Cantonese Course* was written on the basis of the development of Hong Kong Cantonese. There is much emphasis on translation between Mandarin and Cantonese as reference in the book. Compared to the existing teaching and learning materials of Cantonese, Zheng's book is more appropriate for teaching and learning Cantonese in the Hong Kong context. Li comments that the topic of every passage of the book is appropriate. In addition, there are Cantonese and Mandarin translations for cross-reference, explanations of Cantonese phonetics, lexis, and syntax as the learning materials. The passages included in the book are all created from daily social contexts. This can help learners understand better Hong Kong culture at the same time when they are learning the language.

Li (2014) comments further that the book integrates both linguistic and cultural knowledge as a whole. It aims to enhance the cultural awareness of the Mainland people in learning Cantonese. In order to master the language effectively, they must

be sensitive to the cultural differences between Hong Kong and China. In some chapters of the book, there is a special section on basic social language used in different communicative situations for different purposes. This reveals further the practical orientation of the book. It also systematically introduces the phonetics of Cantonese, different types of Cantonese vocabulary and the syntactic structures of the language. The book employs the pinyin system of Cantonese (廣州話拼音方案) developed in 1960 by the Education Bureau of Guangzhou.

Regarding the structure of Zheng's (2014) *Hong Kong Cantonese Course*, the book consists of three parts with a total of 30 chapters. Every chapter begins with a short daily life conversation with a corresponding line by line pinyin. It is then followed by a Mandarin translation of the text for reference. The daily life topics introduced include shopping (chapter 6), weather (chapter 8), opening a bank account (chapter 11), Hong Kong clean up (chapter 15), jumping to another job (chapter 18), Ocean Park (chapter 23), Ladies' Market (chapter 27), about immigration (chapter 30), etc. The topics progress from more individual to social contexts from earlier to later chapters. This helps learners understand better different facets of the Hong Kong society and culture. Following the passage, there are explanations of the main vocabulary used in the conversation and expanded vocabulary. The latter is further related vocabulary used in a similar context of the given passage. Each chapter basically follows a similar structure as outlined below:

1. Passage
2. Vocabulary in focus
3. Phonetics and syntactic structures
4. Interesting Cantonese anecdotes
5. Language used in social situations
6. Exercises
7. Identification of Cantonese characters
8. Listening tasks
9. Short prose reading

Zheng's (2014) work also possesses unique characteristics that distinguish it from the other two books reviewed. Firstly, it is the most detailed among the three Cantonese textbooks studied in providing the explanations of lexis, phonetic and syntactic structures The book is informative and academic, and it is a resourceful reference for Cantonese research. It provides very detailed explanations of daily life expressions, phonetics, parts of speech and syntactic structures. For lexis, the book provides detailed information such as differentiation of pairs of daily life phrases that appear to be similar but in fact very different in meanings such as "早晨" versus "早啱", "搵" versus "找", "行開咗" versus "走開了." For grammatical structures, it covers parts of speech and grammatical components such as the verb "行," numerative "零," interrogative "定係," preposition "同," locative phrase with the affix "邊," modal particle at the end of a clause such as "嘅," directional complement "出," "入"; and sentence patterns such as "……到死," "好似……嘅," "有冇……先?," "都係……好啲." For phonetics, in addition to explaining different vowels and consonants, and identifying different tones, there are explanations of the entering tones in Cantonese (入聲字). For syntactic structures, it includes the core features of Cantonese such as pronouns (呢、嗰、邊), interrogatives, ditransitive construction, comparatives,

quantifiers “多” and “少” following a verb, negation, verb-result structure (動補結構), sentence connectors, idiomatic phrases, cultural words, four-character words, morphemes, loan words, etc.

Secondly, there is a strong emphasis on colloquialism and cultural elements. Zheng’s (2014) work describes many Cantonese anecdotes related to the origin of Cantonese, time, quantifiers such as “粒” , “孖”, typhoons, food and eat culture, the origin of Lion Rock Hill, Hong Kong money, job hunting, crimes, and colloquial words such as “髀,” “有冇搞錯,”, “生性”, “沙塵”, “阿燦”, “八卦,” “執生,” “颱風,” “辛苦”, etc.

Thirdly, there is an emphasis on the social functions of language. The book devotes a particular section from chapters 11 to 30 on language used in different social situations including expressing requests, preferences, likes, beliefs, agreements, complaints, regrets, apologies, possibilities, doubts, compliments, guesses, advice, consolation. This shows that the book puts emphasis on helping learners to master the language used in different social situations.

Fourthly, there is an emphasis on phonetics, pronunciation practice and speaking tasks. In every chapter, there are exercises designed to help learners review the materials learned in the lesson. The exercises pay much attention to the review of phonetics, pronunciation practice and speaking tasks. The exercises at the end of every chapter usually include identification of the Cantonese characters according to their pinyin provided, transcription of the Cantonese characters into their pinyin, differentiation of consonants such as (h & s) and vowels such as (eo & ou), and pronunciation of different sounds. There are also translation exercises, information gap activities, listening tasks, questions and answers in simple daily situations to help learners understand the language better and engage them to do more speaking practice.

Wu’s（2011）*Elementary Cantonese* (*Fast-track course*)

Wu’s（2011）*Elementary Cantonese* (*Fast-track course*)（*粵語速成* ） was published by Commercial Press in Hong Kong in 2011. In the preface of the book, Wu (2011) mentions that they adopt a pragmatic approach within a sociolinguistic framework to teaching Chinese as a Second Language since most learners aim to use the language they learn in real life situations. There are a total of three books in the series of Cantonese course books developed by the Yale-China Chinese Language Center of the Chinese University. Elementary Cantonese belongs to Category 1: Fast track program. It is designed for Putonghua or Cantonese learners of different cultural backgrounds who want to take short courses to master the language quickly because of various reasons.

In the introduction to the book, Wu (2011) mentioned that *Fast Track Elementary Cantonese is* tailored made for those who speak Mandarin as their mother tongue. It contains a series of three books. The book aims to improve the proficiency of beginners in learning Cantonese. It uses a lot of daily life situations, practical vocabulary, lively discourse, conversation practice, and intensive pronunciation practice as teaching and learning materials. The book adopts the Yale pinyin transcription system. It also provides comparisons of Cantonese and Mandarin

examples for reference. The phonetics exercises focus on drilling those difficult sounds in Cantonese.

The book adopts a "situation and functions" framework in designing the contents. It aims to train students to use appropriate language for different purposes in specific contexts. This can be achieved through the design of effective teaching plans, teaching materials, learning activities and assessments. The book uses colloquial language in all short and long texts taught in every chapter. Conversation practice is all situated in specific contexts to strengthen pronunciation training. (Introduction, p. x)

For the contents of the book, the book encompasses daily life topics and public speaking skills in different social situations. It progresses from easier to more difficult topics and contains various social functions including introduction, inquiry, providing information, description, exposition, complaining, comparison, giving advice, The book contains ten chapters. The topics include self-introduction, campus activities, eating in the canteen, go shopping, entertainment, Hong Kong weather, introducing my home, visiting a doctor, introducing Hong Kong, lives in Hong Kong. Every chapter consists of the following parts:

Part 1 – Passage
Every chapter contains a conversation between two or more people in a specific daily life situation. Each chapter is provided with the Yale pinyin to assist students to learn the text. The Yale Cantonese pinyin, a Cantonese written text, and its Mandarin translation are outlined clearly and correspondingly in three different columns on a page for clarity. By so doing, the reader will be less likely to be distracted by the interference of the column of Cantonese pinyin or prevented from relying too much on the pinyin in reading the text.

Part 2 – Vocabulary
It introduces the vocabulary used in the passage, particularly highlighting those difficult words that are difficult to pronounce and very different from Mandarin. An English translation for every vocabulary is also provided for reference.

Part 3 – Examples and explanations
This part provides examples of phrases and sentences for further drilling practice. It includes explanations of the meanings and grammar of individual phrases.

Part 4 – Phonetics exercises
The exercises focus on drilling those sounds that are particularly difficult for Mandarin speakers to differentiate and acquire (for example, difficult consonants such as ng, ch, j, h, gw, k as introduced in chapter one).

Part 5 – Conversation practice in a specific communicative event
Students are divided into small groups for speaking practice. A few questions modelling real life situations are given to engage students to create interesting dialogues and interact with each other for conversation practice.

Wu's (2011) work is also written in a specific style that differentiates it from the two other works. Firstly, it is integrated and uses a pragmatic approach to teaching. The

learning materials of all ten chapters are designed to integrate both knowledge and practice in teaching the language. Students will understand the language and be able to use it for daily communication through intensive pronunciation and speaking practice. The audio recordings of all learning materials are provided to help students prepare, learn and review the materials. Secondly, the book focuses on teaching the social functions of language including recommendation, inquiry, description, exposition, etc. Thirdly, the book particularly highlights the differences between Cantonese and Mandarin in their phonetic systems, use of vocabulary and expression habits and styles for helping learners to master beginning Cantonese more effectively. Fourthly, there is much emphasis on pronunciation drilling and speaking practice in specific communicative situations. The book pays much emphasis on designing effective exercises to achieve the learning objectives. The exercises highlight difficult points for drilling practice. There is a variety of intensive drilling practices of difficult sounds, phrases, and sentences designed to help learners master beginning Cantonese effectively. Speaking practice is usually closely related to specific social contexts. The final conversation practice exercises engage learners to actually use the language for communication in different real life situations. This shows the practical orientation of the book.

Evaluation of the three current Cantonese textbooks

All three current Cantonese textbooks share obvious similarities in the design of teaching and learning materials and the approach to teaching Cantonese to Mandarin speakers from the Mainland. Firstly, all three Cantonese textbooks reviewed have rich teaching contents. They all provide quite detailed explanations of the phonetic system, grammatical and discourse structure of Cantonese with concrete and specific examples as illustrations. Secondly, there is much emphasis on colloquialism and socio-cultural knowledge. All three textbooks emphasize the learning of colloquial and daily language, and they also incorporate a lot of cultural elements into the content of every chapter. Kong's (2014) work devotes two parts in every chapter specifically on Hong Kong people's life style and expression habits to introduce Hong Kong culture. Zheng's (2014) work also introduces Cantonese anecdotes in every chapter. They are all funny stories about the lively and interesting expressions used in Hong Kong. Wu's (2011) work introduces Hong Kong and Hong Kong people's livelihood respectively in chapter 9 and chapter 10. There is much emphasis on socio-cultural knowledge and the integration of culture and language in teaching and learning the language. Thirdly, all three textbooks use a situational-culturally based approach to teaching the language. The core and expanded vocabulary, sentence patterns and grammatical rules taught in every passage are all situated in a specific context or communicative event for mastering the materials effectively. Fourthly, there is a heavy emphasis on understanding phonetic knowledge, drilling practice and explanations of grammatical points and cultural knowledge. A lot of the materials are designed for helping students understand and analyze the language, as revealed particularly from comparisons and contrasts of Cantonese and Mandarin in their sound systems, lexis and grammar among all three textbooks. There is also a lot of attention on phonetic knowledge, as revealed from the exercises designed at the end every chapter, such as identification of the pinyin following listening to the audio, transcription of Cantonese words, matching the pinyin with the right characters, etc. This is particularly noticeable in Kong's (2014) and Zheng's (2014) works. All three textbooks also design a lot of intensive drilling exercises on the pronunciation of

individual sounds, phrases, sentences and prose reading to help learners master the language. Overall, it appears that there is still relatively more emphasis on knowing the language than actually engaging learners to use the language practically in task-based communicative situations. This is more apparent in Kong's (2014) and Zheng's work (2014).

Despite the many similarities among the three textbooks in the approach they use to design the teaching materials, each of the three textbooks still has its own unique features that distinguish them from each other. Firstly, Kong's (2014) work is the simplest and the easiest among the three books. It is more appropriate for teaching zero beginners who have very little prior knowledge of Cantonese. Secondly, Zheng's (2014) work is the most academic one among the three textbooks. It provides very much in-depth and detailed description of the lexis and grammar of Cantonese in every part of all chapters. It is a resourceful textbook for Cantonese research. Nevertheless, some of the vocabulary taught may be a little bit difficult for beginners of Cantonese, and the style also appears to be a little bit formal, and not really very conversational in tone; for example in chapter 21 (p.253, p. 254), there are expressions such as:

(4) 發生乜事,主要係通過大眾媒介去傳播,
譬如講,報紙.
(5) 喺先嚟香港嘅人,一般都會同意嗷嘅睇
法: .....
(15)香港社會嘅生活特徵冚唪呤都包容喺呢
度.

Thirdly, Wu's (2011) work is the most communicative and task-based oriented among the three books. Wu's (2011) book pays more attention to interactive and communicative activities as there are situational role play dialogue practices between two speakers at the end of every chapter. The communicative activities designed by Zheng's (2014) work are mostly questions and answers between two people rather than long conversations in simulated real life communicative situations. Kong's (2014) work focuses more on word or sentence drilling practice or information gap filling tasks rather than engaging students in comprehensive contextual conversation practice.

Suggestions on the way to use the three current Cantonese textbooks

The three elementary Cantonese textbooks are all substantial and resourceful materials for teaching the language. Nevertheless, overall there is too much emphasis on understanding the phonetics and transcription of Cantonese words into pinyin as a learning tool. According to the article – "The eight effective rules of learning Cantonese by the Mainland students "-- published by Hong Kong Mainland Student Association (p. 1), learning Cantonese pinyin system is not an effective way to acquire the language as it is a highly complex system that is very time consuming and not a necessary tool for learning the language. In fact, it is preferable to learn to speak the language first through actual communication rather than spending too much time on understanding the pinyin system before learners actually learn to use the language. Learners can reflect on their pronunciation mistakes made with the help of the

phonetic knowledge rather than being bound by it in learning to speak the language effectively (Hong Kong Mainland Student Association, p. 1) There is differentiation between "teaching" and "training" as suggested by Lee (2004, p. 159). Rather than teaching the language as passive knowledge by explaining its phonetic and grammatical structures, vocabulary and cultural elements, there should be more interactive and communicative task-based activities designed to engage learners to acquire the listening and speaking skills pragmatically since Cantonese is primarily a spoken language. Attempts should be made to use more authentic audio-visual sources and multi-media materials such as Cantonese songs, videos or movies, and computer assisted self-access learning materials for drilling practice, comprehension and listening exercises and conversation tasks. Some other lively and interesting learning activities like picture description, story-telling, role-playing, speech presentation, etc. can be included to help learners master the vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies in a more lively and interesting way.

To conclude, all three textbooks cannot be used wholesale for delivering a beginning Cantonese course of 32 hours. Instead, a variety of supplementary authentic materials as mentioned above should be specially used to develop a curriculum that can meet the needs of learners. Most learners aim to master the skills of listening and speaking in a short time for them to communicate either in the workplace or with their friends or family members in Cantonese. Therefore, the teaching approach used should be practical and cost-effective. Among the three textbooks, Wu's (2011) work is the most communicative and task-based oriented. There is a good balance between drilling and communicative activities in simulated real life situations. The final conversation practice part is appropriate. Nevertheless, the content can still be enriched further by adopting more authentic and multi-media sources as listed above to engage learners to acquire the language in an interactive, creative and interesting way.

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Gaming and Peer to Peer Language Learning

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Abstract
With the encroaching use of online teaching material teachers have an abundance of materials available to make their lessons more effective. . This paper examines the effects of digital media, in particular gaming, in how it can assist students in second-language acquisition It indicates why students are spending more time gaming than in the language-learning classroom as the traditional roles of teachers are being partially transformed. It takes into consideration that most game sites preferred are not in a student´s mother tongue, and that students who study courses, such as air transport, must have some knowledge of English to eventually work in that field. Part of its conclusions derive from a cross-sectional questionnaire distributed to groups of over two-hundred students conducted at a Czech technical university, involving five different faculties, from the first to fifth year of study. The supplementary conclusions are formed through the implementation of a game focused on air traffic control simulation, and observations which look at how students are learning from each other in a language-leaning classroom

Keywords: participatory activity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance

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1. Introduction: gaming versus language learning textbooks

The history of gaming is linked with the evolution of the computer and has been similarly developing as new technologies are enhancing how games basically function. It was only with the introduction in the 1970s of multiplayer games that players were able to communicate and interact with other gamers in different ways. According to 2014´s Essential Facts about the Computer and Video Game Industry, gaming is also becoming more acceptable in households and about 60% of Americans play some sort of video games, and about the same percentage of increasingly involved parents believe that they have a positive role in life and learning [1]. In Scientific American Elena Malykhina has stated that almost 80% of teachers surveyed have found using video games has improved the performances of low-achieving students [2]. In contrast, schools in East Asia generally do not approve of incorporating digital gaming into their curriculums, as it is often seen as additive and not educational [3]. Moreover, the autonomy of being in a distant virtual environment may also create a milieu were people can be nasty and try to manipulate or mislead you. So, is it possible that something which is entertainment-oriented and with the potential to cause harm, can also be learning-oriented, and thus real edutainment? So, what is its attraction and why is it becoming increasingly popular mostly among young people?

Firstly, it can offer a relief from the stress of school and life in general, and according to the findings of Krashen [4] and others a second language is best learnt when anxiety is low. All you need is a net connection which is easily accessible today. Unlike traditional language learning textbooks it comes with great, graphic technologies that allow you to be competitive, co-operative or something in-between depending on your style and interest. Unlike the classroom it offers a variety of participants from across the globe. You can become involved in a participatory activity where you can be creative and can show your talent on social websites to the world, and where you can learn strategy and tactics and gain experience. And correspondingly Thorne [5] has found that if a computer game like World of Warcraft is expanded to a international exchange it leads to an increased motivation in language learning. If you play the same game repeatedly you can be constantly updated about your progress. And in addition to teaching you technical skills such as basic coding principles, you can exercise your spatial thinking, reasoning powers, memory, perception and problem-solving ability.. Like all games, they are usually more fun and enjoyable than the prescribed curriculum in a classroom, and you may be learning something although you don´t realise you are learning. One school in NYC, believing in its benefits, has even integrated video games into its curriculum to help teach thinking skills. [6] In order to see if this makes the role of a teacher and language-learning textbook more obsolete in this age of increasing competing interests, we have to examine the use of gaming in the classroom, and what is happening during gaming in more detail by asking the students about their own perceptions.

2. Examples on how gaming has been implemented in the classroom

Although initially not involving virtual, collaborative communities, the first online games for English language learning were equipped with self-correcting mechanisms, which indicated to learners where they were going wrong. For a list of these some of these tried and tested sites you can see 25 Terrific Online Games for English Language Learning [7]. In a way it is similar to learning a language from a textbook with the keys in the back, but with more attractive graphics and sound, and also seems to have the teacher-student interface removed. It wasn´t until a little latter on that online gaming involving direct and indirect language learning put the human factor back on a digital basis. We can look a number of successes in using it to enhance a whole range of subjects. For example, James Hinton [8] has asserted that the MMORPG commercial game Civilization IV is useful in teaching ancient world history. And there is Minecraft for the teaching of biology and Portal 2 for teaching how scientific processes work. More specially in regards to language learning Sandra Rogers [9] has outlined the benefits of using model language support and problem based learning for increasing vocabulary and motivation, finding EverQuest2, The Sims and a Nori School Education Game more tailor-made to students´ individual needs, especially if supplemented with ESL material. And Peterson [10] has attributed the use of Computer-Aided Language Learning (CALL) for students taking more responsibilities in their educational interactions and in being more engaged in target language dialogue. As an illustration of how gaming is becoming more part of the curriculum at higher education institutions one can look at a course offered to language teachers by Georgia Tech [11].

3. A Questionnaire on peer to peer learning

With increasing development in teaching technology there has recently been more discussion on the place of peer to peer learning, which contends that students would be more interdependently active in the learning process if the proper conditions were provided. One way to test this is to examine how students approach learning by seeking out their opinions on the effectiveness of lectures and tutorials or lab exercises in smaller groups. And to focus on how both instructors and the students are contributing to the learning process. To do so a cross-sectional questionnaire (see Appendix A), where it was possible to check more than one answer and add comments, was distributed to 250 students from five faculties from the first to fifth year of study at a technical university in the Czech Republic.

Since the Middle Ages lectures have been used in higher education to instruct students on the fundamentals of a subject. Over the years the ways of presentation and interaction have been somewhat modified as new approaches to education and teaching aids have developed. So the students were asked to analyze their current, perceived effectiveness. Under the category of "What do you do when you don´t understand a teacher during a lecture?" (Tab 1) according to frequency of response twice as many students stated they would rather ask another student than ask the lecturer in front of the larger group (up to 200 students). Some of the reasons given why are that students don´t want to stand out as it would be in any other large

gathering scenario, and the reasons they gave included it was due to laziness, indifference and claims of humbleness, and it depended on the situation and teacher and their comfort with the situation. A number of students mentioned being too shy, while some others wrote they didn´t want to interrupt the lesson or "waste a teacher´s time with a petty question." Others mentioned that it was due the lack of time or the fact they were sitting too far away to be heard. Some students blamed themselves for a lack of understanding and commented that they should have been informed from previous lessons and maybe had a lapse in concentration. Part of the reason could be that according to Hofstede and other sociologists Czechs have been perceived as having a highly relativist culture [11], meaning that they believe there are few absolute answers in life. And also due to their high rating on the respect for power distance scale they are perceived to be less likely to directly express their queries or comments to someone considered superior compared to some other cultures.

Table 1: see Appendix A Question 1

When a lecture is not clear what do you do?	Frequency of response
Ask the lecturer to explain	70
Ask another student for help	154
Forget about it	10
Find the answer on-line	46

Lab exercises and tutorials or seminars have a more recent history and are set up to be more interactive and give in more detail the topics introduced during the lectures. When referring to a similar situation of not understanding as in the first part of the questionnaire, but in a much smaller room with smaller groups (15 - 20) the opposite response was indicated in that more than twice the students would ask the teacher, and much smaller numbers would forget about it or find the answer on-line. (See Table 2) Under the comments a few students mentioned that teachers/tutorial assistants don´t like being disturbed or one that wrote that some teachers are not good for help.

Table 2: See Appendix A Question 2

When a tutorial topic isn´t clear what do you do?	Frequency of response
Ask the teacher to explain	192
Ask another student for help	84
Forget about it	6
Find the answer on-line	20

The traditional ways of learning through lectures, lab exercises of tutorials were preferred to individual study although according to the frequency of response about one third of the students wrote they would (also) prefer to do their research or learn on-line. (see Table 3) Nevertheless, one must keep in mind that most students do not know any other form of instruction and could not really personally compare their experience with a different learning format. We can also extrapolate on this in that

according to Hofstede and others most Czechs are wary of situations or organized activities which are not clear (uncertainty avoidance) and that students live in a culture which less individualistic than other cultures promoting peer to peer learning more [12].

Table 3: See Appendix A Question 3

What is your preferred way of study	Frequency of response
Going to lectures	90
Going to lab exercises or tutorials	130
Doing on research	50
Learning on-line	46

Placed in a similar situation and asked their response if a fellow student also stated something that was not clear or disagreed with most students wrote they would ask the other student to explain further or tell what they think in almost in equal number.(see Table 4) Very few would keep their opinions to themselves or feel the need to call upon the teacher for guidance.

Table 4: See Appendix A Question 4

What do you do if you disagreed with a student?	Frequency of response
Ask him/her to explain	156
Tell him/her what you think	147
Keep it to yourself	15
Include the teacher in the discussion	4

Although most students found the lessons interesting they still suggested ways on how to make the lessons more attractive or effective. All students filled in the part on how to make the lessons more interesting, and mostly urged more teacher-student interaction, more on-line support and better prepared teachers in their frequency of response. (see Table 5) About one-fifth wrote that it really depended on themselves and one-sixth called for less class time and more student- oriented activities. Focusing on the comments one student even wrote that teachers only teach what they have to and others wrote that teachers needed better attitudes or to needed to be happier. Other individual comments were complaints that students were repeating what they had already learnt at secondary school, and that more specialized study was needed as well as more activities to develop creativity.

Table 5 See Appendix A Question 5

How could lessons be more interesting?	Frequency of response
More student/teacher interaction	82
More visuals/on-line support	74
Better prepared teachers	50
It really depends on me	38
Less class time/more student-centered activities	30
More group activities	28

Despite the fact that consultation hours are provided to individually aid students who seek further explanation or guidance, most students don´t visit teachers during their consulting hours, which they are informed about at the beginning of the semester. (see Table 6) Most students who take advantage of them are mostly post-graduate students who have to discuss their dissertation work and thesis and project work individually with a supervising teacher. As to why most students don´t consult a teacher directly during consulting hours, most of the comments related to not having enough time or not needing extra help. Some comments again referred to shyness or some personal objections. One wrote he/she would only visit a teacher as a last resort.

Table 6: See Appendix A Question 6

Do you go to consultation hours?	Frequency of response
Yes	66
No	178

Although not wanting to take advantage of a more in-depth study of a subject, from the responses of the students it seems most are generally satisfied with the traditional form of learning in a classroom. And in regards to the effectiveness of using the format of a lecture, which critics see as a promoter of passive learning, and depends both on the teacher and the student, most students would prefer to seek information from another student rather than consult a teacher. As students have indicated tutorials seem more beneficial, and due to numbers and organization one would have to focus on smaller groups to realistically implement any sort of effective student-oriented learning. There doesn´t seem a widespread urge to introduce much peer to peer learning, which may be influenced by the fact that according to the findings of Hofstede and others Czechs are only mildly individualistic, but more importantly have a high score in uncertainty avoidance. This means that most students would be uncomfortable without a clearly structured teacher -guided curriculum. Therefore if used, it should be used only partially in and outside the classroom to supplement lessons.

4. Peer to peer learning and gaming

Peer to peer or student to student learning is big on collaboration, in which a main objective is to develop a number of communication skills to facilitate learning.

Largely exemplified by STAD (Students to Teams - Achievement Divisions) learning and jigsaw learning, where students assemble puzzles together, these methodologies have be shown to reduce differences in mixed ability classes, and focus on each student´s readiness, interest and ability. In regards to gaming, Andrea Nugent [13] specially mentions her positive experience in enhancing learning when students form guilds with other unknown students. Co-operative learning in gaming, whether students are in the same room or not, present students with challenges where they can feel more comfortable in formulating questions, doing project work and brainstorming creating a forum where positive interdependence is assured while still maintaining individual accountability for a teacher´s assessment. In practice, any type of student pairing or grouping, largely based on knowing a student´s strength and weaknesses should be relatively regular to develop routines and trust, but not dampen enthusiasm. This can enforce learning and enable students to find many of the answers themselves and from each other while developing their social, cognitive and memory skills. No matter however a teacher divides up a class, the effectiveness of gaming mostly depends on how thoroughly a teacher is able to monitor a class and to establish rules, and to be best able to tie together gaming with the objectives of the study curriculum.

5. The transitional role of a teacher

This does not mean that a teacher is always central stage. In a classroom, a committed teacher plays multifaceted roles which include that of an information provider, organizer, assessor and prompter. And at the same time the new tools of technology and transforming educational environments are affecting how much time students are willing to devote to traditional learning scenarios. For example Sylvén and Sundaquist [14] studies have found that serious gamers are reading fewer books. Nevertheless, perhaps in reaction to limiting access to gaming in schools, Chik [15] sees that language learning is being passed on to wider extra-curricular communities who take on the roles of language teachers, and thus are generally depriving students of some purposeful learning guidance and of being corrected.

Since the time of American educator John Dewey there have been many arguments for both teacher and peer to peer learning in regards to having things under control, and in having students becoming more independent especially in the own decision-making. The argument is by having students work together it could provide a way to keep students more interested in what they are doing.

One can go all the way back to Socrates to question the real role of a teacher. Inevitably, by allowing at least part of a lesson to be devoted to student-oriented gaming -learning activities a teacher consciously forsakes his/her role as mostly as imparter of information and becomes that of more of a facilitator or prompter.. As H. Brown Douglas [16] has found success in language learning largely depends on the rapport teachers establish with students. It can also give a better chance to examine how engaged students are in dealing with the challenges and problems in grasping a foreign language even if there may not be many opportunities to practice grammar [17].

If implemented with intelligence combining gaming with an emphasis on peer to peer learning can be more effective and interesting than focusing only on more traditional forms of teaching and learning. As to methodology, Jeffrey Froyd [18] gives tips on how to gradually switch from a teacher-oriented level at a higher education institution. By taking on the role of an enhancer, a teacher, also becomes a type of participant in the lessons, using questioning strategies while able to correct serious misconceptions in grammar, spelling and pronunciation, empowering students and allowing them to focus more on their own social interaction, creative abilities and on thinking critically.

6. Gaming and peer to peer learning: A practical example

So if students seem to be learning from each other directly or indirectly during gaming, and if there is some desire for more student oriented learning allowing a teacher to take on a more secondary role why not try to partially put it in practice during a weekly lesson? For about 20 years the Institute of Transport of the VŠB - Technical University of Ostrava has provided instruction focused on specialized English for the subject Air Transport. To help those interested in aviation study, technology has increasingly allowed it to be possible to partially supplement tutorials with visual aids and gaming software. Among the many games available, we can look at one variant of an Air Traffic Controller game focused on Instrument Flying Rule conditions downloaded by the teacher because of its emphasis on speaking. Before full implementation, it was most important to emphasize to the students that safety has the utmost consideration and that correspondence should most of all be standardized and clear. It was also good to remind students that both controllers and pilots are working together as a team, but in the ultimate situation the final decision on what to do falls on the pilot. This game was set up in thirty minute blocks as part of a lesson where students were initially primed in which vocabulary and phrases would be used during different phases of air traffic movement, such as take-off/landing, in-flight situations, meteorological conditions, emergency procedures and taxiing. This regular format allowed both the teacher and students to mention, check and record the common human communication errors that result in most airplane accidents, between pilots and air traffic control, in written and spoken form, mostly involving common hearback and readback errors.

With closer examination we can now look at how well the four basic language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) were exercised during various phases of the pilot-controller correspondence and draw conclusions from teacher observation and student feedback.

Listening

The listening aspect involved more teacher intervention than needed for the other language learning skills. Although the readability of the frequency was constant within one or two classrooms, besides similarities between certain words such as "want" and "won´t" (it is recommended to use "will not") and "lose" and "loose", it was noticed that students had some problems recognizing some phrasal verbs which

are not that common in aviation terminology, such as "run up" (warm up an engine), confusing "push up" with "pull up" (meaning to pull the throttle towards oneself after landing), and in particular the words "go ahead" meaning to speak and not to move forward. Other findings included the leaving out of prepositions, such as in the phrase "Hold short (of) runway 04" and "according (to) weather conditions" , and hearing "cleared to take-off" instead of "cleared for take-off"". A possible explanation for this is given by a study at The University of Southern Bohemia which cites examples of difficulties native speakers of Czech sometimes have in catching small connection words and prepositions. due to the inflection of their own language [19].

Reading

Students can practice the reading aspect of language learning while gaming largely through perusing introductory instructions and being informed what to do next when moving on to higher levels of advancement. And it was both during the listening and reading parts that the students said they had learnt the most. Among the new vocabulary gained were words such as "galley" and "fume" , and new synonyms such as "orbit" instead of "circuit", "adverse" instead of " bad", "fly-by-wire" instead of "electronic", " furnish" instead of "equip" or "supply" and some new terms such as "dead reckoning", "lean fuel mixture" and "to bleed air": It should also be noted that there was also some confusion with aviation terminology when coming upon words with multiple definitions such as "pitch" (the longitudinal movement of an aircraft or the position of the propeller), "hold" (cargo space, or to stay in the same position), " flare" (a signal gun or the approach angle of landing) and " roll" (moving on the runway before and after a flight or the banking movement of an aircraft).

Writing

Data links, with which some standard messages can be automatically sent or created, are becoming more and more used as a safeguard against verbal communication loss in real aviation situations. Similarly student gamers are periodically required to contact each other electronically depending on the game used where they are required to write in instructions or responses, Most of these tasks required short responses and most spelling errors (mostly spotted by the teacher again) were connected to mixing up similar words such as "except" for "expect", "sealing" for "ceiling" (the height of the clouds) "altitude" (flight level) for "attitude" (the airplane´s position), "circle" instead of "circuit", and "breaking" instead of "braking". Other errors reflecting the difficulties of the non-phonetics of the English language and what students are used to hearing were with the misspellings "heigth", "weigth", "wind sheer", "fuel reminder", "maintainance", "intension" and "missfiring", and using "advice" for "advise". "Wilco" meaning "I will comply" was spelt "Willco" and the message transmitted when a plane is lost from the controller´s screen for more than thirty minutes INCERFA was written UNCERFA. (probably a mix-up with the word uncertainty).

Speaking

Among the spoken mistakes uncovered were for example saying " period" instead of "decimal" in giving as frequency or QNH reading, "inbound" instead of "outbound", confusing "ascend" with "descend", not announcing a fuel emergency, using past participles instead of simple continuous forms such as passed instead of passing, telling a pilot" to turn right" instead of "to turn left" or using a simple present statement (turns left) instead of the imperative form (turn left) and using "nine" instead of the standardized aviation appellation "niner". Also most students used the standard pronunciation of "three" and "thousand" when they should be the standard aviation pronunciation "tree" and "tousand". Despite this students were also relatively good in spotting when non-standard phraseology was not used. They pointed out the misuse of the term "alright" instead of using proper terms such as "roger" or "affirm". They also spotted a controller using the phrase "Forget it" instead of "Disregard".

Generally, among the most common errors detected by both the teacher and students were confusions due to call signs, pilot expectations and frequency changes, resulting in such things as altitude deviations, less than standard separation, giving the wrong aircraft accepted clearance, operational errors and heading and track deviations.
Also of interest students were more amenable to take correction from the teacher in most cases, and from other students when errors did not involve phrases but numbers such as those used for flight levels, airspeed and headings. Only once or twice per four classroom periods did students catch their own mistakes and correct themselves without prompting from another student or the teacher.

Some students stated it is better to do this type of activity with people who share the same first language and that they had more difficulties in understanding when exposed to specific dialects from around the world when listening to recordings from various airports or in-flight recordings. Also connected to this, some sought the teacher out to verify the pronunciation of words pronounced differently in American and British English such as "direct" or "via". To give an overview of the above findings we can look at the series of logs which were completed during and after 30 minute-block sessions, and are enough in quantity to give us an idea on the effectiveness of peer to peer learning. They were used while supplementing regular tutorials in Aviation English, during which students periodically exchanged roles and were corresponding in a readback-hearback loop in one or two classrooms (using microphones). In the following tables you can compare the frequency of contributions and observations of both the teacher, mostly conveyed after the exercise, and students, mostly during the exercise.[See Tables 7 - 10].

Table 7: List of Errors Recorded on February 1, 2017

Type of error	Teacher	Other Students	The Student Him/Herself
Readback Errors			
Similar call signs (3 times)	X (3 times)	X(2 times)	-
Wrong heading	X	-	-
"Cleared to" instead of "for"	X	-	-
Saying inbound and not outbound	X	X	X
Saying "want" instead of "will not"	-	X	-
"no" vs "negative"	X	-	-
Hearback Errors			
Wrong runway in use	X	-	X
Wrong altimeter setting	X	-	-
Wrong airspeed for separation	X	X	-
Using "nine" incorrectly	-	X	-
Giving the wrong heading	X	-	-
Using "ignore" and not "disregard"	X	X	-
Giving the wrong flight level	X	-	-
(via)	-	(X)	-
New vocabulary			
fly-by-wire, furnish, flare, to bleed air , to equip,	-	-	-
Spelling mistakes			
Heigth, maintainance, circle vs circuit	X	-	-

Table 8: List of Errors Recorded on February 8, 2017

Type of error	Teacher	Other Students	The Student Him/Herself
Readback Errors			
Wrong runway in use	X	X	-
QNH (pressure level) incorrect	X	X	-
Using "period" instead of decimal	X	-	-
Confusing "lose" and "loose"	X	-	-
Incorrect clearance	X (2 times)	X	X
(direct)		(X)	
Hearback Errors		-	-
Using "forget it" instead of "disregard"	X	X	
Saying Maximum Take-"Of"	X	-	-

Type of error	Teacher	Other Students	The Student Him/Herself
Weight			
Wrong frequency in use	X	X	-
Saying "three" and not "tree"	X	X	-
Confusing "fill" and "fuel"	X	-	-
Saying "won´t" instead of "will not"	X	-	-
Wrong heading given	X	-	-
Similar call sign	X	X	-
New vocabulary			
Dead recogning, roll (on the runway), adverse weather			
Spelling mistakes			
Fuel reminder, weigth	X	-	-

Table 9: List of Errors Recorded on February 15, 2017

Type of error	Teacher	Other Students	The Student Him/Herself
Readback Errors			
Giving no readback at all	X	X	-
Confusing "altitude" and "attitude"	X	-	-
Hold short (of) -not used	X	-	-
Wrong number of POB (persons on board)	X	X	-
Saying advice instead of advise	-	-	-
Wrong flight level in descent	-	X	-
Hearback Errors			
Wrong transponder code given	-	X	-
Saying "thousand" not "tousand"	X	X	-
"pitch" understood incorrectly	X	X	-
Wrong airspeed indicated		-	-
Saying "engine run out" instead of "engine run up"	X	-	-
Using "All right" and not "Roger or Affirm"	X	X	-
Confusing "push up" with "pull up"	X	-	-
Not using the imperative form "Turn left" but "turns left"	X	X	-
New vocabulary			
Orbit, pitch (of propeller)	-	-	-
Spelling mistakes			
Missfiring, wind sheer, breaking	X	-	-

Type of error	Teacher	Other Students	The Student Him/Herself
vs braking action			

Table 10: List of Errors Recorded on February 23, 2017

Type of error	Teacher	Other Students	The Student Him/Herself
Readback Errors			
Wrong flight level understood	X	X	-
Wrong separation given	X	-	-
Not announcing a fuel emergency	X	X	-
Entering wrong taxiway	X	-	-
According without "to"	X	-	X
Wrong aircraft accepts clearance	X	X	-
Hearback Errors			
In wrong sequence to land	X	-	-
"Go ahead" understood as "move forward" and not speak	X	X	-
Confusing weather BECOMING and TEMPO	X	-	-
Confusing "ascend" with "descend"	X	X	-
Saying turn left instead of right	X	-	-
Using PAN PAN PAN instead of MAYDAY in emergency	X	X	X
Using "Repeat" instead of "Say Again"	X	X	-
Taking off without clearance	-	X	-
New vocabulary			
Galley, fume vs smoke, hold	-	-	-
Spelling mistakes			
Maintainace, intension, WILLCO, UNCERFA	X	-	-

As you can see from the tables all three target groups contributed something to the exercise in various ways. Although the gaming exercise was repeated with slight variations in regards to the number of pilots and controllers, it was the teacher playing a somewhat subordinating role in trying to gauge the contribution of peer to peer learning, who most often spotted errors the students didn´t. In contrast the participating or observing students usually immediately spoke up when they detected something wrong, and mistakes were mostly corrected but sometimes repeated. One can see that allowing students to rely on themselves during focused gaming has a partial role to play in enhancing motivation, learning new vocabulary and making the classroom more fun, but it seems that no matter what facilitating role the teacher has,

students will mostly tend to defer to his/her decisions and observations in the long run.

7. Conclusions

Improving one´s proficiency in a foreign language, whether it be reading, writing, listening or speaking, can depend on how much time is spent using it on-line. And it mostly depends on whether a student is spending time conjuring spells or exterminating virtual enemies, or directly or indirectly learning how an engine works, or using a mouse to place oneself behind a cockpit control column.

As the questionnaire on peer to peer learning has indicated due to personal and cultural reasons there isn´t a great call for change in the traditional teaching structure. However, as also indicated students believe there is still room for improvement and more student-oriented activities. As shown in the gaming exercise focused on aviation, a teacher can enhance a lesson from time to time by stepping back and allowing the students themselves to reinforce and clarify responses and find the answers themselves. It also gives them a chance to feel more comfortable and confident in second-language speaking activities, which can create momentum to promote student-oriented learning in and outside the classroom. It also allows the teacher and students to be guides in the learning process, which can prevent mistakes from being repeated and reinforced, as there are no standard, corrective measures when playing games in a second language outside the classroom.

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Appendix A Questionnaire on Peer to Peer Learning

1 What do you do when you don´t understand a teacher during a lecture (with a large student group)?
a) ask him/her to explain b) ask another student for help c) forget about it d) find the answer on-line
Other (please explain):

_____

If not a) why don´t you ask the teacher for help?

_____

2 What do you do when you don´t understand a teacher during a tutorial/lab exercise? (with a smaller group)?
a) ask him/her to explain b) ask another student for help c) forget about it d) find the answer on-line
Other (please explain):

_____

If not a) why don´t you ask the teacher for help?

_____

3 What is the best form of learning for you?
a) going to lectures b) going to tutorials/lab exercises c) doing the readings/research myself d) learning on-line
Other (please explain):

_____

4 What to you do if another student says something which is not clear or you disagree with?
a) tell him/her what you think b) ask him/her to explain more c) keep it to yourself

5 How to make university lessons more interesting for you?
a) more student/teacher interaction b) more visuals/on-line support c) better prepared teachers
d) it really depends on me e) less class time and more student-centred activities/assignments

f) more group activities
Other (please explain):

_____

6 Do you ever visit teachers during their consulting hours? Yes No
If yes, why

_____

If no, why

_____

"Hear! Hear!": Effecrive Business Language Practices to Stimulate Lively Classroom Discussions

Hilda Hio Fong Fok, Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao
Doris Ka I Ip, Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao

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1. Introduction

In the field of second language learning, foreign language learning and English language teaching, one area that constantly attracts research is how to motivate learners to learn and to use the language being learned. In a world where globalization is prevailing, learning a second / foreign language is a common trend. As English has been enjoying the status of the most popular lingua-franca, it is also the most learned second/foreign language. Continuous efforts are made to improve and enhance the learning of English in this fast changing world. One of the major challenges for researchers and English teachers is how to motivate learners to actively learn and use the language. Numerous methods have been suggested to motivate learners, such as the use of audio-visual means like music, movies and video clips, as well as online games and social media. All these are fun and relaxing ways to increase the learners' exposure to English and consequently their interest to learn English. The authors of this study shared the same interest in creating ways to motivate students to learn and use English. The authors attempted to investigate the effectiveness of a particular way – card games – to engage learners to actively use English in a near-authentic situation.

The authors taught an English communication course to the sophomores and one of the objectives of the sophomore English course was to help students gain competence to communicate confidently and effectively at the workplace. Some of the tasks to simulate speaking are handling difficult customers and conducting formal meetings. Both types of situations call for a certain level of fluency when speaking. When conducting a meeting, a number of language functions (e.g. agreeing, disagreeing, interrupting, and inviting people to speak, to name a few) have to be properly mastered so that conflicts can be eliminated and ideas can be clearly received. In order to allow for chances to practice the various functions and corresponding set phrases, and to let students understand and experience the need to carry out the functions before the actual assessment, a set of card games was designed for students to play. The purpose of the research was to examine the effectiveness of the games as a tool to let students utilize the phrases to express their views and carry out the functions. The research questions, as a result, were:

- Are card games perceived by the students an effective tool for students to practice set phrases learned for conducting a formal meeting in English?
- To what extend are card games effective for reinforcing the learning of the set phrases?
- Can the use of competitiveness boost the motivation to learn and use the set phrases?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Student characteristics – anxiety

Asian students are often seen to be quiet and passive in an SL/FL classroom. Due to the fact that they are accustomed to the teacher-centered learning environment, it may

not be easy for them to see themselves as the center of the class and therefore, take initiative to learn. This is particularly so in an SL/FL classroom. Various factors can cause anxiety in the learners, and researchers have revealed that anxiety could lead to unwillingness to speak in the language classroom (Liu & Jackson, 2008; Tok, 2009; Wang 2010).

In a study done by Tok (2009), some Turkish year 1 undergraduate students of non-English major were surveyed, and the results showed that half of the participants felt anxious to communicate in the English lessons, and those who felt their English was poor would have higher anxiety and lower willingness to speak in the English class. Due to anxiety, "weaker" students in an ESL/EFL classroom often prefer to remain quiet and are unwilling to speak up. While the more proficient students could engage comfortably in the learning activities, the "weaker" ones would not see much improvement in their communicative competence due to their unwillingness to speak.

Several studies have discovered that ESL/EFL learners with higher level of anxiety had relatively less sense of language achievement, perceived themselves to have lower ability in the language they were learning, and were less sociable and less willing to communicate in the language classroom (Horwitz, 2001; Kitano, 2001 (as cited in Wang, 2010)). Liu and Jackson (2008) surveyed more than five hundred non-English major Chinese university students and revealed that unwillingness to communicate is the language classroom was related to the students' anxiety. Wang's (2010) study on 240 university first year non-English majored students in China also concluded that speaking anxiety was related to unwillingness to communicate (avoidance), language class risk-taking as well as language achievement. Among these results, the study on the relationship between anxiety and unwillingness to communicate in the language classroom is of more immediate interest to SL/FL teachers, because if lower level of anxiety can give rise to more willingness to communicate, learning efficacy can be enhanced.

Liu, Liu and Su (2010) examined anxiety from a different angle. Their study looked into the change of anxiety level over time. The survey involved nearly one thousand Chinese year-one university students of non-English major and they noticed that although the overall results showed that for the whole sample, the level of anxiety had significantly decreased and the level of confidence had increased, more than 30% of the sample did express their worries about their performance in class. It was also evident that over the term, when students had more access and exposure to English, their confidence would increase. Consequently, the researchers of this study suggested that teachers should use different types of activities to give students more chances to use the language.

2.2 Motivation and creating relevance for learning

Motivation has long been regarded as one of the key factors for successful second/foreign language learning. Gardner (1982) suggested the three aspects of second language learning motivation as "affect", "desire", and "effort", and in his later study, Gardner (1985) referred motivation to the "desire", "intensity", and

"attitude" towards second language learning. Dornyei's (2001) definition of motivation dictates that motivation can initiate and maintain goal-oriented behaviours. In order to initiate learning or create a desire to learn, the teachers have to show the relevance of the knowledge to learn.

Cheung (2001) stated that (in Hong Kong) English learned in the typical "teacher-centered and form-accuracy oriented" English classroom was often regarded as irrelevant, or as Mok (1990, as cited in Cheung, 2001) suggested, not applicable to real life. Biggs and Watkins (1993, as cited in Cheung 2001) revealed that school learning in itself provided very little motivation for students to learn. Cheung (2001) echoed this view and stated that students would not be interested in learning if they could not see the relevance. Consequently, teachers had to choose engaging materials and methods to motivate students to learn. Cheung also stressed the need for an English class to allow for student interaction, exchange of information and feelings.

In view of this, a card game for formal meeting can serve the purpose. The situations for discussion can be set in an environment that the students can relate to. Consequently, students can have adequate knowledge to create meaningful content, and can use the language functions learned to carry out the conversation.

2.3 The use of games and competition in language learning

Gamification, a term first used in the business context, is used in language learning as a way to engage students to learning by relating learning to the students' needs (myenglishlanguage.com, 2017). It stimulates the students' competitiveness as well as their collaborative spirits. It helps to put new vocabulary and concepts into a real-world context. Language learning games can be fun and provide incentives for students for practicing what they have learned.

Competition provides learners "a sense of external urgency and drama" and therefore, can motivate learners to be more interested and involved in the learning process (The ICAL TEFL Blog, 2015). Yet, competition has to be utilized in a moderate lever because intense competition will create pressure and anxiety and thus demotivate learners. Therefore, competition for language learning should be fun and engaging. It should allow learners to work with different members, as this could encourage teamwork. A good language class competition should also provide clear guidance and an achievable goal, and allow learners to practice skills previously learned. Although Zarzycka-Piskorz's (2016) study focused on online games, the findings could support other types of games being used to enhance classroom language learning. Zarzycka-Piskorz suggested that the urge to win could serve as a driving force to play a language game. Games could also allow students to improve teamwork and respect rules and norms.

Khonmohammad, Gorjian, and Eskandari (2014) conducted an experiment to investigate the usefulness of game-based instruction versus the traditional way to teach grammar, and their findings suggested that learners in the experimental group showed significantly higher motivation to learn grammar than those in the control

group. They advocated that grammar could be taught in a more enjoyable way through games. The researchers explained that games could be used to teach various aspects of English in a more lively and energetic environment and suggested that games were particularly helpful to encourage shy students to express themselves to other people.

Boarcas (2014) suggested the use of games was an effective way to practice communication for English for Specific Purposes (ESP). She claimed that games that required students to communicate with each other could allow students to develop their communication skills subconsciously in a comparatively relaxing environment, and she listed useful game types such as vocabulary games, interview, relay spelling, questions, detective, the coffee pot game as well as puzzles. Admittedly useful, these games focus on the vocabulary level. The authors of the current study aimed to examine the effectiveness of card games to reinforce students' use of phrases for various functions in business communication.

Zhu (2012) strongly advocated the use of games in the universities in China. Zhu explained that the traditional teacher-centered classrooms had to be reformed and provide students opportunities to practice and improve, and to do so, games would be an ideal way to teach communicative ability. The research stated the importance to allow students to actually use the language. Games, being played in a fun and relaxed atmosphere, could lower the students' affective filter (Krashen, 1982), and thus be more willing to speak.

3. Methodology

The study adopted a qualitative approach and an exploratory research method as the purpose was to examine the usefulness of card games and competition to English learning and to find out college students' perception of the three variations of the card game.

The purpose of exploratory research is to explore the research question(s). It is used to examine new issues or issues that have not been researched much. Exploratory research is not conclusive and does not lead to final solutions. Rather, it can help define the nature of the problem and help the researchers gain a better understanding of the issue. During the research process, the researchers have to prepare to change the direction due to the emergence of new data and views (Dudovskiy, 2017).

The content of the research is crucial for the choice of data collection method. Focus group discussion is effective for gathering various views on the research issues and for exploring the issues, as the group of people can "validate typical behaviours in a community or neutralize extreme views" (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011); therefore, focus group discussion was suitable for gathering views and opinions of the students after they had played the games. The students were informed of the purpose of the focus group discussion and agreed to be involved in it.

Prior to the focus group discussion, the students had attended classes in which the topic of formal meeting was addressed, the basic structure of a formal meeting was explained and a set of useful phrases for various common functions to be used in a meeting was introduced. Sample meeting video clips were played to demonstrate how formal meetings were held. The useful phrases were also mentioned in the videos. Then the students would study the phrases and complete some simple exercises to reinforce the learning of the phrases. Afterwards, the students were put into small groups to play the games.

The purpose of the games

The purpose of the games was to engage students in general scenarios which they could relate themselves easily to. For example, it could be a meeting to discuss a group project or an event to be held. A deck of cards including phrases for six major functions (giving an opinion, agreeing, disagreeing, seeking clarification, interrupting, looking at options) was to be used for the games.

The design of the games

Tyson (1998) listed the features of an effective educational game:

- It should be fun to play
- There should be "friendly" competition
- It should involve all students
- It should encourage students to focus on the use of the language they have learned, not the language itself
- It should allow students to practice and/or review the language knowledge learned
-

The three games for formal meetings match these features.

The three games would be effective for practicing decision-making meetings. A scenario could be given and the game could be played at three levels.

Game 1 (level 1) – each student is given a set of cards for 6 functions to be carried out during the meeting. One student is assigned the role of chairperson and is given 3 more cards (opening the meeting, invite people to speak, and closing the meeting). The students in the group then take turn speaking, using the phrases on the cards. If a student cannot use a card during his/her turn, s/he will need to pass. The student who finishes all the cards first wins.

Game 2 (level 2) – a scenario for discussion is given. All cards (for the 6 functions) are put together in one deck, face down at the centre of the desk. The chair will start the meeting and the members will take turn, draw a card, and speak with the phrase on the function card drawn. The student who successfully say something with the given phrase will keep the card. If the student fails to say anything with the drawn phrase, s/he will put the card to the bottom of the deck and pass. In the end, the student with most cards wins.

Game 3 (level 3) – a scenario for discussion is given. All cards, face down, are put at the centre of the desk in 6 small piles according to their functions. The discussion begins after the chairperson has started the meeting. Whichever member wants to speak can select a function care and do so with the phrase drawn. Each member can only use 1 card at a time. The first member to collect cards of all 6 functions wins.

Data Collection

Students were grouped randomly to play the games as practice. When one game was finished, they would be shuffled and put into different groups to play the next game. Three classes of students taking the Year 2 English communication course were interviewed after the games to gather their views of the games. They were told the purpose of the study and they all gave consent and joined the group discussion. Every discussion was about 20 minutes long. A few prompts were used to start the discussion and the major areas for discussion were:

- Did you enjoy the games?
- How useful did you find the games?
- Which game(s) did you find more effective in terms of practicing the set phrases?
- How did you feel about the competition elements in the games?
- What suggestions do you have to improve the games?

As the goal of the focus groups was to collect information and views from the students, they could choose to participate in the discussion in English, in Chinese or in a mixed mode. The discussions then went through verbatim transcription. Afterwards, content analysis of the transcripts was conducted to discover the major issues / views shared by these participants.

4. Findings

Four major themes emerged from the focus group interviews: reinforcement of the target language, the effectiveness of the competitive element (including students' enjoyment), awareness of particular role(s) in business meetings and how these games can be improved. Another obvious but important observation among the interviewees that rapport among each group of students is an indispensable foundation for successful formal meetings.

4.1 Applying the target language

Teachers are not robots. In fact, many ESL teachers always try to insert fun and competitive elements into their classroom teaching (Quijano-Cruz, 2009). Adding fun activities in a classroom not only can motivate learning, but keeping the students engaged in speaking tasks. Nonetheless, two commonalities came out of the interviews. First, interviewees have all enjoyed taking part in all three activities. Additionally, by practicing the target language through these games, they have been able to memorize and apply the phrases that were taught in the previous class(es).

In relation to applying the target language in these activities, almost all students that were interviewed felt that these game have reinforced them to think of the meaning on the spot and use the target meeting language correctly.

"*The first game helps me to categories the functions and be familiar with the phrases."*
Regarding the first game, many students agreed that it was good to be given a few minutes to look at their own cards, and be to organize their thoughts and opinions before the meeting begins.

"*I think it is good to prepare for a meeting. Not only the content, but also what I am going to say. Having these cards in front of me helps me to organize my thoughts and to plan how I can use the language according to each of the functions. If I don't plan in my head before it starts, I think I am not going to do as well as the others."*

Being a Hotel Management second year student, interviewee J. even attempt to memorize the phrases during these games.
"*They are helping me to memorizing all these phrases. I really didn't think that I could remember ALL of them, given how many there are."*

Another student of the same group expressed a similar view.

"*It really makes you think on the spot and it is exciting!"*

During the focused group interviews, they two key findings were that students agreed that these games help them to be familiar with the function, the target language and have an awareness of applying them correctly. At the same time, the more capable students starts to memorize the target language, and later on, during the assessment, they were able to use these language phrases without the cards to remind them.

4.2 The motivation created by the competitiveness

The discussed of the focused group interviews had a general wave of agreement on the enjoyment of these games. Students indicated that they were motivated to be engaged in the meeting discussions. Heritage Management student C. is one of the particularly shy and quiet student points out that these games have encouraged to not being so quiet during English speaking tasks.

"*It forces me to think on my feet and to express my opinion more. I don't think I can be quiet anymore, otherwise I would lose the game!"*
"And, because everyone speak clockwise in the first game. I can't even escape, I had to speak."

A few other interview discussion point out that they all had to pay attention and listen to each other during the activities.

" *In order to use the card correctly, so that I could get rid of them, I had to listen to what everyone says. If I want to disagree with someone, I first have to understand what s/he had said, then give my reasons why I was disagreeing with them. Same with the cards of 'clarification', I cannot ask someone to clarify if I don' understand what s/he is saying in the first place."*

This game also motivate weaker students to practice their English speaking skills. One student of Heritage Management major indicates that he had to practice at home so that he is not losing the games.

"*Seeing everyone in my group using the cards so quickly made me feel that my English is really not good. I don't want to be ended up only using a few cards. I want to use them all! So, I have to look at my list of language and notes again, to be more familiar with them.'*

Therefore, the results have suggested that less capable and quieter students have been benefited by playing these games. Because of the competitiveness, they are encouraged to expressed their opinion and be familiar with the language and its functions.

4.3 Awareness of the different roles in formal meetings

Taking part in formal business meetings also means students have to understand the different roles including the chairperson, secretary and other participants. It is possible that this is confusing to some, especially when learners have never had the experience of playing a role in formal meetings. The interviewees, however, have agreed that these games help them to understand the different roles better. One student, who is Hotel Management majored, gave her opinion about playing the role of a chairperson:

"*When I was picked to be a chairperson and given the cards. I had to know the steps of opening and closing a meeting. I check my notes if I don't. Sometimes, it is hard to remember all the steps and I may forget one or two without the cards. The cards are really helpful."*

In other words, some students finds it challenging to begin a formal meeting and follow the procedures, as well as inviting others to speak. Another student from the same group also said:

" Sometimes, there are arguments in these meetings, because we all had to agree and disagree with each other. It is like non-stop! As a chairperson, it is good to be reminded that I had to summarize all the main points and end the discussion. The cards remind me to do so."

Other participants of the meetings also had to use the cards 'tackly' in order to win the game.

"*While I was playing the second game, I had to rearrange my ideas and said them in an order so that I could pick and us as many cards as possible, then win. It is great that I can use more than one cards. For example, I may ask someone to 'clarify' their ideas' then I either 'agree' or 'disagree', that's two cards in one go!"*
Students seem to be able to realize that discussion in English do not end with only one phrase or sentence. In order to create a logical flow in discussions, many have to apply language of more than one functions. It was also beneficial that students were given different roles each time so that everyone is given the opportunity of practicing different target language.

4.4 Ways of improvement

It is undoubtable that these three games help our students to engage in formal meeting speaking tasks. During the focused group interviews, students had also made a few suggestions to improve these games. Many of their opinion were related to motivation and learning:

" *After I finish all my cards, I don't need to speak anymore."*

"I don't like being the chairperson because I am always last to finish all the cards. I can never win."

Moreover, some of their suggestions were concerning the design of the games:

"For the first time, the winner shouldn't be the one who uses all the card, but the one who is able to persuade others. That's the actual goal of a business meeting."

"In the first game, perhaps I should just be given the 'agreeing' or 'disagreeing'. Having both can be difficult because sometimes I don't feel like changing my opinion."

As a teacher, my observation is that some weaker students find it hard to pay attention to others as they are too focused on the cards. This may result in a meeting that it is not achieving its goal, which is reaching a conclusion. Overall, the three card games were the key to the success of getting students to be engaged in business discussion. Moreover, students were each others' "advisors and assessors" as they had to monitor whether the cards had been used correctly (Leki, 1990). It is suggested that these game not only activate the ideas and opinion of learners, helping them to be engaged in speaking, it has an effect on improving their listening skills as well.

5. Discussion and conclusion

As discussed in the literature review, some students feel anxious to communicate in English classes. They are particular quiet and passive when participating in speaking activities (Liu & Jackson, 2008; Tok, 2009; Wang 2010). These games were designed specifically for weaker and shy students to be engaged and take turns to speak. These

students had also expressed the games have encouraged them and other members of the groups are also helpful to checking understanding before the discussion begins.

The end goal of these games was to win and finish the meeting with a decision. It is clear that the games have generated goal-oriented behaviors which was recommended by Dornyei (2001). By having a goal, students find the relevance and desire to win, then are motivated to master the target language, which is much more effective than the teacher-centered approach (Cheung, 2001; Gardner, 1982). These card games are a way to keep learners engaged, focused, as well as giving their willingness a boost.

As an ESL instructor and observer of this exploratory classroom research, there was a lively and energetic environment among all classes when playing these card games. This outcome is in line with the investigation by Khonmohammad, Gorjian, and Eskandari (2014) and shows that having the fun and active atmosphere have motivated the learner in a positive manner.

5.1 Limitations

The most obvious shortcoming to this project is that only students were interviewed. To fully examine the effectiveness of these card game, it would be better to contrast the views of students with those of teachers, however, the researchers' limited resources made that impractical. Secondly, the interviewees were all based in the same institute and share a basis for their student so commonalities are to be expected. To extend the validity of any findings, this research should be repeated in different bodies of population.

5.2 Conclusion

The findings have shown that these business card games have a number of positive outcomes. First of all, the games have helped students to further acquire the target language , and then reinforce to apply these phrases correctly. Many learners were able to memorise these phrases after playing the games a few times.

Furthermore, the competitive element has motivated all students even those who are shy and quiet. The games keep them engaged and students all seem to enjoy participating in these game-based activities. The atmosphere was lively and while learners were involved in their discussion, their listening skill was also enhanced. Learners are also able to take turns and practice different roles of a formal meeting.

There are still ways to improve the design of these games. By sharing our ideas, teachers of other ESL classroom can apply our strategies, then design their own competitive games and make their classrooms as fruitful as possible.

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Blended Language Learning: Using Facebook as a Pedagogical Tool to Enhance Thai EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension through Internet-Based Reading Materials

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Abstract

This paper aimed to examine Thai EFL learners' reading comprehension ability through a blended language learning environment: the integration of regular face-to-face teaching method and the implementation of online reading activities. In this experimental research study, the participants were Thai EFL undergraduates randomly selected and assigned into two groups, namely a control group and an experimental group. The participants in the control group were taught by way of regular face-to-face classroom teaching while the blended approach, which integrated face-to-face classroom teaching with online reading activities, was used with the experimental group of learners. Following the principle of content-based instruction, the learners were allowed to select the article with contents in which they were interested, read, and post them to a Facebook group specifically created to serve as a learning tool. This study was conducted over the course of 16 weeks. The data were collected from a pre-test and a post-test on the learners' reading comprehension. Each test consisted of five reading comprehension skills, namely finding the main idea, scanning for specific details, pronoun reference, making inferences, and using vocabulary in context. The scores from both groups were then compared. The overall findings suggested that the blended language learning environment and learners' reading comprehension complement each other.

Keywords: blended language learning, reading comprehension, second language reading, authentic materials

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Introduction

Technology has become largely accessible in Thailand, and many Thai teachers who teach English as a foreign language (EFL) have integrated it into their pedagogical plans for English language teaching (ELT). It is inevitable that social media, such as Facebook and Twitter, have significantly influenced most Thai students' learning styles, particularly in the area of authentic materials available for second language learning. In particular, Thai students are nowadays more likely to rely on Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) like social networking in communicating with other people, thus spending more time online via different websites and applications. One of the online activities students tend to give their interest to is reading various types of online articles. It would thus be beneficial to better understand how well Thai EFL students comprehend the English content, which many Thai EFL students find difficult.

At Rajamangala University of Technology Suvarnabhumi, Thailand, all undergraduates are enrolled in English courses as part of their bachelor's degree study requirement. One of the general education courses concerns English reading skill enhancement. The course aims at enhancing students' ability to read information necessary for life, e.g. announcements, news, leaflets, and other written forms of English.

With this study and its methodology—integrating content-based instruction (CBI) into blended language learning (BLL) using authentic Internet-based materials – it was anticipated that the students would actively learn how to read articles of interest in English more effectively, and have a better attitude towards reading English articles both in and outside of the classroom.

Numerous research has been carried out to stress the benefits of incorporating technology in language education and attempt to prove the efficiency of blended learning in the recent years. The findings were both positive and negative (e.g. Banyen, Viriyavejakul & Ratanaolarn, 2016; Stracke, 2007; Trinder, 2016). Poon (2013) pointed out that no assumptions should be made as an approach that works well for one module may not work for another. For this reason, it was essential that a detailed study be conducted to better identify how successfully the blended language learning environment could support students' learning throughout the course, particularly in tertiary education. Therefore, this study aimed at exploring the learners' reading comprehension skill development with the blended language learning environment through Internet-based reading materials of their selection.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the present study were as follows:

1. To compare the effectiveness of the use of Facebook as a pedagogical tool to enhance Thai EFL learners' reading comprehension in blended language learning environment with traditional face-to-face learning environment in Thai EFL classes.

2. To examine whether the blended language learning environment with Internet-based reading materials can enhance Thai EFL learners' reading comprehension skills.

Research Questions

The present research study attempted to answer the following questions.

1. Are there any differences in traditional face-to-face language learning environment and blended language learning environment in Thai EFL learner's reading comprehension performance?

2. Are there any particular reading comprehension skills that can be enhanced when Thai EFL learners are taught in the blended language learning environment?

Hypotheses

The present study's statements of hypotheses were formulated as follows:

Hypothesis 1:
Thai EFL learners in the experimental group will show evidence of better English reading comprehension than Thai EFL learners taught in traditional face-to-face language learning environment.

Hypothesis 2:
Thai EFL learners' English reading comprehension skills, namely skimming and scanning, will improve significantly in blended language learning through Internet-based reading materials.

The Conceptual Framework

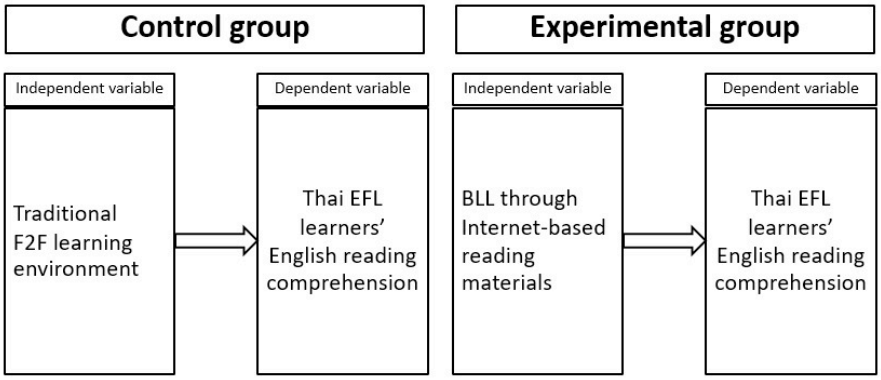

Figure 1: The conceptual framework in the present study

As shown in figure 1, the investigation into Thai EFL learners' English reading comprehension development in blended language leaning using Facebook group as a pedagogical tool to enhance Thai EFL learners was conducted in two different sessions, one with a control group within a traditional face-to-face learning environment, and the other with an experimental group who received a treatment. The

two approaches were considered independent variables in this study while the learners' English reading comprehension was the dependent variable being examined.

Review of Literature

Blended Language Learning

Blended learning, which refers to face-to-face and online instructions combined, is considered one of the most important recent advances in education (Thorne, 2003). Blended learning can be applied in various subjects including language learning. Blended language learning (BLL) can be defined as an approach consisting of both web-based instruction and traditional face-to-face teaching methods. The ratio of the blend could vary depending on appropriateness. In BLL, according to Graham (2006), learners of English as a second language (L2) will be able to access various kinds of authentic resources made available online.

Blended learning is about effectively integrating Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) into the process of teaching and learning with a view to enhancing students' learning experience and performance, while enabling teachers to efficiently manage their courses and teaching. Blended learning allows L2 learners to have access to numerous resources made available online (Graham, 2006). Since blended learning is an approach comprising both web-based instruction and non-web based instruction, e.g. face-to-face teaching methods, the ratio that can be adopted in the pedagogical plan could vary depending on suitability. Adopting this approach, teachers teaching English as a foreign language design their class to provide students with what is best done in a face-to-face environment and what would work better online.

Internet-Based Materials

Uses of authentic materials are seen as effective tools in fostering EFL learners' language proficiency development. The Internet inarguably offers a more dynamic learning experience compared to general EFL exercise papers. EFL learners can benefit from using the Internet to improve all four skills. Available resources on the Internet include multi-media and interactive materials which can support learners in learning a new language.

Content-Based Instruction

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is an approach to language teaching that concentrates on what is being taught – the content rather than the language itself (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989). This means that the language is considered the medium through which new content is learned. While learning, learners will acquire competency through CBI naturally. That is, the language being learned is taught within the context of the content. The content is not necessary academic; rather it can be any topic or theme of interest (Genesee, 1994). With great interest in the content, language learners will presumably be able to use more advanced thinking skills as they try to gain new knowledge, thus mastering the second language efficiently. CBI has gained considerable interest in ELT. Among several language learning approaches, CBI is distinct in facilitating language learners to learn about the content.

The learners, meanwhile, can improve their language learning alongside learning about the content in which they are interested. This approach places greater emphasis on the content being learned than on the language or linguistic forms (Brinton et al., 1989).

English as a Foreign Language

English as a foreign language (EFL) is learning English in countries where the majority of people do not speak English as their first language (L1). EFL Learners have little exposure to English due to the fact that English is not their official language. They have only one official language which is their native language, and English is learned mostly in the classroom (Ellis, 2008).

Examples of countries where English plays little role in everyday life and is mostly learned in classroom environment include, for instance, Japan, China and Thailand. In contrast, the term English as a Second Language (ESL) is different from EFL in that the learners in those countries use English as a major means of communication in their everyday communication. Examples of such countries are Malaysia, Singapore and India (Ellis, 2008). The present study placed an emphasis on Thai learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). Their general exposure to English learning was mainly in a classroom environment where teachers generally gave instructions and explanations of the lessons by means of their L1, Thai. The college at which the research participants were studying is Rajamangala University of Technology Suvarnabhumi. This university is one of nine universities under the Rajamangala University of Technology nationwide. On the average, there are approximately 30 students in each class. It is located in the province of Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya, in the central region of Thailand. The research subjects representing Thai EFL learners were randomly selected from the university's faculties and their English proficiency was considered low to intermediate.

Relevant Research

With a recent attempt to establish a blended model for learning achievement enhancement of Thai undergraduate students, Banyen et al. (2016) found that Thai tertiary-level students were satisfied with the blended learning when they were assigned to do their assignment using computer-based lessons outside class. Incorporating this approach, the teachers acted as facilitators making summaries of the lessons in face-to-face instruction. With this approach, students were allowed to learn things more independently and comprehensibly. In addition, Lin, Chung, Yeh, and Chen (2016) carried out an empirical study to investigate factors that influenced Taiwanese EFL undergraduate students' learning satisfaction and continuance intention to stick with blended e-learning. In determining the students' behaviors in blended e-learning, a questionnaire was administered to 313 students. It was revealed that the students displayed their satisfaction and expressed positive continuance intention to stick with this approach to improve their English skills. Blended e-learning was also advised to be adopted in other fields of education. Furthermore, Ghazizadeh and Fatemipour (2017) carried out a study to examine 60 intermediate Iranian EFL students' reading proficiency in blended learning. It was suggested that the blended learning in the experimental group had positive effects on the learners'

reading ability. It was thus stressed in the study that blended learning was useful especially for improving reading skills.

Adopting the blended approach in language learning, however, is not always the best choice. Stracke (2007) conducted research to better understand the perceptions of three participants who dropped out of blended language learning (BLL) environment. As the data elicited from the three students who abandoned the course revealed, three potential drawbacks of blended language learning were found to show the reasons the students left the BLL environment: 1) a perceived lack of support, connection and complementarity between the face-to-face and computer-assisted components of the 'blend', 2) a perceived lack of usage of the paper medium for reading and writing, and 3) the rejection of the computer as a medium of language learning.

Research Methodology

Research Design

To investigate and compare Thai EFL learners' reading comprehension in a blended language learning environment including the learners' selection of Internet-based materials with that of a face-to-face learning environment, an experimental research design was employed. There were two groups of Thai EFL learners, an experimental group and a control group, with members randomly selected to participate in this study. Pre-test and post-test with randomization of groups were manipulated for the purpose of preventing bias in the assignment of subjects for the two groups and to equally intersperse any effects of extraneous variables between the two groups (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

Research Participants

The participants of the present study were recruited randomly from the four campuses of Rajamangala University of Technology Suvarnabhumi. The target groups of the present research were students enrolled in the elective English reading course in the first semester of academic year 2016. The participants were then divided into two groups, namely the control group and the experimental group. The two groups each consisted of an equal number of participants, which were 20 research participants in each group. The participants were all accounting majors. A pre-test was conducted to ensure homogeneity and the independent samples t-test scores showed no significant differences in reading comprehension between the two groups. Thus, the two groups were appropriate for the present study's investigation.

Research Procedure

In this study, the researcher designed a 16-week course plan consisting of four stages in the blended learning process.

The Implementation of Blended Language Learning

Stage 1: Division of groups
The participants in the experimental group were divided into five groups of four students. They were assigned to take charge of the ownership of the discussion on a Facebook group created specifically for the purpose of the study.

Stage 2: Selecting and creating topics of interest
The subjects were allowed to research their topics of interest and submit the articles to the researcher one week prior to the date on which they started their blog. This process was to ensure the appropriateness of the articles for reading.

Stage 3: Discussion on posts
Having read the articles posted by other class members, students were encouraged to discuss or give opinions to express their points of view on the articles posted. This process was to ensure that every student had practiced reading and participated in the online reading prior to the face-to-face session.

Stage 4: Face-to-face discussion
At this stage, students had read the articles at their own pace and reflected on the articles posted online. Face-to-face classroom discussions were then conducted in order to provide feedback to students.

All of these four aforementioned stages were repeated until the 16th week in which the participants were asked to sit for the post-test to determine the extent of their improvement of English reading comprehension and compare the results with that of the control group, who were taught in a traditional face-to-face environment for 16 weeks without the treatment.

Data Collection in the Present Study

There were two types of research instruments adopted in this study.

Research Instruments

To answer research questions 1 and 2, pre-reading and post-reading tests were employed. The tests each consisted of 40 items particularly formulated to test Thai EFL learners' reading comprehension, namely finding the main idea, scanning for specific details, pronoun reference, making inferences, and using vocabulary in context. The justification for which these five aspects of reading comprehension were selected was that they served the objectives of this investigation and were most frequently found in the core textbooks used for this course. The tests were administered to both groups in the first week and the sixteenth week. At the end of the course, the participants were asked to sit for a post-test in order to compare the effectiveness of the two types of learning environments.

Data Analysis

After the data from the pre-test and post-test were elicited, they were analyzed quantitatively. Since the present investigation was conducted with two different

groups of learners, one group performing in one aspect of the experiment, and the other group performing the other, an independent measures t-test was employed in the quantitative data analysis in order to decide whether the blended language learning environment statistically outperforms the face-to-face instruction.

To answer research question 1 on the effectiveness of blended language learning environment, the data gained from the pre-test and post-test of control and experimental groups were analyzed to reveal the means and the standard deviation. To determine which reading comprehension skills can be improved when the learners are taught in blended language learning environment as guided by research question 2, the independent-means t-test was employed to find whether there was a significant difference between the results of the pre-test and those of the post-test for each reading comprehension skill.

Major Findings

With regards to the research participants' reading comprehension performance, the results from the pre-reading tests revealed by the independent samples t-test that there was no significant difference between the two mean scores of both control and experimental groups ($t = -0.946$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, it can be presumed that the Thai EFL learners' reading comprehension of the control group was comparable to that of the experimental group ($p = 0.350$).

In the post-test, the mean scores from both control and experimental groups were significantly different. From the total number of 40 test items on the five aforementioned reading comprehension skills, the control group's mean score was 25.25 while the experimental group gained a significantly higher mean score of 28.15. The post-reading test scores from both groups were then measured by the independent samples t-test. The results showed that the learners' reading comprehension in the experimental groups was significantly higher than that of the control group ($t = -2.791$, $p = 0.008$).

When comparing the two groups by the independent samples test, it was found that blended language learning as an intervention in this study had comparatively positive effects. The results from the post-test overall indicate that both groups' reading comprehension greatly improved. This could indicate that while traditional face-to-face learning environment remains a valid approach to language learning, the blended language environment is a more dynamic approach to the way lessons concerning reading English in EFL classes should be managed.

As regards the Thai EFL learners' particular reading skill development, the comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores on each reading comprehension skill, namely finding the main idea, scanning for specific details, pronoun reference, making inferences, and using vocabulary in context between the control group and the experimental group, were drawn. As guided by research question 2, the results from the independent samples t-test show that the learners from both groups were similarly proficient in their English reading comprehension skills as the pre-test scores of all five aspects showed no significant differences between the two groups. Nevertheless, the post-test results revealed that the learners from both groups could develop their reading comprehension skills. To be specific, in the blended language learning

environment, the learners in the experimental group performed significantly better in scanning for specific details than the control group ($t= -4.119$, $p < 0.05$). Furthermore, the mean scores for the scanning for specific details in the experimental group increased significantly from 5.55 to 6.95 out of 8 items ($p = 0.000$), whereas additionally, the mean scores for the other four reading skills showed some improvements.

Making inference was the reading skill that showed the least improvement. This may be due to the learners' low English proficiency as making inferences usually requires deeper understanding of the text than the other reading skills.

Scanning for specific details is one essential reading skill EFL learners should possess. The fact that the learners performed better in their scanning for specific details could be attributed to the obvious details presented in the text, such as online news articles. This indicated that authentic online reading materials could be useful when selected to help improve the learners' scanning for specific details. It can be concluded that Thai EFL learners can considerably benefit from online reading activities with Internet-based reading materials of interest through the group discussion feature made available on the well-known social network, Facebook.

Implications

Pedagogically speaking, the findings in this research indicated the feasibility of reading comprehension improvement among Thai EFL learners in blended language learning. Thus, as the findings suggested, it would be beneficial for learners of English as a foreign language when they are taught in the blended learning environment. It should be pointed out that the traditional face-to-face learning environment remains vital to facilitate the learning process, while a totally online course could pose some obstacles to learning English. It is recommended that a well-balanced proportion of face-to-face and web-based instructions in the blended language learning environment be taken into account and promoted to strengthen the process of learning with dynamic materials available online. Individual differences could play a role when considering the proportion of face-to-face and online learning time. Furthermore, the importance of learning materials can also play a role in the learners' motivation in learning a new language. Allowing students to select topics of interest and integrating them properly in the lessons is another essential part for providing the utmost learning environment.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper showed how a blended language learning environment played a crucial role in enhancing Thai EFL learners' reading comprehension performance. As the results showed, a blended language learning (BLL) can be seen as facilitating pedagogy fostering their reading comprehension ability. Providing a flexible learning environment for students can enable them to better learn at their own pace—without time constraints, interact more with friends by using English in their discussion, and feel more engaged in the learning process (McCarthy, 2016). As the post-test reading comprehension scores revealed, although both learning environments yielded positive results, the BLL environment outperformed the traditional face-to-face learning environment. Although this investigation provided some insights into reinforcing Thai

EFL learners' reading comprehension, it should be noted that blended language learning can be beneficial for learners when adopted appropriately. With reference to Thornbury (2016), implementing blended learning or the employment of any types of language learning aid, teachers should consider its appropriateness. It is recommended that language educators carefully balance the use of technology and integration into their pedagogical plan. Several studies suggest different proportions of class time and that of participating in the online learning environment. To organize an effective blended language learning environment, other factors such as age, class size, gender, and the convenience and ability of Internet access should be taken into account (McCarthy, 2016). Consideration of these factors may strengthen the process of learning in the blended language learning environment.

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Analysis of Experimental Evaluation of Theoretical Results of Irony Perception

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Abstract
This cross-sectional study represents the research of irony decoding in light of inter-disciplinary sciences in modern Georgian linguistic space which is a valuable step forwards in our rapidly changing world and echoes the necessity of modern Georgian linguistic paradigm. Irony plays the role of a medium in humans' intercommunication revealing emotional attitude which depends on cultural peculiarities, historical circumstances and individual psychological values and experience that are constantly changing. Having taken into consideration specific features of irony we conducted an experiment and investigated different aspects of interpretation of ironic utterances which the speaker uses to disclose a negative character of his attitude towards the object of irony so that not to damage himself and, at the same time, to save the face of the listener. We came to the conclusion, that one of the reasons of unsuccessful irony is not simply non-sufficient linguistic competence, but also the lack of knowledge of socio-cultural norms accepted in society. It is noteworthy that irony perception is analysed in a new way taking into consideration linguistic and extra-linguistic elements and its decoding results are discussed within interdisciplinary research. The main aim of the study is an experimental evaluation of irony decoding when ironic utterances are given to Georgian students in English. We believe that basic theoretical and practical results of the experiment are significant in modern Georgian linguistics, as any scholar can familiarize him/herself with the difficulties of irony perception.

Keywords: Decoding of irony, linguistic/pragmatic competence, norms of society, comprehension, interlanguage pragmatics, critical attitude, experiment, cross-cultural, intention

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Introduction

Irony is an inseparable part of our constantly changing world, in the world of daily challenges of political, socio-economic and cultural diversities. The form of irony, conditions of its realisation, rules of application and pragmatical intention is a constantly changing concept and its locution and perlocution are being transformed along the historical evolution of the society gradually becoming a significant part of a human world vision. It is noteworthy that irony decoding also has a rather relative than absolute character and is authentic only within given period of time and space.

The first attempts to analyse irony are associated with Plato and Kierkegaard who interpreted irony as a philosophical and esthetical category. In the 12th century Alexander de Villa Dei noted the following: "per voces dictis contraria dant ironiam" that means "Contraries, having been said through words, produce ironia." (Knox 1989:19-25). Along its path of transformation, functional dimension has been added to irony perception and in 21st century that is reflected by specific socio-cultural conditions, historical circumstances and psychological attitude.

By using irony the speaker takes an opportunity to express his/her opinion which is not allowed to be conveyed directly by the norms and ethics established within a certain society, deliberately attaching opposite/different meaning to his/her utterance in the specific ironic context and as a rule, permanently contains emotional and evaluative components of criticism.

(1) -You looked perfect at your birthday party!
- Oh, I tried very hard.
- I understand, you have chosen your guests very closely (everyday life).

In example (1) the speaker (who is a friend of the host) deliberately uses irony to express his negative attitude towards his friend's (who is the host of the party) appearance, but at the same time tries not to offend his friend. Such specific ironic speech acts help the speaker to implicitly reveal his attitude of criticism, surprise, scepticism, mockery, belief as well as to ease the psychological tension and influence the listener in the specific speech situation. As Colebrook has it: "Nothing really means what it says." (Colebrook 2004:1).

Lingvo-pragmatic experiment

This study represents the research of irony decoding in light of inter-disciplinary sciences in present Georgian linguistic space which is a step forward in modern Georgian linguistic paradigm.

We conducted an experiment taking into consideration specific features of irony and investigated different aspects of irony interpretation when the speaker uses irony to disclose his negative attitude towards the object of irony, at the same time saving the face of the listener. "...you can make somebody feel absolutely rotten, but on the surface have maintained the appearance of politeness." (Myers 1977:180).
(2) It is certain he will be delighted to see you," said the officer. (Hemin
gway 2010:429).

Said in a neutral, non-ironic context this utterance (2) would be treated as a normal one. But considering the context this sentence has been pronounced in, the hearer will definitely understand it has been said ironically: There is a war zone; two officers came to the Colonel, who was locked in his room with his fiancée, to deliver some important documents to him. The officers were told to wait until the Colonel is free, but they had to return to the front, so insisted on entering the room. Finally the third officer-receptionist who did not allow them to go into the room said the above expression which instantly gained an ironic flavour.

During the experiment we have considered that the process of decoding flows in two dimensions: a) linguistic – when meaning is processed and b) speech – when interpretation of additional data (historical, cultural, psychological, extra-linguistic, social aspects) takes place. It is well-known that linguistic competence is always followed by the speech competence, by the ability to use general humankind and specific national experience during ironic speech acts perception. "On top of what we say, we piggyback attitudes, feelings, moods (Bromberek-Dyzman 2012:98-99).

Therefore, we claimed that to successfully complete irony decoding the speaker and the hearer should have the same background knowledge, beliefs and aspirations and that the reason for unsuccessfully uttered irony can be not only non-sufficient linguistic competence but lack of knowledge of socio-cultural values and norms of the society. This is when we came to a relatively new branch of science - linguistic pragmatics, which studies a language through the interaction between linguistic and non–linguistic factors including the context and taking into consideration human subjective and psychological factors. To prove this we would like to refer to Nerlich and Clarke who claimed that there are "...two general pragmatic principles: 'Make your conversation as interesting/witty/surprising as possible' and 'Make your utterance/text as expressive as possible, but still accessible". (Nerlich and Clarke 2001:14).

Every speech act which contains irony has specific intention and emotional expression within a specific context which are reflected in the communicative act of warning, criticising, persuading, shocking, misleading. Thus, in order to better understand the process of irony interpretation, it is necessary to learn its specific contextual parameters which imply official/non-official situation, cultural traditions (that is ability to express his/her negative emotions), gender and profession of the participants of ironic speech act, their psychological state of mood, in addition to their physical characteristics and friendly/hostile relationship. ...any speech-act which has a necessary psychological state may be ironically performed". (Brown 1980:120).

(3) "Thanks for 12 beautiful years, you have really earned half". (Online publication)
To correctly understand irony in example (3) we need to be aware of the situation/context this utterance has been said. Imagine a scorned husband who divorced his wife of 12 happy years. He took a court order to give his ex-wife half of what they owned together literally: he used a saw to all of their possessions, then he sent a half share to his wife via post and started selling his own half on auction website eBay. After all this the husband posted a video on YouTube uttering this sentence. So, now a) we know specific context of this irony example, b) we are aware that the state of affairs between a husband and a wife is non-official, c) that the husband expresses negative/critical attitude towards the object of irony – his wife and

a married life with her, d) that the relationship changed from friendly to hostile and therefore husband's psychological state of mood changed to the negative side accordingly and e) that gender is revealed - this is a she and a he involved in this ironic speech act.

We also considered two theories of irony decoding. The first one is a two-step model, based on graded salience hypothesis, which claims that whatever essential, highly supportive or strong an ironic context can be, the process of its interpretation always starts with decoding of its literal meaning first, and then goes to the second stage of generating a suitable ironic meaning after the hearer recognizes inappropriateness of the literal meaning to the context.

The second theory is a direct access model, according to which perception of both: literal and ironic meanings takes place in a parallel way, thus giving the hearer a prospect to understand the ironic utterance from the very beginning ..."understanding irony requires parallel activation of literal and figurative meanings." (Gibbs 1994: 437).

(4) The most dangerous food is wedding cake. (James Thurber)
Did you catch irony from the beginning or did you start with a literal meaning of the word "dangerous" and then smoothly went into the second stage? We would like to claim that this example (4) can be treated as a classical case of the direct access model, as, even there is no supportive context giving you an idea of inappropriateness of the word to the context, the hearer can easily interpret this utterance as being ironic.

Main objectives of the experiment

During this lingvo-pragmatic study of irony decoding, the research has been actively conducted in the context of semantics and pragmatics, which comprises of intention of the speaker and illocutionary power of the utterance. The main objective of our experiment was to identify which linguistic forms the participants have been applying to decoding of ironic utterances in English, in other words, how they achieved understanding of what has been communicated by the speaker.

The main aim of this study was also an experimental evaluation of irony decoding when ironic utterances are given to Georgian students in English. We tried to define comprehension of irony examples given in a non-native language. To confirm, irony understanding took place in English as a foreign language which implied the participants' relevant knowledge of the English language.

In addition, we investigated which of the two concepts we described above: a direct access theory or a two-step model worked for Georgians participants when comprehending four main types of ironic speech acts: assertives, directives, commissives and expressives (there is no ironic declaratives which form the 5th speech group):

Experiment data: participants and research examples

We have chosen a questionnaire for the experiment, the administration of which was conducted in individual regime. The correct version was the one that denoted negative attitude of the speaker.

We have selected 40 Georgian national students from two leading Georgian Universities whose level of English was from Upper intermediate through to the Advanced, as per their self-assessed evaluation of their knowledge of English. We deliberately have not explained irony concept to the participants, so they could use their own knowledge, experience, competence and intuition during the experiment.

The participants were offered 40 examples. These utterances were not invented or designed specifically for this particular experiment. All of the sentences were examples of "natural situations" written in English representing belles-lettres, illustrations, online publications, newspapers and empirical data including rhetoric questions, sarcastic expressions, examples expressing gratitude or state of being sorry, etc. We have not been restricted by any parameters when choosing irony examples as we tried to achieve a vast diversity of the cases we could offer to the participants.

We have also included one example of asteism (positive irony) – it was an ironic compliment which had a positive connotation of irony in the negative context. Such utterances of irony called asteism are very rarely used, as they are vague and ambiguous and can be treated as offence because the speaker expresses positive message in a negative form, that is, the speaker explicitly criticizes something, and implicitly praises the "victim" of irony.

(5) - Come back then now. Henry asked.
- No, Catherine said. I have to do the chart, darling, and fix you up.
- You don't really love me or you'd come back again.
- You are such a silly boy. She kissed me. (Hemingway 1977:76).

Example (5) from the experimental list was taken from Hemingway's novel "Farewell to arms" where main characters - Kathrine and Henry speak in hospital after Henry had been operated on. Of course, Henry could easily understand that Catherine was not criticising him at all, as she kissed him after the utterance confirming to him her intention to praise him. However we have not come across many asteism examples due to them being elusive and confusing.

Procedures

We asked the participants to attentively read all the examples before answering the questions.

Each and every example was followed by seven (open and multiple-choice) questions arranged in one and the same order. All the questions were divided into three groups. The first group contained the first five questions (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5) examining comprehension, meaning, belief, intention and attitude of the speaker. The second group consisted of one question which was question number Q6 in the experiment and which was evaluating speech act theory confirming participants' understanding of the

speaker's main purpose of the utterance: request, command, advice, congratulation, gratitude, apology, promise or assertion/confirmation of a true idea. The third group included the seventh question Q7 assessing participants' ability to grasp "the ironiness" of the example. In Q (7) - is the content ironic? participants were asked to rate the target utterance and choose one answer from 5 possible options: content is slightly ironic/ironic/very ironic/not ironic/can't say; when 0 was the lowest score and reflected a total lack of perception of irony with the chosen answer "can't say", while score 5 was given to the answer - "very ironic".

To assess the answers to Q7, all 40 examples have been arranged into 5 groups:

	Group 1 - Thanking	Group 2- Excuses	Group 3 – Rhetorical questions	Group 4 - Congratulations	Group 5 - assertives
7a	16.3%	19.2%	20.5%	14.2%	17.8%
7b	37.0%	27.5%	23.0%	30.0%	31.7%
7c	13.5%	14.1%	14.5%	12.5%	11.3%
7d	20.5%	24.3%	26.5%	28.3%	27.2%
7e	12.7%	14.9%	16.5%	15.0%	12.0%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

This gave us an opportunity to analyse the results of how the participants measured the ironiness of the examples and to claim that the highest percentage of the correct answers were for group 5 – assertives with 31.7 %, where only 11.3% and 12.0% have chosen the answer -"content is not ironic/can't say". The most difficult to comprehend were examples from group 3 with the percentage of 23.0% and (14.5% and 16.5%) respectively.

Findings, observations and results

The present work is the first attempt to explore irony in light of inter-language pragmatics (ILP). To our knowledge, this is the first investigation of Georgian speaking participants' perception of ironic utterances in English. As such, it represents a new test on how pragmatic competence of a native language works in the process of decoding ironic utterances produced/ delivered in a foreign language.

We came to the assumption that the participants were not able to adequately perceive irony if they could not distinguish other person's intended meaning from what was literally said and if they could not comprehend the speaker's intention, attitude and belief, that is, what in reality the speaker thought and meant. We considered ability of participants to detect and understand speaker's intention and attitude towards the utterance to be critical for a complex ironic speech act perception.

The study revealed three groups of participants at which they performed: 1. those participants who completely failed to understand ironic utterance because they could not see irony in it; (7 participants) 2. those participants who partially perceived irony (20 participants); 3. those participants who correctly understood the utterance (13 participants).

Having analysed the results we received a general picture which reflects all components of irony perception - meaning, belief, intention and attitude and which confirms that it was not difficult for Georgian students participating in the experiment to understand ironic examples given in English, especially in cases where the context of the utterance seemed sound, reasonable and clear to the participants, close to their general knowledge. This, in turn, confirmed that overall Georgian participants had sufficient capacity to adequately decode irony examples in English.

78.4% of the students perceived irony correctly, however some cultural aspects, different level of common knowledge, certain socio-historical differences and weakness in pragmatic and linguistic competence hindered 100% perception of irony. It is important to mention here that Kasper in his work "Data collection in pragmatics research" claims that only 96% of the population can perceive irony. (Kasper 2000) This happens when irony is given to the participants in their native language. In our research the percentage was 78.4% for the utterances presented in a foreign language.

	Question				
Example	1 - comprehension	2 - meaning	3 - belief	4 - intention	5 - attitude
40	78.4%	68.8%	68.9%	59.6%	62.8%

It is interesting to mention that Georgian participants easily recognised asteism – ironic compliment which was number 31 in the experimental list of examples. 80% of participants replied correctly to the question - what was meant by the utterance. However, 55% have chosen the answer "content is not ironic / can't say", which means that we received controversial results.

Example 31	Questions										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7a	7b	7c	7d	7e
	80.0%	57.5%	60.0%	67.5%	82.5%	42.5%	37.5%	7.5%	35.0%	0.0%	20.0%

Participants assessed as the most ironic - example number 11 with 57.5% of respondents correctly replying to Q (7) and as the most non-ironic - example number 38, with 57.5% of respondents choosing "content is not ironic" or "can't say".

Example number (11) from the experimental list:
I find television very educating. Every time somebody turns on the set, I go into the other room and read a book.

Example number (38) from the experimental list:
After finishing school in the asylum Jerusha was sent to college to be educated to become a writer by a person who she had never seen. He paid a large sum of money for her tuition fee, her stay at college, her books, her clothes. During a 4-year course of her studies her only wish was to meet the Man and thank him personally, but she had not seen him even on the photo. So Jerusha wrote the following: "I have it planned exactly what you look like-very satisfactorily-until I reach the top of your head, and then I AM stuck. I can't decide whether you have white hair or black hair or

sort of sprinkly grey hair or maybe none at all. Here is your portrait: But the problem is, shall I add some hair?"

Example	Questions										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7a	7b	7c	7d	7e
11	95.0 %	77.5 %	95.0 %	57.5 %	75.0 %	60.0 %	22.5 %	57.5 %	5.0 %	5.0 %	10. 0%
38	95.0 %	50.0 %	40.0 %	45.0 %	40.0 %	47.5 %	27.5 %	15.0 %	35.0 %	2.5 %	22. 5%

Conclusion

To conclude, the context or speech situation in which the ironic utterance is used is pretty important to adequately decode irony which is based on text amount, extralinghistic factors (historical, cultural, life experience), shared background knowledge, presupposition and emotional application of linguistic material. Therefore, irony interpretation is one of the most acute and smart and at the same time, complex mechanisms of the psychological adaptation of a person.

We believe that basic theoretical and practical results of the experiment are significant for modern Georgian linguistics, as any scholar can familiarize him/herself with the difficulties of irony perception.

Our experimental findings extend previous research on irony interpretation and confirm that irony is a linguistic phenomenon which exists only in a specific context: the more expanded the context is, the easier it was for the participants to interpret irony examples. The results confirmed that to adequately interpret irony Georgian participants were required to have an appropriate level of English knowledge and enough awareness of English socio/cultural/historic specifics along with both - linguistic and communicative competence.

Gibbs R.W. and Colston H.L. mentioned in their work that the word "irony" can mean different things to the speaker, the hearer and the researcher. (Gibbs and Colston 2007). Fernandez J. W. and Huber M. T. claimed that "one person's irony is always possibly another person's sincerity" (Fernandez and Huber 2001:13). And Eco added: "[t]here is always someone who takes ironic discourse seriously." (Eco 1984:68).The results demonstrated the above opinions can be proved, as a certain group of participants answered that given examples were not ironic at all and they were not able to identify irony. In addition, lack of certain knowledge of public norms or psychological state of the speaker led to failure to identify irony.

(6) Thanks Gatwick security! – Thursday, Apr 30, 2015 Metro, 2015:3
Comedy star Chris O'Dowd tweeted the above utterance in example (6) about his frustration following a run-in over baby's bottle. Chris was passing through security at Gatwick airport and airport security staff "body-searched" his three-month-old baby. Getting frustrated, Chris threw his baby's toys out of the pram and said the above utterance. In this particular ironic situation there is a chance that the hearer can take this sentence seriously if he does not see any irony taking the thanking literally.

It should be noted that most of the scholars who are interested in irony perception have not come to an agreement on a single formal definition of irony, as well as its functions and therefore there is no common opinion on irony decoding process acceptable for all the researchers. But it is worth mentioning that more or less everybody agrees that the complexity of social, emotional and cognitive aspects and their rapid coordination must be considered as a necessary precondition of irony decoding.

The pilot study presented in this paper investigates irony perception in the light of inter-language pragmatics which proves to be a stepping stone towards a better understanding of the current conditions of decoding of ironic utterances in Georgia in the relatively diverse cultures of England and Georgia. The findings reveal significant cross-cultural differences relating to the perception of ironic utterances.

The results of the experiment are relevant and provide a useful basis in the area of irony exploration within the framework of Georgian linguistics and are a worthwhile reference for further research in wider aspects of investigation. However, these tentative conclusions are based on very limited data since the research was conducted only within one experimental group and both irony examples and number of participants of the experiment were restricted to forty; it is understandable that the study has limited achievements and we cannot claim for sure if irony perception is a one-stage or a two-stage process.

“Everyone has irony in their life. If it’s not physical, it’s mental”. (Freerks 2010:15)

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Effects of Social Context on Foreign Language Anxiety among University English Learners in Hong Kong

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Abstract
This study explored the effects of social context on foreign language anxiety among university English learners in Hong Kong. Given that English competence is widely considered as the key to career opportunities, while speaking English with a Hong Kong accent can invite social stigma, it was assumed that such factors might be potential sources of learners' anxiety. Results from questionnaires and interviews with 12 undergraduates largely confirmed the assumption, providing evidence of how contextual factors might also lead to learners' anxiety in addition to other commonly known causes such as learners' beliefs and psychological traits. To help anxious learners assuage their apprehension, teachers are recommended to adopt a sensitive approach to their speaking pedagogy.

Keywords: foreign language anxiety, speaking, social context, English learners, Hong Kong

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Introduction

Foreign language anxiety (FLA) has long been considered a key affective factor in second language acquisition. It is seen as an impediment to language learning and is defined as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language texts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Among the language skills, it is believed that speaking generates the most anxiety (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999). Although there have been suggestions that FLA is closely associated with other types of anxiety (e.g. communication apprehension, test anxiety), researchers generally view it as a largely independent construct that inhibits language learning (Horwitz, Tallon, & Luo 2009).

FLA can be caused by a wide range of personal and contextual factors, such as fear of negative evaluation (Kitano, 2001; Mak, 2011), low self-esteem (Foss & Reitzel, 1988), negative learning experience (Price, 1991), parental influence (Yan & Horwitz, 2008) and teachers' classroom practices (Choi, 2016). At the heart of the anxiety, however, is the inability to present oneself authentically in the target language (Horwitz, Tallon, & Luo, 2009). It stems from the agonizing realization of the perpetual disparity between one's authentic self and the compromised version presented through the target language as a result of the learner's limited command of it. FLA produces numerous undesirable effects, not least for causing learners to avoid communicating in the target language. Such avoidance denies learners the opportunities for practice and further impedes their learning, therefore creating a self-reinforcing vicious cycle for anxiety.

Recent research on FLA has shown that in addition to learners' psychological traits, the social context of learning can also influence the levels of anxiety experienced by learners. In their study of Chinese university students in a metropolitan city (Shanghai), Yan and Horwitz (2008) found that the regions from which the students came and the dialects they spoke were among the causes of their anxiety when speaking English. Students who came from other parts of China were reported to feel anxious about not being able to speak as well as their Shanghainese peers. Examining the effects of social variables on FLA among adult multilingual speakers, Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) also found that higher levels of anxiety could be linked to such social factors as inadequate socialization in the target language and a small network of interlocutors.

This study aimed to further explore the relationship between FLA, with a focus on speaking, and the social context of learning among university English learners in Hong Kong. The social context of the current study is of particular interest as English enjoys high social status in Hong Kong. Competence in the language is widely regarded as the key to higher education and career opportunities (Li, 2013), whereas speaking English with a Hong Kong accent is likely to be socially stigmatized (Luk, 2010). Given this context, it would be of interest to examine whether such social expectations would present themselves as sources of anxiety for English learners in Hong Kong. To this end, two assumptions were tested:

1. Given the high status of English in Hong Kong and its implications on academic and career prospects, learners may experience much anxiety due to the high stakes involved.

2. Learners may hold a negative attitude towards the Hong Kong accent and feel anxious when they can only speak with it.[1]

Since a lack of proficiency for self-expression is a major cause of anxiety, the study also explored whether anxious learners would make an effort to ease their anxiety by improving their proficiency.

Participants and methods

The participants were the students of the researcher in a professional English course in the spring semester of 2017. They were second and third-year undergraduates majoring in surveying and civil engineering. Most grew up in Hong Kong and started learning English at the age of 3. They had not lived or studied in an English-speaking country. They completed a simplified version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) (see Appendix). The simplified questionnaire consisted of 15 statements, focusing primarily on speaking with a few original statements reflecting causes of anxiety as identified in research.[2] The questionnaire was completed by 55 students. Students with an average score of above 3 were considered anxious. Only those who reached this threshold and were willing to share their anxiety in a follow-up interview were included in the data analysis. This resulted in data from 12 students' questionnaires and interviews.

The follow-up interviews were conducted individually by the researcher on a semi-structured basis, each lasting for about 30 minutes. The participants were asked questions as prompts for further sharing, such as their perceived causes of anxiety, and their attitude towards English and the Hong Kong accent. To maximize the potential for obtaining insightful data and to free them from speaking anxiety, their native language Cantonese was used throughout the interview and they were guaranteed anonymity.[3] The details of the participants are given in Table 1.

[1] One participant speaks Mandarin as her native language so for her it is the Chinese accent.
[2] For simplicity, the reverse-scored statements in the original version were rewritten in line with the rest of the statements. The modified scale had been piloted with two non-participating students to ensure its comprehensibility.
[3] One interview was conducted in English as the student was from mainland China and could not speak Cantonese.

Table 1: Background of participants

Participant	Sex	Year of study	Major	Age started learning English	Mean score on the FLCAS
1	F	3	Civil Engineering	3	3.33
2	M	3	Civil Engineering	3	4.00
3	M	3	Civil Engineering	3	4.60
4	M	3	Civil Engineering	3	3.60
5	M	3	Civil Engineering	3	4.07
6	M	3	Civil Engineering	3	4.00
7	M	3	Civil Engineering	3	3.67
8	M	2	Civil Engineering	3	3.80
9	M	2	Civil Engineering	6	3.80
10	M	2	Civil Engineering	6	3.80
11	F	2	Civil Engineering	9	3.33
12	M	3	Surveying	3	4.33
				Overall	3.86

Findings

As seen in Table 1, the overall average of all participants was 3.86, suggesting a fairly high level of anxiety among the group. A similar trend is seen in Table 2, which presents the average score of each statement in the questionnaire. Among the highest-scored statements were the two related to interaction with native speakers (i.e. S13 with 4.17 and S14 with 4.25). Some attributed their discomfort to the fact that they were not proficient enough to communicate with native speakers. They also considered speech by native speakers difficulty to follow due to its high speed and use of slang. Regarding the variation among the participants, most statements had a low standard deviation (SD) of under 1. In contrast, statements 6 and 12 showed more variation with a higher SD of 1.00 and 1.17 respectively. A possible explanation is that responses to these statements largely depend on personal learning experiences, which could vary greatly from person to person.

Table 2: Average scores of the statements

	Statement	Mean	Standard deviation
1	I worry about making mistakes when speaking in English class.	4.00	0.43
2	When I speak English, I often feel that others are judging my pronunciation and grammar.	4.00	0.43
3	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	4.08	0.51
4	I don't feel confident when I speak in English class.	3.92	0.51
5	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	3.75	0.75
6	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make in my speech.	3.08	1.00
7	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.	3.33	0.89
8	I feel frustrated about not being able to express myself fully when speaking English.	4.17	0.58
9	I always feel that other students speak English better than I do.	3.92	0.90
10	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	3.83	0.58
11	I think accuracy in speaking is very important and I feel very bad about the mistakes I make.	3.92	0.67
12	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	3.50	1.17
13	I would feel nervous speaking English with native speakers.	4.17	0.72
14	I don't feel comfortable around native speakers of English.	4.25	0.62
15	I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	4.00	0.74
	Overall	3.86	0.70

Findings from both the questionnaire and the interview indicated that fear of negative evaluation and a lack of proficiency to express oneself authentically were the most common causes of speaking anxiety. The average scores for statements related to the fear of being judged negatively were on the high end of the scale (e.g. S2 with 4.00 and S12 with 3.50). Interview comments which reflected their fear include "I fear being laughed at" and "I fear losing face". In terms of the inability to truly express oneself, almost all participants either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "I feel frustrated about not being able to express myself fully when speaking English" (S8), with a high average score of 4.17. This frustration was typified by interview comments such as "I can't express my meaning", "I can't speak my mind freely" and "I need to translate from Cantonese".

Individual reasons for anxiety were also noted. One participant cited a negative learning experience where he was laughed at when he accidentally switched to

Cantonese during a class presentation. Ever since, he felt particularly anxious when speaking English in front of the class. Another attributed his anxiety to his shy personality; he felt anxious even when communicating in his first language and more so in English. A few reported that they felt anxious because of the pressure from the test and interview situations, which suggested that there were few opportunities for them to use English outside these high-stakes situations.

Regarding the assumption that the high status of English and the high stakes in mastering it may cause anxiety, results from the interview suggested this is quite plausible. Almost all participants (92%) agreed that the high status and the implications of English on their future career had an effect on their anxiety levels. They worried that with less than fluent English, they might not be competitive enough in job interviews and might leave a poor professional image before clients. Some comments reflecting such worries were:

I need good English to pass the interview in the HKIE[4] exam. (Participant 3)

All candidates have similar qualifications and skills but being able to express oneself in good English leaves a better impression. (Participant 6)

It's an open secret that big companies and the government won't interview candidates with a DSE[5] score less than 4. (Participant 7)

With such high stakes on their career, it is understandable that they feel anxious about not being able to express themselves effectively in English, both in testing and professional contexts.

The second assumption that learners may hold a negative attitude towards the Hong Kong accent and therefore feel anxious about speaking with the accent was only partially supported and the data presented a nuanced picture. Most participants (92%) considered it acceptable to speak with the Hong Kong accent as long as they were intelligible. However, about half of them (42%) considered society as less tolerant of the Hong Kong accent and therefore they would feel anxious if being judged so. They formed such impression from social media and newspapers, for instance, Youtube videos showing Hong Kong legislators speaking English with a heavy accent and the ridiculing comments underneath the videos.

When asked whether they made a regular effort to improve their English proficiency as a way to ease their anxiety, most of the participants (83%) admitted not. Reasons that emerged repeatedly in the interviews were being too busy with course work from their major, little motivation due to difficulty to see improvements, a lack of practicing opportunities, and feeling embarrassed to speak English with classmates. The last two reasons seem to be interrelated: it is not surprising that they do not have

[4] The Hong Kong Institution of Engineers (HKIE) is a professional organization for various fields of engineers in Hong Kong. Graduates who wish to become chartered engineers are required to pass the assessments where English is the official language for all the papers including the interview.

[5] The Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (DSE) is an academic qualification that secondary school students in Form 6 (Grade 12) obtain by sitting the public examination. A score of 4 is roughly equivalent to 6 on the IELTS scale, indicating a competent user.

many opportunities for practice as they do not use English even with their classmates whom they see regularly.

Discussion

The causes of foreign language anxiety reported in the current study largely chime with those found in previous research, with fear of negative evaluation and inability for authentic self-expression being among the most common ones (e.g. Horwitz, Tallon, & Luo, 2009; Mak, 2011). The finding that the two assumptions were largely confirmed provides further evidence for the significant role of social contexts in determining learners' anxiety. Contrary to the assumption that the participants may hold a negative attitude towards the Hong Kong accent which they may feel anxious having, most of them consider it acceptable despite the potential unfavourable view by others. This again echoes previous research that although the native accent is strongly preferred as the learning target by most English learners in Hong Kong, they do not mind being identified by their accent as a Hongkonger (Chan, 2016).

Results from the interviews provide clear evidence that the high status of English and its stakes on learner's career prospects is likely to make them more susceptible to, and suffer a higher level of, foreign language anxiety. Given that anxiety undermines learners' performance and inhibits their will to speak, the results carry important implications for language teachers. While the social context of learning can hardly be changed, an understanding of the ways it may provoke anxiety enables teachers in Hong Kong and other language educators working in a similar context, to recognize the importance of adopting a sensitive approach to teaching.

One suggestion on teaching with sensitivity can be offered on teachers' attitude towards accent. This study revealed that some students worried about being judged negatively with their accent. To allay their fear, teachers should handle issues with pronunciation sensitively. For example, some students speak with a relatively flat intonation, which is a typical feature of the Hong Kong accent (Chan & Li, 2000). When teaching these students, teachers should avoid negative comments on their intonation such as "strange" or "boring". By eschewing a punitive stance towards the accent, teachers will be spared from unwittingly reinforcing society's unforgiving view in the classroom, thereby creating a safer environment for the anxious students to use the language.

Error correction can also be approached with sensitivity. For learners who have a strong fear of negative evaluation, they will be more willing to participate in speaking activities if their errors are dealt with judiciously. Teachers are encouraged to be more tolerant of errors and intervene only when there is serious miscommunication. To encourage the more reticent students to speak, a short class period can be set aside for speaking activities in small groups, with the explicit goal of keeping the conversation going without worrying about errors. This could enable students to appreciate the importance of expressing themselves over the production of error-free speeches (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002), thereby easing their fear of making mistakes. As teachers' classroom practices have a significant impact on students' anxiety levels (Choi, 2016; Mak, 2011), teachers with a heightened sensitivity in their pedagogy could greatly facilitate the learning of anxious learners.

On the learners' side, an awareness of the fact that speaking anxiety is a common phenomenon is a good start to tackle the issue. For learners with perfectionistic tendencies, they should be guided to set realistic expectations on their speaking ability and to realize that making mistakes is an indispensable part of the learning process (Horwitz, Tallon, & Luo, 2009). Since Cantonese is the default common language among Chinese Hongkongers and speaking English among fellow Cantonese speakers is viewed as highly awkward (Li, 2009), it is only natural that the participants in the study lamented a lack of opportunities for practice. This highlights the need on the part of the anxious learners to seize and create opportunities to use English with a wider network of conversation partners, which could be an effective way to reduce anxiety (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008). Common informal speaking opportunities on campus such as conversation and interest groups with international students should be seen as valuable allies for the learners to build their confidence in English.

Conclusion

Research on foreign language anxiety has identified various causes ranging from psychological factors, learners' beliefs, and teachers' practices, to the broader contextual factors such as parental influence and peer competition. This study shows that the high status of English and its stakes on learners' career is a possible source of anxiety for English learners in Hong Kong. This extends the current understanding of anxiety research by providing further evidence of how contextual factors might also lead to learners' anxiety. To support anxious learners' language development, teachers could profitably adopt a sensitive approach to their speaking pedagogy, which helps learners liberate themselves from their crippling anxiety.

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Appendix

Name: _____

A test on your English speaking anxiety

(adapted from Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). English classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*, 125-132.)

For each statement, indicate whether you:

1 strongly disagree
2 disagree
3 neither agree nor disagree
4 agree
5 strongly agree

Statement	Answer
1. I worry about making mistakes when speaking in English class.	
2. When I speak English, I often feel that others are judging my pronunciation and grammar.	
3. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	
4. I don't feel confident when I speak in English class.	
5. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	
6. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make in my speech.	
7. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.	
8. I feel frustrated about not being able to express myself fully when speaking English.	
9. I always feel that other students speak English better than I do.	
10. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	
11. I think accuracy in speaking is very important and I feel very bad about the mistakes I make.	
12. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	
13. I would feel nervous speaking English with native speakers.	
14. I don't feel comfortable around native speakers of English.	
15. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	
Add up your answers to get the total score. Then divide it by 15 to get your average.	Average =

Promoting Collaborative Writing through Google Docs in A Paragraph Writing Class

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Abstract:
Technology has been used to aid students' writing skills, including the use of word processors alongside with email to exchange writing feedback for improvement. In practice, however, a major concern of email exchanges is it could not help students improve their writing significantly. Students received feedback via email, but they did not undertake revision. Consequently, the improvement did not take place within this technology-based writing approach. This might be caused that word processors with email exchanges did not provide any features to encourage students to undertake revision and there was no opportunity for the teacher to have control over their writing process, so they felt no obligation to revise their writing. Further, students may need to have a discussion with their peers in the collaborative environment, so they can help each other to improve their writing. Thus, it is important to figure out a potential means to aid students' writing improvement. This can be approached through collaborative writing. Some studies suggest that collaborative writing can engender better writing for students since it allows them to exchange ideas and work together to complete a writing process. In this scheme, Google Docs can be a potential means to promote collaborative writing since its features afford students the opportunity to compose writing jointly and undertake the writing process. This paper, therefore, is an attempt to critically scrutinise a writing approach to promoting collaborative writing through Google Docs in paragraph writing class.

Keywords: Collaborative Writing, Google Docs, Paragraph Writing

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Introduction

Collaborative writing has become increasingly popular in language learning. Some studies suggest that collaborative writing can engender better writing for students since it allows them to negotiate meaning, i.e. to discuss language and work together to complete a writing task (Pae, 2011; Storch, 2005). Thanks to technology emerging in language learning, Google Docs can be an alternative means to promote collaborative writing among students since its features afford students the opportunity to compose writing jointly at the same time (Dekeyser & Watson, 2006; Pae, 2011; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). Hence, to help students improve their writing skills, promoting collaborative writing using Google Docs is a novel strategy that can possibly be applied. This paper is an attempt to promote collaborative writing using Google Docs in my paragraph writing class. Precisely, the remainder of this paper is organised in the following ways: establishing the teaching context; reflecting on literature in relation to collaborative writing through Google Docs; illustrating the lesson plan of collaborative writing and forming the expected learning outcomes.

Establishing Teaching Context

I taught a paragraph writing class to assist my professor at the State Islamic University of Surabaya. It was a prerequisite course which aims to help students develop their paragraph writing skills, such as descriptive and opinion paragraph. The coursework carried out two main assignments in which students should write a different paragraph for every two week and submit a certain paragraph for the final assignment. Students were first-year students who can be considered as novice writers since they started learning academic writing in this initial course. In response to this, I attempted to help students develop their paragraph writing skills through interactive activities, such as facilitating peer discussion on their paragraphs in the class. Furthermore, I tried to utilise technology in my classroom to facilitate their writing. A case in illustration, I utilised a word processor and email as means to assist students to perform their writing and to receive feedback for their writing improvement.

However, email exchanges in this context could not help students improve their writing significantly. Students received feedback via email, but they did not undertake revision. Therefore, the improvement did not take place when they were assigned to write another paragraph. This might be caused by the limitation that students did not have any media to conduct their revision, so they left their writing behind. In addition, there was no opportunity for me to have control over their writing process, so they felt no obligation to revise their writing. Further, students may need to have a discussion with their peers in the collaborative environment, so they can help each other to improve their writing. Thus, it is important to figure out a potential means to aid students' paragraph writing through collaborative writing where I will be able to monitor through all writing processes, especially to reinforce the revision and students can benefit from peer discussion in the collaborative environment. In this scheme, collaborative writing can be addressed using Google Docs.

Literature Review

Promoting collaborative writing through Google Docs in my paragraph writing class, calls for a discussion on what literature says about this approach. This section will

analyse the literature on certain concepts which cover collaborative writing, collaborative writing through Google Docs, writing process in collaborative writing through Google Docs and task-based approach for collaborative writing.

Collaborative writing

Writing may be commonly focused on a sole product which is orchestrated by an individual act of composing ideas. However, it is not necessary to base writing merely as an individual product, but it is also significant to approach writing as a social act (Weigle, 2002). A social interaction among students becomes very influential in knowledge construction (Liu & Lan, 2016). This is what Vygotsky (1978) defines as 'social constructivism' which suggests that knowledge development is enhanced through social activity. Thus, it is worth noting to involve students in social interaction to enhance their writing skills, such as assigning them to write in pairs or groups. Murray (1992) notes that when students are encouraged to learning writing in relation to the social act, collaborative writing may be well-placed to deal with it.

Collaborative writing is defined as a joint writing activity which encourages students to integrate their ideas to produce a piece of writing through reflecting on the target language and negotiation process (Hirvela, 1999; Storch, 2005; Dobao, 2012). Hirvela (1999) asserts that carrying out tasks in pairs or groups work can yield better outcome rather than performing tasks individually since, as Storch (2005) suggests, it facilitates students to engage in peer response where students can provide each other with feedback. More essentially, Storch (2005) ascertains that collaborative writing aids the writing process. A case in point, students will go through the process from sharing ideas, negotiation of meaning, composing and revising during collaborative work with their peers. Further, Suwantarathip and Wichadee (2014) acknowledge that it also can be perceived as an interesting technique which spurs students to engage more in the learning process. Thus, it can be underlined that collaborative writing is a shared writing activity which can increase the productivity of writing since it scaffolds the writing process which aids students the opportunity to negotiate their understanding and learn from each other's responses.

Collaborative Writing through Google Docs

Conventionally, collaborative writing can be carried out through email (Mansor, 2011) as a tool for communication which enables students to exchange their ideas out of the writing activity (Slaouti, Pennells & Weatherhead, 2000). However, this means may not serve the synchronous interface among collaborators while they are working on their writing. Hence, it is necessary to figure out a beneficial tool which can afford the real interface among collaborators to share ideas and write texts at once. This can be addressed by the use of Web 2.0, for example, wikis and Google Docs (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014).

There have been a lot of research whose focal point is wikis as one of the Web 2.0 tools which can facilitate collaborative writing activity (Lai, Lei & Liu, 2016; Chao & Lo, 2009; Woo, Chu & Li, 2013; Hadjerrouit, 2014). Wikis, so these studies reveal, can be used to set up collaborative space where students can write, share and construct knowledge with other peers to achieve writing improvement. It is, therefore, inevitable that wikis have been popular among teachers to foster collaborative

writing. However, wikis seem to be a new platform for students in this context, in which they have not been familiar with the features. This unfamiliarity can accordingly lead to liability of students' resistance to participating in group work. In addition, wikis may not address synchronous interaction, which can facilitate students to collaborate live (Yang, 2010). Therefore, it is essential to utilise a collaborative tool which can ease students with its familiarity and afford both asynchronous and synchronous interaction among collaborators.

In response to this, Google Docs can be a viable alternative to promoting collaborative writing since it can support students to work collectively in concurrent time (Dekeyser & Watson, 2006; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). This tool can solve potential conflicts, which may occur when students negotiate at a distance (Woo & Reeves, 2007). In addition, Google Docs is an online form of a word processor which allows students to access features of the word processor at any time and places with the internet connection (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). This similarity with the word processor provides the ease for students to work collaboratively with the features that they have been common with. Apart from wikis, therefore Google Docs is a more useful collaborating tool which is appropriate for promoting collaborative writing in my classroom.

To aid collaborative writing, Google Docs offers a sharing tool which supports the accessibility of sharing documents with other people (Mori, Buzzi, M.C., Buzzi, M., Leporini, & Penichet, 2011). This tool allows collaborators to be editors who can view and edit the document or viewers who can view the document only *(See figure 1)*. In this scheme, the role of collaborators will serve as editors who can participate to share ideas and work together to produce a written outcome. This is in accordance with the objective of collaborative writing which is to share ideas and to carry out a joint writing activity (Murray, 1992; Storch, 2005).

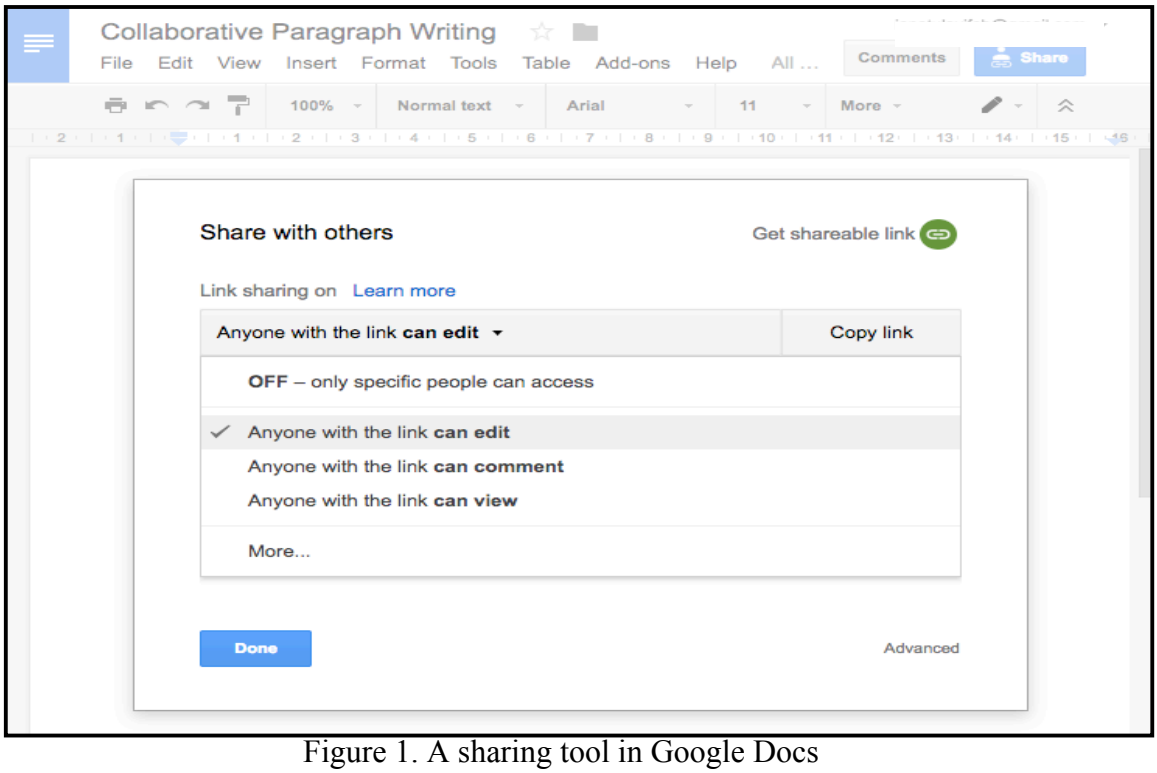

Figure 1. A sharing tool in Google Docs

Besides its sharing functionality, Google Docs also allows multiple students to edit in concurrent time (Dekeyser & Watson, 2006; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014; Zhou, Simpson & Domizi, 2012). This is illustrated in figure 2 that concurrent editing among collaborators can be traced by different cursor movements in the doc.

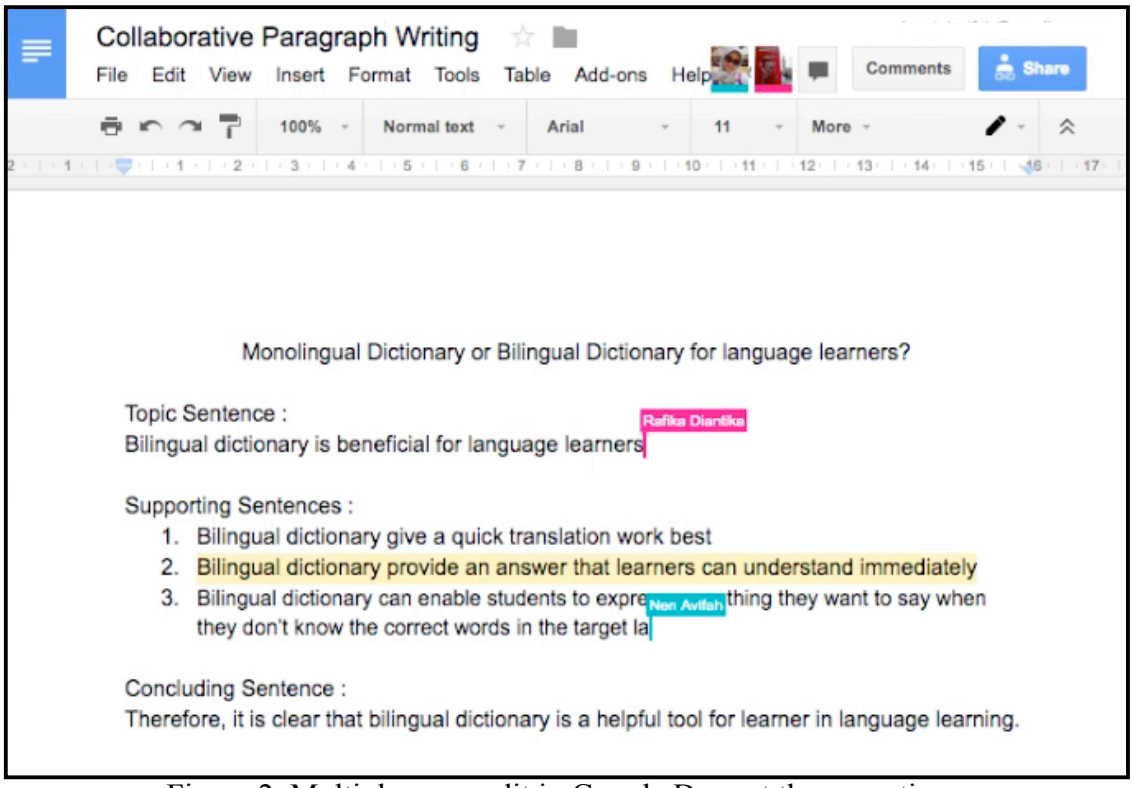

Figure 2. Multiple users edit in Google Docs at the same time

In addition, Google Docs enables collaborators to chat with others directly inside the document and insert comments or suggest the change to other collaborators *(See figure 3)*. Comments can be placed in a specific area within a text by selecting certain sentences and inserting the comment box (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). This affords students with the opportunity to provide and receive each other feedback during the writing process (Liu & Lan, 2016). Another ease of Google Docs for collaborative writing is the great convenience of the tool which can be accessed either via desktop or as apps on handheld gadgets, such as smartphones, tablets, and iPad. Such flexibility can maintain collaborative writing without any restriction of place and time (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014).

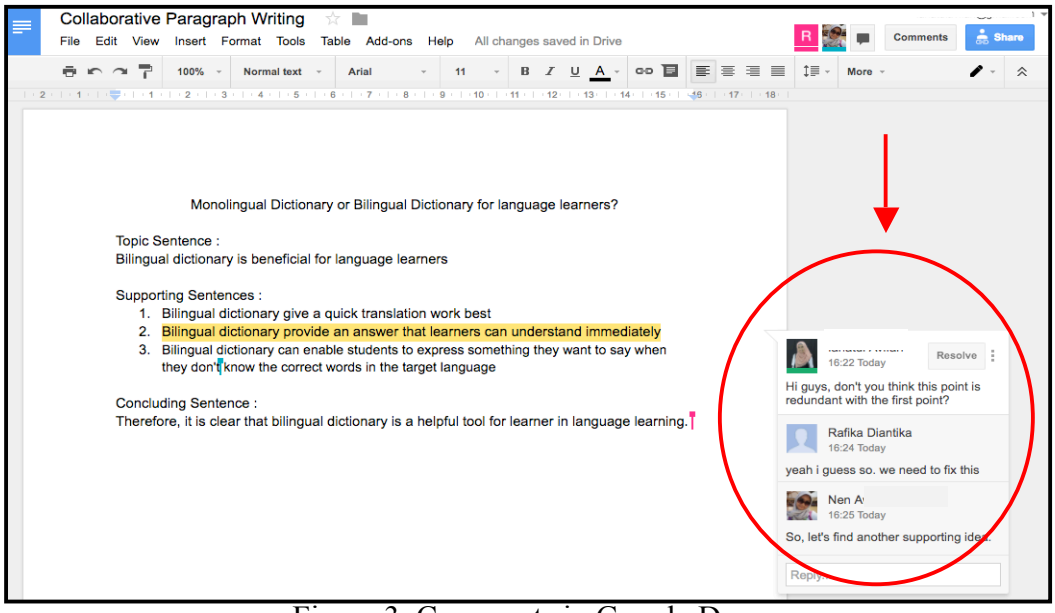

Figure 3. Comments in Google Docs

Writing Process in Collaborative Writing through Google Docs

Writing is perceived as a set of phases to complete writing which includes prewriting, writing, and rewriting (Barnett, 1989; Murray, 1997). In line with it, the nature of collaborative writing approach affords students to go through the writing process (Hirvela, 1999) from brainstorming ideas, discussion, and giving each other feedback which pave the way for better writing (Storch, 2005). As for enabling collaborative approach, Google Docs offers promising tools which go hand in hand with the nature of the writing process. Seyyedrezaie, Ghonsooly, Shahriari and Fatemi (2016) state that Google Docs can facilitate the writing process to help students produce far better writing from the initial draft. This is consistent with the nature of writing on a computer by Pennington (1996) which notes that the development of writing on a computer emanates consecutive phases of writing, such as writing differently. This concept suggests that computer-based writing can serve the sequential process of writing which generate better writing from the early composition.

Preceding to writing, students need to activate their minds by developing ideas and designing logical plans to compose texts (Rohman, 1965). Storch (2005) reveals that the planning stage in collaborative writing encompasses the endeavour of conceptualising ideas, perusing, defining tasks as well as structuring writing. This reinforces the essence of writing on a computer which enables students to employ a 'bottom-up' approach in which writing is generated from sequential episodes started from planning and composing the draft to revising the content (Pennington, 1996, p.133). In the same light, Google Docs facilitates students to prepare writing by pooling their ideas on it and negotiate agreements with each other to organise the structure of writing (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014; Elola & Oskoz, 2010). Through the modalities offered by Google Docs such as editing tools (delete, save, undo, redo, etc.), students will find it easier to devise prewriting on Google Docs.

The essential process of collaborative writing is the act of writing itself. This process serves as the process of developing the draft (Murray, 1997) where students work together to compose writing. In this phase, students work collaboratively through peer

discussion to complete writing. The constructive discussion during this phase embarks on a review of their writing knowledge (Hirvela, 1999) as well as an improvement of their language acquisition (Elola & Oskoz, 2010). The contribution of Google Docs to undertake this writing process is enabling multiple students to discuss while they are composing the texts on the same document and time (Dekeyser & Watson, 2006; Pae, 2011). This will manage the objective of collaborative writing to generate the sense of joint responsibility among students over the writing production by giving and receiving immediate feedback which takes account of content, organisation and language of the text (Storch, 2005).

Through the act of writing collaboratively, Google Docs can spur students to undertake a rewriting process which can improve their writing. Suwantarathip & Wichadee (2014) pinpoint that the comment feature in Google Docs serves students with the feasibility for executing revision. This affords both peer comments (Yang, 2010) and teacher's feedback (Forment, Casañ, Poch, Galanis, Mayol, Conde & García-Peñalvo, 2013). In this online collaborative scheme, students will be able to address their peer comments as well as teacher's feedback to enhance their writing. By the same token, Pennington (1996) asserts that through computer-assisted writing, students are led to better-quality writing. In sum, writing is a continuous process which draws students through the initial planning, refining and revising for improved writing. In this scheme, the essence of collaborative approach assisted with Google Docs is reasonable to administer the writing process.

Task-based approach for collaborative writing using Google Docs

Promoting collaborative writing among students is a novel strategy in this context. It is, therefore, necessary to carry out this approach with ample consideration of stages which can help teachers prepare an appropriate task (Ellis, 2003). This is what Ellis (2003) refers to the notion of task-based teaching which has the general aim to facilitate language learning and skill improvement through collaborative knowledge construction. In light of it, to obtain the nature of collaborative writing, it is important to design a collaborative lesson based on the task-based methodology. Devising task-based collaborative writing needs to select appropriate work schemes (Ellis, 2003). This design, he asserts, commonly highlights three principle chronologies, i.e 'pre-task, during-task, and post-task' (p.243). The aforesaid phases can be helpful for designing the procedure of the collaborative writing task in my paragraph writing class.

Classroom Illustration of Collaborative Writing through Google Docs

Regarding the teaching context, I would like to design the task-based collaborative writing where students are guided sequentially through the writing process to produce improved paragraph writing. In detail, performing collaborative writing task through Google Docs will be situated with a complete phase of tasks which Ellis (2003) notes as pre-task, during-task, and post-task *(See also the lesson plan on appendix 1)*.

Pre-task

In the preparation level, students will be exposed to the idea of collaboration to help them get started with collaborative learning. This pre-task will be carried out in the

classroom. First, I will establish the aim of collaborative writing to ensure the task clarity, so students know what they should do and what outcome they will gain (Lee, 2000, as cited in Ellis, 2003). Next, students will be taught how to use Google Docs and carry out a simple collaborative task (Zhou et al., 2012), such as writing a short opinion paragraph. This strategy of performing a similar task can scaffold students to activate their 'self-regulation' which is beneficial for carrying out the core task (Ellis, 2003, p.245). In this phase, students will be divided into several groups of 3 where each of them is encouraged to create a Google account (except for those who already signed up). Then, I will demonstrate a short video about Google Docs (LeFever, 2007; Trainingmultco, 2016) and simultaneously provide clear screen instructions on how to use Google Docs. Afterwards, I will create blank Google Docs and share with each group and assign a sample task for them to write a short opinion paragraph under a given topic using Google Docs. After completing the model task, each group leader will be instructed to create Google Docs to share with its respective group members and me. This doc will be the main platform for the collaborative writing task. To guide students through the collaborative writing task, a guideline on this task also will be administered in the class *(See appendix 2)*.

During-task

In this main phase, students will be assigned to carry out a process of the collaborative writing task on opinion paragraph under a specific theme using Google Docs. In terms of task performance option (Ellis, 2003), I will set a time limit for students since it can bring effect on the nature of language output (Lee, 2000, as cited in Ellis, 2003). Since this task is novel for students, they will have two weeks outside of class to process their joint writing. First and foremost, this collaborative writing task is divided into two stages, which are completing the first draft and undertaking revision (the final draft). The revision is emphasized because it expedites writing improvement (Suwantarathip & Wichadee 2014) which my students have missed. In the first draft, students will be encouraged to generate ideas about the topic for their paragraph on Google Docs. In this phase, they need to decide a topic sentence and frame an outline for their paragraph which includes a topic, supporting details and a concluding sentence. Next, students can move to the composing stage where they can work simultaneously to complete the first draft in the same document without waiting for other students to finish their parts (Dekeysor & Watson, 2006; Pae, 2011). During this phase, students will also need to refine the quality of paragraph by maintaining its unity and coherence and, in addition, to edit the conventions. I will also play a part in monitoring students' contribution and offering helps during the writing process. After finishing the first draft, I will give feedback on content, structure and language. In response to feedback, students will be directed to undertake the revision to improve their paragraph. This approach will purposively address the revision problem which did not take place in my teaching practice.

Post-task

In a class, students will be asked to distribute their final writing to other groups by sharing the link, so other groups can view their docs. In this activity, each group will be assigned to give comment on other groups' writing. Next, I will invite students to reflect on what they have written and what specific areas of paragraph writing or language they have had issue with and how Google Docs influenced their writing

improvement. Ellis (2003) points out that evaluation may also include how students reflect on their own performances during the task. He suggests that this kind reflection may also lead students to think about what strategy they can employ for a better outcome. This view is also shared by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) who agree that evaluation of task performance can activate students' metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating which are essential for learning development. Hence, it is inevitably significant to ask students report how they carried out collaborative writing and what they learned from this task. I will also give overall feedback and sum up the discussion on collaborative writing using Google Docs.

The Expected Learning Outcome

Through collaborative writing on Google Docs, it is expected that students will arrive at a better learning outcome which accentuates the process, product and attitudes. During the process, it is projected that students will be able to learn how to communicate with group members (Pae, 2011), how to generate ideas, negotiate meaning with group members and become more open-minded to peer comments (Storch, 2005). Moreover, collaborative writing through Google Docs aids students with the writing process which they may miss when they write individually. With the act of writing collaboratively through Google Docs, it is also projected to point up the importance of undertaking revision which students have missed during writing through email. In the product level, it is predicted that paragraphs produced collaboratively will have better quality in terms of content, organisation and language use. Some studies reveal that collaborative writing produced better texts than individual writing in fluency, accuracy, and complexity (Storch, 2005; Pae, 2011). This can be clearly justified by the affordance of collaborative writing which allows students to give and receive feedback (Storch, 2005). Regarding students' attitudes, the use of Google Docs in collaborative writing is also expected to bring about the enjoyment of writing which can foster students' motivation to write (Yang, 2010). This is projected to conform the result of some studies (Storch, 2005; Zhou et al., 2012) which suggest that students have positive attitudes towards collaborative writing through Google Docs. Taken together, the expectancy of promoting collaborative writing through Google Docs can be placed to enhance collaborative work among students, facilitate writing process, especially revision and improve paragraph writing as well as foster students' encouragement in writing.

Conclusion

This paper has discussed the attempt of promoting collaborative writing through Google Docs in paragraph writing. Some justifiable groundwork underpinnings collaborative writing through Google Docs has been examined as well as how to practically implement this approach in my paragraph writing class. However, there may be some possible challenges which may hinder the nature of collaborative writing. For example, since this writing approach is a novelty in my context, some students may be reluctant to perform the task collaboratively in which it can affect their writing performance. It is, therefore, necessary to acknowledge this issue by, for instance, asserting the importance of joint writing to the students. This also may be a concern for others who are willing to promote collaborative writing using online tools, such as Google Docs in their classes.

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Appendix 1

LESSON PLAN

Topic:
Collaborative Paragraph Writing

Teaching Strategy:
Task-based Approach

General Aims:
a. To promote collaborative writing among students to produce a piece of paragraph writing.
b. To afford students the opportunity to utilise writing process through collaborative writing using Google Docs.
c. To encourage students to share their final paragraph through Google Docs.

Objective:
a. Students will be able to work collaboratively in a group which covers how to negotiate the ideas with peers and how to be open-minded to peer comments.
b. Students will be able to produce a paragraph which has better qualities in content, organisation and language use.
c. Students will be able to devise writing process with their groups which can encourage them to refine the first draft and carry out the final draft (revision).

Grade Level:
First-year undergraduate students of English Education and Teacher Training

Time:
Pre-task: 3x50 minutes in class
During-task: 2 weeks out of class
Post-task: 50 minutes in class

Materials and Technology:
Computer Laboratory / Personal computers with Internet Connection
Google Account
Collaborative Writing Project Guidelines
How-to Video of Google Docs for Collaborative Work (YouTube):
- Google Docs in plain English. Available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eRqUE6IHTEA
- Google Docs: Collaboration tools. Available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=omm4cQQ62AQ

Introduction:
In this lesson, students will learn how to write collaboratively through Google Docs to complete a two-week collaborative writing project to produce a paragraph with a better quality in term of content, organisation and language structures.

Procedure:
The procedure of this lesson will be categorised in threefold, which are pre-task, during-task, and post-task stages.

Pre-Task (In-class Activities = 3x50 minutes):

No	Stages	Time	Procedures
1	Lead-in	10’	In pairs, students are encouraged to brainstorm ideas about collaborative writing The teacher collects the ideas from the whole class then discuss it with students Then the teacher draws students’ attention on collaborative writing as the topic of the lesson.
2	Pre-activities	35’	The teacher establishes the description and aim of collaborative writing task The teacher introduces Google Docs to students Students are divided into several groups consisting of 3 students Each of them is encouraged to create a Google account, except those who had one The teacher demonstrates a short video about Google Docs The teacher demonstrates clear screen instructions on how to use Google Docs for collaborative writing
3	Performing Similar Task	60’	Still in groups, students are asked to carry out a simple collaborative task using Google Docs. Each student is asked to jointly compose a short opinion paragraph about writing class. The teacher will create blank Google Docs and share to each group. During the writing task, students are asked to give and receive comments within the group. Their collaborative work is situated within 30 minutes in the classroom.
4	Post Activity	45’	After completing the model task, the teacher encourages students to evaluate how collaborative model task they have carried out. The teacher will highlight that this similar task is a model to perform a collaborative writing project outside the classroom. Each group leader is instructed to create a Google Docs to share with its respective group members and the teacher. The teacher instructs to students to carry out a collaborative writing task to produce an opinion paragraph under the theme, for example ‘Monolingual vs Bilingual Dictionaries for Language Students’. The teacher helps students to brainstorm this theme besides they will also generate their ideas within groups through Google Docs. The teacher gives students the guideline for the collaborative writing project.

During-task (Out-class Activities = Two Weeks):

No	Stages	Time	Procedures
1	Generating Ideas	Day 1	In groups, students are encouraged to start writing collaboratively by generating ideas about the topic. Then, students are asked to decide the topic sentence for their paragraph.
2	Outlining	Day 2-4	Afterwards, students should write an outline about what they are going to write for paragraph writing. This outline includes the topic sentence, supporting sentences and the concluding sentence.
3	Composing First Draft	Day 5-10	In this phase, students can work simultaneously to compose the first draft without waiting for other group members to finish their parts. Students should Develop their ideas from the outline to complete a full paragraph which has a topic, supporting and concluding sentences. After composing the draft, students are encouraged to refine the draft for unity and coherence as well as to correct the draft for conventions.
4	Undertaking Revision (Final Draft)	Day 13-14	Next, the teacher will give feedback on students' paragraphs in terms of content, organisation and language use. After receiving feedback from the teacher, students in groups are directed to undertake the revision to improve their paragraph based on feedback.

Post-task (In-class Activities = 50 minutes):

No	Stages	Time	Procedures
1	Sharing	15'	The teacher assigns each group to distribute their final writing to other groups by sharing the link. Each group should comment on every paragraph
2	Evaluation	25'	The teacher invites students to reflect on what they have written and what specific areas of paragraph writing or language they have had issue with and how Google Docs influenced their writing improvement.
3	Closing	10'	The teacher gives overall feedback to students and sum up the discussion on collaborative writing using Google Docs.

Appendix 2

Guidelines on Collaborative Writing Task

In this task, you are asked to work collaboratively with your group to compose an opinion paragraph using Google Docs. You can finish this task within two weeks online. Collaborative writing offers you the opportunity to go through writing process to improve your writing. These processes are:

1. **Generating Ideas (Day 1)**
   Generating Ideas is a kind of prewriting activities which incorporates the process of creating ideas of the general topic for writing the paragraph. In this task, the topic is 'Monolingual vs Bilingual Dictionaries for Language Students'.
   - *Brainstorm ideas of the general topic above to define your topic sentence.*
   - *Decide the topic sentence that your group want to write, for example, "Bilingual dictionary is beneficial for language students".*

2. **Outlining (Day 2-4)**
   Outlining is also a prewriting activity which encourages a writer to devise a writing framework containing necessary elements for a good paragraph.
   - *Organise a writing outline into a logical sequence which consists of a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and the concluding sentence.*

3. **Composing First Draft (Day 5-10)**
   This involves the process of developing ideas that have been organised from outlining.
   - *Develop your ideas from the outline to complete a full paragraph which has a topic, supporting and concluding sentences.*
   - *After composing this draft, with your group try to carry out refining the draft for unity and coherence as well as correcting the draft for conventions.*

   Refining
   - *Evaluate the draft for use of ideas and content, organisation and language use.*
   - *Add explanation or examples to support your sentences.*
   - *Delete irrelevant sentences on the draft.*
   - *Add transitional phrases to build coherence between sentences.*
   - *Maintain your paragraph is well-developed, in unity and coherent.*

   Editing
   - *Identify convention errors such as misspelling and grammar errors.*
   - *While working through an online portal, you may use grammar checker online, such as Grammarly.*

4. **Undertaking Revision/Final Draft (Day 13-14)**
   The final draft is just important as the first draft to improve the quality of paragraph based on feedback given by the teacher on content, organisation, and language use.
   - *After finishing the first draft, the teacher will give you feedback soon.*
   - *You should address feedback from the teacher in the final draft.*

5. **Sharing (In the class)**
   This stage is to share the revised draft to the class to see the improvement of your writing.
   - *After undertaking the revision, you should share your google docs link to the other groups (view only).*
   - *Give comments on paragraphs of other groups.*

Thai Secondary School Teachers' Perception of English Oral Presentation Techniques and Abilities

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Abstract
This research was carried out in order to investigate Thai secondary school teachers' perception of English oral presentation techniques and abilities. It was aimed to find out how these teachers perceive their techniques as well as their abilities when giving oral presentations in English. The participants of this study were 70 Thai secondary school teachers, from various schools in the western region of Thailand. The subjects were purposely selected because all of them had experience in teaching English and giving oral presentations in English. The results of this study revealed that most Thai secondary school teachers perceived themselves as having the ability to use common oral presentation techniques. The majority of the subjects reported that they used facial expressions and other non-verbal communication in their presentations the most. With respect to the respondents' perception of oral presentation abilities, most of the subjects responded that making good eye contact with the audience is their top skill.

Keywords*:* Secondary school teachers, oral presentation techniques, oral presentation abilities, perception

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Introduction

English is essential in this age of globalization in which people all over the world are flooded with information and technology, and rapid changes in socio-economics in the West affect every corner of the earth. Networks and global institutions have been established, and English has become one of the tools that play a key role in all aspects including education. English is studied as a second or foreign language throughout the globe. The countries, where people who can communicate in English, have an advantage in the globalized world. Mydans (2007) wrote "As a new millennium begins, scholars say that about one-fourth of the world population can communicate to some degree in English."

Thai people study English as a foreign language (EFL) in basic education for at least 12 years, but their English capacity and ability is considered low and inadequate for communication in English in the globalized world when compared with other countries, particularly those in South East Asia. Education First (EF) tested the English skills of 750,000 adults from 60 countries in 2013, and Thailand was ranked 55th, in the "very low proficiency" group, whereas Singapore and Malaysia were ranked in the highest group, and the Philippines and Vietnam were in the average group. Additionally, when the proportion of the use of English for communication among the ASEAN countries was studied, the results showed that Singapore was ranked first with 71% of the people using English for communication, the Philippines second (55.49%), Brunei third (37.73%), Malaysia fourth (27.24%), and Thailand fifth (10%) (JobsDB.com, 2014).

The low quality of English instruction in Thailand is caused by many factors, and one of them is the qualifications of the teachers. Most teachers teaching English in primary and secondary schools cannot effectively communicate in English, since they do not have knowledge of and skills in teaching the language. Some of them did not even major in English but the lack of English teachers in their schools requires them to teach the subject undeniably. Consequently, their students could not achieve a satisfactory level of English (MThai.com, 2014).

Many elementary and secondary schools in Thailand are offering English or international programs to students, and some even hire native English-speaking teachers to teach English, hoping it will be more beneficial to their students for their speaking skills. However, hiring these foreign teachers is extremely costly and many schools, especially in rural areas, cannot afford it. Furthermore, some foreign teachers only stay teaching for a short period of time, and unfortunately some of them do not have knowledge or experience in teaching English. Thus, Thai teachers eventually end up being responsible for teaching English subjects to students, despite their lack of linguistic education and English teaching skills.

Thanut Rukngam (2012) supported the aforementioned idea that, even though, bilingual and English programs have been established in Thai curriculums, many government schools at all levels still offer very few English speaking courses. Furthermore, some of these courses are only optional for the students.

Relatively, the presentation of ideas or information to listeners has been recognized as the key objective of speaking skills in communicative English. Chonlakon Buapan

(2012) pointed out that oral presentations are an important instrument that a speaker uses to convey information or contents to the audience, in order to inform, motivate, instruct, or change their attitude or ideas.

Development of teachers' English skills in communication is one aspect urgently needed for educational reform at present. Additionally, after entering the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) at the end of 2015, Thailand needs to have more effective teachers and curriculums for Thai students at all levels of education. With regard to this, the English Department of the Faculty of Arts at Silpakorn University annually gives training to Thai secondary school teachers to improve their English skills. In 2014, the training's topic was "Developing English Skills of Teachers for the ASEAN Community".

Specifically, one skill that is very important when teaching English, the "communicative language for AEC," is speaking. The researcher understands that these secondary school English teachers should recognize and rate themselves as good or at least fair in speaking English. Therefore, a study of the perception of Thai secondary school teacher's English oral presentation techniques and abilities can reveal some specific techniques the majority of them use, and how they perceive themselves as English oral presenters. In this research, only the oral presentation techniques and abilities of the participants in this training are examined.

Research Question

This study aims to answer the following questions:

1. How do Thai secondary school teachers perceive their English oral presentation techniques?
2. How do Thai secondary school teachers perceive their English oral presentation abilities?

Literature Review

Perception

The word "perception" is clearly defined in major academic dictionaries including Oxford, Cambridge, Macmillan, and Merriam-Webster. As written in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (2010), the word perception (noun) refers to an idea, a belief, or an image you have as a result of how you see or understand something. Cambridge Dictionary (2016) states that perception is a belief or opinion, often held by many people and based on how things seem. Macmillan Dictionary (2016) defines perception in three different ways: 1) a particular way of understanding or thinking about something, 2) the ability to notice something by seeing, hearing, smelling etc., and 3) the ability to understand and make good judgments about something.

Darly J. Bem, a social psychologist and professor emeritus at Cornell University, reviewed some scholars' opinions (Mead, 1934; Ryle, 1949; Skinner, 1957) and suggested "perception, an individual's ability to respond differentially to something

and its controlling variables, is a product of social interaction" (as cited in Bem, 1967, p.184).

Neisser (1993) described that the occurrence of our perception would most likely emerge from "an awareness of where we are, what we are doing, and what we have done", which by all means could be related connectively to - our "schemata". In other words, the sources that we use, when perceiving ourselves as something, come mostly from our past experience and present activity.

To link perception with communication, Whitman & Boase (1983) explained that everybody must once act collaboratively as the source and receiver in a communicative activity. Therefore, the importance of the roles of individual interaction must not be neglected. People who can perceive their strengths and weaknesses could be influential and establish rewarding interpersonal relationships with others. How we see ourselves affects the degree of confidence with which we approach a communicative activity.

In conclusion, perception could be defined mainly in terms of individual idea of a person; how a person believes or understands something. When perception is linked to communication, the person who can understand his/her strengths and weaknesses should be more confident when establishing interpersonal relationships with other communicators.

In this study, the subjects (Thai secondary school teachers) are being investigated about their degree of confident in English communication in the form of giving an oral presentation. So, if they are confident in themselves, they should establish good personal relationships with their students, and therefore, help them to communicate better English.

Oral Presentation

An oral presentation is a form of interpersonal communication, which is the term used to describe two-person or small-group communicative activities, where the speaker shares thoughts and feelings with the audience (Coopman and Lull, 2012). It is considered the most important instrument of communication for a presenter to effectively deliver messages or proposals to his/her audience.

Chonlakon Buapan (2012, p.4) explained that an oral presentation could be used "to inform, motivate, persuade as well as instruct or change the audience's attitudes or ideas". It could also be inferred that in order to make an effective oral presentation, a communicative interaction between the presenter and the audience must occur.

Lucas (1989, as cited in Chonlakorn Buapan, 2012, p.4) suggested that an oral presentation was more challenging than a basic conversation. Therefore, in order to make a productive and effective presentation, many oral presentation abilities must be adopted. However, these abilities are difficult to acquire. It can be concluded that making an oral presentation requires the presenter to have various communication skills and knowledge.

Organization and Techniques of Oral Presentations

Hamilton (2011) suggested that the basic organizations for informative and persuasive presentations are the same. They consist of 1) an introduction, 2) a body, and 3) a conclusion. However, the body of each presentation is different. The body of an informative presentation can be divided into three main points, each with supporting materials. On the other hand, the body of a persuasive presentation can be described in various patterns.

Introduction

Capture attention, show benefit to audience, state your qualifications, preview purpose and main points

Body

I. Main Point
- A.
- B. Supporting materials: explanations, examples, statistics, quotes, visuals
- C.

II. Main Point
- A.
- B. Supporting materials
- C.

III. Main Point
- A.
- B. Supporting materials
- C.

Conclusion

Summarize purpose and main points, and give closing thoughts

Figure1. **Format of an Informative Presentation**

I. Claim #1
II. Claim #2
III. Claim #3

Claim Pattern

I. Cause
II. Effect
III. Solution

(or)

I. Cause
II. Effect
III. Action

Casual Pattern

I. Problem
II. Solution
III. Benefits

(or)

I. Problem
II. Solution
III. Action

Problem-Solution Pattern

I. Any plan must meet the following necessary criteria.

II. Solution X does (or does not) meet the criteria

Criteria Satisfaction Pattern

I. Any plan must meet the following necessary criteria.

II. Solution X does (or does not) meet the criteria

Comparative Advantages Pattern

Figure2. **Patterns of a Persuasive Presentation**

Hamilton (2011) recommended some common techniques to make the presentation more interesting and reliable. These techniques are summarized as follows:

1. *Grabbing the audience's attention in the introduction* by asking a question, using humor, giving an illustration, citing a quotation or famous words, etc. to make the introduction of the presentation more interesting.
2. *Using a thesis statement* so that the audience can easily follow and remember the key points. A thesis statement is usually presented after the introduction of the talk.
3. *Using verbal and visual supporting materials* to clarify, prove, or add interest to the main points of the presentation. These materials can include statistics, explanations and examples.
4. *Using non-verbal communications,* including facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, clothing, personal appearance, etc., to give clues and additional information which can be useful for business communication.
5. *Giving a closing thought* to keep the audience thinking about the presentation after it is finished.

The above techniques are some of the main ideas used for creating the items in the questionnaire for this research. Other items derive from the researcher's own experience and from talking with some experts.

Relevant Research

1) Relevant Research on Perception and English Language Skills

Choy & Troudi (2007) investigated the changes in the perceptions and attitudes towards learning English in a Malaysian college. The main focus of this study was to investigate the changes in attitudes towards learning English during the critical transition period from the secondary school to college, where the medium of instruction was in English. The findings revealed that there were differences in students' perceptions and attitudes towards learning English in secondary schools and colleges. Therefore, the students' attitudes tended to be more positive in the college, and they perceived the college's social and classroom environment to be more conducive for learning English.

Nazara (2011) examined the students' perception on EFL speaking skill development with a 16 item questionnaire. The findings revealed that all the respondents viewed speaking important and they were willing to deal with the necessities to master it. Although they encountered interesting materials, empowering activities, and a good opportunity to practice speaking, they wanted to have more time to practice. In addition, some respondents tended to avoid speaking due to their fear of 'scolding' from the lecturer and classmates laughing when they made mistakes.

From these studies, it can be inferred that communicators perceive themselves as being more productive and willing to communicate when the environment is more desirable.

2) Relevant Research on Oral Presentation Techniques and Abilities

Nowreyah, Muneera, & Hanan (2015) conducted research on EFL college students' perceptions of the difficulties in oral presentation as a form of assessment. The researchers found that the students' perceptions of the difficulties in oral presentation were at a medium level. However, the students still experienced a number of difficulties that were mostly related to 'personal traits", including the students' fear of evaluation, the avoidance of the instructor's eyes, and forgetting what they wanted to say. Moreover, there were significant differences when considering the students' GPAs and nationalities.

Chonlakon Buapan (2012) investigated the oral presentation techniques of high-proficiency graduate students. The results showed that most of the subjects performed well in their presentation techniques, except when dealing with the audience's questions and language use, which were revealed at a fair level. With regard to presentation preparation, the majority of the subjects were found good at this skill. However, the ability to prepare answers to possible questions from the audience was found to be fair.

The aforementioned studies suggest that, in the class room, students perceive themselves as having desirable oral presentation techniques and abilities. In this study, the main focus is on the techniques and perception of oral presentation of the teachers. The goal is to find out what techniques these educators use and how they perceive their presentation abilities. This study could be beneficial to further training about oral presentation.

Methodology

Subjects

To investigate the perception of techniques and abilities of Thai secondary school teachers towards English oral presentation, seventy subjects were engaged in this study. Seventy of the subjects were selected from approximately one hundred participants who attended the "Developing English Skills of Teachers for the ASEAN Community" training course held by the English Department of the Faculty of Arts at Silpakorn University, on 24-25 March, 2014.

Materials

A questionnaire for perception of oral presentation techniques and abilities was used to collect data for this research. The questionnaire includes 20 items and is divided into four parts comprising of closed-ended and open-ended questions.

Procedures

A cross-sectional analytical research design is adopted to find out what techniques Thai secondary school teachers agree on using and how they perceive their English oral presentation abilities. It was administered on 24-25 March, 2014 at the Faculty of Arts of Silpakorn University, while they were participating in the "Developing English Skills of Teachers for the ASEAN Community" training course.

A questionnaire for perception of oral presentation techniques and ability was given to the participants. They were then collected and verified for completeness and correctness of the data prior to further processing.

The data collected from the questionnaires were recorded and analyzed by using the SPSS program and Microsoft Excel. After the statistical analysis of the data was completed, the results were presented in terms of frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation.

Results

General Background Information of the Subject

The 70 subjects consisted of 5 male teachers (7.1%) and 65 female teachers (92.9%) due to the different ratio between male and female teachers, who participated in the "Developing English Skills of Teachers for the ASEAN Community" training course held by the English Department of the Faculty of Arts at Silpakorn University on 24-25 March, 2014. They were 28 teachers who hold a master's degree (40%) and 42 teachers who hold a bachelor's degree (60%) as their highest education degrees.

Also, 35.8% of the respondents teach in Nakhon Pathom, 20% of them teach in Ratchaburi, 15.7% of them teach in Suphanburi, 7.1% of them teach in Samut Songkhram and Prachuab Khiri Khan, 4.3% of them teach in Phetchaburi, 1.4% of them teach in Kanchanaburi, and 8.6% of them didn't specify their schools' location.

The result reveals that the majority of the respondents (40%) often teach their students in English, 38.6% sometimes, 17.1% always, and 4.3% reported that they rarely teach in English. Also, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents (47.1%) sometimes give an oral presentation in English, 28.6% often, 15.7% rarely, and 8.6% reported that they always give oral presentations in English.

The Respondent's Perception of English Oral Presentation Techniques

Table 1. Techniques Involving the Presenter and the Content

Items	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Uncertain 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
1. I organize my speech into three parts: 1) introduction, 2) body, and 3) conclusion.	-	1 1.4%	20 28.6%	43 61.4%	6 8.6%	3.77	0.62	**Agree**
2. I use a thesis statement before moving on to the body of the talk.	-	4 5.7%	25 35.7%	37 52.9%	4 5.7%	3.58	0.69	**Agree**
3. I use visual support for my oral presentations.	-	3 4.3%	38 54.3%	24 34.3%	5 7.1%	3.44	0.69	**Uncertain**
4. I give explanations along with examples in my talks.	-	-	29 41.4%	35 50%	6 8.6%	3.67	0.63	**Agree**
5. I use facial expressions and other non-verbal communications.	-	-	23 32.9%	36 51.4%	11 15.7%	3.82	0.68	**Agree**
The average of the respondents' English oral presentation techniques involving the presenter and the content.						3.66	0.66	**Agree**

Table 1 shows the respondents' perception of their English oral presentation techniques involving the presenter and the content. Most respondents agreed that they use these techniques (Mean = 3.66, S.D. = 0.66). In this group, the highest mean (3.82) was item 5 (I use facial expressions and other non-verbal communications) and the lowest mean (3.44) was item 3 (I use visual support for my oral presentations).

Table 2. Techniques Involving the Presenter and the Audience

Items	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Uncertain 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
1. I use humor to get acquainted with the audience.	1 1.4%	2 2.9%	27 38.6%	34 48.6%	6 8.6%	3.60	0.75	**Agree**
2. I grab the audiences' attention by asking questions.	1 1.4%	2 2.9%	22 31.4%	38 54.3%	7 10%	3.69	0.75	**Agree**
3. I grab the audience's attention by using quotations, testimonials, or famous words.	-	3 4.3%	30 42.9%	32 45.7%	5 7.1%	3.56	0.69	**Agree**
4. I grab the audience's attention by describing pictures, using anecdotes, or telling stories.	-	1 1.4%	20 28.6%	45 64.3%	4 5.7%	3.74	0.58	**Agree**
5. I give tasks to my audience to make them feel involved.	1 1.4%	1 1.4%	26 37.1%	36 51.4%	6 8.6%	3.64	0.72	**Agree**
The average of the respondents' English oral presentation techniques involving the presenter and the audiences.						3.65	0.70	**Agree**

Table 2 shows the respondents' perception of their English oral presentation techniques involving the presenter and the audience. Most respondents agreed that they use these techniques (Mean = 3.65, S.D. = 0.70). In this group, the highest mean (3.74) was item 4 (I grab the audience's attention by describing pictures, using anecdotes, or telling stories) and the lowest mean (3.56) was item 3 (I grab the audience's attention by using quotations, testimonials, or famous words).

The Respondent's Perception of English Oral Presentation Abilities

Table 3. Respondent's Oral Presentation Abilities

Items	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Uncertain 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
1. I am comfortable speaking English in front of the public.	1 1.4%	4 5.7%	33 47.1%	27 38.6%	5 7.1%	3.44	0.77	**Uncertain**
2. I encourage myself to speak English in front of the public even though I may make mistakes.	1 1.4%	-	16 22.9%	45 64.3%	8 11.4%	3.84	0.67	**Agree**
3. I always pay attention to my pronunciation and intonation.	-	1 1.4%	16 22.9%	43 61.4%	10 14.3%	3.89	0.65	**Agree**
4. I always use correct vocabulary and grammar.	-	3 4.3%	34 48.6%	29 41.4%	4 5.7%	3.49	0.68	**Uncertain**
5. I always use gestures or body language to help express my message.	-	1 1.4%	11 15.7%	45 64.3%	13 18.6%	4.00	0.64	**Agree**
6. I always make good eye contact with the audience.	-	1 1.4%	8 11.4%	44 62.9%	17 24.3%	4.10	0.64	**Agree**
7. I always pay attention to the audience's reaction.	-	1 1.4%	13 18.6%	46 65.7%	10 14.3%	3.93	0.62	**Agree**
8. I am certain that the audience will memorize my presentation after it is finished	-	1 1.4%	24 34.3%	37 52.9%	8 11.4%	3.74	0.67	**Agree**
9. I can talk fluently and accurately on unfamiliar topics.	2 2.9 %	6 8.6%	40 57.1%	19 27.1%	3 4.3%	3.21	0.79	**Uncertain**
10. Overall, my oral presentation skills are good.	-	6 8.6%	42 60%	18 25.7%	4 5.7%	3.29	0.70	**Uncertain**
Total image of the respondents' perception about their English oral presentation abilities						3.69	0.68	**Agree**

Table 3 shows the respondents' perception of their English oral presentation abilities. Most respondents agreed that they perceive themselves as having these abilities (Mean = 3.69, S.D. = 0.68). In this group, the highest mean (4.10) was item 6 (I always make good eye contact with the audience) and the lowest mean (3.21) was item 9 (I can talk fluently and accurately on unfamiliar topics).

Suggestions and Other Opinions

These are some suggestions from the respondents about how they improve their English oral presentation abilities. In order to give good oral presentations, seven respondents advised that the presenter should practice speaking with native speakers. Four respondents suggested practicing speaking English as much as possible. Four respondents also recommended learning through the internet, books, songs and movies. In addition, three respondents advised attending seminars regularly would be beneficial to improving the presenter's oral presentation skills.

Discussion

How do Thai secondary school teachers perceive their English oral presentation techniques?

From the findings of this study, regarding English oral presentation techniques involving the presenter and the content, it is concluded that the majority of Thai secondary school teachers agreed with the use of common techniques as presented in this survey. Furthermore, the most popular technique used was "using facial expressions and other non-verbal communication". As suggested by Hamilton (2011), non-verbal communication could be applied to business presentations to convey additional messages. After interviewing some teachers, it is found that although these secondary school teachers might not often use this type of communication for business, they could still apply it to their teaching methods at school.

Hamilton (2011) also pointed out that there are many techniques that can be used to make the audience feel involved with the presentation of the presenter. These techniques include: 1) grabbing the audience's attention in the introduction, 2) using a thesis statement, 3) using verbal and visual supporting materials, 4) using non-verbal communication, and 5) giving a closing thought.

Accordingly, regarding the English oral presentation techniques involving the presenter and the audience, most respondents agreed that they could "grab the audience's attention by describing pictures, using anecdotes, or telling stories". It can be inferred from this finding that most secondary school teachers were familiar with these techniques as they could often use them in their classroom.

Moreover, the secondary school teachers were uncertain about using visual supports. After personal interviews, it is found that they might not have time to prepare and that they can describe the examples and make the audience see the picture by words.

How do Thai secondary school teachers perceive their English oral presentation abilities?

In this study, most Thai secondary school teachers were confident of their oral presentation abilities. The results suggested that they always made good eye contact with their audience the most. It can be inferred from this finding that these teachers were familiar with making eye contact with their students in class. As explained by Neisser (1993), self-perception, in terms of communication, exists environmentally and socially through face-to-face interaction between individuals.

Although the respondents agreed that they perceived themselves as having adequate oral presentation abilities as mentioned in this survey, there were still four items that they were uncertain of. First, they were unsure that they would be comfortable speaking in front of the public. Second, they were uncertain of using correct vocabulary, grammar, and parts of speech in their presentation. It can be interpreted that Thai presenters were afraid of making common mistakes such as using wrong vocabularies and grammar in their presentations. Also, most of them were not confident when dealing with the audience. Thai presenters were found to have fair ability when having to answer questions and using correct language in a presentation as suggested in the study of Chonlakorn Buapan (2012). Third, they were unsure whether they could speak fluently and accurately on unfamiliar topics. It can be assumed from this aspect that most Thai secondary school teachers were familiar with the preparation of what they would teach in class. Consequently, they would not be able to speak on a topic which had not been prepared ahead of time. Last, most teachers were uncertain whether, overall, their oral presentation skills were good. This can be interpreted that no matter how they perceived themselves as having the abilities to make an oral presentation, still, they were not entirely confident in making one.

Suggestions and Other Opinions

From the suggestions and other opinions section of the survey, many respondents gave suggestions about how they acquired their English oral presentation abilities. The majority of the teachers agreed that in order to give an effective oral presentation, the presenter should practice speaking with native speakers. Some of them suggested practicing speaking English as much as possible. Some of them recommended learning through songs and movies. This can be elaborated from the findings of Chonlakon Buapan (2012) that some speakers use books and the Internet as useful sources to do research on the topics of their presentation, especially on facts and figures. In addition, some respondents suggested that the presenter should attend seminars to improve their speaking skills.

Limitations

The subjects in this study were selected from approximately one hundred Thai secondary school teachers from the western region of Thailand, who attended the "Developing English Skills of Teachers for the ASEAN Community" training held by the English Department of the Faculty of Arts at Silpakorn University, on 24-25 March, 2014 However, only seventy questionnaires could be used because the

researcher wanted to purposively select only the respondents who had taught their students in English and given oral presentations in English.

Apart from the demographic section, only twenty items were listed in the questionnaire because the researcher did not want the respondents to take too much time filling it out. This is due to the nature of the training course and the nature of the respondents which could both be predicted from previous training courses.

Time was another limitation of this study. The subjects were given the questionnaire immediately after the training course and there were ten minutes or less left for them to fill it out. Therefore, some of the data was not completed and some might be inaccurate.

Conclusions

The majority of Thai secondary school teachers, specifically from the western region of Thailand, used common English oral presentation techniques as presented in this research study. The most popular technique used was to grab the audience's attention by describing pictures, using anecdotes, or telling stories.

Regarding oral presentation abilities, the majority of the teachers in this study perceived themselves as having good English oral presentation skills. The most perceived ability was that they always paid attention to the audience's reaction. However, the most uncertain perception was that whether overall their oral presentation abilities were good.

From these findings, it is very beneficial for the researcher to develop the training courses to teach about English communication and oral presentation to these teachers in the future.

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Professional Language Learning and the Dynamics of Cross-Linguistic Interactions in Bilingual Mental Lexicon

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Abstract
Bilingual professional language learning implies acquiring specific knowledge of two languages for professional purposes: those connected with language studies and/or language teaching. The most obvious outcome of bilingual professional language learning concerns the increase of proficiency in two languages revealed in a wide repertoire of linguistic knowledge, skills and abilities connected with speech perception and speech production. However, besides the outward changes, bilingual professional language learning also results in certain inward changes that concern particular processes at deeper levels of language storage and processing – those represented in one's mental lexicon. In the paper we present an experimental research aimed at revealing how the two languages interact in bilingual mental lexicon in the context of professional learning of two languages. The research was carried out with Komi-Permyak-Russian native speakers who receive professional higher education as future teachers of both languages (Komi-Permyak and Russian); the methods of a sociolinguistic survey and of a psycholinguistic experiment were applied. Comparison of the experimental data received from junior and senior students proved that professional learning of two languages determines considerable changes in the character of cross-linguistic interactions. In particular, changes in general frequency of interactions, their direction and specific type were revealed. The obtained results are discussed within the frameworks of the current dynamic theory of bilingualism and bilingual mental lexicon.

Keywords: bilingualism, professional language learning, mental lexicon, cross-linguistic interactions, cross-linguistic influence.

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Introduction

Professional competence is most generally understood as "the generic, integrated and internalized capability to deliver sustainable effective (worthy) performance (including problem solving, realizing innovation and creating transformation) in a certain professional domain, job, role, organizational context, and task situation" (Mulder, 2014, p. 107). Professional competence includes a certain array of knowledge, skills and personal qualities necessary for effective realization of a concrete professional activity according to the existing standards (Birenbaum, 2003; Kane, 1992; Kunter et al., 2013; Roelofs & Sanders, 2007; Tigelaar & van Tartwijk, 2010).

The basic elements of professional competence of philology students include psychological, pedagogical, linguistic, linguodidactic, and communicative competencies. Linguistic competence has a major significance for professional linguistic competence formation. This competence is mainly based on developing individual linguistic consciousness and represents a set of linguistic knowledge about the system of a language and the abilities to use this knowledge in professional (language teaching) and scientific and research activity (Coseriu, 1985; Wiemann & Backlund, 1980; Wisniewska, 2015). Traditionally the following components are included into professional competence of philology students:

- acquisition of basic phonological, orthographic and lexical norms of the literary language;
- acquisition of basic grammatical categories and their forms;
- formation of the ability to construct syntactic structures in accordance with the norms of literary language;
- formation of the ability to use adequately the whole variety of stylistic resources of a language;
- formation of the ability to analyze and evaluate different linguistic facts and phenomena;
- etc.

Most researchers of professional linguistic competence of philology students study it in two aspects: 1) the monolingual competence which is formed while acquiring the profession of a teacher of the native language and literature (Akhmadullina, 2007; Sokolnitskaya, 2012) and 2) the bilingual competence formed in the situation of the so-called "classroom bilingualism" (sequential task-oriented foreign language learning) while acquiring the profession of the native and foreign language teacher (Dubrovina, 2011; Glumova, 2013; Ivanova, 2003).

As for the present study, it deals with professional linguistic competence of another type: a bilingual competence based on the situation of the so-called "native bilingualism" (simultaneous spontaneous acquisition of two languages in natural settings from early childhood). This competence is formed by way of getting higher education as a teacher of two native languages. The profession in question turns out to be in high demand in many regions of the Russian Federation, as many of its territories are characterized by the situation often referred to as the "ethnic – Russian" bilingualism: a combination of the ethnic language (Tartar, Mordovian, Chuvash, Buryat, etc.) and Russian as the state official language of the country. The present

study focuses on a particular case of "ethnic – Russian" bilingualism characteristic for the Komi-Permyak district situated in the north-west of the Perm Kray, Russia.

The Komi-Permyaks are representatives of the Finno-Ugrian national group; according to the data of the all-Russian census, the population of the Komi-Permyak district amounts to 80 300 people; they have their own national language which exists both in oral and written forms. The Komi-Permyak and Russian languages are actively used on the territory of the Komi-Permyak district, though they are characterized by different functionality: Komi-Permyak represents the basic means of intra-familial and everyday communication while Russian functions as the main language of official communication. In the majority of cases the two languages (Komi-Permyak and Russian) are acquired in early childhood (most often their acquisition occurs simultaneously) in natural settings. Komi-Permyak and Russian are frequently used in educational environment: teaching in primary school is realized by means of both languages; in secondary/high school the majority of academic subjects are taught in Russian while Komi-Permyak is studied as a special subject. Those Komi-Permyaks who wish to get higher education with a specialization as teachers of both Komi-Permyak and Russian languages are trained at the Komi-Permyak department of the Philological Faculty of Perm State Humanitarian Pedagogical University.

According to the curriculum of the Komi-Permyak department the academic subjects taught in the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages are distributed approximately equally during the whole course of studies (5 years). All the subjects that refer to Finno-Ugrian studies, the Komi-Permyak language, the Komi-Permyak literature and folklore are taught in Komi-Permyak: *"The Komi-Permyak Language", "The History of the Komi-Permyak Language", "The Old Permian Language", "Basic Grammar of the Komi-Permyak Language", "Methods of Teaching the Komi-Permyak Language", "The Komi-Permyak Literature", "New Issues in the Komi-Permyak Literature", "The History of the Komi-Permyak Literature",* etc. The subjects that refer to the Russian language, Russian literature and folklore (*"the Grammar of the Russian Language", "the History of the Russian Language", "Modern Russian Language", "Russian Literature", "The History of the Russian Literature", "Russian Literature for Children"*), as well as general linguistic subjects (*"Introduction into Linguistics", "General Linguistics", "Text Analysis", "Theory and Practice of Lexicography",* etc.) are taught in Russian. All the non-specialized subjects, such as *"History of Russia", "Philosophy", "Pedagogy", "Age-Specific Psychology",* are also taught in Russian. Therefore, on the one hand formation of professional bilingual linguistic competence of students of the Komi-Permyak department is characterized by approximately equal usage frequency of the two languages; on the other hand in the academic situation in general the predominance of the Russian language usage frequency is observed.

As long as formation of professional linguistic competence of Komi-Permyak bilinguals is characterized by regular alternate usage of the two languages, it is obvious that during the whole period of studies both languages are in close contact with each other which leads to their active interaction in the learners' mental lexicon. At the same time, consecutive advance in studies followed by the increase of proficiency in the two languages can lead to certain changes in the character of these interactions. Therefore, the goal of our research was to reveal the influence of

professional competence formation on cross-linguistic interactions in bilingual mental lexicon.

Subject, Material and Method of the Research

The *subject* of the research is professional bilingual Komi-Permyak - Russian linguistic competence; the *methods* of sociolinguistic survey and of free associative experiment were used. While processing the research data methods of quantitative analysis were applied; the following parameters were taken into consideration: the dynamics of usage frequency of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages, the activity of cross-linguistic interactions, the changes in their types at the background of the whole period of professional linguistic competence formation. The *participants* were 68 students of the Komi-Permyak - Russian department of the philological faculty at Perm State Humanitarian Pedagogical University: 35 junior students (the initial stage of professional bilingual competence formation) and 33 senior students (the advanced stage of professional bilingual competence formation).

At *the first stage* of the research we carried out a sociolinguistic survey that enabled to reveal and compare some peculiar features of acquisition of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages by the research participants; the usage frequency of the two languages in everyday and academic communication was also dealt with. During the survey the participants received a list of 20 questions which ran as follows:

1. What language is the native one for you and for each of your parents?
2. What language do you use at home while speaking to your father and mother?
3. What language do you use while speaking to your group mates at university?
4. When did you start speaking the Komi-Permyak language?
5. When did you start speaking the Russian language?
6. What language did you speak in the kindergarten?
7. When did you start studying Komi-Permyak at school?
8. When did you start studying Russian at school?
9. What language do you use more often and in what situations?
10. What language do you hear more often and in what situations?

Etc… .

As a result we got and further analyzed 1360 answers from both group of participants.

The analysis of the survey results demonstrated that 70% of the participants acquired the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages simultaneously in early childhood. The other 30% acquired the two languages consecutively: 26% acquired the Komi-Permyak language from early childhood; further on, and at the age of 3, they began acquiring Russian. Only 4% of the participants began task-oriented acquisition of the Russian language at primary school at the age of 7. Therefore, 96% of our informants turned out to be native bilinguals who acquired the two languages in pre-school age in natural language environment. Only these informants participated in the next stage of our research.

At *the second stage* of the research the two groups of participants (junior students and senior students) took part in the free associative test with Komi-Permyak and Russian stimuli. During the test the informants were given a list of 54 high frequency words

presented at random: *friend, think, picture, usually, man, go, big, name, girl, time, listen, summer, know, work, famous, weather, come, easy, morning, world, speak, dictionary, boy, quickly, example, over, book, do, day, give, house, study, street, begin, woman, understand, read, new, sentence, like, evening, teacher, small, take, page, good, family, student, paper, language, word, have*. While fulfilling the experimental task the participants had to produce to each stimulus a reaction word that first occurred to them; the language of the reaction word was not specified. The test was carried out twice: first with the stimuli in Komi-Permyak (*ерт*, *думайтны, морт, мунны, ыджыт, ним, нывкаок, пора, кывзыны, гожум, удж, тӧдны, уналӧ тӧдса, погоддя, вовлыны, кокнита, асыв, югыт, баитны, кывчукӧр, зоночка, чожа, мыччалӧм*, *чайтны, сайын, небӧг, керны, сетавны, керку, велӧтчины, ӧтӧр, пондӧтны, инька, вежӧртны, дыддьӧтны, виль, серникузя, любитны, рыт, велотісь, учӧтик, босьтны, листбок, бур, кыв,лун, имейтны*) and, secondly, with the identical stimuli in Russian (*друг, думать, картина, обычно, человек, идти, большой, имя, девочка, время, слушать, лето, знать, работа, знаменитый, погода, приходить, легко, утро, мир, говорить, словарь, мальчик, быстро, пример, полагать, через, книга, делать, день, давать, дом, учиться, улица, начинать, женщина, понимать, читать, новый, предложение, любить, вечер, учитель, маленький, брать, страница, хороший, семья, студент, бумага, брать, язык, слово, иметь*). The time lapse between the Komi-Permyak and Russian experiments was about two weeks. As a result of 4 experimental trials (two trials with stimuli in different languages for the group of junior students and two trials with stimuli in different languages for the group of senior students) over 6 000 reactions in different languages were received and further analyzed.

Results and Discussion

1. First *the usage frequency of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages* as dependent on the stage of professional bilingual competence formation (initial or advanced) was analyzed (see Table 1).

Table 1: Usage frequency of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages at the initial and advanced stages of professional bilingual competence formation.

	Initial stage (junior students)	***Advanced stage (senior students)***
Komi-Permyak language	33%	43%
Russian language	46%	22%
Both languages	21%	35%

The data presented in Table 1 demonstrate that the process of professional bilingual competence formation is followed by certain changes in the usage frequency of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages. Thus, almost a half of the informants - junior students (46%) define Russian as the language used in communication most often. Evidently, such tendency can be explained by the fact that having moved to the city of Perm out of their native villages of the bilingual Komi-Permyak district and having entered the Perm university our informants get into the monolingual Russian-speaking environment. Therefore, except for the academic situation, they have to use Russian

as the only means of communication in common everyday situations: in shops, public transport, cafes, hostels, etc. As for the Komi-Permyak language, it is pointed at as the most frequently used one by about a third of the informants (33%). The main spheres of its usage are those of intra-familial communication, communication with friends and university group mates, as well as lessons of the Komi-Permyak language and literature. Moreover, despite the fact that the corresponding question of the survey unambiguously implied choosing only one most frequently used language ("Which ***language*** do you use most frequently?"), about one fifth of the informants (21%) could not restrict their choice by one language only and pointed at both Komi-Permyak and Russian as used with equal frequency. This fact proves that even at the initial stage of professional bilingual competence formation both languages exist in close contact in bilingual mental lexicon and actively compete with each other.

At the advanced stage of professional bilingual competence formation the total period of the informants' living in the Russian-speaking environment increases more than twofold; consequently, the cumulative experience of the Russian language usage (both in academic situation and in everyday communication) begins to dominate significantly over the Komi-Permyak language usage. Nevertheless, at this stage Russian usage frequency decreases sharply (more than two times, down to 26%); along with it the increase of Komi-Permyak usage frequency (up to 43%), as well as that of both languages' usage frequency (up to 35%) is observed. We assume, that such dynamics can be explained by two main factors. On the one hand, professional bilingual competence formation as related to the Komi-Permyak language implies elaboration of the ethnic self-consciousness which is manifested in raising the status of the national language and amending the emotional and evaluative attitude to it. Consequently, Komi-Permyak speakers tend to use their native language more actively and with greater relish. On the other hand, simultaneous study of the two languages as academic subjects stipulates constant juxtaposition of the two linguistic systems, profound analysis and active comparison of various facts and phenomena characteristic for them and, therefore, intensifies the habit of their concurrent use and constant overlap (Dotsenko et al., 2013).

2. Secondly, characteristic features of *cross-linguistic interactions* of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages as dependent on professional bilingual competence formation were analyzed. For this analysis the material of free associative tests with Komi-Permyak and Russian stimuli were used. The unit of the analysis is an associative-verbal pair: a word-stimulus and its verbal reaction. All associative-verbal pairs were divided into two main groups: intra-lingual pairs (a word-stimulus and a word-reaction belong to the same language) and inter-lingual pairs (a word-stimulus and a word-reaction belong to different languages). We assume that inter-lingual associative-verbal pairs demonstrate activation of the mechanism of cross-linguistic interactions in the informants' mental lexicon; in this context each inter-lingual "stimulus-reaction" pair represents certain specific features (direction and type) of cross-linguistic interactions. All the inter-lingual associative-verbal pairs received from two groups of informants were analyzed with regard to their quantitative and qualitative characteristics and further compared. This enabled us to reveal the dynamics of cross-linguistic interactions (that of their frequency and specific type) that characterize professional bilingual competence formation.

2.1. *Frequency of cross-linguistic interactions* in mental lexicon of the Komi-Permyak -Russian bilingual students at different stages of their professional competence formation. General frequency of inter-lingual and intra-lingual associative reactions received in the experiment is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: The quantity of inter-lingual and intra-lingual reactions for the Komi-Permyak and Russian stimuli.

	Initial stage		***Advanced stage***	
	Intra-lingual	***Inter-lingual***	***Intra-lingual***	***Inter-lingual***
Komi-Permyak stimuli	*52%*	*48%*	*53%*	*47%*
Russian stimuli	*95%*	*5%*	*82%*	*18%*

As is shown by the data of Table, at the initial stage of professional bilingual competence formation the participants prefer to produce intra-lingual associative reactions for both Komi-Permyak and Russian stimuli. The quantity of intra-lingual associative-verbal pairs is especially numerous for the Russian stimuli (95%): e.g., ***семья/'family'*** → *дружная/ 'friendly'*; ***приходить/'come'*** → *вовремя/'in time'*. As for the Komi-Permyak stimuli, they evoke intra-lingual reactions a little more than in one-half of all the cases (52%): ***бур/'good'*** → *удж/'work'*; ***асыв/'morning'*** → *кӧдззыт/'cold'*; ***босьтны/'take'*** → *сёян/'food'*.

Such predominance of intra-lingual reactions for the Russian stimuli demonstrates that, while speaking Russian, Komi-Permyak - Russian bilinguals prefer to remain within the frames of this language only. In other words, the Russian language system in their mental lexicon is characterized by a relatively isolated position, possesses non-penetrable boundaries and, therefore, does not tend to interact with the Komi-Permyak language. On the contrary, the Komi-Permyak language seems to have highly penetrable boundaries: the Komi-Permyak words are freely included into the Russian associative contexts and, in this way, are interacting extensively with Russian words. This tendency correlates with the survey data which demonstrate that Russian is more frequently used by the Komi-Permyak - Russian bilingual students in their everyday communication. Obviously, the more functional language (Russian) dominates over the less functional one (Komi-Permyak) which is manifested in unidirectional character of cross-linguistic interactions: they are realized in the direction from the Komi-Permyak language to Russian language, but do not proceed in the reverse direction.

At the advanced stage of professional bilingual competence formation cross-linguistic interactions in the direction from Russian to the Komi-Permyak language become more frequent: the quantity of inter-lingual reactions produced for the Russian stimuli increases more than 3 times (from 5% to 18% respectively). This fact demonstrates that the mechanism of cross-linguistic interactions in relation to the dominant language (Russian) begins to shape and further develop in our informants' mental lexicon; as a result, the interactions acquire bi-directional character with the Russian language taking an active part.

2.2. *Types of cross-linguistic interactions* in mental lexicon of the Komi-Permyak - Russian bilingual students at different stages of their professional competence formation. Two main types of cross-linguistic interactions were singled out within the total array of the experimental material: interactions of translational and non-translational type.

2.2.1. Translational cross-linguistic interactions are based on actualization of translational associative links between pairs of words - cross-linguistic semantic equivalents, though the degree of equivalence in the "stimulus – reaction" pair can vary. The translational cross-linguistic associative pairs include the following varieties: 1) equivalent translational associations: e.g., ***удж/'work'*** → *работа/'work';* ***виль/'new'*** → *новый/'new';* ***тӧдны/'know'*** → *знать/'know';* 2) rough translational associations: e.g., ***чайтны/'suppose'*** → *знать/'know';* ***кывчукӧр/'dictionary'*** → *книга/'book';* ***уналӧ тӧдся/'famous'*** → *знакомый/'familiar'*; 3) erratic translational associations: e.g., ***чайтны/'suppose'*** → *чай/*'tea'; ***кывчукӧр/'dictionary'*** → *стихотворение/'poem'.*

We suppose that, regardless of the degree of "correctness" of the translational reaction (how much the stimulus word corresponds to its cross-linguistic equivalent given in a bilingual dictionary), actualization of cross-linguistic translational links proves convergence of the two linguistic systems in bilingual consciousness which is based on mapping the two word forms from different languages onto the common meaning. Such mapping is realized by way of actualizing semantic word links, and forms the basis for cross-linguistic translation: a full switch from one linguistic system to another realized for the purposes of successive meaning conveyance. It appears that in this case both linguistic systems are realized by a bilingual individual as relatively independent from each other; they both seem to be represented collaterally within the common mental space and each of them is characterized by particular specific features of their units.

2.2.2. Non-translational cross-linguistic interactions are based on syntagmatic, paradigmatic, or thematic associative links between the words of the two languages.

Syntagmatic non-translational links are based on the speech combinatorial mechanism and represent linear expansion of the stimulus: ***инька/'woman'*** → *работает/'works'*; ***пример/'example'*** → *вайӧтны/'give'*; ***бур/'good'*** → *семья/'family';* ***виль/'new'*** → *платье/'dress';* ***знаменитый/'famous'*** → *морт/'man'.*

Paradigmatic non-translational links are based on the speech selection mechanism, reflect words' systematic properties and represent semantic similarity or opposition the stimulus and the reaction: ***ыджыт/'large'*** → *маленький/'small'*; ***сетавны/'give'*** → *брать/'take',* ***пондӧтны/'begin'*** → *закончить/'finish';* ***босьтны/'take'*** → *дать/'give'.*

Thematic non-translational links are based on conceptual associations which refer the individual to the whole array of notions, images, feelings and emotions connected with a word. Such links represent the relations of the stimulus not with other verbal units, but with communicative situation itself, its space and time coordinates. Unlike paradigmatic (linguistic proper) links which reflect automatic operations of logical

thinking (categorization, unification, opposition), thematic (extra-linguistic) links represent frequent situational, objective, subjective and suchlike "illogical" links: ***асыв/'morning'*** → *будильник/'alarm clock'*; ***вело́тісь/'teacher'*** → *знания/'knowledge'*; ***керны/'do'*** → *руки/'hands'*.

In general, cross-linguistic non-translational links corroborate convergence of two linguistic systems in bilingual mental lexicon by means of matching their syntactic, systematic/categorical, and situational/cognitive properties. Such convergence serves as the basis for the code-switching mechanism understood as fluent frequent transfers between the two languages. These transfers are realized within the frames of the common communicative situation and imply conveying the meaning of the utterance by ways of the two languages alternately. We assume, that actualization of cross-linguistic non-translational associative links indicates a certain blending of two linguistic systems in bilingual mental lexicon. This blending results in large-scale comparison of words belonging to different languages, as well as extensive overlap and transfer of their semantic, syntactic and other linguistic properties. Therefore, it can be supposed that professional linguistic competence formation leads to emergence in bilingual mental lexicon of a mixed-language (blended) subsystem; within this subsystem the two languages do not coexist collaterally, but are to a great extent intermingled and, thus, can interchange freely in the context of any of the two languages.

Table 3: The quantity of cross-linguistic translational and non-translational interactions for the Komi-Permyak and Russian stimuli.

	Initial stage		***Advanced stage***	
	Transl.	***Non-transl.***	***Transl.***	***Non-transl.***
Komi-Perm. stimuli	*57%*	*43%*	*33%*	*37%*
Russian stimuli	*90%*	*10%*	*78%*	*22%*

The data presented in Table 3 demonstrate that at both the initial and the advanced stages of professional bilingual competence formation the quantity of translational interactions steadily dominates over the quantity of non-translational ones: the share of the former represents more than one-half among the total number of cross-linguistic interactions at each stage considered and for both languages. At the initial stage translational cross-linguistic interactions appear more often for the Russian stimuli (90%) in comparison with the Komi-Permyak stimuli (57%). Apparently, this proves that originally the Russian language is characterized by a greater degree of isolation in our informants' mental lexicon as compared to the Komi-Permyak language. Komi-Permyak words are more actively embedded into the Russian associative environment which confirms that blending of the two languages occurs mostly in one direction: from the Komi-Permyak language to Russian.

At the advanced stage the quantity of translational cross-linguistic interactions is slightly increasing for the Komi-Permyak stimuli (63%) and, at the same time, is decreasing significantly for the Russian stimuli (78%). Such dynamics correlates with the usage frequency of the Russian and Komi-Permyak languages revealed by the

sociolinguistic survey described above. According to the survey data, professional linguistic competence formation is followed by a significant decrease of the Russian language usage frequency along with an increase of the Komi-Permyak language frequency, as well as that of alternative usage of both languages (see Table 1). Apparently, due to these changes the Russian language forfeits its isolated position in bilingual mental lexicon and, at the same time, opens its boundaries for active interactions with the Komi-Permyak language. Besides establishing one-to-one semantic correspondences (equivalent translations) to the Komi-Permyak words, Russian words tend to be embedded into the general Komi-Permyak associative context. As a result, the penetrative ability of the boundaries of the two languages becomes mutual which leads to bidirectional blending of the two languages: in the direction from Komi-Permyak to Russian, and back - from Russian to Komi-Permyak.

At the same time it should be noted that at the advanced stage of professional linguistic competence formation general alignment of the total ratio of translational and non-translational cross-linguistic reactions produced for the Komi-Permyak and Russian stimuli (63% and 78% of translational reactions and 37% and 22% of non-translational reactions respectively) is observed. This obviously shows that both languages start mutually influencing each other in bilingual mental lexicon, so that the degree of their relative isolation on the one hand, and the degree of penetrability of their boundaries on the other hand are gradually equalized.

2.3. C*ross-linguistic transfer* in mental lexicon of the Komi-Permyak - Russian bilingual students at different stages of their professional competence formation. Cross-linguistic transfer is usually defined as «covert use of linguistic structures from the other language without overt switching to that language» (Marian, 2009, p. 161). Cross-linguistic transfer often characterizes bilingual speech production and, thus, represents one of the most common types of cross-linguistic interactions. The roots of cross-linguistic transfer lie in a certain set of similarities and differences between the two interacting languages (Odlin, 1989).

In our experimental material cases of cross-linguistic transfer were represented by the so-called “blended” reactions which included a Russian root and the Komi-Permyak suffix: e.g., ***лун/‘day’*** → *необычн**öй**/‘unusual’*, ***зоночка/‘boy’*** → *сильн**öй**/‘strong’*, ***бумага/‘paper’*** → *разноцветн**öй**/‘colourful’*, ***велотісь/‘teacher’*** → *умн**öй**/‘clerver’*, ***сёрникузя/‘sentence’*** → *сложн**öй**/'difficult’*. This type of cross-linguistic transfer is based on changes in the morphological structure of the proper Russian adjective: the native Russian adjective suffix **-ый** is changed for the native Kom-Permyak suffix ***–öй;*** both morphemes have the same grammatical characteristics and very close pronunciation in the two languages.

It appears that such combinations of the morphemes of the two languages into one lexical unit are not perceived by the participants as cases of cross-linguistic blending, but are treated as proper Komi-Permyak words belonging to the native stock. As for their frequency, the reactions of this type are not numerous and do not seem to depend on the advance of professional bilingual competence formation: the quantity of the “blended” words amounts to approximately 10% of the whole total of experimental reactions both at the initial and advanced stages of studies.

Conclusion

An experimental research with Komi-Permyak-Russian bilingual university students carried out at the initial and advanced stages of their professional competence formation was aimed at revealing the dynamics of cross-linguistic interactions in their mental lexicon.

The results of the research show that simultaneous progress in both languages' proficiency leads to significant changes in the informants' speech behavior, as well as in the nature of cross-linguistic interactions in their mental lexicon. The dynamics revealed concerns the three main factors: 1) usage frequency of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages by bilingual speakers; 2) general frequency and direction of cross-linguistic interactions; 3) the proportion of translational and non-translational interactions.

Changes in the usage frequency of the Komi-Permyak and Russian languages is manifested in the fact that senior Komi-Permyak - Russian students start using both languages in communication more often as compared to junior students. On the one hand, this is obviously connected with active elaboration of the informants' national self-identity which results in uplifting of their national language status: it begins to function as a fully-fledged communicative means on equal terms with the Russian language. On the other hand, such tendency is also stipulated by professionally oriented bilingual educational context: both linguistic systems are subject to extensive juxtaposition, mapping and comparison which lead to strengthening of their ability to interchange in various communicative contexts.

Changes in general frequency and direction of cross-linguistic interactions in bilingual Komi-Permyak - Russian mental lexicon are revealed in the increase of the total quantity of inter-lingual reactions, as well as in active formation of bi-directional associative routes between words of the two languages (from Komi-Permyak to Russian and backwards, from Russian to Komi-Permyak).

Changes in the proportion of translational and non-translational interactions prove that along with professional competence formation the two languages in bilingual mental lexicon start mutually influencing each other and, as a result, gradually develop a higher level of resemblance. This is manifested in balancing the degree of their relative isolation in the lexicon, as well as the degree of penetrability of their boundaries. A steady tendency of cross-linguistic transfer (mostly unperceived by the speakers) may function as one of the possible grounds for activating mutual influence of the two languages.

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Principal Leadership in the Implementation of School Based Management in Public Vocational High School (SMK NEGERI) of 26 Jakarta, Indonesia

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Abstract
This research aims to know the principal leadership in moving the citizen schools citizen schools motivation, give, give an example to the citizens of the school, and the effects or impacts of the leadership in the framework of the implementation of School-based management (SBM) in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta. The method used is descriptive research methods with qualitative approaches. Data collection techniques used are interviews, observation and study of documentation. The results of this research are: 1) principal leadership role in moving the citizens schools, namely by giving example, friendly, personal approach and through regular meetings. 2) principal leadership role in providing motivation by giving spirit, praise, and give more attention to help the fulfillment of citizens schools in carrying out the task. 3) principal leadership role in giving an example to the citizens of the school to do it in a way come morning, cultivate shake each morning, giving an example before telling or giving instruction, commitment to teaching hours, dress mess, and go home for longer. 4) the effects of principal leadership roles, that of harmonious family atmosphere climate that disciplined, clean, prestatif and productive in this school. This helps facilitate schools in achieving its objectives in the framework of the implementation of the SBM.

Keywords: Leadership, Principal, Implementation of school based management.

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Introduction

Along with the changing times and the level of development of the society, especially since the new order era just presenting the reform era in Indonesia, has demanded the presence of an improvement in all areas. Education is one of the fields into the repair demands, then there was born a new formats in the national education system with Setup does not change the main purpose of national education. The new formats next known by statute (law) number 22-year 1999 about local governance and law number 25 Year 1999 about Government Financial Balance, Center, and the area., as well as Government Regulations number 25 year 2000 about the authority of the Government and the authorities of the Province as an autonomous region which subsequently became the foundation for the establishment of the juridical autonomy areas that affect to the structuring of the national education system as a whole. The meaning contained the regulations of the granting authority is the existence of a vast, real and responsible to the regions proportionately.

With autonomy in the field of education, then the region will have the authority in planning, implementing and controlling its own educational development. Based on the autonomy model, so the school management model on one side giving discretion to manage the school to the school (principals and teachers) and on the other hand gives you a chance to participate to the community. The management model hereinafter referred to as the "School-based management" (SBM).

Statement of the Problem

In the implementation of SBM, the school was given the authority to control the school independently, especially in terms of decision making. The authority of the institutions this school demands the willingness and ability of the whole school a more qualified personnel, especially the principal. This is because the principal had a strong role in the coordinate, moving, and menyerasikan all the available educational resources. Leadership is one of the principal factors that can encourage the school to be able to realize the vision, mission, goals and objectives through its school programs which are implemented programmatically and gradual in accordance with the resources owned by the school. To find out the extent of the success rates and how the application of these SBM in the field as well as the headmaster's leadership role in organizing the management. Then authors takes a sample of one of the schools that has been running a program of the SBM . The school which was taken as the place of research on the role of principal leadership in the framework of the implementation of the SBM is Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta, Indonesia.

Question Research

Based on the context of the research and the focus of the research that has been outlined above, there are several research questions as follows:
1. What is the role of the principal of the school in citizens in moving implementation-SBM in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta?
2. What is the role of the principal in a member school in the implementation of the citizen motivation-SBM in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta?
3. What is the role of the principal as an example implementation-SBM in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta?

4. What is the effect of the leadership of the principal implementation-SBM in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta?

School Based Management

School Based Management is "Coordinating and harmonizing resources that are automatically automated by schools through a number of management inputs to achieve school goals within the national educational framework, involving school-related interest groups directly in the participatory (decision-making) process." (Slamet in Umiarso and Imam Gojali, 2011, page 71). "school-based management can be defined as the decentralization of decision-making authority to the school site, is one of the most popular strategies that came out of the 1980's school reform movement". *(*Lori Jo Oswald in Sudarwan Danim, 2008, page 35).

> The definition of SBM proposed by Malen, Ogawa and Kranz (1990: 1) in Ibtisam Abu-Duhou is as follows:
> *School-Based Management can be viewed conceptually as a formal alteration of governance structures, as a form of decentralization that identifies the individual school as the primary unit of improvement and relies on the redistribution of decision-making authority as the primary means through which improvement might be stimulated and sustained. Some formal authority to make decision in the domains of budget, personnel and program is delegated to and often distributed among site level actors. Some formal structure (council, committee, team, board) often composed of principals, teachers, parents, and, at times, student and community recidents is created so that site participants can be directly involved in school wide decision making.*

Based on the above definitions, it can be synthesized that SBM is a concept that empowers all resources based on schools for direct participation in the decision-making process to achieve school goals within the national education framework.

Principal Leadership

Leadership is "the process of influencing the activities of a person or group in its efforts to achieve the objectives in a particular situation." (Blanchard in Veithzal Rivai and Sylviana Murni, 2009, Page 285). The leadership of Pancasila (ideology of Indonesia) by Ki Hajar Dewantara is *"ing ngarsa sung tulodo, ing madia mangun karsa, and tut wuri handayani"* (Wahjosumidjo, 2001, Page 121). This means that the leader is a figure that *when in the future give an example, in the middle of moving, and behind the encouragement or motivation.*

Lipoto (1988) says, as the leader of the principal must be able to *"move the others that consciously and willingly carry out their obligations in good accordance with what to expect the leadership in achieving the objectives."*

Based on the above definitions can be synthesized that the leadership of the principal is the process of influencing, moving, motivating a person or group using all the resources that exist in the school to improve learning so that the purpose of education can be achieved effectively and efficiently.

The Principal Leadership Role In The Implementation of SBM

Indicators of the success of the principal implementation-SBM, i.e.:

"the duties and responsibilities of the first of the leaders of the school is to create a school that theirlead is becoming increasingly effective, in the sense of becoming increasingly beneficial to the school itself and for the wider community of its users. A leader of the school should be able to influence, engage, define, move and if need to force others to accept influence was henceforth do anything that can help the achievement of a specific goal or intention. The effectiveness of SBM here is how SBM can successfully carry out all the duties of principal school, establish community participation, obtainand make use of the resources, funding sources, and learning resources for the realization of the goals of the school." (Thomas b. Santoso in Mulyono, 2008, Page 148).

Other criteria of effective principal leadership in SBM implementation are as follows:

- Able to empower teachers to carry out the learning process properly, smoothly and productive.
- Can perform tasks and work in accordance with a predetermined time.
- Able to establish harmonious relationships with the community so as to involve them actively in order to realize the goals and objectives of the school of education.
- Successfully applying the principle of leadership that corresponds with the level ofmaturity of the teachers and other employees at the school.
- Working with the management team.
- Successfully achieving schools productively in accordance with the conditions which have been set. (Mulyasa, 2009, Page 126).

Based on the above opinion, it can be concluded that the successful leadership of the principal in implementing SBM is influenced by the skills and abilities possessed by the principal, as well as achievement-achievable goals that can be achieved. Increased learning, increased quality of teachers, and the more effective and productive learning can be one indicator of leadership success of the principal.

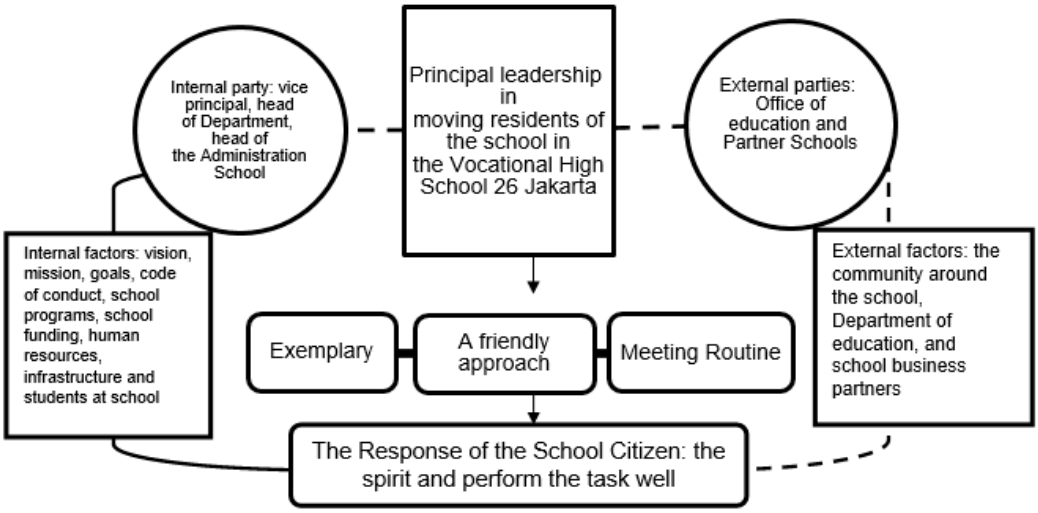
Research Methods

This research uses qualitative approach with descriptive method. This research was conducted at Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta on Jalan Balai Pustaka Baru No. I, Rawamangun, Pulogadung, East Jakarta, Indonesia. Data completion technique in research use observation, interview, and documentation.

The technique of selecting informants in this study was taken from several sources through interview with snowball sampling technique. Informants interviewed in this study, principals (as *Key Informants*), Vice Principals of Quality Management as *Supporting Informants 1*, teacher representatives as *Supporting Informants 2*, Head of Administration as *Supporting Informants 3*, staff representatives as *Supporting Informants 4*, And student representatives, namely Head of Student Organization at school as *Supporting Informant 5*.

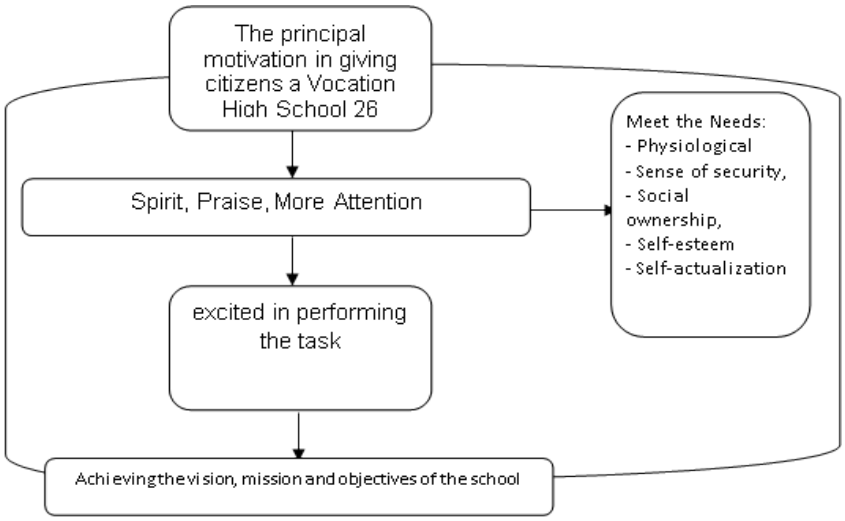
Research Result

1. The role of the principal in moving residents of the school in the implementation of the School Based Management in the Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta



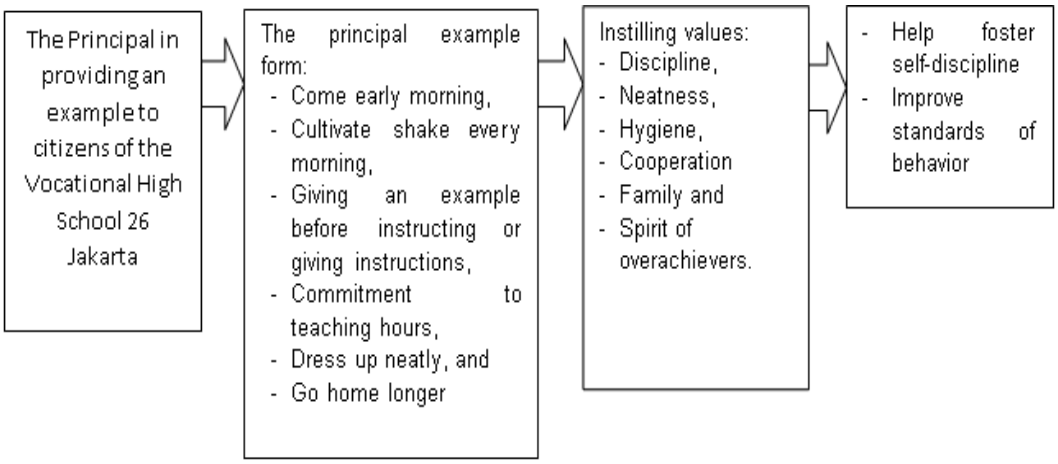
Based on the data exposure and data analysis described above, it can be concluded that the principal has performed his leadership role in mobilizing school residents with the help of several parties, namely representatives of principals, department heads, heads of school administration, and school partners . The principal's strategy is to provide exemplary, friendly personal approaches, and conduct regular meetings. Factors that affect the principal in the move are divided into two, namely internal factors and external factors. Internal factors, namely vision, mission, objectives, discipline, school programs, school human resources, funds, infrastructure and students in schools. While external factors, namely the community around the school, education offices, and school partners.

2. The role of the principal motivation in giving the citizens of the school in the implementation of School Based Management in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta



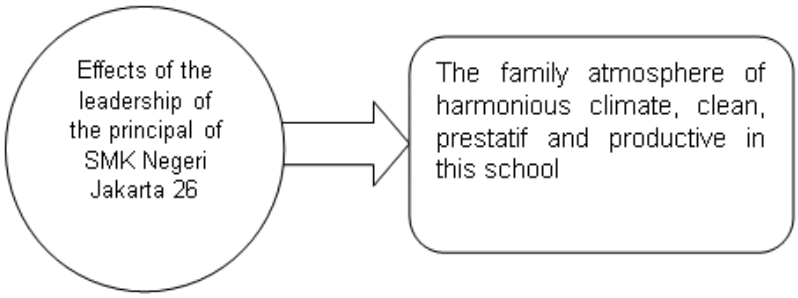
Based on the data exposure and data analysis presented above, it can be concluded that the principal has performed his leadership role in motivating the school community by giving spirit, praise, and giving more attention. The response received by the school community on the motivation given by the headmaster has helped the fulfillment of the needs of the school community in performing the task. This makes it easier for schools to achieve school vision, mission and objectives well in order to implement SBM.

3. The role of the principal as an example in the implementation of School Based Management in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta



Based on the data exposure and data analysis presented, it can be concluded that the principal has performed his leadership role in modeling the school's residents by arriving early, cultivating shake every morning, setting an example before commanding or giving instruction, commitment to teaching hours, dressing Neat, and go back longer. The principal in providing exemplary to the school's citizens has helped foster self-discipline and improve standards of behavior by instilling discipline, tidiness, hygiene, cooperation, family and achievement values. This is done by the principal to achieve the vision, mission and objectives of the school in order to implement SBM.

4. The effect of principal leadership in the implementation of School Based Management in Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta.



Based on the data exposure and data analysis presented, it can be concluded that the influence of the principal's leadership has had an impact on teachers, staff and students in schools by building a disciplined, neat, prestigious and productive family

atmosphere in this school. This can facilitate the success in achieving the vision, mission and objectives of the school in the framework of SBM implementation.

Conclusion

In general, the results of research shows that the principals of Public Vocational High School of 26 Jakarta runs its leadership role as a leader in school. Based on the findings obtained in the field, this research can be summarized as follows:

- The role of principal's leadership in mobilizing school residents is assisted by several parties, namely representatives of school principals, department heads, heads of school administration, and some outside parties who become partners of schools, such as education or industrial companies.
  In mobilizing school children, the principal uses several strategies, namely by providing exemplary, friendly personal approaches, and conducting routine meetings. Principals use friendly, light, warm, and clear language in communication or coordination. There are several factors that influence the success of the principal in the move, namely internal factors and external factors.
- The role of the principal's leadership in motivating the school community by giving encouragement, praise, and giving more attention to the citizens of the school. The responses received by school members on the motivations provided by the principal have helped meet the needs of the school's citizens, namely physiological needs, safety needs, social ownership needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. It makes the school citizens spirit in carrying out their duties.
- The role of the principal's leadership in modeling the school's residents by coming to school early, cultivating shrugs every morning, setting an example before commanding or giving instruction, commitment to teaching hours, dressing neatly, and returning longer.
- The effect of the principal's leadership on teachers, staff and students is demonstrated by the establishment of a disciplined, neat, prestigious and productive climate atmosphere.

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Evaluation of the Program of Based Islamic Montessori Curriculum

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Abstract
The aim of this evaluative research to know the implementation Montessori approach based on Gita Islamic Montessori School (GIMS). The research method is research evaluation by using CIPP model. This study uses multiple techniques and instruments to collect data and for data analysis, it uses descriptive statistics and qualitative techniques. The results of the study are the implementation of the curriculum based on the Montessori approach GIMS in 2016 has been effective. This is seen in (1) The learning environment very conducive GIMS is comfortable and pleasant, (2) GIMS use the modified Montessori curriculum which is collaborate with Islam approaches (3) all teachers have academic qualifications Bachelor degree implement its role in accordance with the concept of Montessori which explores the child's interest in every activity, (4) The learning process adapted to the standard method of using early childhood education and nuanced playing, creative, and innovative, (5) Learning plan prepared by a customized approach to Montessori educators,, (6) GIMS has a standard stages of child development are inputted into the outcome document of the level of achievement that appropriate with age, aspect development of language, cognitive, social, emotional, religious and moral.

Keyword : Evaluation of programs, curriculum, and educational Montessori early childhood

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Introduction

0-6 ages is called *golden age* frequently, in which the parents or teachers may build basic character and values for children life suitably. Early childhood education is any basic efforts in scope of excellent human development for the future.

In Indonesia there are so many approaches to increase early childhood education. Any approach for early childhood learning having been applied is Montessori either by pure or modified curriculum standard. The main objective of Montessori Education is to prepare children by wading through life stressing children development process both normally and maximally. Montessori Education based on natural condition of brain absorption and sensitive period spontaneity development in order to support physic and psych development while directing them for free and health life.

Montessori Education had been spread over the world, it had proven that Montessori Education may be applied in varied place and situation. It is suitable to the research having been conducted by Cynthia in title of *Reflections on the Internationality of Montessori Education* in which Montessori Education may meet educational basic requirement for all continents with varied geography, politic, ethnic, religion and social background, nevertheless Montessori curriculum had not been limited to those. And it had resulted in the children obtain multicultural experiences in accordance with mutual respect philosophy of Montessori.

Also learning environment had had been concerned by Montessori to support children development, it is suitable to the research conducted by Azizollah Baboli Bahmaee and associate in title of "*Principle Elements of Curriculum in the Preschool Pattern of Montessori*" in which Montessori had been determined as curriculum theory recognized by pre-school education for children growth and development. Montessori believe that classroom environment should be according to children life such as table, chair, black board/white board and other school equipment proportionally, it follows children size to prevent from any problem when they use those, while they may those independently.

Montessori Education has good and qualified vision and mission for children development. In it is accordance with research of *"Back to Basic", for the Montessorian: the Practical Life Foundation*, by Carol S. Wood who revealed that Montessori children had been prepared for their future by skill diversity in order to build their character to achieve the future successfully.

Good quality of any education should be important consideration for organizer of early childhood education specially. Refer to the research conducted by Taggart and associate in title of "*The Power of Pre-School: Evidence From The Eppe Project"* stressing the importance of early childhood education supported by qualified learning and suitable learning evaluation. By stressing of quality importance in regulating children treatment for their further future is very important.

Any school which had applied Montessori based curriculum is GITA ISLAMIC MONTESSORI SCHOOL (GIMS). GIMS is the first Islamic based Montessori school at South Jakarta area. It is any excellence and attraction of this school.

Bearing in mind the importance of evaluation in implementing learning program. By research conducted by Ishimine and associate in title of *"Assessing Quality in Early Childhood Education and Care"* in which high quality program will be able from time to time increasing and maintaining children achievement results while concerning its strength and weakness of course.

Then, based on description above, it is important to evaluate Montessori based curriculum implementation by knowing the extent to which the suitability of Islamic Montessori based curriculum at Gita Islamic Montessori School.

This research uses evaluation model oriented to components of *contetxt, input, process,* and *product* or CIPP evaluation. The reason why the researcher use this CIPP model is the most suitable and restructured one for program evaluation research at school. Those four components described above as that from any of program process. In other word, it is evaluation model viewing program as any system. It may be reached by large program comprehensively.

Literature Review

Experts define program evaluation with multiple senses. Dean T. Spaulding argues that program evaluation is described as a program for determining the value and for making recommendations for improvement of a program to achieve a success.[1] Meanwhile, David Royse et al have other ideas regarding program evaluation. Program evaluation is defined as an applied research that is used as part of the managerial process.[2] The evaluation itself is conducted to assist those who must make administrative decisions about the service program. John M. Owen one of the experts also said that evaluation is defined as an effort to obtain and should improve the quality of interventions (Policies and programs) designed to solve or correct problems in the setting.[3] Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (1981: 12) in his book, Eko suggests that program evaluation is an evaluation that assesses activity in the field of education by providing continuous data.[4] Thus the evaluation of the program is a series of activities conducted deliberately and carefully to determine the level of implementation or success of a program by knowing the effectiveness of each component, both on the program being run as well as programs that have passed. Evaluation of the program is usually done for the purposes of decision making in order to determine the next policy. While one of the domestic experts, Sugiyono said that program evaluation is a scientific way (rational, empirical, and systematic) to obtain data with the aim to know the effectiveness and efficiency of projects, policies and programs.[5]

Based on some opinions of experts related to the definition of program evaluation can be concluded that program evaluation is a systematic scientific procedure conducted to review program outcomes (effectiveness of a program) in accordance with the

[1] Dean T. Spaulding. *Program Evaluation in Practice,* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2014), h. 5
[2] David Royse, dkk, *ProgramEvaluation*, (USA: Wadsworth, 2010), h. 12
[3] John M. Owen, *Program Evaluation,* (Australia: First published, 2006), h. 1
[4] Eko Putro Widoyoko, *Evaluasi Program Pembeajaran,* (Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar, 2009), h. 9
[5] Sugiyono, *Metode Penelitin Manajemen*, (Bandung: Alfabeta, 2012), h. 742

planned objectives, by collecting, analyzing, and review the implementation of the program conducted objectively.

Methodology

This evaluation research conducted at Gita Islamic Montessori School (GIMS) in Jalan Kemang Dalam VI, No. C14, Kemang Indah, South Jakarta Selatan – 12730 precisely. The Method used in this research is that of evaluation by qualitative and quantitative (*mix method*) approach. It may give evaluation to program in terms of its effectiveness, its program management as well as its more and less. As to model design in this research is matched with evaluation model as had been described above, those are CIPP (Context, Input, Process, Product).

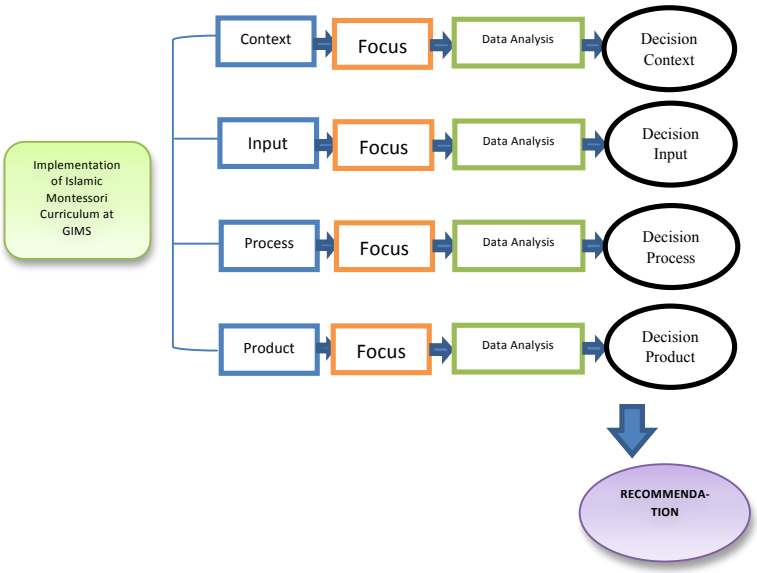

Figure 1: Research Model Design of CIPP *(Context, Input, Process, Product),* Stufflebeam 1965

Research instrument is written guidance on interview or observation or questionair list prepared for getting information from respondent. As data collector, closely, its instrument technique influenced by research method type adjusted with research model derived from CIPP, hence, some evaluated aspects of *context* covering: institution background and its vision and mission, learning climate; whereas its inputs covering: mean and facility, curriculum materials, educator : planning, implementation, evaluation and program development; its *product* covering long and short time program/ goal, that had been achieved, that had not been achieved; finally, its outcome covering : graduation of educatee.

Data collection conducted by both primary and secondary resources. This evaluation research uses descriptive qualitative and quantitative analysis technique.

Data analysis is regular one using model as revealed by Miles and Huberman :

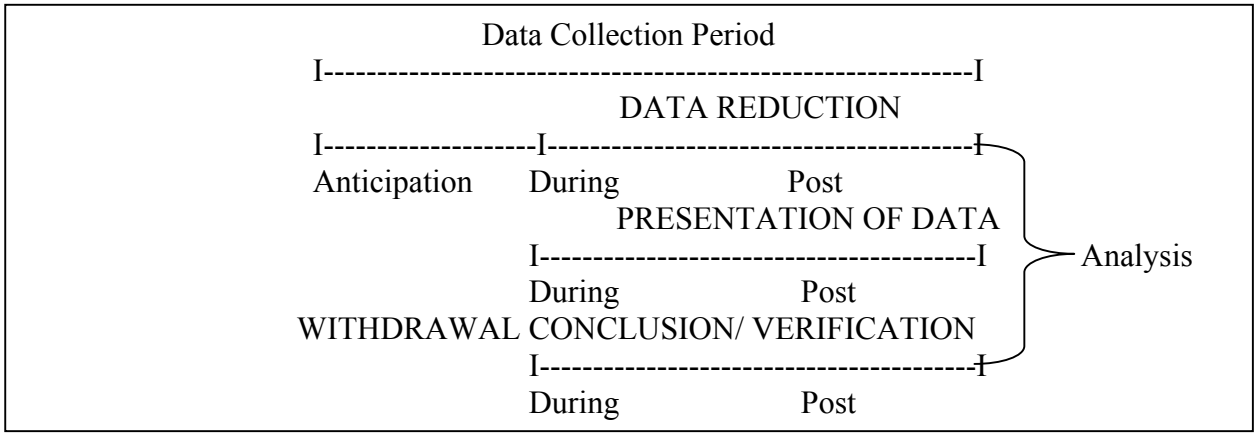

Figure 2. Data analysis Components

I*slamic montessori* based curriculum approach at GIMS uses data triangulation technique guiding the researcher in order to collect data using various data research on hand. It means the truth of similar or same data will be more firm when it is obtained from some given data resources.

Results and Discussion

Pre-school curriculum of Montessori (Hainstock, 2008: 76) focused on building of mindset in which any child has real personality and know its potency. Any component operates in line with others hence, image of personal life may be known. Following is researcher observation based on instrument by Hainstock (2008: 106-107):

Surrounding environment

a. Nature and according to reality

Montessori believe that nature stimulate braind and body growth. Substantially, children friendly environment covering natural component assisting them to develop skill. At GIMS there are 7 classes as content of Montessori development, those are:

1) Practical Life. Based on Montessori development, this activity covering : brushing teeth, decorate picture frame, watering the flowers, shine shoe, clean the table, thank saying and others. In the observtion at GIMS it has special activity in order to increase children *practical life* by making batter dough, cake molding using *playdough*, to sieve wheat flour and green beans, Pour water from the glass jug to glass precisely, to hang clothes with given miniatur and others. In this activity, the teacher play role as observer and make notes to each child as daily activity report.

Figure 3 : Jug to Jug

Figure 4 : Make a cookie dough

2) Sensory. By Montessori development such as activity of objects grouping based on color, soft and hard distinguishing and other. Based on observation results, previously, the teacher demonstrate how to use playing media by any motion to make easier chidren. In terms of area *math*, the teacher shows how to use playing media by weight bem made from wood. Previously, the teacher insert the finger into weighing hole to estimate such hole size, subsequently, the teacher indicate the expression looking for precise child scale with estimated hole size with finger and then, it is inserted to weight hole in accordance with size and so on. The teacher had not explained verbally, but, it is conducted by motion and expression solely, in order to stimulate children cognitive aspect, hence, the children try to understand teacher motion. Really, upon those children try such wood material weight, they follow the motion as had been conducted by such teacher. From the way to palpate, touch, hold child scale and other motion.

Figure 5 : Playing scales

3) Language. By Montessori development, the activity to support their language development, it is conducted by activities of naming, word cards and gonetic playing. In the observation, those activities of *flash card* playing, to match letters with its size, guess the words playing, and to compose words using and others had stimulated this development,.

Figure 6 : Arrange the alphabet

4) Matemathic. Materials of Montessori development are (a) figures and numbers from 0 to 10, (b) linear calculation, (c) decimal system and (d) mathematic operation. Based on observation, mathematic activity at GIMS had been stimulated by their sensoric experience, those are *playdough*, to sort

objects according to its size, color classification and calculate total numbers with medium size beads.

Figure 7 : Sort numbers

5) Artistic. In Montessori development, the children may work at some some media by paint, crayon, paper powder for example. And to train children art sensitivity by dance and drama art. From observation result at GIMS, there is any rom for exploiting children art capability.

6) Music. At Montessori development by bell playing in order to distinguish low or high tone. From observation result at GIMS, by *morning circle* activities by singing, dancing, clap the hands, morning exercise.

7) Cultural subject covering geography and science. In Montessori development in classroom the children had been given sample by landmain and map puzzle. From observation result at GIMS, by drawing seeing activity using magnifier, greeting from from various language in accordance with flag and got it.

Figure 8 : Sort numbers

b. Covering safe and reachable and opened room

In Montessori development, the children may learn and play in opened and safe environment for jumping in accordance with children wish. Opened room covering garden fulfilled with plant and pets. GIMS environment, it covers safe playing area completed with floor puzzle. In this school, there is pets such rabbit in which the children feed such rabbit and tomato vegetation to be watered by children.

Figure 9 : Playground

Equipment and mini furniture mini to be specific character from Montessori school covering mini washing place, mini refrigerator and small chairs and small stairs. Also this case is applied for GIMS equipment.

Figure 10 : Mini toilet

Figure 11 : Mini table and mini chairs

c. Covering large, clean and bright interior

Beauty and regular environment manifested by simple, bright and enchant appearance of Montessori school. At GIMS, this case also tobe their consideration in giving natural and due impression.

Figure 12 : Morning circle area

d. No strict schedule and no table facing black board

In accordance with free principle of Montessori, the children is permitted to choose and use props or training exercise by appreciating other children freedom. at GIMS also this principle had been applied the children may choose the material they wish freely. GIMS only give *time of table grouping class* each week such as the figure as follows:

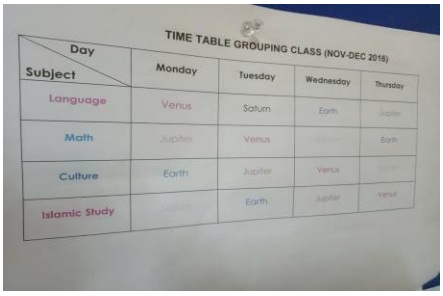

Figure 13 : Time table grouping class

Classroom design at GIMS pun there is no tables and chairs facing blackboard as well. Mutually, the children and teacher sit on floor bordered by *black line*.

Figure 14 : Class situation

Props

Montessori clarify specific character ot its props by other general props those are (a) concrete (b) instructional (c) isolated and (d) integrated functions. Props at GIMS concern it where props existing at classroom has various color, shape, size, texture, sound and mind breaker type for children such as weight props.

Figure 15 : Wood scales tool

In accordance with Montessori principle teaching regularity and beauty then, props at GIMS had concerned it as well.

Figure 16 : Props

Children

In Montessori principle, the children from 2.5 years through 5 years old may interact freely. Commingling with friends from various ages to prepare children grow in complex world. Implementation at GIMS, age combination had been applied but, those conducted at 4-5 years old for toddler by separated classroom, hence, there is class division, ie, first grade (toddler) and second grade (4-5 years old).

Teacher

The teaching by teacher of Montessori's pre-school there is three uniquenesses, those are (a) motion analysis (b) direct demonstration (c) three period learning. In accordance with application at GIMS, the teachers of GIMS to attitude more passively (more actions than words), to wait patiently and nearly pull out self intervening

spontaneous interest and activities of children. Also the teacher more appreciate any attitude conducted by children. Intensively and periodically the teacher having duty to observe and communicate to children parent such as routine meeting as model for children and to asses any child. I*nquired, children centred, and discovery* approach as one followed by GIMS as well as always concern Montessori principle.

Asessment

Evaluation or assessment of Montessori curriculum implemented by the extent to which the children obtain experience. Evaluation method at GIMS using achievement scale of children development, observation records and anecdote notes.

The following table is observation result from Montessori approach using program evaluation :

Table 1 : Model Program Evaluation of CIPPO *(Context Input Process Product Outcomes)* at Gita Islamic Montessori School

No	Component	Observed Aspect	Data Resource	Used Instrument	Observation Result
1.	Context	Background of Institution	School Archive	Document	Established on 7th August 2004 at Kemang, South in order to meet Jakarta and surrounding community needs which of good quality education with Islam values had increased
		Learning climate	School Archive / Principal	Observation Documentation	Learning environment is very conducive, comfort, convenience, as well as harmonious social relations between inter children and their teacher
2,	Input	Means and facility	Principal	Interview Observation	Large area volume, location, classrooms, Principal room, teachers room, Bathroom/ toilet of children, furniture, learning media, props and indoor and outdoor playing equipment in accordance with reality. But, its parking loots of parent in school area is not adequate.
		Curriculum	Teacher	Interview	- Kindergarten/ playgroup has Montessori standard curriculum - Kindergarten/ playgroup has modified curriculum - Learning time in

					accordance with standard of early childhood education - Kindergarten/ playgroup has academic calender - Academic calender socialized to stake holders in concern
		Tenaga Educator	Principal	Interview	Educator qualification : Teacher Teacher pendamping - Teacher has bachelor (S1) academic qualification, but, most of them had not graduated from Early Childhood Education department/majoring. Qualification of educators: - Principal - Administration Staff
		Educatee	Teacher Principal	Interview	Recruitment process of educatee according to indicator
		Finance	Principal / Administrator	Interview	School has accounting document (Revenue and expenditure) according to concept
		Parent support	Parent	Interview	Any support from parent in terms of learning, financial and communication
3.	Process	Planning	Principal / Administrator Teacher	Interview Questionair	Learning planning in accordance with standard of early childhood education and scheduled by teachers
		Implementation	Principal ; Teacher	Interview Questionair	Learning activities comprising greeting, opening, essence and closure in accordance with concept Playing area setting in accordance with concept Educative playing mean is adequate for children and educator, it had been managed kindly. Varied and convenience learning method

		Evaluation	Principal / Administrator Teacher	Interview	Individual record/instrument evaluation of children Evaluation technique by progress report
		Program development	Teacher	Interview	Method used by playing, creative and innovative nuance
4.	Product	1. Long term Program/ target 2. Short term Program/ target	School Archive	Document	Semester planning, RKM and RKH adjusted with standard of early childhood education by pendekatan Montessori Learning plan had been documented. Learning plan scheduled by educator
		1. Objectives that have not been reached 2.Goal achieved	Principal Teacher	Interview Questionair	There is document of developmental achievement rate results as had been determined according to children age and developmental aspects of language, cognitive, social, emotional, religion and moral Kindergarten has standars of children development stages.
5.	Outcome	Alumnus	Principal Teacher	Interview	There is educatee achievement to continue their educating levels

Table 2 : The diffrence between concept and implementation at Gita Islamic Montessori School

No	Concept of Maria Montessori	Implementation at Gita Islamic Montessori School	Remark
1	To combine varied children age in their learning. The children in 2 years old combined with that of 5 years old. No class division based on age	There is age combination. But, it is only for both 4 years old and 5 years old And there is a class division (K1 and K2) based on age	The children in 2 years old attend toddler classroom and 3 years old at Preschool classroom. No combination for above them.

2	Free Principle initiated by Montessori, freely, the children may choose their own activities without intervention from the teacher, hence, it enables they choose one or two activities to follow learning	Free Principle at Gita Islamic Montessori School, freely, the children may choose their own activities with a little strategy. The conducted Strategy is by grouping and group scheduling having been determined for attending certain classroom. Hence, the children may attend all learning classes and they may choose different class each day.	Grouping conducted upon 3 months learning. Initially, all educatee combined as one and the teacher give guidance on how to use materials and its rules as well as activities conducted before grouping in general.
3	in accordance with due class concept, ie, *practical life*, sensory, language, mathematic, artistic, music and culture (geography and science)	Existing classroom at Gita Islamic Montessori School comprising *practical life*, language, mathematic, artistic, music and culture (geography and science)	severally, no sensory, artistic and music in self-classes, but, it is included for daily activities having been designed. Additionally, there is extra class, ie, *Islamic Studies* class.
4	The natural disciplinary application. Consistently, the teacher will give and stress rules each day and naturally to enforce it in accordance with children growth	The natural disciplinary application at Gita Islamic Montessori School. In the beginning of learning the teacher give classroom rules and to make sure that the children understand such rules and apply it in learning process.	For example: in disciplinary application for speaking permit, previously, the children should lift their hand, it had been applied consistently.

Conclusion

Based on research result on Montessori curriculum approach at Gita Islamic Montessori School, then, it may be concluded that there is any adjustment of Montessori curriculum approach concept and the addition of Islamic class on the habituation of Islamic values such as sholat, learning to read Al-Quran, to memorize short verse and daily praying as well as hadits. It is special character of GIMS beside application of Montessori approach.

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Young EFL Learners' Attributions of Perceived Success and Failure in English Language Learning

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to investigate young Turkish EFL learners' attributions of success and failure in English language learning. The instrument used in this study was A.Taşkıran's (2010) questionnaire of attributions' adapted version by the researcher. Adapted version had two questions: first one asking the students whether they perceive themselves as successful in English language learning or not and the second one asking students to list five causes of their (perceived) success or failure. The study took place in a primary school. The questionnaire was given to 115 in total and they all were 4th graders. The causes of success and failure listed by the students were analyzed through content analysis. Frequencies and percentages were found and tabulated and important inferences were made from them. The results showed that there are more students who perceive themselves as successful than unsuccessful. Further findings were interpreted and valuable suggestions were made.

Keywords: Attribution, Young EFL learners, Success, Failure, English language learning

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Introduction

Today, English is a common language in many aspects of life, globally. However learning English is not an easy process for many students. Some students seem to achieve better than others while the other fail even though they are exposed to the exact same teaching.

"Understanding learners' beliefs, perceptions, and their learning experiences is a precondition for efficient learning" (Meskill & Rangelova, 2000). Particularly, attributions, which are defined as the interpretations of the causes of outcomes by individuals (Weiner, 1986), have been identified as the most significant factors influencing students‟ persistence, expectancy of future success, motivation, and in return, academic achievement (Brophy, 1998; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Weiner, 2000).

The more teachers know about how learners evaluate their learning process and what factors they attribute their successes and failures to, the better they can assist their learners through the feedback they give or the tasks they prepare. Therefore, attribution research is significant for language teachers to provide optimum conditions for higher motivation and achievement in language classrooms (Taşkıran, 2010)

The understanding, appreciation, encouragement and constructive feedback of teachers are vitally important factors. If the teacher gets to understand underlying perceptions behind his/her students' success and failure, a more appropriate approach can be taken. Furthermore, in the case of failure, when learners become unsuccessful at a certain task, the steps which lead to unsuccessful outcomes should be analyzed to come up with possible solutions to the problems.

It is hoped that the results of this study can provide instructors practical suggestions as well as increasing their awareness of their learners'.

Literature Review

What is Attribution?

In social environments, individuals have a need to understand how their own and others' behaviors may cause the outcomes they experience in that situation. There is a number of definitions for attributions, but a common way to define 'attribution' is "the process in which people attempt to explain the causes of their and others' behaviors" (Satıcılar, 2006, p. 44). Ellis (1985) explains attribution as "causal statements that answer 'why' something happened" (p. 32).

Weiner (1974) explains that attributions reflect students' explanations for their success or failure. Furthermore, Eggen & Kauchak (1994) define attributions as "… explanations for learners' success or failure" (p. 444). In line with Weiner (1974) and Eggen & Kauchak (1994), Fairbarin, Moore, & Chan (1994) define attributions as "what students perceive as the cause of their success and failure in school" (p. 51).

Weiner's conclusion that the most general and salient causes attributed by both teachers and students in identifying success and failure were ability, effort, task

difficulty, and luck has received broad support from a number of further researches (Elig & Frieze, 1979; Burger, 1980; Frieze & Snyder, 1980; Burger, Cooper, & Good, 1982; Anderson, 1983; Cooper & Wilson & Palmer, 1983; Bar-Tal, Goldberg, & Knaani, 1984). However, Bruning, Schraw, Norby, & Ronning (2004) demonstrated that individuals can make countless attributions that can vary considerably among learners. Then, Weiner himself acknowledged that the potential causes of an achievement-related outcome are infinite (Weiner, 1986).

Previous Studies

Satıcılar (2006) conducted a study where she analyzed the achievement attributions of English language learners at sixth and ninth grades in a Primary School and a High School in Turkey. The variables used to investigate the students' achievement attributions of English language were gender, grade, outside help they get while learning English and learners' studying habits learners. The results showed that the learners are prone to attribute their success and failure to internal factors in language learning. The most significant factor attributed for success and failure was found to be effort. Some gender differences were also found in terms of their attributions .

Another study has been conducted by Taşkıran (2010) to explore 158 EFL Anadolu University Preparatory School students' causal attributions of perceived success and failure in language learning. In order to examine students' perceived success and failure and their perceived causes of the outcomes, a questionnaire was conducted. It was revealed that there were more students who perceived themselves as unsuccessful compare to the number of the students who perceived themselves as successful. Compared to the causal attributions reported for success, these students made more causal attributions for failure. Importantly, the success oriented students made significantly more internal, controllable and relatively stable attributions than the the failure oriented students.

Gobel, Mori, Thang, Kan, & Lee (2011) examined the reasons behind why successful and unsuccessful students in FL and L2 classes make different attributions as well as how these attributions are related to cultural forms. What they did was they compared the attributions of Thai, Japanese and Malaysian learners' attributions for success and failure in learning English as a first or second language. The findings showed that all three groups appeared to have some salient similarities in the manner in which they ascribed reasons behind their successes and failures. All three groups attributed more causes to success compare to the ones they attributed for failure. Also, in case of success, they all seemed to focus more on external factors, especially teacher influence while in the event of failure, they all seemed to focus more on internal factors such as lack of ability, preparation and effort, and inappropriate use of strategy.

Genç (2016) conducted another study in which it was aimed to analyze Turkish tertiary level EFL learners attributions to success and failure and the effects of gender, age, and perceived success on their attributions. The participants were 291 students of preparatory classes studying English for one year in the School of Foreign Languages. The instrument used for this study was a questionnaire. The results revealed that EFL learners respectively attributed

interest, ability, task difficulty, effort, luck and the influence of teacher and sc hool as influential factors of their success whereas they respectively rated effort, interest, the effect of teacher and school, ability, task difficulty, and luck as influential factors of their failure. In addition, males and females had some differences in terms of their attribution dimensions such as external and internal. Lastly, age was not found to be an important factor in EFL learners attribution to success and failure.

Phothongsunan (2014) examined attributional causes of success in learning English reported by 329 Thai university students. The students also made an evaluation of themselves in respect of whether they think they were successful EFL learners. After the questionnaire and the follow-up interview, the results showed that teachers, effort, and class atmosphere influenced their learning success more than other factors. A significant difference was found between students who perceive themselves as 'successful' and those perceiving as 'unsuccessful' in terms of effort and strategy in learning English. As a result of the study, creating positive learning relationships between teachers and students, instilling in students the necessity of effort in learning English and and developing a safe class atmosphere were given as implications.

Although very significant findings are revealed in the above-mentioned studies, many more researches are needed in this area in order to achieve further details in the quickly and continuously changing EFL world. In addition, it is widely known that attributions vary across contexts, from culture to culture and from individual to individual. In other words, they cannot be generalized (Siegel & Shaughnessy, 1996).Taking all these as a starting point, this study aims to identify the young Turkish EFL learners' attributions to their perceived successes and failures in their English language learning process.

Research Questions:

1. What are the young Turkish EFL learners' perceptions about being success or failure oriented?
2. What are the attributions of perceived success and perceived failure oriented 4th grade Turkish EFL learners?

Methodology

Participants and Setting:

The questionnaire participants were 115 students who were 4th graders. Their average age was 10 and they all were native speakers of Turkish. The participants were chosen due to convenience. This study took place at Mustafa Kemal Primary & Middle School in Eskişehir, Turkey. This is a school located in the Anadolu University's campus. The majority of the students enrolled here are the children of university employees. Therefore, it can be claimed that socio-economical and educational level of the parents are mostly above the average.

Instruments:

Questionnaire

A.Taşkıran's questionnaire that she used in her thesis called ("Exploring EFL Learners' Causal Attributions Of Perceived Success And Failure In Language Learning Process", Anadolu University, 2010) was adapted by the researcher for this study (see Appendix A).

The questionnaire consisted of 2 questions. The first question asked if they perceive themselves as a success oriented or failure oriented t in English language learning. This was a yes/no type of questions. The second question asked the participants to list 5 causes of their perceived success or failure in their own words. It is important to mention here that the main focus was on "perceived" success and not outside sources such as marks, grades, and teachers' evaluations.

This shows parallelism with Attribution Theory, which also focuses on the notion of "perception" (Williams, Burden, Poulet, and Maun, 2004). The entire questionnaire was written in Turkish so that it is easier for the subjects to fill out.

Procedure:

The questionnaire was distributed during class hours. Before distributing the questionnaires, the students were informed that they would be participating in a study. All participants accepted to participate and filled out the questionnaires willingly. The last format of the questionnaire was given according to this expert comments.

Data analysis:

Qualitative research design was utilized for this study and this study can be claimed to have a descriptive nature. Data were analyzed through content analysis. As Patton (2002) defines it, "Content analysis is used to refer to any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings (p. 453)". The questionnaires were divided into two groups as "(perceived) success-oriented" and "(perceived) failure oriented". Those groups were formed according to the students' answers as 'yes' or 'no' to the first question asking whether they perceive themselves as a success-oriented or failure oriented in learning the English language.

The researcher gave a copy of each of these lists to a colleague. Each researcher analyzed the causes and assigned a meaningful label to each cause independently. Together with that colleague, the researchers compared the assigned labels to the similar responses. Meanwhile, the data were reanalyzed again and again in the light of emerging labels. The labels reported in this study are those that both readers agreed on via independent analyses. The frequencies of all labels that were listed for success and failure were calculated. The percentages of the causes were compared descriptively due to the reason that each group included different labels which could not be compared statistically. After all, everything was tabulated in order to have a clearer image of the results.

Results

Perceptions about Being Success or Failure Oriented

In reply to the first question on the questionnaire, out of 115 fourth-grader students 98 (85%) of them perceived themselves as success-oriented in English language learning while 17 (15%) of them perceived themselves as failure-oriented.

Table.1.1

Perceptions about Being Successful	**f**	**%**
Success Oriented	98	85
Failure Oriented	17	15
Total	115	100

Attributions of (Perceived) Success and Failure Oriented 4th Grade EFL Learners

The second question concerned the learners' attributions for their perceived success and failure in English language learning. Among 314 causes that were listed by the 4th graders, 273 (86,94 %) of them belonged to the (perceived) success-oriented students and 41 (13,05 %) of them belonged to the (perceived) failure oriented students.

In terms of the reliability of the data, a colleague who has the knowledge of the field was consulted and while discussing the labels given for the listed categories, between the two researchers labels given for 24 reasons out of 530 did not match. Since we used the formula of [agreement / (disagreement + agreement)*100], the inter-rater reliability was calculated as 95 %. The value passing over 80% was considered to prove the reliability of the study.

Table.1.2

	Causes - 4th Grade Students – Success Oriented		
	Categories	***f***	**%**
1	Effort	46	16,84
2	Interest	40	14,65
3	Paying Attention	31	11,35
4	Private Language Courses	30	10,98
5	Family Support	26	9,52
6	Teacher	18	6,59
7	Getting High Grades	17	6,22
8	Computer Games	15	5,49
9	Ability	14	5,12
10	Participating in Class	14	5,12
11	Other sources (song, video, book)	8	2,93
12	Practicing Speaking	7	2,56
13	Translation Exercises	3	1,09
14	Good Quality Material	2	0,73
15	Starting at an Early Age	2	0,73
	Total	273	100

As it is clearly seen from the Table.1.2, the most frequently stated cause of success was *Effort* 46 (16,84 %). The second most frequent cause was *Interest* 40 (14,65 %), third one was *Paying Attention in class* 31 (11,35 %), fourth one was *Private Language Courses* 30 (10,98 %) and the fifth was *Family Support* 26 (9,52 %). The following causes were the *Teacher* 18 (6,59 %), *Getting High Grades* 17 (6,22 %), *Computer Games* 15 (5,49 %), *Ability* 14 (5,12 %) and *Participating in class* (5,12 %). Other causes were *Out-of-School Sources (songs, videos, books, etc.)* 8 (2,93 %), *Practicing Speaking* 7 (2,56 %), *Translation Exercises* 3 (1,09 %), *Good Quality Material* 2 (0,73 %) and lastly *Starting at an Early Age* 2 (0,73 %).

Table.1.3

	Causes - 4th Grade Students – Failure Oriented		
	Categories	***f***	**%**
1	Getting Low Grades	8	19,51
2	Lack of Attention in Class	6	14,63
3	Lack of Ability	6	14,63
4	Lack of Effort	6	14,63
5	Lack of Interest	4	9,75
6	Can't Speak in English	3	7,31
7	Lack of Family Support	2	4,87
8	Lack of Vocabulary Knowledge	2	4,87
9	Task Difficulty	2	4,87
10	Teacher (school)	2	4,87
	Total	41	100

As one can see in Table.1.3, the most frequently stated cause of failure was *Getting Low Grades* (19,51 %). The second most frequent causes were *Lack of Paying Attention in Class* (14,63%), *Lack of Ability* (14,63%), *Lack of Effort* (14,63%), third one was *Lack of Interest* (9,75 %) and the fourth one was *Can't Speak in English* (7,31%). The following causes were *Lack of Family Support*, *Lack of Vocabulary Knowledge*, *Task Difficulty*, *Teacher* (at school) (4,87 %).

Discussion and Conclusion

According to the questionnaire results, it seen that there are more young Turkish EFL learners who perceive themselves as success-oriented rather than failure-oriented in terms of both 4th and the 8th graders. Most frequently stated cause of success by 4th grade students was found to be *Effort* (16,84 %) out of 15 causes and it is reported as the second most frequent cause (11,57 %) out of 17 causes of success for the 8th graders. Weiner (2010) states that if a learner explains his/her success as due to hard work and, s/he will have a sense of high-satisfaction. Effort is ascribed a central role in terms of the achievement outcomes by the attribution theorists.This result shows parallelism with the studies conducted in Asian context. When it comes to failure-oriented 4th graders, *Lack of Effort* was listed among the second (14,63%) most frequent causes of failure out of 10 causes. The second most frequent cause listed for success by the 4th graders was *Interest* (14,65 %).For failure, *Lack of Interest* was the third (9,75 %) most frequent factor It can be inferred from the results that the young Turkish EFL learners think that liking the lesson/ the language comes as one of the top three most important causes of success, and lack of it as a cause for failure. A common problem that many English language teachers face is sustaining a genuine interest in the students towards learning the English language. Deci and Ryan (1985) claim that when people, on their free will, are to make a choice of the activity that they will perform, they will choose the interesting ones that will give them chances of challenge.This statement carries quite significant clues about the teachers' role in awakening students' interest.

Paying Attention in class came in the third place (11,35 %) for success-oriented students. When it comes to the failure oriented students, they reported the lack of it in the second frequency (14,63 %). As Nair (2015) points out this issue in his article: "Our whole education system has been constructed on the simple premise that learning begins when a student pays attention to what a teacher is saying. All children, regardless of how sincerely they might wish to please the teacher, will be chastised at some point or the other during their life in school for not paying attention in class." This can be claimed to be the reason why most of the younger students in this context, have a strong belief in the importance of paying attention in class. He also underlines how this tendency is imposed to students by saying: "Many books and articles have been written about strategies to improve children's attention in the classroom. One Internet "how to" piece that talks about paying attention starts thus, "Do you want to pay attention in class and get good grades? If you don't get good grades, it is probably because you're not paying enough attention." Nair (2015)

Private Language Courses came as the fourth most frequently reported (10,98 %) cause of success by the 4th graders. This may have the meaning that the students do not really feel satisfied with what they learn at school and attending a private language course makes them feel as their learning is more complete. However, not attending a

private language course was not reported as a cause of failure by the students. These results show that students in this context do not see attending a private language course as a condition to be successful in English language. This can imply the positive situation that they believe in the fact that they can be successful on their own and only by attending their school, without necessarily going to a private course. It is worth mentioning that these results are not in agreement with many studies in the literature. To illustrate, Lamb (2011) stated: "several learners and teachers identify the private course as the primary site of learning English". Hamid and Baldauf's (2008) study in Bangladesh also found "private tutoring in English to be extremely popular with students and parents (mainly because of the perceived deficiencies of the state system) and they identified a direct positive effect on students' achievement."

Family Support was the fifth most frequently listed (9,52 %) cause of success by the 4th graders. Yet, *Lack of Family Support* was listed among the fifth but frequent causes of failure (4,87%).

Petchprasert (2014) states that the "parents who have high level of involvement in and positive attitude toward their children's English language programs caused their children's higher level of achievement in the language program." It may be beneficial to add, parents and other older relatives with English proficiency may themselves be a resource for learning, or know of other opportunities through their own social networks, while older siblings or their friends can serve as 'near peer role models' (Murphey and Arao 2001) as well as English conversation partners.

The *Teacher* factor was listed as the sixth frequent (6,59 %)cause of success by the 4th graders and among the fifth frequent causes of failure (4,87 %). Firstly, what grabs one's attention here is that the teacher factor in general was not very frequently cited by the students. These results are not alike the results of Taşkıran's (2010) study in which the teacher factor was the third most frequently reported cause in all groups and in both success and failure situations it was considered significant with the frequency of more than 10 %.

Getting High Grades is another interesting cause that was listed as the seventh frequent (6,22 %) cause of success and *Getting Low Grades* as the most frequent (19,51%) cause of failure by the 4th graders. It is strange to state this factor as a "cause" of success due to it is usually considered a "result" of success. Yet, it is seen here that primary school students tend to perceive themselves either successful or unsuccessful according to their grades. Especially the failure oriented students took their grades as a reference to their being unsuccessful. One can conclude that evaluating students by giving grades in primary school is a quite sensitive issue. "We live in a test-conscious, test-giving culture in which the lives of people are in part determined by their test performance." (Sarason et al.,1960). This quotation is extremely remarkable considering that it was written in 1960. It has been so many years since then, but our "test-conscious" culture has not changed and in fact it grew bigger.

What we see in many students now is that they judge themselves on the basis of their grades, "a good grade resulting in high esteem". Another important point made by Putwain (2008) is "To a greater or lesser extent there has been an internalization of

the message that esteem can be enhanced through educational achievement." Many researchers agree about the fact that grades are perceived by students as controlling rather than informative (Elawar & Corno, 1985; Stipek, 2002). As Roos and Hamilton (2005) noted, "feedback is too deeply encoded in a grade for it to lead to appropriate action." Hence, as Holmes suggested back in 1972, it can be suggested that in situations in which grades must be given to students, teachers need to consider accompanying it with meaningful praise.

4th graders listed *Computer Games* as the eight frequent cause (5,49 %) of success while it was not listed as a cause of failure at all.This finding is in line with other studies in the literature. "Computer games at school and in children's spare time is actually a good way of supplementing the conventional teaching." This became clear to Birgitte Holm Sørensen and her research colleagues when they recently interviewed a number of Danish schoolchildren, aged 12-14, some of the pupils said: 'If only our English teacher knew how much we speak English in our spare time'. These children played computer games every day, games which required English language skills because that's the language that was spoken in the games," says Sørensen, who is a professor at Aalborg University's Department of Education, Learning and Philosophy.

Ability was listed as the ninth (5,12 %) frequent cause of success stated by the 4th graders. *Lack of Ability* on the other hand, was reported in the third place by the 4th graders. This shows that both the students are prone to attribute their failure to lack to ability more than they attribute their success to it. "People undertake and perform confidently activities that they believe themselves capable of doing, however they avoid the tasks they believe exceed their ability." Bandura (1986)

The teachers need to be careful about this issue, because if the learners start to think that they do not have control over the outcome, they lack in motivation to behave. So, "it would be useless to put forward any effort to attain success (Keblawi, Faris - 2009)." This maladaptive behavior is called learned helplessness.

Practicing Speaking took place as eleventh (2,56 %) frequent cause of success only by the 4th graders. Yet, lack of it, *Can't Speak in English*, was cited both by the 4th grade (7,31 %) and also by the 8th grade (7,69 %) with students as a cause of failure. As everyone knows, "without speech, a language is reduced to a mere script." Together with these results, one can suggest that the English language teachers should give more importance to improving their students speaking skills.

To conclude, it can be claimed that the more teachers know about their learners' attributions, the better they can assist their learners through feedback or the tasks they prepare. Hence, attribution research has a significant place in learning and teaching. However, attributions are specific to their context. Therefore, instead of generalising these results completely to their teaching environment, instructors should go ahead and search for their own students' attributions. It is hoped that this study will shed light on the way to discovering many more students' attributions about their learning.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Although this study provided valuable insights about young EFL learners' attributions of success and failure, more in-depth studies are merited. One of the limitations to this study is that this study is only generalizable to its specific context. What is more, the participants were not chosen randomly. In further studies, a larger sample size would be helpful in terms of investigating the issue in more depth.

Moreover, data triangulation, could be enabled with an additional data collection methods. Lastly, even though the researcher is confident in the fact that the translated data captured the meanings as close as possible, there can always be certain meanings that will be lost in translation.

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Computerization and Standardization of Arabic Scientific Terminology

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Abstract
Translation of scientific term has gained nowadays a great importance in the age of scientific expansion and the rapid growth of inventions appearing every day. Scientific terminologies play an eminent role in the development and progress of modern technologies which appear every day and attention given to the terminological activities will lead to a high degree of precision while transferring knowledge and technologies between various cultures. The absence of the existence of any Arab grid institution for the standardization and computerization of Arabic terminology in the light of the new developments which goes along with the general theory of terminology, the multiplicity of institutions involve in coining terms has led to a serious communication problem at both the national and international levels, which led to the waste of time and efforts, throughout the Arab world. Arabic manuscripts are scattered all over the world and there should be a real computerized effort to gather this significant heritage to form a database and thesaurus to the Arabic etymological lexicon. The contribution of modern terminology theory appeared recently in this regard will be great value to facilitate the work of researchers in this field. The future to our nation is promising to harvest the fruits of hi- tech and I- tech to restore the national identity and the renaissance of the golden age during the era of Bait Al Hikmah that gave hand to industrial revolution in Europe. The researcher concludes that an Arab Term Net should be established to gather the efforts of terminologists, subject field specialists and translators. In addition to the creation of etymological dictionary including all Arab scientific terminologies, defining them to facilitate spreading them throughout the Arab world.

Keywords: Standardization, Scientific Translation, Terminology.

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Introduction

With the foundations of a general theory of terminology (G.T.T) and in the light of new technological devices which have appeared recently in the field, the structure of contemporary scientific terminology in Arabic should be reviewed and revised to establish an "Arab School" for terminology base on standardization and computerization at both the national and international levels.

Terminology is a trans-disciplinary subject which concerns all subject fields and activities of human life in which communication through language for special purposes plays an important role. During recent decades, terminology science, terminology work, and terminology documentation have made greater progress. They are at present in rapid development. A growing number of institution, universities and other units of higher education are showing interest in the subject matter of terminology at both national and international levels.

I have chosen to make it my commitments and responsibilities to help in disseminating information about terminology and thus to encourage researchers to enhance the terminological work responding to the studies in the field, recognizing the growing importance of terminology for the development of science, technology, and humanities not to forget also its particular importance for translation, information, and documentation activities bearing in mind our urgent need to standardize our terminology. Consequently, this will encourage me to devote my time and energy to write this research paper and to go ahead in my mission in order to establish a new look and pilot project to facilitate our urgent need to transfer knowledge from other languages and cultures.

Statement of the problem

This research paper concentrates on the translation contemporary scientific terminology in Arabic as it represents the essence for any terminological project or any future plans for the development of Arabic and language planning.

The fact that we do not have any policy for language planning or any strategy for the standardization of our terminologies has led to many serious communication problems.

The absence of Arabic methodological school for terminology based on standardization and computerization has widened the gap between various Arab countries. Arab translators often complain of inconsistency in their translations due the lack of unification and the multiplicity of institutions which assign terms.

The fact that we do not have any rigid authority for the unification, creation and standardization of terms recognized by all Arab partners has complicated the issue of regulation and coordination to achieve optimal results in the course of preparation, documentation and dissemination.

Increased scientific activity, especially in the natural sciences and in the technology, has made more precise technical communication necessary unless language is perfected, there can be no scientific or technological progress (Felber 1986). Ambiguous technical expressions in Arabic create misunderstanding of scientific knowledge. Polysemy, synonymy and multi-word lexical expressions have burdened the language as scientific terms require a high degree of precision and accuracy. Terminological precision is based on the concept, not on the lexical symbol; and that is why accuracy and precision are prerequisites for term formation.

Precise communication in one's native tongue and in a foreign language depends not on the precision of the language but on the precision of conceptual content of the subject treated. (Marcus, 1980, p.3).

Advancement and progress in science and technology increased rapidly towards the end of the 19th century creating many thousands of technical concepts and terms and thus the need was felt to regulate principles for the unification of terms. In 1980, for example, when the International Electro Technical Commission (IEC) began work, there were 15 different units for "electrical resistance" and eight for "electromotive force" in use in various countries (Felber 1986, p.3). It was not until the Second World War, when associations for standardization emerged playing an eminent role in regulating technical language.

Significance of the study

The significance of this study is due to the following factors:

1. The lack of any policy or strategy that governs the Arabic efforts and directs them towards unification which has led to the waste of time, efforts and money.
2. The absence of an institution recognized by various Arab countries for the standardization of Arabic terms based on consensus of all partners had led to the confusion of the Arabic terms and widened the gap of clear communication especially when scientific and technical terms are in question.
3. The adoption of various methodologies in the application of terminological principles neglecting the fact that these methodologies must updated.
4. The imbalance ion the attention given to certain subject field at the expense of others, noticeably that the number of lexicons in medicine, for example, is enormous whereas the number of lexicons in linguistics or mathematics is relatively low since the decision is based on personal initiatives and commercial benefits in general.
5. The literature about the subject is scattered all over the Arab world and there is not any specialized library that take care of gathering the material to facilitate the work of researchers to provide easy access to any literature.
6. The rapid of terms added to the list to the international lexicon every day.
7. Specialists very often are complaining of communication problems since the circulation of standard terms is still limited. The standard which must be based on consensus or an authority to disseminate, prefer or discard any term to achieve

optimal results.

8. The avoidance of ambiguity, synonymy and polysemy is a prerequisite for new technological terms; however, this has not been the case in Arabic. Efforts in this field should guarantee the communication between specialists and the transfer of knowledge for education.
9. Communication is only possible if a permanent term is assigned to a concept or vice versa in an unambiguous way. Technical communication is a matter of clarity rather than a variety. Uncontrolled development of terminology science leads to inconsistency and contradiction and thus regulatory measures in terminology have become have become necessary. It has become evident that to increase the efficiency of the translation process requires the assistance of computers and new technological devices which help in recording, disseminating, as well as continual updating of information by national and international organizations.

Methodology of Study

This study will explore and analyze a randomly sample of scientific terms and their equivalences in Arabic, throughout a critical and analytical study. The various strategies and characteristics of Arabic terminology will be discussed to find out their main intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics. The following gives a clue of such strategies.

Arabic Equivalences	English Term
حساب ,حاسب ,رتاب ,نظام ,فاكور ,حاسب الكترونى ,دماغ الكرونى ,عقل الكترونى ,حاسب آلى	Computer
علم الالسن ,الالسنة ,اللسانيات ,اللغويات ,علم اللسنة.	Linguistics
مقياس حرارة ,ميزان حرارة ,محرارز	Thermometer
تحليل الخطاب ,تحليل النص ,تحليل الكلام	Discourse Analytics
طائرة عمودية ,طائرة سمتية ,طوافة حوامة.	Helicopter

Terminology is the tool of research; it is the means of communication between scientists. No scientific progress can be imagined without lexical patterns, that explains it and its content, as sciences in continuous progress so there should be a linguistic parallel progress to this scientific progress to go along with.

Standardization is the application of theoretical rules and principles scientifically proved, agreed upon by specialists in the field, carefully elected to apply its principles, as terminology of certain rules, in order to be applicable to end up with term to meet one concept which represents the ideal method.

Standardization of Arabic terminology could be between the lexical items in the same language and the lexical items of other languages; here we talk about standardization at both the national or international levels.

Arabs and Islamic world were pioneers in establishing the fundamental bases for standardization of Arabic terminology which has led to the creation of first dictionaries

ever known in the history of mankind. These dictionaries are still evident and valid even to modern times.

Ideal terminology should acquire certain qualities such as; precision, clarity, easy spelling derivation, dissemination, linguistic knowledge, language and the history of the language and its heritage in addition to some other qualities. These qualities can benefit from linguistic heritage, thesaurus; however, standardization and computerization of Arabic terminology represents urgent need for contemporary development and progress of scientific research as it is the tool for scientific communication.

Standardization terminology should be approved from an authorized committee; it should be carefully identified with the best possible definition from a terminology committee, taking into consideration the users view and their suggestions throughout the committee. This terminology should take place through regular intervals to cope up with the recent developments and any scientific progress such as computer advancement, documentation, terminography, recordings and microfiche.

The Arab tern net is an urgent need for the Arab world to facilitate easy communication within the Arab world, and the rest of the world by having a wireless Internet communication that makes the work of no cost and of higher speed.

Standardization of terminology to have one term for each concept is an important matter in the absences of an authorized committee in the Arab world. Scholars are waiting for solutions to their terminological problems while writing their research papers.

The problem of standardization is not local for Jordanians or the Arab world; it exceeds the national level to the international one. It represents a national problem in the Arab world, especially when dealing with other foreign culture. Solutions should take place as soon as possible without adopting any sentiments instead of scientific logic.

Scientific terminology has its political, economic, cultural connotations inside the Arab world, in addition to the social one which may lead to the language split between various communities inside the Arab world.

Standardization of terminology in the Arab world has its special importance, it is an attempt to restore the national identity which imperialism attempts to steal from the Arab world which means the avoidance of basic awareness to the process of standardization and computerization to enhance the unification of Arabic terminology and to get rid of the role drown to Arabs to act as consumers rather the producer.

Strategies of Term Creation in Arabic:

Arabic Terminology in History

Arabs were active contributors to human civilization, there finger-print can be traced in all branches of human knowledge. During the first Arab renaissance, they successfully translated huge number of books from the previous leading powers of the time i.e., the Greeks and the Persians. They can comprehend these sciences, refine them and gave them as present to the world. The cultural heritage can be an everlasting source of inspiration to every Arab nowadays to continue the journey of his ancestors and to face the challenges of modern world civilization.

This study is intended to shed some light on the historical background of modern Arabic terminology to investigate the efficiency of these scientific terms in meeting the Arab needs by improving their scientific and terminological approach. This results in establishing a better understanding of the general theory of terminology attempt to encourage its application to Arabic.

Arabic never had in its history any school of terminology in the modern sense of this term despite the fact that the basic elements of terminology are deeply rooted in the history of Arabic, and can be traced back to the pre-Islamic era.

Many lexical items of foreign origins found their way to Arabic as a result of the of the interaction between various attributes and the existing powers of the time such as the Byzantines, Latins, Greeks, Aramaic's…..etc.
The following examples illustrate this point of view (ehdi Ali, 1987; Fahmi, 1961):

The Foreign World	**The Arabic form**
From Latin: nauge	an-nawa:jid
Greek: phylosophus	falsafah
Persian: dostur	dust:r
Hebrew: guhinnam	jahannam
Syriac: gabarota	jabarut

Prior to the advent of Islam, as well as after it, have been various types of contact between Arabs and nations. History tells us that the people of Arabia, especially the western religion of it, known by the name of al- Hijaz, were active traders, who, as a natural result of frequent journeys outside their homeland, developed commercial, economic, and cultural, as well as family, ties with the people with whom they came into contact. Present day Arabic is generally said to trace its origin mainly to the language spoken in this area (Mehdi Ali 1987, p.89).

Instances of foreign vocabularies introduced to Arabic can be recorded in the poems written by pre-Islamic such as Tarafah Ibn al Abd, Imru? Al Qays and Adiyy bin Zayd. The fact that the holy Qura?a:n contains a number of lexical items caused a heated controversy among Muslims who were mainly divided into two groups:

1-Those who accepted the existence of foreign vocabularies in the Holy Qur?a:n – Sa'id Ibn Jubayr was one of the supporters of this view.

2-Those who denied the existence of foreign vocabularies in the Holy Qur?a:n depending on the Qur?a:nic verse: ?inna: anzalna:hu qur?a:nan 'arabiyayyan (su:rat Yusuf verse 2) emphasizing that all that is written in the Holy Book is purely Arabic.

As the Islamic state has expanded its sphere of influence to include a very wide geographical area, the need was left for term creation. Arabic thus escorted at this stage to various methods of lexical expansion such as derivations, metaphors, compounds, blends and Arabicization.

Arabic Word Structure

One of the most important convictions of the modern linguist is that every human language is a system, which involves a great degree of complexity, far greater than we normally realize. It has also been established that what applies in the case of one language may not necessarily apply in another. In view of these facts and due to the nature of our study), (in which various aspects of linguistically structure characteristic of more than one language are frequently discussed and compared) we have found it necessary to supply the reader with a clear ides of the fundamental principles of Arabic word structure. Another important purpose to be served by the present discussion consists of clearly defined concepts in accordance with which facts and claims can safely and confidently be stated.

However, we do not propose to discuss here all the possible issues that may be included under the heading Arabic Word Structure. In the present chapter priority has been given to those fact and pieces of information which are necessary for paving the way towards clearer understanding of the problems discussed, as well as a precise and consistent account of their analysis.

Growth of Arabic Vocabulary: **Historical Background**

When one studies the history of the development of Arabic and considers the rapidity of its expansion, its responsibility to change (i.e. such change as has, for instance been undergone by English over its history), and yet at the same time its qualitative capacity to adapt, and particularly its evolution from a language mainly of poetry (prior to the advent of Islam) into a successful medium of scientific expression (in pose-Islamic society), one is bound to state Arabic in this respect may well represent a unique case among the languages of the world. The state of affairs has been such that one writer (Chejne, 1969) described this rise of Arabic as one of the miracles of history. Another has referred to it as "the true wonder of Arab expansion" (Inizan, 1999). However, what interest us at this stage is to point out the fact that the changes in the religious, social and cultural life of the hitherto mainly nomadic society constituted a crucial test of the powers and potential of the language, a test which Arabic clearly proved to be highly qualified to stand.

Thus, with the advent of Islam, the language which has been primarily poetic and whose-vocabulary had more or less than confined to the relatively narrow world of the nomadic society, (26) was now confronted with the huge task of accommodating itself and adapting its vocabulary to an increasing large number of new concepts and ideas pertaining to a wide variety of social and intellectual discipline. That Arabic was quite prepared to achieve that task is a merit with which it has already been credited by many scholars of our age. Hassnawi, 2003 for instance, remarks: "all Arabs were an acute and observant people, and for all natural objects which fell under their notice they had appropriate and finally differentiated words ".

It goes without saying that the Qur?an, with the new concepts it gave birth to, the new expressions it introduced, the new values it established, was the most important factor behind the development of Arabic as well as the newly born society that was speaking it. As far as the language is concerned, we thus find that many already existing words (or at least roots) were now assigned new technical senses.

Well before the end of the first Islamic century, the Arab armies had already expanded the area of their empire to include the major centers of civilization and become the greatest of the time, under the second Caliph, Umar (634-644). This of course meant new challenges of Arabic, the language of the conquerors, as it had to compete with the languages of the conquered lands which were well established and backed by cultural heritage, such as Greek in Egypt and Syria and Persian in western provinces. New expressions and technical terms were given rise by the new circumstances facing the language in the fields of administration, legislation, politics etc. in the process of creating such terms the general tendency during this stage seems to have been to resort as far as possible to native-based methods, especially derivation, semantic extension of existing words and reviving pre-Islamic vocabulary though instances of foreign borrowings are not difficult to find.

In addition to these developments, it is also possible to distinguish many other significant factors involved in the growth of Arabic vocabulary. These include:

- The Arabs' love for their language and their enthusiasm to excel in the studies related to it continued unabated despite the radical changes that had taken place in their life and development.
- The Abbasid period can be said to have witnessed the most favorable circumstances for the growth of scientific and technical terminology in Arabic in its early history.
- Far beyond the borders of its land, Arabic was also enjoying a very prosperous period. In Spain, for instance, no sooner had the Arab conquerors settled than they established their mother tongue as the official language, which documents, sermons, coins, etc. were issued.

The reader will now have realizes that the process of growth and expansion experienced by Arabic in its history in its early stages was enhanced, besides its internal qualitative capacities, by what may be described as favorable external factors and circumstances such as its being the language of the Holy Qur?an and the widely spreading religion, the

extensive social, cultural and particularly scientific contact between the Arabs and other nations, the great interest taken by early scholars in studies involving its various aspects, etc.

Lexical adaptation in the first renaissance

It has been suggested above that Arabic has the capacity to adapt itself to the needs and circumstances facing it. The present investigation seeks to illustrate the preceding statement with examples of scientific and technical words used in the period following the advent of Islam until the thirteen century.

As far as the process of creating new vocabulary is concerned, the distinction between native and non-native sciences may be said to derive some significance from the fact that, generally speaking, in the case of native sciences the process in question has not constituted a real challenge to Arabic. In the case of foreign sciences, on the other hand, the situation cannot be said to have been the same.

The Arabic came into contact with these sciences mainly through translation is indicative of the fact that it was somehow subjected to the influence of a foreign language or languages, at least as far as the lexicon is concerned. And despite the hard efforts to keep Arabic pure, traces of this influence are still alive; suffice it to say that the names Arabic uses for some of these sciences are themselves non-native, e.g. falsafah, handasah, musi:,qa, etc.

Characteristics of Contemporary Scientific

Arabic represents one of the five predominant significant carriers of civilization to mankind. The four others being classical Chinese, Sanskrit, Greek and Latin (Mehdi Ali 1987, p.26). Since languages are God's gift to human beings, so is to Arabic to Arabs in particular, and to Muslims in general; in addition, a great number of languages have copied so many words and structures out of it, e.g. in English we see Arabic vocabularies such as:

alkuhu:l "alcohol"
ambar "amber"

After all, Arabic is one of the six official languages adopted by the United Nations (the other five languages are: English, Chinese, French, Spanish and Russian).

The flexibility of Arabic structures enables Arabs to meet their scientific and technical needs. When they feel the need for term creation, they will find that their language is reliable through various methods of term creation such as derivation, metaphor, compound, borrowing and Arabicisation.

The structure of contemporary scientific terminology in Arabic faces many challenges nowadays due to the rapid growth of created terms as well as the advancement of science

technology. The danger of this challenge is present in the increasing number of individuals who believe that their language is no longer able to cope with foreign lexical terms added to the international lexicon almost every day. Despite the continuous efforts and attempts made by the four Arab academies of Arabic in addition to the greater number of institutions, universities and individual attempts of linguists and translators involved in various terminological activities, it is evident that all these efforts and attempts lack unification, organization and coordination.

Arab translators now are under continuous pressure to find equivalents for new terms. Thus, they face a dilemma of how to structure our new scientific terms even in the very cases when they are lucky to find a term appeals to their personal taste.

A question arises 'Are they allowed or authorized to legislate for the language?' The fear of adding any (poison) to the (honey) of our language is always present. Some translators dare to do so whereas the Arabicized form (the adoption of the foreign phonological pattern). Many attempts were made to remedy this dilemma through the contributions of the academies, individuals interested in the field and other institutions interested in translation. However, none of these are capable of solving the problem by itself.

The Main Characteristics of Contemporary Scientific Terminology in Arabic

What are these characteristics? How do we structure our terminologies?
This study attempts to investigate the main characteristics of contemporary scientific terminology in Arabic. Throughout a critical analysis of terms as they appear in modern technical dictionaries and various publications by various Arab Academies, opponents of Arabicisation often claim that the womb of Arabic cannot hold the rapid growth of newly born scientific terms and thus Arabic is not capable of giving birth to newly generated terms.

Term formation

The following principles should be observed when forming terms:

1. Any ambiguity of terms should be avoided.
2. Any synonymy of terms should be excluded.
3. Established usage should not be changed without logical reasons.
4. The constituents terms should represent the most important characteristics of the concept.
5. Terms should permit outer forms that make it possible to form derivations. (Felber, 1984)

Progress in science and technology is due the development of concepts and their linguistic representations, which play an eminent role a vehicle for transferring knowledge among various cultures. In spite of the aesthetic values our scientific terms used to enjoy at earlier stages, a long list of negative characteristics began to emerge in modern times. These characteristics can be divided into two main categories:

General Extrinsic

Characteristics which concern external factors that affect term creation. That include:

1. Multiplicity of institutions that assign terms
2. Imbalance in quantity
3. Methodological variations
4. Lack of coordination
5. Technological and chronological shortcomings
6. Regionalism
7. Confusion

Specific characteristics (extrinsic) which include:

1. Simplicity
2. Accuracy
3. Precision
4. Orthography
5. Capacity for derivation
6. Frequency of occurrence
7. Ambiguity
8. Polysemy
9. Synonymy

Critical Analysis

The intrusion of foreign lexical items into Arabic has become a widely spread phenomenon in the structure of our contemporary terms which has led to serious communication problems between authors and their readers. Some of them have the tendency to insert the Latin suffixes to the Arab word, which distorts the shape of and the beautiful of native vocabularies. Thus, we have seen term like: sawti:m, fikrolo:gia, kahrabu:n, as equivalences to phoneme, ideology and electron. Here foreign terms are preferable to be used rather than to adopt terms half of which is foreign.

Men of letters often complain that scientific terms are "dry" and do not appeal to literary taste. Scientists do not deny this fact; however, they do not reject their words on this basis, as they are not concerned so much with the shape of beauty or beauty of the word rather than its efficiency in conveying the message. Arab native scientific vocabularies are usually characterized by shortness, pleasantness and other aesthetic values. Unlike ordinary words, scientific terms do not normally change their meaning or acquire new associations in the course of time, for once they do so, and they lose their distinction as precise and unambiguous labels.

The Standardization of Terminology at both National and International Levels

The fact that we do not have any policy for language planning or any strategy for the standardization of our terminologies has led to many serious communication problems.
The absence of an Arabic methodological school for terminology based on standardization and computerization has widened the gap between various Arab countries. Arab translators often complain of the inconsistency in their translations due to the lack of unification and the multiplicity of institutions, which assign terms.

The fact that we do not have any rigid authority for the unification, creation and standardization of terms- recognized by all Arab partners- has complicated the issue of regulation and coordination to achieve optimal results during preparation, documentation and dissemination.

"Increased scientific activity, especially in the natural sciences and in the technology, has made more precise technical communication necessary unless language is perfected, there can be no scientific or technological progress" (Felber 1986, p.1). Ambiguous technical expressions in Arabic create misunderstanding of scientific knowledge. Polysemy, synonymy and multi-word lexical expressions have burdened the language as scientific terms require a high degree of precision and accuracy. Terminological precision is based on the concept, not on the lexical symbol; and that is why accuracy and precision are prerequisites for term formation.

"Precise communication in one's native tongue and in a foreign language depends not on the precision of the language but on the precision of conceptual content of the subject treated. (MacLeod, et al., 2016).

Definition of Standardization

Helmut Felber defines standardization as the "activity of establishing, for repetitive application, solutions to actual or potential problems, aimed at the achievement of the optimum degree of order in a given context" (Felber 1985, p.5). it facilitates technological cooperation and prevents any barriers to transfer of knowledge among languages.

Techniques of Standardization

Standardization of terminology can be done by:

- Delineating neighboring concepts in a system of concepts, i.e. by precisely defining these concepts
- Establishing a system of concepts
- Evaluating and selecting terms which are then assigned to the concepts
- Evaluating and selecting term elements (morphemes) to be used in the creation of new terms.

Methods of Standardizing Terminologies

In order to standardize terminology in a particular field, an inventory of terms available in the field must first be made, that is, the terms of the field in question have to be collected and recorded. At the same time, terms assigned to general concepts of science and technology that might be useful should be included. Afterwards the collection terms are examined with respect to their compliance with terminology principles. It is useful to look for existing classifications that could be used, at least in adopted form, for the classification of concepts.

Standardization of Arabic Terminology at the National Level National Level

The rapid growth of newly born terms added to the international lexicon everyday has made the task of assigning Arabic equivalences a difficult one. It is true that we have ten institutions in the interest of Arabicization scattered all over the Arab world. Among these there are four Arab academies in Cairo, Amman, Damascus and Baghdad in addition to the P.B.A (Permanent Bureau of Coordination of Arabicization). However, the lack of coordination among institutions has widened the gap between various Arab partners all over the world. Consequently, there is serious deterioration of language, economy and the language is burdened with a long list of polysymous terms, despite the fact that these institutions were supposed to serve the single purpose, which is the Arabic language. Thus, we have seen 23 different terms for linguistics and 12 terms for computer, due to the fact that Arabs are not consistent in translating these terms. Translators who translate from French in the western part of the Arab world end up with terms like rata:b, naddaa:m, fa:ku:ra for the computer and translator who translate from English in the eastern part of the Arab world end up with terms like hasib and hasub, not to mention here the influence of other languages such as German, Italian…..etc.

The unwise importing of terms corrupts the language and distorts it. It is difficult to overcome these problems and a solution is not easy to find. However, through real intensification of efforts supported by good management, division of labor and computerization, valid results can be achieved.

Standardizing of Terms of at International Level

The choice of standard terms should be as accurate and precise as possible. Otherwise, it may lead to a language split. An Arab Tern Net, in addition to real intensive efforts for unification, is a possible means for solving the problem of 18 thousand new terms added to the list every year in addition to 250 thousand terms considered to be the Arabic back log from earlier stages.

Problems and Solutions

The structure of contemporary terms of Arabic faces various types of problems. Scientific backwardness, serious communication problems and inconsistency in the methodologies used for the term creation are presented. Due to the lack of any applicable police or

strategy, in this regard, these problems cannot be solved through individuals unless they are organized in an institution that controls, divides labor and passes decisions.

We will try to underline these problems in search for possible solutions. We do not want to commit the same mistake or to legislate for the language, as we are not authorized to do so. This will require teamwork inside "linguistic parliament" where different representatives, such as terminologists, subject field specialists and researchers, work together to achieve the aims of this parliament.

Multiplicity of Institution Involved in Term Creation

It is evident that having a great number of institutions such as the four Arab academies in addition to universities, translation departments and individual lexicographers involved in the process of term creation, leads to confusion, inconsistency and polysemy terms, which may result in language split.

The rapid growth of scientific terms added to the list of international lexicon everyday makes the task of these institutions can solve the problem separately. It is worth mentioning that the period of scientific stagnation that lasted for four centuries during the "Ottoman Empire" complicated this issue and prevented Arabs from grasping new developments in science and technology.

The Linguistic Problem

Arabic is a language deeply rooted in history. Its linguistic heritage is enormous and the number of its vocabulary exceeds the number of any other languages. Polysemy and synonymy are predominant features in Arabic, which represent inappreciable merit to literary writers. However, this is not the case when science and technology accurate and should avoid polysemy. Other problems can be traced to the source language. An Arab translator of an American book translates "electronic tube" into ?unbu:bahkahruba:?iyyah whereas the equivalent English term "electronic valve" is translated sammam ?aliktroni. Actually the two terms are identical.

Imbalance in Quantity

Certain fields attract the attention of lexicographers more than others. The decision here is based usually on personal initiatives rather than to meet the scientific needs, in addition to the commercial purposes, which may direct these efforts far away from the scientific approach. Such a problem could not be solved unless a committee is organized to evaluate such works and to approve distinguished works to be selected for publication.

Incoordination

Arabs efforts in terminology are scattered all over Arab world without any kind of coordination. Nobody seems to benefit from or continue others' efforts. No university seems to know what is going on in other universities. Efforts in this regards are isolated

and can hardly be contained in any library specialized in collecting data for terminological work.

There is no other solution but to gather all these efforts in one authorized institution supported by high chronological devices to facilitate instance communication among various partners in the Arab world. Such a situation should be capable of the storage and retrieval of scientific terms and other relevant data.

The Use of Ancient Arabic Lexicon

The Arabic ancient lexicon includes a huge number of scientific and literary terms. There is lack of access in handling such terms as they are scattered in manuscripts all over the worlds. In addition, there is a tendency among scholars to investigate and research modern writings rather than being bothered in dealing with "obsolete" terms, thus original terms have become obsolete. The examples are many here new Arabicized forms have these "equivalents" in Arabic heritage. For example, the term "pyjamas" has a much better Arabic term, which is mana:ma, and the term "helicopter" has the term samtiyyahor ta:?irah'amu:diyyah. To the Arab native speaker, such terms are acceptable to convey the message, "the conceptual content".

Suggestions and Recommendations

The structure of contemporary scientific terminology in Arabic faces many challenges and crises created by the fact that terminological work suffers from confusion, multiplicity of institutions that assigns terms, in addition to incoordination which scatters the Arab efforts and leads to the waste of time, efforts and money.

Thus, our scientific terms do not meet the urgent needs of our researchers and students of science and technology. There is an absence of any policy or strategy widely accepted by different Arab partners for standardization, adoption of methodologies and unification of scientific terms. Consequently, Arab translation efforts are few and textbooks at higher education are not available. Foreign languages are still used in various Arab universities.

Many attempts were made for the formation of principles of term creation; however, these efforts are defendant on personal initiatives forgetting the fact that such great work should be conducted through a unique institution supported by a number of such institutions to cover all sectors of Arab work. Such an institution might be called "The linguistic Parliament" where representatives from various fields are present. Linguists, subject field specialists, terminologists, documentarists, computer specialists in addition to term users should be consulted in the course of assigning new terms. The dissemination of agreed-upon terms, through an effective means of communication, should guarantee instant and easy access to the terms assigned.

To achieve optimal results, the following suggestion and recommendations could be of great value:

Arab Term Net - the establishment of an "Arab Term Net" is strongly recommended. It should be based on standardization and computerization. Following the example of the European Economic Community (EEC), which a computerized system that enables instant and easy access among various partners to terminological, bibliographical or factographical data. Any interested institution or individual can be a subscriber to this system through terminals. This in turn, enables the retrieval or storage of data to facilitate the work of scholars, researchers or translators interested in the field.
Multi-functional knowledge data banks are more economical; however, to take any decision, a feasibility study should be conducted to decide which proper system is preferable. The experience of INFOTERM in this regard, could be of great help.

A National plan project should be adopted in order to establish a clear well-defined policy to modernize the structure of our contemporary scientific terminologies. Language planning methodologies, within an Arab framework, should be unified through the participation of all institutions, academies and experts in terminology. This ends up with one authoritative institution that is qualified to create new scientific widely agreed-upon terms.

Terminological work can be developed through the following measures:

A. Teaching and developing the science of terminology to create experienced terminologists to support the research into this field.
B. Giving more attention to the institutions of translation and language academies to enhance knowledge about the science of translation.
C. Organizing training courses in terminology for individuals interested in this field.
D. Enriching the Arabic library with technical dictionaries and publications specialized in terminology.
E. Disseminating the terminological data through journalism, mass communication and audio-visual means.

Arabicization of science and technology at higher education should be given priority to enhance and activate Arabic terminology. As a result, new terms will be created in the process of translating scientific books from other languages. It is suggested here to add a list of terms used at end of these books.

Investigating the international schools of technology in an attempt to receive benefit of their efforts in assigning, documenting and disseminating newly created scientific terms.

Taking advantage of the highest possible terminologies, such as modern computer systems, and not to rely on the traditional methods of documentation but rather to benefit from microfiche, microfilms, photo-type settings and diskettes for facilitating the storage and retrieval of information.

The establishment of a central association for translation and publication to organize gives advice and directs the Arab efforts towards translating valuable foreign books. A list of preferable books should be available to help translators determining which of these

books can be given priority.

To support various Arab academies, institutions, universities and individuals financially and morally to motivate them to enhance the quality and quantity of translated books. A symbolic reward can be of great help to evaluate and motivate distinguished works in this field.

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A Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Project: Opportunities and Challenges in the Context of Heritage Language Education

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Abstract
Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is gaining momentum in the European field of language education. However, to date, research seems to be dominated by studies into English. Further, in the UK, CLIL initiatives in general have been limited, and this is particularly so in respect to community or heritage languages. This paper reports on a CLIL project on environmental pollution and the science of climate change with a community/heritage language, namely Greek, as the vehicular language. The project was implemented in the Greek supplementary school of Leicester, UK, and aimed at teaching students aged 11 to 17 scientific concepts (including those relating to the greenhouse effect, carbon cycle, climate change) while at the same time advancing language acquisition. It included various in-class activities and a visit to the Science Museum in London. Data collection included questionnaires, interviews, materials used in the activities and field notes to investigate the perceived impact of the project on heritage language learners. The ultimate aim of the research was to examine whether CLIL had a role to play in heritage language education, a field with distinct challenges. Gains were reported across language and content learning, cognition and attitudes. Perhaps the most significant finding was that the approach facilitated the building of linguistic and cognitive bridges between the students' linguistic heritage and their mainstream education. The article links classroom practice to research and argues for the inclusion of CLIL in supplementary schools, as an effective pedagogy for the teaching and learning of heritage languages.

Keywords: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), heritage language learning, community/heritage languages, heritage language learners, interdisciplinary, supplementary education, supplementary schools

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1. Introduction

The Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach is gaining momentum in the European field of language education. However, although any language other than the students' first one can be used as the medium of instruction, research seems to be dominated by studies into English language learning (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). In the UK context, while bilingual education programmes in Wales, Scotland and Ireland have attracted growing interest, there has been little work undertaken involving other languages, especially as far as community/heritage languages are concerned.

Teaching community/heritage languages has been one of the primary roles of supplementary schools (Maylor et al., 2010). These schools are set up in response to concerns from newly arrived immigrants that their children are losing the active use of the home language as they begin schooling, creating worries about a weakening of cultural identity. The National Resource Centre for Supplementary Education (2017) estimates that currently there are 3,000 – 5,000 such schools in England, run by communities of different ethnic backgrounds. The terms *complementary schools*, *heritage language schools*, *community language* or *ethnic schools* can also be found in the international literature (Creese, 2009).

This paper reports on a project carried out in the Greek supplementary school of Leicester, UK, in which a heritage language, namely Greek, was employed within a CLIL science project. The study provides insight into the learners' experience, and draws conclusions as to whether CLIL has a role to play in heritage language teaching and learning. Apart from contributing to the broader body of UK research on CLIL, which is currently limited (Pérez-Cañado, 2012), it places the approach in a largely unexplored context (Strand, 2007), that is heritage language learning in supplementary schools.

2. Heritage Language Learning in Supplementary Schools

According to Minty et al. (2008), the first Greek Cypriot supplementary school was opened in London in the 1950s by the Greek Orthodox Church and the Greek Embassy. The Leicester Greek School is now one of the 74 supplementary schools in Great Britain that provide Greek language classes. It is managed by the local Greek community. The school is housed in the community centre (a converted house that shares a yard with a church) and offers classes to students aged 4 to 17 years old as well as separate classes for adults. The students are grouped broadly based on language skills and age. Students attend the school approximately 4 hours per week.

The Greek language taught in the school is defined as a heritage language (HL) and the students attending the school are viewed as heritage language learners (HLLs). It has been shown that HLLs compose a truly diverse range of learners (e.g. Anderson, 2008; Lee, 2005; Valdés, 2005). Carreira (2004) discussed three criteria with which HLLs have been identified and concluded that HLLs are not "a homogeneous cluster of learners, but a collection of different types of learners who share the characteristic of having identity and linguistic needs that relate to their family background. These needs arise from having had insufficient exposure to their heritage language and heritage culture during their formative years. Satisfying these needs provides a

primary impetus for pursuing language learning" (p. 21). The participants of our study fitted this description.

There is consensus among scholars in the field on the need to find appropriate pedagogical methods to teach HLLs (e.g. Anderson, 2011, 2008; Polinsky and Kagan, 2007; Lynch, 2003), an endeavour that is not straightforward. The diversity of students constitutes one of the major challenges for heritage language teachers. As Charitonos and Charalampidi (2015) noted, students' language skills can vary to a great extent, for instance some may speak the language fluently and others may not speak it at all. Further, community languages have often undergone extensive changes through contact with dominant languages and pose special instructional challenges (Valdés, 2005). In the context of supplementary education, limited resources (e.g. funding, premises, equipment) create further challenges in accommodating student needs (Maylor et al., 2010). Issues of motivation have implications too for the classroom. In the UK, demotivation has been connected to the marginalisation of community languages from mainstream education, with a lower language status than French, German and Spanish (Handley, 2011). Demotivation also occurs from gaps between course objectives and content taught, and the learners' personal aims (Berardi-Wiltshire, 2009). As for supplementary school students, who attend the school voluntarily, dissatisfaction with educational provision, often leads them to the decision to drop out (Sneddon, 2017).

3. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

CLIL has been defined by Marsh (2002) as an educational approach in which an additional language (i.e. foreign, second or minority language) is used for the teaching and learning of a non-language subject. The approach is dual-focused in that it draws attention to both language and content learning, albeit having a flexible content-language focus ratio (Marsh, 2002). The novelty of the approach lies in the fact that academic content is taught and this is unusual in the European context of language education (Cenoz et al., 2014). The importance of the subject component has been stressed by, among others, Ball et al. (2016) who talked about meaningful incorporation and assessment of content or else "students sense very quickly that the topics themselves are mere slaves to the linguistic objectives, and motivation and interest levels drop accordingly" (p. 27). The subject – language blend, while being one of the ingredients – if not the most important – of the success of CLIL, has also caused tensions. For instance, there have been concerns regarding reduced subject outcomes (Dalton-Puffer, 2008), effective target language development (de Graaff et al., 2007), and disagreement as to whether subject or language experts should deliver such programmes (Coyle, 2008).

Yet, the reported outcomes are, by and large, positive and numerous (see for example discussions in Pérez-Cañado, 2012; Marsh, 2012; Dalton-Puffer, 2008). Positive effects of particular relevance to our study's objectives are; improving learners' overall target language competence, increasing learners' motivation, developing their plurilingual interests and attitudes, and accessing subject-specific target language terminology. The latter has its own intrinsic value and is at the same time connected to "tak[ing] students beyond 'reductive' foreign language topics" (Coyle, 2008, p. 104). Given the diversity of HLLs, of importance is that CLIL can benefit not only more able learners but all students across the ability spectrum (Coyle, 2006).

Indeed, over the past decade, albeit the scarcity of projects documented, a few supplementary school studies that integrated language with other subjects pointed to the potential of the approach to providing greater stimulus and cognitive engagement (Anderson, 2017, 2009;), enhancing students' interest and motivation in language learning (Charalambous & Yerosimou, 2015), and increasing students' understanding of academic concepts as well as boosting their confidence (Issa, 2009).

4. The Study

The present study reports on a science CLIL project with Greek as the vehicular language, and examines the potential of the approach as appropriate for the teaching of HLLs in the context of supplementary education. It was developed as a product of reflection on teaching practices and content taught at the school. Specifically, the authors believed that by extending the school's curriculum (i.e. covering the generic content areas specified by the Cyprus High Commission in the UK and the UK language examinations board) and complementing teaching with more creative approaches, the learners' needs would be better catered for. As Pladevall-Ballester (2015) noted, participants' perceptions are important if we are to make claims on the effectiveness of CLIL. The paper thus draws mainly on qualitative data and provides an account of the learners' experience in an attempt to delineate the value of such projects for the teaching and learning of a heritage language.

4.1. Overview of the project

The school has been implementing science – language projects since 2014 (for a description of last year's project see Charalampidi, 2016). This was made possible, to a large extent, due to successful grant applications to the British Science Association (BSA) and the Institute of Physics (IOP). This was the main reason why part of the projects was scheduled for British Science Week, an annual event organised by the BSA.

Each year, the BSA defined the broad theme of the event, and the projects were designed around it. This year, the theme was 'Change' and thus the project "GGG: Going Green in Greek" explored environmental pollution and climate change. Though the whole school was involved, this article presents the experience of 13 students, aged 11 to 17, attending Year 5, Pre-GCSE/GCSE and A level classes. The objectives, shown in Tables 1 and 2, following Coyle's (2005) four-dimensional framework (4Cs), spanned content, communication, cognition and culture. Content-specific vocabulary and scientific terminology was at the core of all dimensions.

Table 1. The content dimension.

In class		Museum visit
Environmental pollution	Climate change	Climate change
What is the environment? Causes of pollution in general Effects of pollution Solutions to environmental pollution	Climate vs Weather The greenhouse gases The greenhouse effect What is climate change? Effects of climate change Solutions to climate change	How and when climate change started (Industrial revolution) Carbon cycle What is climate change? Effects of climate change Solutions to climate change

Table 2. The communication, cognition, culture dimensions.

Communication	▪ present (e.g. posters on causes of pollution)
	▪ define and describe (e.g. the greenhouse effect)
	▪ explain (e.g. causes and effects of climate change)
	▪ suggest (e.g. solutions to environmental pollution and climate change)
	▪ additional for A level students:
	  ▪ take a stand on climate change
	  ▪ defend their argument

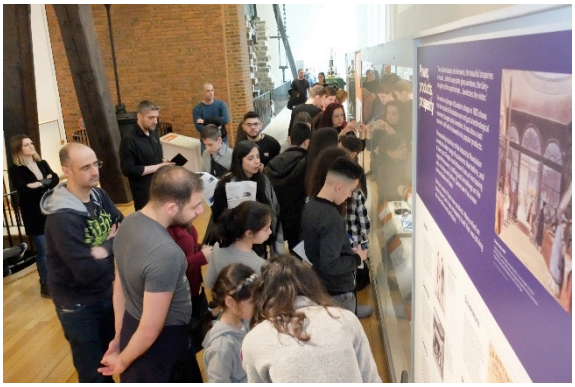
Cognition	▪ understand scientific processes (e.g. carbon cycle) ▪ logic of constructing arguments ▪ problem solving
Culture	▪ environmental consciousness ▪ sense of responsibility

The project lasted approximately 2 months (from end of February to end of April). It included various classroom activities and a visit to the British Science Museum in London (for examples see Figure 1). The museum visit took place in March, coinciding with British Science Week. Parents and relatives were also invited to join the students. Prior to the museum visit, fundamental concepts and principles were taught. The museum visit included enrichment and extension activities. Activity handouts with instructions in Greek were given to students, along with a bilingual glossary (Greek – English) to use, if needed, during the visit. After the museum visit, lessons included follow up activities and assessments.

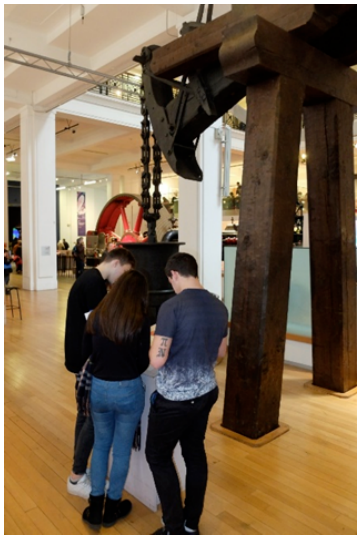
Central to the design of the project was the comprehensive and continuous integration of language and content driven activities. For this, a language specialist and a subject specialist, both Greek native speakers, collaborated. It should be stated that the activities and the materials used could not be distinguished as purely subject oriented or purely language oriented, but rather as an overlap and blending of both.

Vocabulary exercise: Matching pictures to words.

Building a model of an ecological house.



Museum activity: At display there were forerunners of contemporary products, manufactured for the first time during the industrial revolution. Students took pictures of the ones they could recognise.



Museum activity: Understanding how the industrial revolution accelerated the use of fossil fuels.

Figure 1. Examples of in-class and museum activities.

4.2. Methods and data

Data collection included materials used in the activities, questionnaires, interviews and field notes. During the first lesson of each of the main topics (for example environmental pollution and climate change) the participants' prior subject knowledge was assessed through concept maps (e.g. around the word 'environment') and questioning (e.g. Are you aware of climate change? Can you explain or describe it?) for which answers were recorded. The students were encouraged to answer, whenever possible, in the target language. This enabled us to understand both what the students knew and how able they were to articulate their knowledge in Greek. Additional short vocabulary tests were administered to check students' knowledge of basic terms. At the end of the project, materials used (e.g. worksheets, essays, posters, post-tests) were collected for the purposes of the research.

The questionnaires were administered after the museum visit. One student who did not attend the museum visit was given the survey to complete at home but did not return it. Broadly speaking, questionnaires were divided into two sections: the first one asked about the museum visit and the second one asked about the project as a whole. In total, the survey included eight (8) closed and five (5) open ended questions on perceived language and content learning, the value of the project, and changes in attitudes towards the environment and climate change.

Four semi-structured focus group interviews with ten students were also conducted about two months after the completion of the project. These lasted approximately one hour each and allowed for in-depth investigation of several issues. The three main themes explored were students' experiences and views of the school (e.g. Why do you attend? How do you feel about coming to the school?), of the project, and of CLIL projects in general. Several questions were asked about the project's topic (significance, appeal), the types of activities (preferences, perceived usefulness), the museum visit (its contribution to the project, what they liked most and least, clarification of some survey questions), learning or conceptual challenges faced,

perceived benefits obtained from interdisciplinary projects, suggestions for future projects. Interviews were analysed thematically and this enabled us to understand how learners themselves experienced the project and the value put on it.

4.3. Findings

Findings are organised and presented around the project's perceived impact on students' (1) Language learning (analogous to 'Communication' in Coyle's framework) (2) Content learning (3) Cognition (4) Change in attitudes (analogous to 'Culture' in Coyle's framework). The perceived gains common to all participants, as well as main variations in their interpretations of their experience are shown below.

4.3.1. Language learning

The survey indicated that, overall, students perceived the project as being helpful in respect to language learning. The majority described it as very helpful (n = 8), two of them as extremely helpful and two others as somewhat helpful. The three main areas of language improvement specified by the students were their vocabulary (n = 9), listening (n = 7) and teamwork skills (n = 9).

Participants' language acquisition was evident in their assignments and the battery of tests used to assess their proficiency in receptive and productive skills. For instance, in the final speaking test students were asked to give a definition of the 'environment'. A student described it as "*Everything that is around us, artificial and natural, that is whatever is made by man or whatever is formed by nature, such as trees and homes.*" (Translation from Greek) and another student used the etymology of the word and explained that the 'environment' ('περιβάλλον' in Greek) has its origins in the word 'I surround' ('περιβάλλω' in Greek). In an essay that asked students to inform people about climate change one student wrote: "*People produce carbon dioxide that traps solar radiation and the temperature increases. This causes climate change.*" (Translation from Greek). This points to her ability to articulate complex ideas in Greek. Figure 2 shows a poster on the causes of environmental pollution created by another student. The use of high level appropriate scientific vocabulary (e.g. 'deforestation', 'pesticides') is evident. However, it should be clarified that although all students showed developments in all areas, some (n = 4) progressed more in terms of receptive than productive skills. Further, regarding the latter, it appeared easier for students to communicate their knowledge in writing than orally.

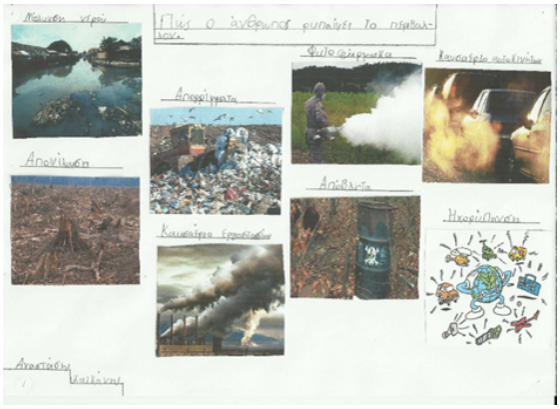


Figure 2. Poster on the causes of environmental pollution.

Communicative gains were expressed by all students. Arguably, this was one of the most significant findings, especially in view of the fact that climate change has not been a topic usually taught or discussed among second/foreign language learners. For our learners, being able to understand and discuss this topic with other Greek speakers, either in the UK or in the origin country, was important. As one of the interviewees stated:

"*It's useful because if you go to Greece or Cyprus and they ask you a question about the environment, if you went to Greek school it would help you answer. If you remember the vocabulary, it will help you with the speaking. The English is the easiest language to learn but Greek is hard. If you learn the vocabulary, it gets easier.*"

Another student mentioned that the project triggered a discussion with his parents:

"*I had a conversation with my parents. When we had the speaking test I kind of searched for more information online and my mum started asking questions and we had a conversation on the topic. She was surprised that I could remember all this.*"

Students' appreciation of the project as enabling communication can be linked to their views of the school. They considered communicative competence as one of the chief reasons for coming to the school. To them, "*it's not just a school that you come to attend lessons, it's more than that"*. They described it as a space where they could meet "*people from [their] country, communicate better for the things that are happening in [their] country and then have more reasons to talk about, [they] get closer with the people.*"

4.3.2. Content learning

The survey responses revealed that participants believed they had developed their subject knowledge. Eight of them felt the project was very helpful in terms of learning about the environment and climate change, three of them viewed it as extremely helpful and one as somewhat helpful.

Materials used in the activities also pointed to content acquisition. For younger students (11 – 13), this was evident for both subjects, i.e. environmental pollution and climate change. For older students (14 – 17), content learning was mainly related to climate change. In the pre-tests administered, only those students (n = 3) who had been previously taught about climate change at their English schools exhibited subject knowledge. The rest either acknowledged their lack of knowledge or tried to guess the meaning (e.g. some students associated climate change with seasonal changes in weather). Tasks shown in Figures 3 and 4 were selected as they depicted in a clearer way than other activities understanding of the subject, separate from language development.

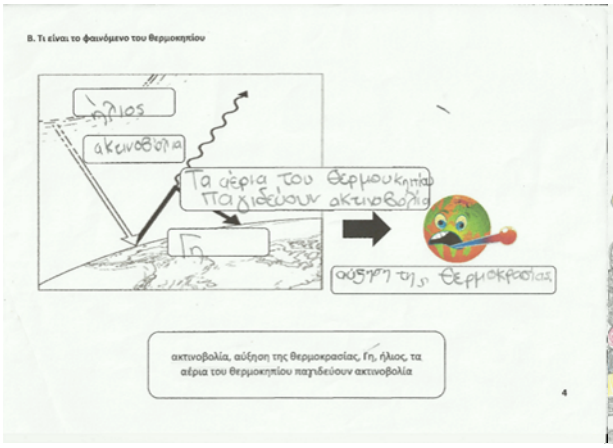


Figure 3. Diagram: What is the greenhouse effect.

Figure 4. Drawing. Climate change.

Interview data suggested that the value students put on the project was influenced by their views of the subject. The majority of participants talked about how the topic had real-world connections and was relevant to their lives, hence it was meaningful and significant.

"*It's important because it makes you think about the activities that you do every day, that you can help the planet by not doing them. Like when you use the car, everyone uses the car and not many people go on the bus or on trains so the air gets polluted.*"

"*It's a really interesting topic because it's climate change and that can affect us in different ways as in drought or flooding and destroying all our resources which leaves us to the point where we don't have enough food or water to leave properly.*"

Some students, even though they acknowledged the topic's importance, expressed their preference for other topics, as in the case of the following student:

"*Although I didn't find it that interesting, I think is something worth knowing but not as important as other things in the world such as like the politics in your country or like poverty in other countries. You should learn about that and how to stop that … They could be trying to fix issues in like poor countries rather than just spending all their money trying to stop carbon dioxide getting in the environment.*"

Content, Language or Both?

There were differences in the way students experienced the project's interdisciplinarity. The majority of the students thought of the project as a pluralistic educational experience. As can be seen in the extract below, content and language knowledge developed concurrently and were both valued:

"*It is about our environment and it helps us to like as well as learning everything and how to write it in Greek and everything, it is also about how to help our environment. So, it's like we gain two ways of learning.*"

In contrast, three A level students placed greater emphasis on the project's language focus. This could be attributed to two reasons; one, they had previously acquired

some relevant knowledge of the topic at their English schools through subjects like Chemistry and Geography and two, they were concerned about their upcoming A level Greek exams. Thus, to them the value of the project lied mainly in linguistic gains such as expanding their vocabulary and learning how to "*explain it* [climate change] *with scientific words, with the right vocabulary*". Finally, two students were more interested in content learning rather than language learning. This was noticeable both in the classroom and in the museum. For instance, while at the museum, they preferred walking around on their own and looking at the exhibits of their choice than joining the group activities and the discussions.

4.3.3. Cognition

The project was unanimously viewed as cognitively demanding, with the majority of students reporting that this was the most challenging topic taught so far.

The extracts below show two students' ability not only to remember but also to analyse and combine or associate concepts to communicate in full what the greenhouse effect is. It can also be inferred that the students learned to think in an elaborate way and simultaneously about the content and the language:

"*When someone asked me "What is the greenhouse effect?" I couldn't answer straight away and with exact words, I had to think about it for a while and then take it in steps for example start with the carbon dioxide, διοξείδιο του άνθρακα* (speaks in Greek)*, and say it's been released and it traps sun rays, παγιδεύει την ακτινοβολία* (speaks in Greek)*.*"

"*I understand that the fact to explain the greenhouse effect can be quite easy when you think about it but when you have to explain it you can't say all in one sentence, you have to do several, you have to explain the whole thing cause otherwise, the other person you explain it to, won't fully understand what you are trying to say.*"

For two students it was observed that difficulties in conceptual understanding hindered language development. For these students, greater use of English throughout the project was necessary to ensure understanding, resulting in having less time for practice in the target language. This was also realised by the students. As one explained:

"*Well, I think it was the most difficult part of the project, but I think eventually when the teacher explained it to me in English and it made more sense of what it is, then learning it all in Greek made it easier for me.*"

Knowledge transfer

One of the most noteworthy findings that emerged from the interviews was the project's contribution in facilitating knowledge transfer between the Greek school and the English school. Apart from the three students who had some previous subject knowledge, the rest reported that the project was either the only time they were taught about the topic, was taking place at the same time students were being taught at the mainstream school, or preceded mainstream school lessons.

Students stressed how the project supported their performance at their English school, as in the case of this student who stated that "*In Geography we did about climate change and in Science we did about the greenhouse effect and I got really good grades on both.*"

When asked to provide further details on how the project reinforced their learning, they pointed to both cognitive and affective gains. In respect to the former, it appeared that a deepening understanding of the subject was achieved through multilingualism and code switching, repetition, and considerable subject engagement time. Below are quotes that demonstrate this:

"*We can use the Greek vocabulary to then remember what the word means in English and then use that to participate in the classroom and point out the different things.*"

"*It helped me a lot because I knew a lot of information from the Greek school so it was easy for me to concentrate and understand even more in my English school.*"

"*We did not spend a lot of time revising that topic, we had to move on as time was running out. So the project at the Greek school helped me to remember it.*"

In respect to the latter, students' confidence was developed as shown in this student's reaction when the teachers announced they are learning about climate change and the greenhouse effect:

"*I was like "Oh, yeah, I've already done this" and it was like super easy. My teacher was really impressed!*"

4.3.4. Change in attitudes

Changes in student attitudes regarding the environment were examined through the questionnaire, the interviews and the field notes. In the survey, all but one students reported that their interest on the issue of climate change increased, either a lot (n = 6) or slightly (n = 5).

When asked for clarifications during the interviews, students explained that they were generally more conscious of their activities and how they affected the environment, as in the case of this student:

"*I recycle at home because we use a lot of paper and I don't like throwing it in the normal bin, if by accident I throw something in that bin I'll take it afterwards and throw it in the recycling bin, I try to have a shorter shower and when I leave the room I switch off the lights whereas before I used to forget sometimes but now I pay more attention.*"

The same attitudes were also observed at the school. Students were more considerate when switching on and off the lights, closed the doors when the heating was on, and recycled systematically (the school acquired a recycling bin as part of the project).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This paper presents how CLIL pedagogy was carried out and how it was perceived by heritage language learners. Overall, students expressed satisfaction with the project and recognised it as educational and beneficial. Gains were reported across language and content learning, cognition and attitudes.

Although students put different values on language and content knowledge acquisition,they all recognised improvements in both. Pladevall-Ballester (2015), who also studied science school students' views of CLIL, concluded that children's perceptions of outcomes were related to the explicit focus of teaching, i.e. on content or language. This study's findings indicate that, for our students, who attend the school having language conservation and development in mind, a clear teaching focus on both language and content serves their needs better.

Previous research showed that cognitively demanding CLIL projects may cause anxiety (Doiz, 2014) or negative effects on students' self-esteem as language learners (Seikkula-Leino, 2007). In our case, cognitive challenge was viewed positively, even for those students who had difficulties in conceptual understanding. From a design perspective, we would suggest that carefully sequenced lessons with gradual progression of challenge, running alongside variation in activities, can contribute to positive student responses. In addition, for those students who struggle, switching from one language to another repeatedly may be helpful for progression.

Perhaps the most significant finding of the study is that the CLIL approach can have an impact that goes beyond language and subject matter acquisition. As illustrated, CLIL projects can build bridges between the students' linguistic heritage and their scholarly success in mainstream education and enable knowledge transfer. Creese et al. (2006) argued that supplementary schools produce opportunities that support students' identities as successful language learners. It is our belief that applying CLIL in supplementary schools can be seen as a strategy to enhance students' cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), to use Cummins's (2008) terminology, and their self efficacy as learners.

In conclusion, though this is a small-scale study, it indicates the potential of CLIL as an effective pedagogy for the teaching and learning of heritage languages in supplementary schools. Learning science through the medium of their heritage language was seen by the students as a strength. By extension, a CLIL approach could contribute to increased value placed on the language and reinforce students' motivation in language learning, even in a country whose language is Europe's lingua franca. Bearing in mind the distinct challenges of supplementary education, what we advocate is a combination of approaches and topics, the latter being academic or 'real' (Cook, 1983) and non-academic, to cover the range of HLLs' diverse needs and abilities.

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Intercultural Awareness and Language Learning: What do Students Say?

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Abstract
We present the preliminary findings of our qualitative research into the difficulties encountered by different types of foreign language students in a multicultural, multi-identity Higher Education context. We have conducted a series of interviews intended to expand on our quantitative research presented in "L'hexagone: Not Just a Pretty Shape"(Train & Wilks, 2017). We intend to analyse the results using narrative analysis techniques to gain insight into the problem of whether different categories of students can be used to help teachers anticipate learner error, perhaps by identifying those aspects of the experience of moving towards intercultural competency which students of the same category might have in common. Participants were interviewed individually, having earlier completed a vocabulary exercise eliciting both explicit understanding of French vocabulary items, and wider associations. Our paper shows key extracts from the interviews, categorised according to our earlier classification by native language and level of both L1 (English) and L2 (French). These findings will help us to evaluate the categories chosen and to posit learning strategies which could be adopted by teachers to allow smoother progress towards intercultural competency by students of each category. In a changing educational environment both at Higher Education Level and in view of changes to Secondary MFL syllabus at GCSE and A2, we aim to provide an insight into the skills required by students of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

Keywords: Language learning, student diversity, translation, qualitative research, intercultural competence

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Introduction

In the undergraduate French language classes we teach, language heritage and student identity is not homogeneous. English can often be a second or third language and French a second, third or fourth language. Some students are native French or English speakers and a few are bilingual or near bilingual. Some students' first or native languages are far removed from European language groups. Our students have also often lived in a variety of cultures and countries. Other students have lived for a short or longer period of time in a French speaking country such as DRC. So the range of language and cultural experiences is vast. All bring their own individual perspectives to bear in the language classroom, and all are required for assessment at all levels to move between French and English and translate between these two languages with a high level of competence. In "*Hexagone: not just a pretty shape*" (Train and Wilks 2017) we tested a range of strategies, including targeted vocabulary and back translation tasks, designed to extend cultural awareness and competence in translation. Our conclusions led us to take this further. In this paper we add to the preliminary findings of our quantitative and qualitative research into the difficulties encountered by different types of foreign language students in a multicultural, multi-identity Higher Education context by interviewing a group of final year students to try to assess their self-awareness of how much their own linguistic and cultural influences impact on their approach to translation.

1.Theoretical context

In our paper *Intercultural awareness and language learning: what do students say?* (Train & Wilks 2017) we continued to draw on theoretical frameworks for the understanding and relevance of intercultural awareness and competence for language students as put forward by Byram & Kramsch (2008), Byram and Zarate (1997), Kramsch (2013), Olk (2009) and Porto (2013) in terms of broadly influencing the aims we have for our students. For our current study our approach has also incorporated notions of crosslinguistic influence, in particular the idea that "Crosslinguistic influence can be due to linguistic, experiential, and input factors, not only typology". Slabakova, R. (2016).

Furthermore, we have taken into account the opinion of linguists such as Fouser (1995) who say that often the descriptive studies in this field rely too much on contrastive analysis: such studies explain, but are less helpful in predicting, problems due to interference, because they often focus on discrete point errors alone. Our objective to move beyond a single focus, by taking a more personal and overarching approach, which attempts to assess the interplay of diversity in language and cultural backgrounds, aims to improve the element of prediction of error aspects. This follows Ringbom (1985) who noted that crosslinguistic influence studies often focus on lexis alone. Our approach in the series of interviews undertaken, is more holistic and gave participants opportunities to reflect, sometimes using narrative, on the role of intercultural issues in their development as translators.

2. Research question

Our study was designed to determine how aware our students are of how much their own linguistic and cultural influences impact on their approach to translation. Whilst

our previous study has assessed this both quantitatively and qualitatively, this study aimed to elicit information on an individual level, allowing a deeper insight into the processes each student adopted or perceived in their journey towards intercultural and linguistic competency, and maybe even fluency.

3. Details of the study

Each student was asked questions concerning their language heritage including the range of languages spoken/written, how they had been learned, when they use them, self-assessment of their level in these languages, and in particular in French. A second group of questions concerned the student's approach to translation between French and English and required the respondent to reflect on practical, classroom, cultural and intercultural issues involved in moving between languages. These oral interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed. As we began to analyse the data and read the resulting responses and narratives a sorting process emerged, with 4 overarching themes becoming evident.

4. Participants

In our previous work (Train & Wilks, 2017) we established the following categories as useful for examining students' intercultural awareness:

- Category A: English native
- Category B: French native and education including bilinguals
- Category C: French post colonials
- Category D: students who have studied both French and English as additional languages.

We continued to use these categories in this study as they best reflect the cohort interviewed. The students surveyed were taking French as a Minor Field component of an undergraduate degree and were in their final year of three. Some had spent time in a francophone country as part of their studies. The participants' routes into the course were diverse. Even within the broad categories described above there was much variation in levels of language competence, ranging from near fluent to competent post GCSE level.

5. Results

When we came to analyse the results we found that responses could be grouped according to certain characteristics which revealed levels of understanding in different aspects. Those aspects are outlined below and illustrated by quotation from the interview transcripts.

a) Revealing acquired cultural knowledge

   Participants described changes in their cultural awareness which they themselves perceived as they approached the end of the course. Sometimes this took the form of a comparison with previous modes of study.

For example, a Category A student considers the diverse population in the translation class as follows:
"I think what's nice at university is you're all from different areas, you know, you could even have someone from a different country, and when they translate it back you think oh yeah, that's how you could say it too; knowing that there's different ways of saying the same thing is really important because it broadens your vocabulary at the same time, so it's really important."

This student's comment on discussing translation in class reveals awareness of the benefits of the diverse language group. However, it was not always the case that students' grasp on the movement between cultures was clear. In some cases, an increased level of confusion was perhaps the result of moving away from a francophone environment and into the English-medium context of the university:
"Yes. I feel that my English when I do translate I think from English to French. I kind of think of the French sentence in English which is wrong. I think I should be thinking of it in French, and that confuses me a lot."
By expressing dissatisfaction and even frustration with his methods this Category D student shows self-awareness – a first step towards intercultural understanding.

b) Revealing lack of cultural knowledge

"But it's like you swap the cassette over and the language comes out"
Surely this is the aim for all language speakers? This French post-colonial student (Category C) describes their ease in switching between two near native languages. However, when applied to translation, is this really possible? Can fluency sometimes detract from self-awareness when approaching translation? It was our contention in our previous work that awareness of the students' own cultural "icebergs" (Hall, 1976), was an essential step towards awareness of the L2 culture. Many students also mentioned unprompted the importance to them of not causing offence through cultural insensitivity or lack of awareness.

c) Unchallenged stereotypes

"*It's thought that with the English language ….is a little bit more chilled out, calm, it's quite polite whereas the French language has more feeling behind it, there's more passion to it I guess you could say*."
Some comments made by students, such as the one above (Category A), revealed the fact that cultural stereotypes still inform their general views of different languages. Such statements may also reveal a muddling of thoughts relating to politeness codes, intonation and vocabulary use or register, all of which could have an impact on decisions when moving between languages. They reveal a lack of close attention to messages.

d) Formation of practical approaches

"*So, GCSE is more translation whereas A level to degree is culture and that helps*." (Category A student). We have classified this as a practical approach, as the student shows that they understand that culture needs to be taken into account. This student sees the process of improving language competence as moving from a functional equivalence of meanings at a more basic level to needing to understand and be knowledgeable about cultural aspects at a more advanced level. However, it is interesting that the student sees translation and culture as being different.
"*…it's always best to read the whole text to understand what it's about even in general I found that very useful and to find the context of the text and the background. And also to do some research about the text*" (Category D student). This student understood the importance of taking context and background into account when translating. It seems to be a systematic procedure which the student adopts for all texts.

Conclusion

Some advanced level students, and often to our surprise those with the greatest number of languages and intercultural experiences, still fall back on stereotypes. A tentative explanation for this could be that because these students' language skills have been acquired less formally, often for functional purposes, in order to be able to communicate on a purely oral level, or in a specific role, they have not had to reflect on intercultural issues beyond the more obvious or situationally expedient aspects. Others, who have reflected more systematically on crosslinguistic and intercultural interference in their approach to translation are more able to identify and deal with such issues. There is a difference between those who approach advanced language skills acquisition as an academic study and those who rely on a less formalised approach because they feel more confident in their ability to "se débrouiller", to get by, pretty well, in more informal situations or when precision is not an overriding concern.

Whilst a limitation of this study may be that the sample size is relatively small, it does nonetheless reflect our typical student groups. Students sometimes gave unsolicited anecdotal/narrative examples and it would have been good to have elicited these from more students to have a wider bank of data for comparison. Encouraging deeper reflection by explicitly asking for more examples from classroom and life experiences would enrich the data. Those students who tended to illustrate more freely were also often more revealing of their own circumstances and experiences. Adopting a more free flowing open-ended dialogue to allow narrative analysis would enable us to probe student attitudes and approaches more deeply and we intend to adopt this approach in our subsequent study. We intend to continue our studeies by interviewing non-specialist linguist undergraduates to assess interference from students' other languages and main degree subjects. We will also extend the project to cover school age language learners as translation becomes established in the new GCSE and A level courses in the UK.

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Appendix 1

Poster overview of *Intercultural awareness and language learning: what the students say.*

Appendix 2

Interview questions

1. **Your languages background:**

a) What is your maternal or first language?
b) How, for you, is it qualified as your first language? (first language learned/language of school/language used exclusively at home/bilingual context?)
c) How much do you associate (this) language with your own cultural identity?
d) What is your second language? How would you describe your level in that language? When do you use it? (in class/at home/on the phone/only with specific people/internally etc..)
e) What is your third/fourth…language(s)? How would you describe your level in this/those languages? When do you use it/them? (in class/at home/on the phone/only with specific people/ internally etc..)
f) Would you say that your different languages interfere with each other in everyday life? If so, in what ways? (vocabulary use or range / structurally/culturally) And in which situations?

2. **Specifically when you are studying or using the language you are learning at university:**

a) Which aspects of learning another language at undergraduate level have been the easiest and the hardest?
b) How would you assess your level in translation?
c) Can you describe the process you use or the strategies you adopt when undertaking translation?
d) What tools do you use?
e) In a classroom situation how much do you listen to and learn from your peers?
f) How useful do you find classroom discussion in translation exercises?
g) Which teaching strategies do you find the most useful or helpful when doing translation work?
h) Which teaching strategies do you find less useful or helpful when doing translation work?
i) Would you say that your different languages interfere with each other when you are doing translation work? If so, in what ways? (vocabulary use or range / structurally/culturally/grammatically)
j) Thinking about language only, can you give any examples?
k) Thinking about "cultural" interference, can you give any examples?
l) Do you think/ are you aware that you make any assumptions about meaning when you are translating?
m) Do you think about your own cultural assumptions when translating?
n) Have you ever been made aware of these during a teaching session?
o) Is there anything that has made you wary of making mistakes in this way?
p) Do you try to research into deeper cultural associations of words and phrases when you work on a translation?
q) What do you use for research?
r) How important is intercultural awareness when you are moving between languages? And specifically when translating?

The Impact of Weekly Correction and Feedback in a French Composition Class

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Abstract
The study reported here explored the quantitative and qualitative learning performance of a class of composition in L2 French (junior students) in Taiwan through the application of statistic tools such as SPSS and Excel. The participants were students of a French department following a course of writing during the academic year 2015-2016. The data collected includes students' scores, class attendance, students' composition assignments (almost one per week during two consecutive semesters), and several questionnaires. The results of numerical analysis were used to clarify whether our designed teaching methods can improve students' writing skill. Through discussing the effect of teamwork, the indicators selected to evaluate students' writing level, and the impact of writing topics, we tried to figure out a flexible teaching/learning method suitable for different levels of students. The key evaluating indicators contributing to students' good or poor writing ability were also discussed. Using mechanical error correction method can notably help teachers identify students' most common and recurrent mistakes. It also appeared that students who are not native speakers prefer their instructor not only to systematically highlight their errors, but also to correct their French. The proposed learning improvement mechanism presented in this study may also be applied to other fields or other languages in future studies.

Keywords: French as a Foreign Language (FLE); learning performance; mechanical error correction; writing skill; Taiwan.

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Introduction

This study focused on a required course of French composition in a French Department at a private university in Taipei, Taiwan. It analyzed data for students who took the class during the second semester of the academic year 2015-2016 (that is, February to June 2016). The data is based on information collected during the class, such as students' assignments (10 texts corrected by the instructor using various error correction strategies), scores, attendance, and a questionnaire completed by students at the end of the second semester (in June 2016). The instructor not only corrected students' compositions as often and as regularly as possible, but also gave an oral explanation during the class after the test. To make sure students were aware of the type of mistakes they made, the teacher also made a list of their most common and recurrent mistakes. Students were expected not only to improve their writing skill, but to increase their knowledge of French culture. It appears that they benefited from the teacher's feedback, written and verbal, as well as from team work and peer-review during the class.

Literature Review

Error correction strategies

Mechanical error correction or direct correction means that the instructor underlines, highlights, and gives explicit answers to the incorrect words, sentences, or violations of the general grammar rules. This is in contrast to meaning error correction where the instructor may place a question mark, insert an arrow, or underline places with errors/mistakes, but not provide the answers immediately (Hendrickson, 1978; Lin et al., 2015).

Lin et al. (2015) asked 162 aboriginal students aged between 18 and 23 at a nursing college in southern Taiwan to complete two versions of compositions. The objective was to implement a multiple-revision strategy, that is, to give indirect feedback on the first draft, and direct feedback on the second draft. It notably gave students to opportunity to correct their work before the final submission.

The most frequently used pedagogical intervention in the English-L2 writing literature was teacher feedback. Of the collected data, 18 studies used some form of teacher feedback as an intervention. The feedback types included error corrections (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005), tutoring (Williams, 2004), and revision talk (Young & Miller, 2004). Most of these studies found that teacher feedback exerted a positive influence on certain aspects of students' writing development. For instance, Yang, Badger, and Yu (2006) examined revision with or by teachers compared to revision with peers, finding teacher feedback to be superior in improving writing accuracy and organization.

Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) found that teacher feedback alone did not improve accuracy of writing. Based on this observation, they argued that confounding factors are likely to exist in the relation between teacher feedback and L2 students'

writing products. According to the findings from Bitchener et al., the type of teacher feedback (written or oral) made a difference in enhancement of students' writing quality: a combination of written comments and verbal feedback was effective in enhancing students' writing performance. In a similar vein, Bitchener (2008) revealed that students' writing was influenced differently by different types of teacher feedback. According to this finding, the teacher's written metalinguistic explanation was more effective than traditional corrective feedback or an oral metalinguistic explanation. That is, students who received metalinguistic written and oral feedback with direct comments on the incorrect sentences from the teacher outperformed those who received teacher's specific direct revision to the student's writing. For example, when the students' writing was directly corrected by the teachers with written and oral explanation of why the sentences were not correct, the students subsequently produced more accurate writing than when they only received error corrections on their writing or when they received only metalinguistic explanations from teachers. However, the findings in this study were not clear in explaining the relative merits of teachers' written feedback versus oral feedback.

A comparison between peer feedback and teacher feedback was found in Yang, Badger, and Yu's (2006) study. In this study using 20- to 21-year-old 12 Chinese students in an English-L2 academic writing class, Yang et al. found peer feedback to be less effective for the students' writing quality than teacher feedback, but more effective for greater autonomy in writing. The students who received teacher feedback produced better writing quality, but their writing procedure tended to rely on the teacher's guidelines rather than writing procedures they independently employed by themselves. In contrast, the students getting peer feedback (or peer-collaboration) tended to write based on their independent writing procedures, which were sometimes different from the teacher's guidelines. Peer feedback thus facilitated the students' independent planning, writing, and revising, but their actual writing competence was not significantly improved.

Some scholars have focused on the effect of different contexts and types of collaborative writing. For instance, Bloch (2007) examined peer collaboration in a blog space but he failed to find a significant effect of the blog collaboration. In his case study of a student who migrated from Somalia to the U.S. when he was a middle-school student, Bloch reported there was no clear effect from peer collaboration in blog space to foster the student's writing development. There was also an interesting study that found that doing peer review is more effective than receiving it in L2 writing development (Lundstrom & Baker, 2008). From analyzing 91 students' pre- and post- intervention written texts in nine L2 academic writing classes at a university, Lundstrom and Baker concluded that the student group solely reviewing other groups' writing developed more in writing ability than the group receiving peer reviews.

Other researchers concentrated their efforts on figuring out specific peer dialogue patterns during L2 writing activities. Study of peer dialogues showed that peers were frequently involved in talking about mechanics and organization rather than about the ideas and topics of their writing (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Yet, the changes the student writers made to their own writing were different than what was discussed. Suzuki (2008) argued that peer revision produced more changes in number of episodes (a unit of

frequency measurement of dialogues about corresponding topics in their discussion), and meta-talk rather than text-specific changes such as grammar and words. It appears that there is a gap between the most targeted dialogue topics (language related topics) and the targeted end result (global changes) in collaborative L2 writing.

Overall, collaborating peers outperformed those who worked alone, but not those who received teacher feedback, in producing better quality writing. But the superiority of peer feedback should be interpreted carefully, because the quality of collaboration can also be affected by various contexts. For example, the point was made that high-proficiency learners may not benefit from paired collaboration with a lower level peer, because highlow pairs performed worse than high-high pairs (Leeser, 2004). How students are combined into peer groups is clearly important. It was also found that participants tended to change their overall ideas rather than address specific mechanical problems, although they discussed grammatical changes with peers more than the overall ideas. This gap between discussion topics and behaviors necessitates further investigation for particular behavioral or verbal patterns which may hinder effective discussion within pairs (or between peers), and factors that might encourage or discourage effective peer discussion.

The types of technology use varied from electronic dictionary use (Yoon & Hirvela, 2004) to blogs (Bloch, 2007). Seven articles in the identified literature highlighted how technology-use can affect L2 writing development. In the remaining three articles, technology-based environments were merely the class setting for other focal factors. The latter articles employed very descriptive analysis including listing often-visited websites (Stapleton, 2005) or reporting students' perception about technology-use (Yoon & Hirvela, 2004), rather than relational analysis. A number of researchers found that technology was positively related to students' emotional, motivational, and global changes as opposed to specific language-related changes. For instance, Yoon and Hirvela (2004) documented that use of corpus was associated with students' positive motivation (self-efficacy). Matsumura and Hann (2004) reported that giving a choice of computer use resulted in good writing performance for students with either high or low computer-related anxiety. In the study by Ellis and Yuan (2004), students' planning was associated with better writing products than no planning. Several studies revealed that a technology-rich environment is beneficial to student's L2 writing quality. Based on a 42-item survey instrument regarding corpus use and follow-up interviews, Yoon and Hirvela (2004) reported 22 ESL students' own assessment of advantage and difficulties of corpus use. They concluded that corpus use is beneficial to L2 writing development and contributes to increased confidence toward L2 writing.

Brine and Franken (2006) examined the effect of a teacher's guiding questions in a web conferencing environment (Web Crossing). An online environment with teacher's guidance was found to be effective in enhancing L2 writing skills. Teachers played an important role in fostering the students' writing performance. In sum, the studies in this category showed that technology can be beneficial to L2 students because it interests and comforts the students and fosters good effects of teaching. The studies, however, did not clearly reveal similar benefits for language-specific writing development such as grammar and writing structure. Technology was instead tied more to overall L2 writing

quality and students' motivation and identity rather than mechanical correctness of their writing. Also, in combining technology-use with classical instruction, it is still questionable whether technology would work for the students at all proficiency levels or only for the students at a specific level.

Peer-feedback interventions are more effective for global changes (organization and structure) than for local changes (accuracy and grammar). This is not surprising in that peers, being language learners themselves, are unlikely to be experts in grammar. Technology use, the least emergent issue in the reviewed literature, was found to be more effective when it was accompanied by appropriate guidance from teachers than when it was implemented as a stand-alone intervention. Typically, the studies in the literature revealed that technology use was effective in promoting emotional, motivational, and structural and topic changes than grammatical and linguistic changes. Technology use was accompanied with teacher feedback or peer feedback as interventions in many studies. This trend seems natural that technology is still a new intervention in writing pedagogy and needs more understanding in comparison with other traditional interventions.

Methodology

The Data Source

The study case is a private university in Taipei. The data includes students' scores, class attendance, students' composition assignments (10 for the second semesters), and a questionnaire. Participants were studying French composition as a 2 hour/week required course in the French Department. The characteristics of the data source and research object are as follows:

1. French composition II is a course followed by junior students, but also open to all the students of the university.
2. The instructor used French and Chinese to teach during the class because students had learned French only for two years.
3. 21 students took the class during the two consecutive semesters.
4. Students wrote 10 texts during the second semester, all corrected by the instructor.
5. The course was divided into two periods: during the first hour, the teacher gave students teaching material in French (with Chinese translation). We studied one topic per week, such as interview for a job, sport, writing a biography, travels, making wishes, etc. The material included dialogues, vocabulary, and grammar (see appendix 1). During the second hour, students had to write a composition in relation with the topic presented by the teacher during the first hour (including using the vocabulary studied and grammatical points), sometimes as part of a small team, sometines on their own.
6. The score for each composition is broken into five parts: S. for syntax; V. for vocabulary; L. for logic; G. for grammar; C. for content. Taiwanese students are graded on 100. Therefore, each part counts 20% of the total. The minimum passing score is 60/100.

7. Students could use their smartphone and the teaching material provided by the teacher. Of course, the instructor made it clear they had to use their imagination and write an original story. We talked numerous times about the issue of plagiarism.
8. Mechanical error correction strategy or direct correction was used to correct each one of the papers written by student, individually and in group. Moreover, the week following the exercise, the instructor provided oral explanation regarding grammar and recurrent grammatical and syntactical errors notably highlighting most common mistakes made by students.
9. All names have been removed for the sake of privacy. This study is anonymous.

Empirical Study

It would be difficult to comment upon all the various mistakes made by students in such a short article; therefore, this study will only list some of the most common errors and then provide two in-depth examples of important mistakes made by Taiwanese students who wrote compositions in French (see appendices).

1. The influence of English, that is, the mixture of the French (français) and English (anglais) languages and the errors due to the influence of English syntactical and grammatical rules. The most notable would be:
   a. The place of the adjective in a sentence: *a blue sky* becomes *un bleu ciel* instead of *un ciel bleu*.
   b. The place of the adverb: *he often goes to Paris* becomes *il souvent va à Paris* instead of *il va souvent à Paris*.
   c. Professions in English and in French: *I am a professor* becomes *je suis un professor* instead of *je suis professeur*.
   d. The use of to be in English / to have in French: *I am 20 years old* becomes *je suis 20 ans* instead of *j'ai 20 ans*.
   e. The use of I can in English / je sais in French: *I can speak English* becomes *je peux parler français* instead of *je sais parler français*.
2. Punctuation, capitalization, and accents.
   Students generally respect the rules of punctuation. One of the most common errors is placing a comma before et, like in English: *il aime le café, le lait, et le thé* instead of *il aime le café, le lait et le thé* (*he likes coffee, milk, and tea*).
   Most students struggle to use the apostrophe correctly. One could say that sometimes, they just don't pay attention, are too tired and have a problem of focus, because they know the rules. L'élision (an elision or deletion: omission of one or more sounds, such as a vowel, a consonant, or a whole syllable in a word or phrase): je、jusque、le、la、me、ne、que、se、te、de + vowel : je + ai + j'ai ; la + université = l'université ; ce + est = c'est ; le + éléphant = l'éléphant.
   French capitalization rules might be disturbing for Anglo-Saxon students, and even more for Chinese students. Here are a few rules:
   First person singular subject pronoun (*je*), unless it's at the beginning of the sentence (*Je*).
   Days of the week, months of the year are not capitalized in French (*lundi* for *Monday*).

Geographical words: *Mont Blanc* in English is *le mont Blanc* in French.
Languages: *I speak French* is *je parle français*, not *je parle Français* (very common mistake in students' compositions).
French adjectives that refer to nationalities are not capitalized, but proper nouns are: *I saw a Canadian* is *j'ai vu un Canadien*. But *I'm American* is *je suis américain*.
Students make relatively few mistakes regarding the French accents. Their biggest problem would be the use of the passé composé: *il a abandonner* instead of *il a abandonné* (he abandonned).

3. Les faux amis (false cognates)

Many French words look like English words, but the meaning is sometimes different.

Table 1: Examples of false cognates

une caméra	a movie camera
un appareil photo	a camera
un chat	a cat
une conversation	a chat
car (parce que)	because
une voiture	a car
le caractère	character, temperament
a character	un personnage
une pièce de monnaie	a coin
un coin	a corner

The instructor needs not only to correct students' compositions as often and as regularly as possible, but also to give an oral explanation during the class after the test. To make sure students are aware of the type of mistakes they make, the teacher should also make a list of their most common mistakes. In the second part of this study, we are going to analyze and comment on the results. Did students make more progress because the teacher gave them assignments very regularly, with a correction of the paper and an oral correction after the text? Did they have better scores when working individually or in group?

Table 2: General comparison of different average scores between the texts written individually and those in group

Texts written during the class	Average score of all students & texts	S.	V.	L.	G.	C.
5 texts written by students individually	71.1	13.5	14.4	15.2	13.4	14.6
5 texts written by students in group	75.8	14.2	15.1	16.1	14.3	16.1
Average progress of texts written in-group compare to those individually	6.7%	5.2%	5.0%	6.0%	6.8%	10.3%

Note. S. for syntax; V. for vocabulary; L. for logic; G. for grammar; C. for content.

Table 2 shows the comparison of different average scores for five texts written by students individually and five written in group. The data shows that the average score of texts written in group is higher. Are these rigorous results in all aspects of the texts (such as: syntax, vocabulary, logic, grammar, and content) due to students' teamwork effort, or only because the five texts written in group were written during the second half semester when students had already made progress after 2 months of training? In order to reduce the influence of the latter reason, one of the texts written by students individually was written at the end of semester. That is, among the five texts written by students individually, four were written in the first half of the semester and one at the end of semester. In fact, the average score of the five texts written by students individually remained almost the same at 71.1/100. Because the teacher allowed students to select their five best scores among the ten texts they wrote and they already had enough good scores. The data in Table 2 also reveals that the scores progress about 5% to 6% for the texts written in group compared to those written individually, notably in the aspect of text content, which even reaches 10.3%. That is, when working together, students write more and better, they make less grammatical errors and the content of their composition is much richer, as they discuss during the class and share their knowledge. In fact, this is a form of peer review, as they correct each other "live", during the writing process.

Table 3: Detailed comparison of different average scores between the texts written individually and those in group

Students	Texts written individually						Texts written in group					
	total	S.	V.	L.	G.	C.	total	S.	V.	L.	G.	C.
Students' Average	71.1	13.5	14.4	15.2	13.4	14.6	75.8	14.2	15.1	16.1	14.3	16.1
1	63.4	11.8	13.0	13.8	11.6	13.2	71.3	13.3	14.0	15.3	13.5	15.3
2	68.8	12.6	14.0	15.0	12.8	14.4	76.3	13.8	15.0	16.5	14.5	16.5
3	78.4	14.8	15.8	16.8	14.8	16.2	73.0	13.2	14.4	15.8	13.8	15.8
4	67.8	12.5	14.0	14.5	13.0	13.8	73.0	13.2	14.4	15.8	13.8	15.8
5	52.5	10.0	11.0	11.5	9.0	11.0	78.0	15.0	15.0	16.5	15.0	16.5
6	83.0	16.3	16.8	17.3	15.8	17.0	84.8	16.2	17.2	17.6	16.0	17.8
7	83.6	16.4	17.0	17.4	16.0	16.8	84.8	16.2	17.2	17.6	16.0	17.8
8	82.8	16.2	16.6	17.2	16.0	16.8	84.8	16.2	17.2	17.6	16.0	17.8
9	54.0	10.3	10.7	12.3	9.7	11.0	78.7	15.0	15.3	16.7	15.0	16.7
10	86.8	17.2	17.8	17.8	16.8	17.2	84.8	16.2	17.2	17.6	16.0	17.8
11	73.4	13.8	15.2	15.8	13.6	15.0	67.0	12.4	13.4	14.4	12.4	14.4
12	66.4	12.6	12.8	14.2	13.0	13.8	67.0	12.4	13.4	14.4	12.4	14.4
13	69.4	13.0	14.2	14.8	13.0	14.4	67.0	12.4	13.4	14.4	12.4	14.4
14	75.6	14.6	15.0	15.8	14.6	15.6	84.8	16.2	17.2	17.6	16.0	17.8
15	60.2	11.2	12.4	13.4	10.8	12.4	72.4	13.4	14.4	15.6	13.6	15.4
16	74.8	14.0	15.4	16.0	14.0	15.4	79.0	15.0	15.8	16.8	14.8	16.6
17	80.6	15.4	16.2	17.2	15.4	16.4	79.0	15.0	15.8	16.8	14.8	16.6
18	71.6	13.6	14.8	15.4	13.2	14.6	79.3	15.0	15.8	16.8	15.0	16.8
19	63.2	11.6	12.6	13.6	11.8	13.6	67.0	12.4	13.4	14.4	12.4	14.4
20	69.8	13.4	14.0	15.2	12.8	14.4	72.7	13.7	14.3	15.7	13.7	15.3
21	67.0	12.8	13.5	14.5	12.8	13.5	68.3	12.7	14.0	15.0	12.3	14.3

Note. S. for syntax; V. for vocabulary; L. for logic; G. for grammar; C. for content.

Table 4: Average progress of texts written in group.

Students	Average progress of texts written in group (in %)					
	Total	S.	V.	L.	G.	C.
Students' Average	6.7	5.2	5.0	6.0	6.8	10.3
1	12.4	12.3	7.7	10.5	16.4	15.5
2	10.8	9.1	7.1	10.0	13.3	14.6
3	-6.9	-10.8	-8.9	-6.0	-6.8	-2.5
4	7.7	5.6	2.9	9.0	6.2	14.9
5	48.6	50.0	36.4	43.5	66.7	50.0
6	2.2	-0.3	2.7	2.0	1.6	4.7
7	1.4	-1.2	1.2	1.1	0.0	6.0
8	2.4	0.0	3.6	2.3	0.0	6.0
9	45.7	45.2	43.8	35.1	55.2	51.5
10	-2.3	-5.8	-3.4	-1.1	-4.8	3.5
11	-8.7	-10.1	-11.8	-8.9	-8.8	-4.0
12	0.9	-1.6	4.7	1.4	-4.6	4.3
13	-3.5	-4.6	-5.6	-2.7	-4.6	0.0
14	12.2	11.0	14.7	11.4	9.6	14.1
15	20.3	19.6	16.1	16.4	25.9	24.2
16	5.6	7.1	2.6	5.0	5.7	7.8
17	-2.0	-2.6	-2.5	-2.3	-3.9	1.2
18	10.7	10.3	6.4	8.8	13.6	14.7
19	6.0	6.9	6.3	5.9	5.1	5.9
20	4.1	2.0	2.4	3.1	6.8	6.5
21	2.0	-0.7	3.7	3.4	-3.3	6.2

Note. S. for syntax; V. for vocabulary; L. for logic; G. for grammar; C. for content.

Do all students always perform better while doing teamwork? The answer is no. Table 3 and 4 compare each student's average scores of five texts written individually and those in group. We find that student 3, student 10, student 11, student 13 and student 17 have worse performance while writing a French composition text with others. Notably for student 3 and student 11, the average scores in group regress 6.9% and 8.7% respectively; and the average syntax score in group both regresses about 10%. Because student 3's three partners have lower French writing performance compared to him, student 3 seems to have difficulty sharing his knowledge with his partners and maintaining his writing level.

The reason for the score regression concerning student 11 is the same as student 3. This implies that if a student is unable to dominate the whole task, working with partners having higher level can improve his/her writing performance. However, if a student cannot communicate clearly with his/her team members, he/she will lose points. Many factors may influence the outcome: teamwork skill, time management, communication skill, but also fear to show off and to be considered arrogant by the other team members.

Table 3 and 4 also reveal that student 5, student 9, and student 15 who had the lowest scores made enormous progress and they benefited highly from working in a team (48.6%, 45.7% and 20.3% respectively). This proves that choosing partners with higher level can improve performance; or, that the opinions of students with lower writing performance are often ignored in a working group (I would say it is very unlikely, because I observed students during the class, and they all seemed to participate actively).
The coefficient of variation (CV) is the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean (average).

Table 5: Variance coefficient (in %) for the 5 indicators

CV	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Text 4	Text 5	Text 6	Text 7	Text 8	Text 9	Text 10
Syntax	26.4 %	18.7 %	7.2%	17.6 %	16.7 %	13.1 %	13.0 %	13.5 %	10.6 %	8.7%
Vocabulary	24.2 %	15.6 %	6.2%	15.5 %	14.4 %	11.8 %	11.3 %	12.5 %	10.7 %	7.2%
Logic	19.8 %	17.4 %	5.6%	12.2 %	11.1 %	8.9%	8.8%	13.3 %	9.5%	4.9%
Grammar	27.7 %	17.4 %	6.6%	18.3 %	17.3 %	11.2 %	13.0 %	12.5 %	9.3%	8.7%
Content	24.1 %	13.0 %	4.7%	16.0 %	14.0 %	9.8%	11.4 %	10.9 %	9.5%	4.9%
Total	23.4 %	16.0 %	5.7%	15.4 %	14.2 %	10.6 %	11.3 %	12.4 %	9.7%	6.6%

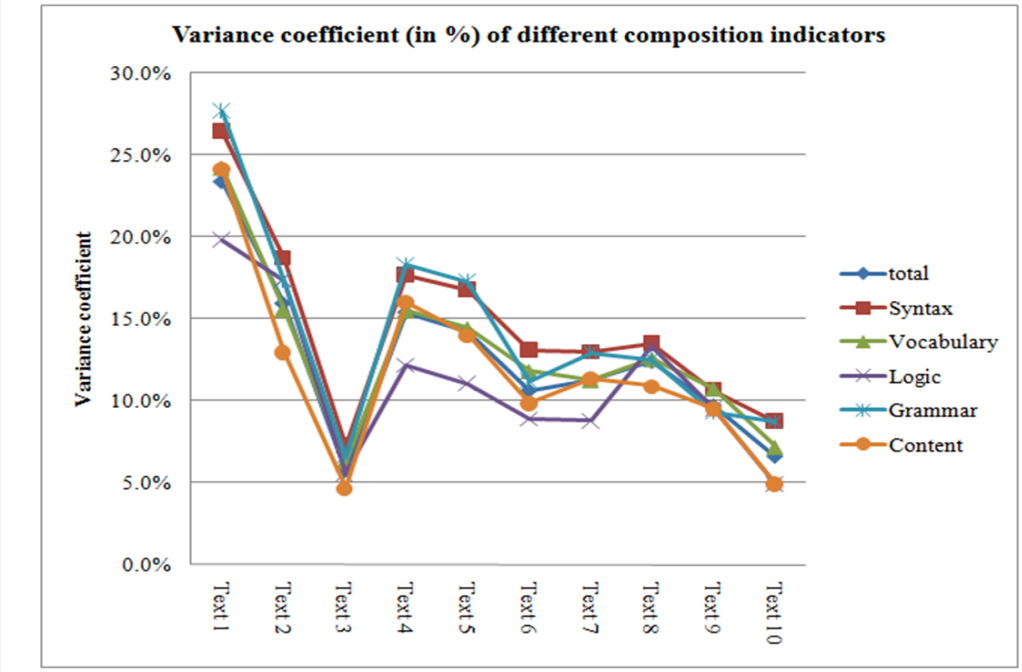

Figure 1: Variance coefficient (in %) of different composition indicators

Text 3 (make wishes) and text 10 (interview for a job) have the lowest variance coefficients (5.7 and 6.6 respectively). Text 1 (writing a biography) and 2 (your favorite novel) have the highest coefficients (23.4 and 16 respectively).

Students' satisfaction with the course

The number of students who were absent during the class was relatively low. They are various reasons why students would miss the class: sick leave, personal reason and family emergency…The teacher allows students to use their smartphone to help them find information and check online dictionaries and grammars. As they must finish the text at the end of the class, they really do not have the luxury to play with their phone. Writing a short text is French is difficult and they cannot afford to waste any time.

Table 6: Number of students absent/10 texts

Texts	Number of students absent
Text 1	4
Text 2	4
Text 3	0
Text 4	2
Text 5	0
Text 6	0
Text 7	3
Text 8	5
Text 9	1
Text 10	3

Answers to the end of semester questionnaire (June 2016) were quite positive. Students were generally satisfied with their score and fairness of grading. They believed the assignments were clearly explained and were happy with teacher's feedback and comments. To the question "The course helped you improve your writing?", almost all the students answered strongly agree or agree.

Interestingly, most students preferred to write on paper than on the computer (which takes more time, especially to type French accents). Most students also answered that their biggest problems are grammar and getting ideas onto the paper.

Concerning teamwork, there was a high number of students who answered that they played a dominant role in the writing process. Others said they wrote part of the text. Teamwork was successful and each student participated in the group. Each member of the team was assigned a role, such as looking for information on the Internet, discussing ideas and the plan of the composition, writing the text, check grammar and syntax, etc.

Conclusion

This study shows that most students benefit from writing French composition on a regular basis. Moreover, most of them (but not all) make substantial progress in writing and have higher scores when doing teamwork. Generally, there are 3-4 students in a team. Many of them answered they played a dominant role in the writing process. Doing teamwork was also an opportunity for students to do peer-feedback, that is, to correct each other during the class and to share their knowledge (vocabulary, grammar, culture). Students were allowed to use various types of technology during the class while writing their compositions, such as electronic dictionary, to blogs, teacher's Facebook page dedicated to French Language and culture, languages learning web pages, etc. Of course, it was made clear that students could not copy content and French sentences online and that they were not allowed not play with their smartphone. They found out that time is passing very quickly and that they had no time to waste if they wanted to finish their assignment before the end of the class.

Suggestions

- Correcting almost one composition per week is time-consumming, but worth it. Students appreciate it and can quickly measure their progress in writing. Generally, at least for students who work seriously and regularly, scores get higher.
- Giving feedback orally after the test is particularly useful, especially when pointing out some recurrent and common mistakes that could easily be avoided. Therefore, a combination of written comments and verbal feedback is effective in enhancing students' writing performance.

The instructor also created a Facebook page, but it was open to everybody and it was not a requirement for student to follow the posts. However, most of them followed the teacher's post on the page called "J'aime votre accent". This page was open from September 2015 to June 2016. It shared info, pictures, links and comments on France and French language.

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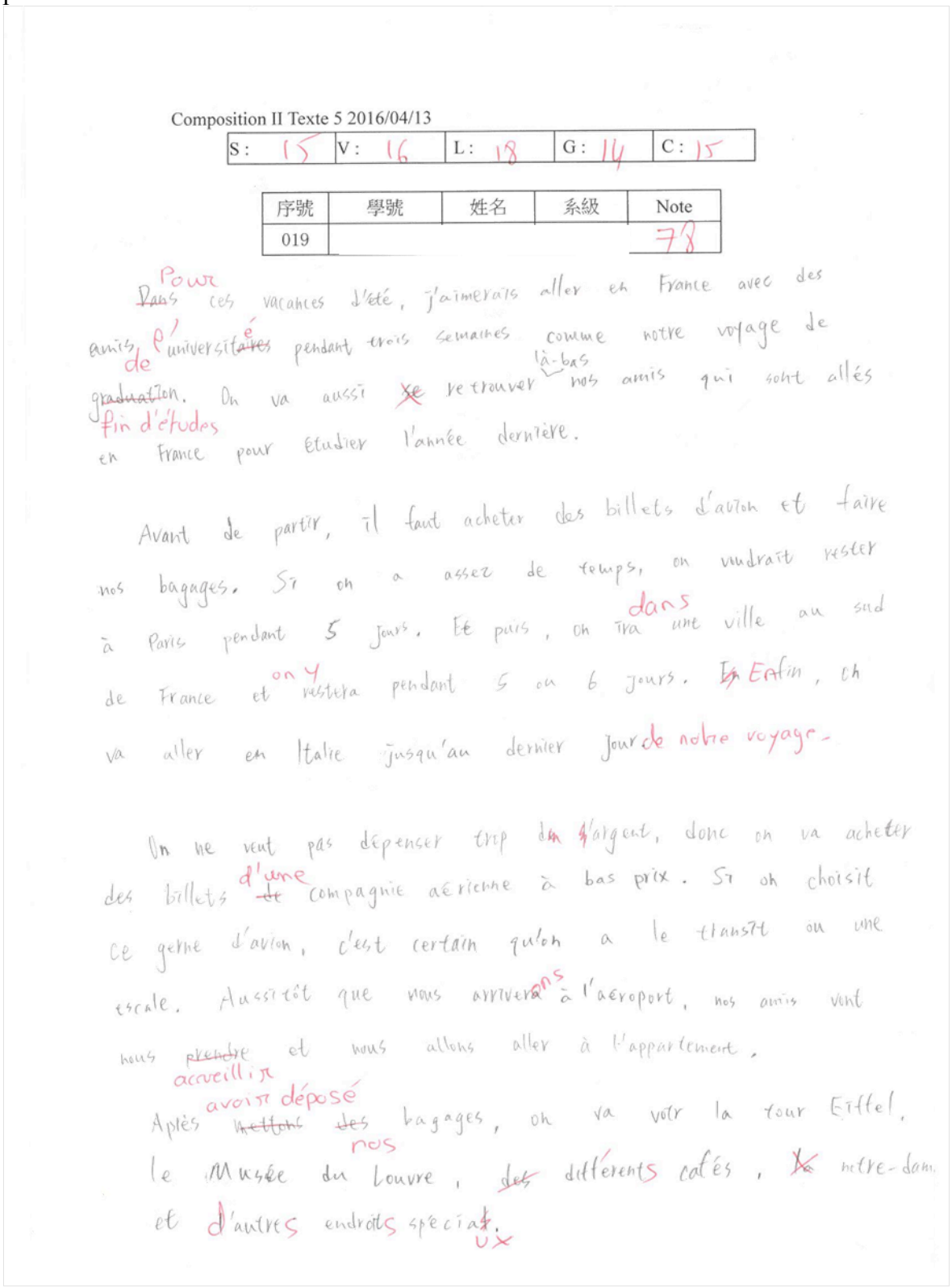
Appendix 1. Topic for the 10 texts written during the second semester

March 09 Texte 1	Ecrire une biographie. Imparfait et passé simple.
March 16 Texte 2	Quel est votre roman préféré. Pourquoi ? Presentez l'écrivain, le récit et les personnages principaux.
March 23 Texte 3	Ecrivez un conte basé sur Aladin. Vous avez un génie et 3 souhaits.
March 30 Texte 4	Faire un résumé. Exemple, le Fantôme de l'Opéra.
April 13 Texte 5	Vous passez un week-end à Monaco avec vos amis ou votre famille.
April 27 Texte 6	Quel est votre sport préféré ? Présenter les sports préférés à Taiwan et en France.
May 04 Texte 7	Faire une comparaison entre Taiwan et la France. Différences et points communs.
May 11 Texte 8	Guide touristique: Présenter un site taiwanais, un monument ou une ville.
May 18 Texte 9	La peinture impressionniste. Présenter un peintre et une de ses oeuvres.
May 25 Texte 10	Interview pour un emploi.

Appendix 2. Sample of composition during the second semester: travelling in France by plane



Composition II Texte 5 2016/04/13

S: 15	V: 16	L: 18	G: 14	C: 15

序號	學號	姓名	系級	Note
019				78

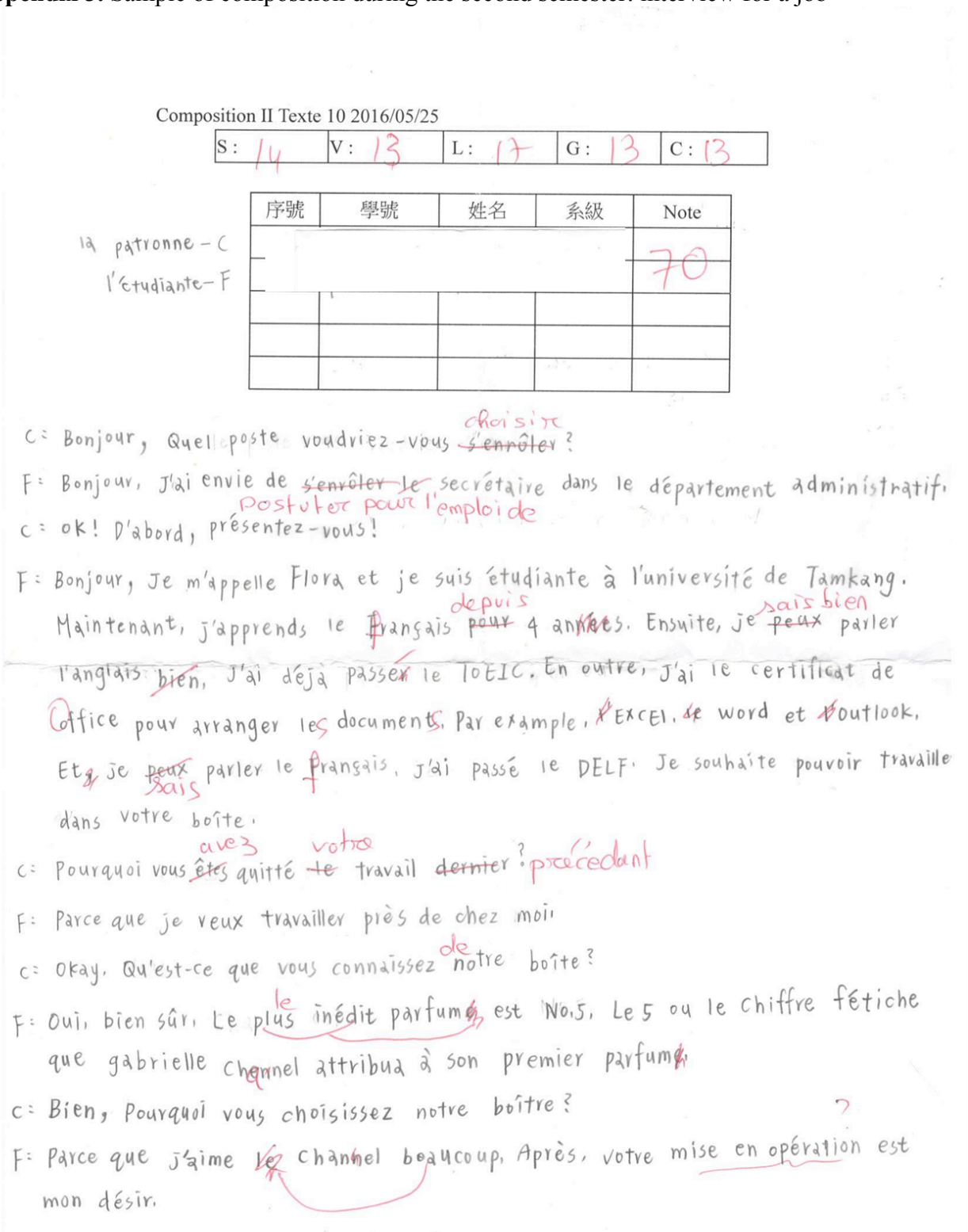
Pour ces vacances d'été, j'aimerais aller en France avec des amis de l'université pendant trois semaines comme notre voyage de graduation. On va aussi ~~se~~ retrouver là-bas nos amis qui sont allés en France pour étudier l'année dernière. fin d'études

Avant de partir, il faut acheter des billets d'avion et faire nos bagages. Si on a assez de temps, on voudrait rester à Paris pendant 5 jours. Et puis, on ira dans une ville au sud de France et y restera pendant 5 ou 6 jours. ~~En~~ Enfin, on va aller en Italie jusqu'au dernier jour de notre voyage.

On ne veut pas dépenser trop ~~de~~ d'argent, donc on va acheter des billets ~~de~~ d'une compagnie aérienne à bas prix. Si on choisit ce genre d'avion, c'est certain qu'on a le transit ou une escale. Aussitôt que nous arriverons à l'aéroport, nos amis vont nous ~~prendre~~ accueillir et nous allons aller à l'appartement.

Après avoir déposé ~~nos~~ nos bagages, on va voir la tour Eiffel, le Musée du Louvre, ~~des~~ différents cafés, ~~la~~ notre-dame et d'autres endroits spéciaux.

Appendix 3. Sample of composition during the second semester: interview for a job



Composition II Texte 10 2016/05/25

S: 14	V: 13	L: 17	G: 13	C: 13

序號	學號	姓名	系級	Note
				70

la patronne – C
l'étudiante – F

C: Bonjour, Quel poste voudriez-vous ~~s'enrôler~~ choisir ?

F: Bonjour, J'ai envie de ~~s'enrôler le~~ secrétaire dans le département administratif.

C: ok! D'abord, présentez-vous! Postuler pour l'emploi de

F: Bonjour, Je m'appelle Flora et je suis étudiante à l'université de Tamkang. Maintenant, j'apprends le ~~F~~français ~~pour~~ depuis 4 ~~ann~~années. Ensuite, je ~~peux~~ sais bien parler l'anglais ~~bien~~, J'ai déjà passé~~r~~ le TOEIC. En outre, J'ai le certificat de Office pour arranger les documents. Par example, ~~E~~EXCEL, ~~de~~ word et ~~O~~outlook. Et ~~je~~ ~~peux~~ sais parler le ~~F~~français, J'ai passé le DELF. Je souhaite pouvoir travaille dans votre boîte.

C: Pourquoi vous ~~êtes~~ avez quitté ~~le~~ votre travail ~~dernier~~ précédant ?

F: Parce que je veux travailler près de chez moi.

C: Okay. Qu'est-ce que vous connaissez de notre boîte ?

F: Oui, bien sûr, Le plus le inédit parfum~~e~~, est No.5, Le 5 ou le chiffre fétiche que gabrielle ~~C~~channel attribua à son premier parfum~~e~~.

C: Bien, Pourquoi vous choisissez notre boître ?

F: Parce que j'aime ~~le~~ Channel beaucoup, Après, votre mise en opération est mon désir.

Appendix 4. Questionnaire (anonymous, composition class, June 2016)

1. The course helped you improve your writing
   1) Strongly Agree 2) Agree 3) No opinion 4) Disagree 5) Strongly Disagree
2. Writing a composition and having a correction and feedback every week helped you progress
   1) Strongly Agree 2) Agree 3) No opinion 4) Disagree 5) Strongly Disagree
3. I prefer to write my compositions
   1) Alone
   2) Teamwork, with 1 or more classmates
   3) Sometime alone, sometime with 1 or more classmates
4. If you do teamwork, with how many persons in a group?
   1) 2 persons 2) 3 persons 3) 4 persons 4) more than 4 persons
5. Compare to writing a composition alone, do you progress more doing teamwork?
   1) Strongly Agree 2) Agree 3) No opinion 4) Disagree 5) Strongly Disagree
6. What is your general role in teamwork?
   1) Dominant (main writer) 2) Write a part of the text 3) Check for information online
7. Do you follow teacher's Facebook French group ("J'aime votre accent")?
   1) A lot 2) Sometimes 3) Seldom 4) Never
8. Do you refer to your previous 5 indicators scores and/or written comments in the composition exercises?
   1) A lot 2) Sometimes 3) Seldom 4) Never
9. Is it important to you that teacher gives separately 5 indicators' scores in each composition exercise? (Vocabulary, syntax, logic, grammar, content)
   1)Very important 2) Important 3) No opinion 4) Less important 5) Not important
10. Do you prefer to write compositions during the class or as an assignment after the class?
    1) during the class 2) after the class 3) no difference
11. What is your final score of Composition II at the end of previous semester?
    1) >90 2) 85≤x<90 3) 80≤x<85 4) 75≤x<80
    5) 70≤x<75 6) 65≤x<70 7) 60≤x<65 8) x<60 9) I didn't follow the course.
12. Do you think this score is fair?
    1) Strongly Agree 2) Agree 3) No opinion 4) Disagree 5) Strongly Disagree
    6) I didn't follow the course.
13. Writing assignments in this course were clearly explained.

1) Strongly Agree 2) Agree 3) No opinion 4) Disagree 5) Strongly Disagree

14. You consider yourself a(n) _____ writer.
1) excellent 2) good 3) average 4) poor

15. You like to write _____.
(multiple choices)
1) letters 2) in a diary/journal 3) stories 4) poetry 5) essays 6) nothing 7) other: _____

16. You have trouble with _____ when you are writing. (multiple choices)
1) organization 2) punctuation 3) thinking of things to write about 4) getting ideas out of my head and onto the paper 5) grammar 6) vocabulary 7) syntax 8) other:

17. The teacher tried to cover as many topics as possible (music, sport, cinema, family, travel…). What kinds of topics do you prefer? (Multiple choices)

1) Vous avez mangé dans un restaurant à Paris. Racontez votre experience
2) Présentez la culture chinoise et taiwanaise à un Français
3) Faire une description physique
4) Faire son CV en français
5) Se présenter
6) Un alibi. Un crime a été commis
7) Un accident de la circulation, aller à l'hôpital
8) Fonder un groupe de musique et jouer en public
9) La santé et le corps. Vous avez un ami qui est malade
10) Votre chambre est trop bruyante. Vous voulez déménager

18. The instructor generally followed the syllabus and announced changes from it in class.
Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

19. My instructor consistently made useful oral and/or written comments on my papers.
Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

20. Writing assignments in the course were always clearly related to the objectives of the course.
Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

21. This course is helping me in my writing for other classes.
Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

22. I prefer to write _____.
- ☐ on a computer
- ☐ on paper
- ☐ on a typewriter
- ☐ with a crayon

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