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Table of Contents

Mobile ESL Apps and Students Motivation: A Case Study
Rasha Osman Abdel Haliem pp. 1 - 17

Bridging between Different Learning Styles: Interaction between Two Korean College Students during Collaborative L2 Tasks
Semi J. Yeom pp. 19 - 28

The Effectiveness of Active Learning Techniques in Courses on Informative Speech
Terese Mendiguren
Antxoka Agirre
Leire Iturregi pp. 29 - 41

Rhetorical Moves in the Introduction Section of Dissertations in International Relations: A Study From Turkey
Ece Selva Küçükoğlu pp. 43 - 48

How Are Indonesian Families in England Involved in Their Children's L2 Acquisition?
Aris Bahari Rizki pp. 49 - 56

Gaining Insight into Culture through a Chinese Classical Novel: The Story of the Stone
An-Chi Lin pp. 57 - 66

Teachers' Perceptions on Reflective Practices in Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study
Samar Wahba pp. 67 - 81

Using a Web-based Video Annotation Tool in Pre-service Teacher Education: Affordances and Constraints
Hande Serdar Tülüce pp. 83 - 92

Cultural Values and their Effect on Learner Autonomy in an Omani EFL Context
Zubaida Shebani pp. 93 - 102

Errors Analysis of Spelling Among University Students of English in Jordan: An Analytical Study
Jibrel Harb pp. 103 - 114

Possible L2 Selves: A Case Study in a Thai Context
Thiratchapon Kamsa-ard pp. 115 - 127

Mobile ESL Apps and Students Motivation: A Case Study

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Abstract
Using mobile ESL apps greatly impacts students' motivation. The main reason for using mobile apps is that the students learn in an engaging way using online/offline tools. Using mobile apps support the usual face to face learning by encouraging students to practice the language with the help of various multimedia-based assignments. This approach inspires learners to know more and discover L2 by using their smartphones. The use of portable technologies makes it easier for learners to study whenever and wherever they want. It also facilitates 'just-in-time' learning, where learners can often take advantage of unexpected free time, since they frequently have their devices with them. Learners can create, share, and adapt their own content and evaluate these in social media networks of peers, colleagues or others that are not necessarily sharing the same lesson or classroom, expanding the learning experience beyond the traditional teacher-centered classroom model. The researcher will survey some free mobile ESL apps, online and off-line, show how mobile ESL apps increased her students' sense of control and autonomy over their learning and reflect on the way the apps were used to improve students' ESL skills. The researcher will also share best practices on how mobile ESL apps can be used to motivate students and enhance the processes of teaching and learning.

Keywords: Mobile apps, m-learning, language learning motivation, technology, interactive, learning, teaching, ESL classroom

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Introduction

Language learning is influenced by many factors. Motivation, attitude, interests, age, methods, will and character unquestionably affect language learning. Motivation is a force that energizes and directs behavior. In language learning, motivation drives students forward in English learning, and make them exert extra effort to acquire the language. One way to increase intrinsic motivation is using mobile ESL apps. Making students get the habit of using mobile apps in language learning, make them active learners, and increase their inclination to experiment and perform willingly. This case study investigates the impact of using mobile apps in sustaining students' motivation. Initially, motivation is defined, then mobile learning and the use of mobile apps in the ESL classroom are reviewed. Then, the researcher shows how mobile apps were used in her educational context as a tool to enhance students' interest and to keep them motivated. Once motivated, students can work on their own to improve their language skills and use the language to enhance their educational and professional opportunities.

Using mobile ESL apps greatly impacts students' motivation. The main reason for using mobile apps is that the students learn in an engaging way using online/offline tools. Using mobile apps support the usual face to face learning by encouraging students to practice the language with the help of various multimedia-based assignments. This approach inspires learners to know more and discover L2 by using their smartphones. The use of portable technologies makes it easier for learners to study whenever and wherever they want. It also facilitates 'just-in-time' learning, where learners can often take advantage of unexpected free time, since they frequently have their devices with them. Learners can create, share, and adapt their own content and evaluate these in social media networks of peers, colleagues or others that are not necessarily sharing the same lesson or classroom, expanding the learning experience beyond the traditional teacher-centered classroom model (Anderson 2015; Statista 2016; Backowski 2017). The paper will survey some free mobile apps, online and off-line, show how mobile ESL apps increased students' sense of control and autonomy over their learning and improved their skills. The paper will also share best practices on how mobile ESL apps can be used to motivate students and enhance the processes of teaching and learning.

Literature Review

Using technology in ESL teaching/learning is booming on daily bases. MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning) is also tried and advocated by many teachers (Traxler and Kukulska-Hulme, 2015, 8). In the context of Egypt, teaching English is quiet challenging especially in universities. Students are overwhelmed with their subjects and many (especially those who were in public schools) have not been introduced to using mobile phones in teaching/learning. Technology offers wide opportunities to learners especially in language learning. Technology is enhancing the teaching/learning experience in Egypt though the internet availability and infra-structure is ineffective. Mobile devices (cell phones, smart phones and tablets) can enhance the learning experience via increasing student motivation (Schunk et al. 2013, 34). Many teachers worldwide use these devices in the ESL classroom on daily bases, others evade using technology (McQuiggan et al 2015, 8). Teachers play a relevant role in choosing the correct tool and on training students on the use of such

tool. Teachers also help in encouraging students use such tools on their own to improve their educational and professional opportunities.

Motivation and Language Learning

Motivation is generally defined as any force that triggers, directs or maintains behavior towards a certain goal. Motivation stimulates actions and directs behavior. A motivated individual shows interest towards a subject and exerts effort to attain a certain level of mastery towards that subject. Motivation is considered the key in terms of language learning because it drives behaviors, enhances students' efforts and encourages students centered learning. Motivation is divided into extrinsic and intrinsic. Intrinsic is considered the real driving force. Nonetheless, extrinsic motivation can be a tool that can enhance the inner desire. Teachers use tools (extrinsic motivators) that can enhance students inner drive. Extrinsic motivation is as an outward force in the form of expectation, praise and rewards (Gunby and Schutz 2016, 7).

In language learning motivation includes students' purpose of learning. It encompasses their desire for knowledge, competence, and growth. Students with intrinsic motivation study English independently, experiment with the language and do challenging tasks. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are relevant, inseparable and complementary to each other in English language learning. Nonetheless, intrinsic motivation is more relevant as it is the inner drive that propels students forward and onward. Knowing about the relevance of motivation in language learning made me concerned about trying to find tools that sustain intrinsic motivation. I was interested about using mobile apps to enhance the teaching and learning experience. Currently, teachers are using mobile apps to motivate students and enhance the teaching and learning process. As Scott McQuiggan et al (2015) explain: "mobile learning provides a new way to motivate students by providing high level of engagement and novelty, personalization, and autonomy. The ability to constantly use new apps and find new ways to use the device keeps it fresh and interesting for students (12)."

M-learning

Definition and Historical Background

As Trifonova and Ronchetti (2003) explain that mobile learning is using IT in enhancing the teaching/ learning experience through mobile devices. Mobile are used to help us perform our lives' affairs; they can also be helpful medium that transfer content and enhance teaching the four skills, the learning experience, cooperative learning and self-study. Mobile learning is widely used and developing continuously in the United States, United Kingdom, and other European countries while it is still emerging in Egypt.

Dickey (2001) used teleconferencing to teach conversation. Standford Learning Labs studied the impact of using mobile in language learning and reach the conclusion that it enhances the teaching/ learning experience (Brown 2001). Likewise, Thornton and Houser (2002; 2003; 2005) also used mobile phones to teach English in a Japanese university with the likening of students. Houser (2003) used mobile in surveying students. Kiernan and Aizawa (2004) explored the use of mobile in task-based

learning. Atewell (2004) enforces the positive effect of integrating mobile in language namely enhancing students' rapport and engagement. Mcneal and Hooft (2006) assert the idea that mobile phones are not widely used in teaching ESL as some teachers evade this tool for fear of integrating technology. Chen, Hsieh, and Kinshuk (2008) enforced the positive effect on using mobile in English vocabulary teaching/learning. Funding is a challenge still Gilgen (2004) has demonstrates the possibilities of developing mobile labs for schools with limited funding.

Janelle Wills (2010) highlighted the positive effect of using mobile learning in language teaching for the ideas of accessibility at any time, any place, and extending the learning behind the walls of the classroom. Motteram (2013), Tomlinson and Whittaker (2013), Hockly (2009), (2013), (2015) cover the development of the use mobile in education. Teacher can use internet access, SMS, MMs, Facebook, Twitter, mp3/mp4 player, digital camera, video recording, running multimedia content. Some mobiles have special inbuilt learning software such as e-dictionary, flash-card software, quiz software and others. Voice recording and listening: students can record their communication in English and listen to it later to work on their weaknesses. Listening to audios and videos can help them improve their listening skills. Tasks give relevance and value to the tools and giving students tasks make them get the habit of using the tool.

Origin and History

The use of mobile devices started at the early 19970s as researchers began to use The Dynabook by Xerox in the early 1970's. The researchers were targeting a "A personal computer for children of all ages" which was produced at $294 in 1972 money, roughly $1721 today. Practical mobile learning really started around early 2000's. New technologies and social needs and preferences led to a variety of portable devices.

Advantages of Using Mobile in Higher Education

To prove the importance of mobiles in modern language teaching it has to be highlighted what mobiles can offer for teachers and students. One of the main advantages of using mobile in education is that they make it possible to individualize the teaching-learning process. Students can learn at a pace appropriate to their own level of language skills, which means that it is the learner who determines the progress and often the range of materials being taught or practiced. It enhances motivation as students use their phones all through the day in all matters but education.

Mobile learning, the use of portable electronic devices to access and share information, is a trend in higher education, and is redefining the manner in which learning takes place and how instruction is delivered (Geist, 2011; Miller, 2012). Mobile learning presents students and professionals with the unique opportunity to access information instantaneously regardless of location (Rossing, Miller, Cecil, & Stamper, 2012). This means that learning can occur anywhere at any time through the use of these devices. Devices commonly used are smartphones with Android. (Kessler, 2012). literature related to device use at the collegiate level is proving to be positive influence on student learning. (Kolowich, 2012; Rossing et. al, 2012).

Students report that use of mobile devices allows them to adapt course content to fit their learning style and pace (Rossing et. al, 2012).

A key issue of integrating mobile apps is engaging and empowering students, extending the learning beyond the walls of the classroom, and enforcing the idea that students play a definite role in their own education. Deborah Healy (2016) "the teacher and the learner also have important roles to play" (13). Healy (2016) calls for using "advantage of the opportunities [mobile] … devices offer" and training students to use "tools at their command to create their own pathways to learning language" (18). She asserts the teachers' role in helping unskilled students choose helpful resources and letting skilled work on their own and return to their teachers for guidance. All the previous studies enforce the idea of the role mobile apps in enhancing students' motivation, teaching the four skills, improving students' proficiency, enhancing the teaching/ learning experience, interaction, collaboration, and self -learning. Helen Crompton and John Traxler (2018) state:

Mobile learning (mlearning) is a potential game-changer in higher education(HE). In many countries, the adult population has more than one mobile device per person (Statista, 2016). With the rapid diffusion of mobile technologies, these devices are now in many HE institutions across the world, is now being replaced by learner-centered teaching (Wright, 2011). This approach transforms students from passive learners who only achieve surface-level learning to students actively involved in their learning, gaining a deep understanding of the concepts. Mobile devices offer new affordances to transform learning. However, this shift in learning is not simple and bigger issues need to be addressed, such as equity, scale, sustainability, and change management." (1)

Teachers' Changed Role

It is generally admitted that using the mobile for learning changes the role of the tutor and the work of the students. The student need to be guided rather than instructed, as they can find necessary information on the World Wide Web, and they can use the app according to their need. Practice showed that when students are working on their phones they pay little attention to their teacher. This requires more flexibility from the instructor in managing the lesson, and allows more time for the students to experiment (David, 2017).

Whereas mobile apps help students in language learning, it is still the tutor's responsibility to ensure that students acquire the knowledge described in the syllabus. Definitely, teachers become co-workers and facilitators rather than leaders in the lesson. Deborah Healy explains in the article "Language Learning and Technology: Past, Present and Future" (2016): "Identifying multiple roles for technology, however does not it fully address the dynamic in the classroom. The teacher and the learner also have important roles to play" (13). Besides, teachers operate as managers, as they have to pre-plan and organize students' work. Certainly, tutors have enormous responsibility in giving their students the right amount of help. Mobile apps complete tutors' work, and they have to be used in a balance with other techniques.

Advantages and Challenges of Mobile Learning

The advantages of integrating mobile apps include studying wherever and whenever, enhancing motivation, providing interesting content, working collaboratively from long distance and improving educational outcome. The challenges of using mobile apps in the ESL classroom include the need of internet access, agreement of the administration and parents, the need for teachers training, communication failure, limited battery life, limited memory size and small keyboards.

How Can Mobile Be Used in the Classroo

a. Offering Mobile Learning Material

This is one of the easiest way of mobile learning. You can offer texts, videos or audios. It's possible to do this whenever you want. Students are able to prepare homework by watching a video that the teacher has put online. It's more about individual consuming which makes it an asynchronous way of learning.

b. Interaction during lessons

If you do want to have some more interaction, you can use mobile devices during your lessons. An example of this is asking questions during your instruction. Teachers ask questions and the students will answer them on their mobile devices. Teachers are able to get immediate feedback. This is especially easy for teaching large groups.

c. Synchronous learning

Immediate feedback from your teacher or fellow students? This is possible with synchronous learning. Teachers can get direct feedback while they are at home. Teachers can interact with their students during their lectures.

Useful Free Mobile ESL Apps

Mobile learning apps are apps that help delivery of information that is convenient and interesting to the tech savvy. They also provide learners with the flexibility to learn anywhere, anytime. Some mobile learning apps work on and offline.

Google Search Engine: Students can search meanings, texts, books, videos, power point presentations, and articles.

Downloadable PDF: Free pdf infographics, articles and book can be easily downloaded

TED Conferences LLC: It includes numerous TED Talks. New talks are added on daily bases. Lectures are on all topics with the time range from five to twenty-five minutes.

TED ED: It is an excellent website that includes short animated videos on nearly all topics with assessment.

RSA Animate: This is an interesting website that has animation videos on big topics. Teachers can ask students to watch one of these videos and ask them to summarize, take notes or comment on the content.

English Test Store: This is a useful website that includes both interactive and downloadable exams on reading, writing, listening, and speaking. It also includes grammar exercises and TEOIC exams.

Wikipedia: students could search the encyclopedia and read on/offline. They do a Google search and eventually search Wikipedia once they enter the website. Once they search a topic they could close the data.

Utube: Your students could open the videos you assign. They then could summarize and comment on these videos. They watch for a reason.

TEDlang Learn English: This app is designed for ESL learners. It has subtitles.

VOA NEWS: Teachers can lead students to Voice of America website and they can read or listen to news, interviews or stories. They also have special material for learning English https://learningenglish.voanews.com/

VOA Learning English: The content is wide and useful

Bussuu: https://www.busuu.com/en/mobile

BBC Learning English: BBC is an reputable radio and television channel, and the app is really helpful.

BBC Listening English: The app is dedicated to listening and is helpful.

Oxford 500 English Conversation: The app is effective and resourceful.

IELTS Listening: Though dedicated to IELTS, still it can help students even if not preparing for IELTS listening test.

IELTS Practice Test: Another free app that can help students improve.

English Pronunciation: The app really helps students' pronunciation.

Browsing through the playstore, you will find infinite free and for money apps. Choose what you feel is helpful for your students and supports your curriculum. As for me I use mobile in different ways namely the following: I make my students download Infotech, English Vocabulary in Use, English Companion Course, and we do some parts together. Other parts are assigned to be done at home. They are great as they work offline and there no internet access available in my institute. I make my students go to Wikipedia, we read articles together on many topics. The one they love best are those on Arabic movies, writers, and celebrities as they feel English can reflect their culture. We also google many things, words, expressions proverbs. This make them get the idea that technology can help them improve. I also use TED and I assign them to watch videos and comment on them. The play store is full of apps that

are both free and for money. Browse the play store, choose the app you feel will help your students and support your curriculum. Understand the app well as you will be responsible for explaining the app for your students. In addition, your students will always come back to you for questions.

Research Problem

The research problem is: examining the impact of using mobile ESL apps on sustaining language learner motivation.

Formal Statement of Research Question

How does using mobile apps impact students' motivation and interest for the course? The research is also concerned with the question: What impact does using mobile ESL apps has on students of all levels of proficiency and if it will help improve the teaching and learning processes. The case study is also concerned about the impact of mobile learning on learners, teachers and institutions. It will also examine whether mobile learning can help improve retention, achievement, progression and attendance. The case will also trigger the idea whether reflection will empower students, give them a sense of autonomy and help them develop skills for self-directed learning.

Method

a. Research Context and Description of Participants

After carefully analyzing available researches and publications in this field, I developed the following steps for the implementation of the action research. The action research was carried out in the first semester of the academic year 2017-2018 (September- January term). It was conducted on language A students, group 9. The group (class) was comprised of 65 students, 50 students were males and 15 were females. A total of 65 students (the whole group) were enrolled in the action research.

Students were permitted to use the pdf of the book in class. They were encouraged to look up words on their online and offline dictionaries, offline pieces of comprehension were read in class over the course of a term (15 weeks). Students were oriented to online resources namely Utube, TED TED Conferences LLC, TEDlang Learn English, VOA NEWS, VOA Learning English, Bussuu, BBC Learning English, BBC Listening English, Oxford 500 English Conversation, Listening, IELTS Practice Test, and English Pronunciation. Over the course of 12 weeks, a questionnaire, and an interview for ten students were administered. 55 students responded to the questionnaire. Only 8 students of the 65 agreed to be interviewed.

As for the concerns before and while conducting the action research, I was not sure that all students would like the idea of using mobile apps in the ESL classroom. I was also concerned about the administration acceptance of the idea of making students use their mobiles in class. As for the steps I took to make things go smoothly, I spoke to my colleagues and supervisors before taking steps. I also spoke to students and explained to them the relevance of trying to use mobile apps in order to advance their educational and professional opportunities and guide their choices for further learning.

b. Instructional context

I teach in the Higher Technological Institute. I am highly interested in improving the quality of my teaching and making a real difference in students' lives. I believe in student-centered approach. I believe that using mobile apps in the classroom would increase students' motivation and help students improve and become active learners.

The 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. Most of my students are graduates of public schools only 20 per cent 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. All students understand the importance of English in practical life so they try to regularly attend, ask questions, and do the exercises I give. In addition, Some students even ask for extra material to do on their own pace. The class time is three hours. A break is given after each hour. The problems I continuously face are the different levels of students, their large numbers, different levels of proficiency and motivation. I wanted to help students get interested in learning English, enhance their proficiency so I decided to use mobile apps in the classroom.

c. Intervention Procedure

Students were asked to download the books New Interchange and Infotech, and the off-line dictionary Oxford to be used in class. Students were asked to buy data access worth 25 pounds to use the internet when needed in class. Students were oriented and used 2 mobile apps every class and were given assignments.

d. Data Collection Procedure

I collected data from the questionnaire, and the interview students. The main purpose of the questionnaire was to gather as much information as possible. I analyzed the different answers provided by the students to make sure if things were going well or the plan needs adjustment. The questionnaire was conducted at the beginning of the course. The interview was conducted at the end of the course.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was paper-based. It consisted of four parts. The first part was concerned about their attitude to technology. The second part was dedicated to their experience of using mobile internet and the third part was concerned with trends and tools of using technology in learning ESL. The fourth part was related to knowledge of future trends.
The questionnaire is included in the appendices.

Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE: Mobile in the Classroom		
Course:	**Name:**	**Date:**

A Mobile Device Use

1. Do you own a smartphone or tablet pc that is capable of accessing the Internet (whether or not you use that capability)?

2. How do you use smart phone or tablet pc?
Check all that apply.
Access e---learning tools
Browse the Internet
Download and listen to music
Download and listen to podcasts/audio books
Download and read e---books/print---based content
Download and view streaming movies/video clips
Search for information
Send and receive e---mail
Use camera to take and share pictures
Calendar
Maps
Shopping
Social networking
YouTube
Other (Please specify)

3. What is your level of comfort with your mobile device/handheld device use?
Not at all comfortable
Not very comfortable
Fairly comfortable
Very comfortable

4. Do you use the device for academic purposes?
YES NO

5. Do you use any Apps related to your role as an MSOT student?
YES NO
If yes please specify:

6. Do you use any Apps for studying?
YES NO
If yes please specify:

7. Are You familiar with AOTA's mobile app bank for practitioners?
YES
No

8. Describe possible ways that you would like to see the use of tablet pcs and smartphones
Integrated into the ESL classroom.

9. Do you communicate with classmates via social networks? If so, explain.

10. Do you access social networks through your smartphone?

11. Do you use social networks for school related things?
If so, please specify.

12. Do you prefer the use of a tablet pc over the use of a laptop in the classroom?
Why or why not?

B. Technophobe or technogeek? Or somewhere in between?

How do you feel about using your mobile phone in the ESL classroom? Do this "Attitudes to using mobile" **questionnaire and then read the commentary in the answer key.**

1=disagree totally **2**= disagree **3**=not strong opinion **4**=agree **5**=agree strongly

Attitudes to technology		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1	I enjoy using mobile in the ESL classroom.					
2	I avoid using mobile when I can.					
3	I think using mobile in class takes up too much time.					
4	I know that using mobile can help me to learn					
5	Technology intimidates and threatens me.					
6	Students should know how to use the mobile in					
7	I would be a better learner if I knew how to use mobile technology properly.					
8	I'm very confident when it comes to working with mobile at home/at work/at					
9	I want to learn more about using mobile at home/at work/at university.					
10	I believe that I can improve my language skills using mobile apps.					
11	Using technology in learning languages is not					
12	Technology breaks down too often to be of very					

c. Experience of using the Mobile Internet

7.1. I use the mobile internet	Regularly		Never
at College at home at work			

7.2. I use the Internet in English for the following:	Regularly	Infrequently	Never
To communicate with people (e.g. e-mail) To find information To read the news			

I use the Internet in English for the following:	Regularly	Infrequently	Never
To watch films To prepare home assignments (e.g. projects, web quests etc) To buy/sell products To learn (e.g. online courses, using online dictionaries) To have fun (e.g. playing computer games) To download software Anything else (please specify)			

d. Keeping up with future trends

What do you know about future trends and tools in learning with technology? Which of these things would you like to incorporate into your studies?

Tool/trend	**I know what this is**	**I'd like to explore this more**
e-learntng		
m-learning		
Blogs		
Wikis		
EPortfolios		
Use a mobile phone texting activity in class		
Podcasts		
Join an online discussion group		

Source: Portions of this survey have been adapted from: Rossing, J.P., Miller, W., Cecil, A.K., Stamper, S.E. (2012). iLearning: the future of higher education? students perceptions on learning with mobile tablets. *Journal of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 12*(2), 1-26. Retrieved from http://josotl.indiana.edu/article/view/2023/1985.G and Dudeney & Nicky Hockly. 2007. How to Teach English with Technology. Pearson Education Limited. Tasks B and Task D (partly adapted).

The Interview

8 students agreed to be interviewed after the end of the course. The number is small as most students concentrate on studying for the exams. Six students were males and two were females. The interview questions are included in the appendices.

The interview questions

1. Did the use of mobile apps in the classroom sustain your motivation throughout the course? Why or why not?If we do this again, what can I do differently to help you learn more?
2. Did the use of mobile apps in the classroom help you learn more?
3. Would you like to use mobile apps in your next ESL classes? Why?

Six out of eight answered that they found that mobile apps sustained their motivation throughout the course as they use the phone all day and they liked the idea to use it in class. Two believed it is helpful but time consuming as the speed of the internet is slow as they use the data access they bought rather than the wi fi at home. 5 out of the 8 students denoted the mobile apps helped them study anywhere and anytime and this helped improve their proficiency.

Two students' answers are included in the paper. One represents those who liked the using mobile apps and the other represents those who do not find it that helpful. Their names are omitted to maintain participant anonymity. Also, students' opinions for using mobile apps and against using mobile apps are summarized.

Student A stated that he liked using mobile apps as they are fee, interactive, covers all skills and all areas of the language. They are interesting, informative, helpful and available anytime, anyplace. He denoted that he will continue using the apps in the summer to improve in English to enhance his educational and professional opportunities. He said that he liked TED talks most and added that he wants the apps to be used in other ESL classes as “my phone is my friend and an extension of my hand”, “I sometimes, forget to take money but always remember my extension”. I would also like to use it in other courses in humanities in addition to English.

Student B disliked the use of apps and found it time consuming. S/he said that it was distracting and sometimes she felt s/he was lost in class and s/he likes the old ways better. S/he denoted that reflection needs more time than a weekly entry which s/he has to write to "please" the teacher. S/he stopped the practice of writing reflective entries once the course ended. S/he states that s/he will not speak about the practice as s/he will lose time speaking about something s/he dislikes.

Results

The questionnaire and the interview show how students perceive the benefits of reflection and how it sustained motivation. The reflective practice provided students an opportunity to look back on their experiences in and outside the ESL class. At the beginning of the course, students were extremely timid and shy and did not know how and what to write in their reflections. As the semester progressed, students began to feel more and more comfortable. Reflection provided an excellent opportunity for

students to discuss things in class, understand their active role in language acquisition, and sustained motivation. The students became comfortable enough with the professor and their peers. Qualities such as self-motivation and a truly dedicated work ethic were enhanced as a result of the weekly reflective practice. Students began to put academic goals in mind and work on them.

As such, ESL teachers should make students get the habit of reflecting via assigning reflective assignments. These reflective assignments can be scheduled according to the teacher's design of the curriculum. The reflective practice will sustain students' motivation, make them active learners, and increase their inclination to experiment and perform willingly.

Implications

Evidence from the literature and from the case study indicates the beneficial effect of using mobile apps in the classroom. In the present case study, using mobile apps helped enhance the learning experience of ESL students and sustain motivation. The results from this study reveal that students are using mobile devices for both academic purposes and for support outside of the classroom. These findings are consistent with those of previous studies investigating the use of mobile devices in higher academic settings in enhancing learning and engagement. This is evident in students' reports of using their mobile devices to use 'apps' to support their learning.

Limitations and directions for future research

One of the most significant drawbacks of the current research is the limited time slot, which hinders the researcher to keep track and study the data provided and further and proffer more first-hand data for analysis. The researcher could not also know whether students will stick to the habit of using mobile apps in other English language courses. Besides, the case study was administered on a single university students (adults) class and the results may not be the same in different class settings. As such, more research could be done to delve into the effectiveness of using mobile apps in sustaining motivation and into the optimum number of apps to be used in each class and in each course.

Conclusion

Using mobile apps empowers students by giving them a sense of autonomy and helping them develop skills for self-directed learning. It allows students to select and do extra-curricular activities. Students' motivation is increased, their interactivity and desire for learning is enhanced. Mobile apps for ESL are numerous. Teachers should try the apps before orienting the students to use to be ready for questions. Mobiles could be used for synchronous and asynchronous learning according to the teacher design for the curriculum. The apps are characterized by affordability variety, and increased outreach. ESL teachers should try to enhance interactivity, integrate social media and the apps, use the apps to the full potential and connect the apps to their cultural and educational context.

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Bridging between Different Learning Styles: Interaction between Two Korean College Students during Collaborative L2 Tasks

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Abstract
This paper illuminates how L2 learning styles as individual differences and collaborative learning of English influence each other. Learning style is one of essential variables in learning profiles that could support learner-centered language instruction. However, the significance of identifying learning styles has not been thoroughly analysed in collaborative learning contexts where peer interaction emerges. This case study addresses the role of pair work that could interweave different learning styles and respond to the individual needs of English language learners. I draw on triangulated data from observation, interviews and artefacts in a project where two undergraduate students with contrastive learning styles engaged in customised tasks based on Ehrman and Leaver style construct (2003). During a six-week period in Korea, I as a participant observer examined peer interaction during collaborative task participation through sociocultural lenses. Findings of thematic analysis demonstrate that the partners led tasks using style preferences and shifted to different learning styles. Also, the contrast between the learning styles facilitated scaffolding and negotiation during peer interaction. This paper serves as a stepping stone to creating learning environments that could value dynamic interplays among individual and social factors of English language learners. It also calls for future inquiries to enrich "style repertoires" of students and apply them to real-world tasks in diverse language teaching contexts.

Keywords: learning styles, collaborative L2 task, university students

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Rationales

In this paper I focus on individual differences and collaborative learning of a second language (L2) and how they could influence each other. Scholars have underscored learning profiles as one of significant factors that could realize individualized language learning (Philp, Walter, & Basturkmen, 2010; Ellis, 2005). They maintain identification of learning styles, one of major components of profiles, can support learner-centered language instruction (Kinzler, Dupoux, & Spelke, 2007; Price & Dunn, 1997). Among a variety of methodologies that could address individual differences efficiently, I scrutinized collaborative real-world tasks (Kramsch, 2008; Kormos, 2012) and the interaction within through sociocultural perspectives, of which relationship with learning styles need more attention.

I narrowed down my focus to university students in Korea who learn English as a Foreign Language (EFL) because of the unique social and individual factors they experience. There is fanatical pursuit for English education in Korea, which elevates social status and market value of English (Jeon & Lee, 2006; Kang, 2012). Accordingly, most universities require students to take an English class and ask for high English test score for graduation (McKay, 2002; Park, 2010). However, undergraduate students report low confidence and lack of motivation in learning English. According to Life (2011), although students prefer group work, common instruction in university settings is done by lecture style centering grammar and memorizing skills. Therefore, it is essential to implement new forms of learner-centered teaching practice meeting individual differences to uplift motivation and confidence.

In the study, I implemented task-based L2 learning that attended to various learning styles and scrutinized interaction between a pair of university students. My research questions are: 1) How does a pair of undergraduate students apply their L2 learning styles to collaborative task participation? 2) How does the difference in L2 learning styles shape peer interaction during collaborative tasks?

Conceptualization

For this study I adopt, from the work of James and Gardner (1995) and Smith (1982), the construct of L2 learning styles, which is a complex way of perceiving, processing, feeling, and behaving in second language learning situations. Learning strategies indicate overt learning actions which reflect learning styles; in turn learning styles determine learners' strategies. This study highlighted cognitive styles that Ehrman and Leaver (2003) delineate with a set of constructs. The researchers analyzed L2 learning styles into 10 contrasting pairs (see Appendix A). Learners who tend to reveal the left side of style sets are called synoptic, whereas those who present the right side are called ectenic. Synoptic learners like to assemble elements, see an entire context and big pictures, and learn by experience. On the other hand, ectenic learners prefer to dissect components, focus on details, and learn by theory.

Also, I use the definition of Lucas et al. (2008) for tasks, meaning activities that engage language learners in meaningful interaction for linguistic, conceptual, and communicative goals and output.

Data collection

I started data collection with 16 students to choose a pair who has most contrastive learning styles and least extraneous variables. The respondents answered the Ehrman & Leaver style questionnaire as well as a demographic and language history questionnaire. After selecting two focal participants, I conducted 12 sessions of collaborative tasks based on Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) syllabus design (Long, 2015) during a 6-week period. The tasks were customized to reflect their style contrasts. I designed the tasks for practicing all four skills (listening, reading, writing, speaking), but producing written outcomes which were open-ended and familiar to the learners. The participants also engaged in pre- and post-interviews that provided rich data of their language learning histories, relationships, expectations, and cognitive and affective reactions to the collaborative tasks attuned to learning styles.

My role as a researcher was a) a participant observer who gave autonomy and time for active discussion to the pair with a minimal intervention; b) a facilitator making necessary suggestions to work through major problems; and c) a provider of appropriate resources, both material and conceptual.

Participants

The two participants I selected were Yeun, male, and Hai, female, both of who were 19 years old. They well acquainted with each other, whose mother tongue is Korean and L2 is English which they started learning at 8. Both of the participants reported external motivations for English Language learning (e.g. school curriculum, parental expectations, assessment). Regarding proficiency, the pair responded as "conversational" in written language, but regarding aural skills they reported differ: Yeun indicated "intermediate" level in speaking "basic" level in listening while Hai both levels as "conversational."

Based on the responses of the L2 learning style questionnaire, I visualized how the participants' styles are contrastive from each other (see Appendix B). The pair showed six different style sets (e.g. field sensitivity, leveling/sharpening, global/particular, concrete/abstract, random/sequential, inductive/deductive) where their blocks mark opposite sides of the construct. Yeun reported himself as closer to a synoptic learner, whereas Hai as an ectenic learner. Accordingly, I designed 12 sessions to accommodate these 12 different style preferences so that I could closely observe how the students apply them during collaborative tasks.

Data analysis

I implemented Thematic Analysis (TA) by Braun and Clarke (2006) to create salient and connective threads between participants' thoughts and actions as well as highlight similarities and differences across the data set. First, I generated initial codes based on transcribed interaction buttressed by field notes and vignettes. The unit of analysis was "clumps of language units," adopting Gee's (2005) definition, which indicate meaningful episodes that signify demonstration and interplay of styles during pair talk. The initial codes included "helping partner's processing," "using learning strategies outside their style zones," and "experiencing recess due to style conflict." I collated the codes to construct potential themes and reviewed coded excerpts triangulated with

artifacts and interviews. Lastly, I established the final thematic map (see Figure 1).

The two overarching themes I found were "style convergence" and "style divergence." Style convergence signifies how different learning styles become closer during tasks, by leaning (e.g. The one follows or is dominated by the other.) and by switching (e.g. The one changes to the opposite.). On the other hand, style divergence represents how learning styles display their differences by coinciding (e.g. Both co-exist in synchrony.) and clashing (e.g. Discord occurs between opposite styles) Due to the lack of space this paper only focuses on style divergence and explains evidence representing its two sub-themes.

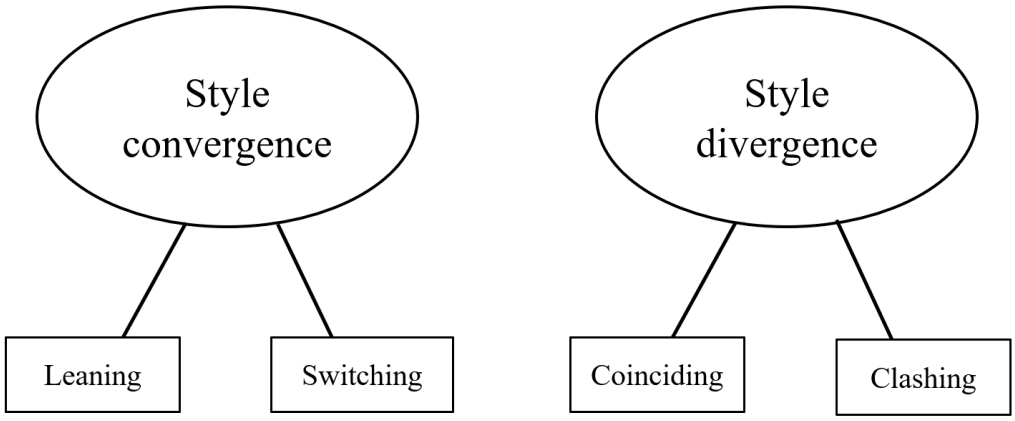

Figure 1: Final thematic map

Findings

One of my research questions asked how the difference in L2 learning styles shapes peer interaction during collaborative tasks. As one way of mediation, the learners first coordinated their learning styles for a shared goal. On Day 11, the pair was provided online version of two world maps filled with visual and textual features. Because they needed to clarify the similarities and differences between them, multiple style constructs needed to be engaged including Leveling/Sharpening and Global/Particular. Learners with leveling and global styles tend to focus on similarities and big pictures, while the ones with sharpening and particular learners like to search for differences and details.

The findings reveal that the partners collaborated efficiently by utilizing the style preference (see Excerpt 1; H stands for Hai and Y for Yeun). Hai with sharpening style mainly focused on disparities between the two books, discussing gap in content of the two books. Conversely, Yeun with leveling style looked for similarities regarding themes and visual elements.

Excerpt 1: Pair talk of using learning styles in synchrony (Day 11)

H: *Yaenŭn tosibyŏllo mwŏn'ga haetchanha chungganenŭn. Kŭnde yaenŭn kŭrŏn ke ŏpchi. mwŏn'ga↓*
This (book) did something by city in the middle. But that (book) does not have

that,
like

Y: *I "theme" esŏ kongt'ongjŏmŭn naega pol ttae kŭ chidoesŏ kŏgisŏŭi chungyohan chŏmŭl allyŏjugo issŏ. Kŭrimŭl. Kŭrŏnikka polmanhan'gŏ? yumyŏhan'gŏ? Kongt'ongjŏmi tto mwŏissŭlkka. Chogŭmanhan chibŭro chigŭm chŏwakhi ŏdie innŭnji p'yosihaetchi.*

The commonality in this "theme" I believe is the maps point out what is remarkable in each place. (By) picture. I mean attractions? Famous ones? What is another commonality. They drew small houses to mark places precisely.

Likewise, their different styles helped learners excel in different questions but they also integrated their styles to solve the same question (see Excerpt 2). While engaging in the same task, the learners sought to find answers about what the difference between the two books was in terms of a purpose. Hai in the beginning (5:30") found out one book left most of the continent uncolored. This comment shows Hai's acute observation to the details as a particular learner. Then later (23:26"), when discussing the purpose of the books, Yeun successfully inferred the main intent of one book, for coloring. This suggestion reveals Yeun's strategy to see a big picture as a global learner. This pair talk indicates how Hai's strategy for particular style facilitated Yeun's strategy for global style for solving a shared problem. To sum up, the collaborative partners were capable of complementing and mediating each other's learning styles through interaction.

Excerpt 2: Pair talk of coordinating learning styles for a common question (Day 11)

05:30
H: *Yaenŭn saekkari ŏmch'ŏng manhŭnde (.) yaenŭn hŭinsaegi manha.*
This (book) has lots of colors but that one has lots of white.

23:26
Y: *Aenŭn kŭnyang chidorŭl naegabol ttae saekch'irhal su itke han kŏ kat'ae. Hayansaegŭro tun ke. kŭraesŏ naega pol ttae saekch'ilgongbuyongigo*
This (book) I believe was for coloring the map. (That's why it) left (the map) white.
So I believe it is for coloring

Next, different learning styles did not always generate harmony, but the learners negotiated between conflicting styles to bring out task output. On Day 9, the pair was asked to analyze a hypothesis first ("To become successful, one needs to stick to principles.") and name specific cases related to it, which required "Deductive" style. The task divided this hypothesis into two parts and asked the learners to interpret each part with their ways of definition. For the question B to decode the meaning of "stick to principles," they encountered discord and delay (see Excerpt 3). Hai, "Inductive" learner, approached the task not by decoding the rule first but by thinking of examples right away. Therefore, it took time for her to perceive the direction of the task. To help her understand, Yeun, "Deductive" learner, rephrased the hypothesis by adding his interpretation ("one can proceed without tumbling"). When Hai was caught up with finding examples of principles, Yeun explained how people could decide their

principles, implying a way to consider principles in more general way, not needing to specify them for the task. Here Yeun did not directly explain how to approach the task but he used his style strength to assist Hai's comprehension.

Excerpt 3: Implicit negotiation between different styles (Day 9)

Y: *Kŭnikka naega polttaen kach'igwani hwangniptwaeya ŏttŏnmunjee taehaesŏ irŏk'e hŭndŭlliji ank'o tchuk kal su itchanha.*
So in my point of view, one can proceed without tumbling by sticking to principles.

H: *ŭng kŭnde kŭgŏn mannŭnde, kach'igwanŭn yŏrŏ kaega itchanha. Yerŭl ch'atkiga aemaehajanha=*
Yes that is true, but there are various types of principles. It is hard to find examples.

Y: *=ŭng. kŭrŏnikka chasini haengdonghal ttae wŏllirŭl irŏk'e hanarŭl chŏnghaesŏ kŭgŏe taehaesŏ tchuk milgonaganŭn'gŏ aniya? Chasini hago sip'ŭn kŏllo*
Yes. So isn't it like, when one behaves, s/he decides one principle and persist on it, right?
The one s/he wants (to pursue)

However, Excerpt 4 shows even though Yeun stressed the importance of decoding each phrase in their words, Hai still kept thinking of how to associate the hypothesis with real applications. Therefore, Yeun clarified the direction of the task, emphasizing how they needed to "reformulate and suppose the word, the phrase, and the sentence." His efforts to pull Hai back on track helped the pair reach a consent after 17 minutes from the start of the discussion. In the post-interview, Hai reported she understood why it was important to re-define the preposition first thanks to the exchange with her partner. She also recognized that her learning strategy to seek examples was different from Yeun's. It is notable that Hai's different learning strategy as an inductive learner led Yeun to operating deductive learning strategy fully, which helped carry out the collaborative task.

Excerpt 4: Explicit negotiation of the discord between styles (Day 9)

Y: *Igŏrŭl uriga p'urŏ ssŭnŭn ke cheil chungyohan kŏ kat'ae, kojisige taehae. Uriga chigŭm "hypothesis" rŭl kajigo p'urŏssŭnŭn'gŏjanha.*
I think it is important for us to decode this (phrase).
We are now delineating (it) with "hypothesis."

H: *Animyŏn irŏk'e ha (.) uriga wŏnch'iktaero haessŭl ttaenŭn manhi (.) wŏnhanŭn'gŏl irul hwangnyuri nop'chanha, kŭrŏn'gŏ ye tŭlmyŏn andwae?*
Or like this, ha, only when we stick to principles it is more likely to achieve what we want, can't we write (cases) about that?

Y: *Ildan kajŏngŭl haeya twae igŏrŭl. Nŏn ŏttŏk'e kajŏnghago simni, i myŏngjee taehaesŏ i tanŏrŭl, i munjangŭl, i kurŭl ŏttŏk'e "suppose" hanŭn'gŏjanha uriga.*

First (we) need to hypothesize this (phrase). How do you want to hypothesize it, about this proposition, this word, this sentence, (it's about) how we "suppose" this.

Discussion

The findings give evidence that exercising different styles helps learners mediate and negotiate with each other for collaborative tasks attuned to individual style construct. The learners engaged in scaffolding by giving support to each other in collaborative task participation (Swain & Lapkin, 2001; Pica, 2008). Through negotiation, the students used expertise in their own learning styles, which ameliorated the partners' comprehension and engagement. Using their style strength to assist the partners also gave the learners opportunities to practice learning strategies. Furthermore, collaborating for tasks that enabled the learners to use style differences led them to building upon each other's style strength. Vigorous interaction between the peers helped them gain respect to each other's expertise and recognition of their own. This collaborative experience laid the groundwork to building an interdependent relationship as a socially cohesive unit (Donato, 1988).

Implications

For the future research, this paper could work as a stepping stone toward a multiple-case analysis. I conducted a single-case analysis to illuminate specific and individualized situation. However, prospective studies could gain valuable insights from investigating various pairs with different styles, proficiency, & settings. Next, I used a self-report to measure participants' language proficiency. Because subjective scoring of the proficiency might be imprecise, it would be fruitful to use an objective measure of proficiency in the future.

This study has pedagogical implications for building EFL course curricula in higher education that values individual differences. It is essential to create new learning environment that attune to L2 learning by focusing on learner profiles. Encouraging peer collaboration could help accommodate various learning styles of 10 to 20 students in a class. Lastly, a long-term follow-up is needed on how learning styles change for a long period of time. Because the style construct could change with various social factors and contexts, educators should closely observe students' style representation, share with other colleagues, and keep communicating with students.

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Appendices

	Synoptic rely on unconscious or preconscious perception	Ectenic seek conscious control of processing
Separate foreground and background or treat them as the same	Field independence	Field dependence
recognize the entire forest and changes or make little use of the context	Field sensitive	Field insensitive
Look for similarities or explore disparities	Leveling	Sharpening
Attend to big picture or details	Global	Particular
React quickly or think it through	Impulsive	Reflective
Assemble or disassemble components	Synthetic	Analytic
Use qualitative, metaphoric or quantitative, literal approach	Analogue	Digital
Learn by experience or theory	Concrete	Abstract
Follow internal or external order of processing	Random	Sequential
Start with examples or rules	Inductive	Deductive

Appendix A: L2 learning style construct (Ehrman & Leaver, 2003)

Synoptic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Ectenic
Field independent										Field dependent
Field sensitive										Field insensitive
Leveling										Sharpening
Global										Particular
Impulsive										Reflective
Synthetic										Analytic
Analogue										Digital
Concrete										Abstract
Random										Sequential
Inductive										Deductive
	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	

Appendix B: Style grid of the pair (Yeun in Green and Hai in Red)

The Effectiveness of Active Learning Techniques in Courses on Informative Speech

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Abstract
This paper analyses the effectiveness of Informative Speech, a course developed by the Communications Department of the University of the Basque Country to help communications students overcome their fear of speaking before a camera or microphone. Data extracted from surveys conducted at the beginning and end of this course and a focus group was analysed to determine the effectiveness of theoretical and practical strategies employed in teaching this subject. Findings indicate that although many students suffer stage fright when asked to perform on camera or before a microphone, the implementation of the right teaching methods can help them gain the confidence they need to make successful media presentations.

Keywords: Stage fright, oral communication, public speaking

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Introduction[1]

As eminently social beings, we are highly concerned about how we appear to other people. The perceptions of others affect every aspect of our lives, from our academic performance and possibilities as professionals to our social status. Stage fright can be defined as the psychophysical reaction that occurs when someone's preconceived negative ideas of how he or she will be perceived by others prove stronger than his or her ability to take such external evaluations in stride (Légeron & André, 1997).

Stage fright is a common phenomenon. Numerous epidemiological studies have found that young people and adults alike consider situations in which they are required to speak publically to be particularly daunting. Thirty-four percent of the individuals surveyed for a study conducted by Stein, Walker and Porde (1996) professed anxiety about public speaking and between 20 and 30% of university students surveyed for a similar study conducted by Bados (1992) stated they suffered the same condition.

Anyone who has taught informational speech courses at the university level is bound to have known students who felt comfortable addressing audiences on camera or via a microphone from day one. Most, however, have problems getting started. Attempting to perform a task one barely understands on camera or in the unfamiliar environment of a recording studio in the presence of one's peers and professor can be a nerve-wracking experience.

Whereas educational systems in countries such as Italy, Argentina, Great Britain and the United States have always placed a heavy emphasis on oral expression at every level, those in Spain have tended to maintain a culturally driven focus on strong writing skills and to relegate oral expression almost exclusively to primary school classrooms in which blackboards have traditionally been emblazoned with the commandment "I will not talk in class" and the curricula employed discourages active student participation (Vilá & Castellá, 2014). According to Ballesteros and Palou (2005), the majority of Spanish schoolteachers find it difficult to teach speaking skills. Unsure as how to insert the topic into their curricula, organise oral activities without losing control or how to evaluate student competence in this area, they tend to limit oral expression to recitation and occasional oral presentation assignments.

University degree programmes are not exempt from this inertia. Despite the ongoing crisis facing print publications, the growing importance of audiovisual media, the constant introduction of new digital formats and the emergence of an Internet-based audiovisual culture, communication school curricula continue to place an enormous emphasis on writing. The findings of Tuning Educational Structures in Europe, a research project conceived to facilitate the convergence of university curricula within the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), bear this out: whereas graduates and sector employers surveyed ranked oral communications skills sixth on a long list of necessary skills, university professors considered them far less essential (Garcia Ureta, Toral et al, 2012).

[1] This article reports the partial results of a broader educational innovation project financed by the University of the Basque Country (2014–2016) titled "Informative speech: from the classroom to the radio studio. Collaboration with radio professionals as a means of fostering creativity, active learning and enhanced academic performance".

The same situation prevails in courses specifically devoted to public speaking. Conventional academic training in this area patently ignores the emotional aspects of oral communication. According to Garcia, Ureta, Toral et al (2012), "The psychological skills needed to overcome stage fright are not addressed in oral communication courses" (p. 414). It is routinely assumed the anxiety students feel starting out disappears with time and experience even though existing literature cites numerous cases in which veteran communications professionals continue to struggle with the problem.

The undergraduate journalism programme offered by The Faculty of Social Sciences and Communication at the University of the Basque Country introduced a course titled Informative Speech into its undergraduate journalism programme in the fall of 2012. During the same academic year, the school negotiated collaboration agreements with two radio stations (Cadena Ser, which broadcasts in Spanish, and Euskadi Irratia, which broadcasts in Basque) that allowed students to gain hands-on experience in a real professional environment. The new synergies and ongoing dialogue between students, professionals and professors generated by this initiative have served as a springboard for the development of enhanced teaching strategies for oral communications that foster active learning and creativity.

This highly successful programme, which was repeated and consolidated during the academic year 2014–2015, provided the foundation for an innovation project titled "Informative speech: from the classroom to the radio studio. Collaboration with radio professionals as a means of fostering creativity, active learning and enhanced academic performance". Interaction between students and professionals and professors' parallel teaching experiences made it clear that undergraduate students needed tools for overcoming stage fright in order to develop their full potential as presenters. Efforts to help them deal with their fears and inhibitions are central to the innovation project now underway.

1. Stage fright and public speaking

The overwhelming majority of studies on public speaking, clinical psychology, communication psychology and communication intelligence indicate that the ability to express oneself in public is key to personal development. That communication students have a greater need to develop this competence than most people goes without saying. The paradigm under which most audiovisual communication is carried out today places a higher premium on seduction by means of images and appeals to the emotions than on persuasion based on reason and discourse (Haranburu & Plazaola, 2000). Over the past few decades there has also been gradual deterioration of conventional distinctions between certain aspects of entertainment and news programmes. Whereas news presenters were once required to project a formal, authoritative and detached professional image, they are now expected to relate to and engage the audiences they serve at a more personal and emotional level. This requires non-verbal skills, a knack for establishing a direct connection with viewers and listeners and the ability to improvise on the spot. Professional training must prepare young communicators to assume these new roles (Toral, Murelaga et al., 2008).

"We convey our emotional states through body language and the modulation of our voices and vocal inflections as we speak" (Bregantin, 2008, p. 113). Our bodies react simultaneously on a psychological, emotional and physiological plane to given stimuli. As this reaction (which may be involuntary and even against our will)[2] is perceptible to others, it forms an integral part of anything we seek to express. Our perceptions of ourselves and the environment around us affects the way in which we communicate with others and the emotional tone of messages we seek to convey (Bustos, 2003; Gaya, 2002). A lack of self-confidence undermines one's ability to appear convincing. A camera-shy person has trouble connecting with audiences. Communications students should therefore be taught about the physiological and psychological processes public speaking entails and given tools to cope with stress factors associated with their field. Training should also cover areas related to one's ability to seduce and persuade such as body language and voice control (Ailes & Kraushar, 2001; Davis, 2002). Stage fright is a psychophysiological phenomenon that provokes a wide variety of symptoms, which can be physiological (facial rictus, tics and trembling, blushing, dry mouth or nausea), cognitive (mental blocks, an exaggerated concept of one's own mistakes or a fear of ridicule) or behavioural (a tendency to cringe, lower one's voice or stutter) and are manifested in greater or lesser degrees of intensity (Yagosesky, 2001). As various clinical studies indicate that only one out of five people claiming to be seriously afraid of speaking in public can be classified as being phobic (Bados, 2005), we can assume that symptoms generally tend to be light and few people suffer several simultaneously. Stage fright can prevent a person from expressing him or herself clearly and effectively. Strategies developed by clinical psychologists and public speaking and communication intelligence experts involving gradual, progressive exposure to public speaking situations coupled with cognitive reconstruction techniques and methods for controlling the activation of reactions are usually effective in ridding people of unwanted symptoms.

Exposure helps individuals prone to stage fright grasp three key concepts: how to break associations they have made between situations they dread and feelings of anxiety and respond differently to such situations, that as anticipated consequences cease to materialise their fears will prove to have been unfounded and that coping techniques constitute an effective means of controlling their anxiety (Bados, 2005: 28).

Exposure must be gradual. Initial experiences must be structured so as to ensure a high probability of success that translates into a sense of self-confidence students can build upon as they face more challenging circumstances. The Yerkes-Dodson law formulated in the early twentieth century, which is based on the idea that personal performance can be improved by the presence of tension sufficient to keep one alert and concentrated on a task, squares with communication professionals' testimonies that a low level of stage fright actually enhances their delivery. Given that the point at which additional stress impairs one's ability to function well varies, it is important to determine optimal levels of activation on a case-by-case basis and develop coping techniques that work for each individual (Bregantin, 2008). These frequently include muscle relaxation and breathing exercises. Cognitive reconstruction, on the other hand, often involves positive thinking and visualisation techniques. Positive thinking

[2] According to studies conducted by the Palo Alto Group it is impossible for two individuals observing each other not to communicate at some level (Haranburu & Plazaola, 2000).

entails learning to detect negative thoughts as soon as they arise, recognising their demoralising effect and replacing them with more positive thoughts that allow one to manage his or her anxiety and cope with stress-producing situations. Visualisation allows individuals to use their imagination to transform dreaded scenarios into more gratifying ones they can mentally project in real situations.

2. Teaching strategy

The first of the six units that make up the course, which covers the concepts outlined above, stresses the importance of oral communication skills in journalism. Professors frame stage fright as a condition almost everyone suffers to a greater or lesser degree and provide students with material in which veteran media professionals explain how they cope with the problem. Once the nature of the phenomenon and its symptoms have been contextualised and the effectiveness of anti-anxiety techniques explained, students are asked to prepare a brief essay about a theme of interest to them, present it orally in front of their classmates and fill out a questionnaire about their first on-camera practice session in a campus television studio – exercises that allow them to gradually identify the specific fears they need to overcome.

Assignments are heavily focused on hands-on experience. Ongoing evaluation of student's progress throughout this process of gradual exposure to simulated television and radio scenarios accounts for 80% of their final grades. Students are initially asked to present a news story in a low-tech format. From that point on, they are given increasingly complex assignments, moving from a radio to a television studio environment, learning to work with a teleprompter, mastering body language, performing as reporters in situations that require them to interact with others and ad lib, covering live events and ultimately participating in round table current events programmes that call for a greater degree of self-expression and improvisation. During this process, they are expected to handle an increasing number of transitions between topics and audiovisual feeds. Professors provide immediate and positive remedial feedback. Practical exercises are recorded and subsequently reviewed by students during weekly group sessions organised for that purpose. The success of self-learning processes depends upon the implementation of teaching methods designed to allow students to assume responsibility for their professional development and personal commitment (Pou, Álvarez et al, 2013). To help them develop a sense of autonomy, students are encouraged to handle the technical aspects of recording on their own whenever possible. Evaluation is a three-step process. Students are expected to take a critical look at their own work, which is subsequently subject to a peer review. Professors provide a final critique that addresses points not covered by this group discussion.

Opportunities to analyse the work of peers and professionals they admire boosts student motivation. Input from professors in the form of positive feedback creates a supportive environment that energizes the entire group and puts students in the right frame of mind to make individual presentations. The more motivated students are, the greater effort they put into class assignments (Tamayo & Segura, 2012).

There is a marked gap between students' perceptions about their own work and those of their peers, who tend to be generous when discussing mistakes and not especially conscious of the anxiety and fears of the person being critiqued. Informational Speech

places a strong emphasis on preparation. Training students to perform key tasks such as familiarising themselves with texts they are expected to deliver orally, knowing what they are about and how they are structured, reading them aloud several times focusing on different angles such as inflection and intonation and highlighting words that may be difficult to pronounce or need to be stressed helps boost their confidence. Students struggling with severe cases of stage fright, who tend to be less apt to do this sort of prep work than others (Daly, Vangelisti et al, 1995), are given extra encouragement and support.

In addition to the technical vocal and interpretive exercises that form an essential part of traditional public speaking courses,[3] the course on informative speech taught at the University of the Basque Country includes breathing exercises (Lodes, 2002) and basic visualisation techniques.

Direct contact and interaction with working professionals allows students to observe how veteran presenters and reporters handle their own fears of addressing audiences. Staff members of Cadena Ser, one of the radio stations with which the University of the Basque Country has developed a collaboration agreement, periodically take time to speak with students on campus. During these sessions, they answer previously submitted questions related to a wide range of topics, one of the most popular being how to deal with stage fright. Students also visit the station's installations and a few are invited to participate in round table discussions of current events organised by Cadena Ser every summer.

3. Methodology

To gauge the effectiveness of the teaching strategy used to teach this subject at the University of the Basque Country, the 150 third-year students enrolled in Informative Speech during the spring semester of 2016 were asked to participate in three separate surveys staggered throughout the course designed to determine the types of anxiety they suffered when facing a microphone or camera for the very first time, the degree to which they overcame these problems as the course progressed and whether they felt better prepared to perform the task by the end of the semester.

The 114 students participating in the first survey (conducted three weeks into the course shortly after their first television studio practice session) were asked to review a list of 22 physical, cognitive and behavioural symptoms linked to stage fright and indicate which, if any, they had suffered during this exercise using a set of predetermined response options ranging from "none" to "moderate", "notable" and "serious" based on a scale developed by Yagosesky (2001).

To track the evolution of students' ability to cope with performance-related anxieties as the semester progressed, a second survey was conducted during the fourteenth week of the course shortly after their penultimate studio session. A total of 106 participated in this survey.

[3] These techniques, which are also used to treat cases of public speaking phobia, have been known to considerably lower individuals' levels of stage fright (Bados, 2005).

To ensure a balanced comparison between responses provided at the beginning and end of the course, 8 survey responses were withdrawn at random from the larger initial set. A total of 212 questionnaires were analysed, 106 for each of the two surveys conducted.

Data gathered was filtered to eliminate the least significant responses and limit the sample to those indicating "notable" and/or "serious" manifestations of stage fright symptoms. Figures presented here display results for the ten symptoms students suffered the most.[4]

A total of 108 students participated in a third and final survey conducted during the last week of the course designed to pinpoint their greatest problems and preoccupations and the degree to which they resolved them over the course of the semester. The questionnaire distributed contained three groups of open-ended questions: a) What was the most challenging aspect of delivering an on-camera presentation? What was your greatest preoccupation? b) Have you managed to overcome the problem and feel more confident when performing this task? c) Do you consider yourself better prepared to speak on-camera or before a public audience than you were three months ago? In what ways have you been able to enhance your performance and to what do you attribute this improvement? Although none of these questions specifically mentioned stage fright, answers received frequently made reference to the issue. Many respondents cited overcoming symptoms associated with stage fright as being the toughest challenge they faced during the course.

The same techniques were applied the next time Informative Speech was offered and a focus group was organised with four students who took the course during this period.

4. Analysis and focus group

A relatively high percentage of students enrolled in the course suffered symptoms associated with stage fright (see Fig. 1). At the beginning of the course, 61 (57%) felt they were not performing at the level they aspired to. More than 40% suffered one or more of the following six symptoms: unrealistically high self-expectations (57.5%), a general sense of anxiety (47.1%), a fear of failing or appearing ridiculous (46.2%), an exaggerated conception of their own mistakes (44.3%), accelerated heart rate (43.4%) and verbal and corporal expression problems (43.4%). Many suffered severe cases of more than one of the symptoms listed in the questionnaire and all felt they suffered at least one to a notable or severe degree. Such figures indicate they were generally intimidated by the idea of speaking into a microphone when the course began.

Student stress levels dropped significantly by the end of the course. The number of problems students cited fell from a high of 447 during the first survey to 296 during the second (a reduction of 34%). Their expectations of failure fell by 48%, concerns about their ability to concentrate during a presentation by 42%, fear of appearing ridiculous by 37%, incidences of excelerated heart beat by 35% and general level of

[4] Symptoms not listed in Figure 1 but included in the survey questionnaire were (in descending order of their incidence in the survey population): fixation on the cause of anxiety, rictus, mental confusion, tendency to forget what one has intended to say, sweating, mental block, stuttering, speaking in a low voice, butterflies in the stomach, urinary urgency, loss of bladder/bowel control and nausea.

anxiety by 34%. Although only 15% fewer students claimed to suffer the most commonly reported symptom (unrealistically high self-expectations) by the end of the course. Nevertheless, the incidence of problems fell in every category of symptom analysed and 32% of the students participating in the second survey characterised the symptoms they continued to experience as not being particularly serious.

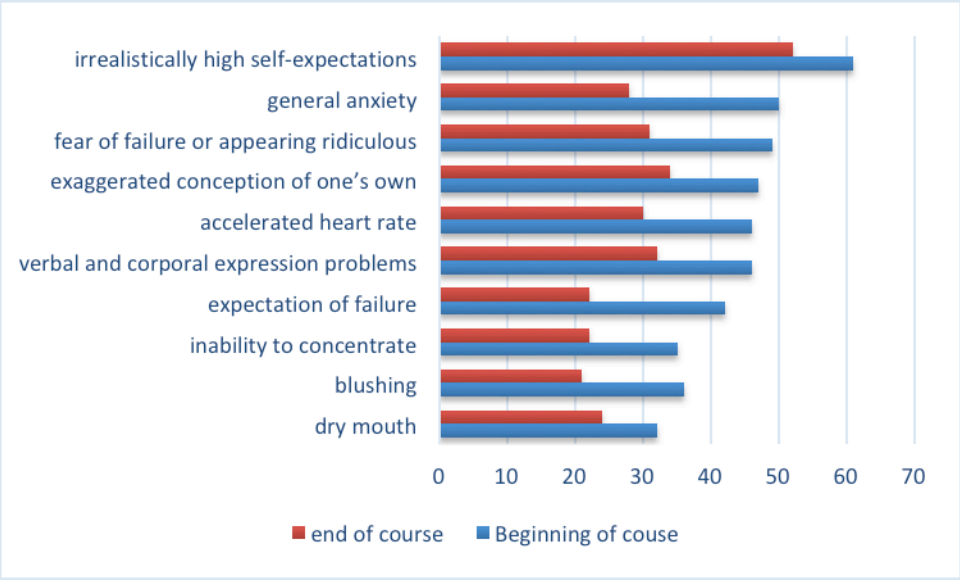

Figure 1. Evolution of students' symptoms

Student stress levels dropped significantly by the end of the course. The number of problems students cited fell from a high of 447 during the first survey to 296 during the second (a reduction of 34%). Their expectations of failure fell by 48%, concerns about their ability to concentrate during a presentation by 42%, fear of appearing ridiculous by 37%, incidences of excelerated heart beat by 35% and general level of anxiety by 34%. Although only 15% fewer students claimed to suffer the most commonly reported symptom (unrealistically high self-expectations) by the end of the course. Nevertheless, the incidence of problems fell in every category of symptom analysed and 32% of the students participating in the second survey characterised the symptoms they continued to experience as not being particularly serious.

While the question as to whether they should have been able to overcome stage fright to a greater degree is open to debate, students did make progress in every area. By the end of the course over a third had lost their fear of speaking into a microphone and on-camera and the rest had gained more self-confidence.

An analysis of student responses to the first question posed in the third survey conducted, which concerned the aspects of on-camera presentations they regarded most challenging and problems they associated with this task, revealed that students' greatest preoccupation at the beginning of the course (shared by 21%) was delivering fluid, articulate messages in near-live broadcast situations. The second greatest challenge cited was the fear of adopting an inadequate facial expression or posture: 16% of the students surveyed were worried about appearing stiff on camera or making forced or exaggerated gestures. The third problem cited (by 15%) was a fear of suffering a mental block, and the fourth (related specifically to television and cited by 11%) was the challenge of working with a teleprompter.

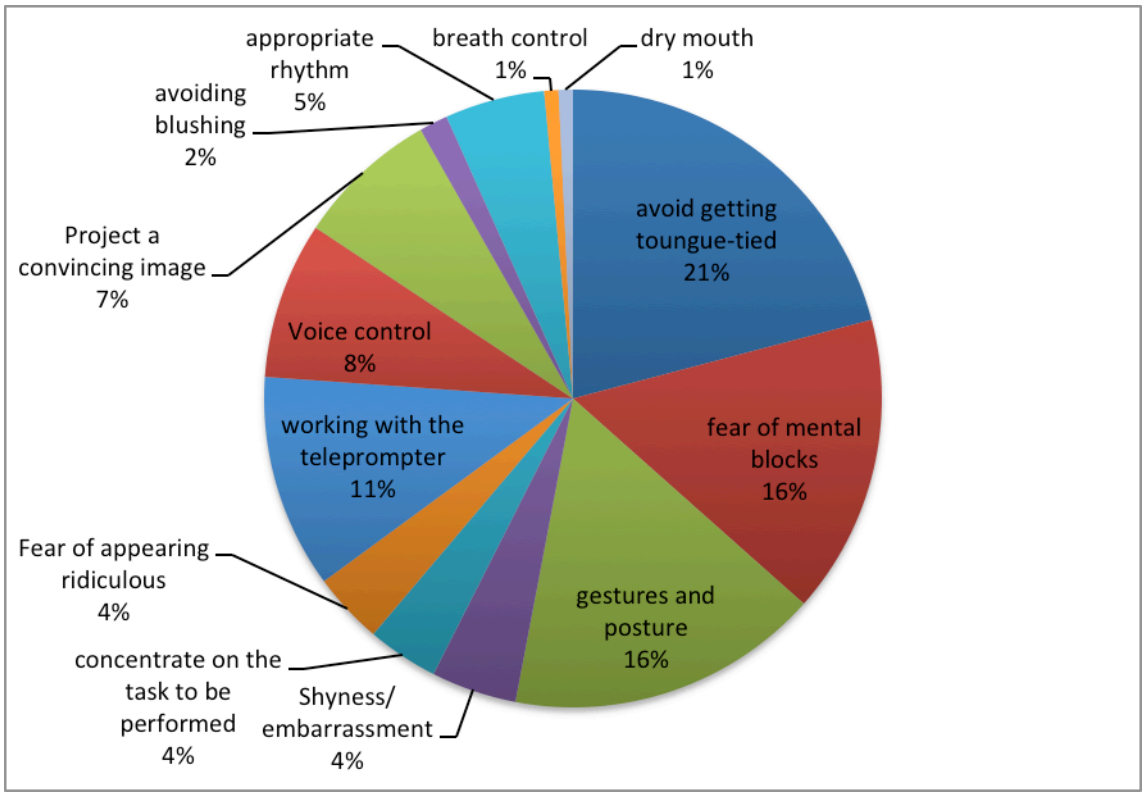

Figure 2. Breakdown of student responses to the survey questions "What was the most challenging aspect of delivering an on-camera presentation?" and "What was your greatest preoccupation?"

While anxiety about working with a teleprompter may not be a symptom of stage fright, it is linked to a fear of dealing with something new and unfamiliar. Given that the technology is question is relatively simple, most students felt comfortable using it after a few practice sessions.

The majority of the other challenges students identified as daunting were more closely associated with stage fright: 8% mentioned voice control, 5% overcoming timidity and embarrassment when addressing an audience, 4% a fear of appearing ridiculous, 2% involuntary blushing and 1% suffering a dry mouth.

By the end of the course, 31% claimed to have completely overcome the toughest challenge they had faced and 31% stated they had made significant progress towards that goal. Another 29% felt they had made some progress but needed to work harder to resolve the issue and a lesser 9% reported they had failed to overcome the problem. In response to the third question contained in the final survey, which was "Do you consider yourself better prepared to speak on-camera or before a public audience than you were three months ago?" 35% felt certain they were well prepared to take a studio test at a real radio or television station and 25% asserted a little less confidently that they thought they were better prepared to perform this task than they had been at the beginning of the course. Another 25% stated that they were better prepared after taking the course but had room to improve and 15% that they needed more practice in order to meet this challenge.

Speaking on-camera proved to be the greatest stumbling block of students claiming to have made little or no perceptible progress during the course. The inability of individuals in this segment of the study sample to relax in front of a camera was a clear indication that some students need more time to master this aspect of their future careers than others. Those who felt better prepared linked their progress to stronger feelings of confidence. Statements such as "I'm better prepared because every time I make an on-camera presentation I lose a bit more of my initial stage fright and appear less tense", "I've managed to learn a few tricks for staying calm while addressing an audience" and "Learning how a studio functions and a few basic public speaking techniques has made me feel more sure of myself in front of a camera" underscore the importance of incorporating hands-on exercises into courses of this nature. Several students mentioned the value of positive feedback, pointing out that "watching and listening to peers and getting constructive criticism from professors really helps you relax and give more fluid presentations". Others focused on building self-confidence in a number of areas, "especially intonation and articulation". One of the students who considered practical exercises stimulating admitted, "I feel lot more relaxed now and the course has given me an appetite for on-camera presentation. Before I was more into radio, but now I prefer being in a television studio. I've also realised I like the improvisation involved in solving problems that crop up in live presentations". Some were nonetheless worried about backsliding. One student acknowledged, "I don't blush anymore because I I'm used to the set up, but I'll probably have to start from zero if asked to perform in a different environment".

Researchers organised a focus group session with four fourth-year students who had taken the course the previous year, all of whom asserted that classroom activities had given them a better idea of what a career as a radio or television presenter entailed. One of the aspects of the course they claimed to have benefitted from the most was a series of on-campus talks given by professional radio presenters working for Cadena Ser. According to fourth-year journalism student Sabin Llodio:

> You tend to idealise the presenters you listen to and think of them as existing on a totally different plane. Their classroom visits helped me a lot. I remember them saying "It doesn't matter if you make a mistake. Just listen to a couple of the ones we've made. Some of them are real howlers". Comments like these make you feel better about yourself. You realise that the world isn't going to stop spinning if you goof up once in awhile.

Another course-related activity students got a lot out of was the opportunity to participate in a series of current events roundtables organised by Cadena Ser. Focus group students made several interesting comments about this experience:

> I was a bundle of nerves when I went. The way the professionals there treated us helped us relax and we managed to talk without getting the jitters. (Yaiza Arrizabalaga, fourth-year journalism student)
>
> My heart leapt into my throat when I arrived at the station. (Idoia Murias, fourth- year journalism student)
>
> I was nervous at first. Especially on the first day. You confront the feeling and gradually get over it. Everyone noticed how we changed between our first and last sessions. At the beginning, we all arrived with notes. (Sabin Llodio, fourth-year journalism student)

This experience taught participating students to prepare themselves for real-life situations. Arriving with a set of pre-prepared notes gave them a sense of security. One student reflected, "I read up on the subjects to be discussed because I tend to panic. Later I realised that this tactic really works for me. If I ever manage to pull myself together and relax perhaps I won't feel the need to do so much prior preparation for this kind of event".

These students discovered that a low degree of nervousness – if under control – was actually a good thing because it made them aware of the need to prepare. All agreed that preparation was the best way to overcome anxiety. They also found out that the emotional aspects of real-life situations are more authentic than those experienced under simulation conditions and learned to cope with criticism from a real audience. One member of the focus group concluded "Unlike the way you feel in a classroom, you're conscious of the repercussion of what you say. You learn to provide a response, what you should and shouldn't respond to and how to respond . . . in other words, to be prudent".

Conclusions

Human communication is a complex phenomenon in which non-verbal language and the voice play important roles. Stage fright and its physiological, cognitive and behavioural symptoms impair one's ability to make fluid and effective oral presentations. Most of the existing literature on public speaking, emotional intelligence and communication psychology consulted for this research indicated that a combination of positive, corrective feedback and cognitive reconstruction and activation control techniques helps people suffering stage fright confront and overcome their fears of addressing audiences.

A survey conducted at the beginning of the course revealed that all of the students enrolled suffered at least one form of stage fright to a fairly serious degree and that some suffered more than one symptom. When asked to indicate what they considered to have been the greatest challenge they faced during the course, the majority of the students surveyed mentioned problems associated with stage fright. Focus group participants considered their discovery that a low level of controlled anxiety could actually be positive in that it prompted them to prepare in advance for oral presentations to have been one of the high points of the course.

Although individual learning processes are unique experiences during which students discover their strengths and weaknesses and physiological, psychological and cognitive responses to personal fears, the findings of this study indicate that teaching strategies addressing these aspects of public speaking can be highly effective. During the period examined for this research, students' levels of stress and insecurity related to microphone and on-camera presentations diminished across the board and a third of the students involved overcame their problems completely. Survey repondents considered self-learning opportunities presented in the context of collaborative practical exercises and peer critiques to have been especially beneficial and rewarding.

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Rhetorical Moves in the Introduction Section of Dissertations in International Relations: A Study From Turkey

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Abstract
The main purpose of this paper is to find out the rhetorical moves in the introduction section in dissertations (PhDTs) written in English in International Relations. To this end, the study uses a PhDT corpus which has been built with dissertations written by doctorate students between 2006 and 2015 at a state university in central Turkey. The communicative categories or "moves" (Swales 1981, 1990) that constitute the macrostructure of these texts have been analysed. The results revealed that the moves and steps revealed certain similarities and differences with the introduction sections in other disciplines, and provided evidence of disciplinary variation. Also, a few steps which are non-existent in the original CARS Model (Swales, 2004) and are specific to PhDTs analyzed in this study were found. Thus, a modified version of the CARS Model for PhDTs was suggested with excerpts from the corpus in detail. The rhetorical variables found in the genre may be mainly explained by the different expectations that the members of the discourse community has.

Keywords: Rhetorical moves, Introduction section, Dissertations

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Introduction

The role of writing in the life of the academic community is powerful and pervasive. Writing for an academic discourse community is an important step particularly for novice researchers to enter the discourse community and share their research results. To obtain acceptance and thus to be published, novice researchers are required to follow some specific guidelines to shape their studies.

There are different genres (e.g. dissertations) in the academic discourse which the community members need to produce and /or comprehend and several genre studies have mainly focused on investigating the discourse structures of genres through genre analysis. The most prominent work in genre analysis that focused on schematic structure was carried out by Swales (1990).

Despite the fact that genre studies of PhD theses are available in the general literature, a specific study looking at genre-specific features of the introduction parts of the PhD theses written in the field of International Relations does not exist. Filling a gap in the literature, this study may shed light on the genre-specific features of the introduction parts of the PhD theses in the field of International Relations in general and the PhD theses written at METU at the Department of International Relations in particular.

The current study focuses on the introduction section of the dissertations written at a state university in central Turkey. The essential aim of this study is to explore the discoursal (move-step structure) features found in the introduction section of the PhD theses written in the field of International Relations. This current study can deepen our understanding of how introduction sections are constructed and can increase the awareness about the conventions of the introduction section in the field of International Relations. The study can demonstrate how accurately Swales' CARS Model (2004) accounts for the features of writing in PhD theses written at Middle East Technical University (METU) in International Relations.

The following research questions are the guiding frame of reference for the study.

1. What are the genre-specific features of the introduction parts of the PhD theses (PhDTs) written at METU in the field of International Relations (IR)?

1.1 What is the move structure of the introduction parts of the PhDTs written at METU in the field of IR?

1.1.1 To what extent is the move structure of the introduction parts of the PhDTs written at METU in the field of IR compatible with the CARS Model?

Body

In the study, the PhDT corpus was analyzed in order to specify the discoursal feature (move-step structure) of the genre. The 78360 word corpus of the PhDTs included the theses written between 2006 and 2015 by the PhD students enrolled in the PhD programs offered by METU in the Department of International Relations. METU, the context of the study, is a state university in Ankara, Turkey and the medium of instruction at METU is English. The Department of International Relations, founded in 1984, is one of the leading institutions in international relations in Turkey. Of all

the PhDTs written by the METU students between the specified years, 21 PhD theses were included in the study as they met the three main criteria: The theses should 1) be accessible during the data collection period, 2) not include sub-headings under the introduction chapter, and 3) be data-based, empirical studies.

Data analysis was carried out using qualitative and quantitative data analyses methods. Move (M) - Step (S) structure based on Swales' CARS Model (2004) in the corpus was analyzed qualitatively. Then, this analysis was further analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Program (22.00) to see the similarities and/or differences between CARS Model and PhD theses. The cut-off frequency of 50% of occurrence was chosen as a potential measure of move stability for any move posited in this study. If the frequency of a move falls below 50%, it is considered optional (Swales, 1990; Khani & Tazik, 2010). Based on these calculations, a rhetorical structure for the introduction parts of the PhD theses was proposed. The analyses of the two corpora were conducted by the researcher of this study. During the qualitative data analysis stage, in addition to the researcher (Rater 1), an independent rater (Rater 2) coded the 42% (9/21) of the corpora in order to obtain reliable results. Rater 3 was consulted when Rater 1 and Rater 2 differed in the move analysis.

The results of the study have revealed that the move structure of the PhDT introductions shows a significant deviation from the structure proposed by Swales" CARS Model (2004) in several ways.

To start with, none of the PhDT introductions followed M1-M2-M3 sequence that is proposed by Swales' CARS Model (2004). Only one of the PhDTs started with M1-M2-M3 pattern but then continued mostly with M1- M3 pattern. Second, two PhDT introductions do not contain a Move 2 at all (i.e., they do not establish a niche). In other words, 9,5% of the PhDT corpus lacked a Move 2. Due to the lack of this move, these two PhDTs were the most dissimilar ones from the model.

M1-M3 was the only observable pattern that was present in the corpus. Expressed in quantitative terms 9,5% (2 out of 21) of the PhDT introductions (PhDT19 and PhDT21), in the corpus contained M1-M3 pattern. In this type of structural organization, the authors establish a territory (M1) by making topic generalizations and giving background information and then present their current study (M3) by using steps such as announcing the present research study, summarizing methods, and indicating the structure of the article. In this organization, the authors do not use Move 2, and thus they do not establish a niche. In addition to these two PhDTs, there were 2 more PhDTs (PhDT7 and PhDT17) whose move structures were very close to the M1-M3 cycle. With the exception of one M2, where the author establishes a niche, the general pattern fitted M1-M3 pattern.

As for the moves, based on the cut-off of a 50%, Move 1, Move 2, and Move 3 in the introductions of International Relations PhDTs are obligatory, using Swales' term (Swales, 2004). While the percentage was the same for Move 1 (100%) and Move 3 (100%), the percentage for Move 2 was 90,48% in PhDTs.

According to the results of this study, M1 functions as an introduction to the topic and is realized by "Move 1: Establishing a Territory via topic generalizations of

increasing specificity" (Swales, 2004) and the two new steps that are not present in Swales' CARS Model (2004). One of the new steps is called M1 - S1: Presenting a Case with Factual Details to Give Background Information. It introduces the territory and provides detailed information about it. the new step can be recognized from factual details, such as dates, or places. Most of the time, this step takes place at the beginning of an introduction to set the background. The step is present in 13 PhDTs out of 21 PhDTs (61,90%), which makes it an obligatory one. The step, M1 - S2: Quotation to Support Ideas, is another new step under Move 1 that emerged in this study. The step presents quotations to emphasize the importance of the subject matter to be studied, and it is quite easy to recognize it as the authors directly quote the person. The step is present in 3 PhDTs out of 21 PhDTs (14,29%), which makes it an optional one.

Move 2 is present in most of the introductions (19/21, 90,48%) in the introductions of the PhDTs in IR, and it can be regarded as an obligatory move. In addition, because it is found more than once in all of the introductions, this move is cyclical, in agreement with Swales' Model (2004). This move aims to justify the research being reported (Kanoksilapatham, 2012) and functions as "establishing a niche for about-to-be-presented research" (Swales, 1990: 154). "M2- S1A: Indicating a gap" indicates a gap in earlier research in literature. Out of the four steps to create a niche, this is the most often used step in the PhDT introductions in IR. This move is present in 19 PhDT introductions out of 21 introductions (90,48%), and it can be considered as an obligatory move. "M2- S1B: Adding to what is known" is used to claim that the current study provides additional insights along the same line of previous research to justify the research study. The step is present in only 9 PhDT introductions out of 21 introductions (42,86%), and it can be considered as an optional move. The final step under M2 is M2- S2: Presenting positive justification**.** Different from M2S1A and M2S1B, this step evaluates previous research in literature by presenting positive justification and making a positive evaluation (Kanoksilapatham, 2012). M2S2 is found in 13 out of the 21 PhDT introductions in the corpus of this study (61,90%).

The role of Move 3 is to turn the niche established in Move 2 (Establishing the Niche) into the research space that justifies the present study (Swales, 1990). In Swales" Model, this move includes seven steps, some of which are obligatory, optional or probable in some fields. In the PhDT corpus in IR, this move is distinct from Swales" Model since it includes nine possible steps based on the results of this study. Similar to M1, M3 is found in every PhDT introduction in this corpus study (21/21, 100%). The first step, M3 - S1: Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively is noted as an obligatory one. It is present in all of the PhDT introductions (100%), and it can be considered as an obligatory step for PhDT introductions in IR. The function of the second step under M3 is to display research questions or hypotheses of the present research study (M3-S2). While this step is regarded as an optional one by Swales (2004), it was found to be obligatory in the PhDT introductions in IR due to its high rate of Occurrence (95,24%). "M3-S3: Definitional clarifications" is one of the optional steps in the corpus. It is found in 7 out of the 21 PhDTs with 33,33%, which makes it an optional step as it is below the 50% cut off point. "M3-S4: Summarizing Methods" is an obligatory step in the PhDT corpus. It is found in 21 out of the 21 PhDTs (100%). In this step, the methods selected for the study are given. "M3 - S5: Announcing principal outcomes" is an optional step in the PhDT introductions in IR as it is found in 10 out of 21 PhDTs (47,62%) . In this step, the

authors briefly report the main arguments of their research study by directly making a reference to their theses. “M3 - S6: Stating the value of the present research” is an obligatory step in the PhDT introductions in IR as it is found in 13 out of the 21 PhDTs (61,90%). In this step, the authors informed the discourse community members about the value of the research study. “M3 - S7: Outlining the structure of the paper” is another obligatory step in the PhDT introductions in IR as it is found in 21 out of the 21 PhDTs (100%). With this step authors roadmap the structure of the research study so that readers can easily follow them. “M3 - S8: Limitations of research study” is a new step in the corpus and it is found in 4 out of 21 PhDTs (19,05%), which makes it an optional one. The step is quite easy to recognize as the authors list the limitations of research study. “M3 - S9: Evaluating the method selected” is the second new step under Move 3 in the corpus. It is found in 3 out of the 21 PhDTs (14,29%), which makes it an optional one. Although it can be categorized as Move 3- Step 4 Summarizing Methods, it is different from it in that it does not mention the method selected but evaluates the method selected for the study. That is, it includes such statements as “useful”, “clarifies”, which mentions the strengths of the method. Also, there are phrases (e.g., while, on the one hand, on the other hand, however, there is need for ...) that mention the weaknesses of the method selected. Thus, it might be useful to consider it as a different step.

Conclusion

This study investigated the discoursal features of the PhDT genre in a specific discipline (in International Relations) by a move and step analysis of the introduction sections of the 21 PhDTs based on the Swales’ CARS Model (2004). Due to the differences in the use of steps, some modifications in the CARS Model (2004) were found to be necessary concerning the steps to make it more compatible with the PhDT introductions.

This study was conducted with the purpose of providing novice writers with the genre specific features of PhDTs in the field of IR. The findings of the study could be seen as the shared conventions of the members of a discourse community in which they convey their ideas and present their research findings. Being a part of a discourse community is particularly challenging for novice writers who are “unfamiliar with the rules of the game” (Gosden, 1995: 39). However, only in this way can academicians produce well- written PhDTs to publish their work. At this point, genre analysis plays an important role in investigating general and specific organizational patterns of RAs and PhDTs within specific disciplines (e.g. Bhatia, 2002; Dudley-Evans, 1995, 1997; Gosden, 1995; Flowerdew, 2000; Misak et al., 2005; Swales, 1990).

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How Are Indonesian Families in England Involved in Their Children's L2 Acquisition?

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Abstract
This study investigates the way families of Indonesian scholars who live in England support their children to be bilingual, particularly when the children start studying at an English school. The data on parental involvement was obtained through semi-structured interview and observation. The result suggests that parental involvement remains important although children receive a massive exposure to English from the L1 community. The findings indicate that parents support their children to acquire English in some ways. In the beginning, parents put a great emphasis on vocabulary enrichment in order to help the children to read the literature and communicate with their friends. To support their children to be able to interact with L1 speakers, parents allow the children to play with their friends who are native speakers and join after-school clubs. Parents also show that building communication with the teachers to gain the information about their children's language development is essential. Finally, it is suggested that parents, especially the dependants, should learn the culture related to the language in order to support the development of children's cultural knowledge.

Keywords: Parental involvement, language development, second language acquisition

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Introduction

In recent years, there has been an increasing number of Indonesian scholars coming to England to pursue higher degree accompanied by their family members. This is a good opportunity for the children to enrol in a school in England. On the other hand, it could be challenging for them to study at the school where English is the medium of communication. Accordingly, understanding how the children acquire their second language has become more critical. Research on that area is essential to investigate the way parents provide support for their children. This is an interesting topic since the children could not speak English well when they come to England for the first time. Surprisingly, after several months their language proficiency increased significantly, and some of them have a native-like accent. However, there might be certain challenges and opportunities that need to be revealed.

An area of language learning that needs to be taken into account to support immigrant children is parental involvement. There might be a correlation study on the connection between family literacy program and school practices is needed (Dixon and Wu, 2014). This study investigates the way how parents support their children to acquire English as the second language, especially in language and literacy development. Generally, parents play an important role towards children's language development. Therefore, the involvement and intervention of parent in second language literacy is absolutely crucial (Kummerer & Opez-Reyna, 2009; Sheridan, 2011; Wei & Zhou 2012).

Many studies on parental involvement in the L2 acquisition are conducted in the country where English is not the first language. Therefore, in this study, I investigate parental involvement in L2 acquisition in Indonesian families who live in England. This study explores the ways parent support their children to acquire English as the second language. Hopefully, the results will benefit Indonesian scholars who plan to study in England accompanied by the family member.

Theoretical Framework

This study adopts the sociocultural theories which involved social development theory (Vygotsky, 1978) and language socialisation theory (Ochs and Schieffelin, 1984). In social development theory, Vygotsky (1978) argues that language development occurs mainly from social interaction, and in a supportive environment, novices could do more than what they can do independently, which is named the zone of proximal development (ZPD).

Ochs and Schieffelin in language socialisation theory (2011, p. 1) state that ‘language is a fundamental medium in children’s development of social and cultural knowledge and sensibilities.’ In addition, Garett (2008) states that a key aspect of language socialisation is the development of communicative competence, which involves acquiring the language proficiency as well as the culturally based knowledge in order to use language in culturally socially appropriate ways.

Studies on Parental Involvement in Second Language Learning

In the process of reviewing some studies related to parental involvement in second language learning, there are some issues that need to be taken into account. The first issue is about the strategies that are commonly used by the parent to support children's L2 acquisition. Forey at al. (2016) Investigated how Hong Kong families support their children at the age of 5 to 8 in English learning. They find that parents commonly support their children to learn English through vocabulary enrichment, using memorising and drilling words' technique. Ciara at al. (2017) in their attempt to search the factor behind children's vocabulary development find that successful vocabulary building could also be related to parents' education level and concern in language development. Huang (2013) in his ethnographic study explored the use of 'Literacy Bags' (LBs) to encourage parental involvement in English literacy learning of Chinese children. Interestingly, this project changed parents' attitude to be more positive towards English literacy development of their children. However, parental involvement could not be merely related to the linguistic point. Parents also can help their children by controlling children's homework, setting good learning condition, giving advice and providing feedback (Hurtado and Castaneda, 2016). Considerably, the most important thing in assisting the children in learning English is that should be fun (Castillo and Camelo, 2013). In addition, it is suggested that the parent should not be dominant. The dominant involvement from parents might not be better for children's development because children play a leading role in parental involvement (Pomerantz, 2007).

Children's motivation in learning English will be the second issue that needs to be explored. Motivation within every learner may vary, and it depends on the context such as age and social economy. Wadho et al. (2016) find that there is a correlation between L2 learners' motivation and the positive attitude of parents and teachers in Pakistan. This finding is in line with the study conducted by Morris et al. (2013) in South Korea which find that parents interest is correlated with children's motivational variable. In addition, previous findings are in line with Butler's (2015) study on the influence of socioeconomic status (SES) toward the children's motivation in China family. The finding contends that children of higher SES parents are more motivated to learn English than lower SES parents'. It happens because lower SES parents sometimes fail to support their children. Although parents' motivation could influence children's motivation, there might be a possibility for children to gain motivation from the teachers or peers at school.

The next issue is about schools' respond towards parental involvement. Although it is common that that parent is a valuable resource for their children to support children's language and literacy development (Reese, 2010), it would be more effective if schools provide assistance for the parents. It is common that not all parents have good English proficiency. To overcome the lack of knowledge in language learning, it is better to provide a dialogue between parents, schools and community (Al-mahrooqi, Denman, Al-maamari, 2016). In addition, Panferov (2010) argues that there should be two-way communication between schools and parents to succeed in parental support at home.

In the context of learning English in an English-speaking country, there will be many English communities that will benefit L2 learners to practice communication. Wenger

(1999) find that learning is a social process that is called legitimate peripheral participation (LPP). In this process, new learners engage in the community of practice where they have an opportunity to learn from experienced members, moving from the peripheral to full participation. The L2 learner will engage with the English expertise who will provide scaffolding. Collaboration between less competent children with adults or more skilful peers is an effective strategy to develop skill and competency. In this zone of proximal development, a beginner will receive valuable assistance to accomplish the goal (Vygotsky, 1978 cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2017).

In the process of L2 learning, parental involvement in children who study in the country of origin may be different for children who study at the L2 speaking country. The study outlined below investigates how parents support their children for the first time attending a new school where English is the medium of communication. The challenges of the parents to support their children in the L2 acquisition will also need to be given important consideration.

Discussion

In this study, I have investigated parental involvement in children's L2 acquisition from sociocultural perspective theory. Data were obtained from two Indonesian families through a semi-structured interview and observation. To answer the question, I need to consider carefully how language, parents, home-literacy environment and school were connected. In general, the data shows that both parents play an important role in children's second language development, especially for the first time attending school in England. Both families consider vocabulary enrichment as the main area that needs to be supported at the beginning. While family A perceives that vocabulary enrichment is the biggest challenge, family B find it easy to support their daughter's vocabulary development. Rina, the daughter of family B, was supported by her father through picture books and scrabbles. Her father bought them regularly. It seems that the father creates a supportive environment for his daughter (Vygotsky, 1978). In addition, home literacy activities that is conducted regularly could give a positive impact on vocabulary development (Hammer, Farkas, Maczuga, 2010).

I found that communication between parent and teacher is also essential. Let us take the example of bullying experienced by Budi when he could not speak English. Although it appeared many times, he did not report it directly to his teachers. Susi, the mother of family A, reported:

> My son tended to be silent… Last year my son experienced bullying… He reported it to me. Then I informed it to his teacher... After that, I asked my son why he was completely silent. He said that he was confused because he could not speak English. I said to his teacher about that then the teacher suggested him to use gesture as a means of reporting his bad experience (Susi, December 16, 2017, translated from Bahasa Indonesia into English).

As a new student at year-two class, he was not brave to speak English, and he found no one helpful at school. Therefore, he considered that his mother was the right person to receive his information. Another notable event is that Budi tended to be silent when the headteacher and some teachers greeted him with a friend in the morning. His mother encouraged him regularly to reply the greeting by giving an

example of how to do it. Those events reveal that although Budi gained immediate access to the L2 community, Budi still needs his mother to bridge him. This could be related to Vigotsky's (1978) theory that implies children need to be assisted by an adult. As Budi's teacher asked him to use gesture, there might be negotiation the meaning. It means that Budi also learned English from that process.

Budi's parent also gave him support to join after-school activities such as swimming, gymnastics and magic math class. Those activities provide many opportunities for Budi to participate and get many exposures from English language community. His mother said that he could learn English from the instruction given by his trainers or instructors. Additionally, his parent also allowed him to play with his friends who are native English speakers. Based on the interview data, his mother said that she recognised that Budi was confident to communicate when he was playing with his friends. It could be analysed that he practices his listening and understanding from the instructor's utterances.

One interesting point in the case of Rina, when she is at home, she gets many language exposures from TV programmes. This is under controlled by her father. After she heard a new word or sentence, she imitated the utterances that she heard. Then she practised it with her sister as well as his parents. Although both families have a different way to support their children, based on observation data their children have the same ability in speaking. This might also be argued that school is the place where both children get language exposure.

I found that cultural based knowledge is important. In B Family, for example, Rina complained to her mother that her father tended to respond using the same phrase when He noticed that Rina got a prize from the teacher. The father always says, 'that is good.' Rina expected that her father congratulated her on different phrases. It also happened with the family A. Susi's son reminded her because she was not queueing straight behind the person who stood in front of her. These examples suggest that to support children's language, the parent should learn the culture related to that language.

Interestingly, both families did not find considerable difficulties to support their children to speak English. Regular exposure to English community could be the reason. As I mentioned before, school is the main place where children get regular exposure to the L2 community. It could be the reason why teachers from different schools are confident to guarantee that their children will be able to speak English after 3-month studying.

This study also highlights that two-way communication between parents and teachers in the scaffolding process is necessary. Teachers' suggestion of using gesture as a means of reporting a violent act from the child's friend and teachers' suggestion of using vocabulary card to support child's L2 development is the illustrative examples. Teachers considered it as their responsibility to help Budi to improve language skill. In addition, Two-way communication is also perceived to be an effective home support for English language learner (Panferov, 2010). This can help both parents and teacher to find the solution towards children's problems.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

After exploring parental involvement in the L2 acquisition, this study arrives at some conclusions. The first is that vocabulary enrichment is the main concern of the families to support their children's language and literacy development. Putting vocabulary cards on the wall, reading picture books, and playing scrabble are the ways chosen by Indonesian families. There might be many ways to help children to develop their vocabulary. However, the most important thing is that children feel comfortable in their ways to enrich the vocabularies. Secondly, building two-way communication with the teachers is essential. Family A finds it helpful to know their son' progress and to find the solution towards the problem faced by his son, particularly in language and literacy development. Two-way communication is also useful for the school to gain feedback from parents dealing with future development. Thirdly, to encourage the children to participate in the L1 community, parents do not only focus on communicative competence but also culturally based knowledge. This is important since a different country may have a different culture. Therefore, parents should learn the culture in order to support children to learn the language as well as the culture embedded in that language. Overall, parents find it easier to assist their children in learning English in an English-speaking country, compared to learning English in their country of origin. In the English-speaking country, their children can easily get access to the L2 community. the children get scaffolding from the native speakers through communication at school or at playing ground. Although the child gets direct access to the L2 community, parental involvement is required to link him with the community. The main implication is that there should be a certain training or workshop conducted by the school to assist parents who have children that start studying at a British school. It can be a workshop in assisting children to develop their literacy and language development or the workshop to make a creative media for children to practice English such as vocabulary cards. The second implication is that parents should provide access to the L2 community for children. This is useful for the children to develop their communication skill. Participation with native speakers allows the children to fully practice their language without any feeling of stressful. For further research, it is essential to investigate the relationship between parental involvement and family language policy. As language policy varies within families, there might be some different outcomes in children's language ability.

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Gaining Insight into Culture through a Chinese Classical Novel: The Story of the Stone

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Abstract
This paper is to discuss if Chinese classical novels could help people who learn Chinese to build up knowledge of Chinese culture more comprehensively. The study aims at introducing Chinese culture to the intermediate language learners from Korea who endeavored to read The Story of Stone as it plays a critical part in contemporary Chinese society, but they were not proficient enough to understand classical Chinese. To bed commensurate with their levels, the materials were rewritten by highly coherence readers to three articles. The course devised by ADDIE is an instructional design process to maintain the quality of teaching. This teaching purpose aimed at 5Cs, including enhancing learners' ability of communication and comprehension of culture in target language. I used DRTA(Directing Reading Thinking Activities) in the course as it could aid learners to understand the text and took in the readings of target language. Nevertheless, it could encourage students to help each other in courses and reinforce their motivations. The thinking in the target language is also boosted as Whorf (1956) pointed out that thinking is entirely linguistic; therefore, the language we use affects our thinking and our view of world (Daniel, 1995). This design of courses includes three topics of culture: family, gender and religion; leaners firstly understand the Chinese culture in this novel and draw a comparison with theirs. This study adopts both quality and quantity approaches, whilst the result shows learners are satisfied and agree with our perspective that literature helps them to gain insight into culture.

Keywords: The story of the stone, teaching Chinese culture, design of teaching Chinese literature, DRTA, ADDIE

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Introduction

When it comes to language courses, the understanding of culture seems to be in the realm of language teaching; in other words, the language learners should gain insight into culture. It is reasonable that the goal of a language learner is to master a language, but the sequence appears to be the other way around, especially for their mother language when people learn their mother language, the process is strongly correlated with their culture. Locals learns their mother tongue through natural surroundings, literature or social life. As a result, sufficient understanding of culture is a cornerstone of language learning and it helps students avoid the bottlenecks.

This study aims at teaching Chinese culture and language to Korean intermediate language learners by a Chinese classical novel. The students had the fundamental understanding of Chinese and needed to gain insight into the culture more than others. To some extent, learning a language is equivalent to understanding its culture. Language is an essential tool for communication whilst culture constitutes its background. Language and culture is inseparable when teaching a second language course, as culture does not only affect people's cognitive and thinking but also language (Brown, 2007). Therefore, *The Story of the Stone* is taken as the teaching materials to equip language learners with the understanding of Chinese culture.

The objective of this study is to know if a Chinese classical novel can help students to gain in-depth knowledge of Chinese culture. *The Story of the Stone* is a nineteenth century vernacular classic, it was selected for two reasons. Firstly, the time it was published is near modern era, which means the context of this novel still plays a critical part in current Chinese society. Secondly, part of pre-modern Chinese language used in this book is still active in contemporary Chinese culture. Therefore, via studying *The Story of the Stone*, the students are trained as intermediaries for culture and language.

Regarding the study of culture, Oswalt (1970) divided culture into "Culture" and "culture". Culture includes literature, history, philosophy, politics, and so on whereas culture is the way people use to live in daily life. After a period of time people have learnt a language, they will bump into obstacles to realise a target language (Lv, 2005). Consequently, culture is not enough to support their learning, but Culture can serve as the background knowledge to students. Therefore, teachers may add more teaching materials about Culture in the courses. In the course I devised, the ratio of teaching materials for Culture to the ones for language was around two to one.

I applied Action research in the design of this study as it improved the unit after every class' practicing. Quantitative approach is integrated into qualitative research. That is to say, the quantitative data were collected from the scale, which was designed according to the Likert scale, from every class, and the qualitative resources, such as interviews, homework, and teacher's diary for instruction, were obtained as well. There were ten Korean students in this study and the information related to the research was listed as follows:

Name	The language level o: Mandarin	Learn Mandarir time	The time they have stayec in Taiwan
Student A	Intermediate	5 years	3 mouths
Student B	Intermediate	2.5 years	3mouths
Student C	Intermediate	3 years	3 mouths
Student D	Intermediate	Around 5 years	9 mouths
Student E	Intermediate	2 years	3 mouths
Student F	Intermediate	3 years	3 mouths
Student G	Beginning	3 years	9 mouths
Student H	Intermediate	2 years	3 mouths
Student I	Intermediate	3 years	3 mouths
Student J	Intermediate	2 years	3 mouths

Figure 1: The Students' information

The research is demonstrated in three parts in this paper: the course design and practice, the text design and practice, and the teaching design and practice. The structure of design and the result of practices in the classes are introduced in each part.

The Course Design and Practice

While designing the course, we aimed at teaching Chinese culture towards the 5 Cs, and this course was constructed by ADDIE (Instructional Design Process) to incorporate the design of material, class, and Action research, which formed a comprehensive process for teaching and learning. *The Story of the Stone* is a Chinese classical novel containing factors originating from its own culture and the main purpose of this course was to introduce its theme to students. When it comes to arranging the course, it referred by Grave(2007)'s the design of the course was referred as follows:

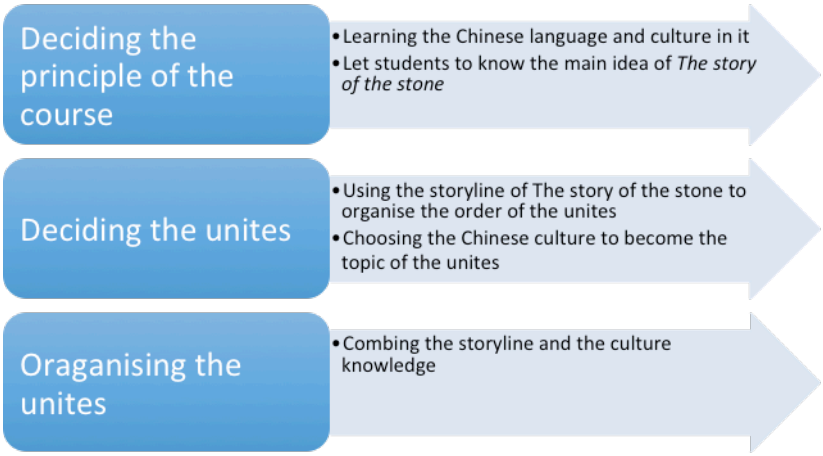

Figure 2: The aspects of the course design

To help intermediate language learners achieve the principles, this course aimed at the 5 Cs stander of American Council on The Teaching of Foreign Language(ACTFL); that is to say, students are expected to achieve five aspects in learning a second language: communication, cultures, connections, comparisons and communities. It is worth noticing that the course highlights students' ability of communication and

knowledge of culture. Lv(2010) pointed out that in classical literature related classes, language teachers should take students' interest into account so as to prioritize the parts of culture they teach and allow the learners to make comparison of their own cultures. Moreover, teachers need to tailor the vocabulary to students' levels.

Thereby, one perspective of Chinese culture of this novel was chosen as the topic for every unit. Students learnt the background of that culture and understood its origin. Henceforth, the connection between Chinese culture and theirs was built up through discussions. Many factors were included, such as course design, units materials, teaching methods and studying methods, to cover all the bases. The main structure of this course designed by ADDIE(Branch, 2009) is Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation.

Firstly, concerning Analysis, there were ten students from Korean colleges in this course and they chose to study in Taiwan for learning language and understanding local culture. According to the preschool language test, there were B2 level students in CEFR(Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment). Therefore, they knew *The Story of the Stone* is a renowned classical novel in Chinese culture but it was incomprehensible for them without the teacher's help.

Secondly, regarding Design, according to the pre-study of this course in another class, "*The Story of the Stone*: Chinese Culture Teaching for Foreign Language Learners – Its Methodology"(Lin, 2014), students replied that the 4-hour course was too short for understanding this book, so this time I extended the course to 12 hours, it included three sections and each one was 4 hours. Topics of Chinese culture and plots of this novel are linked as follows –

Unit	**Name of the unit**	**Culture topic**
1	The luminescent jade	Myth
2	Man is made of mud while woman is of water	Gender
3	Baoyu become a Buddhist monk	Religion

Figure 3: The unit names and culture topics

The story ran smoothly in these three units, and as the level of intermediate learners was considered, the original material was rewritten. The texts were accompanied with pictures, interpretations and evaluations to help learners achieve the teaching aim.

Thirdly, when it comes to Development, the three texts were checked by the other four Chinese teachers who have 3 to 8 years seniority in this field to verify the validity of the content. Their details are as follows:

Teacher	Education	Teaching period
Teacher Zeng	MA Teaching Chinese as a second language	3 years
Teacher Zhang	MA Teaching Chinese as a second language	3 years
Teacher Dai	MA Teaching Chinese as a second language	3 years
Teacher Chen	PHD Chinese Study	8 years

Figure 4: The details of the experts

Finally, regarding Implementation and Evaluation, Action research in this study was employed through planning, acting, observing and reflecting for improving the study (Lewin, 1947). After every unit, there were questionnaire with open questions for students to provide their feedback. The questionnaires were analyzed by SPSS 12 as the last step of data analysis to improve the performance of the next class. The questionnaires were compared with the qualitative information acquired from the open questions students answered as the records for teachers. In the end of the class, students were interviewed to see if they realise the course design, the related practice and asked to write a review of the book.

Question	Unit 1 Mean	Unit1 S.D.	Unit2 Mean	Unit2 S.D.	Unit 3 Mean	Unit3 S.D.	M.M.	M.S.D.
I can understand this course	4.0	.94	4.4	.53	4.1	.32	4.3	.6
I can learn Chinese culture from this course	4.0	.47	4.2	.44	4.1	.57	4.1	.49
I want to learn more about The story of the Stone after this course	4.1	.74	4.6	.52	4.2	.42	4.3	.56
This course can make me have more interest about it	4.3	.95	3.9	.60	4.1	.32	4.1	.62
I want to learn more about Chinese literature after this time	4.2	.63	4.2	.44	4.2	.63	4.2	.57
I feel satisfied in this course	4.3	.48	4.1	.78	4.2	.42	4.2	.56
M.M.	4.2	.70	4.2	.55	4.2	.45	4.2	.57

Figure 5: The course satisfaction of three times practicing

Figure 5 shows that most of the students were satisfied about this course as they agreed that this course does not only enhance their command of Chinese but also help them gain the knowledge of Chinese culture:

Student D: I learnt Chinese culture in this course. I found that the ancient Chinese and Korean cultures are very similar. Although the myths are different, there are also the same concept, such as ghost, god, and karma, in both cultures.

Student C: I thought that Taiwanese students have to read *The Story of Stone* because they need to understand ancient Chinese culture. I am a Christian, so I do not believe in any mythical figures like Nvwa, a goddess who created human beings. But it's still very interesting.
-The records / minutes of interviews

Moreover, this course has boosted students' confidence in learning Chinese because they thought this novel was very difficult at first but after the course they had its background knowledge and could discuss it with locals.

The 12-hour course is appropriate as it allows students enough time to understand this novel and is not too lengthy as the principle is to introduce main ideas / theme of this novel. Through reading *The Story of the Stone*, students gained confidence in learning Mandarin, and in the culture course students were not disheartened by the difficulty of the language learning. They felt proud instead that they could study a must-read for locals and it helped them gain insight of the culture.

The Text Design and Practice

The Story of the Stone was written in classical mandarin. According to the glossary of TOFCL(Test Of Chinese as a Foreign Language), it is impossible for the intermediate level students to understand. Moreover, the purpose of this course was to teach culture and introduce this classical novel to the students who were eager to understand it but found it inaccessible, so the original texts in the novel had to be rewritten; otherwise, teachers would spend too much time on explaining words the teaching purpose was unattainable. Krashen(1982) stated that the i+1 is an effective way for students to learn the target language, that is to say, the "i" is the knowledge that students already had and the 1 is the new knowledge that students need to learn. In other words, too much new knowledge can be overwhelming for students and get them overloaded and discouraged.

However, the students in the pre-study wanted to know the storylines of *The Story of the Stone* in the course (Lin, 2014) as it would be helpful if they could have the texts of the novel from students' perspective. As a result, rewriting the texts coherently was a paramount task to help students of all levels understand the novel.

There were 6 texts rewritten into modern traditional Mandarin: the story text, the pictures, the vocabulary explanation with Pinyin, sentences practice, the multiple choices, and the culture topic relative writing. The first three texts were to enhance students' comprehension and the rest of them were to helping test students to test their level of understanding. Every rewritten text was checked and revised by four professional teachers. Furthermore, students took in three things by the texts: the storyline of *The Story of the Stone*; the context of Chinese culture, and its target language.

Question	Unit 1 Mean	Unit1 S.D.	Unit2 Mean	Unit2 S.D.	Unit 3 Mean	Unit3 S.D.	M.M.	M.S.D.
I can understand the text	4.1	.88	4.0	1.22	4.2	.63	4.1	.91
The story can attract me	3.9	.74	4.0	.5	3.9	.88	3.9	.71
I can understand the text more after I finish the practice questions	4.0	.82	3.6	1.13	3.9	.57	3.8	.84
I feel satisfied	3.9	.57	4.1	.60	4.4	.52	4.1	.56

about this text								
M.M.	4.0	.75	3.9	.86	4.1	.65	4.0	.75

Figure 6: The teaching materials satisfaction in the three times teaching

Figure 6 demonstrates that the text in unit 2 was a little too difficult and I adjusted the difficulty in unit 3. Consequently, the satisfaction of text increased again in unit 3. The text in unit 2 was the most popular one as most students were excited about the love story; many students replied that they liked the discussions about gender and romances between roles. They also compared the discrepant behaviours of couples between Taiwanese and Koreans. In general, the students thought the text helped them take in the story and improved their Chinese; moreover, the three units constituted a complete story while motivated students' learning.

Student J: This was my first time to learn Chinese literature and it has grown on me. I want to choose the course of Chinese novels in the future because I want to read them. I never read any Chinese novels before this class as it was simply too difficult.

Student E: I was surprised at the story It is impossible to comprehend it thoroughly, but I could imagine it when I read it.

-The records / minutes of interviews

This text allowed students to have the material for studying *The Story of the Stone* and improving the reading and writing. In the end they also applied this text was more helpful that through a teacher to learn.

The Teaching Method Design and Practice

The objective of this course was to make *The Story of the stone* a medium that helps students obtain in-depth understanding about Chinese culture. According to Liu (2000), teaching Chinese culture should abide by three principles: firstly, the target language in the class needs to be close to the culture point; secondly, for building the culture relative ability, students need to learn how to socialise and have conversations in the target society in the class; finally, teachers should choose the section of culture that students actually need and have an interest in.

As a result, there were two main teaching methods in this course: DRTA(Directing Reading Thinking Activities) and Cooperative Learning. DRTA is advantageous to understand the main text and students can accustom themselves to read target language with comprehension while Cooperative Learning is to encourage learners in helping each other in the class and boost their motivation in learning.

There are three steps in DRTA: "Predict" is the first step; before students read the text, teachers design activities such as pictures and videos. And students can use their background knowledge to speculate the questions asked while their motivation is boosted. The second step is "Read"; students can find the answer themselves that teacher asked in the first step by reading the text. The final step is "Prove"; after the reading, students can analyse the roles and the story for further discussions (Wang, 2010). Thinking is entirely linguistic (Whorf, 1956), in other words, the language we

use will affect our thought of this world (Daniel, 1995). DRTA can train students to think in the target language and they can gain insight of the culture as well.

When it comes to comparing and connecting the culture of the target language and students' own culture, Cooperative Learning can help each other and share the experience to achieve its objectives through discussions (Jonhson& Jonhson 1987). Brown (2007) also pointed out that even some students can get the positive result when they across the culture to learn and live but some of them will be maladaptive. Therefore, group discussion in the class can reduce their stress and they can use it to understand the parts they do not understand (Chen, 2011). As a result, there were four advantages of using Cooperative Learning in this class: a) students discussed and spoke in Chinese so they could gain the ability of listening and speaking, b) students can help each other to learn and adapt to Chinese culture, c) students could learn from exchanging their methods of learning, and d) students could enjoy social activities and networking.

Question	Unit 1 Mean	Unit1 S.D.	Unit2 Mean	Unit2 S.D.	Unit 3 Mean	Unit3 S.D.	M.M.	M.S.D.
Discussing with classmates is helpful for my learning	3.7	.67	3.5	.73	4.3	.48	3.8	.63
I can understand *The story of The Stone* by teacher's teaching	4.1	.32	4.2	.44	4.1	.57	4.1	.44
I can understand Chinese culture more by teacher's teaching	4.3	.48	4.1	.33	4.3	.48	4.2	.43
Teacher can notice when I need help in the class	4.0	.67	4.3	.5	4.1	.32	4.1	.5
Teacher can figure out my questions in the class	4.5	.52	4.2	.67	4.1	.32	4.3	.5
Teacher has a good attitude in the class	4.6	.51	4.6	.53	4.1	.32	4.4	.45
M.M.	4.2	.53	4.2	.53	4.2	.42	4.2	.49

Figure 7: The course satisfaction in three times teaching

I divided the students into 4 groups for discussions for Cooperative Learning in the first unit, and one of the students was not satisfied with his classmate who demonstrated his point of view to the class. Therefore, in the next unit, I let him pick the group he wanted to join and the problem was solved.

Student I: My Chinese is not proficient enough to read this novel, but I really want to know the things locals learn. The general class for Taiwanese students in school was too difficult, but through your teaching we could learn and practice.

Student H: Sometimes I could not understand the class then I asked Student B when we discussed.
-The records / minutes of interviews

Therefore, the advantages of employing DRTA and Cooperative Learning as teaching methods in this course were: a) group members using Chinese to discuss and talk in the class could improve their ability of speaking and listening, b) group members could help each other to learn, thus, their anxiety was reduced and their efficiency in learning was increased, c) students helped each to adapt the local culture, d) students learnt from each other and there was adequate peer pressure among themselves, and e) their social interaction was improved.

Conclusion

All in all, the language course is to learn the target language understand the target culture but this course is through learning the Chinese culture to learn Mandarin. I devised the teaching materials for Culture to the ones for language around two to one in this course and its effectiveness was demonstrated as students had more motivation and foundation to gain into the target culture.

Most Chinese literature is too difficult to the intermediate language learners; on the other hand, it is the period these students need more background knowledge of Chinese culture to support their learning. That is to say, they are eager to understand the related literature as the same as locals. *The Story of the Stone* is a novel can be regarded as appropriate teaching materials for Chinese culture course. It is not only a famous Chinese novel but also contained diversified perspectives on Chinese culture.

To sum up, if the teaching materials such as the literature of target language lays the foundation for culture courses, students can get an effective approach to the culture of native speakers.

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Teachers' Perceptions on Reflective Practices in Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study

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Abstract
This study examines the perceptions of teachers on their reflective practices in private higher education institutions.The aim of the study is to understand how teachers' perceptions on their practices may impact the development of their teaching methods. The research investigates the views of teachers on their reflective practices and examines the teachers' approaches in applying such practices in teaching to establish whether these reflective practices are important and to what extent they benefit the teacher. This research focuses on English departments within the context of private institutions: The American University in Cairo (AUC) and Misr International University (MIU). A qualitative approach was utilized in this study.Ten faculty members voluntarily participated in a one-on-one interview.The study adopts the experiential learning cycle as its theoretical framework focusing on the stages of reflection.The results appear to support the finding that instructors of both AUC and MIU were aware of the significance of reflection because it has positive impact on their teaching. Moreover, self-reflection on practices appeared to be plausible and experienced by individual participants as helpful. Furthermore, they were valuing feedback from students and peers to a great extent. Furthermore, teachers were both self-reflecting to ensure they were doing their jobs properly and meeting students' needs.There was an indication that they wanted to improve in their own performance in order to enhance and enrich students'learning. Data collected and literature in this research have demonstrated that reflective practices should be reinforced and incorporated in teaching because it has positive impact on teacher instruction.

Keywords: Reflective Practices - Development - Teaching methods

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Introduction

The higher education arena is witnessing a great movement of reformation after facing various challenges in the twenty-first century. Lowery (2003) suggested that one of these reform endeavors is to create and develop educators who are reflective of instruction and learning process. Instructors need to build the abilities for reflective thinking, look into work that has been done, and research the function in various situations. Duthilleul (2005) mentioned that in order to be able to work in diverse environments, it is essential for teachers to research on the job through developing their reflective practices skills.Consequently, to enhance the instructive needs for students, different styles of teaching must be considered. Mirzaei, Phang and Kashefi (2014) reported that educational reform advances learning conditions and situations that energize meaningful and useful learning as opposed to learning that depends on repetition and memorization, creating an alternate perspective of teaching and learning which are the methods for supporting both education and the learning process.

The idea of 'reflection', with its broad meaning is currently utilized as a general practice crosswise over higher education, particularly in proficient settings and in self-awareness development for students. It has additionally been utilized as a general practice within projects and programs of beginning proficient advancement for new individuals from scholastic staff on educating, or scholarly practice in a more comprehensive manner (Grace et al., 2006).

Several studies were conducted to explore the benefits that could be gained from utilizing and exploiting the reflective skills in educational institutions, generally, and in higher education, specifically. In view of the studies reviewed, reflection is undeniably an absolute necessity for experts particularly in education. Therefore, educators ought to reflect on what is going on within the classroom, why students are carrying on the way they do, and what should be done for the students to manage a decent classroom encounter that will lead to better learning practices. Numerous specialists have directed studies concerning reflective teaching in education (Grace et al., 2006) indicated that the objective of the studies conducted on the adequacy of reflection is to offer an outlook for affecting future practice.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to investigate the views of teachers on reflective practices in teaching at private tertiary institutions. The researcher examined the application of reflective competency in teaching in the English language Programs in AUC and MIU. The English department is based on the derived form of a variety of educational practices integrated by their faculty members for delivering the different content. Therefore, different strategies, practices and skills might be articulated in order to enrich the findings of this research, but the main focus is to assess the teachers' views on their reflective practices. In addition, there is a requirement for studies that further clarify and consider instructors' reflection with the goal of adding recommendations in regards to teaching practices. Hence, this investigation will inspect the educators'

perceptions' on reflective practices by determining and analyzing how they perceive their reflective skills that impact their teaching.

Research Questions

This research was conducted mainly to look into the reflective teaching practices in private higher education institutions in Egypt. The aim of this research is to answer the following questions:

1. In what ways do teachers reflect on their practices?
2. What is the perceived impact of reflective skills on the development of their teaching?

Literature Review

Definition and Forms of Reflection

It can be maintained that there has been several changes concerning the meaning of reflective teaching. As characterized by Dewey, reflective teaching is the deliberate and persevering thought of any supposed form or conviction of cognition in the figure condition to which it is given and the light of the ground that hold it. According to Dewey, reflection incorporates addressing and distinguishing such issues and in the end reflective instructors reflect upon the instructive, social and political settings in which their lessons are tied down (Sanopao, 2016). Eventually, reflection can offer the opportunity for teachers to widen their horizons and not to be limited to specific concerns.

While the idea of reflection has been around since ancient times, lately we have seen a resurge of enthusiasm for reflection as a method for comprehension and gaining from experiences. As reflection has no exact definition, it is comprehensive of changing theoretical points of view (Hickson, 2011). Furthermore, reflection has various forms, which can be depicted through several activities.

York-Barr and her colleagues (2006) mentioned that in order to "embed reflective practices as a social standard in schools," reflective practice spiral should be developed as an approach. They contend that reflective practice begins with individuals and spreads to larger communities and groups of practice. They depict various activities like journaling and cognitive coaching as well (p. 19).

The Significance of Reflection

Reflection includes: proficient development, personal growth and significant change. Reflection in teaching has developed into an overarching standard around the world where being a productive instructor includes an individual sense of duty concerning thoughtful practice. The debate regarding reflection is profoundly in a state of conflict; however, it can be considered as a basic ability and an image of scholarly depth (Atkinson & Irving, 2013).

Additionally, reflection is a powerful approach to self-improvement and self-coordinated learning (Gallacher, 1997). There is no doubt that reflection is essential for proficient development and productive instructing that without reflecting, the learning potential is lost and received experience might be neglected and ignored (Gibbs, 1988). Subsequently, educators can benefit a lot when reflecting on their work as it adds to the learning process. There is one quality over all that makes a good educator, the capacity to reflect and think about why, what and how things are done and to adjust and build up teachers' practices within lifelong learning. Reflection is the way toward effective learning for educators. As the Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK) guidelines clarify, reflection is the way to become an expert instructor as it is considered to be a supporting value (Scales & Kelly, 2012). In addition, educators gain more benefits from applying the idea of reflection in their development as experts.

The advantage of reflective practice for educators is a more profound comprehension of their own teaching style and more viability as instructors. Other advantages noted in the current literature incorporate the approval of an educator's beliefs, the advantageous challenges to tradition, the acknowledgment of instructing as a great skill, and the regard for assorted variety in applying theory to classroom practice. A case study of one educator/graduate student attempted to comprehend her convictions and practices about what constitutes great instructing. Her underlying instructional method for educating depends on the conventions and practices of direct instruction. Her traditional socialization to an educating practice made it troublesome to comprehend that her perspectives of good instruction were being tested in her teaching.

Nevertheless, the open door for investigation through reflective portfolio work empowered her to recognize and approve what she was realizing and learning (Ferraro, 2000).As such,teachers are able to develop their cognitive and learning skills when reflecting on their practices.

Additionally, several elements should be considered when tackling the idea of reflection.

Reflection is associated to components that are key to cognitive advancement and essential learning: the limit to enhance individuals' capacity to consider their reasoning; the limit to judge the nature of their work in light of confirmation and explicit criteria with the end goal of doing better work, the capacity to self-assess; the improvement of critical thinking, decision making, problem-solving; and the upgrade of understanding the student. (Rolheiser, Bower and Stevahn, 2000,p. 31-32)

For improving instructional methods, teachers take into consideration critical thinking skills. Brookfield (2017) suggests that reflective teaching is determining the essence of teaching. Therefore, instructors must keep reflecting on their methods of instruction to improve their teaching profession (Sanopao, 2016). As a consequence; teachers can improve their instructional methods through considering the notion of reflection.

The Reflective Teacher

Within the century, it has been argued by educators that instructors should be reflective about their work since societies and schools' orders are regularly changing to be able to cope and adequately adapt to such evolving circumstances (Grant & Zeichner, 1984). Alternatively, reflection on experience is the main basis for learning. Loughran (2002) states that experience cannot help with learning, but rather that reflection on experience is crucial for the sustainability of meaningful reflection. Similarly, Knowles et al. (2014) stressed that experience is transformed into learning throughout reflection; an argument that stresses on the significance of reflective thinking.

Quinn (2000) proposed that all the distinctive models have a tendency to include three essential procedures. First, retrospection which is recalling about an event or experience.In order to become reflective, teachers should think and reflect on what they experience in their work.

They need to analyze, assess and evaluate the situations they encounter.Second,utilize hypothetical points of view for analyzing the feelings and actions related to the experience.After considering different perspectives and theories, teachers should come up with the results that will help them in taking decisions for future plans.Third, reorientation that is dealing with comparable experiences throughout using the outcomes and results of self-assessment to impact future approaches.Such outcomes will help teachers in developing their skills, practices and methods for better instruction. In consequence, self-evaluation throughout reflection is an essential aspect for teachers.

The previously mentioned aspects led to tackling an essential issue in reflection, which is reflective thinking. Harrison (2008) noticed that observation, judgment, decision making, team working and communication are the core efficient thoughts of reflective thinking skills. The five abilities of reflective thinking including initial instructor education are critical competencies for professional development and are appropriate to all phases of the learning of educators. Instructors can create reflective thinking aptitudes with the collaboration provided through a teaching portfolio, dialogue journal, and purposeful discussion (Cruickshank, 1985). Overall, teachers gain numerous benefits when utilizing their reflective skills throughout various activities for developing their proficiency and better instruction in their classrooms.

The Origin of Reflective Approach

The origin of reflection was the fundamental work of Dewey that was additionally developed by Schön (1983), Argyris and Schön (1996) and Mezirow (1990) that set up the establishments of reflective practice. John Dewey was a leading educational philosopher of the late nineteenth and mid-twentieth century, and still his ideas are relevant. He understood that traditional instruction, as then rehearsed in his native America, was inflexible, static and deficient for the rapidly changing society and economy of the time. We should, as Dewey says, move from routine action to

reflective action, which is portrayed by continuous self-evaluation and advancement. The key to Dewey's rationality was the advancement of thinking, especially, reflective thinking (Scales & Kelly, 2012). Some other philosophers emphasize on the idea of reflection such as Schön, especially when it comes to putting it into practice.

Teacher's reflection was put into the spotlight after Schön (1983) interfaces reflective speculation and proficient practice. He communicated that experts confront a progression of difficulties and challenges that cannot be resolved by rational techniques and logical methodologies. He hypothesized an approach that experts can learn through reflection, that is, reflection in action and reflection-on-action (Sanopao, 2016).

On the other hand, Kolb was one of the philosophers who encouraged the idea of putting theory into practice throughout his theory of experiential learning. Learning through practice and reflective procedures has been elucidated by Kolb (1984) in the terms of his experiential learning hypothesis. The theory proposes that learning; change and development are encouraged by cyclic procedures. Such encounters include reflection on the experience, direct encounters and dynamic concept development from which conduct might be changed to help new encounters (Hickson, 2011). Eventually, in order to put theory into practice the significance of reflection should be considered by educators.

The previously mentioned ideas of the theorists and philosophers led to the exploration of the importance of reflection. David Kolb was one of the theorists who contributed to the idea of reflection with his experiential learning theory.

In consequence, both learning stages and cycles of Kolb can be utilized and considered by educators to basically assess the learning provision normally accessible to students, and to grow more fitting learning opportunities and discover ways to improve their teaching.

Kolb's Cycle on Experiential Learning

Kolb introduced his theory on experiential learning more than 20 years ago, which has been well accepted as an efficient pedagogical model of learning. Kolb's experiential learning theory provides clear mechanisms of teaching and learning design, which are strongly underlined with the constructivist view on the way people construct their knowledge (Abdulwahed & Nagy, 2009). Consequently, it can be maintained that the theory of experiential learning of Kolb contributes to pedagogy and instructional methods.

As stated by Butler (1996) and Oinsky et al. (1998), in the experiential learning process, experience is transferred into enhanced skills and knowledge, and educators might become aware of not only what was effective, but also why it was successful.
Four types of capacities are needed from learners if they are to be productive and effective. These stages are concrete experience abilities, reflective observation capacities, abstract conceptualizing abilities and active experimentation capacities.

That is they should have the capacity to include themselves in a complete and straightforward way without predisposition or bias in new encounters. They should be able to think, observe and reflect on their encounters from various points of view. Additionally, they should be able to create ideas and concepts that incorporate their perceptions and observations into rationally sound speculations and theories. In addition, they should have the capacity to solve problems and make decisions by utilizing these theories. Subsequently, teachers should discard old methodologies and create new theories in order to be creative and innovative. Learning is a procedure whereby information is made through the change of involvement. In like manner, the center of his model of experiential learning is "a straightforward portrayal of a learning cycle, how experience is converted into ideas, which thusly are utilized as aides in the decision of new encounters "(Kolb 1976, p.21). In consequence, teachers are considered to be learners in the learning process cycle as they learn from their experiences and attempt to improve their skills and capacities.

The idea of experiential learning shapes an alluring package for adult educators. It consolidates feeling, spontaneity and profound individual experiences with the possibility of reasonable reflection and thought. Moreover, it preserves the humanistic confidence in the ability of each individual to learn and develop; which is imperative for the idea of lifelong learning. It contains a positive ideology of experiential learning that is clearly vital for the education of adults (Miettinen, 2000). The idea of reflection gives educators the opportunity to discover new horizons and useful dimensions not only for learning but also for developing beneficial theories, which contributes to education.

The Experiential Learning Cycle's Contributions

The application of Kolb’s Four Stages Cycle on Experiential Learning proved its success when conducted in various institutions.

This research represents a personal account and assessment of an instructor from a course of organizational learning based on his conversations, observations, notes and reflections of his encounters instructing a management elective at MU. It emphasizes the significance of utilizing experience to additionally enhance and build up one's skills, identity and productivity. It depicts, the various progress stages encountered by the author, from an uncertain, novice to a confident educator and individual, the change from an instructor who depended on customary formal lecture based method of instruction to a more effective, educator able to adequately explore different avenues with more experiential strategies for teaching comprising of research projects, case studies and discussions.

The educator illustrates how adequately and effectively he applied the model of Kolb's ELT in order to remodel and enhance the Management course 4126 at the undergraduate level at MU and refined his instructing competence. The fundamental objective of the course was to guarantee that students comprehend the significance and pertinence of organizational learning and the tools and aptitudes required to learning associations' design.

The research approach is accordingly qualitative and depends on two years of instructing one to two sections for every fall and spring semesters for a management elective offered at MU. Established basically with the purpose to instruct African American youth, the college confers itself 'students first' as its center institutional values. The data was gathered from students' remarks on student assessment sheets; the teacher's personal notes about his discussions with the departmental chair and dean on a few events; letters dealing with students' complaints passed on from the dean about the course; and, lastly, through an open-ended questionnaire attempted on 35 students about the overall adequacy of the course in Spring 2007 on the request of the dean. The data is thusly complete and comprehensive covering the points of view from the instructor and the students, including the institutional management. It is additionally supplemented with his personal observations, tensions, worries and feelings, which he encountered amid a period of two years (Spring 2005 to Spring 2007) as the instructor of organizational learning course (Akella, 2010).

It can be concluded that the experiential theory of Kolb a well-developed theory that can be successfully used to analyze and explain the methods of instruction and styles of learning in the instructive research community.

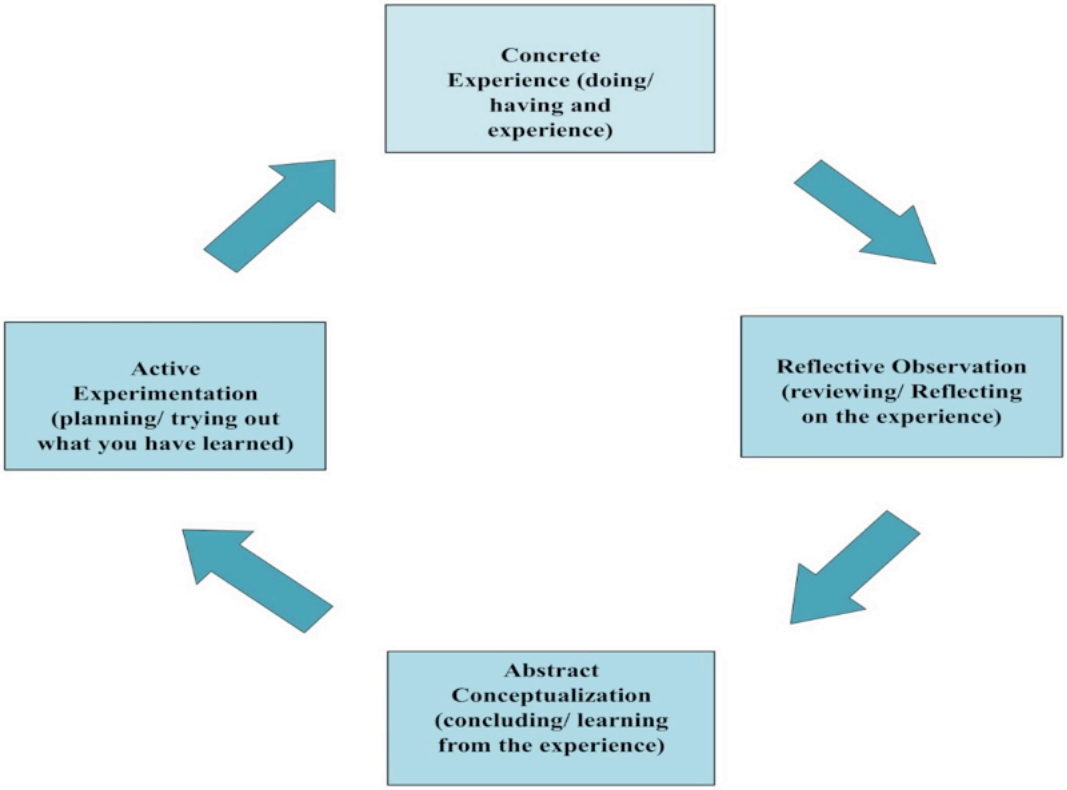

Figure 1. Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle - Stages of Reflection

Methods

This study utilized the qualitative method and took place in the American University of Cairo (AUC) and the Misr International University (MIU). A sample of teachers' informants was selected in order to conduct this research; moreover, convenience sampling was used to select the participants required to fulfill the purpose of the study. Five academics were selected from each university based on their willingness and availability to take part in the interview process, as most of the instructors were occupied with proctoring and correcting exams at the time of conducting the study. Participants from both universities were teaching language skills in the English program and have different English language degrees. All The participants are females and their age group varies ranging from 30 to 50 years old. They are employed as full-time staff and hold the same academic position except two participants who has a senior position (one from each university).They are seniors who are supervising the instructors in the English department. The research design included one instrument which was used to obtain data that investigated the reflective teaching skills of private universities English teachers. The data was collected by conducting one to one interviews in order to measure teachers' reflective skills.Interview protocol, included in (Appendix A), was employed to measure teachers' reflective practices.

For the articulation and explanation of the research, a list of questions on teachers' perceptions about reflective skills in AUC and MIU were provided to help in building a unique understanding from the interviewer perspective. The participants were able to expand and took after various lines of inquiry that might be acquainted to the interviewee through a rich discussion.

The data was collected by conducting one-to-one, semi-structured interviews to obtain data, in order to indicate the reflective teaching skills of private universities English instructors. The interview enabled instructors to answer the questions and clarify the significance of reflective practices and understanding the gaps if there were between educators' reflective competencies that they require in their instructing. Each interview lasted approximately 40 minutes. For data collection, approval was given to the interviewer in addition to a consent contract of Institutional Review Board (IRB) which was needed to be conveyed to the participants (Appendix B). Before the procedures took place, the administrators issued permission. After obtaining the required approvals, the researcher started to conduct interviews to gather the relevant ideas before starting the coding process. Interviews were audio recorded then transcribed and the consent form helped to ensure the participants approval of recording the interviews. Additionally, the researcher kept notes to better understand the recordings and to help in analyzing the gathered data. After conducting the interviews, the researcher started to transcribe the data. The data gathered from the interview was then analyzed using the thematic coding approach. In order to facilitate qualitative data analysis, answers to the interview questions were analyzed and different themes were generated.

Discussion

The Reflective Practices of AUC and MIU Instructors in the Context of Kolb's Experiential Cycle

In this section, the impact of reflective skills of AUC and MIU instructors on the development of their teaching methodology is discussed from the perspective of the experiential cycle of Kolb.

Developing and building up the instructional model of reflective skills for educators ' outcomes, supported teachers with an accommodating framework for incorporating certain models of their instruction. Eventually, the model's value is derived from the extent to which the instructors can utilize to meet their instructional objectives efficiently and effectively.

In the first stage of Kolb's experiential learning cycle, educators are considered to be learners who learn from the experience of reflection. They experience different situations in their class teaching or with a faculty member. Teachers deliver their lessons using different methods. They can rely on the traditional method or the modern techniques. In some cases, teachers can sometimes get unexpected negative results from their students. From here, teachers start to realize that they need to reflect in order to learn something new or improve on their existing skills and practices. At this stage they will observe and self-assess themselves by taking notes and comments from students on the specific situation where they describe it in their notebooks or journals.

Regarding the second stage of Kolb's cycle of experiential learning, the teacher will observe and reflect on the lesson he/she explained in class. Teachers reflect through students' feedback in class and peers' comments out of class. In other words, they describe what they experience by reflecting on the results. Regarding observation skills, the results attained for the finding and analysis of patterns appears to support the finding that instructors in both universities appeared to be aware of the significance of receiving their students and peers' feedback to enhance their instruction. In addition, they considered the verbal feedback received from their students to be valuable as it supports them with valuable insights that give them the opportunity to learn about themselves and reflect on their teaching methodology.

Notwithstanding, this is opposing to the instructors' responses on utilizing students' evaluation reports to enable them reflect as they did not see such reports as supportive and helpful, on the contrary, they saw them as judgmental. Mainly, based on the results, it would seem that instructors were engaged in reflective skills to improve the quality of their teaching, expectations and personal performance as a tool for developing their instruction. They were not open to the notion of using students' evaluation reports as part of the assessment criteria (Hamilton, 2005), or as a tool for measuring teachers' performance of their teaching to improve their reflective competencies. They may view an association between what they are instructing and practicing. Therefore, instructors appear to value verbal feedback from their students

as well as their peers and supervisors.

The results signify that a majority of instructors were self-reflecting to guarantee that they were doing their jobs accurately and above all they were meeting the needs of their students. What they meant is that they needed to develop their own performance with an end goal to enrich and enhance the learning of their students. Ball and Pearce (2009) noticed that teachers could become reflective of their teaching practices when they change their teaching methods and strategies when required. Additionally, the results implied that the instructors were keen on proceeded assessment of their own discipline. When it comes to the self-reflection section, it is interesting to notice that instructors in both universities connected between what they did in their classrooms and how it could impact the performance of their students.

Moreover, they appeared to be inherently motivated to improve as they noticed value in the feedback of their supervisors, peers and students. This finding infers that they are reflective about their own instruction and they gain numerous benefits from external support and direction. Most of the instructors were open to utilizing past experiences to enable them develop and that they are reflecting on them in reality. They seemed to have presumptions about the way they direct their lessons and how it relates to their students.They likewise appeared to own the reflective skills as suggested by Brookfield (2017).

After reflection, the instructor would notice the strength and weaknesses of their teaching that has been done throughout constructive feedback and self-reflection then think about what should be done for developing ideas and changing concepts. Some instructors offered suggestions on implementing modern technology and new methods in order to be more creative and innovative and for better outcomes in their teaching.

In the final stage of the experiential learning cycle, teachers should invest what they learned from their experiences, observation, and reflection in developing their ideas. Teachers will then put theory into practice by finding new ways to become more innovative and creative in implementing their teaching methodology. In order to be able to solve problems of negative outcomes of students and make decisions regarding implementing the appropriate methods in delivering their lessons, teachers will use their developed theories in addition to their experiences. After implementing such theories, teachers will figure out the results. Eventually, this process will help teachers discover ways to improve their methods after testing them in a new and different situation. Concerning judgment and decision-making skills, it was obvious that instructors in AUC and MIU demonstrated that they were eager to gain and learn from their mistakes. The findings for Making Judgments appeared to support this. They agreed upon the notion of trial and error because they could learn from mistakes and move ahead. They seemed to back research by Boody (2008) and Rudd (2007), which recommends that reflection is a necessary part of the procedure to articulate and analyze problems and issues as well as create a connection with what they do in the classroom.

The overall responses to the interview questions showed a higher frequency for

applying and carrying out the experiential learning cycle theory as suggested by Kolb (1984).This theory proposes that a teacher is considered to be a learner who learns from prior experiences.

Instructors from both universities agreed that getting engaged in reflective skills helps them improve their teaching, and, they perceived that teachers should reflect on their teaching on a regular basis,which will affect their future plans when preparing for their lessons.

This research study focused on the development of the reflective instructional model for teachers in higher education institutions, not only about how teachers think and reflect, but also about the impact of getting involved in their skills in order to invest in their practices to improve their teaching methods and meet students' needs. Subsequently, this simply requires teachers to reach a level of maturity that enables them to remove themselves from bias, consider different perspectives, learn from mistakes and make independent judgments and take appropriate actions.

Conclusion

Although the results of the interview and other literature incorporated some of the conclusions reached in this analysis, it is essential to concede that there are some limitations in this study.

Firstly, the researcher is an instructor at one of the universities where the research was conducted, which may have affected the results' interpretations albeit all conceivable precautions were utilized to maintain bias or predisposition. On the contrary, this limitation can likewise be deciphered as a factor that facilitated the elucidation of ideas, given the insider point of view and the teaching experience that the researcher had. Accordingly, the researcher played an important role on clarifying the questions to the participants and establishing a rich discussion during the interview.

Secondly, the interview's low response rate of participation was another issue. The researcher realized that this would be an issue and endeavored to address the head of the English department twice by sending emails to ask for participants and highlighting the significance of this study for teachers' development.

The possible clarification for the low response rate was that the instructors in the two universities were typically overloaded with work and did not have time to participate in the interview; it was a period of midterm exams and the majority were proctoring and correcting exams. In addition, some of the faculty members in the English department were available on campus for only two working days as they are hired as part timers; moreover, faculty members in the department have different schedules.

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Appendices

Appendix A Interview Protocol

The following Interview Questionsare adopted from the research titled Measuring Teachers' Reflective Thinking Skills conducted by Mirzaei, Phang, &Kashefi, (Interview Questions, 2014)**.**

Part 1: Observation Skill

1. Do you use any observation tools in your class except video and audio recording, writing and drawing? Please explain your response.
2. Please explain, how you assess your teaching to check the relevance of your teaching methods?
3. How do you use the results obtained from these assessments to improve your teaching?

Part 2: Communication Skill

4. Do you think having communication with other English teachers and students contributes to your teaching? If yes, please explain in what ways.

Part 3: Team working Skill

5. Do you think team working and peer coaching can support your teaching? What benefits do you see for both?
6. Do you have any co-teaching with other English teachers? If yes, please explain. What benefits do you see for co-teaching?

Part 4: Judgment Skill

7. Could you describe the strengths and the weaknesses of your teaching methods? What are your suggestions to improve the weakness?
8. Do you think evaluating your teaching method by your students and other teachers can help you to improve your teaching method? If yes, please explain how.

Part 5: Decision making Skill

9. In which way can the weakness and strengths of you teaching help you to make decisions for future actions?

Using a Web-based Video Annotation Tool in Pre-service Teacher Education: Affordances and Constraints

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Abstract
Teacher educators and researchers agree that while video has long been used in teacher education, with the recent developments in web-based technologies, it has more to offer for extending learning to teach. This qualitative study explores the affordances and constraints of using a web-based video annotation tool to analyze microteaching practices from the perspective of pre-service teachers studying at the English Language Teaching Education Program of a university in Istanbul, Turkey. For the purpose of the study, a cohort of 32 pre-service English language teachers (F: 27, M: 5) carried out 25-minute microteaching lessons which were video-recorded. Each pre-service teacher annotated microteaching video of his own and his peer using VideoAnt which is a tool for creating text-based annotations integrated within the timeline of a video hosted online. The pre-service teachers' views and experiences were elicited through reflective writing. Thematic analysis was used to analyze the obtained data. The findings showed that although pre-service teachers reported several affordances, they reported a few constraints of the tool. In this paper, the affordances and constraints emerged will be reported and discussed thoroughly.

Keywords: video annotation, pre-service teacher education, microteaching

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Introduction

Videos have become an essential learning tool in teacher education as an effective way of capturing and reviewing student teachers' presentations or microteaching lessons (Broady & Le Duc, 1995; Kleinknecht & Gröschner, 2016). Advances in technology such as web-based video annotation tools have offered new possibilities for the use of video in teacher training as they help pre-service and in-service teachers in reflecting on their own teaching and learning experiences (Rich & Hannafin, 2009). However, in spite of the valued position of video in teacher education and significant innovations about video annotation tools, relatively little research has been carried out on the affordances and constraints of using web-based video annotation tools to analyze microteaching lessons in pre-service teacher education, especially in English language teacher education programs (ELT). To fill in this gap and investigate the potential of web-based video annotation tools in language teacher education, the current study explores affordances and constraints of using VideoAnt, a web-based video annotation tool, to analyze microteaching lessons from the perspective of preservice language teachers.

Video Annotation Tools in Teacher Education

Video annotation tools are described as "online and offline programs that allow a user to mark portions of video and reflect on it by adding written, spoken or visual comments to that section of video" (Rich & Trip, 2011, p. 16). The emergence of video annotation tools has enabled teachers not only capture but also analyze video recordings of their teaching actions and their impact on student learning. As put forward by Rich and Hannafin (2009), video annotation tools enable "teachers to review, analyze, and synthesize captured examples of their own teaching in authentic classroom contexts" (p. 53). Due to the fact that student teachers generally have little opportunity to teach in real classrooms, microteaching has been extensively used in teacher education programs across the world to provide student teachers the opportunity to gain some practical experience within a controlled environment during their university courses. In this vein, teacher educators have begun to use video annotation tools in their practice-based courses to enable student teachers observe and analyze their microteaching lessons.

According to Norman (1988), affordances are "opportunities for actions; the perceived and actual fundamental properties of technologies that determine the usefulness and the ways they could possibly be used" (p. 9). Kirschner et al. (2004) identified the affordances of electronic collaborative learning environments into three categories: technological, social and educational. They described technological affordances by the usability which is "concerned with whether a system allows for the accomplishment of a set of tasks in an efficient and effective way that satisfies the user" (p. 50). Social affordances are described as properties of the online learning environment which make social interaction possible. Educational affordances are referred to as "characteristics of an artifact that determine if and how a particular learning behavior could possibly be enacted within a given context." (p.51)

An overview of the related literature on the affordances of video annotation tools shows that these web-based tools are found to be enabling teachers to observe and analyze their teaching and enhance their reflective practices due to the fact that

through these tools teachers are able to link their reflections to evidence (Bryan & Recesso, 2006; Rich & Hannafin, 2009; Sherin & van Es, 2005). McFadden et al. (2014) investigated the use of video annotation as a tool for enhancing reflective practices for beginning secondary science teachers who were enrolled in an online teacher induction course. Their findings indicated that VideoAnt afforded beginning teachers a mechanism to reflect directly on their classroom practices and supported the reflection-on-action. Ellis et al. (2015) conducted a research on the use of VideoAnt by beginning in-service secondary science and mathematics teachers. Their findings suggested that VideoAnt was an effective means to facilitate self-evaluation. Yet, their findings also indicated that in the case of lack of additional scaffolding, peer feedback usually involved praise and agreement. More recently, McCullagh and Doherty (2018) explored the experiences of using VideoAnt during microteaching seminars in primary science. Based on their findings, they suggested that the interactive features of VideoAnt enabled pre-service teachers to have a more detailed and consistent analysis of their teaching. They highlighted the potential of VideoAnt coupled with microteaching as an effective way to develop reflective thinking skills of pre-service teachers.

Method

This study employed the qualitative research design and data collection methodologies to explore the affordances and constraints of a web-based video annotation tool, namely, VideoAnt, in language teacher education from the perspective of student teachers. According to Creswell (2012), a qualitative study is "an inquiry process understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducted in natural setting" (p.2).

Research Context and Participants

This study was carried out in an ELT program at a university in Istanbul, Turkey during the fall semester of the 2017-2018 academic year. Data were collected from thirty-two ELT students (27 F, 5 M) whose ages ranged from 20-25. They were taking Listening and Speaking in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), a course which was offered in the third year of the teacher education program with the aim of helping student teachers extend their knowledge and skills in techniques used in teaching listening and speaking to English language learners at all levels of proficiency. Participants were selected based on convenient sampling and participation to the study was on voluntary basis. They were informed about the fact that they were free to opt out at any stage during the research processes. For ethical considerations, pseudonyms will be used for each student teacher in reporting the findings of the study.

Data Collection Procedure and Analysis

At the beginning of the term, all student teachers attended a one-hour workshop on how to use VideoAnt given by their course instructor. As part of the course requirements, each student teacher carried out a 25-minute video-recorded microteaching lesson during the term. The course instructor uploaded the microteaching videos on VideoAnt and asked student teachers to watch their own

video recordings and annotate them under the following categories established by the course instructor: i) Giving instructions ii) Eliciting responses iii) Giving feedback and iv) Other. Following the self-annotations, all student teachers were placed in cooperative pairings and were invited to watch and annotate the microteaching video of their pair to share formative feedback with him/her. Eventually, they were expected to return to their own microteaching video and read feedbacks received from their cooperative pairs.

Data for the study came from a reflective writing activity that required student teachers to write a reflective essay and share their views on and experiences about the use of VideoAnt incorporated into one of their departmental courses. The student teachers were informed about the fact that there was no right/wrong or expected answers. Data analysis was carried out following a thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The reflective essays were read several times in order to first develop a general understanding of the data and then to find the patterns that emerged from the data set. The patterns which were in the form of chunks were first coded and later labeled under main themes. Direct quotations were used to back the interpretations made by the researcher and to support a vivid portrayal of the reflections shared by the participating student teachers.

VideoAnt

VideoAnt, a free web-based video annotation tool created by the University of Minnesota, enables users the ability to add time marked text annotations to uploaded videos. In addition, other users such as peers or instructors can add annotations on the same videos. The video playback and annotation sections are separated visually so the user is able to view the video and the annotations at the same time. An example of a student teacher reflection using VideoAnt is given below.

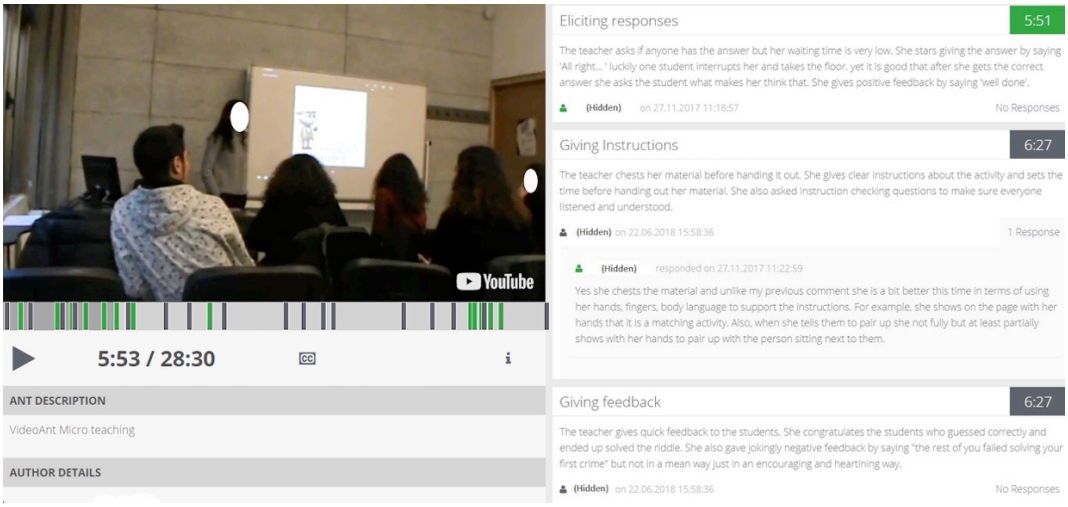

Figure 1. Example of a student teacher reflection using VideoAnt

Findings

The purpose of the present study was to explore affordances and constraints of using VideoAnt, a web-based video annotation tool, to analyze microteaching lessons from the perspective of preservice language teachers. The analysis showed that student

teachers' experiences regarding VideoAnt were largely positive. The student teachers overwhelmingly agreed that VideoAnt was effective in learning to teach and therefore they considered VideoAnt to be an appropriate tool to support their learning. Although student teachers mentioned various affordances of VideoAnt, they mentioned very few constraints. The affordances and constraints emerged in the data are described and illustrated with supporting quotes taken from the data below.

Affordances

The findings regarding the affordances of VideoAnt are presented under the following themes: (i) noticing strengths and weaknesses (ii) facilitating self and peer evaluation (iii) improving quality of feedback (iv) enhancing reflection (v) providing new perspectives (vi) providing encouragement for professional development.

Noticing strengths and weaknesses

The student teachers reported that what they valued the most was the opportunity to notice their strengths and weaknesses regarding the teaching practices they did during their microteaching lessons. They expressed that doing annotations enabled them to notice the stronger and weaker points in their teaching actions. For instance, one of the student teachers stated that "I was able to observe myself and see my strengths and weaknesses." (P 14). Similarly, another student teacher commented that "Video annotation helped me to understand what I am doing wrong or what's missing." (P 4).

Acknowledging the difficulty of noticing and identifying their teaching behaviors and their impact on relevant learning situations at time of their microteaching lesson, student teachers mentioned that they enjoyed the opportunity to watch and re-watch their microteaching lessons while doing annotations. The student teachers expressed that the most useful feature of VideoAnt was that one can stop, pause and rewind the videos. This feature of the tool was reported to be enhancing their noticing and their ability to recall back what occurred during the microteaching lessons.

Some student teachers specifically compared writing a reflection paper on their microteaching based on their memories and reflecting on their microteaching through VideoAnt. The use of VideoAnt was cited as being more efficient in noticing strengths and weaknesses as it enhanced the quality of the reflection. The claim was that they relied mostly on their general thoughts and feelings while writing a reflection paper without watching their microteaching lessons. However, to annotate their microteaching lessons through VideoAnt they had to watch their microteaching lessons, and this was hugely beneficial as it afforded them to base their reflections on their strengths and weaknesses they noticed rather than what they remembered. For instance, one of the student teachers stated:

> I did a micro teaching in my second year. In that course, I wrote a reflection paper. I don't believe that writing reflections pages and pages doesn't help much because generally, we talk about general thoughts and feelings. In the video annotation task, I clearly noticed my strong and weak sides. This is more valuable than writing a traditional reflection paper. (P 27)

Facilitating self and peer evaluation

VideoAnt was considered to facilitate both self and peer evaluation. Many student teachers described the value of being able to annotate their own microteaching lessons through VideoAnt. Doing annotations afforded the opportunity of observing their teaching behaviors in an objective way. For example, one of the student teachers stated that "The video annotation is an effective way to observe and evaluate myself in an objective way." (P 19). Another student teacher brought up the importance of using the categories given by the instructor to reflect on the microteaching lessons while doing annotations. She noted that these categories guided her to focus on the learning opportunities arose. She stated that "I evaluated myself according to the theoretical criterion most of the time. It helped me to focus on where to improve rather than thinking that my lesson was just bad." (P 5).

The analysis also revealed that student teachers found VideoAnt to be useful in peer evaluation as they considered reading and responding to peer feedback an effective way of learning to teach. They noted that peer feedback received through VideoAnt offered them the opportunity to learn from each other. For instance, one of the student teachers reported that "Video annotation was beneficial not only for evaluating my micro but also for evaluating my peer's micro. When I watched her video to annotate and read her comments to respond, I learned from her as well." (P 3). Similarly, another student teacher commented that "It was a good opportunity to annotate my pair's video because thanks to it, I was able to compare the things we did in our micros. We learned from each other's mistakes. That's why video annotation enriched my learning." (P 14).

Improving quality of feedback

The use of VideoAnt was considered to be helpful in improving quality of feedback. It is a well-known fact that videos offer observable evidence of teaching practices. Additional to providing observable evidence, the student teachers noted that video annotation was valuable for providing opportunities of synchronizing feedback at precise points in microteaching video segments. The most commented aspect of VideoAnt regarding improving the quality of feedback was that it helps users to identify the exact point that the feedback is given on. For instance, one student teacher reported that "Through VideoAnt we were able to see which part of the video the feedback is given on. Hence, the feedback is given in detail." (P 17). Likewise, another student teacher stated that "Being verbally informed is important but it is hard to visualize the feedback you receive. VideoAnt helps you to see the particular act that you received feedback on." (P 14).

The student teachers found receiving and giving feedback through VideoAnt more helpful than receiving and giving feedback through reports because video annotation made the feedback they receive and give more concrete and contextualized. For example, one student teacher highlighted that "It is always better to see what someone is referring to in a comment. With the video annotations, the person who is reading will have a clearer understanding about what I am trying to tell compared to a report which requires the reader to imagine what s/he is reading on the report." (P 32).

Enhancing Reflection

A majority of student teachers mentioned that doing video annotations helped them not only to think critically on their teaching acts but also on looking for alternative teaching decisions that could have been given. The facility to indicate the exact moment the annotation is being done was seen as a contributing factor to improving the quality of the reflections. For example, one of the student teachers claimed that "The video annotation serves as a prompt for the students and it helps reflection as it urges you to watch your teaching performance critically." (P 20). Similarly, another student teacher reported that "You can pause the exact same second to write an annotation and the whole process that follows writing an annotation pushes you to really think critically and probe the reasons behind your acts and how it is right or wrong depending on the situation." (P 7).

A number of student teachers reported that video annotation improved their quality of reflection as "It helps students become aware of not only their teaching but also makes them consider possibilities of teaching styles". (P 16). This was seen as a way of doing a close analysis of the teaching actions and challenging student teachers to trigger their teaching repertoire to articulate what other possible teaching actions could have been considered.

Providing New Perspectives

Though not as frequent as the previous affordances mentioned above, another affordance mentioned by student teachers was providing new perspectives. The video annotation experience was found to be helpful as it provided student teachers to distance themselves from their own teaching actions and observe themselves from a different perspective. Acknowledging the fact that a perspective shift is necessary for reflecting on one's teaching, student teachers enjoyed being able to see themselves from the eyes of the students with the help of video annotation task. For instance, one student teacher stated that "The video annotation was helpful. I got the chance to observe myself from another perspective. I was not the presenter, but I was an observer." (P 20). Similarly, another student teacher reported that "When I did annotations on my own video, I was able to see myself from the students' perspective." (P 27).

Providing Encouragement for Professional Development

The student teachers considered annotating their microteaching lessons through VideoAnt as a source of encouragement for professional development as video annotation helped them to realize the progress they have achieved and about to achieve. The facility of providing self-evaluation made student teachers feel competent in and confident at analyzing their own teaching actions and therefore it created a feeling of improvement in teaching. For instance, one of the student teachers stated that "The whole video annotation task made me realize that I can getter at teaching." (P 4). Likewise, another student teacher commented that "During the annotations task, I was busy with analyzing myself with full concentration and this made me feel more comfortable and confident as I became able to figure out my mistakes on my own." (P 10). Similarly, another student teacher touched upon the same affordance and stated that "I saw that I can also be the person to guide myself.

This fact gave me confidence and I began to believe that I am able to better my teaching." (P 20).

Some student teachers especially valued the peer feedback they received as a source for encouragement. These student teachers expressed both their satisfaction from the fact that VideoAnt makes receiving peer feedback possible and thus creates a ground for peer support which in turn boosts confidence. For example, one student teacher mentioned that "Using VideoAnt was helpful to feel more confident after receiving peer feedback. I clearly understand that having enough experience will be helpful for becoming the teacher I want to become." (P 2).

Constraints

Compared to the affordances of VideoAnt, student teachers mentioned a few constraints of the tool. The most reported constraint was that the tool cannot be used without internet connection. As one of the student teachers mentioned that "The only bad thing was that you need internet connection, but we need that almost for all out of class assignments." (P 32).

A problem brought up was that some student teachers had difficulty in forwarding and rewinding the video during the annotation process. These student teachers found their own ways to overcome this difficulty. To give an example, the following quote shares the solution found by one of the student teachers who faced a difficulty with the use of timeline during the annotation process.

> The only bad side was forwarding and rewinding of the video. It wasn't that useful because when I annotate two parts of the video that are close to each other in timeline, rewinding back to in between those parts was impossible. Thus, at times I had to delete what I had written at last and then I wrote the middle part and then rewrote the part I deleted. (P 7)

Conclusions

The most crystalized finding of the study is that the student teachers commented mostly on affordances i.e. their positive experiences and perceptions toward the use of VideoAnt. This shows that student teachers found video annotation to be a valuable activity for their learning. Specifically, they reported the following affordances: (i) noticing strengths and weaknesses (ii) facilitating self and peer evaluation (iii) improving quality of feedback (iv) enhancing reflection (v) providing new perspectives and (vi) providing encouragement for professional development. Compared to the affordances, student teachers mentioned a few constraints of the tool. The most reported constraint was that the tool cannot be used without internet connection. Another difficulty brought up was that some student teachers had problems about forwarding and rewinding the video during the annotation process.

The findings of the study are in line with the previous research which indicated that VideoAnt is of value in teacher education as a tool to develop student teachers' reflective thinking and teaching skills (Ellis et al., 2015; McCullagh & Doherty, 2018; Kleinknecht & Gröschner, 2016; McFadden et al., 2014; Rich & Tip, 2011). Given the fact that the core of teaching "is learned through continual and systematic analysis

of teaching" (Hiebert et al., 2007, p.49), it is of great importance to offer student teachers the opportunity to analyze and refine their teaching skills before they enter the teaching profession. The findings of this study encourage the use of web-based annotation tools in pre-service teacher education due to technological, educational and social affordances they offer.

Although this case study provides valuable information gathered from the perspective of the student teachers about the affordances and constraints of VideoAnt, it is important to note that the findings should be viewed with caution. First, the participants were selected by convenient sampling. Second, this study illustrates the use of VideoAnt in one educational context. Therefore, more research on the use of web-based annotation tools in different teacher education programs are needed. Finally, the data obtained illuminates only the experiences and perceptions of student teachers. Therefore, student teachers' actual learning through the use of VideoAnt is worthy of further consideration.

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Cultural Values and their Effect on Learner Autonomy in an Omani EFL Context

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Abstract
There is general agreement that language learning and culture are closely linked and cannot be easily separated. Much research has been carried out on the effects of cultural attitudes on language learning in general. Learner autonomy has also been one of the dominant research topics in recent years. However, the interaction between these two variables, cultural factors and levels of learner autonomy, remains an underdeveloped area of research. Using the four-dimensional model of cultural differences in societies developed by Hofstede (1980), this study examines the relationship between cultural values and learner autonomy in Omani EFL classrooms. In particular, it looks at how cultural variations in attitudes towards learning may affect levels of learner autonomy in an Omani EFL context. An adaptation of Hofstede's cultural value survey to suit a language learning context was used to measure the cultural values of the students and their Western instructors. A comparison of the outcome of the students and instructors' responses reveals significant differences in all four of Hofstede's value dimensions (Power Distance, Individualist/Collectivist, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity/Femininity). The students' responses show a tendency to favour a larger power distance than their instructors, are more collectivist and masculine and have a stronger tendency to avoid uncertainty, all of which may contribute to the students' attitude towards learner autonomy. These results suggest that cultural differences between the instructors and the students may a reason for the difficulty in increasing levels of learner autonomy in Omani EFL classrooms.

Keywords: Learner autonomy, Cultural attitudes, Hofstede's value dimensions

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1. Introduction

Cultures across the world vary in terms of their beliefs, traditions, and behavioural norms. People, being cultural beings, do not cease to be themselves when they decide to teach or learn a language, but rather bring their cultural beliefs and attitudes with them into the classroom. There is a general consensus among the English language teaching community that language learning and culture are closely linked (Borg, 2013; Brown, 2000; Byram et al., 1994; Hinkel, 1999; Little, 2002; McClaren, 1998; Roberts et al., 2001). Numerous studies examining the relationship between culture and language learning have found that factors of a culturally based nature can have an effect on the learning process (e.g. Dang, 2010; Hinkel, 1999; Holliday, 1994; Könings et al., 2007). In recent decades, learner autonomy, or the ability to take charge of one's own learning, has also been one of the dominant topics in language teaching. The amount of literature suggesting different approaches and methods English language teachers can use to help their students play a more active and self-directed role in the learning process is quite extensive (e.g. Dam, 2000; Fanning et al., 1988; Lamb, 2000; Nunan, 1997; Sinclair, 2000). However, the interaction between these two variables, cultural factors and levels of learner autonomy, has been accorded insufficient attention and remains an underdeveloped area of research.

The group of learners chosen for this study are Omani secondary school certificate holders enrolled in a foundation programme at a higher education institute in the Sultanate of Oman. Students on the programme are required to bring their level of English language proficiency up to an IELTS Band 6 before they are allowed to begin their tertiary education through the medium of English. In addition to enhancing the four language skills, the aim of the foundation programme is to increase levels of learner autonomy. The structure of the programme and the modules taught were primarily developed by those teaching on the programme, mainly Western, native speakers of English. Although the programme is considered successful at improving the students' language and academic skills, increasing learner autonomy among Omani students remains a challenge for the instructors and administrators of the programme.

The question of whether autonomy in learning is an ethnocentric concept was raised by Riley (1988) who termed it the "ethnography of autonomy". He suggests that those working in language teaching in general and autonomy in particular may be imposing their own views on how the learning should take place. Learner autonomy is generally regarded highly in western educational systems. Students who are aware of their learning goals and are able to assess their abilities and progress are viewed positively in western societies, whereas students who are dependent on sources of authority and are reluctant to take a more active role in their learning are viewed as incompetent by western educators (Fanning et al., 1988). This may not be the case in all cultures and societies.

Riley (1988) also raises the issue of whether the cultural background of learners predisposes them for or against autonomous methods of learning. He suggests that some cultures may be more favourable to certain educational approaches such as

autonomy. This may explain why tasks requiring independent, unsupervised work with limited guidance from teachers creates a sense of unease among Omani students. Using the four-dimensional model of cultural differences in societies developed by Hofstede (1980), this pilot study examines the relationship between cultural values and learner autonomy in an Omani EFL context. Cultural differences can be a major obstacle in EFL teaching and this study looks specifically at whether the differences in the instructors and students' value systems could be related to the unsuccessful attempts made by teachers to encourage students to adopt a more autonomous mode of learning.

1.1 Hofstede's Value Dimensions

Hofstede's (1980, 1983) value framework is the result of research on the cultural values of more than 100,000 IBM employees around the world over a period of 16 years. By examining 50 different countries, Hofstede was able to identify and define four dimensions of cultural variability. Although his work was carried out on business organizations, his research is also considered relevant to language teaching (Brown, 2000). The four value dimensions in his framework are individualism/collectivism, large/small power distance, strong/weak uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity/femininity. Learner autonomy, as with other aspects of language learning such as motivation and learning strategies is likely to be perceived by students in light of these socio-attitudinal variables.

1.1.1 Individualism/collectivism

According to Hofstede, the individualism/collectivism variable involves the relationship between an individual and other individuals in the group to which they belong. In collectivist societies where there are very close ties between individuals and groups, people are expected to conform to their group's behavioural norms and in return can expect the support of group members. In individualist societies, the individual is given a great amount of freedom but is expected to assume responsibility for decisions and not rely on the support of others. Because this variable relates to the extent to which people work together in a group, it has direct implications on language learning and autonomy. Students from individualist societies who are generally driven by personal ambition and want to be recognized for their own personal achievements may be more likely to work well autonomously. On the other hand, students from cultures marked by a high degree of social collectivism might prefer working in groups and, according to Tudor (1996: 154), may regard learner autonomy as "egotistic or even anti-social".

1.1.2 Power Distance

The power distance variable relates to the degree to which people accept inequality in power in a society, how authority figures are regarded and how authority is exercised. Large power distance societies give individuals a great degree of authority, whereas in small power distance societies, authority is spread among the group members. As Riley (1988: 22) points out, this variable is related to learner autonomy in that it can

affect the expectations students have on teacher-student interaction as well as on the role of the teacher in the learning process.

1.1.3 Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance relates to how accepting societies are of uncertainty as a part of life. People from societies with weak uncertainty avoidance are likely to take more risks and tolerate opinions and behaviour different from their own. People from strong uncertainty societies attempt to create security through various institutions. Students from weak uncertainty avoidance cultures may not wish to participate in activities where they may risk being negatively evaluated by teachers or peers. Low tolerance of uncertainty and ambiguity may also cause students to experience discomfort when using a mode of learning, such as autonomy, to which they may be unaccustomed.

1.1.4 Masculinity/Femininity

This variable involves the division of emotional roles between men and women in a society. Hofstede (1980) describes masculine societies as those in which men are more competitive, assertive, and interested in material gains whereas women are more nurturing and concerned with social harmony and the quality of life. Feminine societies are those in which both the sexes exhibit traits traditionally associated with women such as modesty and compassion (1980: 261 and 1983: 85). Levels of learner autonomy may vary in learners depending on where their society is located on the masculinity/femininity scale. Assertive students who have initiative may handle a more autonomous mode of learner better than students from more feminine societies who would prefer to maintain a low profile, seeing it as a more modest form of behaviour.

Hofstede and colleagues later added two dimension to the value framework. The fifth value dimension 'Long-Term vs. Short-Term Orientation' (Hofstede & Bond, 1988) relates to whether people choose to focus on the past, the present or the future. The sixth value dimension 'Indulgence vs. Restraint' relates to the degree to which people exercise control of basic human desires related to enjoying life" (Hofstede et al., 2010). As this is a pilot study involving a small number of participants and as Hofstede's original four dimensions are more relevant for language learning, only the original four dimensions detailed above will be used in this study.

The instructors involved in the present study are all either from the United States or the United Kingdom. According to Hofstede (1983; Hofstede et al., 2010), both British and American societies are individualistic, low power distance, weak uncertainty avoidance societies which tend to be more masculine. Based on my observations, Omani culture is characterized by relatively high collectivism, large power distance, a moderate tolerance of uncertainty, and is more on the feminine side of the scale. The cultural values of the teachers and those of the students seem to contrast one another in each of the four value dimensions. It is hypothesized that a reason behind the unsuccessful attempts to engage Omani students in more autonomous, self-directed activities may be due to the differences in the cultural

background and set of values held by the instructors and students. This study, therefore, seeks to examine whether such differences indeed exist between the students and their instructors and how this may affect levels of learner autonomy.

2. Methods

Participants consisted of 20 students and 10 instructors. The sample of students (10 female) were all Omanis aged between 18-21. They were selected by randomly choosing ID numbers from a computer generated list of the 350 students enrolled in the foundation programme. The 10 instructors (5 female) who took part in the study were all from Western societies, namely the United States and the United Kingdom.

The same questionnaire based on Hofstede's value survey was given to the instructors and students. The language of the questionnaire was adapted to suit the students' level of English which eliminated the need for explaining or translating items the students may not understand. The questionnaire had 24 items, with six items dealing with each of Hofstede's four value dimensions. The items in the questionnaire were jumbled and some items were reversed as well.

3. Statistical Analyses

Because the study involves two different groups, both of which are comprised of a small number of subjects (10 instructors and 20 students), a non-parametric, Mann-Whitney Test U was used to analyse the data.

4. Results

A comparison of the outcome of the students and instructors' responses reveals significant differences in all four of Hofstede's value dimensions. As illustrated in Table 1 and Figure 1, the students' responses show a tendency to favour a larger power distance than their instructors. Students were also found to be significantly more collectivist and have a stronger tendency to avoid uncertainty. The most significant difference, however, and most surprising finding, is with regards to the masculinity/femininity dimension. Contrary to what was hypothesised, students were found to be significantly less feminine than their instructors.

Table 1: Mean ranks of the instructors and students in each of the four value dimensions.

Value Dimension	Instructors Mean Rank	Students Mean Rank	Value of U
Power Distance	11.7	17.4	$p < 0.05$
Individualist/Collectivist	11.2	17.9	$p < 0.025$
Uncertainty Avoidance	11.3	17.6	$p < 0.025$
Masculinity/Femininity	21	13	$p < 0.01$

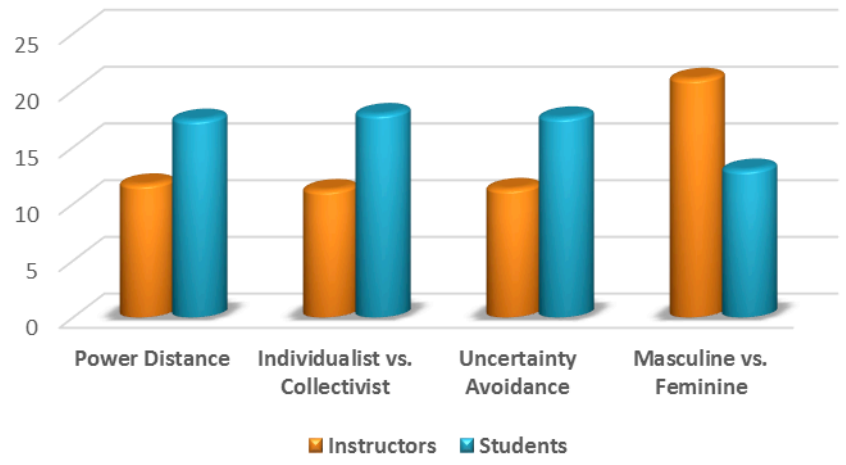

Figure 1: Responses of the students and instructors in each of Hofstede's four value dimensions. Differences in all value dimensions are significant. As compared with their instructors, students favour a larger power distance, have a more collectivist outlook, avoid uncertainty and are less feminine.

5. Discussion

This study examined whether differences exist in the cultural values held by students and their instructors in an Omani EFL context. Of interest was whether differences in the students and instructors' value systems may be related to the generally low levels of learner autonomy among the Omani students. A questionnaire based on Hofstede's value survey was administered to both groups. The findings of the questionnaire show that significant difference exist between the instructors and students in each of Hofstede's four value dimensions (Table 1, Figure 1). As compared with their instructors, students favour a larger power distance, have a more collectivist outlook, avoid uncertainty and are less feminine.

Based on their responses, the cultural values held by the students could be related to their attitude towards learner autonomy. For example, the results show that students favour a larger power distance. Because the teacher is seen as an authority figure in Omani culture, autonomous activities which usually require a change in the teacher-learner relationship could be seen as a challenge to the status quo of Omani culture, thus affecting students' interest in participating in such activities. Additionally, the Omani students' highly collectivist nature may explain why students prefer group related activities that require working together as a team as opposed to a more independent, autonomous mode of learning where students may be competing with each other or where they may feel that the teacher is not fulfilling his/her role in the learning process. Furthermore, a moderate to high level of risk-taking is necessary in language learning and autonomy (Brown, 2000) as is a degree of tolerance of ambiguity (Oxford and Erham cited in Tudor, 1996:104). Therefore, the Omani students' strong avoidance of uncertainty may also contribute to their disfavouring of autonomous learning.

According to Sinclair, although learner autonomy as an educational goal is generally considered important world-wide, promoting it requires "careful interpretation of the particular cultural, social, political and educational context in which it is located" (2000: 6). In highlighting similar sentiments, Pennycook points out that, as a concept constructed by western cultures, the applicability of autonomy to other cultures may be limited (1997). This does not mean that some cultures are not suited for autonomous learning. It does suggest, however, that cultural groups differ in their attitude and reaction to more self-directed study. Hofstede states that "the burden of adaptation in cross cultural learning situations should be primarily on the teachers" (1980: 301). He explains that ethnocentrism can be very subtle and that it is much easier to recognize in individuals from other cultures than in ourselves. Western EFL teachers ought to bear in mind that their students' culturally based expectations may be different from their own and that their students' attitude towards the learning process and teacher-learner roles can have an influence on levels of learner autonomy. Although differences between the students and their instructors in the present study are significant, the effects of these cultural variations on learner autonomy still needs to be further researched. The instructors and students involved in the study differ not only in terms of their cultural background but also in other aspects including age, level of experience, education and maturity. Therefore, differences in their responses may also be due to these factors and not solely a result of their cultural values. Furthermore, this was a pilot study involving a small number of participants. Results must, therefore, be interpreted with caution. A large scale study is currently being planned on the basis of the present findings as a larger sample size would yield more reliable findings and more meaningful conclusions.

6. Conclusion

This study examined the differences in cultural values between Omani students and Western instructors. In particular, it looked at how cultural variations in attitudes towards learning may affect levels of learner autonomy. The results suggest that the students' value systems may be related to their low levels of learner autonomy and that cultural differences between the instructors and the students may be the reason for the difficulty in increasing levels of learner autonomy in Omani EFL contexts.

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Errors Analysis of Spelling Among University Students of English in Jordan: An Analytical Study

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Abstract
This paper aims at investigating the spelling errors made by students of English language at the World Islamic and Science Education University (WISE) in Jordan. Cook‘s classification of errors is adopted in this study. Errors and mistakes were categorized into four categories, which include substitution, omission, insertion, and transposition. The participants of the study were 50 students, who enrolled in "Error Analysis" course in two semesters of the academic year 2016/2017. The data for the study were derived from three exams: the first, the second, and the final exams, given to the students during the two semesters. Then the data were analyzed after completing the course in the second semester of 2016-2017. The results of the study revealed that (38 %) of the errors referred to omission and (28%) to insertion. However, errors of substitution and transposition occurred less frequently than the first two of errors, with a percentage of (22%) and (15%), respectively. The study showed that using vowels and pronunciation incorrectly is one of the major causes of the learners' errors. Further, the interference of the first language plays its role in this regard. The study concludes that more efforts and concern should be given to spelling errors made by students since the learning of spelling is an important part of language learning. Some recommendations and pedagogical implications for future research are suggested.

Keywords: Spelling mistakes, Omission Errors, Substitution Errors, Transposition Errors, Insertion Errors

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Introduction

Language is an audible behavior through which people can express and communicate their thoughts, feelings, and attitudes. Learning a second language has always been everyone's dream. However, it is challenging to learn a new language. There are some problems faced by EFL students when learning a language. One of these problems is spelling, which is one of English writing problems that EFL students encounter. Fagerberg, (2006) claims that spelling is essential since one misspelling may change the meaning intended to convey in the text. Spelling errors are the most common type of mistake in the written work of learners of English (Cook, 1999). According to AbiSamra (2003), errors are considered as a source of valuable information on the learning strategies of learners. They are regarded as a stratagem that can assist in the learning process. Errors provide evidence of the learner's level in the target language (Gass & Selinker, 1984).

English spelling and phonological rules share a reciprocal relation, which contributes to mainly make errors in spelling. This interdependence between English spelling and phonological rules leads to complicate spelling rules associated with difficulty and irregularity (Al-Saudi, 2013). Errors are often made by the learners, who are most familiar with words of specific written forms; therefore, differences between spelling and pronunciation in many languages pose a great challenge to inexperienced learners of English. That is to say, a word or a morph will be pronounced by students as spelled provided that its pronunciation is different from its spelling. Besides, interpreting some combinations of letters according to the rules of spelling of another language would be another common mistake (Wachowicz & Scott, 1999).

According to Hildreth (1962), correct spelling is evidence of good manners, while bad spelling may give the impression of inadequate education or carelessness. However, EFL learners encountered spelling problem for not being able to identify pronunciation distinctly, which is a serious problem affecting students to make mistakes particularly with the use of the vowel sounds and other consonant sounds that do not have direct equivalents in their own language e.g. /p/ /b/, /f/ and /v/. For example, students in Jordan, whose native language is Arabic, often make mistakes when they inscribe the /p/ sound and the silent /e/ at the end of a word; subsequently, /p/ becomes /b/ or vice versa as in: (put-but), (example- exambel), and (have-hav).

In Jordan, English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) where students are expected to master the four skills of the language: reading, listening, speaking, and writing. Analyzing spelling errors made by students provides a deep understanding of the learning process. Error analysis is significant in diagnosing the difficulties experienced by students, so that such spelling problems made by students can be facilitated and solved, which will help improve students' ability in writing, transforming them into good spellers. Many studies, which focused on students' spelling mistakes, have been reviewed particularly in Jordan. Only few studies conducted were found to discuss the difficulties in spelling faced by students majoring English language at Jordanian universities. These studies discussed issues like sources of errors, spelling and grammar together and spelling and pronunciation among students learning English.

One of these studies was conducted by Al-Zuoud (2013), who investigated common mistakes made by Jordanian students learning English in a written composition, classifying students' spelling errors according to Cook's classification of errors. More studies are reviewed in literature review section. Cook (1999) categorized errors into four categories: substitution errors where errors occur when students substitute a letter by another one; omission errors where errors occur when omitting a letter to the target word; insertion errors, which occur when students add a letter to the target word; and transposition errors, which occur when the students reverse the order of two letters or more.

Therefore, this study comes to analyze errors made by university students majoring English, investigating the problems and trying to understand them and so could be dealt with more effectively. The study also provides suggestions that can help students enhance their spelling skills. Error analysis in this study would reveal the sources of these spelling errors and the causes of their frequent occurrence. Having discovered the sources and causes, it would be possible to determine the remedy.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the paper are as follows:

- To explore the reasons behind students' errors which provide evidence of how language is learned.
- To identify, classify and analyze the different spelling errors and mistakes that constitute spelling problems for students of English at WISE University.
- To identify learning strategies and remedial procedures that might help students as well as instructors to remedy the wrong ways of misspelling.

Research Questions

This paper mainly focuses on analyzing the WISE University students' errors in spelling of English. The study also gives answers to the following research questions:

- What are the types and potential sources of the errors Jordanian university students make in spelling?
- What are the reasons of the common spelling errors that Jordanian university students make in their writing?
- What techniques should be applied in order to overcome the spelling problems of students?

Literature Review

This section reviews the literature related to spelling errors and mistakes made by students studying at universities. Some studies have investigated spelling difficulties among Arab EFL students when learning the language. One of these studies is conducted by Othman (2018), who investigated spelling errors made by the Saudi students at English Department at WISE University in Saudi Arabia. The study revealed that the major cause of errors is the wrong use of vowels and pronunciation as well as mother tongue interference, concluding that more attention should be given

to learners' spelling errors, as spelling teaching is an essential aspect of language learning.

AlBalawi (2017) investigated spelling errors of the introductory year students at WISE University in Saudi Arabia. The study concluded that there was an impact on the coherence of students' writings, which involved errors classified into three main categories; omission, addition and substitution. It was also found that the first language interference related to the differences between the systems of native language and foreign language led to spelling mistakes.

Hamed (2016), investigated spelling errors made by Saudi students when writing English. The data were collected from 26 Saudi EFL university students through a fifty-word dictation. The study indicated that there was a concentration on errors around vowel sounds, diphthongs and words containing silent letters. Besides, learners applied their knowledge of mother tongue on their English learning experience. The findings revealed that students' errors of substitution were the highest followed by omission, transposition and insertion. Alhaisoni et al. (2015) examined the types of spelling errors in English composition on 122 EFL undergraduate students at the University of Hail in Saudi Arabia. Data were collected using writing tasks by 53 males and 69 females in the first year. The findings indicated that omission errors are considered the highest among students, and that the majority of errors are based on wrong use of vowels and pronunciation. The study concluded that spelling errors occur due to anomalies existing in L2 and L1 interference.

Further, another study conducted by Benyo (2014), who examined English spelling errors made by first-year students studying at Dongola University. Two spelling tests (pre and post intervention) were administrated to 200 EFL Sudanese students in two different faculties. The pre -intervention test was given to the students during their first semester whereas the post- intervention spelling test was administered after two months of the second semester. The study revealed that students face difficulties with English vowel sounds and some consonant sounds which do not exist in Arabic. The study concluded that another primary cause of students' spelling errors is attributed to the students' unawareness and overgeneralization of English spelling rules.

Al-Saudi (2013) investigated spelling errors made by EFL students of English language at Tafilah Technical University (TTU) in Jordan. The study aimed at identifying the types of errors made by students in spelling when answering essay questions. It also seeks the spelling difficulties faced by the students in writing English. The study concluded most mistakes were due to the irregularities of spelling rules of English and the confusion or misspelling English pronunciation sometimes brings about. Al-Zuoud and Kabilan (2013) investigated common mistakes made by Jordanian students learning English in a written composition, classifying students' spelling errors according to Cook's classification of errors. It was found out that the most frequent spelling errors were substitution and omission errors. The researchers suggest strategies to help students to be good spellers, such as doing more practices in spelling to get a better understanding of spelling.

Additionally, Al-Harrasi (2012) conducted a study in Omani second-cycle school for females. The study aimed to investigate the most common patterns of spelling errors among Omanis, using a dictation test based on both one syllable words and multi-

syllable words. The errors were analyzed according to Cook's classification (1999). The study reported the reasons behind the errors discussed with the support of an interview and correspondence with previous researches. The results revealed that substitution is the most common type of spelling errors.

All the above-cited studies are relevant to the present study attempting to conduct similar objectives in investigating the Arab EFL students' spelling errors when learning English. However, this study is different from the above-mentioned studies in that it intends to investigate the most common spelling mistakes made by EFL students majoring English Language conducted at department of English at the World Islamic Sciences and Education University (WISE) in Jordan.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study consist of (50) students studying English language at the World Islamic Sciences and Education University (WISE) in Jordan. Those students were selected after they had registered a major course (Error Analysis) in two semesters of the academic year 2016/2017. In the first semester, (27) students attended the course, whereas in the second semester, (23) students attended the same course (Error Analysis). These students were also homogenous with regard to nationality, native language (Arabic), language proficiency and educational background.

Instruments of the Study

The data for the study were derived from three exams: the first, the second, and the final exams, given to the students during the two semesters. The data were collected through reviewing students' answer sheets on the three exams given to them during the semesters. The questions of the tests were based on spelling and grammatical mistakes. Only spelling mistakes were considered and reviewed for the purpose of this study. Then the data were analyzed after completing the course in the second semester of the year 2016-2017.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data in this study was based on Cook's (1999) classification of spelling errors, which includes omission, substitution, insertion, and transposition. Therefore, measuring reliability for this instrument was not needed as it was developed by Cook in 1999. The data were analyzed and categorized by reviewing all the mistakes made by students and classifying them according to the categories mentioned above. The mistakes and errors were measured and recorded as percentages. Such mistakes and errors were also discussed with the students, so that they could benefit from and avoid making them again.

Results of the Study

This section reveals the findings of the study and the analysis of spelling errors made by 50 students studying English at WISE. Each of the major types of errors (omission,

substitution, insertion, and transposition) was examined individually. The main sources of errors were also identified. The analysis of the study is based on Cook's classification (1999), through which the proportions of spelling mistakes/errors made by L2 students are examined. Errors in spelling were classified according to error types, which are Omission, Substitution, Insertion, and Transposition (OSIT), as shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Frequency of Errors according to Cook's OSIT

Type of Error	Frequency	Percentage
Omission	42	38 %
Insertion	31	28 %
Substitution	22	19 %
Transposition	15	15 %
Total	110	100%

Table (1) shows that all the students made different types of error in spelling. The table indicates clearly that the total of errors made by the English language students at WISE was 110. These errors were classified according to the type the error. It was found that omission presents the highest error percentage of 38 % (42 errors). Next comes insertion type of errors with a percentage of 28 % (31 errors), followed by the errors of substitution with a percentage of 19 % (22 errors), and then errors of transposition with a percentage of 15% (15 errors). However, the study revealed that errors of transposition and substitution occurred less frequently than the first two types of errors. The results show that omission type of errors presents the highest score among other types.

For example, table (1) shows that investigation of the common type of spelling errors made by university students was omission (38 %) such as befor for before or wich instead of which. The second type of errors made by them was 'insertion' (28 %), such as withe for with or knowen for known. The third type of errors was substitution (19 %) such as than for then or thier instead of thier. Transposition was reported the least type of spelling errors found in the examples of English- major students' answers, which was 15 % the most frequent example of this type in this study was tow for two.

To explain, the findings of the study are discussed in the following subsections as shown in Table (1) above.

Omission Errors

Omission-based errors are made by students when deleting or leave out a letter or more from words as a result of ignorance of the actual word spelling. Students are not able to memorize word spelling as they do not practice writing and/ or they spell as they pronounce words. For example, the following are few examples on the omission of silent letters:

- rite instead of write
- now- instead of know
- forein- instead of foreign

- wich instead of which
- lisen instead of listen

To avoid this problem, EFL students are encouraged to practice spelling more, so that they can memorize words with silent sounds easily, as the more they practice, the better speller they become. Another example on error omission is omitting the phoneme /e/ at the end of English words, such as:

- hav- instead of have
- befor instead of before
- hid instead of hide
- languag instead of language

Further, the error based on consonant doubling is another problem faced by students in spelling. For example:

- swiming- instead of swimming
- begining - instead of beginning
- biger instead of bigger

It can be realized that the findings show that students' spelling errors are associated with their pronunciation. Therefore, any unpronounced sound is deleted, which is an error attributed to the lack of phonological rules that makes it difficult for the students to develop understanding of the relationships between sounds and letters. Such findings agree with Aqel's findings (1993) that indicate that the reason behind omission-based errors is the divergence between orthography and pronunciation of English. Besides, the mother tongue interference is also found as one of the main causes for omission spelling errors, which corresponds to Al-Jarf's findings (2010), where the transfer of the Arabic spelling system to English was the third most common source of spelling errors, which is due to the difference in orthographic complexity between English and Arabic.

Insertion Errors

This type of errors refers to inserting extra sound in a word. These misspelt words would be due to the lack of knowledge of English language spelling. Insertion errors occupy the second place with a percentage of 28% (31 errors). For example, students insert /e/ vowel sound where it is needed, such as (withe) for (with), (knowen) instead of (known), and (frome) for (from). Further, some students keep /e/ sound when adding –ing to a verb. For example, (haveing) instead of (having), (takeing) instead of (taking) and (writeing) instead of (writing) for these verbs (use, take, leave). Insertion of /t/ is also another type of error made by the students, such as (reatch) instead of (reach), (mutch) instead of (much) and (luntch) instead of (lunch). This finding is asserted by Albalawi, (2016), where the reason behind such errors is attributed to poor knowledge of spelling conventions. More examples on some spelling words of English- major student at WISE are shown in Table.2.

Substitution Errors

This type of errors occurs when one or more sounds are replaced by one or more different sound. In this study, substitution errors occupy the third high rate among other spelling errors. Having analyzed the learners' substitution spelling errors, it is found out that the silent sounds were clearly a major spelling problem as no sound-letter correspondence for silent sounds. Below are examples on spelling substitution errors:

A. **Vowel Substitution Errors**
(his) instead of (has) or vice versa; (went)- instead of (want); (throw) - instead of (through); (than) instead of (then); (pot) instead (put)
B. **Plural form Substitution Errors**
(Classez) instead of (classes); (vizits) instead of (visit); (friendz) instead of (friends). In these examples, the students substitute /s/ by /z/
C. **Consonants Substitution Errors**
(How) instead of (who) or vice versa; (but) instead of (put); (bacic) instead of (basic); (foto) instead of photo;
(jop) instead of (job); (beld) instead of (build); (litter) instead of (letter).

The examples given include the students' substitution of /z/ instead of /s/, /f/ instead /ph/, /b/ instead of /p/, /k/ instead of /c/ and /s/ instead of /c/. These findings show the spelling problems faced by the students in term of substitution errors. This finding is in line with Cook (1999) who attributed the vowel substitution errors made by Arab students to pronunciation.

Table.2: Examples of some spelling words of English- major student at WISE

Error/ mistake types	Errors/ Mistakes	The correct words
Omission	- Languag/ languge - Befor/ - Wich/ - Frind - Hapy - Now - Writen - Voicd	- Language - Before - Which - Friend - Happy - Know - Written - Voiced
Insertion	- Knowen - Withe - Pepol - Writting - Beautifull - Frome - Having	- Known - With - People - Writing - Beautiful - From - Having

Substitution	- Bitter - Jop - Their - Than - But - Beld - How	- Better - Job - There - Then - Put - Build - Who
Transposition	- Their - Tow - Friend - Three - Bigen - Well	- Their - Two - Friend - There - Begin - Will

In addition, this study agrees with Aqel's (1993) that the substitution type of errors is due to the divergence between English orthography and pronunciation. This tendency is reinforced as of the influence of the Arabic system in which the spelling pattern follows the pronunciation pattern. Khuwaileh and Al Shoumali (2000) also state that most of the spelling errors students made were due to their mispronunciation, lack of awareness and regular spelling patterns (Othman, 2018).

Transposition Errors

This type of errors includes errors made as a result of mis-ordering the sounds of English. This study shows that transportation errors occupy the fourth place with a percentage of 15% (15 errors). The study reveals that transposition is one of spelling problems encountered by Jordanian students. For example, mis-ordering the vowels occurs in words like (freind) instead of (friend) (their) instead of (their). These transportation errors are due to the lack of competence and the right intuition of the correct pattern or rule, plus limited exposure to spoken and written English.

This study shows that the main sources of spelling errors are attributed to the fact that English and Arabic have totally different scripts; not only this but also Arabic has regular spelling according to its pronunciation while English does not. The results of this study are also in harmony with the findings of Alhaisoni et al. (2015) in his analysis of spelling substitution errors, claiming that there is a strong correlation between the articulations and the spelling of words.

Conclusion

This paper aims at investigating the most typical spelling errors made by Jordanian English major students at the University of WISE. In general, the process of learning a second language is challenging where learners are expected to make errors. Consequently, those who are interested in learning English should consider the fact that both Arabic and English language have completely different writing systems. For instance, Arabic writing style starts from right to left, whereas English writing style starts from left to right, which leads to confuse students. In addition, the way English is spoken differs from the way it is written. This is due to the fact the English is not a

phonetic language while Arabic is. Therefore, based on the results of this study, English- major students at WISE University made spelling errors due to many reasons such as the interference of students' first language. Students lack of concentration when answering questions in exams. Students who learn English as a second language may suffer from some difficulties with spelling. Thus, practicing more and focusing on how students spell and pronounce words could be the best solution.

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Possible L2 Selves: A Case Study in a Thai Context

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Abstract
This qualitative case study aims to examine the factors affecting the English language scores in a communications course and possible L2 selves of non-English major students. The possible L2 selves include an ideal L2 self, ought-to self, motivational intensity, English learning experience, and linguistic self-confidence. The participants were selected based on their midterm scores in an English communications course. They were 58 students from Accounting, Thai Studies, Chemistry and, Bio-Technology (aged from 19-21). Another group was composed of weaker learners who did not pass their mid-term examination. They consisted of 32 students from the Business Computer and General Management majors (aged from 19-21). In data collection, the Statistic Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data from questionnaires and do multiple linear regression. The findings showed that motivational intensity (.51) and English learning experience (.41) positively affected the test scores of both groups in this communications course. However; there were no significant correlations.

Keywords: Possible L2 selves, Motivation, L2 learning

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Introduction and rational of the study

Language learning and teaching in classroom management is easier when students are motivated and have higher abilities to learn. It has been claimed that motivation is one of the most important factors enhancing student L2 learning. Krashen (1987) stated that students who have high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image and a low anxiety level, can succeed in L2 learning. It is important that instructors match student activities with their needs and help them understand the importance of their performance (Biggs and Moore, 1993). This will help students to learn things effectively and actively. Dornyei (2005) found that students would like to attain their possible selves. The possible self is one's imagery of one's self in the future including ideas, concepts, feelings, occupations, aims and ambitions. With this, students can develop high energy to become what they want.

There are several related studies about motivation. However, these are studies with research gaps. Age may be a positive factor in second language motivation among young people. Azarnoosh (2014) found that students' ideal L2 self gave them more motivation in English language learning. Research has shown that the ideal L2 self affects test scores. Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012) observed that using motivational strategies affected teacher and student behaviors at a secondary school level. They found that there was no difference between highly and poorly motivated groups in terms of their ideal second language (L2) selves. Motivation is not a predictor of success in language learning. Additionally, Harmer (1998) found that young adult learners usually worry about language learning. Furthermore, a successful or an unsuccessful experience outside of the classroom can impact language learning. Adult learners have more attention and self-control than teenagers in their learning. This may support their success. However, younger learners may not worry about losing face if they speak and people laugh.

Yao and Crosthwaite (2017) examined the English learning motivation for an ideal L2 self and possible ought-to self in higher education, comparing undergraduate and post graduate English language students. Findings showed that these students had clearer concepts in terms of their ideal L2 self and ought- to self. Prapunta (2016) analyzed data from Thai EFL learners' ideal L2 selves and their learning experiences. These students reported positive attitudes about learning English in classes taught by foreign teachers and out-of-class (trips to ASEAN countries, online chatting with native speakers). They wanted to communicate fluently with foreigners in the future. The current study involved students who were not English majors and it may produce different results.

Wongthong and Patanasorn (2017) proposed classroom activities that support self-image in English learning to promote motivation. The participants in this study were English language majors. This involved activities for five weeks. They proposed in-class activities such as a role model's talk (VDO), an inspirational video, an animation about boys who liked and disliked learning English, creation of posters giving motivations for learning English, and talks in class. These findings showed that the motivation of the experimental group was higher than the control group. The learners had positive attitudes about the activities.

The above studies have several research gaps. Some examined younger students or ones with prior experience learning English learning or were English language majors. Alternatively, the participants in the current study had various levels of education. However, they had the same background in learning English since they just finished their secondary school, even though they were now in different faculties. Motivated and unmotivated students were allowed to express their possible L2 selves. They were non-English language majors at Udon Thani Rajabhat University, enrolled in a basic English course, English for Communications. Their separation into groups was on the basis of their mid-term exam grades. Moreover, this study aimed to identify the factors that affect English learning proficiency and possible L2 selves.

The purpose of the study

The purpose of the current study is to evaluate factors affecting the English language test scores in an English for Communications course and possible L2 selves of non-English major students.

Research question

What affects the possible L2 selves of advanced and poor English language learners?

Literature Review

Motivation in language learning

There have been numerous research studies of motivation in language learning, where psychologists tried to study and define second language learning.

Dornyei (2009) described motivation as an essential concept guiding how people react and think what they do. Motivation in language learning is a reason for success and failure in learning. In terms of L2 learning, it is a force that can be seen at a primary state of motivation until achieving long-term goals or becoming uninterested in learning, depending on how motivation is preserved and individual differences.

Williams and Burden (1997) claimed that motivation is most effective when students want to learn. It refers to stimulation of interest and desires to achieve a particular goal. It will produce various actions depending on the situations and other factors. Individual differences affect one's actions (Skehan, 1989; Geddes & Sturtridge, 1982; Dornyei, 2005) based on various social norms, context and culture.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) offered two kinds of motivational orientation in language learning, an integrative and instrumental orientation. According to Dornyei and Ushioda (2011), an integrative goal is when learners want to study a language with a particular interest in people or culture. An instrumental goal is when learners study a language with practical objectives in mind.

Alternatively, Dornyei (2009) disagreed with Gardner and Lambert (1972). He claimed that integrative and instrumental orientations are more than the definitions offered by language teachers and researchers. He indicated that it is very hard to

explain and use these concepts in the multilingual community and in second language learning. He formulated Gardner's integrative orientation with *future self-guides.*

Gardner's (1985) social educational model includes a learner's cultural beliefs, attitudes towards particular learning situations, their integrativeness and motivation. Motivation includes both integrative and instrumental orientations. Alternatively, Dornyei (1988) argued that motivation can be more detailed than the two terms in Gardner's model. Dornyei suggested the new theory. It was derived by considering the future imagery and imagined-identity (Wenger, 1998) and it can be related to an imagined L2 community. The concept of imagined-identity is further separated into three dimensions of L2 motivational self system: the ideal self, the ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience.

Possible L2 Selves and Ideal Self

There is an idea in motivational theory that links to possible L2 selves. Possible L2 selves is an idea derived by Markus and Nurius (1986). They studied the concept of possible selves (PSs). The definition of this is a future-oriented and individualized image of what learners would like to become and their fears. It links the thinking process and motivation. This thought process includes expectations, fears, and a goal. Dornyei (2009) explained that possible L2 selves is the idea that people imagine what they are and what they could become. That image causes their behaviors.

Ideal L2 Self

There have been numerous studies about the ideal self. Cooley (1964) explained that an ideal self occurs in learners' minds when they imagine how to become like other people they see. Higgins (1987) indicated that an ideal self is what other people would like you to become. It represents someone else's expectations, ambition or dreams for a particular person.

Ought-to Self

The ought-to self is what other people believe you will probably become (Higgins, 1987). The ought-to self is the idea that learners take actions to avoid possible negative outcomes. They avoid failure to achieve their goals. Other people exert pressure and impose expectations upon them.

L2 Learning Experience

Dornyei (2005; 2009) observed that L2 learning experiences are related to one's learning environment and experience. It includes frequency of exposure, opportunities for repetition and practice.

Linguistic Self-confidence

L2 learners need to master the use of linguistic affordance to promote the interests of the self. Clement et al. (1994) suggested that the linguistic self-confidence is an important factor impacting student attitudes and desires. Linguistic self-confidence can be further divided *situation specific self-confidence* and *L2 self-confidence*.

- Situation specific self-confidence refers to the feeling that one has the ability to interact with others efficiently.
- L2 self-confidence focuses on one's anxiety and self-perception. Students are confident in their linguistic knowledge. They have low anxiety and their perception of L2 competence is developed.

Motivational Intensity

Motivation makes L2 learners want to learn. Students ask their teacher if they are confused. They make their own decisions to extend their knowledge and understanding with reflection upon their behaviors to achieve their goals.

English for Communications Course

The course, English for Communications, is a compulsory class for students at Udon Thani Rajabhat University (UDRU). The objectives of the course focus on interactive skills, listening and speaking. It is comprised of six units. They are Greetings and Introductions, Describing Places, Things, and People, Asking For and Giving Directions, Shopping, Making an Appointment, and Expressing Feelings, Opinions and Making Suggestions.

Methodology

The participants

The researcher used a purposive sampling method for sample selection among a population of Udon Thani Rajabhat University (UDRU) students who did not major in English language. They were enrolled in an English for Communications course in the first semester of the 2017 academic year. There were two groups of students in this study. They were:
1. Advanced proficiency English learners: These were 58 students who majored in Chemistry, Biotechnology, Accounting, and Thai Studies. They were 19-21 years old and passed their mid-term examination. Their average score was 48 points.

2. Low proficiency English learners: This group consisted of 32 students, also 19-21 year old, from other departments, business computer and general management. They did not pass their mid-term examination. Their average score was 15 points.
The cut-off between the groups was 40 points.

Data Collection

This study used questionnaires employing a Likert scale. The researcher adopted the questionnaire of Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012). It was adapted from Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008).

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data from questionnaires using multiple linear regressions.

Research Procedures and Time Frame for the Research

The researcher separated the study into two parts. The first part illustrates the procedures and timeframe. The second part is shows the expected framework.

Procedures	**Time**
Stage 1: Search and study more about motivation: Possible L2 selves	1st – 14th October 2017
Stage 2: The questionnaire was designed.	15th – 31th October 2017
Stage 3: The questionnaire was piloted and revised**.** Then, the researcher translated it from English to Thai. Translating from Thai to English was done by two English teachers: one from Udon Thani Rajabhat University and the other from Kasetsart University Chalermphrakiat of Sakonakorn campus.	15th – 31th October 2017
Stage 4: The questionnaires was used as a research instrument to collect data.	1st November – 14th November 2017
Stage 5: The data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed using SPSS (multiple linear regression).	15th November – 30th November 2017

Table 1: Procedures and Timeframe

The findings and results

The research question required examination of factors affecting the test scores of non-English major students in an English Communications course and their possible L2 selves. There are seven tables the show the mean values for each questionnaire item of the two groups. The first to the fifth table shows the means of possible L2 selves that measure the ideal self, ought-to self, motivational intensity, English learning experience, and linguistic self-confidence, respectively. The sixth table compares the means of the two groups. The last table shows the results of multiple linear regressions.

Ideal self	High Proficient Group Mean (SD)	Low Proficient Group Mean (SD)
I suppose that I will live abroad and use English effectively for communicating with the natives.	3.56(.84)	3.24(.70)
I suppose that I will speak English as if I'm an English native.	3.31(.95)	2.93(.72)
I suppose that I will speak English to my foreign friends or my colleagues.	3.58(.93)	3.17(.58)
Whenever I think of the future career, I suppose that I will use English.	4.00(.82)	3.51(.81)*
I suppose that I will study in a university where all courses are taught in English.	3.78(.86)	3.12(.84)
I suppose that I will I write the e-mails fluently	3.47(1.11)	3.00(.67)

in English.		
I suppose that I will become known as a fluent English speaker.	3.39(.93)	3.10(.89)
I suppose that I will live and get to know friends in modern society using English.	4.06(.82)*	3.56(1.0)*

Table 2: The ideal self

In Table 2, the ideal self refers to what the respondent would like to become. The findings showed that the two groups agreed about living and getting to know friends in modern society using English. These items had the highest mean scores (high 4.06(.82) and low 3.56(1.0)). Moreover, members of both groups thought that they will speak English in their future careers (high 4.00(.82) and low 3.51(.81)).

Ought-to self	High Proficient Group Mean (SD)	Low Proficient Group Mean (SD)
If I fail in studying English, I will disappoint others.	3.03(1.1)	2.90(.97)
I study English because my close friends think it's important.	1.81(.92)*	2.66(.76)
Studying English is important for me since other people will admire me more if I have English knowledge.	3.50(1.1)	3.29(.90)
I rely on the importance of studying English because a person whom I respect thinks I should study English.	3.00(1.33)	3.63(.82)*
I find that studying English is important to me for to prove myself to my friends, teachers, and family.	3.72(1.23)*	3.46(.77)
Studying English is important because people around me anticipate that I will study it.	3.64(1.12)	3.39(1.20)
I should study English or other languages or people will think negatively about me.	2.42(1.31)	2.66(.79)
I will study English or other languages at which people think I'm poor.	2.31(1.36)	3.15(.93)*

Table 3: Ought-to self

The ought-to self is the idea that learners take actions to avoid possible negative outcomes. They avoid failure to achieve a goal. Table 3 shows that the low proficiency students were more motivated by the ought-to self than the other group. For example, the item, the low proficiency group responded to "I am studying English because a person to whom I respect thinks I should" with a score of 3.63(.82) vs. 3.00(1.33) for the high proficiency group. Another item with higher scores for the low proficient group was for the item, "I will study English or other languages at which people think I'm poor" with a score of 3,15(.93) vs. 2.31(1.36).

English Learning Experience	High Proficient Group Mean (SD)	Low Proficient Group Mean (SD)
Do you like the atmosphere in your English class?	3.61(.96)	3.44(.74)
Do you really enjoy studying English?	3.86(.99)	3.71(.75)
Do you think time to study English runs faster than usual?	3.58(1.02)*	2.98(.88)
Do you always look forward to studying English?	3.56(.87)	3.17(.77)
Do you need to have the additional English hour at the university?	3.61(1.02)	2.83(.99)
Do you think studying English is really interesting?	4.14(.99)*	3.88(.87)

Table 4: English learning experiences

In Table 4, English learning experience is related to the learning environment and experience. It includes frequency of exposure, opportunities for repetition practice. The results showed that the highly proficient students had higher scores than the low proficiency group in the item, "English is really interesting" 4.14(.99). They also thought that their English class runs faster than usual 3.58(1.02).

Linguistic self-confidence	High Proficiency Group Mean (SD)	Low Proficiency Group Mean (SD)
I find that my English knowledge has developed this semester.	3.39(.87)	3.80(.67)
I often offer to make presentations in the English class.	2.69(.85)	2.73(.86)
I often find myself successful in studying English this semester.	3.14(.96)	3.41(.89)
I'm sure that I will be able to speak English.	4.06(1.10)*	3.83(.80)
I always understand what I have to do and how to do it when studying English in this semester.	3.50(.91)	3.54(.67)
I think my English is considered at a good level this semester.	3.19(.82)	3.39(.80)
I think I will get a satisfactory grade in English this semester.	3.25(1.05)	3.51(.89)

Table 5: Linguistic self confidence

L2 learners need to master linguistic affordance to promote the interests of the self. According to Table 5, the highly proficient group hoped that they will be able to speak English in the future 4.06(1.10). However, the low proficiency group also showed a similar result, 3.83(.80).

Motivational intensity	High Proficient Group Mean (SD)	Low Proficient Group Mean (SD)
When I was in English class, I offered to answer as many questions as I could.	3.00(.67)	3.05(.92)
If English at the university level is not difficult, I need to develop my everyday-life English, such as watching English movies, reading English textbooks and newspaper, trying to speak English whenever it's possible, and so on.	4.14(.76)*	4.00(.77)
When I don't understand while I'm studying English, I will ask the teacher immediately.	3.17(.87)	3.10(.86)
When I have the English homework, I will do carefully to ensure my understanding.	3.47(.77)	3.41(.94)
If my teacher needs someone to do the extra work besides ones assigned in the English class, I'll certainly volunteer.	3.30(.77)	2.95(1.02)
I actively think about what I have learned in my English class.	3.72(.94)	3.66(.65)

Table 6: Motivational Intensity

Motivational intensity refers to what makes L2 learners want to learn. For example, asking your teacher when you get confused is an example of this. In Table 6, the item "If English at the university level is not difficult, I need to develop my everyday-life English, such as watching English movies, reading English textbooks and newspaper, trying to speak English whenever it's possible, and so on", the responses were quite similar. That means English is important even though it is difficult for them. The highly proficient group scored 4.14(.76) and the low proficiency group scored 4.00(.77).

Possible L2 Selves	High Proficient Group Mean (SD)	Low Proficient Group Mean (SD)
Ideal Self Scale	3.46(.79)	3.20(.77)
Ought-to Self Scale	2.92(1.18)	3.14(.89)*
Motivational Intensity Scale	3.64(.90)*	3.36(.89)
English Learning Experience Scale	3.72(.97)*	3.33(.83)
Linguistic Self-Confidence Scale	3.31(.93)	3.45(.79)
The means of five items	3.41(.95)*	3.29(.83)*

Table 7: The Ought to self

According to the Table 7, the highly proficient group showed higher scores than the low proficiency group, but the results were quite similar (high 3.41(.95) and low 3.29(.83)). In possible L2 selves, English learning experience and motivational

intensity were the greatest motivators of the proficient group. Additionally, the ought-to self motivated the low proficiency students to a greater degree than the highly proficient group as 3.14 (.89). However, the mean score of the highly proficient group was 2.92(1.18).

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	Std. B	Error	Beta	t.	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1(Constant)	30.85	7.23		4.27	.000		
Ideal self	-.30	.34	-.12	-.86	.38	.54	1.87
Ough-to	.02	.24	.01	.06	.95	.80	1.26
Motiv	.51*	.33	.23	1.53	.13	.50	2.02
Exp	.41*	.36	.17	1.16	.25	.50	1.99
Con	-.45	.38	-.18	-1.19	.49	.49	2.06

Table 8: Scores of dependent variables

According to the Table 8, this study aims to find the factors that affect English learning proficiency and possible L2 selves. After running a multiple linear regression, the findings showed that motivational intensity (.51) and English learning experience (.41) positively affected the scores in English for Communications for both groups. However, there were no significant correlations.

Discussion

In this session, the researcher will interpret the information from the findings gained from the students' reflections. They include:

1) The ideal self. The perception of learners showed that English is important for living in a modern society and for the future careers.
2) Ought-to self. The result of this item showed that close friends did not affect this group. Alternatively, the low proficiency group demonstrated this effect to a moderate level. Therefore, close friends and people they respect affected learning English of the low proficiency group. The low proficiency groups showed that they do not want people think they are poor, therefore, English needs to be studied. In the same way, Ryan and Deci (2000) observed the desire for reward from outside, such as from parents, employers, teacher or others. Students do not want to lose status in society. In any activity, the teacher may stress the importance of learning English in class.

3) Motivational intensity. Both groups showed that if English is not difficult, they will use it more in their daily life. This is the reason that some students reflected that they want to watch tutorial videos for computer programming, planting and farming. They may use English as a tool to connect their knowledge. In class, the teacher may find content that relate to their fields or the teacher may need to apply other teaching approaches such as ESP, EMI, and CLIL.

4) Learning experience. The highly proficient group thought the time in English class ran faster than usual. However, both groups indicated that English is interesting for them. In class, interesting activities and approaches are needed.

5) Linguistic self-confidence. The low proficiency group indicated that they think that their English knowledge had developed in the current semester. Vibulphol (2016) suggested that the students' motivation in language learning may be changed depending on not only internal factors, but teaching techniques and activities in class.

6) The findings from multiple linear regression showed a correlation of English proficiency and possible L2 selves of motivational intensity (.51) and English learning experience (.41) at a tertiary level among non-English major students. This research showed that it is beneficial to find appropriate activities to support motivational intensity and English learning experience. These will be the recommendations in the next session.

Conclusions and recommendations

This study examined students' motivation for learning English in Thai context. Both groups showed L2 motivation as positive and high results.

L2 learning experience and motivational intensity are very important in learning a new language. Prapunta (2016) and Wongthong and Pattanasorn (2017) suggested activities that support motivation and learners' experience. The next study would be adjusted with activities that enhance or support student motivation. Wongthong and Pattanasorn (2017) indicated that learners may experience a change in their motivation while studying.

In my next study, these types of activities will be implemented into the course. For example, this can be done in Unit 6 of our English for Communications course. It aims to allow students express their opinions about the news or current events. The students may be assigned to interview foreigners who live in Udon Thani to learn their opinions about current issues. The students will gain more learning experience than in class.

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