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Art: A Conversational Centerpiece

Elizabeth Yoshikawa, Naruto University of Education, Japan

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Abstract
In the foreign language classroom understanding how cultural learning experiences of both the instructor and students combine and influence present classroom expectations is important. Without understanding this, learning expectations of both clash and this can thwart students’ EFL communicative skills development. Drawing from the influences of past learning experiences this chapter addresses how students’ foreign language confidence and fluency can be developed while also encouraging an autonomous learning situation. The discussion will focus on how through recognizing can provide a basis from which students’ current learning practices can expand develop, thus encouraging an autonomous learning attitude to develop. The purpose is to demonstrate that when an instructor understands the cultural learning values of their students, these can use to their advantage in facilitating foreign language conversation skills to develop as well as encourages student to expand their overall learning skills.

Keywords: Cultural learning contexts, visual thinking skills, foreign language conversation
1. Introduction

The learning of a foreign language can be challenging, especially when students have limited opportunities to use the foreign language outside of the classroom. An attribute in this challenge that is often overlooked is a recognition of the differences in the learning pasts of both student and their foreign language instructor. How the learning past inhibits language learning is often ignored by language instructors. To facilitate the foreign language learners’ communicative competence the foreign language instructor must address student’s learning pasts in juxtaposition to their own learning past. This is of importance as it allows the instructor to acknowledge how the past is limiting present learning habits to develop. Learning past paradigms do influence the degree of freedom and experience students feel they have to voice their opinions in their foreign language. Understanding this enables the instructor to create a situation where students work collaboratively to develop their communicative foreign language abilities without dependency on textbook stock responses. One method to do this is to utilize the Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) methodology. Using artwork, and not a textbook, VTS aims to encourage students to take a position in the verbalization of how they have interpreted the artwork and to support their interpretations with justification. While students are voicing their opinions or ideals to describe artwork, the art becomes a shield for students who are use to hiding behind a textbook. This paper will demonstrate how VST can be employed in the language classroom. It first discusses the importance of the instructor’s awareness of how the learning past of influences current learning and teaching practices. It then discusses how VTS can be incorporated in a communicative foreign language learning classroom. Throughout these two stages the role of the instructor as a facilitator of conversations will be incorporated.

2. Learning pasts: Instructors vs. Students

In any learning situation the learning pasts of both the instructor and the students influence the current learning situation. Both the instructor and the students have expectations of the role the other should take within the classroom, and this influence learning expectations. As instructors we must not only be aware of how our students expect us to behave, but also how our learning pasts influence the way we expect our students to behave. When we consider in what ways our language learning situations were different and similar to those of our students, especially those students from different cultures, we may realize how our instructional practices need to develop according to the needs of our classrooms.

2.1 Learning pasts: Difference

As instructors we should juxtapose our own learning pasts against how we interpret what our students are doing. Within this there are four primary points to consider:

1) **Power distance**: Different learning cultures have different relationship roles between the instructor and the student. The type of relationships instructors have with their students influences how students and instructors interact with each other. In cultures where students view their instructors as authority figures this limits how students raise questions within or outside of class and how they interact with the material presented in class. When a teacher of language interacts with these students,
it is important to be aware of cues from students which indicate miscomprehension. Furthermore it necessitates the teaching of new learning habits and the encouragement of different interactions within the classroom.

2) **Holder of knowledge**: Students who have primarily experienced a high-distant power relationship with their instructors in their learning past tend to be the passive recipients of knowledge. Here students’ whose learning pasts dictated that the instructor is the holder of knowledge and they are the spoon fed recipients of that knowledge have developed learning habits in which the capacity to direct their own learning has yet to evolve. Therefore in the language classroom, instructors not only have the role of language instruction, but must also guide students in learning new habits in class interaction, as active learners.

3) **Questioning**: In situations where students have been the passive recipients of knowledge, current language instructors must recognize that these students have not been encouraged to actively questioning their instructors in class. While this may occur outside of class or in small groups, it is unlikely to occur directly in class. This might be incorporating face saving techniques, which in some cultures are influential in social interactions. The language instructor accordingly must a range of tasks which are designed to facilitate the different learning preferences of students while also expanding how they incorporate new learning habits.

4) **Activity in class**: Students who have developed in a high-distant power relationship society have experienced great deal of small group activities. It is here that the quizzical nature and active questioning of the knowledge presented to students or discussions to help clear misunderstandings can be found. While students within their own groups may have their own power-dynamics, students tend to use the group as the basis for knowledge acquisition and language comprehension. Instructors who experienced a very different type of learning past, with different expectations of the roles of the learner/teacher, must be aware of where they are looking for the questioning and critical nature of learning. This critical nature in learning, particularly through the questioning of knowledge differs depending on our learning expectations and pasts.

5) **A constructivist vs. a Behaviorist learning paradigm**: The learning paradigm of many instructors of a foreign language might be said to be a constructivist paradigm. This may be different from what some foreign language learning students have experienced. These learning paradigms influence how autonomy in learning is achieved. While instructors who grew up in a constructivist learning paradigm, in their learning pasts expected help in learning, they also knew that they were ultimately responsible for our learning. While this is a gross generalization, it highlights the point that our language learning students have come from a behaviorist learning paradigm have different expectations. As these students experience a high-distant power relationship, they were the willing recipients of their instructor’s knowledge. Learning is influenced by the social context. When the instructor and the student have experienced different cultural expectations in their learning pasts, the instructor must be aware of how this does influence the present learning situation, and therefore must offer student a learning situation which also expands their learning skill repertoire as wells and developing their language skills.
3. New Learning habits

Both instructors and students come from different points in their learning pasts, and this does influence what they expect from each other and how they expect each other to behave in the classroom. Taking the Vygotskian notion that the classroom is a product of the culture it is situated in, and adding this to the basis of Sociocultural theory in second language learning it cannot be denied that language as a cognitive process requires social interaction and this is contextually influenced. This would therefore mean that if as instructors, we want our students to behave differently, then we have to teach them new learning habits. The autonomous learning situation that language instructors experienced in their learning pasts is often very different from their current language learning students. As instructors, we must remember that what is considered as autonomous is culturally defined. If we want our students to develop a degree of autonomy we must first think how autonomy can be applied to the dynamics of our language classroom. According to Benson (2011) autonomous learning is the “capacity [of students] to take charge of [their] own learning” (pg. 10). At students’ current level of foreign language learning, as instructors we must consider in what way can our students take charge and direct their own learning? This means that as Ertmer and Newby (1993) suggest: as instructors we must think about our how our instruction practices are enabling students so that they can actualize their learning goals and develop a degree of learning autonomy. Furthermore, we must be aware of how the cultural context influences how learning occurs. Therefore, to influence pedagogical development understanding the instructor/student relationship and expectations are just as important as understanding how culture influences language learning.

Within this there are two points to remember. First, as Lowe and Cook (2003) found that students’ past study habits continue to influence their present studying expectations up to a year after they enter university. Therefore as instructors, we cannot expect a dramatic change in how students approach learning in the space of one term. Yet, this does not negate our responsibility as instructors to help lay the foundations for students to develop their learning repertoire. Secondly, social influences have great bearing even before a student enters university on their learning expectations. The value and the need for students to learning a foreign language will influence how they approach language learning. In contexts where the social value for learning a foreign language is low, as instructors, it is nevertheless important to provide students with a positive classroom atmosphere where they have the opportunity to create a foundation for future language learning.

3.1 Barriers to Conversing

In any learning situation there are always barriers to learning. In this section barriers to a conversation class from a behaviorist perspective will be briefly addressed. Students who have primarily experienced this learning paradigm in their learning pasts expect their foreign language instructor to ‘spoon-feed’ them. In this situation the instructor becomes be the gifter of knowledge. However in doing so, this limits the opportunities for students to converse in the foreign language, as the focus of discourse remains language patterns taught by the instructor. This learning paradigm does not promote discussions where students must negotiate for comprehension, or free speaking.
Students who have had limited opportunities to freely speak in English tend to have a
dependency on the textbook. In this situation they do not support their opinions in the
foreign language, as this is beyond the scope of the textbook based conversations.
Furthermore if the foreign language has been presented as a test-taking subject, this
also undermines students’ negotiation for meaning in spoken language, as they have
been trained to search for the correct memorized answer (Felder & Soloman, 2010).
In addition, if students are learning a foreign language where outside of the classroom
there are limited opportunities to use it, then their opportunities to expand their
conversational skills are further reduced. Sato (2007) emphasizes that the foreign
language instructor must therefore be aware of students’ past language learning
experiences. If students are characterized as being shy or quiet in the classroom then
this would influence the type of activities that would encourage active learning in the
classroom. Here these type of students might favour small group learning tasks which
maintain group harmony over large group or class activities. In creating
communication tasks it is therefore logical that instructors would take into
consideration students’ learning pasts so as to facilitate opportunities for students’
learning skills to develop.

4. Visual Thinking Strategies

Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) originated in the United States from the work
primarily of Housen and Yenawine (2005). Focusing on a learner-centered approach
to teaching, it is a method of instruction which is designed to employ students’
background knowledge as well as to encourage deep thinking skills. So it stems from
the Vygotskian notion that learning occurs through interaction with others and is
influenced by context. Originally the purpose of the VTS technique was to develop
students’ visual understanding of art through encouraging students to vocalize their
thoughts and feelings regarding a carefully chosen piece of art (Housen, 2002). Art
here was used as a representation of the ‘real world’ or as a social representation – for
example values/ or norms. In a foreign language classroom, using art, students are
asked open-ended questions which facilitate discussions to activate students’
schemata and prepare them for the lesson or to make it the lesson. VTS aims to draw
students away from reading and writing and is based on the idea that visual
stimulation can give students verbal outlet to share their knowledge and creativity
with their classmates in a non-threatening atmosphere. This also increases students’
confidence in language use. This process also draws the focus away from right/wrong
answers, which while may leave some feelings of ambiguity, also encourages students
to question each other to gain a level of comprehension that they would otherwise not
have achieved. The content of the lesson then becomes student dependent, and it is
their responses which structure the lesson (Housen, 2002). Autonomy is achieved as
students are the ones who are taking charge of the lesson within their capacity to do
so. The lesson is automatically appropriate to the students’ present level as it draws
from students current levels, yet it challenges them through questions which do not
demand more than what they could do when they apply some effort (Yenawine, 2013,
1998). Thus students are developing an autonomous learning attitude in their context,
while also expanding how they approach learning in general.

Visual thinking skills can be incorporated in most conversation classes. Depending on
the stage of students’ foreign language learning, VTS can used as an extended warm-
up activity, where an image was chosen to raise students’ schemata for the theme of the lesson. It also can be incorporated as a closing activity where after students have had an opportunity to study a grammatical form and language, students are encouraged to incorporate these in a discussion of an image. Students with higher foreign language abilities may use the image, or a series of images as the focus point of discussion for the whole lesson. The images used in the class discussion can thus be chosen for the topic or theme of the lesson. As the conversation is based on the image, topics that might be considered controversial or outside of students’ experiences can be introduced to broaden the learning opportunity.

4.1 Key questions

Students are first presented with an image and given some time to look silently at it. Then the instructor, as Housen and Yenawine (2005) outline, asks three basic questions: 1) What is going on in this picture? 2) What do you see that makes you say that? And 3) What else can you find? It is through asking these three basic questions that the instructor is not only allowing students to become comfortable with a degree of ambiguity, but also is allowing them the power to create a dialogue on their own. Instead of the instructor telling students the correct answer, students use the image to create a response collaboratively enabling a learner-centered approach discussion. As Wolf (2013) found, students in charge of the direction of discussions are both more interested and more willing to communicate. Conversations centered on images allow students the freedom of this direction and removes the fear of right-wrong responses. In learning situations where student are characterized as being quiet in class, this activity works best in small groups. Within the small group the students together discuss the three questions to create their own story about the picture. Then, once they have had an opportunity to discuss the image in small groups and have prepared some responses, as a whole class activity each group can share their group’s response to the image.

4.2 The Instructor’s Role

The role of the instructor is to be a language facilitator. It is important the instructor remain as impartial as possible. The instructor should listen to students’ responses, and ensure that they to support their ideas. In asking students these questions and listening to their responses, the instructor remaining neutral. There should be no “Yes, I see it too”, or “No, I don’t understand”, as this would focus students towards right/wrong answers, which is not the point of this activity. The point is to encourage active engagement in developing conversation skills. In a foreign language learning situation, by remaining neutral the instructor is encouraging students to support their opinions with details and become active meaning makers (Fahim & Haghani, 2012). Through using the image to support their statements, the students have a shield, in a similar way that they may have used their textbook. When using art in the classroom, students can justify their statements and language use through their descriptions of the art, as the visual image complements the students’ use of their verbal communication (Brumberger, 2007). This would therefore encourage students who are not used to using critical language skills to be objective. Yet as they are using the art to create a conversation, the image can be used to justify their opinions.
It is important that the instructor becomes the facilitator of language. When asking students what is going on in the picture, in responding to students paraphrase what was said. Paraphrasing is important as it encourages language development as the instructor demonstrates correct sentence formation and alternate vocabulary use (Housen & Yenawine, 2005). The point of the activity is to encourage students to think and justify their opinions. It is not about right or wrong answers. The images and discussions encourage students to identify not only what they see, but also to justify this with supportive statements. This also encourages students to consider difference through the ideas posed and supported by their classmates.

5. Closing Words

It is important for foreign language instructors to acknowledge the cultural learning preferences of their student. These learning preferences influence awareness expectations of how language learning should be presented. However, it also important to recognize how stereotypes of how language learning should be done also influence the language classroom. This denotes that we must consider how culturally accepted learning paradigms can inhibit language acquisition. If communicative language skills are a priority in the foreign language learning situation, it is necessary that the instructor adapts a learning atmosphere which encourages communicative skills acquisition. Past research has proven that unless students feel a connection, even just a remote connection to a topic, they are unlikely to be motivated to develop meaningful discussions, and this would thwart acquisition (Wolf, 2013). Using the VTS strategy, students are encouraged to take a position in the verbalization of their interpretation of an image and support it with justification found in the artwork. This then sets up a situation where students are negotiating for meaning and the comprehension of others’ ideas. This challenge then pushes students’ learner capabilities as they reflect on their language use and comprehension of others’ opinions. Although the three questions are simple, they engage students in meaningful. In these discussions, with their peers students are developing their language base as well as their confidence through the small group work. Using art to initiate discussions enables students to be in control of how their discussions develop. This allows students to create links between their previous learning experiences, as well as their interests. In this way students together can create language knowledge in the direction which they choose to take their discussion of the artwork in. Students who in their learning pasts who had limited opportunities to freely speak on topics, accordingly increase their confidence in discussions while also increasing their conversational skills. The three questions demand that students do more than merely offering a statement, they must now justify their statements. The VTS strategy encourages an autonomous learning capacity within their cultural learning atmosphere which also encourages the development or students’ communicative capabilities in their foreign language acquisition.
References


Research or Rhetoric? Deconstructing the Norms of Young Language Learning

Magdalen Phillips, Manchester Metropolitan University, UK

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Introduction
This study problematises the delivery of language learning in primary schools (PLs) in England. Problematisation may take different forms but essentially critically confronts a situation or premise in some way in order to find solutions (Sandberg & Alvesson 2011). Language learning is a complex process and the different aspects of the learning environment need to be taken into account in order to critically confront current issues. This study draws on literature regarding not only current PL practice and official policy in England but also of neurobiological findings pertinent to early language learning: its aim is to analyse factors that contribute to, and affect, PL practice including the human brain’s propensities and aptitudes for such learning. My own previous experiences as PLs and secondary MFL teacher, and my current role as teacher trainee for PLs, provide useful insider acumen which is likely to influence my understanding of, and insight into, actual PL practice; neurobiological findings are entirely drawn from the literature. Recognising the need for practice to be underpinned by theory, a brief discussion of language learning theories is given to rationalise and explain the various stances likely to influence schools’ practice and teachers’ beliefs. The study thus aims to link three perspectives of PL practice: the current situation in England, including rhetoric and governmental policy; language learning theories and their application; and the guidelines for such learning provided by neurobiological findings. To that end, the framework of Activity Theory is deployed to analyse current practice from these three perspectives. It is described in the next section.

The analytic framework of the study
Any study of learning processes, rather than outcomes, requires a framework which reflects the complexities of the learning environment. Instead of the direct linear relationship between a stimulus A provoking the response B (fig. a, below), commonly the basis to find out the effects of an intervention or stimulus, Leont’ev (or Leontijev) (1981) proposed that the tool (or instrument) of any task exerts an internal psychological influence; thus there is a conceptual triangular relationship between the stimulus of the activity, the response and the tool mediating it.

![Diagram](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

Fig. a Unidirectional ‘cause and effect’ dynamic

![Diagram](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

Fig. b Activity system (from Jonassen and Rohrer-Murphy, 1999: 63)
By recognising the inseparability of learning and doing, Activity Theory places the ‘doing’, the activities themselves, in prominent focus and interdependent with the contextual factors within which those activities take place. A developmental process within a socially mediated context (schematised in fig. b) recognises the activities of other human beings and social relations within a community of people engaged in realising a common goal.

Applying the factors to PL learning as a classroom-based activity, the ‘subject/subjects’ are pupils, while the ‘object’ of the activity/activities is learning PLs, which is mediated by certain ‘tools’ or artefacts. ‘Norms’ or rules of previous practice are likely to be inherited from previous practice. The ‘community’ involved in PL practice may consist of not only pupils and teacher/s but also the extended community of parents and other stakeholders.

The framework’s parameters thus may be employed to describe the complex process of learning a language, and the different contributory contextual factors all of which are interconnected within the learning environment and, importantly, influence the processes under study (fig c).

While current primary school learning environments are influenced by the ‘rules’ of governmental rhetoric and policy, this study also looks to pointers from neurobiological research to provide insights into effective PL learning processes and who should deliver them. To contextualise this further, the next section looks briefly at current PL practice in England, as described in recent reports.

The current PL situation

PLs were made statutory within the primary curriculum in September 2014 for key stage 2 pupils (aged 7 – 11) in England, some 50 years after a previous pilot study was abandoned (Burstall 1974). Brief governmental guidelines for PL learning (DfE 2014) allude to desired skillsets for pupils to attain, rather than to learning approaches to be adopted. However, a previous government’s publication, the Key Stage 2 Framework (DfES 2007), provides suggested lesson content with some indications of activities and the skills to be attained. Standard inspections of PL practice by OfSTED (Office for Standards in Education) have yet...
to be published while current PL practice is patchy and diverse (Tinsley & Board 2016); its processes therefore require review. The British Council annually surveys language practice in schools in England and reports, for the first time since 2012, that:

‘Almost all primary schools in England now provide at least some teaching of languages to pupils throughout Key Stage 2, and just over one third of schools now have access to specialist expertise in the teaching of languages within the school. However, there is evidence that some schools are finding it challenging to provide the kind of systematic and consistent language teaching envisaged in the national curriculum.’ (Tinsley & Board 2016)

Specialist expertise does not guarantee knowledge of good primary pedagogy in the PL practitioner (Driscoll 1999). Without learning theories to underpin and analyse its findings, the study’s results tend to be statistically descriptive of current practice in the PL initiative, although case studies are included in its pages. While citing other challenges to PL practice, such as curricular time constraints, and teachers’ confidence in accommodating languages in the curriculum (which are discussed later), consideration is missing of young learners’ aptitudes for learning languages. Indeed, a lack of understanding of how children may learn or acquire a language, or how ‘the child’s intellectual development’ (Crystal 1987: 234) may be harnessed, may have propelled the policy to omit key stage 1 pupils from statutory PL learning. Because every school will be accountable for meeting policy requirements, the next section reports on recent governmental policy and discusses its potential effects on current cohorts of trainees joining the profession.

Policy

The national curriculum requirement for ‘substantial progress in one language’ (DfE 2014: 213) has two important implications. Firstly, the study of more than one language deploys curricular time which is reportedly already limited. Secondly, the ‘substantial progress in one language’ requires greater expertise and confidence in teachers delivering the subject over potentially four years in key stage 2 (for pupils aged 7 – 11). This may increase schools’ reported struggle to staff the PL provision (Tinsley and Board 2016). While there is a requirement for an ‘appropriate balance of spoken and written language’ (DfE 2014: 213) for learning a modern language, no stipulation is given of what that balance might be, nor how this may be interpreted for different age-groups. The processes of PL practice are therefore insufficiently defined or understood, neither are there stipulated requirements for class teachers to be involved in delivering PL learning, as a ‘division of labour’.

Different stipulations are given for the learning of ancient languages:

‘the focus will be to provide a linguistic foundation for reading comprehension and an appreciation of classical civilisation. . . . [pupils] take part in simple oral exchanges while discussion of what they read will be conducted in English.’

(DfE 2014: 240)

These skill-bases contrast pronouncedly with those given for modern language learning, particularly in the lesser part played by phonology. Given the potentially high percentage of lesson time to be conducted in English discussion, rather than the ancient language itself, the question arises as to what proportion of this practice is language learning per se.
A further policy may have affected the language skills of teachers entering the profession; the intention to implement language learning for key stage 2 pupils (aged 7 – 11) (DfES 2004a), hitherto largely the domain of secondary school learning, coincided with its demotion at key stage 4 (pupils aged 14 – 16) to optional status (DfES 2004b). The legacy of such a demotion on staffing PL provision is that current cohorts of primary trainees may have undertaken only 3 years of learning a modern language, with subsequent effects on their confidence levels to support PL learning as future teachers. Lack of PL subject knowledge and/or pedagogical skills amongst primary staff (Tinsley & Board 2016) may propel schools to bring in outside expertise. If deployed during class teachers’ planning, preparation and assessment (PPA) time (a statutory right for minimally 10% of a teacher’s timetable (DfES 2005)), there are implications for PL practice. Firstly, the class teacher’s PPA time is ring-fenced for the three activities of its title and therefore class teachers are highly unlikely to be present during the specialist-led PL session. In this case, the class teacher does not learn from the outside ‘expert’ nor build confidence for supporting PL practice. The normally weekly timetabling of the class teachers’ PPA time along with PL sessions has potentially even greater impact on the efficacy and nature of pupils’ language skills. This is due to the distinct requirements of time and timing for learning different skills involving both declarative and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge (knowing what) is distinguished from procedural knowledge (knowing how). For example, learning to speak a language cannot rely on declarative knowledge but must involve procedural memory. These different types of learning are outlined in the next section.

Declarative and procedural knowledge
An important paradigm distinguishing the learning of different language skills is that of declarative and procedural knowledge as distinct forms of memorisation. Procedural knowledge may be conceptualised as skills; these require frequent practice to become automatized until very little cognitive effort is required to perform them. ‘Automatization is another name for acquiring procedural memory’ (Lee, 2014). Thus the two forms of memorisation have distinct requirements for practice and activate different pathways in the brain (Schumann et al. 2014). The required repetition and ‘exercising to help diminish the time necessary in order to access information and to operate the encoding’ (Annoni et al. 2012) endorses the need for frequent practice sessions to ensure pupils’ memorisation and progress.

Spoken exchange ‘cannot rely on declarative knowledge’ but must involve some procedural learning (Macaro, 2003:183) thus requiring practice in a ‘little and often’ approach. Were this ‘rule’ for time and frequency for PL practice adopted, class teachers should necessarily be involved because they teach their classes daily. To facilitate their pupils’ practice of specialist-delivered weekly sessions, they need to know what their pupils have learned in that session. However, as discussed in the previous section, PPA time may deprive the class teachers of witnessing PLs sessions if it coincides with weekly, specialist-delivered sessions or extra-curricular clubs. Meeting the declared aims of the national curriculum, briefly outlined above, thus may be denied by the school’s timetabling, and affected by staffing policy and funding. Thus ‘rules’ of practice affect the division of labour for providing PL learning in school.
Previous guidelines provided clearer PLs policy for the curricular time to be devoted to the subject.

‘A minimum of 60 minutes per week is needed for children to make progress, but this can be spread across the week. A ‘little and often’ approach is ideal as it enables children to recall languages and reinforce their understanding and skills at regular intervals.’

(DfES, 2007:2)

By contrast, the current guidelines make no allusion to curricular time allocations. Thus the timetabling of PL provision affects class teachers’ involvement within a division of labour, which is required for a little and often approach.

**PLs as a curricular subject**

Language learning is commonly expected to involve four skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing, which are distinguished as important skills within current (DfE 2014) and previous (DfES 2007) governmental guidelines for both primary and secondary language learning practice. However, the assumption within both guidelines that the four language skills are mutually supportive is questionable, given that children’s cognitive development varies with age. An informed pedagogy is thus needed that takes into account pupils’ cognitive development.

The advocating of presenting new vocabulary in simultaneously written and spoken forms underlies many of the (now archived) Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA 2007) schemes of work and the Key Stage 2 Framework (DfES 2007). However, the assumed reciprocal support between those skills is not evidenced in policy for first language literacy skills. The national curriculum strongly endorses systematic phonics to accomplish literacy skills in the first language, English; frequent sessions of associating graphemes with phonemes precede pupils’ attempts to decode written words. By contrast, policy documents do not advocate learning the PL phonics system at any stage of learning. The acceptance of the four skills’ reciprocal support, a ‘rule’ arguably inherited from secondary school practice, is therefore questionable, particularly considering the possible interference between two orthographies using the same alphabetic code but different phonic rules such as French and English. A study (Blakemore and Frith 2005) of how the brain learns to read seems to endorse this possible interference. Faced with an alternative alphabetic coding, pupils may mispronounce phonemes, due to involuntarily applying L1 phonics. Opportunities for exploiting their temporarily heightened sensitivity to phonology (see a later section) may also be reduced.

The next section explores further which the relationship between the skills, particularly their relevance to PLs learning.

**Language skills**

The generic form of any modern language, its spoken form, is considered to be the phonological coding of experienced events (Tomasello 2003); this represents the theory of usage-based linguistics (explained further in a later section). Because this coding of experience usually takes place in the first language, there is a possibility that in learning a subsequent language, the learner resorts to translating the PL into the L1 (English) to access its meaning, rather than deducing it by experiencing the event concurrently with the new
spoken PL vocabulary. Repetitively established habits of processing language are difficult to change, as discussed within a later section on neurobiological findings. Therefore, to avoid forming such habits of translating, direct experiences mediated through the PL could be exploited. For example, teachers could manage their classroom using repetitive PL phrases for authentic communication, without resort to explaining meanings through the L1, English, effectively a process of translating.

For school language learning in England, the skills learned may be predicated on the timetabling of the subject. Hitherto within the domain of secondary schools, timetabled language sessions are commonly of 45 minutes or more, and commonly purport to involve all four language skills under the auspices of a language specialist. It is unlikely that oracy (speaking and listening) skills would be sustainable within this length of time. The recent Language Trends 2016 survey (Tinsley & Board 2016) reports an increase from 41% to 45% of primary schools drawing on specialist expertise, a native speaker or a member of staff with a degree in the language. These people may have expertise in subject knowledge but may lack pedagogical knowledge for supporting the learning of oracy skills. Teachers themselves acknowledge the need for further support for teaching speaking skills. In a study of languages teachers’ opinions in England,

‘Of the four language skills, the one that our teachers felt there was most need for research to illuminate was speaking’ (Macaro, 2003: 6).

The danger is that learning may be predominantly of literacy skills, as procedural skills like speaking and listening not only need frequent exposure and practice, but a teacher confident in supporting those skills. The Language Trends (2016) findings would provide greater insight were they contextualised within the skills undertaken, the levels of learning, and the frequency of the sessions.

Further indications for the relationship between skills have emerged in neurobiological research. Listening and speaking are innate, hardwired in the brain whereas reading and writing take a long time to learn, the brain yet to evolve an innate aptitude for those skills (Blakemore and Frith 2005). Because neuroanatomy evidences different ‘routes’ or brain pathways when undertaking distinct language skills, transfer between oracy and literacy skills should not be assumed.

**Language learning theories**

The reportedly scant and disappointing outcomes of current PL practice demand a more considered, theoretically underpinned analysis of the situation. To that end, broad language learning theories are briefly discussed against relatively recently gained knowledge about how the young brain learns languages. This may then provide greater insight into the veracity of the ‘rules’ which inform teachers’ beliefs and practice.

Repetitive mimicry, part of the primary school ‘oral tradition’, appears to follow a behaviourist tenet, which dominated language acquisition from the forties to the sixties, namely learning through habit formation (Skinner 1957). Repetition of spoken or written language was undertaken until execution was perfected. Because ‘a behaviourist mode of instruction is easy for computers to do.’ (Beatty, 2003: 36), much software is ‘stuck in a behaviourist rut’ (op.cit.).
The nativist position reacts against behaviourist theory, and is often associated with two theories. Firstly, Chomsky’s (1959) notion of a language acquisition device (LAD) attempts to explain children’s acquisition of complex language in the face of a poverty of input, and secondly, their presumed ability to process any language’s grammar (thus known as universal grammar (UG)). The brain’s ability ‘to contain all and only the principles which are universal to all human languages’ (Lightbown & Spada 1999) underlies a largely positivist view of language learning which is still in existence (White 2003). However, 

‘... research on the brain has found it very difficult to identify any areas or circuits that might constitute UG [universal grammar].’ (Schuman et al. 2014:1/2)

It is now thought that many areas of the brain are employed in the complex task of language processing. Language may be considered to be essentially the symbolic mapping of experienced events, with grammar a derivative of that process. Contemporary developmental psychologists regard two sets of skills as paramount in language acquisition, namely intention-reading and pattern-finding (Tomasello, 2003). 

‘... mature linguistic competence, then, is a structured inventory of constructions...’ The implications of this new view of language for theories of language acquisition are truly revolutionary. ... it is possible that children’s early language is largely item-based and yet they can still construct an adult-like set of grammatical constructions originating with these baby constructions... a much closer and more child-friendly target than previously believed. ‘ (Tomasello, 2003:6/7)

This has profound implications for PL learning. The item-based beginning stages suggested here do not preclude progression to mature linguistic competence, but imply that through intention-reading and pattern-finding, young learners can build a grammar if exposed to the language while experiencing the event upon which the language is mapped. This suggests that opportunities should be provided for such knowledge to be applied in authentic acts of communication. Thus within a usage-based linguistics approach, intention-reading and pattern-finding may propel language processing through contextualised acts of communication. This would avoid the possibility that learning schemes for beginner L2 learners may be ‘too noun based’ (Macaro, 2003a: 201). Clearly, the level of language knowledge needed for teachers undertaking this role draws into question the staffing of such provision.

Current staffing of PLs provision
Class teachers’ support in PL provision has not been the ‘rule’ for PL practice, hitherto. Indeed, ‘improving the confidence of classroom teachers who teach languages’ (Tinsley & Board 2016) is cited as one of four principle challenges reported by primary schools about their PL practice. With lack of time and budget to implement professional development of necessary skills (op.cit.), challenges remain for instigating this kind of approach, particularly class teachers’ capacity for such a role. Pupils’ motivation may also be an issue: because experiences have been encoded previously in the first language (L1), the motivation to encode them into a further language may be reduced. This may be particularly true for native English speakers struggling for opportunities to exercise their spoken modern language skills;
with English as the ‘lingua franca’ of world trade and culture, speakers of other languages may be more assertive in practising speaking English. While only 35% of primary schools employ specialists, 42% rely on outside support to monitor and develop PL teaching: 23% do not have access to specialist expertise (Tinsley & Board 2016: 62). While literacy skills may be learned without recourse to the PL’s phonology, oracy skills necessarily require some form of verbalisation which may be particularly challenging for a non-specialist. This suggests a considerable deficit of expertise to support children’s learning to speak a language. However, as usage-based linguistics theory suggests prescriptive item-based beginnings, teachers may be supported in learning to articulate these phrases, especially when supported by technology-mediated ‘tools’ (Phillips 2016). Teachers and pupils may thus progress in their language use at a similar rate. Greater insights can be drawn from findings from neurobiological research, briefly discussed in the next section.

Neurobiological implications for language learning:
The innate characteristics of the human brain are taken into account not only to avoid being ‘25 years behind the times’ (Schumann et al 2014: 179) but also to better understand the processes involved in early language learning. ‘The need to draw more links between the neurobiological mechanisms and second language acquisition.’ (Ellis 2002: xi) is considered paramount for any study of these learning processes. This is because ‘psychological models must be answerable to their neuroanatomy and neurophysiology’ (op.cit.). To further problematise PL practice in England, this section explores some of the aspects of the brain and how it learns languages.

Brain plasticity

Brain plasticity implies that the brain is architected on the activities it undertakes.

‘There are intrinsic forces that contribute substantially to brain development, probably providing more than just a scaffolding for cognitive development, in the sense that they can also shape the directions in which further development can occur.’ (Greenough & Black (2013: 155)

Thus the undertaking of activities also provides a predilection for future activities due to the synaptic connections that have been made. This implies that teacher trainees’ learning of a modern language at secondary school informs the skills and approach for later learning, possibly as a primary school class teacher supporting PL learning. (A further important process involved in brain plasticity, is synaptic ‘pruning’, discussed in a later paragraph.) Due to brain plasticity, learning activities planned by a teacher affect later learning, not only in the progression normally understood of learning, but in the sense that bad ‘habits’ may be picked up which inform the brain’s architecture for later learning.

A recent study using MRI scans of 22 monolinguals and 66 bilinguals allowed researchers to study the brain’s structures of monolinguals and those for learning an L2 at different stages: simultaneously with the L1; after proficiency in the L1, in early childhood; in late childhood; or later (Klein et al. 2014). They found that ‘learning a second language after gaining proficiency in the first language modifies brain structure in an age-dependent manner
whereas simultaneous acquisition of two languages has no additional effect on brain development’ (op.cit.: 20). This would suggest that learning a PL through authentic experienced events such as those described within theoretical accounts above, involves the same brain mechanism as when acquiring the first language. The question of age-dependency has particular significance for PLs.

**Plasticity and learner age**

While lack of distinction of learning *processes* may result in varying findings of the significance of learners’ age, a neurobiological stance is more difficult to refute.

‘Evolution has designed the brain to acquire grammar and phonology by about four years of age through natural interaction with others. Some margin of heightened adaptability probably extends this learning period to the middle of the second decade of life. Once that period has passed, the brain can be viewed as ‘damaged’ with respect to the skill to be acquired.’

(Schumann, 1998: 38)

For pupils, the claimed age-sensitivity for acquiring grammar and phonology could be harnessed in the classroom by exposing them to authentic spoken language in experienced contexts. However, as previously discussed, this requires teacher confidence in relevant skills. If on the other hand, the teacher is learning alongside their pupils, the potential disparity between teachers’ and pupils’ language distinct learning aptitudes may become an issue. Also, the temporary nature of children’s heightened sensitivity to phonology advises its harnessing at the appropriate stage. While PLs are currently statutory from age seven, this is three years after Schumann’s suggested peak age (op.cit.).

Kuhl’s (2010) identification of the native language in utero prompted the claim that ‘exposure to language in the first year of life influences the brain’s neural circuitry before infants speak their first word.’ There is also the suggestion that a goal of future research ‘will be to document the “opening” and “closing” of critical periods for all levels of language and understand how they overlap and why they differ.’ ‘Vocabulary development “explodes” at 18 months of age, but does not appear to be as restricted by age as other aspects of language learning—one can learn new vocabulary items at any age’ (op.cit.). This suggests that vocabulary learning might underlie language learning through any school key stage. However, the way that this learning takes place may not harness the phonological sensitivity that wanes through the primary school years.

Equally relevant in considering language learning and degrees of age-dependency for its different aspects is ‘the machinery of synaptic pruning’ (Takesian & Hensch 2013:7), when circuits are pruned, even to the extent of becoming redundant, after early experience during a critical period. So despite the brain’s potential to increase its synaptic pathways, learning can be affected by ‘brake-like factors’ (op.cit.: 23), a realisation that effectively dismisses ‘the traditional view of a fixed, immutable circuitry that is consolidated early in life.’ (op.cit.:23). While language learning activities shape the brain’s architecture by strengthening synaptic pathways, where some activities take precedence over others, underused pathways may be pruned. This calls into question the supposition that skills are interdependent and
reciprocally supportive of each other. It suggests that where literacy skills may be undertaken for the majority of a session, they may affect oracy skills. The assumption of reciprocal support between language skills is therefore questionable.

Difficulties in changing wrongly learned ‘habits’ or repeated procedures give a further warning and advise that pedagogical approaches require careful consideration. Habits learned through ‘repetition . . . are resistant to alteration or suppression; they function independently of executive control, and are cognitively impenetrable.’ (Lee 2014: 67/8)

Blakemore and Frith (2005) cite the clever design of Stewart’s study which uses musical notation as an analogy for orthography. It alludes to the ‘brainwashing’ effect of learning to read which cannot be undone, or unlearnt. Thus when learning to read another language, previously learned processing habits are difficult to change because the ‘lasting impact’ of reading on the brain becomes ‘automatic and involuntary’ (Blakemore and Frith 2005: 71). If the phonics processing of the first language is involuntary, the likelihood is that decoding mechanisms for the phonemes of the first will be redeployed for decoding the second language. Furthermore, such reliance on orthographic codes affects comprehension (Nasir & Ostry 2009). The danger is, then, that due to the automaticity gained through thorough learning of the phonics of the first language, pronunciation of the second is likely to suffer when reading it. This in turn may cause detriment to the learner’s understanding.

A recent study’s premise that PL learning should better prepare pupils for subsequent secondary school ML learning (Nuffield 2014) reported a predominance in current PL practice of oracy over literacy skills, the latter requiring further development. It could be argued, therefore, that due to the phenomenon of synaptic pruning, oracy may tend to relegate literacy skills, and that therefore they should be learned concurrently, to avoid the risk of such pruning. However, reading and writing skills involve a coded orthographic form of the generic phonological form. This suggests that the generic phonological form should be learned in advance of its coded orthographic form, if to avoid interference of the L1 phonics in decoding the PL. The point at which its written form is introduced must depend on pupils’ automaticity in speaking the sounds. As indicated previously, the most commonly learned PL is French (Tinsley & Board 2016), which shares the same alphabet as English, so pupils’ decoding of the same alphabetic symbols within different phonic combinations of each language may cause confusion.

Given the ‘automatic and involuntary’ nature of ‘previously learned processing habits’ (Blakemore & Frith 2005), teachers are equally susceptible to the influences of previous language learning. Given primary teachers’ low confidence in their modern language skills, the likely short period of time that they studied MFL at secondary school, and the relatively recent introduction of statutory PLs, trainees’ and teachers’ are likely to need to improve their skills which are, in turn, influenced by their previous language learning experiences. Thus, a ‘watered down’ version of secondary practice (Briggs et al. 2008) is likely to be perpetrated, particularly if governmental directive, or feedback from OfSTED advocate little change in PL practice.

The social nature of learning language
A further distinctive feature of PL learning, as compared to that of other subjects, is its social nature. Pupils’ ability to acquire language social behavior has been linked to their social
behavior, which requires other interacting human beings (Maye et al, 2002; Saffran et al 1996; Kuhl et al, 2003). Thus while a focus on oracy skills is neurobiologically justifiable, due to young learners’ aptitudes (Schumann 1998), the provision of a language role model and counterpart to demonstrate meaningful communication would appear to be paramount. These factors therefore demonstrate the need for some kind of ‘community’ in which PL practice takes place. This may even include linking with native PL speakers (Phillips 2010).

**Conclusion**

This study based its analysis of PL practice and policy on a framework suggested by Activity Theory, which takes into account diverse factors within a collaborative activity, in which learning and doing are inseparable. The current situation of PL practice in England shows that while the recently endowed statutory status of the subject places it officially within the curriculum, patchy practice suggests a lack of understanding of the interconnectedness of multiple contributory factors in the learning environment. For example, class teachers’ involvement is necessary to support the ‘little and often’ learning of procedural skills associated with speaking and listening to the language. Because young learners’ sensitivity to the phonology of the PL is both heightened and temporary, it should be harnessed at this important stage.

Neurobiological findings reposition learning theories, for example, in claiming that the peak age for pupils’ heightened sensitivity to language phonology is four years old. However, pupils’ statutory learning commences three years later, aged seven, at the beginning of key stage 2. While the possibility is suggested of a sensitive period for other language skills, which thus constitutes a field ripe for research, vocabulary learning stays constant with no particular age-dependency. This provides a possible explanation for the widespread adoption of such an approach. While current practice is said to focus on speaking more than other skills, timetabling of PL sessions within PPA time may result in a heavier reliance on literacy skills than is currently reported.

The ‘tools’ or artefacts schematized at the top of the Activity Theory triangle should exploit children’s innate sensitivity to phonology. Some theorists’ call for greater focus on literacy skills, including the Nuffield study’s, may threaten the harnessing of natural abilities for oracy skills by limiting timetabling presently available.
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The Effect of Teacher’s Code-Switching on Students’ Achievement in Speaking in the EFL Context

Alaa Al-Adnani, King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia
Tariq Elyas, King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
This study mainly aims to identify if the teacher’s code-switching to Arabic language affects students’ performance in the speaking skill in the EFL classroom. The study also investigates the functions of teachers’ CS in the EFL classroom as well as students’ attitudes towards teachers’ CS. The sample of the study is comprised of 20 teachers from the ELI-Jeddah to be observed through a checklist followed by dividing the teachers into two groups; teachers who CS and teachers who don’t CS. After that, the speaking grades of students are accumulated, then is divided into two groups as well. Moreover, the students’ sample was a total of 200 students from each of the 20 classes observed (10 students in each class). The findings of the study are grouped into three categories: first, it was found out that the grades of students’ who attend to teachers who don’t CS are higher than those students who attend to teachers who CS. Second, the most used CS functions in all the 20 observed sessions were for the purposes of “assessing understanding” and then “translation”. Third, it was shown from students’ questionnaire that students obtain a positive attitude towards teachers’ CS in the classroom as it facilitate their learning.

Keywords: EFL; ELT; Code-Switching; English Language Institute; KSA
Introduction

Code switching (CS) is a phenomenon that occurs frequently in a variety of language use contexts. The act of using student’s first language while speaking in the target language is referred to as the phenomenon of Code-Switching. Interest in CS has greatly increased due to the development of modern society, increasing globalization, the increasing interconnections among different ethnic populations, as well as the process of migration (Akynove, Zharkynbekova, & Aimoldina, 2012). Isfahani & Kiyomarsi (2010) state that CS occurs in the speech of bilingual speakers who are able to speak both languages with some degree of competence. They also claim that it represents speakers’ ethnic identities. Johansson (2013) finds CS in bilingual communities who speak more than one language to communicate. She has also indicated that CS is used by bilinguals when trying to communicate better to convey meanings. Then & Ting (2009) have commented on the use of CS in multilingual communities. They consider the phenomenon to be widespread, “from daily life and workplaces to classrooms” (pg. 1). Additionally, many authors stress that the term CS is appropriate to studies of bilingualism or multilingualism in which the focus is the use of two or more languages in discourse” (Huerta-Macías, Quintero, 1992).

Statement of Problem

In the context of the English Language Institute (ELI)/ Jeddah/ King AbdulAziz University—which is where the researcher works-, students are taught by both native and non-native speakers of English. Teachers from different language backgrounds endeavor to communicate with students primarily in the target language. However, some teachers switch to the Arabic language since it is the students’ first language. In the ELI context, it is important to consider that not all teachers have the same perspectives on CS. Some teachers perceive CS as hindering students’ maximum potential in learning the target language (Olmo-Castillo, 2014). Other teachers do not, believing that CS may, in fact, support students’ second language acquisition in multiple ways. These conflicting conceptions about CS use may affect students’ second language (L2) achievement positively or negatively which will be reflected in the speaking achievement of students. The speaking assessment for students in the ELI is perceived as being worrying and challenging. This is due to students’ low fluency in the English language which is slowly developing especially in beginners levels. To date, there is little research on the impact of CS on student achievement in speaking L2. What studies there are limited in scope and range, in terms of qualitative study of this issue (Amorim, 2012). Specifically, in the local scope of Saudi Arabia there isn’t much focus on this topic applied on Saudi students to investigate whether CS is a recommended linguistic feature in the language classroom or not. More studies are needed to allow researchers in this field to draw conclusions concerning whether CS should be implemented as a useful strategy that supports students’ learning and achievement or if it should be banned from EFL classrooms. Moreover, aside from the issue of the value of CS in the classroom, it is important to measure students’ speaking achievement since, “learners must be able to speak fluently if they are to communicate effectively in international English” (Amorim, 2012).
Purpose of the study

This thesis project is an explanatory study which will investigate the effect of teachers’ code switching on learners’ achievement in the speaking skill in the EFL context. Moreover, it will explore the purposes of CS in the EFL classroom, as well as students’ attitudes towards CS in class. Through observing 20 sessions of non-native teachers, the researcher will examine instances of CS and for what purposes it was present in these sessions. This study will join others (e.g., Then & Ting, 2009) offering linguistic evidence based on naturally occurring classroom data, as a means to provide better insight into the functions and forms of CS. In the analysis of this thesis, the planned data analysis will support conclusions about the efficacy of classroom CS in promoting student achievement in the target language. Moreover, the functions of CS in the classes observed are also going to be investigated as well as students’ attitudes towards teachers’ CS behavior in class.

Literature Review

Code-Switching in the Language Classroom

The phenomena of CS has been a significant topic of theoretical and practical investigations in second language acquisition. The first investigations in this field (Jones, 2000, cited by Akynove, Zharkynbekova & Aimoldina, 2012) were in the 1980s when classroom interaction was first being examined with audio-recording devices. These researchers’ analyses had a linguistic orientation as well as investigating classroom discourse functions. It was as a result of these investigation, CS became a topic of debate with particular focus on the use of target language versus L1 in foreign language classrooms (Akynove, Zharkynbekova & Aimoldina, 2012).

CS has important implications for theories of second language acquisition, thus has been receiving increased attention in the field of second language acquisition. Nilep (2007) states that the term code-switching is used in studies of language acquisition, second language acquisition, and language learning to describe “bilingual speakers’ or language learners’ cognitive linguistic abilities, or to describe classroom or learner practices involving the use of more than one language” (p. 1). It is also “an indicator of the degree of bilingualism that exists within a certain community and by extension, the degree of access speakers have to the source language” (Sayahi, 2011, p. 114).

Sert (2006) confirms that a language classroom is considered to be a social group; for this reason he relates CS as a natural phenomenon among any social group to be “valid” and ascribed to a language class.

Reflecting on that, the fact that using the native language in foreign language learning is considered by many theorists unfavorable for learning itself which may hinder the process of acquiring the language. Akynove, Zharkynbekova & Aimoldina, (2012) state that CS is a “haphazard mixture of two languages; therefore, students were not allowed to switch forth and back between the target language and the native language” (p. 224). Many linguists have recognized it as contributing to a lowering of standards (Bailey & Nunan, 1996, cited in Amorim, 2012). It has even been considered a “sign of laziness or mental sloppiness and

On the other hand, Tarone (1977) (cited in McDonough 1995, p. 23, cited in Amorim, 2012), considered a language switch as a communicative strategy such as “translation, appeal for assistance, mime, paraphrase, or avoidance” (p. 179). Amorim (2012) elaborates on the use of L1 and L2 in the English classroom, pointing out that, “exclusive use of L2 in class is unrealistic, as the two languages are active inside the learners’ heads and will influence each other”. (p. 179). McDonough (1995, p. 25, cited in Amorim, 2012) asserts that it is an ‘achievement strategy’ in which learners can rely on when “compensating for their language incompetence. Sert (2006) “suggested that a bridge from known (native language) to unknown (new foreign language content) is constructed in order to transfer the new content and meaning is made clear in this way”. In this respect, Cole (1998, cited, in Sert, 2005) emphasized on this point when he states “a teacher can exploit students’ previous L1 learning experience to increase their understanding of L2” (p. 3).

Research Methodology

Research Approach

Quantitative design is used in collecting and analyzing “the final speaking grades of students”, as well as it is used in students’ questionnaires. Quantitative research bases its research on numbers to represent its date while qualitative research identifies its data through verbal description (Perry, 2005). Quantitative research originated mainly from psychological research where the focus was abundant on statistical analysis for the purpose of making generalizations to the large population (Perry, 2005). Perry (2005) described quantitative research as it is "characterized by the use of numbers to represent its data….which frequently uses sample strategies for generalizing findings to larger populations" (p. 75). Litosseliti (2010) states that quantitative approach in research is “deductive” by its nature. It bases its research on a theory which is “already known”, for the purpose of constructing a hypotheses in which the researcher during the course of the study attempt to “approve or disapprove based on empirical investigation” (p. 52).

Population and Research Sample

Female students of the preparatory year (modules 3 and 4) as well as the 20 non-native teachers, at King AbdulAziz- city of Jeddah, represented the population for this study. The preparatory year students were specifically identified for the following important reasons. First, as a researcher and an instructor of the preparatory year students, the researcher’s very important cause for conducting this study on this sample is for it to contribute to more understanding and facilitating the difficulties learners face in this year. Second, as being an instructor in the preparatory year, the sample collected were easily accessible and less costly. The students were from the same institute the researcher work in, as well as the 20 non-native teachers were the researcher’s colleagues. Third, learners in this year share the same native language which is “Arabic” which is the area of the researcher’s investigation; the CS between Arabic and English.
In all the 20 classes observed, the researcher distributed 10 questionnaires in each class to students. The total number of questionnaires distributed were 200 questionnaires. Students who were given the questionnaires were Saudi students at levels 102/103 and 104 who are aged between 18-21. The choice of giving this number of questionnaires (10) was because of attempting to have a convenience sample.

Although students differed in their academic orientation (Science and Arts students), they were placed together in classes according to their level of proficiency in English. The study was conducted in modules 3 and 4 of the academic year, so the study sought students who were graded from levels 1 and 2 and reached to levels 3 and 4.

On the other hand, the non-native teachers who were randomly selected have varied backgrounds. 9 Saudi’s, Egyptian, 4 North Africans, Pakistani, Malaysian, 3 Jordanian and 1 Lebanese.

**Sampling Technique**

Simple random technique was utilized in distributing the questionnaires to the 10 students in each class. This as well corresponds with selecting the 20 teachers to be observed. The researcher interest was to select only non-native teachers in the ELI in random choice of classes.

**Research Tools**

Three kinds of tools were administered throughout this study. Two of them are considered main research tools, and the third one is a secondary source tool. The main tools are observation and questionnaire; and the supporting tool is “the final speaking grades of students”. Two significant research tools were utilized for their significance in the study. Wray and Bloomer (2006) states that questionnaires can best be utilized along with other methods of data collection (interview, test, observation) to gain the complete picture. For this reason, Wray and Bloomer (2006) comment “questionnaires often do not operate as a substitute for transcription and analysis, but rather complement them” (p. 158).

**Observation**

In this study, “event sampling” was adopted to be used since this method of entering data to a checklist is useful in counting the frequencies and occurrences of the observed behavior for the purpose of making comparisons (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2007).

In the checklist used in observing the 20 classes, the researcher divided the instances of CS in each class into a list of the eight functions of CS. So that when the researcher is in class, she just check the reason of the teacher to switch to L1 and how frequent are they. These functions are:

1-Teacher code-switch for translation
2-Teacher code-switch for explanation of grammar
3-Teacher code-switch for assessing the understanding
4-Teacher code-switch for managing class
5-Teacher code-switch for indicating sympathy and friendship to students
6-Teacher code-switch for putting stress on important notions
7-Teacher code-switch for shifting topics
8-Teacher code-switch for getting students’ attention

Questionnaires

A number of 200 questionnaires were focused on students’ opinions and were distributed among these students of levels 102/103/104 through modules 3 and 4. The questionnaire is comprised of a total of 16 statements that determine students’ preferences about teacher’s CS in the English classroom.

Speaking Results

The speaking results of the students in levels 102, 103 and 104 are used as a second source or supporting source tool. In each of the 20 classes observed, the final speaking grades sheets were collected from teachers of those 20 classes. The speaking results are used as one of the tools for the purpose of collecting all the 20 sheets and comparing between them. During each module, there are two speaking exams; one at the beginning and another one in the middle of the module. So the average between the two exams are used as the final grade of the student.

Setting

In the context of the ELI, there are four modules during one academic year in which students study four levels; 101, 102, 103, 104. The researcher conducted the study in modules 3 and 4. In a single module, students take the speaking sessions as a practice before the speaking assessment which are two speaking assessments per module.

Procedure

The study was carried out during the academic year of 2015/ at the English Language Institute at King AbduAziz University in Jeddah. In the study two main tools with different procedures were implemented. First: observation will be discussed and then conclude of how the process of giving questionnaires was administered.

Observation

After the researcher created the checklist for the functions of teacher’s CS, a permission was obtained to enter classes for the purpose of observation. The researcher attended a total of 20 classes of nonnative teachers which was recorded using a recording device. It is important to capture the elements of observed behavior using a recording device, reflect upon how true was, and describe it the way it was.
The researcher attended one hour in each class which makes the total number of observed hours twenty hours. Teachers were not informed that their code switching behavior was the subject of observation by the researcher in the class to ensure naturalness. After observing all the twenty classes in modules 3 and 4, the researcher divided the teachers into two groups. Teachers who CS to L1 and teachers who don’t CS to L1. After dividing the teachers into two groups, the final speaking grades were obtained from teachers of each class in module 3 first and then 4.

Then, from these students’ grades, comparisons were made to analyze if CS behavior affected both groups’ performances.

Data analysis Procedures

Quantitative data obtained from questionnaires and final grades of students were quantified using a computer program (SPSS) through a T-test. Moreover, percentages are used in determining students’ perception on teachers’ CS in class. A detailed description of the analysis of results and discussion is thoroughly described in chapter 4.

Findings

Findings of Observation Using a Checklist

In analyzing the data, the results of observing 20 classes showed that teachers have distinctive behaviors in these classes which will be divided into two main groups. The first group are the teachers who code-switched to first language which are counted as a total of 13 classes, whereas the rest of the 20 classes which are a total of 7 classes constituted the second group of teachers who do not code-switch. Five sections were observed in module 3, and 15 sections in module 4. The total number of observed speaking sessions were thirteen sessions, but the rest of the observed sessions were a variety of different skills (5 grammar sessions, and 2 reading sessions). The reason for not being able to only attend speaking sessions for the whole 20 sessions, is because of the difficulty to find speaking sessions in the period of observing since many teachers gave the speaking sessions in the same timings. A second reason is because having a variety of different skills would broaden the scope of the study which will contribute to having better results.

In the first group, the number of teachers who code-switched were thirteen non-native teachers. Seven sections were from level 104, five sections from level 103, and 1 section from level 102. Teachers in this group code-switched for many reasons as mentioned earlier by Sert (2005). They code-switched for translation, explanation of grammar, assessing understanding, managing class, indicating sympathy and friendship to students, putting stress on important notions, shifting topics, and for getting students’ attention (Sert, 2005).

In analyzing “the teachers’ functions for code-switching” checklist card, it was found that the highest code-switched function was that teachers’ code-switched for assessing understanding which reached 135 times in all sessions. Some sessions had high frequencies of “assessing understanding” code-switching than other sessions. Some sessions did not include this category of code-switched occurrences. The second most code-switched function was when
teachers’ code-switched for translation with 126 times of switches in all code-switched sessions. On the other hand, the lowest category of code-switched frequencies was when teachers’ code-switched for getting students’ attention with only ten times in all the 13 classes. Moreover, two functions had exactly the same number of code-switched frequencies which are when teachers’ code-switched for explanation of grammar, and for managing class with 66 times in each function. The remaining categories which are: “indicating sympathy and friendship to students”, and “shifting topics” functions had similar results with 40 times of code-switching for the former, and 41 for the later function. The last function to discuss is when teachers’ code-switched for putting stress on important notions which occurred 26 times in all the 13 observed code-switched sessions.

Findings from Comparing between Two Groups

As a reminder of what was stated previously in the introduction, the following hypothesis was examined: a) The null hypothesis (H0) which states that there is no significant difference between the two groups; grades of students who attend to teachers’ who CS which are a total of 13 sections, and the grades of students who attend to teachers’ who don’t CS which are a total of 7 sections, b) The alternative hypothesis which states that there is statistically significant difference between the grades of those students who attend the classes of teachers who code switch, and the other students who attend classes of teachers who do not code switch.

Thus, the final speaking grades of students in the sections of teachers who CS and teachers who do not CS were collected and entered in an SPSS program. Then, an independent sample t-test was performed on the grades of both groups at the $\alpha$ level = 0.05 and the results revealed that there is statistically significant difference that exists between the groups and therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Findings from Students’ Questionnaire

Looking overall at the percentages, we find that most of the highest percentages (7 questions) are within the “strongly agree” category. Firstly, the highest percentage of responses, lies in the first question and the first category specifically. This question states “I understand more when my English teacher uses Arabic while teaching in class”, is the most general question of the all the 16 questions in the questionnaire. A score of 59% which represents 104 students have responded “strongly agree” to this question. The scores gradually decrease with 20.5% in the “agree” category, 14% in “sometimes” category, 5% don’t agree, and one of the lowest percentages 1.5% who strongly disagreed. Secondly, the second highest percentage is found in the fourth question which states “I prefer my English teacher to use Arabic to explains new vocabulary” with 58% in the “strongly agree” category. It also decreases with 19%, 15%, 5%, and then 2.5% respectively in the categories “agree, sometimes, don’t agree, and strongly don’t agree”.


Conclusion

In this study, the null hypothesis proposed in this study was not retained whereas the alternative hypothesis was accepted which states that there’s a significant statistical difference between the grades of students who attend to teachers who CS and the ones who do not which means that CS should not be recommended in the language classroom. In contrast, students’ attitudes toward teachers’ CS in class were positive. To the researcher surprise, she has not expected these results and thought that both comparing between the grades of the two groups and students’ opinions would somehow complement each other to strengthen the research conclusions. However, perhaps somehow these were the research findings because a variety of tools were implemented to test the study hypothesis and to look at it from different angles. Indeed, CS has been the focus of a wide range of studies in linguistics and especially in language learning studies. However, looking closely at this study and its findings had its own uniqueness to it due to the fact that there aren’t many studies that have tackled the CS behavior in the local context of language learning in Saudi Arabia. This study would contribute to the larger corpus of research of CS locally for researchers, educators and teachers who are interested in this phenomenon in the language classroom. In this regard, teachers should be aware of their CS and for what purposes they are doing it. The researcher believes that teachers should realize the fundamental aspects of using CS in class and implement it wisely. If this rule was applied, it could be suggested from the contrasting findings of using students’ grades and students’ questionnaire, that CS should be banned generally, nevertheless, when there is an urgent need for it, CS could be the final resort if it were from students’ side to reach compromising ends if –as mentioned earlier- it was based on teacher’s awareness of the CS functions and if the lesson was based on a student-centered approach. This said, should not be the excuse to use CS whenever it’s needed. As a matter of fact, the study supports its second hypothesis and finding that the speaking achievement was significantly better when there wasn’t CS around. As mentioned earlier, teachers’ use of CS would have a limited effect on students’ process of learning.
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Contact email: alaa300@windowslive.com
Encouraging the Creation and Adoption of Reading Culture: Panacea to Effective Language Learning

Ibrahim Yabagi Mohammed, Jubail University College, Saudi Arabia

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Abstract
Central to every learning environment, and by extension every community, is how enlightened its members are. Reading is one of the processes by which every member or community members get enlightened. A society that places premium on reading is a society that achieves greatness. Reading is embedded in a complex cultural network system of a society because it is a highly complex cultural system that involves a great many considerations beyond the decoding by the reader of the words of a text. It allows individual readers construct their understanding, through sociocultural influences that inform the meaning the reader seeks to construct. Through reading, individual readers construct an informal social network that could be described as proto-community. This paper seeks to come up with ways societies can encourage the development, over time, of a reading culture that would have deep roots in the traditions of a given society especially in Saudi Arabia where reading is not seen as part of life or has been completely thrown away. It suggests ways teachers can encourage the utilization of space and time, the two integral components of culture, in reading among learners to build in them a solitary act-an act that is constituted through interaction between the ideas of the writer and the brain of the reader. With this, learning takes place and language is developed.

Keywords: Culture, Language, Reading Culture
Introduction

One of the natural instincts which people are known with is living in an ecological environment as social beings. The coming together of people develops a social network that allows individual and group identities to be rooted, and with such identities giving rise to cultural affiliation among the people. Scholars have defined culture from different perspectives; however, a defining characteristic of culture is that people who come together adopt ideas, customs, social behaviors and or other manifestations of human intellectual achievements which are regarded as collectively gained by a society and that is defined by everything from the language that propels the people’s interactions, to their religion, the food they eat, the music they play and listen to, the arts and crafts they display, etc.

These activities carried out by the people become shared patterns of the society’s behavior and interactions, and cognitive constructs and understanding among them. So, a unified mental understanding and interaction is developed between and among the people who identify themselves as members of such society. These understanding and interactions are acquired and learned through the process of socialization. The end result here will be the growth of a group identity that is fostered by social patterns which are unique to the group.

Culture and Language

For the purpose of this writing, culture can be divided into two distinct types. The first one is a culture within a macro level of human achievements. This is mostly rooted in cognitive or mental faculty of the individual members of the identified group. At this level, the group members’ religious affiliation, the group’s moral values and mores, the history of the group, their social structure, and the language(s) spoken by the members are clear indications of the group’s collective sense of togetherness and cultural affiliation.

The second one is micro culture which is primarily seen in tangible and, to some extent, intangible materials displayed or used in the given society. Such materials include food, clothes, sleeping habits, marriages and divorces, fish, rice, cars, schools, hospitals, etc. Daily display of these micro items and their eventual acceptance by all members create an identity through which members are known. In summing up the meaning of culture, a presenter opines that culture “…includes the knowledge that people need to have to function effectively in their social environment.” That this knowledge “…is learned and shared behavior that is transmitted from one generation to another for the purpose of promoting individual and social (group) survival and adaptation.” Faq (2006, p.8)

The survival of members of any social group and the group as a whole is largely dependent on the level of communication that regulates the activities of the group members. Interaction between and among members may create a communication circle. The place of communication circle is sum up as, “(t)he circle is the fundamental geometry of open human communication.” (Harrison Owen 2013). (Appendix A explains more on Communication circle). Members may consciously or subconsciously be asking questions that when answered, the efficiency of the communication is gained and culture is circulated. The questions are:
Why are we here and why are we together?
What are we committed to?
What do we as individual members do for the survival of the group?
Where do we meet?
When do we start? And,
What do we do next?

The level of communication involved is largely carried out through the use of language, an integral component of any culture. What is this thing called language? And where is it found? Any sound pattern spoken or written, and or gesture and body movement which is arbitrarily agreed upon as a means of communication by members of a speech community can be termed as a language. It is found in a social group and it is used to transmit learned and shared behavior which a particular social group promotes for their survival and adaptation.

Invariably, there is a fusing of culture and language. Culture is developed, promoted, and transmitted from one generation to another through language and in turn language is deeply rooted in a given culture. It therefore, implies that culture adopts a language, and a language transmits a culture. Language is a vehicle with which culture is understood and moved from one individual to another; so, a comprehension of a language is an understanding of a culture. When a language is spoken, written and understood, culture is represented and transmitted. As the language gets widely used, the culture it is rooted in becomes trans-cultured. That is, the culture moves with the language. So, the further away from the cultural environment a language moves into other environments, the further the culture moves with it. (Appendix B shows the overlapping nature of culture and language).

Reading

Culture has its transmitting agents, and one of the agents is education. A thorough understanding of culture and getting individuals completely immersed in it is done through education. Individual members of a social group become fully involved when they get educated on their responsibilities and duties as members of the group. Such education, level of awareness and commitment are mostly conducted through informal education. Daily relationships and interactions of individual members of this social group, through greetings, religious congregations, festivals, ceremonies, family relationships, community services, intra-town commuting etc., are all means by which informal education is used to keep and transmit culture.

Furthermore, a formal system of education is also used to transmit culture from generation to generation; through this, the social group becomes both literate and numerate. A literate social group is one whose ability to read and write is high, and its members’ competence in mathematical skills needed to cope with everyday life, is equally high. Computer literacy is also considered; and members of the group are involved in learning how to access information and perform basic operations on a computer. Information literacy is essential for the group’s survival. Gotau (2015, p.6) defines information literacy as, “...the ability to recognize when information is needed and how to locate, evaluate and effectively use and communicate in various formats.” This is aimed at using techniques and skills acquired for utilization of the wide range of information materials and tools available in solving problems.
It is believed that the orthodox method for acquiring formal literacy and numeracy level is through reading. In his work on readers and reading, William A. Johnson (2010) observes that reading is “the individual’s construction of meaning” which is not “wholly interior; rather, sociocultural influences always inform the meaning that the reader seeks to construct…” Reading is done by individuals, but it is a social other than being solely individual engagement only. It is an act that develops overtime, and whose roots are deeply in the traditions of an identified social group. It is a complex network of cultural system that involves individual’s interpretation beyond the printed words seen and read. When a person reads, understanding and meaning are gained as a result of the influence of the social environment, individual’s disposition to his cultural affiliation and the social group’s interpretation of meanings.

Reading Culture

Perhaps, it will be appropriate now to try to interlock reading with culture. It has been established earlier that reading is not only an individual’s sole engagement in a solitary act, but social and environmental influences determine what is interpreted and understood from the reading. When individuals engage in the act of reading, their sociocultural group’s understanding of the world around them interferes with what eventually becomes clear understanding of what the readers have read. This undeniable influence of social group interpretation of knowledge and understanding in reading shows how culture directly gets involved in reading. It therefore implies that a social group or community can adopt a, somewhat, new macro cum micro cultural activity called reading culture. Magara and Batambuze (2005, quoted by Ruterana, 2012, p.18) in their work on reading culture sum up its meaning to stand “…as a culture where reading is part of the people’s living and constitutes a habit that is shared by members of the society.” As broad as this definition seemed, it goes to say that a reading culture allows reading to be integrated pattern of behavior, practice, belief, perception and knowledge which community members (social group) refer and respond to in their everyday life.

A further extension of the meaning of reading culture will be that an act that permits a learned practice of seeking knowledge, information or entertainment through the written words or printed materials is incorporated into the life style of a people who by act of omission or commission see themselves as united under one common goal-reading. This knowledge can be acquired by reading books, journals, magazines, newspapers, and any other printed materials arbitrarily approved by the social group they belong to. Also the success of such reading culture is solely dependent on the social group’s ability to teach its members how to read and how to get them integrated into a specific social relationship; a kind of subconscious social contract is entered into.

Why Reading Culture?

Each time a society develops, adopts or encourages the creation of reading culture amongst its members, some social factors that condition what passes for knowledge in that given society or social group, the relationships between the social structure and the social group’s thoughts, and the maintenance of social reality and social knowledge system are brought into fore. So when reading culture becomes part of a social group’s macro or micro activity:
• individual members of that social environment construct their everyday cultural world, which in turn transforms their experiences of those particular social space and time into meaningful social behavior,
• helps its members increase their understanding of the functions and features of the language in use, and their place and role in the society or community,
• members develop an essential sense of problem-solving by applying reasoning abilities to understand the linguistic relationships between speech and writing. This develops in the group members a sense of cognitive clarity; and
• develops in its members intercultural communicative competence-ability to understand the language and behavior of a given culture as used in the materials being read, and vice versa. This simply means members are able to view different cultures from a perspective of informed understanding.

Implication for Teachers and on Language Learning

As teachers of language, what are some of the implications of creating and adopting reading culture on a social group and on language learning in general? Philip Riley (2007) points out that knowledge cannot be divorced from the knowers or seekers of such knowledge, and there is a strong relationship between a group and its communicative practices. Therefore, every act of knowledge is only possible through the medium of the language a social group uses. The interdependence means that the modes of thought of this social group and the culture adopted by them can only be understood in and through their language, because each language describes the world in its own terms, thereby, forming a unique mode of thought and expression for its group members. As teachers, we should note that:

1) Culture is embedded in real-life situations, and in temporally and spatially specific ways. That is to say culture is part of a social group’s or society’s everyday life; and time and space are central to the development and adoption of any culture. Culture is played out in an environment that is located within a territorial or geographical space and within a cyclical or rational period in time.
2) Culture allows for the growth of a group identity.
3) Culture builds in people the knowledge that they need to have to be able to function effectively in their social environment.
4) Language is one of the transmitting agents of culture
5) Language and culture are intricately interwoven, therefore, culture influences language acquisition and learning, just as much as language influences adoption of culture
6) Education is one of the propellers of culture, and a vehicle for building independent and or collective literate and numerate society
7) Through reading culture, individual members and the society in general develop a sense of problem-solving and ability to understand the links between written materials and speech
8) Reading culture breeds positive behaviors and interactions, and cognitive constructs and understanding that give rise to self-dependence, team work and development.
All this goes to say encouraging the creation, development or adoption of reading between and among our students could eventually lead to a culture—which when put in place, monitored and protected, social knowledge will evolve. Social knowledge is the aspect of human search for the relationship between knowledge and existence; it allows members of a social group to trace the forms of the relationship that has taken place in their intellectual development as mankind. Social group members form their perception of their society and the world at large, which they see as a set of functions and structures for the management of knowledge—knowledge which includes creation, organization, distribution, storage, legitimization, and utilization of both cognitive and abstract ideas and phenomena. This is what eventually passes from one generation to another generation as culture.

Factors that may militate against the Creation of Reading Culture

Having enumerated some of the implications of culture, reading and reading culture on teaching and language learning, next is to look into how as teachers or community members we can individually or collectively encourage the creation of reading culture. Before then however, there is need to understand that certain factors militate against individuals or group from engaging in reading. Until these factors are taken out of the way or eliminated or reduced to the barest minimum, chances are that reading would remain elusive. S. O. Unoh (1972) identifies fourteen (14) factors why individuals may have problems with reading. They are:

1. Slowness in word recognition
2. Word by word reading
3. Vocalization and sub-vocalization
4. Poor visual perception
5. Excessive eye fixation
6. Regression
7. Finger pointing and hand movement
8. Difficulty with the return sweep
9. Lack of motivation or interest
10. Inflexibility
11. Lack of basic linguistic skills
12. Lack of comprehension
13. A form of occupational hazard
14. Personality attributes and disorders.

It is the responsibility of both teachers and the community to make sure these impediments are eliminated completely or reduced to the barest minimum if reading is to be encouraged among the social group members we desire to develop. Some of them need both psychological approach to eliminating them and individual determination if they are to be overcome.
Encouraging the Creation and Adoption of Reading Culture

Two factors are central to the existence of culture-time and space, so, to encourage the creation of a reading culture, all effort should be expounded in, first, creating a spatio-temporal economy of everyday activities of the social group members. Time as one of the factors is divided into two as seen in this illustration:

In the illustration, time as a determinant of culture is divided into two-cyclical time, which is the natural time around the world divided into seasons mostly summer, autumn (fall), winter and spring. Then comes the normal time of the day classified as night and day with each one having 12 hours in a day. The cyclical time also has the biological time the human body or social group member’s body undergoes certain changes. These changes affect human actions at a given point in time. (It is biologically explained in a diagram in Appendix C).

Time as a determinant of culture also covers what is called rational time. This is the normal time around the clock having 24 hours in a day; the calendar of the year which has 12 months in a year; and the scheduled time of carrying out certain events. Some of these events have fixed timetable or schedule, such as the school classroom schedule/timetable, time for breakfast, lunch, dinner and supper etc.

The second important determinant of culture is space. This is the topographical environment within which culture thrives. It is the spatial contours of social existence where human activities are daily conducted by members of a particular social group who resides in it, and whose daily activities are regulated by the territorial limitations arbitrarily agreed upon by the members of the social group or their ancestors.

Interlacing the importance of both space and time in the creation of a reading culture or adoption of existing one, it is good to note that individual members to be coopted into the social group live in a social environment, and therefore, such environment must be made conducive for reading and learning as well. The member’s time must also be considered since certain biological time can affect certain actions carried out by people. Time is integral means of production, so people tend to be apprehensive of losing time because it is synchronized with labor and the organization of work and leisure. It is also seen in a three distinct
conceptions as a commodity in which case the social group members can only spare it from other activities; as a contingency in which case the members of a social group use it when the opportunity presents itself; and finally, as an object which can be grabs sometimes within a day of the members busy schedules. In all these cases reading only fits in when individuals who are to be engaged in the act have time to spare, when the time presents itself (mostly unplanned), and when time can be grabs within or between other activities.

As time is considered for reading, it is important to also note that time for reading cannot exist without a place in which to read. The place in which reading occurs is a constitutive element in the order of creating or adopting a reading culture. This is because reading is a spatially constituted act: an act performed within both a particular reading community and an individual’s home or space provided or available. It is noteworthy that by creating reading places, social group members who would eventually be called readers actually construct their everyday cultural worlds because reading transforms their experiences of particular social spaces. In the confines of the home, the domain of the school, and in the crush of public transport, reading marks the space as what Wise calls ‘a place of comfort’ (Wise 2000, p. 297 quoted by Collinson, 2009, p.64). The everyday value of reading in this instance is not to be found in the text, or in the aesthetic of the printed materials, but in the way reading allows social group members in a given location to transform it, albeit temporarily, into a ‘place’ partly of their own making.

Having established the two dominant factors that influence the creation or adoption of reading culture, focus will now be on how to encourage reading amongst people or social group members. Three areas are highlighted here, namely:

- The parents/community
- School/college/university
- Pupils/students/individuals

The first thing those saddled with the responsibility of teaching need to be able to do to encourage the creation or adoption of a reading culture is what could be termed as paradigm shift. Two philosophical theories have contributed immensely to knowledge, education, and teaching and learning, they are: empiricism and pragmatism. Most learning environments tend to focus on pragmatic approach to teaching and learning because it emphasizes that curriculum should incorporate the necessary practical activities that prepare learners for adult life through group activities that are centred on hands that can explore. It also places emphasis on the belief that knowledge is unique to the individual, so it is up to them to identify what is important and relevant. As interesting and practical as this theory is, it must be noted that certain aspect of knowledge cannot be learnt in practical terms. Abstract ideas can only be understood and absorbed through lay down or established rules.

Reading materials are directly the product of the writers’ ideas and understanding of the world around them. It then goes down to say, a thorough and real understanding of the materials can only be achieved by individual reader’s direct experience with the printed materials rather than their presumptuous belief in interpreting life as it arises-the cardinal principle of pragmatism. Encouraging the creation or adoption of reading culture will require a slight shift away from this pragmatic approach to learning. A bit of a shift to idealism-a
branch of empiricism may be required if positive results are to be expected. There is need to possibly blend the two approaches also.

This paradigm shift is at a broader level, there is need to start from the miniature community level-the family. Parents should be encouraged to adopt reading as a pastime. Local newspaper articles can focus on reading, events, celebrations, milestones achieved, library developments, etc. This way, parents get themselves involved in reading since the printed materials around them are focused on their achievements as individuals or a collective whole. Other ways to encourage reading and eventually create a reading culture could be:

- Creating a possible link between the schools and public libraries through organizing classroom or college visits to the libraries, and vice versa.
- Organizing book events such as the annual reading competitions, community Post Book Awards, Library Week, etc. This should be with active participation of both parents and their wards.
- Display in corridors, office entrances, cafes, cafeteria, sports arenas, recreation centres, etc., of interesting reading articles, gist and community gossips.
- Placing notices of reading events such as challenges or giving incentives to readers in schools, inviting or visiting local and national authors, etc.
- Placing photos of students, staff, and other role models who have been identified as avid readers.
- Education high management officials making recommendation of “Book of the Week” and with a prize for students who read and send in best summary of the book.
- Promoting public library by:-
  
  a. Displaying signs pointing to the library and footprints heading in the direction of the library, and how many steps to the library.
  b. Displaying opening hours of the library and assigning students to serve in the library.
  c. Organizing library quiz of the week; participants can be directed to find the answers to the quiz in the library to make them eligible to participate in the competition.
  d. Students are directed to work on a book that can be found in a library by doing a review of the book, summarizing the book etc.
  e. Information about new books coming to the library, and events coming up in the library.
  f. Quotes about reading, favourite opening lines of books, favourite characters-students are encouraged to go to the library to find the quotes or the books.
Teachers in the Classroom
As teachers we can play significant role in the classroom in helping our students or learners adopt reading as part of their daily lives. So, while in the classroom we can set an example to our students by:

i. Reading aloud to our students every day.
ii. Making time for our students to read.
iii. Having plenty of great books on display in the classroom.
iv. Sharing our own reading experiences with our students.
v. Organizing a reading competition in our classrooms.
vi. Inviting high management staff to read to our students in the classroom.

Students in the Classroom
As teachers we can also help our students become active participants in the classroom in terms of reading if we create an enabling environment that allows the students to be able to:

- Hear stories, share their recommendations, discuss books that are found the library as a classroom and independently.
- Talk about what they have read last, what they are reading now, what they are going to read next, etc.
- Have friend readers, where some will be reading mentors or reading champions in the classroom or school.
- Have books with them during break times.

Again the library plays an integral role in encouraging reading culture, therefore, school librarians and management staff can help instill a reading culture in a school by ensuring:

- The library is well-resourced, well-staffed and well-used to serve as a vital catalyst for the reading culture to thrive.
- Teachers collaborate with the librarian to use the library as an essential resource for their literacy programs and initiatives.
- The library should be included in visitor’s tours of the school.
- The library should be used for events.
- The library should be included in the teachers and students lunchtime duty rosters.

Student Leaders
Student leaders are important role models and can help in promoting reading by:

I. Promoting books in classrooms.
II. Displaying photos in the library of themselves reading during vacations.
III. Being given status and recognition for their active participation in reading.

Creating an Online Presence
The place of the internet, online programmes, and applications (apps) cannot be undervalued in the world of today. If a genuine reading culture is to be encouraged and adopted, focus must be placed on them. There are numerous ways schools, individuals and even organizations can promote a reading culture online. This may include:
• Displaying information on the school’s website, intranet, blog, library home page about reading, readers, research, resources and links.
• Getting students to participate online in appropriate fora such as “Book of the Week” site; conservative story or graphic novel illustration competition sites; student writing sites, and book review sites etc.
• Developing a reading application (app) that encourages students to read interesting stories and send feedbacks.

It should be noted that the above suggestions are not exhaustive, there are other ways all stakeholders could help in encouraging the creation and adoption of reading culture in a given socio-cultural group for the benefit of their community and their country at large. These benefits are numerous and cannot be extensively discussed here. However, as earlier mentioned the creation of a reading culture is a direct invitation of the understanding, acquisition and learning of language since language and culture are inexplicably interwoven. Thomas Berger (1970) is with the belief that social knowledge is central to the development of any group existence because it provides the framework for fuller and more socially adequate account of the identity of the people who come together as members of a social group. Members share knowledge, culture and language that permit them to establish reciprocity of perspectives or definition of the situation around them. Berger went further to express the central role of language in this process of individual and group identity. To him:

Language is both the foundation and the instrumentality of the social construction of reality. Language focalizes, patterns and objectivates human experience. Language is the principal means by which an individual is socialized to become an inhabitant of the world shared with others and also provides the means by which, in conversation with others, the common world becomes plausible to him. On this linguistic base is erected the edifice of interpretive schemes, cognitive and moral norms, values system and, finally, theoretically-articulated ‘world views’ which, in their totality, form the world of ‘collective representations’ …of any given society. (Berger 1970, p.376 quoted by Riley 2007, pp.18-19)

The individual or group’s identity is the ability of the people to form dyads and to enter into intersubjective couplings so that they become products of social interaction between and among themselves. Through this union which becomes a reflection of their interactive experiences, and facilitated and canalized by a common language, it enables members to become who they are as individuals and as group by extrapolating from the inter- to the intrapersonal beings. Therefore, this structure of the society, the language adopted and the interaction engaged in are the sources of individual identity which in turn provides communicative strategies acquired by discursive and cognitive basis of the individual member’s personal speech.

Thus, when members of a social group adopt reading as a pastime, such members become consciously involved in the creation of a community and a culture that socially bind them together and the social definition of their identity takes place within an overarching definition of reality around them, which by extension becomes their definition of their own world.
Conclusion

The everyday reader which a reading culture seeks to create is not necessarily confined to a professional or academic reader only; it is a society where every individual, through reading, seeks to broaden their horizon and scope of their understanding of the world around them and even beyond them. So, a society that puts cultural economies of time and space of its members into account is eventually created—and within such a spatio-temporal economy readers will create a place and time for reading which will involve professionals, students, parents and any other person who wishes to be part of such society. This way a culture that is embedded in real-life situation, with its human intellectual achievements, cognitive construction, socializing processes, and members’ interactions with a central connecting communicative tool called language will evolve. Through this, and over time, and from one generation to another generation a culture that enlightens, builds and institutionalized human phenomenon called language is acquired and in some cases learnt.
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https://www.google.com.sa/search?q=biological+time+of+the+body&tbm

Contact Email: iymohd@gmail.com
Contact Email mohammedib@ucj.edu.sa
Appendix A: Communication Circle

Source: https://www.google.com.sa/search?q=communication+circle&source=lnms&tbm=isch&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwiKmPq87PNAhUEiRoKHZl8BAgQ_AUICCgB&biw=1280&bih=878#imgrc=G3vIs3_FYE3gQM%3A

Standing in the middle is the gigantic culture globe created by members of the social group. When members talk to each other, exchange ideas, etc, a wave of cultural identity is exerted and sent across to every member of the social group who is part of the cyclical formation around the culture globe. They form a circle that becomes interdependent and in turn regulates the existence and survival of each member.
Appendix B: Culture and Language

Source: (Faiq 2006, p.13)
The diagram above shows culture overlapping into the realms of language, just as language overlaps into culture and they are mutually inclusive of each other. The end result builds up “CULGUAGE” culture in and for language and language in and for culture.
Appendix C: Human Biological Time

Human body undergoes certain biological changes at certain time in the day. The diagram, read clockwise, shows that between 12 midnight to about 6:00am human body requires some degree of rest and allows for deep sleep, while the body temperature drops to the lowest level. Between 6:00am to 12 noon the human body is mentally at the highest alert level—it accommodates more and gets fully aware of the environment around it. It’s the period where some biochemical secretions either stopped or are released at the highest level. And between 12 noon to 6:00pm, the human body responds to the greatest cardiovascular activities. Here the body is actively able to exert a lot of energy and allows the muscles to support strong physical activities. And between 6:00pm to 12 midnight the body undergoes changes involving body temperature and blood pressure, too. Both come at their highest level; and certain secretion starts at this point, also.
Decoding of Irony in the Process of Intercommunication

Ilona Kenkadze, Tbilisi National University, Georgia

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Abstract
This article is dedicated to the problems of irony decoding in the process of intercommunication which is based on the results obtained through our three-year research. The given intercultural study investigates the development of specific features of irony taking into account interpretation of a speaker's mind: communicative intention, meaning, belief, attitude and providing the overview of scientific advancements in the field of irony interpretation. We considered irony as a joint category of form, meaning and context. Various studies of irony propose two main ways of how the hearer processes ironic message: a one-stage and a two-stage accounts. One group of researchers considers that the hearer first understands the literal meaning of an ironic utterance and then moves on to the ironic meaning; while the second group suggests that the hearer processes an expression as ironic the moment he/she hears it. While the final explanation of irony understanding is still incomplete, this study tried to clarify and explain both ways of irony decoding.

Keywords: one-stage/two-stage interpretation, communicative intention, shared knowledge, irony decoding, alternative meaning
Introduction

Irony as an interdisciplinary category, which is a complex and unique communicative phenomenon covering the form, meaning and context of an utterance, is one of the central problems of psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, theory of communication, pragmatics. Therefore, almost all scholars looking into dilemma of irony make their investigations in semantic, grammatical and pragmatic fields of speech acts. Our opinion coincides with the experience that irony is a particular strategy of verbal interaction which is characterised by the speaker’s pragmatic intention to implicitly criticise the hearer in order to change his/her opinion.

Coding and decoding of irony has always been and remains one of the main functions of a human’s activity with the aim to achieve adequate understanding of the utterance, which in its turn, means a competent perception of a complicated proposition of an utterance and a response to the ironic illocution. Having gained a new form and dimension in modern world, investigation of irony is based on the interlocutors’ shared knowledge, their background, general way of thinking and perception and experience. The main difficulty here lies in the hearer’s communicative competence.

The below example is a comment that a wife makes when seeing her husband with his sunglasses on in a kind of weather when there is no sun at all and the sky is cloudy:

(1) “Oh, we have the sun shining today!” (empirical material)
Example (1) if said in a different context when the sun is really shining is not ironic but in the speech situation when wearing sunglasses is not appropriate to the weather it gains ironic connotation, especially when the answer from the hearer, in this case husband, also contains implicated ironic meaning and is the following:

(2) “Indeed.” (empirical material)
Decoding of irony and its complex meanings in a specific context in the process of intercommunication is as complicated as its definition. The reason for this is that irony is not an utterance with a ready-given “frozen” form, in every separately taken context it is created anew. The fact that irony is a speech act phenomenon, which expresses opposite or different meaning of what has been said, is evident, but more important aspect of irony perception is the fact that it should be considered as contextually changing element. Thus, it is hard to define irony. Furthermore, the world has significantly changed since the word “irony” was introduced, as a result the term irony has also changed its semantic meaning. Because of this scholars shifted their focus and expanded the "traditional" definition of irony to express something opposite, which led to the concept of irony becoming indistinguishable.

In addition, researchers interested in irony rely on different criteria in the process of irony comprehension which, in its turn, has led to its many definitions – we have identified 32 types of irony during our research so far. Consequently, there is no universal opinion on the method of irony comprehension that all the researchers of irony would agree on: each scholar offers his own, specific methods, mechanisms or framework for irony investigation in light of linguistic, philosophical or psychological background. Our definition of irony is the following: Irony as a pragmatic phenomenon is a systematic trope which can be characterised
by explicit and implicit levels and the coding and decoding of which can be achieved by contextual analysis and interpretation of these two levels. (Kenkadze, 2012).

In the below example (3), my colleague, Marie, sent an email to all the team members asking if they recognised the name and address of the person mentioned in it. This was an urgent payment request that should have been processed immediately. Nobody replied to Marie’s email that day. Next day during the team meeting Marie verbally asked the same question and one of her colleagues, Jennifer, confirmed that she knew the person and recognised the address. Marie replied using the classical ironic utterance of expressives when the speaker demonstrates his/her attitude to the prior action in the form of a complaint – communicating regret:

(3) “Oh, thank you for sending me the confirmation email yesterday, Jennifer!”

**Two ways of Irony decoding**

The present paper reports the experiment which addresses the question of whether irony comprehension is a two stage process or a direct access vision. In particular, our interest was to assess whether there is a literal meaning of the ironic utterance that emerges first and needs to be processed before the ironic meaning can be retrieved. This question appears to be an important cue in ironic decoding.

Recently various theories have been proposed focusing on different aspects of explaining how people use and understand irony. We can identify two main approaches of irony decoding where “both sides present a large body of psycholinguistic laboratory-based research to support their respective cases.” (Partington, 2007). These are a one-stage and a two-stage accounts. But despite a large amount of experiments with their convincing results, there are still a lot of questions on these two accounts of irony decoding. As Fernandez says: “Any scholar who deals with irony “cannot help but dance on irony’s sharp edge”. (Fernandez, 2001:19). These two major ways of irony processing differ significantly and this is how they assess the role of the salient/literal meaning of irony in a given context.

The theory of Grice, which represents a classic pragmatic theory of a two-stage account of irony understanding, explains that irony decoding consists of two phases: the first - when the hearer makes analysis of the literal meanings of the ironic utterance, understands that this meaning is inappropriate to the context the word is used in, and the second - when the hearer develops the correct nonliteral interpretation of the utterance which corresponds to the adequate decoding of irony. (Grice, 1989).

(4) “Oh, I am sweating all over”, said Marie. (empirical material)

In example (4) Marie used irony in her reply to the manager to reveal her emotion and attitude to the climate condition in the office with really low temperature, when she has been constantly feeling cold, as there was a problem with ventilation system. Management team finally arranged for the office desks to be slightly moved away from the ventilation points. As moving desks did not resolve the problem, the room temperature remained the same low. When next week the manager asked Marie: “How do you feel today?” Marie applied to irony as the best way to express her mind and to spice up the utterance. According to Grice, the
first meaning of the word “sweating” is processed by the hearer using the literal meaning of “being hot” and therefore sweating. Then, on the second stage the hearer rejects the meaning of “being hot” and comes to the ironic meaning of “being cold” as the most appropriate one to the context/speech situation: Marie still feels cold.

Standard Pragmatic Model by Grice (Grice, H.1989), and Graded Salience Hypothesis by Giora (Giora, R. 1998, a; b) are two main variants advocating the two-stage irony interpretation when irony processing proves to take longer than non-irony examples. The main element of this theory is the view that whatever important, supportive, predictive or strong an ironic context can be, the process of its interpretation always starts with decoding of literal/salient meaning, recognizing its inappropriateness to the context, and later, at the second stage, processing of implicit meaning finally generating a suitable ironic interpretation.

Dews and Winner (Dews and Winner, 1999) in their studies describe that it took participants longer reaction times to decode ironic utterances compared to non-ironic, literal utterances. Contextual and pragmatic information becomes fundamental to understand the implied ironic meaning revealing the speaker’s belief, attitude or intention. These results proved the standard pragmatic model of Grice according to which, the hearer is required to recognise an extra layer of the meaning of the words used in the utterance which should be added to the communicated content. In addition to understanding of what is being said explicitly, the hearer has to perceive implicit meaning, “a thought about an attributed thought, as well as an attitude of dissociation from it” (Curcó 2000:268).

We would like to mention that Booth (Booth, 1974) goes even further and introduces a four-stage way of irony decoding adding two more stages to already existing ones. In scholar’s view irony decoding consists of: 1. negation of literal meaning; 2. search for the alternative interpretation; 3. understanding of the speaker’s intention; 4. accessing the adequate ironic meaning. Attardo (Attardo, 2002) agrees with Booth and implies this four stage account to humour comprehension:

recognition→understanding→appreciation→agreement (Attardo 2002:166).

(5)  Some people die at 25 and aren’t buried until 75. (Benjamin Franklin)
If we apply theory offered by Booth, the first stage of irony comprehension in example (5) starts when the hearer recognises the literal meaning and rejects it, then searches for alternative interpretation followed by understanding of Benjamin Franklin’s intention to criticize some people being dead in their youth and ends up on stage four when the ironic meaning is in agreement with the uttered sentence in ironic speech situation.
In contrast to the two-stage account (Grice, Giora, Schwoebel, Dews and Winner) another camp of scholars (Gibbs, Sperber and Wilson, Colston) claim that there are no differences in comprehending time of ironic and non-ironic utterances such as in the example:

(6)  It’s such a pity that everybody who knows how to rule a government have already been employed as taxi drivers or hairdressers. (François Maurice Adrien Marie Mitterrand)
For advocates of one-stage theory of irony processing the hearer in example (6) can gasp the meaning of the word “pity” being used in its ironic meaning immediately when the words are
uttered, and both meanings of this word (literal and non-literal) are interpreted simultaneously.

This model provides experimental evidence and empirical results for the hypothesis of the direct access view when both literal and non-literal meanings are processed in parallel mode. “...understanding irony requires parallel activation of literal and figurative meanings.” (Gibbs, 1994:437). According to this theory, the perception of ironic and non-ironic utterances takes place at one and the same time. The hearer understands the ironic meaning of the utterance from the very beginning as well as he/she could perceive literal meaning in any non-ironical situation. What counts here is the extent of context influence on the comprehension of irony. Gibbs states that if the context the irony is used in is not sufficiently supportive, then the process of irony decoding slows down. But irony understanding takes no longer than the non-ironic utterance if the context is strong enough to assist in the decoding process.

**Research material**

Numerous experimental efforts have been undertaken to factor different mechanisms involved in irony decoding, (e.g. Shelley 2001; Gibbs and Colston 2007; Shibata et al. 2010), but these attempts were exploring monolingual irony examples. The present study investigates irony processing in a bi-lingual participants group (Georgian (L1)) with the second language being English (L2) to test comprehension of ironic meaning in a foreign language. The analysis of this paper is based on examples of irony from literature, online publications, newspapers and empirical data in the English language. The aim of the experiment was defined as the study of comprehension of irony examples given in non-native language. The participants were offered the material for testing which contained 40 examples of “natural situations” of irony and which have not been restricted by any parameters. This gave us an opportunity to demonstrate and observe understanding of different kinds of ironic utterances: rhetoric questions, ironic utterances that were close to sarcasm, classical examples of echoic theory of irony and one ironic compliment.

**Research participants**

Forty native Georgian-speaking students from two Georgian Universities whose level of English knowledge was upper-intermediate/advanced participated in the experiment. All were right-handed, had normal vision and hearing. So, in case of our experiment irony perceptions took place in a foreign language that implied good knowledge of English (as a foreign language).

**Procedure**

Participants were seated in a room and were given a questionnaire. They were asked to read the examples attentively so they could answer the questions as accurately as possible, thereby ensuring the adequate responses are provided. We explained the types of questions (multiple choice, open) to the participants and made a note that all the examples had one and the same number and order of questions.
We aimed at providing an overview of irony perception grounded in the speech act theory since we investigated four types of ironical speech act: assertive, directives, commissives and expressives. As examples for the Georgian national participants were given in English, we assumed that they had to first interpret the literal meaning and then go to the second stage and decode the ironic one. But due to the limited amount of participants and examples used in the experiment and since the research was conducted within only one experimental group, it is clear that the study has partial achievements and ergo we can’t claim for sure if irony decoding is a two-stage process. This obviously needs further investigation.

During our experiment we studied different aspects of irony decoding including the influence of a specific context on the conditions of successful interpretation of irony, the role of social competence and numerous mental and linguistic mechanisms which are involved in its understanding, taking into consideration that communicating of irony is not only a simple combination of grammar and vocabulary knowledge but also a mixture of cultural, historical, emotional and social aspects, which irony belongs to.

For the experiment we have chosen a questionnaire through which we examined socio-pragmatic and psycho-linguistic characteristics of the process of irony decoding. Questionnaire administering was conducted on an individual analysis basis. The correct version was the one that denoted negative attitude and belief of the speaker. Every example was followed by seven questions arranged in one and the same order that has shown us how competent the participant was in understanding the disagreement between the context of uttered sentence and its ironic implication. All the questions were divided into three groups. The first one consisted of five questions:

1. Comprehension: What did the speaker say?
2. Meaning: What did the speaker mean?
3. Belief: What did the speaker think?
4. Intention: What did the speaker want to say?
5. Attitude: Why did the speaker say that? (explain your answer)

The second group consisted of the sixth question of the questionnaire which examined speech act theory:

6. The speaker’s main purpose is to express a:

   a) request       h) thank
   b) command       i) apology
   c) advice        j) welcome
   d) question      k) promises
   e) invitation    l) oaths
   f) congratulation m) threats
   g) excuse        n) confirmation of a true idea

And the third group contained the seventh question of the questionnaire which assessed the participant’s ability to see “the ironiness” of the utterance. For the final question about the content of the utterance being ironic or not, participants responses were coded using Likert
 Participants were asked to rate the target utterance and choose one answer from 5 possible options with 0 (being the lowest score) reflecting a total lack of understanding.

7. Your verdict:

1) Content is very ironic
2) Content is ironic
3) Content is slightly ironic
4) Content is not ironic
5) Can’t say

While planning the experiment we formulated 4 hypothetical levels of irony decoding at which the participants could perform:

a) participants completely failed to understand ironic utterance either because they did not see irony in it, or they answered the questions at random;
b) participants partially perceived ironic utterance;
c) participants understood only literal meaning of the ironic utterance, that is, gave the wrong answer to the question: “What did the speaker mean?”;
d) participants correctly understood and interpreted the ironic utterance.

Results

According to the results of the experiment we can claim that for Georgian participants to correctly interpret ironical speech act it was required to understand its both direct and ironical meaning, to take into consideration the context irony is used in and to reflect shared knowledge of the world. Analysis of the participants’ replies revealed a general picture of irony perception which disclosed performance on the four components of irony decoding: Meaning, Belief, Intention, and Motivation/ Attitude. The results of the experiment have shown that our hypothesis on irony decoding is viable (instrumental) and is directly linked to the ability of the hearer to guess and perceive the speaker’s mind. The participants identified the discrepancy between what is said and what is meant after they acknowledged the speaker's communicative intention, belief and attitude. Our experiment proved the idea shared by Tager-Flusberg that it is not until comprehending of these aspects of other people’s mental states is finished that most of the participants could recognise the speaker's irony. (Tager-Flusberg, 2000). “Recent accumulative research shows that… irony communicates non-propositional, implicit, attitude contents… On top of what we say, we piggyback attitudes, feelings, moods.” (Bromberek-Dyzman 2012:99) Having mentioned this, we would like to indicate that the hearer cannot adequately perceive irony if he/she cannot distinguish the speaker’s (other person’s) intended meaning from what they literally said. Therefore, we tried to figure out how adequately Georgian speaking participants could comprehend what in reality the speaker thought and meant. Example (7) in the present paper was given to the participants under number 11 in the questionnaire:

(7) A Greek girl Pelagia liked a young handsome captain who served in the occupant Italian army. Once, when the captain was entering the house, she deliberately kissed him but in the following second she felt embarrassed and explained: “Don’t laugh at me. I thought you were my father (the doctor). I always kiss him like that when he comes in.”
The captain answered: “Very understandable. We are both old and small.”

The results of irony comprehension are shown in the table below reflecting the percentage of the correct answers to all three groups of questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7a</th>
<th>7b</th>
<th>7c</th>
<th>7d</th>
<th>7e</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>95.0%</td>
<td>77.5%</td>
<td>95.0%</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
<td>75.0%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We need to mention one more implication of our findings: there were ironic utterances that have been interpreted very quickly, suggesting that the one-stage theory proposed by Gibbs (Gibbs 1994) has the right to exist. This happened in cases of “simple” irony examples, when ironic utterance corresponded to generally accepted ethical or socio-cultural norms, when irony gave rise to the hearer’s positive emotions or sympathy towards the speaker with no strong negative or critical attitude and when the utterance did not serve to provoke the hearer which, therefore resulted in the process of interpretation going more smoothly. Our understanding is that such utterances of irony have involved universal standards in a specific speech situations.

(8) …Good fences make good neighbours… (Rahman 2015:299)

Decoding of such kind of examples was processed immediately when the contrast between their implicit and explicit meanings initially reveals that the speaker means something opposite or different to what is said.

What is more important, these specific speech situations or context implied communicative purpose, situation, (official, neutral), cultural traditions (expressing negative emotions and opinions), social characteristics (gender, profession), psychological aspects (mood, emotion), physical characteristics, socio-psychological relationships between the speaker and the hearer, their belief (friendly, relative, strange, cold, hostile) and their subjective perception.

To prove this we would like to present example (9). The main hero - Jonathan Dymond – has been constantly told since his childhood that his uncle’s wife Harriet was “not like anybody in the family”, that she was of a noble blood and “of a different breed”. In the utterance Jonathan criticises his aunt after staying in her house for some time helping her out with making cider. He got acquainted with Harriet better during this time; now he was beyond doubt that she was cruel, fierce, sharp, spiky, difficult to deal with and disagreeable with spiteful pride. As Jonathan was the person who helped all the villagers with making cider, he obviously knew what he was talking about when assessing his aunt’s “breed”.

(9) I said: “I think noble blood must be half vinegar.” (McCann, 2010:85)

So in example (9) the situation is neutral; social characteristics - Jonathan being a cider maker by profession; psychological aspects show subjective perception and negative emotion revealing socio-psychological relationships between the speaker and the hearer as close family members.
According to our research, the speaker uses irony with a certain intention/purpose which is reflected in perlocutionary acts, such as alarming, persuading, convincing, misleading, surprising, shock. So the speaker makes the hearer recognize his thought using a certain speech act to achieve a certain ironic meaning in a certain context and correctly interpret the utterance containing a wish, an idea or a feeling. “People adjust their language to their addressees and the situation in order to achieve interpersonal effects”. (Locher and Graham 2010:2)

Analysis

Analysing the results of our experiment we came to the conclusion that irony cannot be processed without the context and it is the context that helps the hearer to comprehend the utterance having detected speaker’s specific intention, his communicative goal, emotional expressiveness and attitude.

The Georgian participants did not find it difficult to decode ironic examples given in the English language. Most of the participants (78.4%) perceived irony correctly. This suggests that, for Georgian users of English as a foreign language at a proficient level of its knowledge, irony decoding poses no bigger challenge in L2 than in L1. However, it is well-known that psycholinguistics studies perception of the text which depends not only on its lexical meaning, but also on cultural aspects, therefore certain socio-cultural differences and weakness in pragmatic and linguistic competences hampered 100% perception of irony.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1 Comprehension</th>
<th>2 Meaning</th>
<th>3 Belief</th>
<th>4 Intention</th>
<th>5 Attitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>78.4%</td>
<td>68.8%</td>
<td>68.9%</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
<td>62.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

The present work is the first attempt to explore irony decoding in light of inter-language pragmatics (ILP) in Georgia. To our knowledge, this is the first investigation of perception of ironic utterances in English by Georgian speaking participants. As such, it represents a new test on how pragmatic competence gained in native (L1-Georgian) language works in the process of irony decoding when the target utterance is delivered in foreign (L2-English) language.

In conclusion, the questions that arose during our investigations deal mainly with different aspects of irony decoding, such as relevance theory of irony, use and mention theory, theory of inappropriateness, speech acts theory, one-stage and two-stage comprehension of irony. We can claim that no single theory of irony interpretation, being it a one- or two-stage decoding is capable to describe or prove the diversity of ways in which ironic utterance is understood which should not be surprising given the linguistic, pragmatic and psychological complexity of irony.
Adequate decoding of irony is based on text amount, extralinghistic factors (historical, cultural, life experience), background knowledge, presupposition and emotional application of linguistic material. It is noteworthy that more or less every scientist agrees that the complexity of social, emotional and cognitive aspects and their rapid coordination must be considered as a necessary precondition of irony decoding. Therefore, irony interpretation is one of the most acute and smart and at the same time, complex mechanism of the process called psychological adaptation of the human being.
References


A Comparative Analysis of Virtual and Traditional Grammar Approach in Teaching Use of English at College of Education, Ikere, Nigeria

Elizabeth Olabisi Seweje, College of Education, Nigeria

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Abstract
This study aims to compare the pedagogical feasibility of two distinct approaches in teaching the use of English to freshers in College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti, Nigeria: The Virtual Approach and Traditional Grammar Approach. Furthermore, the study aims to discover which one of these approaches is relevant and rewarding to the communicative and linguistic needs of the students. A total of one hundred (100) subjects were split in equal halves and divided into experimental and control groups. Both groups were exposed to treatments in form of intensive teaching of a designed curriculum focused on use of English using the virtual and Traditional Grammar Approaches. A pre-test was administered on the subjects and the result showed no significant difference in the competence in use of English course. However, the post-test revealed that there was significant difference in the competence level in use of English course between the two groups. Summarily the results revealed that the use of virtual approach was better than the traditional grammar approach. The inclusion of social media as a virtual approach showed a significant level of appreciation over the traditional grammar approach. However, the study emphasises the importance of synchronizing the positive attributes of both approaches in teaching use of English in a second language situation (ESL).

Keywords: English as a second Language (ESL) use of English, Traditional Grammar Approach and Virtual approach,
Introduction

Language is a vital tool for existence in the world today and it is a binding force which holds humanity together despite the various socio-cultural or religions difference usually exhibited by man. The ability to communicate with language is hinged on the acquisition of basic language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Consequently, the survival chances of human beings in the modern world become high depending on the level of linguistic cum communicative competence that is attained. This attainment depends on the informal and formal exposure of the individual to the various rules governing the use of the target language, which is English in this instance.

English as a second language (ESL) sees English in a society where it is taught and learnt after the acquisition of one or more indigenous language. Therefore, the learning of English as a second language at the tertiary level has numerous challenges and more often than not not the methods and approaches employed by the language teachers.

Consequently, government and non-governmental agencies including the Federal Government take the pain to ensure that the learners of English at all levels of education become averagely competent and efficient in the use of English. The just concluded Millennium Development Goal (MDG) programme is a pointer to this fact. Running through the pages of the last manual on English (MDGP, 2008) and that of UBEC (2013), there is emphasis on the methodology of teaching the various aspects of English Language. The concern of this article is on the use of two techniques of teaching the use of English course – GSE III and the relating methodologies to enhance better performance. The methodologies as specified in the aforementioned manual indicate a paradigmatic shift from the so called “old” methods to “new” ones. Nevertheless, this study is concerned with the use of two approaches of teaching the use of English course in the College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti with a view of finding out which of these approaches will be beneficial to the learners of English as a second language. Not only that, this study will also attempt to create a pedagogical road-map for the teachers in charge of the teaching of use of English course (s) in the College of Education as regards the use of a more productive and learner – centred approach beneficial to both teachers and learners.

Statement of the Problem

The frequency of low level of proficiency in the use of English structures by undergraduates in the College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti is creating anxiety in the stake-holders saddled with the responsibilities of ensuring quality education for the learners. One of the reasons for the poor performance in use of English course can be traced to the use of inappropriate teaching methods in the English class, or rather over reliance on teaching methods that may be considered as not being learner-friendly. For instance, the provisional results of students that offered GSE III – General English I (use of English) for the Harmattan Semester 2014/2015 academic session in the Department of General Studies Education showed a high level of grammatical incompetence as reflected in their poor academic performance.
Purpose of the Study

This study aims to find out:
1. Whether learners in the experimental group are grammatically competent after being exposed to Virtual Approach.
2. Whether learners in the control group are grammatically competent after being exposed to the Virtual Approach.
3. Whether learners in the control group are grammatically competent after being exposed to the Traditional Grammar Approach.
4. Whether learners in the experimental group are grammatically competent than learners in the control group after treatment.

Research Questions

1. Are learners in the experimental group grammatically competent after being exposed to Virtual Approach?
2. Are learners in the control group grammatically competent after being exposed to the Virtual Approach?
3. Are learners in the control group grammatically competent after being exposed to the Traditional Grammar Approach?
4. Are learners in the experimental group grammatically competent than learners in the control group after treatment?

Significance of the Study

For sometime now, the teaching of use of English in Colleges of Education in Nigeria has been characterized by some traditional teaching methods such as the direct method, the audio–lingual method, grammar translation method and the instruction based on the lecture method. In most Colleges of Education in Nigeria (Faloye, 2014) the teaching of use of English with the traditional method has been the predominant method widely used by the language teachers until recently where the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach has been suggested as a better language learning tool for undergraduates (Bax, 2003; Gogura and Agukwe, 2000).

However, recent findings according to Theodore (2001) and Faloye (2014) have also suggested the use of virtual approach as a new approach to the teaching of the use of English. Therefore, this study is significant because it will expand on previous researches on the use of appropriate teaching methods for effective teaching of use of English in Colleges of Education, and provide enabling environment for effective teaching and learning of the course in favour of a skill-based approach. Finally, it will assist the concerned authorities to provide the means of alleviating the English Language problems of newly admitted students into Colleges of Education in Nigeria.

Why use of English (General English)?

In accordance with the requirement of the National Commission for Colleges of Education (2012) – supervisory body for all Colleges of Education in Nigeria and as also contained in the College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti Handbook (2011-2012) stipulated for all Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) programmes that General
English courses I – V (Use of English) be offered in the Department of General Studies Education (GSE) as part of the minimum standard.

These Use of English courses are compulsory for all registered students. They are designed to equip students with language communication skills which will enable them to comprehend their lectures fully, take down lecture notes, write acceptable summaries, reports and essays, use correctly grammatical structures, pronounce correctly, use punctuation marks correctly and making choice of words appropriately to acquire a proficiency in the use of English Language for effective communication. Therefore, the communication value attached to English in Nigerian Schools and Colleges and the position of prominence accorded to it in the society provide enough reason for its inclusion in the NCE programme. High education that must result in originality requires a thoroughly, meaningful and result-oriented mastery of the English Language.

Thus, the course is quite essential and its neglect may make the higher educational programme particularly in Colleges of Education in Nigeria largely defective. English as a language has great reach and influence. It is taught all over the world. Therefore, in a second language situation such as Nigeria, it deserves proper handling. Meyer and Gallo (2012) state that teaching of use of English in second language learning situation should facilitate learning in various forms such as acquisition of implicit grammatical knowledge needed for effortless communication.

**Traditional Grammar Approach (TG)**

Over the years, a number of teaching approaches, methods and techniques have been suggested for the teaching of use of English course at various levels of education. Thus agitation for a more learner-friendly teaching method emanated from the fact that the Traditional Grammar Approach was largely based on the principle of Latin grammar, not in current linguistic research in English. A host of researchers such as Richards and Rodgers (2001), Frede (1987), Faloye (2013), Austin (2003) and Wright (2010) have done some works on this method of teaching and have come out with certain merits and demerits. However, TG exhibited some characteristics such as collection of prescriptive rules and concepts about the structure of language that is commonly taught in schools.

In contemporary linguistics, TG sees to explain the nature of language knowledge and ability. Also, it seeks to describe how particular languages are used or to teach people to speak or read them. It generally classifies words into parts of speech. It describes the patterns for word inflection, and rules of syntax by which those words are combined into sentences. Walker, Davies and Hewer (2012) discovered that the use of TG has gone in and out of fashion in language teaching over the years.

**Virtual Approach**

On the other hand, Virtual Approach provides opportunities for learners to explore authentic learning environments. It stimulates learning by involving students in real activities where real life language context environments are provoked (Williams & Weetman, 2003). Under this approach, students collaborate with each other and acquire together their knowledge of the second language. It is also referred to as
problem-solving and task based approach. Furthermore, Virtual Approach refers to the online classroom delivery tools within the virtual learning environment. It is part of the distance learning platform which typically incorporates course materials, homework, tests, assessments and other tools that are external to the classroom experience. It could also include social media tools such as WhatsApp, Facebook messenger, IMO and conference calls that allow learners and instructors to interact via chat or online discussion board. Berry (2009) opines that Virtual Approach is playing an increasingly important role in education especially in language learning due to the interactive nature as well as a collaborative approach to the acquisition of new concepts and a high level of engagement. Cooke-Plagwitz (2008) estimated that over 200 Universities or academic institutions were involved in virtual worlds.

**Methodology**

This study adopted the pre-test post-test quasi-experimental design. The Quasi experimental design was used in this study because random assignment of subjects was not possible due to use of intact classes (Dawson, 1997). The subject consisted of two classes from the Department of General Studies that offered GSE III – General English (use of English) in the Harmattan Semester 2014/2015 academic year. The two classes comprised the experimental and control groups respectively. The results from the post – Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME) as observed, showed that the two groups had a similar level of overall English proficiency. The two groups were taught by the Traditional Grammar method and the Virtual Approach for ten weeks. Each lesson was held twice a week and the course content for GSE III as contained in the College Handbook (2011 – 2012) was strictly adhered to.

**Instrument**

1. **Pre-test:** The paper for this test comprises fifty multiple choice questions weighing 100 marks. The content for the pre-test consisted of grammatical items such as parts of speech, tenses, punctuation marks, concord, verbs, direct and indirect speech and passive and active voice.

2. **Post-test:** The paper is to test the subjects’ grammatical competence after the experiment. The format of the paper is identical to the content of the pre-test. The post-test was conducted after ten weeks of intensive teaching involving both the control and experimental groups.

**Validity**

The face, content and construct validities of the instruments were thus established after the instruments had been evaluated and appraised by my colleagues and experts in the field. All suggestions were taken into consideration in the final drafts of both pre-test and post-test.
Reliability

The instrument was administered on subjects in two senior secondary schools in Ondo and Osun States. Their results were analyzed using a split half method of analysis. The Kuder-Richardson formula (KR21) was applied. This yields a co-efficient of 0.95 which was considered substantially high to assume that the instrument could be relied upon to measure the variables for which it has been designed.

Procedure

The pre-test was administered during the first week of the Harmattan Semester of the 2014/2015 academic year on the subjects before they were split into the experimental and control groups. The test consisted of fifty multiple choice questions. Each of the five sections tested five grammatical items in line with the five sections contained in the course content of General English I (use of English). The second to the ninth week (2-9 seeks) were used for intensive teaching of the five items contained in the test. The experimental group was taught with the virtual method while the control group was exposed to the Traditional Grammar method by the same lecturer and with the same lecture notes. The final stage comprises the implementation of the post-test on both groups of this study.

Data Collection

The tests were carried out under the supervision of the research assistants in the Department of General Studies and the researcher. The scores were compiled for data analysis using SPSS 16.0.

Results and Analysis

In attempt to reveal any significant difference in the effect of the two teaching methods on the experimental and control groups in terms of grammar competence, the results of the statistical analyses were presented in relation to the research questions:

Table 1: The subjects’ grammatical competence before the experiment (Pre-test).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>t-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>52.43</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50.64</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The results in table 1 show that the pre-test average score of the experimental group is little lower than the average score of the control group. There is however, no significant difference between the scores of the two groups. The t-cal for both groups for pre-test scores signify that the current level of grammar competence of both groups is not likely to influence the effect of the experiment.
Research Question 1

Are learners in the experimental group grammatically competent after being exposed to Virtual Approach?

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>t-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>64.19</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>79.67</td>
<td>7.71</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The results in table 2 show that progress was made by the experimental group in the post-test with the mean score standing at 79.67. This is an improvement over the pre-test score with a mean of 64.19. The pre-test and post-test were designed identically and there was no difference in content, time, allocation and administration of both tests. This signifies that there is a significant difference in the average scores after the experiment.

Research Question 2: Are learners in the control group grammatically competent after being exposed to the Virtual Approach?

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>t-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>54.32</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>70.10</td>
<td>10.12</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The results in table 3 reflect a significant difference in pre-test and post-test showing a level of effect of the Virtual Approach. The mean of 54.32 and 70.10 respectively shows that the teaching method had an effect on subjects in the control group. This result can be interpreted as an improvement in grammar competence of the control group.

Research Question 3:

Are the learners in the control group grammatically competent after being exposed to the Traditional Grammar method?

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>t-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>54.32</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>70.12</td>
<td>10.12</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

The results in table 4 reflect a significant difference in pre-test and post-test showing a level of effect of the Traditional Grammar method. The mean of 54.32 and 70.12 respectively shows that the Traditional Grammar method had an effect on subjects. This result suggests that the use of TG also had a significant effect on the control group as reflected in the mean scores obtained in the pre-test (54.32) and post-test (70.12). This result can be interpreted as an improvement in grammar competence of the control group.

Research Question 4:
Are the learners in the experimental group grammatically competent than learners in the control group after treatment?

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>t-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>69.67</td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>61.14</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The results from the post-test in table 5 reveal an improvement in the grammatical competence in the experimental over the subjects in the control group after treatment. The post-test was designed with a similar format for both groups. The average score of the experimental group is 69.67 while that of control group is 61.14. The SD further suggests a significant difference between the grammatical competence level of the experimental and control groups.

General Discussion

The results from the tables above show the learners’ significant progress in their use of English after being exposed to the virtual approach for ten weeks. This is an indication that the Virtual Approach to teaching use of English had more pedagogical impact on the learners than the Traditional Grammar method which had been named by a host of researchers as inappropriate for present day learners of English.

However, it is suggested that a synchronization of both methods would yield better results in the English class since each method has its merit and demerits. In this case, the teachers are expected to build on the strength of both methods with the learners’ needs in mind. Austin (2003) represented the school of thought that saw more good than bad in the traditional grammar approach. In his view, this method helps the learner to understand the influence of one language on the other like potential errors caused by negative transfer form from the first language (L1). He believes like others that the learners will be able to explain why errors occur and try not to make the same mistake again.

Furthermore, this study has revealed the need to make the use of English less cumbersome. Instead, the use of simple but accurate pedagogical means to bring use of English to the learners would attract their interest and curiosity. So the lecturers
could build on the findings of this study. As a result, students offering use of English courses in Colleges of Education would perform better in the use of basic grammatical structures of English as well as obtain good grades after-being examined.

Conclusion

This study has revealed that virtual method is learner-centered model. Both students and lecturers are active participants who share responsibility for the students’ learning. The lecturers and students work together to identify how students are expected to use the language. The lecturers model correct and appropriate language use, and students then use the language themselves in practice activities that simulate real communication situation. The active engagement of students and lecturers leads to a dynamic classroom environment in which teaching and learning become rewarding and enjoyable. This is evident in the performance of the students after being exposed to the Virtual Approach.

A host of researchers in the behaviorists’ camp argue that most grammar books have attempted to use rules and terms appropriate for Latin grammar to teach English. Supporting the findings of the researcher, Bryson (2000) observes that English is so complex and confusing for the very reason that its rules and terminologies are based on Latin – a language with which it has little in common. In this same vein, it is believed that learners of English as a second language tend to find it relatively difficult to learn Basic English structures and within a short period too. Harmer (2003) is of the opinion that learners of ESL need a technique that would open their minds to English. Furthermore, he opines that new generation use of virtual learning will change grammar from a fragmented whole to unifying it into the system it really is.

Recommendations

1. The Stakeholders saddled with language teaching should make available modern day equipments that will enhance the teaching and learning of English in a second language situation.
2. The teachers of English Language should be abreast with the modern day techniques of teaching use of English so as to enhance the learners’ appropriate use of the language.
3. There is no “the method” in language teaching. Therefore, eclectic approach involving the use of different methods as dictated by prevailing circumstances is recommended.
4. The language teachers should see themselves as role models and therefore be knowledgeable in the target subject.
5. All language teachers should be conversant with the various approaches in the use of computer especially in E-learning.
6. The governments at all levels should engage in training and re-training of language teachers.
References


Contact Email: olabisiseweje@yahoo.com
Abstract
The two main objectives of this study were (a) to study the effectiveness of song activities on vocabulary learning and retention and (b) to explore students’ opinions towards song activities. The sample of the study was 40 first year students. The teaching and research materials used in the study were song activities, a pretest, two posttests, and a questionnaire that about students’ opinions of song activities. The two post-tests were: Posttest I (administered immediately) and Posttest II or Retention test (administered two weeks later). The data collected were from the pretest and the two posttests. We also collected data from an opinion questionnaire containing a five-item Likert scale. The analyses included mean, standard deviation and significance of difference (paired t-test).

The results showed that there was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest I mean scores of the students’ English vocabulary achievement at a level .01. However, there was no significant difference between Posttest I and Posttest 2. Students had positive attitudes toward using song activities to develop their vocabulary learning and retention. It can be concluded that learning English through song activities can encourage students to develop and retain their vocabulary knowledge.

Keywords: song activities, vocabulary learning, vocabulary retention
Introduction

English has become a tool for communication in the new era of globalization and information technology. In Thailand, people use English for tourism, education and international affairs. (Broughton, 1997)

According to Wiriyachitra (2003), the main reason that English learning is not very successful in Thailand is that our students lack the opportunity to learn English in real life interaction in an English environment. Therefore, many teachers try their best to find the strategies and techniques for teaching English to students. Inadequate vocabulary is one of the serious problems in learning English, and it affects language development and learning ability because vocabulary is a basic component of language use which creates the foundation for learners’ performance in other skills (Alemi and Tayebi, 2011, as cited in Chulawan, Sirirat and Krdsanaphon, 2012).

In order to help students succeed in learning language they need to learn vocabulary that is used in daily life. One tool that can interest students in learning vocabulary is the use of song, which introduces students to new vocabulary and phrases in a lively way. Many schools have used songs to help students in learning and improving their behavior. Music allows students to learn vocabulary more rapidly. (Salcedo, 2010)

According to Medina (1993 as cited in Alipour, Gorjian, & Zafari, 2012), a popular song can promote a wide variety of useful words. Using the students’ favorite songs can help them learn vocabulary over the long term; this is called the song-stuck-in-my –head phenomenon. (Murphey, 1992)

The Purpose of the Study

This present study addressed two research objectives as follows:
1. To study the effectiveness of song activities on vocabulary learning and retention.
2. To study students’ opinions toward song activities.

Review of Literature

Vocabulary and Its importance

Vocabulary can be defined as the words of a language involving single items and phrases or chunks of several words which provide a particular meaning. English vocabulary consists of three main aspects which are form, meaning and use. It involves lexical phrases. Learning vocabulary is challenging because of the size of the task; it involves understanding the varied types of vocabulary which include: single word, phrase, idiom, collocation, strategic vocabulary, grammar pattern, and fixed vocabulary. (Alemi and Tayebi, 2011)

Several teachers of English and researchers have tried to find the strategies and techniques for teaching and learning English vocabulary because they are aware of the importance of learning vocabulary which is the basis for learners’ performance in other language skills including speaking, listening, writing, and reading. (Alemi and Tayebi, 2011)
If students don’t know grammar, they can still communicate however ineffectively but if students don’t know vocabulary they cannot communicate at all (Wilkin, 1972). Teaching English vocabulary help Thai students talk with others in English. Inadequate vocabulary is one of the serious problems in learning English. Without learning vocabulary, students are held back in language skill development and general learning ability. (Bualuang.C, Sinprjakphol. S, nd Chanphrom. K, 2012)

**Types of Vocabulary**

There are four types of vocabulary:
1. Listening vocabulary: The words we hear and understand. Babies are listening during all waking hours and gradually learn new words that time. Most people can remember and understand words nearly 50,000 words.
2. Speaking vocabulary: People have a limited speaking vocabulary. Most adults use between 5,000 and 10,000 words for all their conversations.
3. Reading vocabulary: This type is the second largest vocabulary type. These are the words we understand when we read text. If people are not readers, they cannot improve this type of vocabulary.
4. Writing vocabulary: The words use when we write to explain ourselves. The words we use to write we derive mostly from the words that we can spell. (Montgomery, J., 2007)

**Song and Language Learning**

Music plays an important role for every step of human life. It reflects the culture, history, folklore, and current idiom of countries. Singing is an important tool for building students’ confidence. It gives students a degree of fluency before they have succeeded in speaking. Words usually occur in context in lyrics; the sound of new words is easily remembered through the melody of the song. While listening to the song, students will hear several new vocabularies many times. Music affects language accent, grammar, memory, mood, enjoyment, and motivation. Composing words and rhythm appropriately can help to hold the song together and increase the mind’s ability to recall it. Pairing music and language can help the process of learning vocabulary and phrases. When using songs to teach vocabulary, it begins with listening and finishes with communication. For some students who are not used to the culture of the target language and have some difficulties in expressing, they can learn the language better by using the music which provides them a relaxed atmosphere. Songs are the authentic materials for teaching a second language. The song lyrics provide a target vocabulary, grammar, and patterns for students to study. By listening to English songs, students can listen to the native pronunciation and also develop their listening ability. Melodies and rhymes help students to use good pronunciation like a native speaker. (Stansell, as cited in Šišková, 2008)

Songs can be used as effective materials for teaching vocabulary such as using the words of a song, dictating a song, using a song for gap-fill, cloze or for correction, integrating songs into project work, practicing pronunciation, stress, and intonation. By singing songs, students are taught lessons with a fun atmosphere which can create very positive effect in language learning. (Murphey, 1992)
Prescott (2005) points out that music is an important thing for education. It not only help students learn and gain the knowledge but also helps students increase their scores. There are many studies showing that music has a positive effect in the classroom.

If students do not understand the definition of all the words in the song, students can get the meaning from the lyric. There are many popular songs together with their music videos that help students understand the content of the lyrics. The music videos also provide the song’s story which helps the students understand the words in context. Students also hear the words via the songs over and over again and figure out their meaning through the video’s content. (Šišková, 2008) All of this can help students learn new vocabulary. They learn the language naturally while singing and hearing the songs. When students listen to their favorite songs they remain interested and motivated in learning vocabulary. Music video keep students motivated; the video are one tool for keeping students aware of what is happening around them. (Murphey, 1992)

**Retention and Memory**

Retention is ability to recall or recognize what has been studied or experienced. Retention can be known as memory. Memory is the persistence of learning over time. The model of human memory is the process of information that involves encodes, stores, and retrieves information. Some types of information can be encoded automatically whereas other types need information including meaning, imagery, organization, and require effort. Much of what we sense we can fail to notice or process without the process of effort. Memory can be improved by using strategies such as: spaced practice, active rehearsal, encoding of well-organized, meaningful associations, mnemonic devices, self-testing and rehearsal, and minimizing interference.

**Types of Memory**

Each type of memory has different particular modes of operation which cooperate in the process of memorization and can be divided into three types.

![Figure 1: Types of Human Memory (Luke Mastin, 2010)](image)

Sensory memory: It is the shortest-term type of memory. It retains sensory information after receiving stimuli through five senses which are sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch. The retention is quite correct but very short. An example of sensory memory is when you are looking at something for very short time and remember its feature. As information is
perceived, it stored in sensory memory automatically without forcing. The sensory memory cannot be prolonged by rehearsal. It decays very quickly for 1/5-1/2 second after the perception of a thing.

Short-Term Memory: This information will disappear quickly, forever if we don’t make a conscious effort to remember it. The information from short-term memory can be transferred to long-term memory by repetition of the information, or by giving it a meaning and associating it with other previous knowledge.

Long-Term Memory: It is used for storage of information for a long period. Short term memory can transfer to long-term memory through rehearsal and meaningful association. Long-term memory encodes information based on meaning and association. In order to establish long-term memory, a process is need called long-term potentiating which involves physical changes in the structure of neurons in human brain. (Mastin, 2010)

Measure of Retention

There are both direct and indirect methods of measuring memory.

The direct methods are as follows.
Recall: It is the method used for testing memory or measuring retention. It includes verbal reproduction or repetition of previous materials that had been learnt. Students can recall the information easier when the material that they learned is meaningful, short and interesting. The material comprises of lists of words, stores, or visual stimuli. Recall can be classified into two types which are free recall and serial recall. Free Recall allows people not to bring back pieces of information in order. Pieces of learned material can be recalled freely and then don’t need to follow any particular order. The material is remembered in any order at all. Serial Recall is different from the free recall because the pieces of information need to be recalled in order. The material learned can only be recalled in the right order. The subject may be asked to report the material in the exact order.
Recognition: a measure of retention involving identifying the correct information from among other choices. It counts on cues being in front of the person so it is the least sensitive measure of retention. An example of a recognition task is choosing a correct answer from among incorrect ones, or a multiple-choice test.
Relearning: A measure of retention that is based on learning information again that has been learned before and stored in long term memory. It is the most sensitive measure of retention since it illustrates that there is some information in memory. (Krishna, n.d.)

Methodology

Population and Sample

The population of this study was the first year English for international communication students from faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya. The sample in the study was 40 students from the English for International Communication program. The participants were selected by Cluster Random Sampling.
Variables

The independent variable was song activities, and the dependent variable were students’ vocabulary learning and retention.

Research Instrument

The research instrument and materials in this study were song activities and the tests including the pretest, immediate posttest (Posttest I), a two week delay posttest or a retention test (Posttest II) which all were the same test.

Validity and Reliability

1. Three specialists checked the validity and the content of the test.
2. The test items with a value of level of difficulty between 0.20 to 0.80 and the discrimination index higher than 0.20 were chosen.
3. Three specialists checked the congruence between the questionnaire items. The items with value of Index of Congruence (IOC) between 0.6-1.0 were chosen.

Data Analysis

The data obtained were analyzed as follows:
1. The students’ scores from the pretest and Posttest I were analyzed by using paired t-test.
2. The students’ scores from Posttest I and Posttest II were analyzed by using paired t-test.
3. The students’ opinion towards song activities were calculated into mean and s.d.

Students’ self-rating score from the five-item Likert scale questionnaire was analyzed and calculated for the mean and standard deviation and interpreted into five levels as follows.
4.21-5.00 = very high
3.41-4.20 = high
2.61-3.40 = fair
1.81-2.60 = low
1.00-1.80 = very low

Findings

Table 1: The comparison between the overall mean scores of the pretest and posttest I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest I</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>8.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table 1, the number of students was 40 students. The overall mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I were 6.34 and 8.74 respectively. The overall standard deviation of
pretest and Posttest I were 1.79 and 0.87 respectively. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the overall mean scores of pretest and Posttest I at a level .01.

Table 2: The comparison of the overall mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I in all activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Posttest I</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>song 1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>9.06</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>8.826</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song 2</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>8.83</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>3.718</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song 3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>9.888</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song 4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>10.622</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table 2, for song 1, the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I were 6.65 and 9.06 respectively. The standard deviation of the pretest and Posttest I were 2.15 and 1.22 respectively. There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I at a level .01. For song 2, the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I were 7.65 and 8.83 respectively. The standard deviation of the pretest and posttest were 2.47 and 1.19 respectively. There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I at a level .01. For song 3, the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I were 5.33 and 8.78 respectively. The standard deviation of the pretest and Posttest I were 2.35 and 1.41 respectively. There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I at a level .01. For song 4, the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I were 5.73 and 8.28 respectively. The standard deviation of the pretest and Posttest I were 1.79 and 0.87 respectively. There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and Posttest I at a level .01.

Table 3: The comparison of the overall mean scores of Posttest I and Posttest II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Posttest I</th>
<th>Posttest II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( \bar{X} )</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.74</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table 3, the number of students was 40 students. The overall mean score of Posttest I and Posttest II were 8.74 and 8.70 respectively. The standard deviation of Posttest I and Posttest II were 0.87 and 0.90 respectively. The overall mean score of Posttest I was not significantly different from the overall mean score of Posttest II.
Table 4: The comparison of the mean scores of Posttest I and Posttest II in all activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Posttest I</th>
<th>Posttest II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\bar{X}$</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song 1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9.08</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song 2</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.83</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song 3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song 4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table 4, for song 1, the mean scores of Posttest I and Posttest II were 9.08 and 8.65 respectively. The standard deviation of Posttest I and Posttest II were 0.94 and 1.27 respectively. The mean score of Posttest I was not significantly different from the mean score of Posttest II. For song 2, the mean scores of Posttest I and Posttest II were 8.83 and 8.85 respectively. The standard deviation of Posttest I and Posttest II were 1.22 and 1.31 respectively. The mean score of Posttest I was not significantly different from the mean score of Posttest II. For song 3, the mean scores of Posttest I and Posttest II were 8.78 and 8.45 respectively. The standard deviation of Posttest I and Posttest II were 1.19 and 1.80 respectively. The mean score of Posttest I was not significantly different from the mean score of Posttest II. For song 4, the mean scores of Posttest I and Posttest II were 8.28 and 8.85 respectively. The standard deviation of Posttest I and Posttest II were 1.41 and 0.86 respectively. The mean score of Posttest I was not significantly different from the mean score of Posttest II.

Table 5: Students’ opinion toward learning through song activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>While learning through song activities</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Students like to learn vocabulary.</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students can remember more words</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Students relax while learning vocabulary</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Students can focus on the vocabulary longer.</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Students enjoy learning vocabulary and the class is fun.</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Students can pronounce words correctly.</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Students can spell words correctly.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Students can remember the meaning of the words longer.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Students would like to learn vocabulary through song activities continuously.</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Students can apply the vocabulary learned in the class to use in daily life.</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.49</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.58</strong></td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table 5, the overall mean score of students’ opinion toward learning through song activities was 4.49 and standard deviation was 0.58 at a very high level. It showed that students think they relax while learning vocabulary through song activities at a highest level ($\bar{X}$= 4.83, S.D. =0.38), followed by focusing on the vocabulary longer, enjoying learning the vocabulary, and viewing that the class is fun, as well as preferring to learn the vocabulary through song activities continuously at a very high level ($\bar{X}$ = 4.68, S.D.= 0.53). Besides, they saw that they can apply the vocabulary learned in the class to use in daily life at a very high level ($\bar{X}$ =4.55, S.D =0.55). The students rated that they can remember the meaning of
the words, more words, and can pronounce the words correctly at a very high level ($\bar{x} = 4.35$, 4.23, 4.23, S.D.= 0.62, 0.66, 0.62) respectively. Lastly, they saw that they can spell words correctly at a high level ($\bar{x} =4.10$, S.D. = 0.71).

According to the open-ended question, students still would like to learn the vocabulary through song activities. They thought they felt relaxed and happy while learning in the class.

Discussion

The effectiveness of song activities on students’ vocabulary learning and students’ opinions toward using song activities

According to the results, there was a statistical difference between the students’ scores of their vocabulary test before and after learning through song activities. The result was relevant to the results of Kasuwan (2013). The results showed that after learning through song activities, the students’ score were significantly higher than before learning at a .01 level. According to Krashen (1981, as cited in Priester, 2011), unknown vocabulary can be learned best when people have a low affective filter, which can help people to be free from stress. When students relaxed, they learned the new vocabulary more easily. The results show the students learned better in a relaxed atmosphere; the students said that in this relaxed atmosphere they were happy and enjoyed the class (Murphey, 1992).

When students feel comfortable they have easier time accessing new information. Students were also motivated to learn the new vocabulary through song activities. When students are motivated they have a longer retention span to absorb new vocabulary. Using music is an important motivator in attracting and retaining students’ attention. (Šišková, 2008) Motivation is an important factor for students’ success. (Šišková, 2008) According to Martin,C. (2013) , listening to song is a very enjoyable activity. Song selection is important for students because if they like the songs, they will try to understand the meaning.

Thus, they will feel motivated to understand and learn the target language themselves. The selected songs should be the ones that are popular among the students. If a selected song is one of a favorite singer, the students will try to memorize this song, and, in this way, feel a sense of closeness with the singer. During the experiment, students sung the song together; this creates the good relationship among them, they laughed and sang along which helped them to work as a team and learn in this way. Music has always brought young people together. They love to share their music with others.

In addition, students can more easily learn through songs because the brain can be stimulated by using music and song. While classroom teaching is processed by the brain’s left hemisphere, music is processed through brain’s right hemisphere. Therefore, learning through music stimulates the students’ right hemisphere which allows communication between the right and left hemispheres. Therefore, music is a very effective learning tool (Priester, 2011).

As shown in the results, students saw that their pronunciation also improved. While listening to music, students can hear the pronunciation of the native speakers. Students also improve their ability to hear the language .Music’s natural rhythm in words and phrases helps students develop good pronunciation (Šišková, 2008).
The effectiveness of the songs in language learning helps students relax, create the friendly atmosphere, good relationship among students and teachers, improve students’ pronunciation. Students saw that they really enjoyed the song activities and preferred to learn the new vocabulary continuously through song activities.

**The effectiveness of song activities on students’ vocabulary retention**

Although, from the result, there was no statistically significant difference between Posttest I and the retention test (Posttest II), it showed that students can still retain the vocabulary effectively. From the questionnaire, students stated that they can remember more words and their meaning at the high level.

In lyrics, words always appear in context, and so it is easy to remember them along with the melody of the song. While students listened to the song, they are exposed to the new vocabulary several times. Combining words with the rhythm held songs together in a way that improves the mind’s ability to recall the words which helps in learning vocabulary and phrases. (Stansell, as cited in Šisková, 2008). Wallace (1944 as cited in Martin, 2013) mentioned that the melody is an important factor in the retention of information. The combination of melody and words are retained in the brain easily. When words are in a musical context, they are better retained. This is relevant to the results of Martin’s study (2013). It revealed that the use of song may improve the memory and the retention of vocabulary. It stated that the songs can be an effective way to stimulate language retention and a good way to motivate students to like the foreign language. Music is a good tool to help students memorize many aspects of the language because of its repetitive nature.

Learning through song activities, vocabulary can be acquired via popular songs. When the teachers used students’ favorite songs, it helped them store information in their long term memory. Music can help students to deal with their difficulties of retaining vocabulary because it has the quality of sticking in people’s head, which can be called the song-stuck –in –my-head-phenomenon. (Medina, 1993 as cited in Alipour, Gorjian and Zafari, 2012). When a song sticks in one’s head, it is difficult to get rid of it. The song consists of two verses, a bridge and a chorus. The chorus usually repeats many times which can help students remember the new vocabulary from this part first. Thus, the song is a source of repetition which is also a factor that can help students to remember words better. (Šišková, 2008)

In conclusion, song activities had the impact on students’ vocabulary learning and retention.

**Suggestion for further study**

1. A researcher should use investigate the use of English song to promote students’ grammar achievement.
2. A researcher should study the use of English song to teach students’ pronunciation.
References


Wiriyachitra, A. (2002). English language teaching and learning in Thailand in this decade. Thai TESOL Focus. 15(1), 4-9

Contact email: Kittyjung_26@hotmail.com
Language in Future World: New Sprouts

Jessy N.C, Associate Professor, P. K. M. College of Education, India
Rekha K R, Author, Associate Professor, P. K. M. College of Education, India

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Abstract
Day by day social network media is becoming an indispensable part of people lives affecting the daily routine of them. Due to the advent of ICT, the world has become SMART. Developments in communication technology affect the style and type of language used by the society. There have been new sprouts in the matter of conceptual use frame of language. For some years the authors have been observing and experiencing the impact of Social Network Medias in the field of language, especially in the syntactic and morphological aspects. Many usages which were considered to be awkward and non-usable have turned to be acceptable through continued use by a good number of people. In this context the authors are forced to think that there should be redefining of what is standard or classic language and what is not. While handling language classes, there emerges lots of confusion regarding the same. The paper highlights the research findings of Triumvirate: A Learning Group for Educational Research and Innovations, in language education. Triumvirate is a team of educational researchers and has the view of promoting a research culture in educationists, teachers, and students especially in language learning in India. The paper depicts: 1) the issue of acceptability and non-acceptability of the type of language emerging through these social network media. And 2) the strategies to deal with literary language in the context of majorities favoring the digital language culture.

Keywords: Social net work media, Future, Sprouts
Introduction

Human life will be complete only if the individual gain mastery of languages and they express their emotions and feeling through the languages. Around the world manuses different languages to communicate. What is naturally learnt as a language is what is received by him through the natural situations in which he lives in. Language is not a concrete material rather it is a set of abstractions too. A good number of rules and regulations govern any language. These rules and regulations are mastered by the users of these languages not deliberately always but unknowingly also. Language is an evolving thing. If a language is living, there will be changes in the meanings of words, there would be addition of words and usages from other languages, there would be deletions and alterations in meanings etc.

Ever since language use has been analyzed, we would see the classic language and the colloquial language. So a question the language teachers face is very significant what language is to be taught in the classrooms? Whether we can dilute the classic language or not?

In this context actually the authors thought of the new type of language emerging through the influence of social networkmedia, worldwide discussions and research are held upon the impact of social media on children’s language development. The differences between social media text and other forms of written language are a subject of increasing interest for both language technology (Gimpelet al., 2011; Ritter et al., 2011; Foster et al., 2011) and linguistics (Androutsopoulos, 2011; Dresner and Herring, 2010; Paolillo 1996). Research studies show that enumerable words originate daily from these media. Children handle these internet sources rather naturally without being aware of it completely. Re appropriation is a phenomenon that is used and commonly seen during the recent years. It claims that the words which were used previously in a particular way have attained a new meaning.

The newest commonly used words in our society are included every year by the Oxford English Dictionary (OED). So what makes a word ‘official’ and not just slang? It is reality that what was once considered slang has now become accepted as official. The dictionaries accept vernacular words and phrases regularly. In 2013, the entries for ‘tweet’, ‘follow’ and ‘follower’ have been readjusted in the OED to represent both a noun and verb in order to reflect use in social media.

Language affected by Social Media

The main effect of social media is that sentences and phrases have become much shorter. The almost instant ability of social media, in our fast paced society, to share thoughts with the world has also affected our behavior in actual speech.

For example the alteration of the word ‘Facebook’ to be both a noun and a verb can change a sentence from ‘I will send her a message on Facebook’ to ‘I will Facebook her’. When you tweet, actually you are shortening sentences in a very effective way, to become more concise and thereby getting more message across with a limited number of letters.

Technology and its influence in our day today life have brought about remarkable changes. They are part and parcel of our life. Our day begins with messages from the media like...
WhatsApp and Facebook. The tools available are incredible but it has also changed our communication system.

The role of technology in transforming the words we use into abbreviations and acronyms is amazing, for example: electronic mail becomes e-mail which then became email. The physical spacing of words has also been shortened, reflecting the need to use as few characters as possible within social media updates. ‘E-reader’ is a term that has been added to the OED reflecting the size of products available to read e-books on. Certain acronyms like ‘LOL’ (Laugh Out Loud) and ‘OMG’ (Oh My God) are widely used that save time in writing a message. Actually these types of appreciations are to ‘dumb down’ language and spelling skills.

From ‘unfriending’ to ‘selfie’ social media is clearly having an impact on language. We should be aware of how fast these online platforms change, but also of how they influence the language we write. It is a fact that the words that surround us every day influence the words we use. Language now evolves partly through our interaction with technology and much of the written language we see is now on the screens of our computer, tablets and smartphones.

The language we use to communicate with each other tends to be more malleable than formal writing, for the same reason, the combination of informal, personal communication and the mass audience afforded by social media is a recipe for rapid change. Social media in making its presence felt, form the introduction of new words to new meanings for old works to changes in the way we communicate.

New ways of communicating are emerging using an alphabet soup of acronyms, abbreviations, and neologisms. Social media has also prompted a more subtle revolution in the way we communicate. We share more personal information, but also communicate with larger audiences. Consequently our communication styles become more open, more informal, and this seeps in to other areas of life and culture. We are also more succinct, get to the point quicker, operate within the creative constraints of 140 characters on Twitter or aspire to brevity with blogs, when writing on social media.

**New words and meanings**

For common words like ‘friend’, ‘like’, ‘states’, ‘wall’, ‘page’, ‘profile’ etc. Facebook has offered new meanings. The dark side of social media is also reflected through the other new meanings which crop up on social media channels. For example: a ‘troll’ is no longer just a character from Norse folklore, but someone who makes offensive or provocative comments online; ‘astroturfing’ is no longer simply laying a plastic lawn but also a fake online grassroots movements.
Current situation

Social media is making it easier than ever to contribute to the evolution of language. But at the same time a casual attitude to grammar is developed makes us desperate. Undeniably social media changed the way we speak and write – A whole host of words originating from social media and the wider internet have become so common place that they have now slipped into popular usage, and we don’t even realize it.

What is next?

Will new words be generated by social media? Tumble is a word increasingly used on the blogging site ‘Tumblr’ and people ‘pin’ items they are interested in on ‘Pinterest’. Will these words be officially redefined?

Mallari Jam Tenore (2013), managing editor of Poynter. Org, argues that the use of social media is actually strengthening language, stating that language is always evolving and technology is a healthy part of that evolution. She also mentions that the way in which we use social media takes us back to the oral tradition as it is much more conversational but how can this be true when this communication is non-verbal?

Killing Languages

It is felt sometimes that social media is killing languages. The excessive usage of undecipherable initializes, incorrect abbreviations and cutesy emoticons can be cited as examples. The media users simply change the ways in which we use language to express ourselves.

Linguist, John Mc Shorter, states that texting is not really written language but rather a form of spoken language. Spoken language is looser, telegraphic and less effective than written language and he calls it fingered speech. Certain acronyms like LOL (Laugh out Loud) are called pragmatic particles. They are words or phrases that are not connected semantically to the context of the sentence, but that indicate the speakers’ attitude. Examples for more familiar pragmatic particles are “uh”, “um”, “like” and “you know”.

LOL’s change from initialism to pragmatic particle shows the evolutionary nature of language, and the conversational nature of texting and social media.

Changes in punctuation

Another very observable point is with regard to punctuation. Most of the punctuations have been replaced by line breaks on social sites. The best – worst – ever phenomenon, in the words of Mc Shorter, can also be seen as in “Worst. Breakfast. Ever” or “Best. Party. In. History”. Here each word is separated by a period to indicate the lofty magnitude of the statement. It is observed that people are using social media as if they are speaking.

Take the case of exclamation mark. It no longer just shows excitement, but is used to indicate that the person really meant what they typed. Question marks also have changed. A question
mark no longer merely shows inquisition, but is now often used to indicate self deprecation or to soften very assertive or self serving messages.

How will social media continue to change our language?
A language consists of symbols that convey meaning, plus rule for combining those symbols, that can be used to generate an infinite variety of messages. Social media fracture language in a variety of ways—using slang language, making use of informal expressions, shortening of words, using homophones, having incomplete sentence structure, meaningless abbreviations violating rules of grammar, making brief but ungrammatical expressions etc.
According to ‘the New York times’, we will begin communication via images only, without text.

The problems in the language classes
From birth onwards an individual even though he is born in a poor family has the access to the digital technology. Smart phones are no more a luxury, rather necessity in the modern world. By the time an individual is schooled he is familiar with different types of languages—i.e. the language used in communication in a WhatsApp post, a tweet etc in the oral way given out by his parents. The language consciousness among the former generation and the present generation is entirely different. Naturally the wide gap between the classic language and informal language gets reduced. The conceptual frame of languages needs redefining.

The new type of language consciousness emerging in the modern generation impacts poor spelling and punctuation habits resulting in a diminished knowledge of correct Standard English. With the ever increasing use of social network language among students damages the use of language in speaking and writing affecting the standard forms in the long run. We need to use standard form of language so that the beauty and pure form remains safe.
As language teachers the problems faced in the language classes may start from this conceptual frame of languages. The issues of acceptability and non-acceptability of the type of language emerging through the social network media is worth discussing. A set of questions put forth for discussions: how far we can accept the newly emerging language? Who shall set the limits?

What strategies shall be used to deal with standard language in the content of majorities favoring the language of the social network media?

Conclusion
A stay away from changes is not possible for humanity. Social changes are to be accommodated in the finest way possible. The better part of the changes can be smoothly integrated and compromises are to be setup with the other part. The new sprouts in the field of language use emerging from the social network media are to be welcomed.
Reference


Contactemail: jessy_nc@rediffmail.com
A Study of Factors Affecting Undergraduates’ Anxiety with Foreign Language Communication at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya

Metas Panich, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Thailand
Kittiya Phisutthangkoon, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Thailand
Phanlapa Khathayut, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Thailand

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Abstract
This study aims to (1) analyze the correlation of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety with foreign language communication, and (2) to study factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety with foreign language communication. The 200 undergraduates at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, who enrolled in Chinese and English courses in the 2nd semester of 2014 academic year were the participants in this study selected by simple random sampling technique. The research instrument was a questionnaire which was theoretically developed based on the literature review about factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety with foreign language communication. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and descriptive statistics were used to analyze quantitative data. The results revealed that (1) the correlation of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety with foreign language communication was significant at a positive moderate level, ranking from 0.4-0.6, and (2) student factor affected their anxiety with foreign language communication at a high level whereas teacher and environmental factors affected their anxiety with foreign language communication at a moderate level.

Keywords: Anxiety, Communication, Foreign language
Introduction

Foreign languages play a significant role in society nowadays in the area of business, science and technology, tourism, sports, and especially education—United Nation and World Health Organization. Therefore, communicative foreign language instruction is so important. Johnson & Morrow (1981) proposed the principle of communicative language teaching as a way to promote students to learn the language from practice: authentic activities and simulation. This proposal is consistent with Lertwatcha (2013) that mentioned environmental factors affect students’ language use, and students’ anxiety in foreign language communication occurred when there is no appropriate environmental factor.

The majority of students have problems with communicative foreign language use as a result of an inappropriate environmental factor, no chance to communicate by using the foreign language in their daily life, the lack of self-confidence, embarrassment, and nervousness in using the foreign language Mounprasert (2008). These findings are also consistent with the result of the studies of Ritthirat & Chiramanee (2014), Adulrattanakul (2011), Soonsatham (2014), Wongjarupun (2012), and Rawang (2012) which revealed that students’ anxiety were due to their lack of self-confidence, limitation of vocabulary and grammar use, fear of pronunciation and making errors. Also, a sense of evaluative emotion and self-esteem is also involved as students view themselves as having no ability to confront that particular situation, it can cause cognitive anxiety (Anuban, 2008 and Thongnamwon, 2006).

To study factors affecting students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use, its result can be revealed in terms of students’ attitudes as well as their anxiety in learning the foreign language. Also, teachers can find solutions when factors affecting students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use have been exposed from the study (Opasee, 2011 and Barabas, 2013). According to the significance of the study factors affecting students’ anxiety mentioned earlier, this study, therefore, aims to study factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use of undergraduates at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Thailand. The information gained from this study could benefit foreign language teachers with their teaching and learning preparation, finding ways to reduce students’ anxiety in the communicative foreign language use, and developing strategies to promote their subsequent communicative language skills.

Research Questions

1. Is there any significant relationship between factors affecting students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use?
2. How much does each mentioned factor affect students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use?

Research Objectives

1. To analyze the correlation of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use
2. To study factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use.
Variables used in this study

Independent variable is factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use.
Dependent variable is the undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use.

Population and Samples

Population

The population used in this study were undergraduate students at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Thailand who enrolled in English and Chinese courses in the second semester of 2015 academic year.

Samples

The samples used in this study were 200 undergraduate students at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Thailand who enrolled in English and Chinese courses in the second semester of 2015 academic year, and were selected by simple random sampling technique.

Research Instrument

A questionnaire was the research instrument used in this study and was constructed based on the research conceptual framework as well as the literature review and related studies. The questionnaire was divided into three parts which were;

Part 1 General information of respondents
Part 2 Factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use. A five- point -rating- scale- items asking about reasons and causes of students’ anxiety within the dimension of students, teacher, and environment respectively.
Part 3 Additional opinion and comment. It consisted of open ended- questions asking respondents to freely answer and express their own opinion about anxiety in communicative foreign language use.

There were 6 steps in developing the questionnaire, the research instrument as follows;
1\textsuperscript{st} step: Reviewed the relevant theories, literature, and related studies about anxiety in communicative foreign language use.
2\textsuperscript{nd} step: outlined the research conceptual framework. Constructed items based on the reviewed theories and literature.
3\textsuperscript{rd} step: Ensured the content validity of the questionnaire in terms of the Index of Item Objective Congruence (IOC) by asking three experts to view all items constructed in the questionnaire. This was also to ensure the consistency of all items in the questionnaire.
4\textsuperscript{th} step: Revised the items according to the experts’ suggestions.
5\textsuperscript{th} step: Piloted the questionnaire by asking undergraduate students who share similar characteristics with the target sample group to complete the questionnaire to ensure the reliability of the research instrument.
6\textsuperscript{th} step: Revised and finalized items in the questionnaire.
Data Collection

The questionnaires were distributed to 200 undergraduate students in the first semester of 2014 academic year. The researcher was the one who only contacted and coordinated with the faculty for the data collection and distributed to them by himself. The 200 questionnaires were fully returned.

Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics such as percentage, mean, and standard deviation (S.D.) was used to describe the general information of respondents. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (correlation analysis) was used to study the correlation of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use respectively.

Results

The results of the study can be presented into two parts: The general information of respondents and the correlation analysis of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use which are detailed as follows;

General information of respondents

Based on 200 respondents, it was found that female undergraduate students are the majority of respondents (86.5%) whereas male respondents were 13.5%. When divided respondents based on their GPA, the majority of respondents’ GPA was ranked between 2.51- 3.00 (37.5%), and the minority of respondents whose GPA were lower than 2.00 was about 4% of all respondents. When divided respondents based on their fields of study, 55% of them were Hotel majoring students whereas 10.5% were Tourism majoring students.

The correlation analysis of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use

According to the study of the linear relationship of independent variables and a dependent variable, it was revealed that all variables had a positive relationship at the moderate level. All correlation were significantly ranked from 0.4 – 0.6 at 0.01 significant level. Table 1 shows the correlation matrix of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Student factor</th>
<th>Teacher factor</th>
<th>Environment factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student factor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.444 (***)</td>
<td>0.567 (***)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher factor</td>
<td>0.444 (***)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.582 (***)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment factor</td>
<td>0.567 (***)</td>
<td>0.582 (***)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significantly at 0.01 level

Figure 1 : Correlation matrix of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety
Factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use

The results of factors affecting 200 undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Thailand can be presented according to each item and aspect in the questionnaire. The findings revealed that student factor affected their anxiety in communicative foreign language use at the highest level whereas teacher and environment factors affected their anxiety in communicative foreign language use at the moderate level. Tables 2-4 show the factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am not confident when I have to use a foreign language in conversation.</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I am worried about my grammar accuracy when I speak.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I am afraid of mispronunciation</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel nervous when I have to talk without any preparation.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I think others speak better than me.</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Even with preparation, I feel anxious when I have to talk.</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I am worried about my vocabulary limitation</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Student factor</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Question types from teachers in the classroom make me feel anxious.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The teachers’ expectation to communicate make me feel anxious.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The strict behavior of teachers make me feel anxious.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Teachers’ communicative assessment is not consistent to the learning objectives.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>There is no attractive classroom activity</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Teacher is not able to monitor all of the class.</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The teaching techniques are not matched to the students’ ability.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Teacher factor</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Student factor and its items analysis

Figure 3: Teacher factor and its items analysis
Discussion

The relationship of factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use

According to the findings in this study, teacher factor had a significant positive correlation with student factor at the moderate level which is consistent with Johnson & Morrow (1981) who claimed that teachers play an important role in promoting and encouraging students to practice all language skills. Furthermore, environment factor had a significant positive correlation with student factor at the moderate level which is consistent with Opasee (2011) who cited that learning foreign language through social strategies can reduced students’ anxiety.

Factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use

When considered factors according to this study, student factor affects students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use at the high level whereas teacher and environment factor affect students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use at the moderate level. In terms of student factor, it affects students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use at the high level which is consistent with Mounprasert (2008) who mentioned that student factor causes their anxiety in communicative foreign language use. This result was also consistent with (Ritthirat & Chiramanee, 2014; Adulrattanakul, 2011; Soonsatham, 2014; Wongjarupun, 2012; Rawang, 2012) who proposed that the lack of students’ self-confidence, problems of language use, unwillingness to speak, and fear of making mistakes cause them anxiety in communicative foreign language use.
In terms of teacher factor, it affects students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use at the high level which is consistent with Johnson & Morrow (1981) who claimed that teachers should provide authentic activities and situations that encourage students to communicate, facilitate them in practicing the foreign language, and ignore their language errors, or the language barrier, while using a foreign language in order to build their self-confidence in the language use. The results also indicated that the impact of the use of teacher questions in a foreign language and teacher’s expectation in foreign language communication of students also affect students’ anxiety at the high level.

In terms of environment factor, it also affects students’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use at the high level which is consistent with scholars: Adulrattanakul (2011) and Lertwatcha (2013) who mentioned that living in an environment without having that target foreign language use can cause anxiety in communicative foreign use.

**Conclusion**

According to the study of anxiety in this paper, cognitive anxiety (Anuban, 2008; Thongnamwon, 2006) tends to be consistent with the results of this study as cognitive anxiety is caused by self-evaluative emotion. This result is also consistent with Barabas (2013) who claimed that student, environment, and learning activities are the three factors main among eight factors that affect anxiety in communicative foreign language use.

**Recommendation**

**Recommendation for practice**

1. The results of this study can be rich information for foreign language teachers in developing their courses aiming to improve students’ communicative language use.
2. The information gained from this study can be a guideline to reduce students’ anxiety level and promote their self-confidence.
3. Foreign language teachers can provide students with appropriate language activities in order to reduce their language anxiety.

**Recommendation for future study**

1. To study about students’ language anxiety should be studied extensively.
2. Factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use should be done with students in another faculty in order to meet the appropriate instruction and learning process of universities.
3. Factors affecting undergraduates’ anxiety in communicative foreign language use should be done with students in another campus in order to meet the appropriate instruction and learning process of universities.
References


Contact email: freshyma@hotmail.com
Abstract
The main purposes of this study was to investigate engineering students’ readiness in speaking skills concerning three aspects: 1. fundamental grammar knowledge, 2. patterns and functions of language for communicating in certain situations, and 3. socio-culture of native speakers before entering the ASEAN Community. Participants were 142 fourth year Engineering students studying in eight departments of the Faculty of Engineering in. The instrument was a 60-item multiple choices test of three aspects. Data was analyzed for mean, minimum, maximum, standard deviation, percentage, t-test, F-test (One-Way ANOVA) and Multiple Comparison. The results indicated that 1. The total minimum and maximum scores of 142 engineering students are 10 and 41 respectively. While the overall mean scores is 23.57 which is equivalent to 39.29% and the readiness for ASEAN Community is at the poor level (31% - 40%). 2. Among eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering, the students from Computer Engineering Department got the highest minimum and maximum scores with 25 and 41 scores respectively. Computer Engineering students got the highest readiness level with the mean of 32.31 (53.85%), however, the level is at the moderate level (51% - 60%). 3. There is no statistically significant difference in the achievement in doing the test about the readiness of English speaking between male and female students. 4. There is a statistically significant difference of means of the achievement in doing the test among the eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering at the .05 level, but there is no significant difference between each other among seven departments, except Computer Engineering Department.

Keywords: Readiness, English speaking skills, Engineering students, the Asean Community
Introduction

Nowadays, the world is a global community where people communicate with each other through a common language, which has been recognized as English, a universal language in the international community. In four skills in English, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing, students have to be taught in order to use English effectively in their daily lives. In the viewpoints of English teachers, among these skills, speaking is the most important one, since the students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning.

The researchers who have been teaching speaking skills for degree students at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya for many years are interested in evaluating the knowledge of speaking skills of engineering students for the purpose that the results will be used for finding the appropriate strategies for developing speaking skills and for preparing the readiness of students for the incoming of the ASEAN Community in the near future.

Purposes of the Study

The main purposes of this study were:

1. To investigate engineering students’ readiness in speaking skills concerning fundamental grammar knowledge.

2. To investigate engineering students’ readiness in speaking skills concerning patterns and functions of language for communicating in certain situations.

3. To investigate engineering students’ readiness in speaking skills concerning socio-culture of native speakers.

Research Questions

The research was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. Which level of readiness in English speaking skills do the engineering students have in the knowledge concerning fundamental grammar, patterns and functions of language for communicating in certain situations, and socio-culture of native speakers?

2. Which department of eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering has the most readiness in English speaking before entering into the ASEAN Community?

Scope and Limitation of the Study

This study focuses only on the readiness of knowledge essential for speaking skills, not paying attention to oral speaking competence of engineering students.
Research Framework

Independent variables are Engineering Students (gender, department, faculty) and dependent variables are readiness in speaking skills in terms of fundamental grammar knowledge; patterns and functions of language for communicating in certain situations and socio-culture of native speakers.

Significance of the Study

The benefits of the results of this study are as follows:

1. The results identifying the level of readiness of engineering students should be beneficial to English instructors in order to find the best resolutions or techniques to improve speaking skills.
2. After students know their levels of readiness in speaking English, they will be able to prepare themselves in mastering knowledge of English in order to work in the future when Thailand enters the ASEAN Community in year 2015.
3. The results will increase students’ awareness of the importance of English, especially speaking skills which will be used for major communication among the ASEAN Community.

Definition of Terms

The key terms used in this study are defined as follows:

1. Readiness in English speaking means scores obtained from doing a test, constructed by the researchers and analyzed for levels of readiness.
2. Fundamental knowledge in English speaking means knowledge on how to make questions in English and how to use tenses.
3. Patterns and functions of language for communicating in certain situations means English in greeting, introduction, parting, apologizing, thanking, requesting and offering, inviting, giving direction, asking for prices, bargaining, ordering food, telephoning, making an appointment, giving opinions and suggestions.
4. Engineering students means 142 fourth year students studying in the second semester of academic year 2011 from the Faculty of Engineering in Departments of Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Computer Engineering, Surveying Engineering, Civil Engineering, Electronics Engineering, Industrial Engineering, and Garment Engineering at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Songkhla.

Literature Review

The following review will discuss the concept of readiness, the concept of speaking skills, the ASEAN Community and the concept of cultures.
**Concept of Readiness**

There are many definitions of readiness; it refers to a certain range of information that has -- perhaps momentarily--become more accessible (Gerrig & McKoon 1998); Ackerman and Barnett (2005) stated that readiness is influenced by various environmental factors but can be enhanced through effective education; Hersey and Blanchard (1993) mentioned that readiness means ability and willingness in working, doing activities or whatever in order to achieve a goal.

Moreover, Meisels (1998) indicated that readiness can be derived from the goals contained within the potential for encouraging policies harmful to children. Readiness has often been defined as a child’s skills, behaviour, or attributes in relation to the expectations of individual classrooms or schools (Ackerman and Barnett, 2005). In terms of education, it refers to a child who is ready to learn something and will not learn unless he/she is taught it or unless the conditions are propitious for a child to learn it on his or her own (Meisels, 1998). Consequently, readiness is the process of development in skills, behaviour and ability to be able to do activities or tasks for his/her destination.

**Concept of Speaking Skills**

The population of English language learners in schools has increased. In Thailand, English has been widely accepted as an international language and thus the Thai government has demonstrated the urgent socio-political, commercial and educational needs for Thai people to be able to communicate in English (Wongsothorn, 1999 cited in Noytim, 2006).

In addition, English in Thailand has been influenced by the world of cyber or internet, as the great majority of documents available on the Internet are in English. It reflects contexts, cultures, and materials. Moreover, English is also in high demand in the tourism industry which is a key income of the Thai economy (Warschauer, 2001 cited in Noytim 2006).

In terms of speaking, it is one of four skills which are crucial in learning English, this skill is always used in daily lives. Speaking is an interactive process of constructing, it means to involve production and receiving and processing information (Florez, 1999 cited in Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Moreover, Florez (1999) stated that its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes of speaking. It is often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving.

According to, Olivares’ theoretical framework, Moreira (2006) mentioned that spoken language and thought are not always directly correlated, and that abstract concepts, which are not language dependent, can be transferred from the native language (L1) to the target language (L2) without specific labels. That is, for a second-language learner not every word-to-word translation and this is particularly true at the beginning of new language learning. This approach to language learning thus infers that English language learners (ELLs) use their previous knowledge to negotiate information acquired in L2. In terms of negotiation meaning, according to experiences, ELLs acquire L2 from the native speakers by using negotiation meaning; for instance, a learner attempts to speak English to the native speaker
by using his/her previous knowledge. The native speaker, then, will revise the structure of sentences, which is constructed by ELLs, in making a conversation. Eventually, ELLs can gain this knowledge from the native speakers.

Moreover, Tasee (2009) also indicated the Bygate’s theoretical framework towards speaking skills that speaking is a skill which deserves cautious attention as much as literacy skills in both first and second language. It is the vehicle par excellence of social solidarity, social ranking, professional advancement and business and also a medium through which much language is learnt, which for many is conducive for learning. Further, Bygate states that ‘knowledge’ and ‘skill’ are necessary factors for learners in learning to speak. Both can be understood and memorized but only ‘skill’ can be imitated and practiced. To be a successful speaker, ‘knowledge’ and ‘skill’ should go together. In terms of skill, two basic ways in which something can be seen as a skill involve motor-perspective skills and interaction skills. The former deal with perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the correct order sounds and structures of the language, while the latter involves making decisions about communication, such as what to say, how to say it, or the ability to use language in order to satisfy particular demands. There are at least two demands which can affect the nature of speech, i.e. processing conditions and reciprocity conditions. The former refers to internal conditions of speech or the fact that speech takes place under the pressure of time, while the latter refers to the dimension of interpersonal interaction in conversation.

Furthermore, from the communicative point of view, speaking has many different aspects including two major categories – accuracy, involving the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation practiced through controlled and guided activities; and, fluency, considered to be ‘the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously’ (Vilimec, 2006). Vilimec had mentioned two theories of speaking: Bygate’s theory and Harmer’s theory. According to Bygate’s theory, in order to achieve a communicative goal through speaking, there are two aspects to be considered – knowledge of the language, and skill in using this knowledge. It is not enough to possess a certain amount of knowledge, but a speaker of the language should be able to use this knowledge in different situations. He views the skills as comprising of two components: production skills and interaction skills, both of which can be affected by two conditions: firstly, processing conditions, taking into consideration the fact that ‘a speech takes place under the pressure of time’; secondly, reciprocity connected with a mutual relationship between the interlocutors.

Production skills in certain ways limit or modify the oral production; it means the use of production skills. For that reason, speakers are forced to use devices which help them make the oral production possible or easier through ‘facilitation’, or enable them to change words they use in order to avoid or replace the difficult ones by means of ‘compensation’, Bygate says (Vilimec, 2006).

In terms of interaction skills, both speakers and listeners, besides being good at processing spoken words should be ‘good communicators’, which means ‘good at saying what they want to say in a way which the listener finds understandable’. This means being able to possess interaction skills. Interaction skills involve routines and negotiation skills. Routines present the typical patterns of conversation including interaction and information routines. Negotiation skills serve as a means for enabling the speaker and listener to make themselves

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clearly understood. This is achieved by two aspects: management of interaction and turn-taking (Vilimec, 2006).

The other theory is derived from Harmer, he distinguishes between two aspects – knowledge of ‘language features’, and the ability to process information on the spot, it means ‘mental/social processing’: from Harmer’s point of view the ability to wage oral communication, it is necessary that the participant possess knowledge of language features, and the ability to process information and language on the spot. Language features involve four areas – connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language. Supposing the speaker possesses these language features, processing skill, ‘mental/social processing’, will help him/her to achieve successful communication goal. Processing skills include features – language processing, interacting with others, and on-the-spot information processing (Vilimec, 2006).

Teaching Speaking

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. They define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

1. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation.
2. Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity/information exchange and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building).
3. Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative role of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable pronunciation. (http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/speaking/spindex.htm)

Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies:
1. Using minimal responses
   One way to encourage language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction is to build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges since minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.
2. Recognizing scripts
Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges—a script. Greeting, apologies, compliments, invitations and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow pattern of script. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

3. Using language to talk about language

Instructors can give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check. By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs, and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom. (http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/speaking/stratspeak.htm)

**ASEAN Community:**

**Thai and ASEAN Community**

The 10-member Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) aims to create an ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by 2020. The AEC would have a combined population of over 575 million and total trade exceeding US$ 1,400 billion.

**ASEAN Economic Community**

The ASEAN Vision 2020 aims to create a stable, prosperous and highly competitive ASEAN economic region, in which there is a free flow of goods, services, investment and capital, equitable economic development and reduced poverty and socio-economic disparities by 2020.

**Free Trade Area**

Underpinning the AEC is the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA), a preferential tariff scheme to promote the free flow of goods within ASEAN that are manufactured locally within any ASEAN country.

**Comprehensive Investment Area**

The ASEAN Comprehensive Investment Area (ACIA) will encourage the free flow of investment within ASEAN. Its main principles are:

- All industries are to be opened up for investment, with exclusions to be phased out according to schedules;
- National treatment is granted immediately to ASEAN investors with few exclusions;
- Elimination of investment impediments;
- Streamlining of investment process and procedures;
- Enhancing transparency;
- Undertaking investment facilitation measures.
Full realization of the ACIA with the removal of temporary exclusion lists in manufacturing, agriculture, fisheries, forestry and mining is scheduled by 2010 for most ASEAN members and by 2015 for Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar and Vietnam.

Trade in Services

ASEAN members are negotiating intra-regional services liberalization in several sectors, including air transport, business services, construction, financial services, maritime transport, telecommunications and tourism.

Single Aviation Market

The ASEAN Single Aviation Market (SAM) will introduce an open-sky arrangement to the region by 2015. The ASEAN SAM will be expected to fully liberalize air travel between its member states, allowing ASEAN to benefit from the growth in air travel around the world, and encouraging tourism, trade, investment and services flowing between member states.

Free Trade Agreements with Other Countries

ASEAN has concluded free trade agreements with China, Korea, and Japan, and is negotiating FTAs with India, Australia/New Zealand, and the European Union. Taiwan has also expressed interest in an agreement with ASEAN but needs to overcome diplomatic objections from China.

ASEAN Socio-cultural Community

The ASEAN Socio - Cultural Community envisages Southeast Asia bonded together in partnership as a strong community of caring societies and aimed at the vigorous development of regional identity and the preservation of the region's cultural heritage. Current cultural activities include S.E.A. Write Award, Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher Learning, Heritage Parks, Scholarship and University Network. To prepare each country’s work force for economic integration, ASEAN will encourage investment in education, training, science and technology development, job creation, and social protection. ASEAN will also seek increased cooperation in public health, especially the prevention and control of infectious and communicable diseases.
English for ASEAN

English is the official language for the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) and for that reason, the 600 million plus people across South East Asia will have to learn to communicate in English sooner or later. But probably not longer than 2015, because the association has planned to become the ASEAN Community, like the European Community. (http://englishforasean.blogspot.com/)

Thailand and Preparation for ASEAN Community

The Education Minister, delivered a lecture in relation to Thailand’s Educational Preparation for ASEAN Community in 2015. The event which was held by the Education Commission of the Senate Members took place on the 11th of November, 2010 in reception rooms 1-2 of the Parliament Building. The Minister reported that Thailand was one of the main founders of ASEAN. As a core leader in the ASEAN Community, Thailand is aiming at the prosperity of its people through developing resources and economy building under the strategic vision of, “One Vision, One Identity and One Community”. The ASEAN Community consists of three pillars, they are: ASEAN Economic Community, ASEAN Political and Security Pillar and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Pillar. Education comes under the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Pillar, the aim of which is to enhance the growth of every community, as this is seen as being the development foundation.

The main purpose of the Ministry of Education on educational readiness preparation is as follows:

1. To build an ASEAN Community through education: Thailand will be an Education Hub with crucial concepts which focus on equipping Thai people with the essential awareness of being part of the ASEAN Community, through having the capacity to be able to live harmoniously in a multi-society, also in showing the ability to establish educational cooperation in the region. The latter will emphasize educational quality development, educational opportunity expansion and participatory enhancement on educational services and educational management.

2. To reinforce ASEAN Community building through education: This process will be highlighted through the understanding of inculcation regarding ASEAN neighboring countries, ethnic differences, human rights principles. Moreover, a high emphasis will also be given to teaching foreign languages. This is in order to develop efficient communication amongst ASEAN citizens. The Ministry will also allow English teachers to integrate the English language at every level. The aim is to encourage Thai students to communicate creatively. In addition, the private sector will assist in the support of volunteer teachers to teach foreign languages. In addition foreign language volunteers should also teach cultural awareness in order for all to reach better understanding.

With regards to ICT for education, development of this will be through 3 Ns principles, namely the Ned Net- National Education Networks, the NEIS- National Education Information System –A Center for gathering, collecting and linking educational information and data, and NLC – National Learning Center for life-long learning. The significant
objectives embedded are to develop Thai students to become good ASEAN citizens. To develop Thai citizens who can live together with all other citizens of ASEAN in harmony, in a happy, caring and sharing atmosphere. Furthermore, students who graduate from vocational and technical colleges will be ready to enter the workplace as efficient staff members who are coupled with sufficient abilities to work in multicultural societies.

Finally, the Ministry of Education will set out to promote Thailand as being an education center of ASEAN in the areas of religion and culture. This policy will be implemented under the 6 months - 6 qualities strategy. This is in order to continually develop Thailand’s move forward to both ASEAN and International Communities. (http://www.en.moe.go.th/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=473:4-m...)

**Concept of Cultural Aspects**

According to the Department of Academic Affairs (2001), research on cultural contents for teachers and the problem in study and teaching English. The research was from 300 schools in Thailand, both primary and secondary, including large and medium sized schools, by analyzing cultural content in English textbooks assigned by the Ministry of Education. The main points in English speaking skills are about conversational routines that include introductions, greetings and farewell, invitation, answering and refusing, thanking, saying congratulations and regretting, apologizing and forgiving, requesting and offering. The other important aspects for studying English are about customs, living, attitude and values in the areas of religion, worship and belief, job application, working and occupation, social values, participating in social events, table manners, tradition and celebration.

In addition Peterson and Coltrane (2003) supported that understanding the cultural context of day-to-day conversational conventions such as greeting, farewells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments, implies more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences. It means that in conversation, knowing what is appropriate to say to whom, and in what situations is a very essential skill. Consequently, understanding the cultures, beliefs and values represented by the various forms and usages of the target language, English, will certainly make the communication much more appropriate and more effective.

According to the importance of English speaking skills, awareness of cultural aspects and the incoming of the ASEAN Community in year 2015, when Thailand becomes a part of the ASEAN Community and when the English language will be very important for communication, the researchers, as English teachers at the University of Technology Srivijaya, Songkhla realize that the students, especially engineering students who will graduate to work and to be a member of this community should be ready to enter the workplace as efficient staff members who are coupled with sufficient abilities to work in multicultural societies.
Research Methodology

Participants

There were a total of 142 participants including 4th year engineering students selected by purposive sampling from the Faculty of Engineering including Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Computer Engineering, Surveying Engineering, Civil Engineering, Electronics Engineering, Industrial Engineering and Garment Engineering.

Instrument

The instrument for this study was a 60 item test of multiple choices constructed by the researchers and approved by 3 specialists. The test was divided into 3 parts:

1. 20 item test of essential knowledge for English speaking
2. 20 item test of patterns and functional English used in speaking
3. 20 item test of socio-cultural aspects

Procedure

The study was done by in the following stages:

1. Study and review related literature and research about the readiness in speaking English and ASEAN Community.
2. Select subjects of this research using purposive sampling.
3. Construct the test which consisted of three parts according to the objectives of the research: Part 1 - essential knowledge for English speaking; Part 2 - patterns and functional English used in speaking; and Part 3 - Socio-cultural aspects. Overall the test comprised of 60 items, 20 items for each part. The test was approved and edited by three specialists including a native speaker.
4. Apply the test to the samples.
5. Analyze the data for mean, minimum, maximum, standard deviation, percentage, t-test, F-test (One-Way ANOVA) and Multiple Comparison.
6. Write a draft research report and submit to the Faculty of Liberal Arts.
7. Improve the research report according to the suggestions of the experts.
8. Write a complete research and submit to the University.

Data Collection

This study was conducted during the second semester of academic year 2011. The subjects were allowed to do the test within 1.30 hours.
Data Analysis

Data was analyzed to show mean, minimum, maximum, standard deviation, percentage, t-test, F-test (One-Way ANOVA) and Multiple Comparison.

Criteria for interpreting the readiness in speaking skills.

Oller’s criteria (Oller, 1983) was used to evaluate as follows:

- More than 80% = very good
- 71% - 80% = good
- 61% - 70% = fairly good
- 51% - 60% = moderate
- 41% - 50% = fairly poor
- 31% - 40% = poor
- Lower than 30% = very poor

Data Analysis and Findings

The findings of the study about the readiness of Engineering students in the Faculty Engineering at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Songkhla before entering the ASEAN Community are shown in the following tables.
Table 1 shows that 142 engineering students from the Faculty of Engineering participated in this study. Nineteen students from Garment Engineering, 20 from Electrical Engineering, 18 from Mechanical Engineering, 14 from Electronics, 18 from Surveying Engineering, 17 from Industrial Engineering, 19 from Computer Engineering and 17 from Civil Engineering.

Table 2 shows that among 142 engineering students, 117 students are male, which is equivalent to 82.4% of participants and that 25 students are female which equals to 17.6% of total participants.
Table 3 Minimum, Maximum scores, Mean and Std. Deviation of Part 1: Essential knowledge for English Speaking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Garment Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Engineering</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.35</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical Engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>3.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics Engineering</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.42</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveying Engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.52</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.17</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td>142</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.51</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that the minimum score of engineering students was 2 and students from Electrical, Mechanical and Electronics Engineering got the same minimum scores, and the maximum score was 17 and both Mechanical and Computer engineering achieved that. Overall mean of engineering students from 8 departments in the Faculty of Engineering is 9.51 out of the total scores of 20. This means that the mean score is lower than 50% except those from Computer Engineering who got the highest mean of 14.52.

Table 4 Minimum, Maximum scores, Mean, and Std. Deviation of Part 2: Patterns and functional English used in speaking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Garment Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Engineering</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics Engineering</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveying Engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.05</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td>142</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the mean for part 2 which is about Patterns and functional English used in speaking was only 6.94 out of 20 scores. Still, students from Department of Computer Engineering got the highest maximum scores and got the highest mean of 8.42 And Civil Engineering had the minimum score of 1 out of 20.
### Table 5  Minimum, Maximum Scores, Mean, and Std. Deviation of Part 3: Socio-cultural aspects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Garment Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Engineering</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.15</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical Engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics Engineering</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveying Engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td><strong>9.42</strong></td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>142</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.18</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.33</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that in part 3 which is about Socio-cultural aspects, the minimum scores of the participants is 2 and students from Garment and Surveying Engineering achieved this. The maximum score is 13, and that students from Computer Engineering achieved this. The overall mean for this part is 7.18, which is equivalent to 35.9% and is lower than the average level.

### Table 6  Total Minimum, Maximum Scores, Mean, and Std. Deviation of the test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Garment Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20.73</td>
<td>34.55</td>
<td>4.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Engineering</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>23.20</td>
<td>38.67</td>
<td>6.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical Engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22.83</td>
<td>38.05</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics Engineering</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23.36</td>
<td>38.93</td>
<td>6.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveying Engineering</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>19.78</td>
<td>32.96</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22.94</td>
<td>38.23</td>
<td>6.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Engineering</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41</td>
<td><strong>32.31</strong></td>
<td>53.85</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Engineering</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>38.33</td>
<td>5.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>142</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td><strong>23.57</strong></td>
<td><strong>39.28</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.14</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that the total minimum and maximum scores of 142 engineering students are 10 and 41 respectively. While the mean is 23.57, which is equivalent to 39.29% and the standard deviation is 7.14. Among the eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering,
students from Computer Engineering got the highest minimum and maximum scores with 25 and 41 respectively.

**Table 7** Overall Minimum, Maximum scores, Mean, Percent, and Std. Deviation of the test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Scores</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part 1 = 20</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.51</td>
<td>47.55</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 2 = 20</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>34.70</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 3 = 20</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>35.90</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total = 60</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>23.57</td>
<td>39.28</td>
<td>7.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows that the minimum and maximum scores of part 1 of 142 engineering students are 2 and 17 respectively, and that the mean is 9.51, which is equivalent to 47.55% and the Std. Deviation is 3.58. In part 2, the minimum and maximum scores are 1 and 14 respectively. The mean for this part is 6.94, which is equivalent to 34.70% and the Std. Deviation is 2.82. According to part 3, the minimum and maximum scores are 2.00 and 13.00 respectively. The mean for this part is 7.18, which is 35.90% and Std. Deviation is 2.33. For the total scores of the test, the participants got the minimum and maximum scores of 10 and 41 respectively. The total mean is 23.57 which equals 39.28%. And Std. Deviation is 7.14.

**Table 8** Comparison of achievement in doing the test between gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>23.43</td>
<td>7.22</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.20</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 shows that the mean of male engineering students is 23.43 while that of female engineering students is 24.20, and that there is no statistically significant difference in the achievement in doing the test about the readiness of English speaking between male and female students.

**Table 9** Comparison of English speaking achievement among 8 departments in the Faculty of Engineering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1890.04</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>270.00</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>5314.75</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>39.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7204.79</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05

Table 9 shows that there is a statistically significant difference of means of the achievement in doing the test among eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering at the .05 level.
Table 10  Multiple Comparison of achievement among 8 departments in the Faculty of Engineering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Garment</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20.73</td>
<td>.16  .36 .17 .57 .29 .00* .24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23.20</td>
<td>-   .63 .94 .05 .76 .00* .86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.83</td>
<td>-   .61 .15 .86 .00* .77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveying</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.35</td>
<td>-   .06 .73 .00* .81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19.77</td>
<td>-   .11 .00* .90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22.94</td>
<td>-   .00* .90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32.31</td>
<td>-   .00* .90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>-   .00* .90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05

Table 10 shows that there is no significant difference between seven departments, namely, Garment Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Surveying Engineering, Electronics Engineering, Industrial Engineering and Civil Engineering. Further, only the achievement in doing the test of readiness for speaking skills of the students in Computer Engineering has a statistically significant difference at the .05 level with the other seven departments.

Summary of the Findings

The findings are concluded as follows:

1. There are 142 engineering 4th year students from the Faculty of Engineering that participated in this study. The number ranges from 14-20 students from 8 departments in the Faculty of Engineering. Among 142 engineering students, 117 students are male, which is equivalent to 82.40% of participants and that 25 students are female which equals 17.60% of the total participants.

2. In part 1 which investigated the readiness in speaking skills concerning fundamental grammar knowledge, the minimum score of engineering students was only 2 scores and the maximum score was 17. The students from Electrical, Mechanical and Electronics Engineering got the same minimum scores, and both Mechanical and Computer engineering
got the maximum score. Overall mean of engineering students from 8 departments in the Faculty of Engineering is 9.51 out of the total score of 20 and is equivalent to 47.50%. This means that the mean is lower than 50%. According to the criteria given, the readiness of students for essential knowledge is at the fairly poor level. Except those from Computer Engineering Department who got the highest mean of 14.52, which equals 72.60% and the readiness of this department is at the good level (71% - 80%).

3. Pertaining to part 2 which is about patterns and functional English used in speaking, the mean was only 6.94 out of 20 scores, which equals 34.70% and is at the poor level. Still, students from the Department of Computer Engineering achieved the highest mean scores and got the highest mean of 8.42 which is equivalent to 42.10% and Civil Engineering got the minimum score of 1 out of 20, which is equal to only 5% and is at the very poor level (Lower than 30%).

4. For part 3 which is about Socio-cultural aspects, the minimum scores of the participants is 2 and students from Garment and Surveying Engineering got this. The maximum scores is 13, and students from Computer Engineering achieved this. The overall mean for this part is 7.18, which is equivalent to 35.90% and is at the poor level (31% - 40%).

5. The total minimum and maximum scores of 142 engineering students are 10 and 41. While the mean is 23.57, which is equivalent to 39.29% and is at the poor level (31% - 40%). Among the eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering, students from Computer Engineering got the highest minimum and maximum scores with 25 and 41 scores respectively. The mean of this department is 32.31 which is equivalent to 53.85% and is in the moderate level (51% - 60%). The order of readiness in relation to the means from the highest to the lowest are first, Computer Engineering; the second, Electronics Engineering; the third, Electrical Engineering; the fourth, Civil Engineering Electrical Engineering; the fifth, Industrial Engineering; the sixth, Mechanical Engineering; the seventh, Garment Engineering and the last is Surveying Engineering with the means of 32.31(53.85%), 23.36 (38.93%), 23.20 (38.67%), 23.00(38.33%), 22.94(38.23%), 22.83(38.05%), 20.73(34.55%) and 19.78 (32.96%) respectively. The readiness level in English speaking skills of seven departments, except Computer Engineering is in the poor level (31% - 40%). Computer Engineering had the highest readiness level, however the level is at the moderate level (51% - 60%).

6. The mean of male engineering students is 23.43, which is equivalent to 39.05% while that of female engineering students is 24.20, which is equivalent to 40.33% and that there is no statistically significant difference in the achievement in doing the test about the readiness of English speaking between male and female students. And the level of readiness of male engineering students is at the poor level (31% - 40%) whereas that of female engineering students is at the fairly poor level (41%- 50%).

7. There is a statistically significant difference of means of the achievement in doing the test among the eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering at the .05 level, but there is no significant different between each among seven departments, namely, Garment Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Surveying Engineering, Electronics Engineering, Industrial Engineering and Civil Engineering. And that only the achievement in
doing the test of readiness for speaking skills of the students in Computer Engineering Department has a statistically significant difference at the .05 level with the other seven departments.

Discussion

1. According to the results, the level of readiness in the speaking skills of engineering students in the Faculty of Engineering at Rajamanala University of Technology Srivijaya, Songkhla is in the poor level (31% - 40%). Since the mean is 23.57 from the total score of 60 and its percentage is equivalent to 39.29%. This result is lower and different from the results of research conducted by Tassanee Kirisri (2009) entitled “A Study of Achievement in English Grammar of the First Year Students, Degree Level in English 1 Course”, that of the first year students at this university was at the moderate level (51% - 60%) since the mean was 46.78 out of 90 and is equal to 51.97%. The results is like this since students have no goals to speak in their daily life as McKoon 1998); Ackerman and Barnett (2005) stated that readiness is influenced by various environmental factors but can be enhanced through effective education; Hersey and Blanchard (1993) mentioned that readiness means ability and willingness in working, doing activities or whatever in order to achieve a goal.

2. Only the students from the Faculty of Computer Engineering got the highest mean that is higher than 50% while the other seven groups of engineering students are at the poor level shows that the mean of this department is 32.31 which is equivalent to 53.85% and is at the moderate level (51% - 60%) whereas the other seven departments are in the poor level. This could be caused by the familiarity in English of these students since they use computers more often than other students and most instructions when they study, search data, watch movies, listen to songs and so on are in English. The more they expose to spoken English, the more they are ready to speak.

3. Among three parts of the test, engineering students got the highest means in part 1 which investigated the readiness in readiness in speaking skills concerning fundamental and essential grammar knowledge, the minimum score of engineering students was only 2 , the maximum score was 17 and the overall mean of this part is 9.51 which is equivalent to 47.50%. The level of readiness is at the fairly poor level. However, only students from Computer Engineering Department got the highest mean of 14.52, which equals 72.6 % and the readiness of this department is in the good level (71% - 80%). Compared to the other two parts, the mean of this part is the highest since this part tested about how to make questions in English and how to answer questions in general and what students use in their daily life.

4. Pertaining to part 2 which is about patterns and functional English used in speaking, the mean was only 6.94 out of 20 scores, which equals 34.70% and is at the poor level. Still, students from the Department of Computer Engineering got the highest maximum scores and got the highest mean of 8.42 which is equivalent to 42.10% And Civil Engineering got the minimum score of 1 out of 20, which is equal to only 5 % and is in the very poor level (Lower than 30%). For this part, the result shows that students had the least readiness in speaking skills since the mean is only 34.70% and is at the poor level. The causes of the poor
level were not only that the students did not understanding the questions and situations given in the test, but their knowledge of vocabulary also affected them.

5. For part 3 which is about Socio-cultural aspects, the minimum score of the participants is 2 and students from Garment and Surveying Engineering got this. The maximum score is 13, and students from Computer Engineering got this. The overall mean of this part is 7.18, which is equivalent to 35.9% and is at the poor level (31% - 40%). Surprisingly, the engineering students got higher level of readiness of socio-cultural aspects than functional English. The reason why the students got a higher level since the questions in this part were written partly in Thai because the researchers would like to investigate the knowledge of socio-culture of native speakers or western cultures. As Peterson and Coltrane (2003) supported that understanding the cultural context of day-to-day conversational conventions such as greeting, farewells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments, implies more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences. It means that in conversation, knowing what is appropriate to say to whom, and in what situations is a very essential skills. Understanding the cultures, beliefs and values represented by the various forms and usages of the target language, English, will certainly make the communication much more appropriate and more effective.

6. That the mean of male engineering students is 23.43 while that of female engineering students is 24.20, and that there is no statistically significant difference in the achievement in doing the test for the readiness of English speaking between male and female students. This shows that gender of students who study in Engineering does not affect in speaking proficiency. This result is correspondent to the study of Tassanee Kirisri (2009) in the same research on knowledge of grammars of students in the University of Technology Srivijaya, Songkhla. However, the level of readiness of male engineering students is at the poor level (31% - 40%) whereas that of female engineering students is at the fairly poor level (41%-50%). Even though among the participants of 142 engineering students, 117 students are male and 25 students are female. This means that female engineering students got higher level of readiness in English skills than male students.

7. There is a statistically significant difference of means of the achievement in doing the test among eight departments in the Faculty of Engineering at the .05 level, but there is no significant different between each other among seven departments, namely, Garment Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Surveying, Electronics, Industrial Engineering and Civil Engineering. Only the achievement in doing the test of readiness for speaking skill of the students in Computer Engineering Department has a statistically significant difference at the .05 level with the other seven departments. This result shows that all seven departments got the same level of readiness and the means are from 19.77 - 23.55 out of 60, which means that these engineering students failed in doing the test for investigating the readiness in speaking skills. Still, they are at the very poor level (Lower than 30%). And they need to be improved urgently.
Pedagogical Implications

1. An Intensive training programme for preparing the readiness and improving speaking in English should be done urgently for the engineering students before going to the workplace in the ASEAN age.
2. Knowledge of cultures and social values of English speaking countries should be emphasized and taught in schools and universities.
3. The results of this study should be reported to the administrators of the University and the Faculty of Engineering in order that an urgent policy is implemented to solve the problem of English speaking of students, not only engineering students.

Recommends for Further Study

1. Researches using oral tests should be applied to investigate the readiness of students before they graduate from the university.
2. A comparative study between all the faculties should be conducted.
3. Research on factors influencing the problems in English speaking of Thai students should be conducted in order to use correspondent solutions for the purpose that Thai students will be ready to be efficient ASEAN citizens in the year 2015.
4. Research on the readiness in English proficiency in four skills in English, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing should be conducted.
5. A survey of reasons why students in the Computer Department got the highest readiness level in English speaking should be done.
6. A study of factors influencing low English proficiency in four skills in English should be conducted.
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Using Learners' First Language in EFL Classrooms

Eman Alshehri, King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia

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Abstract
This paper aims to explore the attitudes of teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) towards using learners’ first language (L1) in their classes. It also considers the frequency and functions of using L1 in EFL classes. Monolingual teaching and minimising the use of learners’ L1 are traditionally promoted in English language teaching (ELT) research (Cook 2001, Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Recently, there has been an upsurge in research showing that L1 is actually used in EFL classes to serve different learning functions (e.g., Aurebach, 1993; Hall & Cook, 2013). Few researchers have, however, investigated use of the L1 by EFL teachers in the higher education context in an Arabic-speaking country (such as Saudi Arabia). Given the abovementioned debate in the literature, it is relevant to examine the way in which second language acquisition theories and teaching methodologies relate to teachers’ attitudes towards using L1. A mixed-methods study using questionnaires and follow-up interviews was conducted to collect data from EFL teachers teaching the preparatory year at a state university in Saudi Arabia. Questionnaires were collected from about 104 EFL teachers from countries such as the USA, India and Pakistan. In addition, semi-structured interviews were carried out with five teachers to gain an in-depth understanding of teachers’ attitudes towards using L1 in EFL classes. The findings shed light on the functions of using L1 in EFL classes. They also provide insight into teachers’ attitudes towards the use of L1.

Keywords: L1 use, EFL classrooms, teaching English
Introduction

Using learners’ first language (L1) is widely avoided in English as a foreign language (EFL) classes (Cook, 2001; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Hall & Cook, 2012). Since the end of the 18th century, a number of well-known English teaching methods have adopted a monolingual approach to language teaching, such as the direct method, audiolingualism, communicative language teaching, and task based language teaching. The monolingual approach discourages use of L1 through one of three approaches: banning the use of L1 in the classroom, minimizing the use of L1 in the classroom, or maximizing the use of the target language (L2) in the classroom (Cook, 2001).

The monolingual approach is supported by Krashen’s (1981) theory of second language learning, in which it is argued that when learning foreign languages people follow basically the same route as they do when they acquire their mother tongue, and hence use of the mother tongue in the learning process should be minimized. Brown (1994) believes that language acquisition is a subconscious activity that can only be achieved via interaction in the L2. Another argument for maximising L2 use is that successful language acquisition depends on keeping the L2 separate from the L1 because languages form distinct systems. The rationale for this is based on transfer theories such as contrastive analysis, whereby various language systems cause negative transfers and impede L2 acquisition (Lado, 1957).

Until recently, the monolingual approach has rarely been challenged. This may have been due to several reasons. Most EFL classes used to include students who did not share a single L1, whereby the teacher did not speak the language of students (Atkinson, 1993). However, there are a wide range of classes in which this is not the case and where students and teachers share the same L1. This leads the monolingual orthodoxy to lose its appeal, and researchers have begun to find fault with L2-only theories, particularly when the L1 of the students (and sometimes the teacher) is shared (Medgyes, 1994; Auerbach, 1993). In these situations, Medgyes (1994) considers this orthodoxy ‘untenable on any grounds, be they psychological, linguistic or pedagogical’ (p.66) and Auerbach (1993) highlights that there could be positive reasons for using L1 in the classroom for certain purposes.

Many researchers have investigated contexts in which L1 could be used as an aid to L2 teaching (Atkinson, 1993; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2013; De la Campa & Nassaji, 2009), including examining the areas in which L1 can be used in a supporting role when learning L2. It is reported that classroom management (including discipline, organising the class and task setting) is one such area (Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2013; De la Campa & Nassaji, 2009). Others include translation and checking meaning (Atkinson, 1993; Auerbach, 1993), understanding grammatical points, language analysis and code switching (Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2013; De la Campa & Nassaji, 2009). Some studies, aside from appearing to demonstrate that L1 use can actually assist L2 learning, have shown that L1 use can also help students in a sociocultural respect. It has been observed that L1 use can create a more cohesive and relaxed classroom environment in which students share language and cultural references with the teacher, which also clearly impacts on learning. Bhooth, Azman and Ismail (2014) highlighted that using the L1 during collaborative tasks enhances learners’ language proficiency as they move through the zone of proximal development. Copland and Neokleous (2011) also noted that L1 use is useful in one-to-one interaction with the teacher,
while Nation (1990) suggested that refusing to allow students to use their shared L1 negatively impacts on them as it makes them feel that their own language is somehow lesser than the L2.

Although L1 use is discouraged in mainstream English language teaching (ELT) methods, a number of studies have shown that EFL teachers do, in fact, use L1 in the classroom (Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2013). Nunan and Lamb (1996) stated that the avoidance of learner L1 is practically impossible, especially with monolingual students and with students with low-level English language proficiency. In fact, according to Cook (2001), teachers who have at least some knowledge of their students’ shared mother tongue tend to use L1 in their classroom. However, when EFL teachers use L1, they often experience feelings of guilt (Copland & Neokleous, 2011) and frustration (Cianflone, 2009). At the same time, it has been suggested that EFL teachers find using L1 practical in L2 teaching (Macaro, 2001), and feel that excluding L1 for its own sake could hinder students’ learning (e.g., Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012; Harbord, 1992). Studies have revealed that L1 exclusion is unnecessary; that its use can actually promote learning, providing it is used in the correct way; and that instructors do actually use L1 in their classroom (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Duff & Polio, 1990; Hall & Cook, 2013; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002).

Some studies have examined EFL teachers’ use of learners’ L1 and teachers’ attitudes towards the use of L1 (Hall & Cook, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011). However, few studies have investigated teachers’ attitudes towards L1 use in relation to the practical functions of L1 use in the classroom in the context of a Saudi University, in particular in the preparatory year, with a range of native and non-native EFL teachers. Therefore, the current study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. How frequently do EFL teachers use learners’ L1?
2. How frequently do students use their L1 in the EFL classroom?
3. What are teachers’ attitudes towards the use of L1?

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study comprised 104 teachers, who each answered a questionnaire. Interviews were also conducted with five of these teachers. The interviewees were chosen to represent a broad range of experience, nationalities and Arabic language ability. The profile of the interviewees is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Profile of interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Level of Spoken Arabic Ability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>5–9</td>
<td>Australian</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>10–14</td>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>25+</td>
<td>Saudi</td>
<td>Native</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>20–24</td>
<td>British</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>5–9</td>
<td>Saudi</td>
<td>Native</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of teachers who participated in the study possessed a language-related postgraduate diploma, master’s degree, or PhD. They were teaching university-level students, as the research was conducted at a state university in Saudi Arabia. The sample comprised both native and non-native EFL teachers teaching in the preparatory year, which is the first year of university. One of the main aims of the preparatory year is to improve the English level of students. In order to do this, an intensive general English language course of 18 hours per week is provided. The student level in English when starting the preparatory year varies, but if they are a beginner at the start of the preparatory year they should reach upper-intermediate level by the end of the year.

**Procedure**

This study adopted the mixed methods design, combining quantitative and qualitative approaches to allow provision of a breadth of information and to explore the research enquiry in depth. The 104 participants completed the survey (adopted from Hall & Cook, 2013) online during the spring of 2016. Initially, the questionnaire was piloted to five English teachers and some wordings were modified based on the teachers’ feedback to facilitate clearer understanding. The final version of the questionnaire included seven multi-item Likert scale questions, including open questions that gave the participants the opportunity to add further comments and nine short background questions. Finally, the participants were asked to provide their contact details if they were willing to participate in the follow-up interviews. The average time taken to complete the questionnaire as seen from the pilot study was between 15 and 20 minutes.

The questionnaire investigated teachers’ attitudes towards L1 use in the professional context; thus, it should be noted that the data represents reported, rather than actual, L1 use practices. The questionnaire covered attitudes towards the teachers’ L1 use in ELT, an evaluation of the arguments for and against this, and the teachers’ perceptions of general attitudes towards using L1 in ELT. It also asked about the extent to which the teachers used the learners’ L1 in their class and teaching, and for what purposes.

With respect to the follow-up interviews, the main aim was to develop an in-depth understanding of participants’ practices of and attitudes towards the use of L1 in the EFL classroom. Interview guidelines were developed to address the research questions pertaining to the frequency of using L1 and teachers’ attitudes towards using L1 in their teaching. The interviews were semi-structured, individual, recorded, conducted in English and lasted between 10 and 15 minutes.

**Data analysis**

The questionnaires were analysed via SPSS 20 software and descriptive statistics were calculated for all questions. The interview data was thematically categorised using Microsoft Excel.
Results

This section details the background information of the participants. The quantitative and qualitative results for each research question will be then provided.

Profile of participants

As shown in Figure 1, the EFL teachers participating in this study were of a number of different nationalities, with the largest group (about 40%), being Saudi. The second highest percentage (21.90%) were South Asian teachers from India, Pakistan or Bangladesh. About 10% of teachers were from other Arabic countries (Egypt, Tunis, Jordan, Morocco) or the USA. There were also a number of teachers from the UK, South-East Asia, Canada, Australia and South Africa, and one teacher from Slovakia.

Figure 1: Teacher Nationalities (%)

Almost 50% of the EFL teachers were native Arabic speakers, while about 50% were not, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Is Arabic the first language of EFL teachers? (%)
RQ1: How frequently do EFL teachers use learners’ L1?

According to the questionnaire results presented in Figure 3, more than half the teachers reported they never use Arabic in assessing their students, giving feedback, correcting spoken errors and giving instructions. When examining the results of ALWAYS and OFTEN options, it appears that teachers do not tend to use L1 much in their EFL classroom for any of the examined functions. However, for the option SOMETIMES the case is different, with about 30% of teachers sometimes using Arabic to explain vocabulary, develop rapport and a good classroom atmosphere, and explain unclear meanings. A number of teachers also seem to use L1 to some extent for the other functions.

Figure 3: Frequency of L1 use by EFL teachers

During the interviews, the teachers talked about the functions of using L1 in the classroom and stated they use L1 when needed. The main area that they reported using it in was explaining vocabulary. All the teachers said they needed to use L1 for this function, which supports the results from the questionnaire as the top function for L1 was stated as for explaining vocabulary. Most teachers also reported that they used L1 directly, by first using the L2 and then translating what they had said into Arabic. One of the teachers was unable to speak Arabic and so stated that she tended to ask one of her students to translate. Another teacher was against using L1 (she is a native Arabic speaker), and reported that she never used Arabic, but that she did encourage her students to use online bilingual dictionaries to translate any vocabulary they did not understand.

Teachers also spoke about the reasons for their using L1 in their classes. All of them said that they needed to use it for beginner students who cannot understand explanations in English. Teacher B said:

‘...sometimes for the vocabulary, I have to explain something and they [are] unable to understand... I try my best to [help] them to comprehend in L2...but the things is sometime we feel the need... so maybe there is one student in the class... I say what do you call it in Arabic and all of the sudden she said something in Arabic and they get the idea...[the students will realise] ok she is talking about this thing’ Teacher B
RQ2: How frequently do students use their L1 in the EFL classroom?

In the questionnaire, participants were asked to indicate the frequency with which L1 is used by their students. As Figure 4 shows, the survey responses suggested that students tend to use their L1 for the functions presented to teachers in the questionnaire.

![Figure 4: Frequency of L1 use by learners](image)

The teachers reported that the majority of their students use L1 to some extent in the classroom, with the top function being for translating vocabulary using dictionaries. It was also apparent that a large percentage of students use L1 for comparing English grammar to Arabic grammar, and also to prepare certain tasks. During the interviews, the teachers confirmed the results of the questionnaire by reiterating that L1 was used to check the meaning of a word in the dictionary and to discuss tasks (for example, speaking or writing), whereby in pairs or groups they used L1 to seek clarification from their peers. Teacher A gave an example of this: ‘...if I tell them do interviews... they will sit down and discuss it in Arabic... and write it in English but they will discuss it in Arabic.’

RQ3: What are teachers’ attitudes towards the use of L1?

The third research question relates to teachers’ attitudes towards using L1. To examine these attitudes the questionnaire included items that examined four aspects. These aspects were teachers’ general attitudes towards L1 use, teachers’ evaluations of the arguments supporting L1 use, teachers’ evaluations of the arguments against L1 use and teacher perceptions of ELT training in relation to L1 use. In Figures (5, 6, 7, 8) presented in this section, the blue coding relates to the levels of agreement (slightly agree, agree and strongly agree), which have been collapsed to represent an overall view of agreement. The orange sections relate to the levels of disagreement (slightly disagree, disagree and strongly disagree; also condensed).
Figure 5: EFL teachers' general views of L1 use in classroom

Figure 5 represents teachers' general attitudes towards L1 use. It shows that the majority of teachers (about 90%) allow L1 use at certain points of the lesson, while at the same time about 90% of teachers think that English should be the main language used in the class. 52.38% of the teachers reported that they feel guilty when using L1 in the EFL classroom. Although almost 70% of teachers believed L1 helps their students to express their cultural and linguistic identity, 60% supported excluding L1 use in the classroom. Figure 6 shows teachers' evaluations of arguments supporting the use of L1.

Figure 6: Teacher evaluations of arguments supporting L1 use

The data presented in Figure 6 shows that most teachers are in agreement with three points: firstly that learners like using their L1 (which has the highest percentage at 92%); secondly that L1 use reduces students' anxiety levels (83.8%), which are both emotional responses; and thirdly that students can relate new L2 knowledge to their existing L1 knowledge, such as with grammar, and make connections between the two – which relates to cognitive skill. The highest level of disagreement level was found for the second point, which pertains to using L1 to save time. It seems that teachers are more in agreement with psychological and cognitive reasons for using L1 than with practical reasons for its use, such as saving time.
Four of the teachers interviewed showed understanding of a need to use L1 at certain points during class. One teacher referred to L1 use as a natural occurrence amongst speakers with the same mother tongue. Another teacher stated her belief that it is useful for ‘vocabulary and single words’ (Teacher A).

Figure 7 shows teachers’ evaluations of arguments against L1 use.

![Figure 7: Teacher evaluations of arguments against L1 use](image)

It can be seen that the majority of teachers (more than 74%) believed that using L1 reduced students’ chances to practise the L2 skills of speaking and listening, which may have a negative impact on whether they think in English. The highest disagreement level shown here was for the first point, which relates to learners’ preference to use L2 only in their classroom; 54.3% of teachers disagreed with this.

During the interviews, one teacher was against L1 use based on her belief that using English only is better for the learning outcomes of her students. She said: ‘Actually I don’t tell them I am Saudi and I speak Arabic… for their own benefit I am doing this… we want them to learn the language… they are here to learn English.’ (Teacher C).

The last aspect with respect to teacher attitudes is their views of ELT training in relation to L1 use. This includes items related to whether ELT training encourages or discourages L1 use and whether there is a discussion of L1 use in ELT research.
Figure 8: Teacher perceptions of ELT training in relation to L1 use

As shown in Figure 8, about 50% of participants disagree with the third item about L1 use being encouraged in their in-service (TT) teacher training; in fact, 67% agree that their pre-service teacher training discouraged L1 use. Around half of the teachers, however, are aware that there is current discussion about L1 use in ELT research and conferences.

**Conclusion**

From this study, it appears that, although generally discouraged in teacher training and numerous ELT methods, L1 is used by EFL teachers to some extent. This mirrors the findings of previous research in other contexts (Hall & Cook, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011), which has found that English teachers do use L1 in the classroom to perform a number of functions. The reasons teachers gave for using L1 included explaining vocabulary and building a good relationship with students, showing their belief that, when used appropriately, L1 use can enhance L2 learning.

The views of the teachers given in this study clearly support the argument for the benefits of maximising the use of L2 and providing models of real language use of L2, while at the same time highlighting that L1 can be used effectively to perform certain functions when students share the same L1. These results appear to demonstrate that L1 might be incorporated into teaching practice when used effectively in the classroom to explain vocabulary and meaning, and to create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere. Therefore, there appears to be a need to introduce a framework that clearly identifies both how and when to use L1. Such a framework could serve several pedagogical functions, make the use of L1 more useful and also free teachers from the sense of guilt by outlining where L1 can be used effectively.
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Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self: A Study in the Thai Context

Ratchaporn Rattanaphumma, Assumption University of Thailand

Abstract

The study of motivation has been one of main interesting areas in second language teaching and learning. The integrative and instrumental motivation proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1972) has been challenged by the rise of global English and the changing purposes of English language teaching, learning, and using worldwide. In this study, the new theory of L2 Motivational Self System (Dornyei, 2005) has been used as the framework. The objectives of the study were to: 1) explore how students view themselves as L2 users; and 2) explore what students believe they ought to meet expectations. The participants consisted of 28 undergraduate students from an international university in Thailand. The instruments used in this study were questionnaires and student’s vision form. Questionnaire data was analyzed by using descriptive analysis in terms of frequencies and percentages. Student’s vision form data was analyzed by content analysis. The findings show that: 1) students view themselves as L2 users who have to use English in their work and daily life in the future; 2) students perceive that they ought to learn English in order to meet social and family expectations. This indicates that the ideal L2 self is influenced by future careers, whereas the ought-to L2 self is strongly influenced by society, parents, and peers. Finally, it is suggested that the sense of L2 self and ought-to L2 self should be promoted in English language classrooms. Language teachers should encourage and guide students to construct their language vision.

Keywords: L2 motivational self system, L2 vision, ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self
Introduction

The study of motivation has been explored in second language learning and teaching for a period of time. The research on motivational study can be dated back to 1972 when Gardner and Lambert proposed the two motivational orientations that affected language learning process and success: integrative and instrumental orientations. Integrative motivational orientation can be described as learners who wished to integrate themselves into the culture or the community of the second language group and become involved in social interaction in that group (Brown, 2007) whereas instrumental orientation can be described as those who possess some certain degree of motivation and are willing to learn L2. They tend to have ability to develop and achieve L2 proficiency due to a better job, higher salary, job promotion (Dornyei and Ushioda, 2011).

Over the past four decades the rise of global English and lingua franca has gradually led to a big move towards the theory of motivation. The spread of English has called for a reconsideration of English users’ cultural and identities around the globe. Graddol (2007) points out the issue of “English as a foreign language” whether it may mean to the end of the notion. The world is globalized and so does English. Linked to the study of motivation, it is more difficult to relate the concept of Gardner and Lambert into reality where English has been widely used as a means for communication. On the other words, English is used by speakers who have diverse regional, social, and educational backgrounds (Meierkord, 2012). If English is used for a variety of purposes by speakers with diverse backgrounds, it is noteworthy to explore whether integrative and instrumental orientations are still authentic and applicable.

Challenged by the current phenomena, the L2 Motivational Self System firstly initiated by Dornyei (2005) has been viewed as a new authentic and practical theory in English language classrooms particularly in English as a lingua franca and international contexts. The theory has been shifted from integrative and instrumental orientations to three main concepts of motivation: ideal L2 selves, ought-to L2 selves, and L2 learning experience. Ideal L2 selves is a powerful motivator to learn the L2, ought-to L2 selves can be described when one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes, and L2 learning experience can be related to the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success, and the impact of the teacher (Dornyei and Ushioda, 2009).

In this study, I will report on a study I conducted to explore how students view themselves as L2 users and what students believe they ought to possess to meet expectations.

Literature Review

The L2 Motivational Self System

Dornyei (2005) lists the category of this motivational approach to conceptualizing second language learning motivation within a “self” framework (Dornyei, 2009, in Dornyei and Ushioda, 2009). This is called the L2 Motivational Self System. The system emerged after a growing concern with the concepts of integrative orientation that reflects a desire to integrate into L2 community. In the past decade, this orientation seemed powerful in a way that learners or users acquired English as a means to integrate themselves into the English
speakers’ cultures. However, a drastic change in the spread of English are currently interconnected with non-native and native speakers of English around the globe. The motivation to learn or use English should instead lies in the contexts of learning and using English in the globalized world (Ushioda, 2013). This could be explained that motivational study should be focused on real persons who possess own unique feelings, history, and backgrounds.

The L2 motivational self system consists of three components. As earlier stated, they are Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, and L2 Learning Experience. The approach has been validated by a number of previous studies (Taguchi, Magid, and Papi, 2009, Lamb, 2007, Al-Shehri, 2009). Taguchi, Magid, and Papi conducted a comparative motivational study of learners of English in Japan, China, and Iran. The findings showed that there was a positive correlation between the ideal L2 self and integrativeness in all three groups. However, learners’ intended efforts could be explained by the ideal L2 self rather than integrative orientation. Lamb (2007) also conducted a case study research with two learners in Indonesia. It was found that the ideal and ought L2 selves could be effective factors in language learning motivation. The motivational study was also conducted by Al-Shehri (2009) who used Saudi students as the research participants. It was interesting to find that the ideal language self was a major motivational factor.

The age of globalization and the role of English as a global language

It is increasingly apparent that English has become an international language and its demand for a medium of communication is enormous. The world has become a global village and globalization has brought with it quite radical changes to how political and other communities function (Held and McGrew, 2001, cited in Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 82) The interesting issues related to its role are that globalization has caused communication relations, transactions, and networks to become more extensive and cut across conventional communal boundaries (Seidlhofer, 2011). Due to the fact that English has been spreading worldwide, a great number of international institutions where English has been used as a medium of communication or instruction has been established. In these kinds of “international English” communication settings, the notion of the previous motivational theory by Gardner and Lambert tends to be more difficult to conceptualize. It is more difficult to assume when one wants to learn English because he or she wants to integrate into the native speaker’s culture. Moreover, the globalization has led to an increase in the degree of diversity in terms of a large number of non-native speakers of English.

Research Questions

1. How do students view themselves as L2 learners?
2. What do students believe they ought to possess to meet expectations?
Research Methodology

The participants consisted of 28 undergraduate Thai students from Faculty of Law, Assumption University, Thailand. Regarding their range of age, they were between 19-23 years old. All of them enrolled the foundation course “English III” in semester 2, 2015 (January-May, 2016). The instruments used in this study were 5-point likert scale questionnaire and learners’ visions form. The questionnaires were adapted from Taguchi, Magid, and Papi, (2009) whereas the learner’s vision from was adapted from Dornyei and Kubanyiova (2014). Questionnaire data were analyzed by using descriptive analysis in terms of frequencies and percentages. Learners’ vision form data were analyzed by content analysis. In this study, the establishment of standards setting determined and proposed by Srisa-ard (2002) was used. They are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Degree of Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.51-5.00</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.51-4.50</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.51-3.50</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.51-2.50</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00-1.50</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As stated earlier, the 5-Likert scale questionnaire consisted of 5 scales, namely “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “not sure”, “agree”, and “strongly agree” degree of motivation; therefore, data were interpreted as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Degree of Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.51-5.00</td>
<td>Very positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.51-4.50</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.51-3.50</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.51-2.50</td>
<td>Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00-1.50</td>
<td>Very negative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings

Research question 1: How do students view themselves as L2 learners?
The five-point Likert Scale 15-item data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics to find the mean (M) score and standard deviation (SD). The data analysis shows that the mean is 4.33 and SD is 0.73. This means that students’ degree of motivation is positive.

Table 1: Questionnaire to measure motivation and ideal L2 self (n=28)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I imagine myself who will live abroad and have a discussion in English.</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I imagine myself who will live abroad and use English effectively for communicating with local people.</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I imagine I can speak English with non-Thai people in the future.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I imagine I can speak English with international friends in the future.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. I imagine I will be someone who can speak English. 4.56 .97
6. I imagine I can speak English as if I were a native speaker of English. 3.85 1.02
7. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English. 4.56 1.15
8. I imagine I can do anything that requires me to use English. 4.85 1.02
9. I imagine myself who can study in a university where English is used as a medium of communication. 4.30 1.03
10. I imagine myself who can write English correspondence fluently. 3.93 1.14

**Overall** 4.33 .73

**Adapted from Taguchi, Magid, and Papi, (2009)**

According to Table 1, the mean is 4.33 (SD = 0.73). This means that students’ degree of motivation is positive. Among the statements, item 8: *I imagine I can do anything that requires me to use English* gains the highest mean (M = 4.85, SD = 1.02), while item 5: *I imagine I will be someone who can speak English* and item 7: *Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English* gain the second highest (M = 4.56, SD = .97, 1.15). The lowest mean falls to item 6: *I imagine I can speak English as if I were a native speaker of English* (M = 3.85, SD = 1.02).

**Learner’s Vision Findings**

The learner’s vision form consists of two parts: personal information and 9 short answer questions. Data from the vision form provides insights into how students view themselves as L2 users. The data are classified into themes and quantified to gain a number of each theme. Data are shown in the tables below.

**Table 2: Your future jobs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Jobs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Judge</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawyer</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business-related</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Your goals for future jobs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals for Future Jobs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stable/successful career</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money-oriented career</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-development career</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4: Your goals for lifestyle**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals for Lifestyle</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family-oriented goals</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable financial goals</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dream/wish fulfillment goals</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 5: Goals for learning English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals for Learning English</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication (Verbal/written proficiency)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal advantages</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career aspects</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 6: Your L2 positive role model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L2 positive role model</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public figures</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family members</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7: How you envision yourselves in English in the future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Envision in English</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Better advantage in career</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use English to communicate</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native like proficiency</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 8: Your L2 negative role model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L2 Negative role model</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One of the political leaders of Thailand</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family members and friends</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other public figures (both Thai and native speakers)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 9: To be recognized in English use by others in the future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To be recognized in English use</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native speakers of English</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-native speakers of English</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 10: Confidence towards using English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confidence towards using English</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With confidence</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without confidence</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research question 2: What do students believe they ought to possess to meet expectations?

The results of the five-point Likert Scale 15-item data were analyzed by descriptive statistics to find the mean (M) score and standard deviation (SD). The data analysis shows that the mean is 3.79 and SD is 0.93. This means that strength of the vision of the ought-to L2self is positive.

Table 11: Questionnaire to measure strength of the vision of the ought-to L2 self (n=28)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I study English because my close friends think it important.</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If I do not study English, my parents will be disappointed with me.</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Learning English is necessary because I am expected to learn by people surrounding.</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I must study English because my parents believe that I will be an educated person.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I have to learn English because the people I respect think that I should learn English.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I want to learn English in order to be accepted by my peers/teachers/family.</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I will get negative impact on my life if I don’t study English.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. An educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. People will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I will let other people down if I fail in English.</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 2, the mean is 3.79 (SD = 0.93). This means that students’ strength of the vision of the ought-to L2 self is positive. Among the statements, item 6: I want to learn English in order to be accepted by my peers/teachers/family (M = 4.59, SD = 0.97). The lowest mean falls to item 2: If I do not study English, my parents will be disappointed with me (M = 2.81, SD = 1.30).

Discussion

Ideal L2 Self

The findings show that the degree of students’ motivation on ideal L2 self is positive. If we examine the specific items that gains the highest and second highest means on ideal L2 self (The things I want to do in the future require me to use English, I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English, Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.), it is likely is to see realistic desired students’ future selves. The results provide support for Dornyei’s (2005) theory of the Motivational Self System. Regarding the findings gained from learner’s vision form, the main goal of learning English is to be competent in both written and spoken language. This could be explained that studying English has been
useful and related to students’ ideal L2 self. Data gained from students’ short answers are shown below.

**Your goals for learning English**

- I want to speak and write more fluently and effectively.
- I want to work with an international company.
- I want to write very well.
- I want to communicate with other people.
- I can use English in my job.
- I can speak English professionally.
- I can use English in my job.

Along the same lines, when students envision themselves in English use in the future, the data strongly support why learning English tends to be advantageous to them. Students perceive the importance of English in terms of career-related and communicative purposes. The data gained from students’ learner vision from are shown below.

**How you envision yourselves in English in the future**

- Use English fluently for working and travelling
- Become a lawyer in an international company
- Work with foreigners
- A professional lawyer who can use English effectively
- Own a law firm and have customers who are foreigners

However, it should be noted that 19 out of 28 students would like others to recognize them in English use as a non-native speaker of English. Most of them feel very proud to be Thai who can use English as native speakers. The following answers are shown below.

- It is so proud if I can speak like native speakers of English.
- I am Thai so I think this is different from others. People will know where I come from.
- I think I have to use English well but I don’t have to speak like native speakers. I am Thai so I think it is fine just to be able to communicate in English.
- I do not want to be a native speaker of English but I want to communicate with others and they can understand me. That is fantastic for me.
- Because I have some accents that we cannot sound like native speaker. The important thing is we can use English to communicate with foreigners.

This confirms the aforementioned findings of students’ ideal L2 self. Learning English tends to be advantageous to students’ future careers and communication rather than be native-like. If we take a look closely into students’ L 2 positive role model, it is notable to find that 14 out of 28 students perceive that public figures (both Thai and non-Thai) are their L2 positive role model. Public figures given by students are the King Bhumipol of Thailand, the King Jigme of Bhutan, the former Prime Minister of Thailand (Mr.Abhisit Vejjachiva), actors or
actresses, Thai model, English teachers at Assumption University, Thai English tutor. On the contrary, 13 out of 28 students agree that one of the political leaders of Thailand is an L 2 negative role model in English use. This could be explained that students are fully aware of the relationship between English competency and career advancement.

The overall findings indicate that students tend to have future self-images related to future careers. These future self-images can be seen as a powerful motivator to learn English. Students agree that English is a tool to lead to possible successful career. In their views, English is a channel for stable and successful future careers.

**Ought-to L2 Self**

The findings show that the degree of students’ motivation on ought-to L2 self is positive. The highest mean falls to item 8: *An educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.* The finding indicates that English could be seen as a marker of identity: the identity of educated person. English is playing a more important role for those who seek a stable or successful future career. Students believe this is one of the attributes to possess to meet their future expectations. When linked the finding with the spread of global English, Ushioda (2013) agrees that it is more difficult to explain people’s motivation for learning English in terms of an interest in the target languages culture and community. As a matter of fact, English user may be integral to how they wish to see themselves or sense of self. When we take a look at the second and the third highest mean items, it goes to item 6: *I want to learn English in order to be accepted by my peers/teachers/family* and item 3: *Learning English is necessary because I am expected to learn by people surrounding.* The findings are associated with the earlier finding (item 8) in a way that social or peer expectation has influenced and shaped students’ belief and perception. The highest mean item should be supported by the lowest mean item which falls to no.2: *If I do not study English, my parents will be disappointed with me.* This reflects a long-standing cultural belief of Thai people who tend to value people by their education. The finding also provides support for the motivational study conducted by Tagichi, Magid, and Papi (2009) in Japan, China, and Iran. In this study, it is found that many Iranian parents tend to have hope on their children. They believe that if their children will be successful, that will be a sign of their own success as well. Regarding English, they believe that it is necessary to know English in order to advance in many careers in Iran. In addition to the corroboration from the previous research finding, the finding from ought-to L2self questionnaire corroborates the learner’s vision findings. It is found that the majority of students tend to pursue their family-oriented goals. Family socialization has been strongly tied to students’ values and beliefs.

**Summary of the Main Findings**

As we have seen, the findings indicate that the concept of students’ ideal L 2self is positive. Students envision what they want to do and how they can do their careers in the future. English has played a vital role in students’ future life dimensions such as career aspects, personal advantages (travelling, communication, self-development), and financial stability. English is perceived as a powerful tool to help reinforce their future careers and lifestyles. Since English is a means for communication in the globalized world, the majority of students
well perceive that they want to be competent at communication, not as a native speaker of English.

In the case of ought-to L2 self, we found that the concept of students’ ought-to L2 self is also positive. Students learn English in order to fulfill their families’ expectations. Peers, neighbors, and bosses also perceive those who are competent in English as an educated person who can access to new information resources and introduce innovation. When a person can meet these expectations and requirements, they tend to be perceived as an educated and successful person. It is also perceived that an educated person tends to be financially stable.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the study are useful to both language teachers and language learners. The following implications are addressed below.

1. Language learners should be strongly encouraged to speak as themselves (Ushioda, 2011). Language teachers should design classroom materials to invoke students to express their own interests and identities. Teachers should allow students to share their views of what and how they want to do and use English as a means to do what they want.

2. Language teachers should be aware that linguistic knowledge taught in language classroom should not be adequate. Students should be taught or mentored to have language vision. Then the language vision can be strengthened and transformed into action. For example, L2 positive role model people such as public figures, friends, and successful language learners should be invited to give a motivational speech.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. It is recommended that a broader sample of students in different levels and majors should be investigated. This study is a small-scale research; therefore, different studies using the same methodology should be further conducted.

2. It is recommended that Thai and non-Thai students’ degree of motivation should be explored. This could be useful for teachers to design appropriate and authentic classroom materials and curriculum.

3. It is recommended that a correlational study between students’ degree of motivation and their learning outcomes should be explored.
References

Thai
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English


Gauging the Effectiveness of Diagramming and Scratching an Outline for Small Size Classrooms of English As L3 Users

Shumaila Omar, Institute of Business Management, Pakistan

The European Conference on Language Learning 2016
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Writing is one of the most important and challenging skills in English Language that learners often find difficult to master. Brainstorming is a strategy that is considered effective in facilitating learners with their writing tasks. The present action research focused upon the impact of two brainstorming techniques - diagramming and scratch an outline on the writing skills of undergraduate business students who used English as L3. This study investigated the level of impact it had on English academic writing. A need analysis was conducted and it was revealed that other than the grammar, mechanics and syntax problems, the students also struggled to generate, connect and organize ideas. The researcher used two brainstorming techniques; diagramming and scratch an outline to overcome the hurdles of generating ideas and idea organization faced by the students. It was thus concluded that the business students who were otherwise weak in the English language were also able to improve their writing skills by using brainstorming strategies.

Keywords: Brainstorming, Business school, Diagramming, Scratch an outline, Undergraduate business students
Introduction

Pakistan is a multilingual society where English has not only become the first international language but it also enjoys the highest symbol of prestige in all domains of power since its independence in 1947 (Rahman, 2002). English is further used as the international language for business, education, disquisition, and scholarship paving way for English language as a medium of instructions from grade 6 under the government of Pakistan (Shamin, 2008). According to Warsi (2004), although the students study English for about 6-8 years, the lack of linguistic ability in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing are noticeable among students in Pakistan. In fact, students are not provided a proper platform with the much needed communicative competence in classrooms. Thus, teaching and learning at tertiary level focuses more on writing (Hyland, 2011).

Writing is considered as the most important and primary tool in language learning. It is one of the areas amongst the four skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) that learners often find difficult to handle. Writing is also a neglected field which creates a ‘writer’s block’ for learners. Recently, practitioners and teachers have focused their attention towards this skill where researchers have devoted a great deal of work searching for ways to improve students’ writing and providing practical ways to handle writing tasks. Some of the findings and recommendations of researchers clearly suggested pre-writing strategies which focus to help learners break away from the writing block that hinders in generating ideas at the beginning of a writing task. One of the strategies is brainstorming, a technique which is believed to facilitate students’ writing activities. The main purpose of brainstorming is to generate a list of ideas that can be used as clues to guide students in accomplishing their writing tasks. In fact, the first step in the writing process is to choose a topic and collect information about it, often called pre-writing. After the topic is narrowed down, the next pre-writing step is to collect information and develop ideas through outside sources, such as newspaper, magazines, library books, or the internet (Oshima, Hougue 2006).

Moreover, Al-khatib (2012) believed that brainstorming is a strategy that encourages students to generate the highest number of ideas that are varied and creative in a spontaneous and free open climate that is not critical and does not limit the freedom of launching ideas. He further stated that the main idea of brainstorming is preparing students to participate in the sessions enhancing their communication skills in the form of transaction among all students helping them to foster thinking and decision making skills that help them to generate more ideas.

Even though there are numerous researches from Pakistan that discuss writing strategies, yet, a study specifically focusing upon the brainstorming techniques of diagramming and scratch an outline were not found by the researcher. Considering the two types of brainstorming, the present study aimed at exploring and comparing the effectiveness of diagramming and scratch an outline strategy on the writing performance of a group of first year Academic students of a private University in Karachi, Pakistan. Thus the following research question was formulated:

To what extend is there a significant difference between the writing performance of students who use outlining strategy as a sequel of diagramming and scratch an outline after being trained in these brainstorming skills?
Literature Review

Pakistan is a multilingual country with a high impact of English language learning among students. The challenges faced by the students are manifolds. The students lack proficiency in writing including precision, cohesion, coherence and stylistics even after thirteen years of English education as it has been observed by the Pakistan University teachers. According to Mansoor (2003), hurdles in English language teaching include providing English teachers, updated knowledge of the latest pedagogies for English teaching and the access to English text books. These hurdles need to be overcome for obtaining the desired results. The academic literacy that students develop at the tertiary level paves way for their ability to write at their future work, Hyland (2011). Hence, paragraph writing is an essential skill in order to observe the writing capabilities of students at university level. Kaplan (1996) claims that paragraph structure of every language is distinct and different in nature and understanding this unique structure is important to learn and analyze that language.

Writing becomes a challenging task for students when they adapt to criteria such as grammatical rules, sentence structures, and choice of words. Commonly, students find it difficult to develop ideas for their writing. They spend time thinking until the last minute before they start writing and thus do not give themselves an opportunity to be creative thinkers or let their ideas flow.

Brainstorming is a technique that was developed by Osborn in 1953 and is used for encouraging students to deal with the problem of writing by generating ideas (Ibnian, 2010). Osborn believed that through brainstorming strategies, students output could be doubled and in this way, students’ can have a pull of information to extract from. Thus, brainstorming is one of the most useful and well-known tools for effective thinking. It motivates students to generate ideas and helps them through the task of writing, making the classrooms more interactive. Hyde (2005) restates Osborn’s definition of brainstorming and interprets it as a solution for a particular problem through pouring list of ideas suggested by a group of learners. Brainstorming should preferably be followed by certain rule; such as, it should not be judged but the larger the list of ideas, the better the quality of writing would be. Moreover, in brainstorming, students are encouraged to note down each other’s ideas in order to let the writing ideas emerge.

According to Harmer 2004, brainstorming is a technique that helps students to think freely about the topic and instigate their minds for ideas. The learners do not worry about the language and usefulness of ideas which they generate, in fact, the main task is to think, analyze, arrange, eliminate or add ideas as they make use of their minds. Brown (2007), states that in brainstorming there is no judgment of ideas; this helps students to recognize ideas as they have not been aware of before embarking on brainstorming.

The writing process begins with the five techniques which helps learners to think and develop a topic and get words on paper: (1) Free writing (2) Questioning (3) Making a list (4) Diagramming/mind-mapping/clustering (5) Preparing a scratch outline. These techniques could be used to present associations among concepts; thoughts and information which help reveal prior knowledge by encouraging creativity, retention and effective learning.
There are a number of studies which have attempted to probe the effects of brainstorming strategy on the writing performance of learners. A few recent studies are reviewed to determine the effects of writing strategies through the brainstorming techniques. Veli Batdi (2015) investigated the effects of mind mapping techniques on learners’ academic achievements, attitudes and retention scores through the meta-analysis method. The findings of this study indicated that using mind mapping had a positive effect on academic achievement, attitude and retention.

Damayanti (2013/14) aimed to improve students’ skill in writing narrative paragraph by using Journalistic questions (who, what, where, when, why and how). The action research was conducted in two cycles on the second semester students. The technique was implemented to increase their writing skill. The results of this study showed that journalistic questions as pre-writing could develop students’ writing by helping them generate ideas to organize a paragraph and assisting them to communicate their ideas and increasing their motivation and self-confidence in writing activity.

Similarly, Sabet and Ghorbanpur (2014) conducted a study on the Iranian EFL learners to investigate the impact of two brainstorming techniques (Individual and group) on the writing performance of a group of 30 students (both males and females) who participated in a five-week writing class during which a pre and post-test were administered. The results of paired-samples t-test showed an improvement in students’ writing after the classes. The findings showed that brainstorming strategy is useful in improving EFL learners’ writing skill.

Getting started with writing is a natural phenomenon that creates a mental block when students’ sit down before a blank sheet of paper. They may have trouble coming up with relevant details to support their topic. The pre-writing techniques help learners’ to think about and develop ideas and get words on paper. Diagramming, also known as clustering or mapping is one of the strategy that can be used to generate material for a paper. This kind of method is helpful for those learners who like to think in a visual way. In diagramming, learners use lines, boxes, arrows, and circles to show relationships among ideas and details that occur to them. This technique begins with a few words or a word related to the subject in the center of a blank sheet of paper. Then as the ideas and details flow, these are added in boxes or circles around the subject and a line is drawn to connect them to each other and to the subject. Minor details and ideas are put into small boxes or circles and the connecting lines show how they relate to each other. Generally, there is no fixed rule of diagramming. It is a way to think on paper about various ideas and details that relate to one another. In addition to helping generate material, diagramming can provide an early sense of how ideas and details relate to one another.

A scratch outline is another strategy amongst the other pre-writing techniques. It is a sequel to free-writing, questioning, list-making, or diagramming. Writing through a scratch outline is a good way to see if learners require doing more pre-writing. If students cannot come up with a solid outline, then they need to do more pre-writing to clarify their main point or its several kinds of support. In a scratch outline, learners often think carefully, about the point they are making, the supporting items for that point, and the order in which they arrange those items. Thus, the scratch outline is a plan or blueprint to help students achieve a unified, supported, well-organized paragraph (Langan, 2000 p. 29-30).
Globally, writing is one of the most important skills that should be learnt. In recent years, writing has become a problematic area for students in Pakistani universities. Teaching academic skills is particularly new to the freshmen at business institutes of Karachi. With a diversified class, it is a challenging task to remove the writer’s block in order to write using different strategies focusing mainly on brainstorming skills which includes using an outline and diagramming. This technique allows students to generate ideas before they begin writing a paragraph. In conclusion, brainstorming is a useful strategy that helps learners to develop ideas connected to their topic. It provides a quick solution to gain information related to the main theme of the paragraph.

Methodology

Research Design

Action research was used in order to measure students’ progress and analyze the effectiveness of pedagogical practices using outline as a strategy; a sequel of diagramming and listing an outline after students were trained in these brainstorming skills. According to Harmer (2007), action research is a series of procedures adapted by the teachers wishing to bring about a change in teaching. Then these procedures are evaluated in terms of success they bring to the students in either understanding concepts or learning a skill which otherwise the students find difficult. The trouble area is normally identified by the practitioner who decides to try out a new strategy through collecting data and analyzing it, enabling the educators to reach a decision about what they and their students do in class and implement changes according to their findings. In short, action research provides a platform for practitioners to reflect on their own practices. This action research was initiated to investigate the gap learners underwent while writing a paragraph. The researcher wanted to find out what made students reluctant to write and what motivated them to remove the writer’s block in their writing assignments. Moreover, the researcher felt the need to gauge the interest of the students through generating certain topics that would engage learners bringing the effectiveness of activity type through group, pair-work and individual work.

Sample collection and size:

The population of this research consisted of freshmen of a business Institute in Karachi, Pakistan. The sample size comprised of 7 male undergraduates who were repeating the Academic English course for either improvement or to pass the subject. These students came from a wide range of educational backgrounds and experiences. The most challenging consideration was that English for most of the students was their third language and had not been encouraged at home, school, among friends or by relatives. Their English proficiency level was basic and these students were significantly weak in reading and writing. Moreover, reading to learn was an abstract concept, while they highly valued writing skills.
Techniques used for data collection:

The data was collected through: (a) Needs analysis (b) Assessment method (c) Instructor

The course: COM 107

Com 107 is a well-defined course at the Institute and is generally known as a gateway to other business courses. It is pre-dominantly a challenging course for those who have not been successful in their first attempt. The concept of intensive reading, critical thinking, analyzing and writing are problematic for these students. It is usual for these students to take the course more than once before they successfully satisfy the requirements.

The summer intensive program consisted of 20 lectures (including one mid-term and a final exam). Each lecture lasted 2:15 minutes of 18 weeks session. The course was offered twice a week during the weekday classes. The course outline was followed in the allotted time frame. The mode of teaching was through the multi-media, handouts, white board and a compiled resource book.

Needs Analysis/Assessment method

- The research action plan was carried out on the three weeks of the total summer program to focus on the diagramming and scratching an outline technique through various topics. The instructor asked students to write about themselves. They were given 25-30 minutes to write non-stop but during the facilitation round, students struggled to write more than a sentence. One student wrote about ten lines but was on the movie he had seen rather than about himself. A quick feedback showed that the students had difficulty in putting the words on paper. They knew what they wanted to write but were blank to think of how to write. Besides, thinking of what words to use about themselves, they also faced hindrance in placing the sentence in correct order and writing the accurate sentence structure. Thus, the following problems enabled the researcher to put forward an action plan that would help overcome the stated problems.
  - Generating Ideas: The students started off with the sentence “My name is……” with the exception of 1 student who started off with, “One must keep in mind;”. Therefore, novelty in writing through generating ideas was missing in their writing.
  - Connecting Ideas (Organizing Ideas): The students had no idea of how to structure a paragraph. How same type of ideas are bracketed and put together in form of a paragraph. Each sentence seemed to be a new topic sentence.
  - Repetitive Ideas: All students repeated the same ideas, mainly because 1) they ran out of ideas and 2) because they did not know what the standard length of an academic paragraph should be.
Putting a Plan in Action

The instructor had three weeks to teach paragraph writing. Table 1 shows how three weeks were used in order to obtain a more cohesive written expression.

Table 1. The three week plan in action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1</td>
<td>2:15 hours of class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Explanation of the Diagramming Technique using the topic ‘Fear’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students wrote a paragraph using this technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Checked in the class and feedback was given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Corrections were made and resubmitted to the instructor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 2</td>
<td>2:15 hours of class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Explanation of Scratch an outline technique using a sample on the topic ‘Movie-going’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students wrote a paragraph using this technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Checked in the class and feedback was given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Corrections were made and resubmitted to the instructor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 3</td>
<td>2:15 hours of class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students were given a challenging topic ‘Registering for University Classes - a frustrating experience for new students’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• They were asked to use any one of the techniques taught in the class in order to write a paragraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• This was a graded assignment of 10 marks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Week 1

The second week began with the topic ‘Fear’. The students were introduced to the topic sentence, controlling idea, identifying supporting details along with collocations and using the present perfect. Lastly, they were asked to write a paragraph using the diagramming technique.

As a writing task, they were asked to brainstorm about a common fear. The instructions were to think about fears they had or other people had. They had to plan their paragraph by looking back at their diagramming technique and writing a topic sentence. Students were also instructed to organize their paragraph and describe a common fear. They had to pay attention to their paragraph structure, especially the topic sentence and supporting details.

Students’ paragraph was checked in the class and the feedback helped the students identify their mistakes and a room for further assistance was open to students within and outside the class. The students were instructed to submit the final draft.

Week 2

During the third week, a new topic on ‘movie-going’ was introduced in the class. Since preparing a scratch outline is a good way to see if more pre-writing is required, students can
do more of it to clarify their main points or its several kinds of support. A student sample on scratch an outline on movie going was shown to the students focusing on how carefully the points were made on the topic, the supporting items for that point, and the order in which they were arranged. The students were guided to identify the blueprint of the student sample that would help achieve a unified, supported, well-organized paragraph. The students were further guided in identifying the topic sentence, controlling idea, supporting details and a concluding sentence from the sample. Their work was checked in the class and feedback was given individually. The students had to submit their final draft.

**Week 3**

The fourth week was challenging for the students. They were given a 10 marked assignment on ‘Registering for University Classes - a frustrating experience for new students’. The students had to write a paragraph using the topic and the controlling idea and building upon this sentence, they were also provided with a few transitional words like ‘therefore, however, firstly, lastly, although’ to create a well-knitted paragraph. Students were given 45 minutes to work on the brainstorming technique- scratch an outline before writing a 180 word paragraph in an hour’s time. Before giving an overall feedback on the marked assignment, students evaluated their own work keeping the marking grid as a guideline. It was later crossed checked by their peers and eventually the instructor finalized the marks.

**Instructor’s reflection**

The reflections were taken by the instructor to improvise on learning ability of the students. The instructor used brainstorming strategies during the three weeks summer program and reflected upon each class with a positive and a negative comment and further implemented another strategy to reflect its outcome on the students.

**Results**

By the end of the three week course, the students had built up confidence in using the brainstorming strategies for generating ideas for various topics in academic English. The progress in diagramming and scratch an outline was almost tangible. Paragraphs written by students on ‘Fear’, ‘Movie-going’ and ‘Registering for University Classes - a frustrating experience for new students’ demonstrated that these students knew the importance and usage of brainstorming strategies and were confident in using them. During the fourth week when students attempted the marked assignment, it was observed they were dedicated in applying the brainstorming strategies keeping the check-list to avoid unnecessary errors. Moreover, it was also observed that each student participated in order to hone their own skills. They gave new vocabulary words a try and did not hesitate for clarification. This constant engagement of brainstorming technique in order to generate ideas for paragraph writing proved beneficial for these learners. Moreover, the students had the clarity of connecting ideas to paragraph writing and they were careful in avoiding the repetitive words in a sentence and generally in a paragraph. The following grid shows the improvement students experienced through the brainstorming techniques. The improvement shown by the students is depicted in table 2.
Table 2. Improvement in the writing skills of students through brainstorming

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Highly Improved</th>
<th>Improved</th>
<th>Not Improved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generating Ideas</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecting Ideas</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetitive Ideas</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that all seven students showed improvement in all three areas of paragraph writing whereas five out of seven students achieved marked improvement. The students who were undertaking the course for the second time were all boys from the rural areas of the Province. When the students were informed about the instructor’s challenge of teaching a small classroom, they were comfortable to voice their efforts in learning from the instructor and were glad that they would be given an individual attention which was not possible in a large class of 40. In fact, these students informed that they were all back benchers and never participated in their previous class. Consequently, their instructors did not notice their existence in class and the students themselves had fear to participate amongst the other students. The students also felt the course was aligned with their typical style of learning, and they enjoyed it more than a traditional, more lecture based course. Therefore, it can be concluded that these brainstorming techniques are more effective in smaller classes where students are provided with continuous feedback and the instructor is involved in continuous reflection and improvement.

The instructor reflected that after the first week, students were introduced to the concept of diagramming as they participated and added ideas to the given topic. This exercise also helped to build confidence. During the second week, another topic was introduced for paragraph writing through brainstorming and the learners considered scratch an outline a better option where they had to think and re-write their ideas keeping the paragraph structure in mind. By the third week, the students had to select one option of either diagramming or scratch an outline to write their marked assignment. The instructor reflected from the three weeks that the students found scratch an outline more aligned with their learning than diagramming as the connectivity between ideas is easier to achieve in an outline than in a diagramming method.

Discussion

Diagramming and scratch an outline provides a firm platform for students to write academically and professionally, helping them to analyze their own creativity. It also helps in multiple thinking which helps in breaking up old ideas, making new connections, enlarging the limits of knowledge and the onset of wonderful ideas (Fasko, 2001). This further adds credibility in other business courses where critical thinking and writing skills plays an important role. After going through various techniques to reinforce writing skills, it was decided by the instructor to introduce diagramming and scratch an outline as brainstorming techniques.
techniques to students in order to overcome their writer’s block and for the students to compose a more focused well knitted piece of writing.

By the end of 3 week session, the students’ progress was encouraging. They were able to use diagramming technique for their mid-term exam as well as scratch an outline for their final one. According to Gardner, Richard, Angle and Ann, (1999), brainstorming techniques are designed to help and generate new and different solutions to using new creative skills. Both the brainstorming strategies helped students to connect their ideas in a well-knitted paragraph and the importance to ideas were generated through these techniques.

During the sessions, it was observed that the students had built-up courage to speak on a given topic through warm-up activities such as using predictions through pictures, eliciting ideas through the questioning technique, general discussion and through encouraging students to use white- board to generate their ideas. This also helped them to avoid using repetitive ideas in their initial stage of brainstorming technique. The strategy not only helps in producing a list of various ideas but can be used as clues which give students a chance to express their ideas and share those ideas with others and generate new ideas (Al- blwi, 2006).

Students reflected that it was the first Academic course that simulated their skills through using prior knowledge on various topics used for the sessions. Consequently, they felt the teaching methodology was in line with their learning needs than following a typical and traditional method of giving lectures through slides. According to Al-Khatib (2012), brainstorming enhances students’ communication skills in the form of transaction among all the students and helps them to foster thinking and decision making in order to generate more ideas.

While the students were motivated to articulate thoughts and vocabulary in a similar manner for the paragraph writing, the instructor worked hard to make adjustments to the teaching methodology in order to adapt to the learners’ need. The reflective document after each class would help the instructor analyze the best and the worst strategy used and to make immediate alteration in the class. There was always a back-up plan if one strategy did not work for a session. The two strategies that were picked for the research worked well keeping the objectives to cover in a short duration of time. The weak students had the opportunity to strengthen their own knowledge reinforcing the concepts that were vague to them. It also gave an opportunity to the learners to work with their peers in a shortened time, therefore exposing them to more opinions and a variety of styles and strategies to improve their own learning. Wilson and Glazier (2003) are of the view that writing strategy which helps to focus on levels of structures about words connecting to forms phrases, clauses and sentences are valuable in organizing a coherent paragraph. These techniques further help in building confidence to generate ideas through exploring students’ own creativity.

Overall, the techniques of diagramming and scratch an outline helped students to write a paragraph, yet they struggled to construct a sentence structure, and find new vocabulary words. They tried to use new words from the text given to them and avoid using repetitive ideas in their paragraph writing. The exercises gave them a chance to build confidence and they could easily connect ideas, identify and write a topic sentence, controlling idea, supporting details and a concluding sentence. Subsequently, the learners’ elaborated on a
given topic through brainstorming techniques, they could organize and connect ideas to write a well-knitted paragraph.

Conclusion

The teaching approach was well-perceived by the learners at the Business Institute in Karachi keeping in mind the aims and the objectives of the course and the level of the learners, however, these strategies can also be applicable to learners around the globe in different contexts. The topics used could easily be modified and appropriately fit for different learning environments. Brainstorming strategy can be used in a short-term for intensive courses and is not only recommended but is highly valuable for the students who take academic English as their course. Prior information and preparation can help achieve the outcome of the course enabling the strengths and weaknesses of learners’ skills. Moreover, faculty and course time are all critical to an effective approach in the classroom if the future researchers use the result of the current research as information and reference to the same research.
References


Applying CREAM Strategy to Coach Teaching

Marine Milad, Arab Open University, Kuwait
Hiba Tayara, Arab Open University, Kuwait

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Being in charge of monitoring and evaluating Foundation Program staff tutors necessitates constant follow-up to make sure that they are in line with the University’s mission and vision. This has raised a fundamental educational question ‘how to coach rather than monitor the tutors’. To answer this question, Cottrell’s (2008) C.R.E.A.M. strategy was applied to coach these tutors following GROW Model as a framework for structuring both team and individual coaching sessions. A two-day coaching/training session was conducted at the beginning of the semester to maximize the benefits of the foundation tutors’ potentials by familiarizing them with the course material and sharing best teaching practices. The aim of this training session was to help them develop the learners’ general English language skills and equip these learners with the necessary study skills to pursue their academic major at a university level. After that, two induction sessions were presented to familiarize them with the teaching methods, study calendars, assessment rubrics and group/double marking. This is in addition to conducting 360 evaluation cycle based on students’ feedback, peers’ feedback and head of the program feedback. Cottrell’s strategy was initially developed for enhancing the learner’s self-directed/autonomous learning. For the purpose of this implementation, the researchers applied C.R.E.A.M. strategy as a self-assessment and observation tool. Being pragmatic leaders, they conducted three team coaching sessions and one-to-one individual sessions throughout the academic semester following GROW Model to establish SMART Goals, examine the current Reality, explore possible Options/Obstacles, and establish the Will. A checklist was developed to measure the staff tutor’s self-assessment of their Creative, Reflective, Effective, Active, and Motivated teaching practices and the same checklist was used by the rater as an observation checklist to evaluate these practices. The two tools were statistically analyzed and a correlation was formed.

Keywords: CREAM strategy, Coach Teaching, and Pragmatic Leaders.
Introduction

Coaching is a process that enables individuals to achieve their full potential. It helps them in making real, lasting changes and facilitating the exploration of their needs, motivations, desires, skills and thought processes. Parsloe (1999, p. 32) defines coaching as “a process that enables learning and development to occur and thus performance to improve. To be successful, a coach requires a knowledge and understanding of process as well as the variety of styles, skills and techniques that are appropriate to the context in which the coaching takes place”. Through observation, listening and questioning techniques, a coach could help individuals understand the current situation and identify needed solutions and actions rather than adopting a wholly dictated method. Whitmore (2002, p. 19) stated that “getting better performance from any group or individual, yourself included, means permanent change in the way you think [coach]. Change of this kind is not a single transaction but a journey, and the journey has a specific starting point [reality] and a clear destination [goal].” Coaching guides individuals to set appropriate goals and methods of assessing their progress in relation to these goals. Coaching can be done individually or in groups taking many forms and applying a variety of techniques which may include one-to-one training, facilitating, counselling and networking (Shermon & Shermon, 2016).

Coaching And Performance

Gallwey (2000, p. 40) defines effective coaching as “…unlocking a person’s potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them.” Whitmore (2002, p. 23) describes coaching as “…the essential management style or tool for optimizing people’s potential and performance. Commanding, demanding, instructing, persuading with threats, overt or covert, cannot produce sustainable optimal performance, even though they may get the job done.” Thus, coaching is not just meant for enhancing poor performance, it can also be used to help project team members or staff tutors develop and achieve their goals, while producing better results on their projects or enhancing their teaching practices. Whitmore (2002, p. 28) highlighted the importance of coaching to enhance performance; ‘if either the quality of a performance or learning from the experience is important, coaching is a must’. This importance of a coach suggests that effective coaching is necessary for progression of performance.

Coaching offers a vehicle for analysis, reflection and action that ultimately enable individuals to achieve success in one more areas of their life or work. It also encourages a commitment to action and the development of lasting personal growth and change. Moreover, it maintains unconditional positive esteem in that the coach is at all times supportive and non-judgmental of the individuals; their views, lifestyle and aspirations. The role of the coach is to encourage individuals to work within their area of personal competences. Continually improving these competencies and develop new developmental associations where necessary to achieve their goals in light of their qualifications and experience with high performance (Knight et al., 2015; Shermon & Shermon, 2016). The coach should make sure that individuals are working on developing their own competencies not on developing unhealthy dependencies on the coaching relationship.
Individuals will be able to evaluate the outcomes of the coaching process and use objective measures wherever possible to ensure that the relationship with their coach is successful and that they are achieving their personal goals and maximizing their performance.

**Grow Model Of Performance Coaching**

In the 1980s, Sir John Whitmore and his team of Performance Consultants developed the GROW model which is now firmly embedded in the world of business coaching. GROW stands for: Goal, Reality, Options, and Way forward. For establishing the Goal, the coach should prepare individuals to set their Simple, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic, Timed (SMART) goals and examine if these goals fit with the overall career objectives and the team's objectives. Then, the coach should set an observation checklist to follow up the individuals’ accomplishment of these goals. After that, the coach should guide the individuals towards examining the current Reality by evaluating what is happening now and what sort of obstacles stand in the way, setting milestones to take the necessary steps towards the target goals, picturing the effect of this on the long run, and identifying any potential conflict of their goals with other goals or objectives. Thus, individuals should be guided to explore different available Options and evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of each option. They should be guided to consider the weight of each option and what should be done to achieve it. Finally, the coach helps individuals to set the Will by deciding what they will do next within a certain timeframe keeping in mind what type of obstacles might hinder their progress and how to overcome them as shown in figure (1) below (Whitmore, 2009).

![Figure (1): GROW Model of Performance Coaching](image)

Adapted from Coaching for Performance by John Whitmore, 4th Edition, 2009

A good example of CROW Model of Performance Coaching is driving a car. Before the car driver drives the car the Goal and destination should be identified by exploring the current Reality such as checking the car tyres, oil level, petrol, etc. Then, the driver should choose from different Options the most effective route that would save time, effort and money to reach the chosen destination. Finally, the driver Will start driving using his/her efficiency as a licensed driver to get to the desired destination. While driving the role of the coach is highlighted. The coach would guide the driver to mind the mirror’s blind spot announcing that there is another car approaching. By the same token, a coach...
can guide the individuals to plan their teaching and improve their performance by highlighting their strengths and overcoming their flaws.

**Characteristics of an Effective Coach**

A good coach should promote an individual’s self-evaluation and reflection of his/her own performances. In sports, “a coach who is other than consistently enthusiastic, whatever the team’s results or mood is in the wrong job” (Wade, 1997, p. 22). Thus, an effective coach “…applies intelligence to leadership and can involve persuasion and compelling players to go along with them” (Wade, 1997, p. 30). In such a field, if players or athletes are not led or steered properly through training, they may feel unsure of what the coach is trying to achieve and reluctant to change their training or technique. Similarly, if tutors are not inducted or guided appropriately towards the best teaching methods for achieving the target learning outcomes, they might lose track of what should be delivered and how to help learners reach these desired outcomes. Wade (1997) believes that in order for coaching to be effective the coach must exhibit a number of qualities such as: leadership and intelligence, analytical ability, confidence and decisiveness, integrity and reliability, vision and imagination, coping with unpleasantness, organization and administration, and enthusiasm. Therefore, an effective coach should provide formative evaluation and constructive reflection on individuals’ performance including the good and bad areas which need improvement and suggest suitable models for each one.

**A Coach as a Pragmatic Leader**

Adopting the pragmatic leaders’ approach, the researchers acted as thoughtful leader, sensitive to their organizational environment, and willing to modify their goals or strategies periodically. Pragmatic leadership meant to develop a leadership competence that balances the best elements of efficiency and context.

In order to meet the needs of stakeholders, clients or customers, you may need to be flexible to ensure that the day-to-day priorities of your team – and the over-arching priorities of the organization – can adjust to remain responsive, relevant and competitive……the pragmatic leader is able to deal with the day-to-day issues and challenges in a straightforward, practical manner……pragmatic leadership is made up to two essential components: principles and experience (Bedell-Avers et al., 2009, p. 301).

Being a pragmatic leader, one of the most important roles is to coach your team members to do their best. By doing this, you get them to be better decision makers, problem solvers, continuous learners for new skills, and career oriented. For the purpose of this study, the researchers implemented concepts like honesty, integrity, fairness and transparency to coach their staff tutors. Once the leaders’ values are aligned with principles and built on experience, they can be confident that their chosen approach is the correct, defensible and sustainable one. Therefore, the researchers chose Cottrell’s C.R.E.A.M. strategy to coach their team’s teaching practices.
C.R.E.A.M. Strategy

Cottrell (2008) is an international bestselling author who believes in the C.R.E.A.M strategy for learning. In her book 'The study skills Handbook’, she focuses on developing the learners’ self-learning skills and equip them with the necessary study skills to pursue their academic major at a university level. In this implementation, the researchers worked on applying C.R.E.A.M strategy to coach their staff tutors’ teaching by spotting the light on their strengths and helping them to overcome their weaknesses and flaws.

To promote Creativity, the researchers coached their team to increase their confidence in using their own individual strategies and styles that work best for them. In addition to applying their imagination to their teaching practices. As for being Reflective, the researchers guided their team to reflect on and evaluate their own performance identifying their strengths and weaknesses and what is missing in their class. They were also encouraged to pay class visits to their colleagues’ classes to learn from each other. Moreover, the tutors were also encouraged to make their teaching practices Effective by understanding their students’ needs (needs analysis) and having their state of mind, space, time and materials organized in the ways that best suit their way of teaching (planning). Consequently, with enough planning and preparation, the tutors will make their teaching effective saving time, effort and money.

Being Active is one of the important dimensions in Cottrell’s strategy (2008). Active teaching exists when tutors are involved in what they are teaching and constantly looking for ways of getting their students be more involved in and responsible for what they are learning through using games, debates, role plays, simulations, field trips, etc. The tutors should set short-term goals and involve their students in setting these goals. They should be aware that their level of Motivation will affect their success and their students’ success as well. Thus, tutors should be coached that motivation is the key for pursuing goals reaching success and that attitude is everything! If the students feel that their tutors are not motivated, they will not be motivated. To sum up, C.R.E.A.M strategy is a general principle which encourages individuals to stop, think & reflect on ways of improving the way they teach and learn constantly.

Framework

The conceptual framework of this implementation discusses its methodology that presents the participants, duration, hypothesis, measures, research design, setting/delivery, and instruments/assessment tools. Finally, it ends with presenting the results and findings with brief discussion. Each concept is discussed with detailed description in the following sections.
Metodology

Participants

The implementation of this study was administered on 19 staff tutors working for Arab Open University (AOU), Kuwait Branch. These tutors were teaching the general English language courses at the Foundation Program, English Language Unit (ELU), AOU.

Duration

The duration of the implementation was one academic semester. It started in the fall semester of the academic year 2015/2016 and continued till the end of the same academic semester.

Hypothesis

The implementation aimed to investigate the effect of Cottrell’s C.R.E.A.M. strategy on improving the staff tutors’ teaching performance following GROW Model of performance coaching.

Measures

Data for this study were collected through fifteen questions developed for observing and assessing the staff tutors’ performance in teaching general English language at the foundation program. The Observation/Self-Assessment Checklist was designed to test the five dimensions of C.R.E.A.M. strategy (Creativity, Reflective, Effective, Active, and Motivation). For the purposes of this study, the checklist was used by the tutors as a self-assessment tool and by the rater (head of the foundation program) as an observation general summative assessment tool for the tutors’ teaching performance. The tutors’ self-assessment responses and the rater’s observation response for each tutor were statistically analyzed and a correlation was formed.

Research Design

The implementation adopted the descriptive design to review and survey previous literature and studies related to its variables (C.R.E.A.M. strategy and GROW model of performance coaching). A quasi-experimental design was adopted to assess the tutors’ teaching performance using the observation/self-assessment checklist.

Setting/Delivery

A two-day coaching/training session was conducted at the beginning of the fall semester of the academic year 2015/2016 to coach the staff tutors teaching general English language courses at the foundation program. The session also aimed to maximize the tutors’ teaching potentials by familiarizing them with the course aims, intended learning outcomes, materials, assessment tools in addition to sharing best teaching practices. This coaching session was to help them develop the target learners’ general English language
skills and equip these learners with the necessary study skills to pursue their academic major at a university level. After that, two induction sessions were presented to familiarize the same staff tutors with the teaching methods, study calendars, assessment rubrics and group/double marking. This is in addition to conducting 360 evaluation cycle based on students’ feedback, peers’ feedback and head of the foundation program feedback (the rater).

**Instruments/Assessment tools**

One instrument was used twice to measure the variables of the study. An observation/self-assessment checklist was developed to be used by the tutors to assess their Creative, Reflective, Effective, Active, and Motivated teaching practices at the beginning of the semester. Then, the same checklist was used by the rater (head of the foundation program) as an observation checklist to evaluate these practices at the end of the same semester. The two tools were statistically analyzed and a correlation was formed.

**Results and Discussion**

The 19 tutors responded to the fifteen questions of the self-assessment checklist at the beginning of the fall semester of the academic year 2015/2016 to assess their Creative, Reflective, Effective, Active, and Motivated teaching practices. They were asked to provide a brief description to their experience after responding to the questions and analyzing their own data. They were asked to share their findings regarding what they learned about themselves and how far they are applying the C.R.E.A.M. strategy in their teaching practices. They were also asked to share their future plans to improve their teaching practices in light of C.R.E.A.M. strategy. The tutors’ responses to each dimension of C.R.E.A.M. strategy and the rater’s observation for each one was statistically analyzed and a correlation between each tutor’s self-assessment and the rater’s observation was formed as indicated below.
As shown in the above graph (figure 2), there were a few discrepancies between some of the tutors’ self-assessment responses and the rater’s observation. As a result, the rater held an individual one-to-one coaching session with each tutor. During this coaching session, the rater discussed each dimension of CREAM strategy to make sure that the concept is clear to this tutor and provided relevant field examples to clarify each dimension and how to implement it in teaching.

As shown in the above graph (figure 3), there were a few discrepancies between some of the tutors’ self-assessment responses and the rater’s observation on the creativity dimension.
dimension. Thus, the rater provided a relevant example that occurred during teaching Oral and Presentation course. She explained that when teaching a speaking course, a tutor must be extremely creative to encourage students to come at the front of the class and speak up for two minutes. In one of the speaking classes, the chapter was about healthy food, so the rater came to class wearing a chef’s hat and an apron. She displayed a toy cooking set equipment and started the lesson teaching the students a funny receipt on how to cook fried eggs. Then, students were given five minutes to prepare a recipe of their own and come at the front of the class to present it. This was so much fun and created a very comfortable atmosphere where all students had the courage to participate in the class discussion and speak up. Another example on creativity was also in a speaking course. The chapter was discussing practicing sports, so the rater went in class wearing sports clothes and holding a volleyball. Then, she and the students did an aerobics session before they started passing the volleyball discussing the target topic.

![Figure (4): Tutors’ Self-assessment Responses and Rater’s Observation on the Reflective Dimension](image)

As shown in the above graph (figure 4), there were a few discrepancies between some of the tutors’ self-assessment responses and the rater’s observation on the reflective dimension. Accordingly, the rater provided the following example discussing the importance of being reflective on one’s own teaching practices. She stated that going into a lecture without being ready is very bad and does not sound professional at all. She was asked to teach a writing course for business studies where she was given a very short notice to prepare the course. After finishing the first lecture, she left the class and started crying because she reflected on her teaching practice and discovered that the lecture went so bad thus she gave herself a zero satisfaction degree. As an educator, you must evaluate yourself and ask yourself every time you finish your lecture: How did I do? Did I deliver the information in a suitable/right way? Did the students receive and assimilate the information I delivered well?
As shown in the above graph (figure 5), there were a few discrepancies between some of the tutors’ self-assessment responses and the rater’s observation on the effective dimension. Therefore, the rater provided the following example discussing the importance of organizing and managing one’s own time. Being as effective tutor means that you should be highly productive saving time, effort and money while performing any task. You need to know what your students’ needs are. You have to plan your lecture well. Even though you might be teaching the same subject for more than one semester using the same course guide, calendar and material, you need to have a clear lesson plan for each session that might require few adjustments based on your students’ needs. Moreover, you should realize that you set an ideal example to your students, you cannot ask them to be on time if you are not.

Figure (5): Tutors’ Self-assessment Responses and Rater’s Observation on the Effective Dimension

Figure (6): Tutors’ Self-assessment Responses and Rater’s Observation on the Active Dimension
As shown in the above graph (figure 6), there were a few discrepancies between some of the tutors’ self-assessment responses and the rater’s observation on the active dimension. Consequently, the rater provided the following example regarding the level of students’ involvement in setting goals and class interaction. The rater stated that in all classes tutors must make sure that their students are involved in all sorts of activities. The tutors should divide their students into groups and ask them to write a short script on a given topic to perform a role-play using their own words and ideas. Tutors can ask students to use their mobiles (mobile learning) because they like the idea of using them in class and at the same time, they will be involved in doing something that is common among all. Students can use their mobiles to google a topic or even a word.

Figure (7): Tutors’ Self-assessment Responses and Rater’s Observation on the Motivation Dimension

As shown in the above graph (figure 7), there were a few discrepancies between some of the tutors’ self-assessment responses and the rater’s observation on the motivation dimension. As a result, the rater provided the following example. As a coach you need to be motivated first, then you can ask your staff tutors to be motivated. Same applies for your students. You should be motivated intrinsically and extrinsically so as to be able to get your students motivated. Your staff tutors should see and feel that you are motivated, thus they will reflect this motivatational attitude on their students. They will reward them since they have been rewarded by their coach/leader. The rater used to hold an end of semester meeting by the end of each semester to acknowledge each tutor’s effort and share good practices. She used to buy gifts and rewards to distinguished tutors, group leaders and coordinators to encourage them to keep the high teaching performance and encourage other to do their best so as to be awarded the following semester. There are many ways of motivating your staff tutors and students. Here comes the sense of creativity again.
Conclusion

The findings of this study can be summarized as follows: There were some major factors that contributed to the success of coaching the staff tutors’ teaching practices using C.R.E.A.M. strategy such as leading with examples, adopting open door police, building trust and gain confidence through establishing a friendly atmosphere, empowering your staff, killing rumors/gossips, acknowledging efforts and providing incentives whether financial or moral incentives. The most important success factor is showing empathy and tolerance because we are all human being and we can learn from our mistakes (what does not kill you makes you stronger). However, there were few failure factors that have acted as obstacles and challenges in front of the success of this study. These failure factors should be avoided to be able to coach your staff tutors successfully such as resistance of some tutors to accept change and get out of their comfort zone, emerging of few personal issues that would make the tutors distrust their coach/leader, unconvincing goals and visions, unclear tasks and instructions, impractical methods, insufficient tools, and unprofessional assessment techniques whether formative and/or summative assessment.

Recommendation

In light of the previous data analysis and the coaching with examples technique, the following can be recommended:

It is advisable to encourage general course coordinators across AOU branches to adopt C.R.E.A.M. strategy to coach their branch course coordinators. It will be beneficial to urge AOU branch course coordinators to adopt C.R.E.A.M. strategy to coach their teams (concerned tutors). Moreover, it is recommended for all team leaders to coach their tutors through C.R.E.A.M. strategy. Finally, it is highly recommended for you to coach your own teaching in the light of C.R.E.A.M. strategy.
Appendix A

Observation / Self-Assessment Checklist
Applying CREAM Strategy

Tutor’s Name: ________________________________

Course(s): ____________________ Date: ____________________

CREAM strategy was developed by Stella Cottrell, an international bestselling author, to promote self-directive/autonomous learning. The aim of this self-assessment tool is to measure how far you apply CREAM strategy on your teaching.

Read each statement carefully and indicate how frequently it applies to your teaching style (always, often, sometimes, rarely or never) by putting ✓ in the box that best describes your teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have the confidence to use my own individual strategies and styles that work best for teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I challenge myself to be creative and apply my imagination to my teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am a curious person. I ask my students some questions to get to know them well and discover their needs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I reflect and evaluate my own teaching performance through identifying my strengths and weaknesses.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I ask myself what is missing in my class.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I do peer class visits and I make use of the feedback I receive from other tutors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I set realistic, measurable mini-goals and take things one step at a time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I organize and manage my time properly and be in class on time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I put myself into an extremely teaching mood and make my classes as enjoyable as possible.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I involve my students in my teaching by participating in setting intended goals to take responsibility of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
learning.

11. I look for links between different things to facilitate my students’ constructive learning.

12. I take charge of my class and manage it like a project.

13. I see difficulties as challenges and opportunities for progress because every problem has a solution.

14. I believe that my level of motivation will affect my success.

15. When I meet my goals, I reward myself and set more challenging goals.

Write your score below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Creative</th>
<th>Reflective</th>
<th>Effective</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Motivated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ------</td>
<td>4. -----</td>
<td>7. -----</td>
<td>10. ----</td>
<td>13. -----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ------</td>
<td>5. -----</td>
<td>8. -----</td>
<td>11. ----</td>
<td>14. -----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ------</td>
<td>6. -----</td>
<td>9. -----</td>
<td>12. ----</td>
<td>15. -----</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----/15</td>
<td>-----/15</td>
<td>-----/15</td>
<td>-----/15</td>
<td>-----/15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of CREAM Strategy = Total sum of all columns × 100/75

--- × 100÷75 = ---%  

Reflection on the checklist:

1. What did you learn about yourself?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

2. What do you plan to do to improve your teaching style in the light of CREAM strategy?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
References


Contact email: marinemilad@yahoo.com
Abstract
This study aims at developing and integrating Conversation Analysis (CA) to enhance the interactional competence of the students and to improve teaching and learning in the English language classrooms. In order to do such a thing, two video clips are specifically chosen to teach undergraduate students, majoring in Airline Business Management, on the ‘English for Aviation Communication’ course at a university in Thailand. Both video clips focus on the conversation between a ground service officer and a passenger during the check-in process at the airport. By using Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson’s (1974) framework of Conversation Analysis to identify patterns and explain it from an emic perspective in turn-taking, sequence organization and also repair phenomena; as a result, it can be seen that not only has integrating such activity into speaking classes raised the interactional awareness of the students with a focus on the conversations as contextualized actions, but also students have opportunities to perform a task and enhance their interactional competence from the specifically selected materials to the classrooms.

Keywords: Conversation Analysis, audio-visual teaching materials, Interactional Competence, English classrooms
Introduction

Conversation Analysis (henceforth CA) is considered as an approach in which language and social interaction are analysed. It was originally emerged from the cooperative work of three sociologists; Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson in the 1960s. Since then, there are many researchers studying about CA. Seedhouse (2004) defined CA as a tool used to examine and analyse naturally occurring talk through recording and transcribing human talk-in-interaction.

Furthermore, Sidnell (2010) stated that CA is based on observing people closely regarding what they do in their daily lives. With the goal to illustrate the rationality and logic that underlies human practice, CA shows how language plays a role in the organization of talk.

Normally, CA focuses on three main types of data; 1) naturally occurring data, 2) transcribed data and 3) analysed data (Wong and Waring, 2010). Sidnell (2010) stated that methods used in CA include collecting, organizing and analysing patterns of talk in order to identify what is being accomplished. The structure of conversation analysis can be divided into turn-taking, adjacency pairs, sequential organization, preference organization and repair organization.

Turn-taking is a central concept to CA. According to Sacks et al. (1974), it has been observed that there is one and only one person speaking at the time, while speaker change recurs with minimal gap and minimal overlap. They accomplish on a turn-by-turn basis, at any ‘transition relevance place’ (TRP), at the end of any ‘turn constructional unit’ (TCU). The single words, clauses, phrases, and sentences can be received as a TCU as long as they are recognizable to complete at a particular point, TRP, where the transfer of speakers occurs.

Obviously, a turn-taking system is organised to minimize any overlap in people conversation, or any gaps where no one talks. Trudgill (2000) also mentioned that interactants speak one at a time alternatively taking turns, providing the turn taker not only the right but also the obligation to speak.

Adjacency Pairs are one of the major instruments for analysing a conversation. They are two parts; showing the sequential organization such as question-answer, greeting-greeting and invitation-acceptance or refusal. After the completion of the first pair-part, the second pair-part responds relevantly. However, Seedhouse (2004) argued that if the second part of the pair is not immediately produced, it may remain relevant and accountable and appear later, or its absence needs to be accounted for.

During an interaction, speakers may encounter problems such as difficulty of understanding or hearing; therefore, those problems are usually fixed to avoid communication breakdowns by repair mechanisms. There are four main types of repair: 1) self-initiative self-repair; 2) self-initiative other-repair; 3) other-initiative self-repair and 4) other-initiative other-repair. With all of these methods used in CA, we can create a sense of reality through interaction.

This study aims at developing and integrating Conversation Analysis (CA) into the English classrooms by using video clips with undergraduate students at a private university in order to improve teaching and learning English, especially as a speaking skill. By using Sacks,
Schegloff, and Jefferson’s (1974) framework of CA to identify patterns and explain it from an emic perspective in turn-taking, sequence organization and also repair phenomena.

Data Analysis

Both extracts are selected from the YouTube website. They are interactions between the ground service officer and the passenger, showing the check-in process at the airport. The first extract lasts approximately one minute and thirty seconds and the other one which was originally from the American ‘Friends’ sitcom series on television and lasts for about one minute.

Both interactions reflect real life situations and ordinary conversations; therefore, they can be used to supplement as authentic materials in language classroom settings.

The following extract, taken from one of the video clips in this study, demonstrates the interaction between the ground service officer and the passenger at an airport.

Extract 1. Checking in at an airport [00.01-01.30]

1 Officer: good afternoon? (. ) where are you flying today
2 Passenger: I’m (. ) <flying to Stockholm>
3 Officer: may I see your passport, please
4 Passenger: Ye::s.
5 (2.0)
6 Passenger: .hhh <here you are>
7 (3.0)
8 Passenger: >do you need< to see my boarding pass
9 Officer: ah (. ) no, I don’t.
10 (5.0)   ((typing sound))
11 Officer: un::fortunately, your flight has been delayed (. )
12 it’s now scheduled to depart at six p.m.
13 Passenger: ah well (1.0) that’s not too bad
14 Officer: I’m so sorry for any inconvenience =
15 Passenger: = that’s okay
16 Officer: er, are you checking any bags today
17 Passenger: .hhh (1.0) yes, I have one bag to check (. ) and:: one bag to carry on
18 Officer: have you left your bags unattended at any time
19 Passenger: no (. ) I’ve always had my bags with me =
20 Officer: = okay that’s good
21 (6.0)   ((typing sound))
22 Officer: right now, you have a middle seat would you prefer a window seat or an aisle seat
23 Passenger: um (1.0) an aisle seat (. ) please
24 (4.0)   ((typing sound))
25 Officer: ↑okay here’s your new boarding pass and your baggage claim
26 Passenger: thanks
Figure 1: Checking in at the airport, 00:05

The extract starts with a greeting, ‘good afternoon’ with the rising intonation. It is the first pair-part of the adjacency pair and is supposed to be followed by the second pair-part of a greeting – greeting pair; however, the officer continues to hold the floor with a micro pause and then asks a question as the first pair-part of a question – answer sequence in line 1. The passenger responds in the second pair-part of the adjacency pair with the faster speech preceded by the normal speech of the utterance ‘I’m’ in line 2.

The officer takes the turn and starts a request as the first pair-part of the adjacency pair in line 3. The passenger responds in the second pair-part of the adjacency pair by stretching the word ‘yes’. There is a 2-second pause while he is looking for his passport in the pocket. In line 6, he then produces an extended turn with the faster talk after inhalation.

There is another long pause for 3 seconds without any reply from the officer and then, the passenger continues to take the floor by initiating the first pair-part of a question-answer of the adjacency pair with the slow pace of his talk in the beginning of the sentence and then emphasises on the last word ‘boarding pass’ in line 8. The officer responds with an acknowledgement token (ah) and completes his turn with the second-pair part of the adjacency pair.

Following a long pause (5 seconds) in line 10, the officer still holds the floor and performs the extended turn until line 12. In line 13, the passenger responds with the acknowledgement token and discourse marker (ah well). The officer then starts the new adjacency pair with the first pair-part as an apology and he is eventually interrupted (indicated by a latched turn at
line 15) by the passenger who replies with the acknowledgement token (that’s okay) as the second pair-part of the adjacency.

In line 16, the TCU contains a hesitation marker (er), and the first-pair part of a question-answer adjacency pair. Then, the passenger takes the floor by responding with the second-pair part with the emphasis markers in ‘yes’ and ‘check’, preceded by a 1-second pause in line 17. Then, in line 18 the officer passes a turn by asking a question as the first-pair part while the passenger answers as the second pair-part of the adjacency pair, followed by a micro pause in line 19 and the passenger continues to hold the floor and performs an extended talk with the emphasis marker in ‘always’; however, he is interrupted by a latched turn in line 20 with the acknowledgment token (okay that’s good).

Figure 2: Checking in at the airport, 01:10

Following a long pause (6 seconds), the officer takes the floor, giving the information and then passes the turn by asking the question as the first pair-part. In line 23, the passenger replies with the hesitation marker (um), a 1-second pause and the second-pair part as an answer of adjacency pair. Another long pause (4 seconds) follows at line 24 without any utterances from either the officer or the passenger. The officer uses the acknowledgement token (okay) with the high intonation and the emphasis marker in ‘boarding pass’ to signal the mutual understanding at line 25. The officer takes the floor and continues his turn with micro pauses in line 27. The passenger takes the turn by a confirmation check in line 28, following by the 2-second pause in line 29 and then the passenger uses the acknowledgement token (okay) in order to clarify the information in line 30.
Conclusion

Both extracts portray the same scenario about the checking-in process at the airport between the ground service officer and the passenger. It is obvious from both video clips that one of the basic rules of conversation is achieved; only one person speaks at a time. However, overlapping or a latching turn can be also found in the conversation and they probably occur in everyday conversations. The analysis also shows that nervous speech can be noticed from the pace of talk or repetitions. Other interesting features which can be found in the analysis are the dispreferred answers with the discourse markers and pauses, showing hesitation or delay. Non-verbal behaviours are also considered as one of the features of conversation, projecting the completion of interaction.

Furthermore, lexical choices are also formed sequences and patterns of the interaction of the interactants in both video clips. For example, in the beginning of these two sample video clips, after greeting the passengers, both ground service officers request to see the passengers’ passports, which can be considered as the kind of action that normally occurs in the institutional interaction.

It is very noticeable that in both video clips, those who appear in charge of the conversation mostly have the authority to hold the floor in the conversation. The ground service officers from both video clips have obviously showed that they have more authority to ask questions and require the passengers to answer them, which shows the asymmetry of roles in the institutional interaction (Heritage, 2004).

These two video clips are considered as a useful material in teaching and learning English, especially for non-native learners. Apart from the dialogues in textbooks, using related audio-visual recording videos is much more exciting and entertaining. The conversations in both video clips are similar to those in real life situations, so bringing these audio and visual recordings into the classrooms would help develop learners’ interactional competence.

CA has attracted many researchers and teachers, using this approach to help their students become more proficient in interaction competence. Sert (2009) suggested that CA be integrated into English classrooms by using TV series as a material resource for language teachers in Turkey whereas Fujii (2012) claimed that CA is essential for understanding language and helping leaners to learn the target language more easily.

It is stated that there is considerable potential for researchers, textbooks designers and teachers to take advantage of the new millennium technology for embedding context in understanding and interpreting oral interactions as a fundamental prerequisite for improving students’ productive conversation skills (Moreno Jean, M. and Peres Basanta, C. 2009 cited in Sert, O. and Seedhouse, P. (2011)).

In this study, the CA approach is adapted to material development in the English classes, with an aim to teach conversational phenomena by precisely building the links between the context in video clips and naturally occurring discourse in everyday lives.
Integrating CA in teaching and learning English can be a powerful tool to improve and identify interactional problems especially for non-native English learners in Thailand by using CA to point out the similarities between ordinary conversations and interactions in video recordings.

The feedback from all students who have studied the CA notion in this recent study has been very positive since they saw the clips and have a much better understanding of the conversation and interaction in real lives using the CA approach. CA can actually broaden students’ views and help them clearly understand how people normally interact in everyday life.

It can be seen that not only has integrating such activity into speaking classes raised the interactional awareness of the students with a focus on the conversations as contextualized actions, but also the students have opportunities to perform a task and enhance their interactional competence from the specifically selected materials to the classrooms.

When comparing dialogues in textbooks and real life conversations through CA approach, it is apparent that dialogues in most textbooks do not show how each turn really occurs naturally as an actual conversation. Hence, bringing authentic audio or video materials into classrooms can help students develop an awareness of conversational structures and patterns.

Apparently, since CA has been introduced, it has attracted many researchers and teachers trying to help their students become more proficient, as well as a contribution to language teacher training. It could be said that CA is considered as one of the most useful tools for raising leaners’ awareness of the interactions and also an invaluable contribution to teaching and learning English language.

In conclusion, CA can serve as an effective teaching tool for raising learners or students’ awareness of natural interactions and enhancing their language proficiency; furthermore, it can be considered as a useful tool to be utilized for aiding teachers in identifying studying problems in regard to English language proficiency within the classrooms and incorporating CA as part of their methodology powerful visual and audible learning tools.
References


**Contact email:** jirajitra.higgins@gmail.com
English Language Use among Malaysian Tertiary Level Students – A Case Study of Tunku Abdul Rahman University College

Low Bee Imm, Tunku Abdul Rahman University College, Malaysia

Abstract
While English is widely spoken in Malaysia, there have been concerns about its declining standards, with educationists and employers observing that even graduates are unable to use the language proficiently. The inability to use English or the lack of the necessary language skills has even been said to be the reason for the high level of unemployment among graduates. In view of this, this study set out to explore the language use of Tunku Abdul Rahman University College (TAR UC) students in all the four areas of English language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing in six domains: education, family, friendship, transactions, mass media and entertainment by adopting the concept of literacy as a social practice and the concept of domains by Fishman. The objectives of this study were to investigate to what extent English is used in TAR UC and outside the campus as well as the relationship between the use of English in the six domains and students’ proficiency. This study adopted the concurrent embedded strategy of mixed methods design. In this approach, quantitative data from questionnaires of 435 respondents and qualitative data from interviews were collected. Results show that students learn by interacting socially. Students do not learn complete language systems in learning environments where teachers use direct instruction to develop their vocabulary and language structures. To develop language fully, it must also be learned within the social contexts found at school, home, community, and society.

Keywords: English language use, Diploma students, second language skills, literacy learning, domains, language proficiency
Introduction

With the global spread of English, it is undeniable that competency in English has become a crucial aspect of human capital development, especially in the areas of science, engineering and technology. According to Michael (2012) it is essential that Malaysians have English proficiency since it is the medium whereby the information on the advancement and breakthrough in the fields of science and mathematics are presented. However, in Malaysia, while English is widely spoken, there have been concerns about its declining standards among school children and the younger citizens in general. The low communicative competence of a majority of college students has resulted in their not being able to secure a job particularly in the private companies merely because of their limited language proficiency. One of the findings stated in the National Graduate Employability (GE) Blueprint 2012-2017 was the problems faced by employers in hiring fresh graduates. Poor command of English was found to be the most serious problem faced by employers (55.8%). Therefore, the Malaysian universities should play their role well to redress the problem in order that Malaysian graduates become compatible to the job-market. To sustain their present role as the most important ‘producer’ of human capital, which is a valuable asset to the country, universities and colleges must dare take the challenges of bringing about drastic or real changes that will eventually improve the standard of English among the undergraduates. Although the problem of limited English proficiency cannot be generalised to all learners in Malaysia, the problem does represent a majority of the learners. The overall picture is discouraging and calls for a change in the ways in which English is taught to Malaysian learners.

In line with this view in thinking and examining English learning in Malaysia, this study aims to identify and offer explanations in relation to the students’ ability or inability to acquire English by specifically focusing on the extent English is used within and outside the teaching-learning environment. This study views English language learning as a social practice and this includes a range of practices common in the tertiary learning classroom: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Purpose of the study

This study attempts to focus on the importance of English in the eyes of Tunku Abdul Rahman University College (TAR UC) students and how they view the usefulness of the language as reflected in the extent of their use of the language in the four areas of the language skills namely listening, speaking, reading and writing in their choice of important domains: family; friendship; transactions; education; mass media; and entertainment. The purpose of this study is to find out how, when, why and to whom the students use English for effective communication and understanding. The study concerns itself with the general trends in language use and the predominant influence of the social variable, domains. The patterns of language use will be established by studying 6 domains namely family, friendship, transactions, education, mass media and entertainment.

This study will also examine the influence of the English language use in these 6 domains on the students’ language proficiency. It is hoped that in this study, the analysis of language use of the students in all the common four areas of English language skills: reading, listening, speaking, and writing will help to differentiate
those students of high level of proficiency from those of the middle and lower level of proficiency. In a study conducted by Zhengdong Gan (2011), it was found that the successful ESL students actively searched for and created learning and use opportunities beyond the classroom as evidenced in their thinking that outside-class learning should be the main part of their English learning since this could enable them to be exposed to a far greater amount of English than the normal English classes could provide. In the case of the less successful students, some appeared to be unable to determine their own learning goals, to tackle their learning problems flexibly through exploiting the language learning resources available to them. Their investment in English learning was basically limited to attending the compulsory English classes. According to Mustafa (2009), language learning is not only most likely to occur when learners have access to the language use, but they also must have the opportunity to practise that exposure. Second language learners need opportunities to practise the language because a language is not learned by only listening to the teacher, but by practising it themselves (Baur, 1995 cited in Venzke, 2002).

It is hoped that the results of this study will not only give us an insight into how, when, why and to whom English is used but also help to explain the success or the limited success of college students in the acquisition of English language skills. This could then be used by English language learners, teachers and subject specialists in pursuit of better English language learning and teaching programmes and materials.

Research Questions

Given the above purpose, this study addressed the following research questions:

a. How is English used in Tunku Abdul Rahman University College with regard to the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing?
b. How much English is used outside the campus in particular family and other social domains?
c. Does the use of English in Tunku Abdul Rahman University College influence students’ proficiency?
d. Does the use of English outside the campus influence students’ proficiency?

Literature Review

Juliana Othman (2005) conducted a study to investigate the use of English among EFL learners in Sunway University College. She examines the patterns of English language use among the Intensive English Programme (IEP) students, their perceptions of their language abilities and training preferences at Sunway University College English Language Unit. Her study seeks to answer the following research questions: (a) what is the frequency of English language use in the EFL learners’ daily and academic activities?; (b) how do the learners perceive their English language ability in the four language skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing?; and (c) which aspect of language proficiency do the learners rank as top priority in terms of their training preferences?

The respondents in the study were 47 EFL learners taking various levels (Level 1- Beginner; Level 2- Elementary; Level 3- Pre-Intermediate and Level 4- Intermediate) of the IEP course. The ages of the participants ranged from 17 to 27 years and came from different language backgrounds and cultures such as Chinese, Korean, Japanese,
Arabic and Indonesian. A questionnaire was administered and the data obtained were analysed in terms of frequency distribution, means and rank order. Results of the survey indicated that when learners were asked to rate their English language proficiency for everyday communication and academic purposes, they ranked writing as their least competent skill. As for their training preference, the results seem to confirm that the learners regarded speaking and writing as the most important skills for them to improve on. Given the information gathered from the survey, a strong implication for this study is that speaking and writing skills should be given the highest priority in the curriculum. Doing so would provide the learners with the skills they need to pursue their academic studies. Finally, as a majority of the learners who took part in the survey intend to embark on business-related and IT studies, the syllabuses and materials used in the program could have business- and IT-related themes.

Abu Rashed Md. Mostafizar Rahman, Chan Swee Heng and Ain Nadzimah Abdullah (2007) conducted a study to analyse language choice and patterns of language use in the education domain. The objective of this study is to examine Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) undergraduates’ patterns of language choice and use in the education domain. It also investigated the relationship between the patterns of language choice and use and proficiency in languages, ethnicity, gender and discipline of study. The data of the study were collected through a questionnaire survey administered to a sample of three hundred UPM undergraduates who were selected through ‘multistage cluster sampling’. The analysis was carried out using SPSS to obtain percentage values, frequencies and correlations among the variables.

The respondents were categorised as per gender (male and female); ethnicity (Malay, Chinese, Indian and Others); and by discipline (Science and Social Science). The majority of the respondents were Malay (60.7%) followed by Chinese (29.5%), Indian (8%) and Others (1.8%). Respondents’ proficiency in languages were obtained through the use of a five-point Likert scale questionnaire with 5 = very fluent, 4 = fluent, 3 = satisfactory, 2 = unsatisfactory, and 1 = cannot use. Respondents were then categorised as having a low level of proficiency (1 – 6.7 points), mid (6.71 – 13.4 points) and high (13.41 – 20 points). The results showed that a majority of the respondents (about 89%) irrespective of ethnicity on an average reported themselves to be highly proficient in all the four basic skills in Bahasa Malaysia. And in English, over 59% of the respondents rated themselves as being mid proficient followed by 41% as high proficient.

Respondents’ choice and use of languages in the education domain was obtained through a five point Likert scale with 1 = frequently (F), 2 = sometimes (S), 3 = not applicable (NA), 4 = rarely (R) and 5 = never use (NU). Respondents marked their choice of languages in eight sub-domains of education: talk to teachers in primary school; talk to teachers in secondary school; talk to lecturers; participate in classroom peer discussion; talk to classmates of the same mother tongue; talk to classmates of different mother tongues; write assignments for tertiary studies; and read up for tertiary studies. In order to determine the relationship between variables (patterns of language choice and use and gender, ethnicity, discipline of study and language proficiency), chi-square tests were conducted.
The findings of the study indicate that there is a positive outlook in the use and development of Bahasa Malaysia and English in the education domain at tertiary level. Irrespective of ethnicity, respondents claimed high proficiency in all the four skills in Bahasa Malaysia. English was reported by the bulk of students as having mid-level proficiency. In certain sub-domains, the ethnic languages were preferred. This language behaviour illustrates that patterns of language choice and use are often tied closely to notions of identity. Language is also often regarded as an identity marker particularly seen among the Malay and Chinese respondents. However, the Indians did not show their preference for ethnic languages.

Kun Zhang (2013) conducted a study to know how and to what extent Macao residents actually use English in their daily lives by studying speakers’ English use in various settings. This study focused on university students from Mainland China who crossed the border to pursue their tertiary and postgraduate studies at the University of Macau. Questionnaire was the main method used in this study. Altogether 53 copies of the questionnaire were collected. The questionnaire data were analysed using SPSS (version 10). Analysis of the data involved frequencies and means for the items in the questionnaire. Informal follow-up interviews were also conducted with selected participants in the questionnaire research. In terms of the medium of instruction, it was found that more than 90% of the students surveyed were enrolled into the programmes that were taught in English. The Mainland students were asked to rate their ability in the four English skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing, on a 5-point Likert scale anchored by the descriptors ‘not at all’ (1) to ‘very good’ (5).

The findings of this study revealed that in terms of Mainland university students’ English proficiency in the four skills, the data showed that their self-reported proficiency in listening and reading was good and proficiency in speaking and writing was average. Their exposure to English is unbalanced, which may be reflected in their relatively lower proficiency in speaking and writing. Furthermore, Mainland students have limited opportunities to speak English in their daily lives, both inside and outside the classroom. Above all, the findings of this study contributed to the relationship between language and identity. Mainland students’ use of English more frequently with Macao local students than they do among each other, whereas local students tend to accommodate to Mainland students by speaking Putonghua. In contrast, Mainland students seldom speak English with other Mainland students even when they are supposed to have a group discussion in English in class. In this sense, Mainland students’ use of English seems to help them project a difference of identity between them and local students. Finally, it was found that if Mainland students were to improve their English skills, they would need to make more of an effort to step outside their ‘comfort zone’ and interact more frequently with local and international students and teachers through the medium of English.

Methodology

This study employed a — concurrent mixed methods design in which the quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2009). This point about a mixed methods design is of crucial value in this study, given the fact that statistical data gathered through a Likert-scale survey at the study offered information of how, when, why and to whom the students use English for effective communication and
understanding; while structured and semi-structured questions in the interviews built upon survey results and explored further the sociocultural factors that contributed to students' language use in English. This information helped explain the differences of individual student's language proficiency in English. The secondary method of qualitative approach is embedded within the predominant method of quantitative approach.

In this study, data were collected from an accessible sample of Tunku Abdul Rahman University College students, Kuala Lumpur. The participants were asked to respond to a questionnaire. Then, interviewees were selected from the survey respondents who volunteered to be interviewed. Besides, the student interviewees, teachers who were involved in teaching these students and a few of the university college administrators as well as authorities involved in making sure the components and tests of the English language courses are used correctly, gave their responses with regard to the English use and proficiency of the students as well as the effectiveness of the courses through the use of structured and semi-structured interviews. Due to constraints of time, cost and personal consideration such as travelling, the selection of students for the interview were made based on their place of residency in the Klang Valley which comprises Kuala Lumpur and its adjoining cities and towns in the state of Selangor. The quantitative and qualitative data were not combined together but were analyzed separately. However, the findings combined two forms of data to seek convergence or similarities among the results. Furthermore, the qualitative data were used to triangulate and contextualize the quantitative data. The data gathering mechanisms used in this study are as shown below (Table 1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>English Teachers</th>
<th>Non-English Teachers</th>
<th>Teachers cum Administrators</th>
<th>University College Authorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Deans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Students’ Questionnaire</td>
<td>435</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Structured and Semi-structured Interview</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Quantitative Data: Questionnaire

1.1 Sampling

This study adopted a cluster sampling method in which a certain group of students were chosen for study because they were the selected programmes required to take the English proficiency pre-test and post-test study conducted in TAR UC. At the time of the study, these groups of students (batch 2010 – 2012) were in the seventh/final semester of their two-and-a-half-year diploma programmes. Their classes were co-educational and the average age of the students was 20 years. The population for this study was from urban schools and undertaking programmes namely:

- Diploma in Business Studies (Business Administration), Faculty of Accountancy, Finance and Business - [DBU];
• Diploma in Science (Information Systems Engineering), Faculty of Applied Sciences and Computing - [DIA];
• Diploma in Technology (Mechanical and Manufacturing Engineering), Faculty of Engineering and Built Environment - [DME]; and
• Diploma in Hospitality Management (Hotel Management), Faculty of Social Science, Arts and Humanities - [DHT].

This study recruited 435 students (DBU- 125; DHT – 111; DME -100; DIA – 99). The population was further characterised by the presence of a majority of Chinese who come from different settings, different socio-economic status and who have undertaken a series of English courses (AELE1133 English Language; AELE2263 English for Communication; and AELE3413/3463/3483/3493 English for Specific Purposes), language activities and have been exposed to instruction in English during their seven-semester diploma programmes in the university college.
1.2 Instrumentation

A questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data for this study and consisted of 35 questions.

1.3 Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 22.0) was used to conduct the analyses of the survey data. The analyses for the research questions included descriptive statistics such as frequency tables, percentages; and bivariate correlations.

2. Qualitative Data

In the qualitative aspect of this mixed method research - interviews which consisted of structured, semi-structured and open-ended type questions were used to enrich the survey data.

2.1 Analysis

The interview data were transcribed into English. Analysis and interpretation of interview data were conducted through content analysis. The results were organized in relation to major themes.

Findings and Discussion

1. Description of Survey Respondents

There were 283 males (65.1%) and 152 females (34.9%). The majority of the respondents were aged around 20, and had spent approximately 11 years in learning English in schools. College majors of participants were varied and include 4 different disciplines (Business Administration [n = 125], Information Systems Engineering [n = 99], Mechanical and Manufacturing Engineering [n = 100], and Hotel Management [n = 111]). A majority of the participants were Chinese (94%), followed by Indian (2.8%), Malay (2.3%), and others (0.9%).

2. Description of Student Interviewees

The interviewees consisted of both genders: 31 males and 11 females. College majors of participants were varied and include 4 different disciplines (Business Administration [n=10], Information Systems Engineering [n= 11], Mechanical and Manufacturing Engineering [n=11], and Hotel Management [n=10]). A majority of the participants were Chinese (90.5%) followed by Indian and Malay, both 4.8%.

3. Summary of Findings Related to the Four Research Questions and Discussion

The first research question concerns the use of English in Tunku Abdul Rahman University College with regard to the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In the education domain it was found that English is used most for...
writing skill (refer to Table 2 and Figure 1). Evans & Green (2007) highlighted that writing is perhaps the most valuable language skill to possess in academia due to the fact that students’ grades are largely determined by their performance in written assignments, tests and examinations.

Furthermore, among the 6 domains: education; family; friendship; transactions; mass media; and entertainment, it was found that students use relatively more English in the education domain (refer to figure 2) compared to the other domains. This is not surprising since English is used as the medium of instruction in TAR UC. However the language must still be promoted within the campus as the results of the interviews with English and non-English as well as teachers cum administrators and university college authorities revealed that the students’ use of English inside and outside the classroom within the campus is limited. This situation allows TAR UC to be categorised as a Chinese-speaking college. The limited use of English in an English classroom may be due to the teaching methodology employed by the teachers. Some of the students’ responses in the interview indicated that they were not satisfied with the delivery of the course. They commented that the course did not allow them to speak spontaneously, there were no listening activities, textbooks used were too simple, lecturers do not give enough explanations, courses were not delivered in a fun and interactive way or methods used did not motivate them to learn or remain focused in the class. Additionally, the interview with one of the college authorities implied that the teacher should be more like a friend than an authority to help students to speak spontaneously. Teachers could provide an environment that focus on cooperative learning and student-centered learning instead of authority or teacher-centered learning. By doing so, students will have the chance to learn and indirectly this helps to motivate the students in the process of learning (Lau & H. Elias, 2011, p. 242).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>222 (51%)</td>
<td>145 (33.3%)</td>
<td>58 (13.3%)</td>
<td>8 (1.8%)</td>
<td>2 (0.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>145 (33.3%)</td>
<td>133 (30.6%)</td>
<td>107 (24.6%)</td>
<td>31 (7.1%)</td>
<td>18 (4.1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109 (38.9%)</td>
<td>133 (42.1%)</td>
<td>66 (15.2%)</td>
<td>14 (3.2%)</td>
<td>3 (0.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>134 (30.8%)</td>
<td>160 (36.8%)</td>
<td>107 (24.6%)</td>
<td>24 (5.5%)</td>
<td>10 (2.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>156 (38.9%)</td>
<td>150 (42.1%)</td>
<td>94 (21.6%)</td>
<td>28 (6.4%)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>131 (30.1%)</td>
<td>153 (35.2%)</td>
<td>108 (24.8%)</td>
<td>27 (6.2%)</td>
<td>16 (3.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>222 (51%)</td>
<td>146 (33.6%)</td>
<td>56 (12.9%)</td>
<td>11 (2.5%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>208 (47.8%)</td>
<td>148 (34%)</td>
<td>67 (15.4%)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>3 (0.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>204 (46.9%)</td>
<td>148 (34%)</td>
<td>72 (16.6%)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>2 (0.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>198 (45.5%)</td>
<td>144 (33.1%)</td>
<td>80 (18.4%)</td>
<td>10 (2.3%)</td>
<td>3 (0.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>228 (52.4%)</td>
<td>120 (27.6%)</td>
<td>64 (14.7%)</td>
<td>18 (4.1%)</td>
<td>4 (0.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301 (69.2%)</td>
<td>90 (20.7%)</td>
<td>30 (6.9%)</td>
<td>8 (1.8%)</td>
<td>6 (1.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>295 (67.8%)</td>
<td>106 (24.4%)</td>
<td>33 (7.6%)</td>
<td>1 (0.2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>232 (53.3%)</td>
<td>141 (32.4%)</td>
<td>52 (12%)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>1 (0.2%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>242 (55.6%)</td>
<td>123 (28.3%)</td>
<td>56 (12.9%)</td>
<td>11 (2.5%)</td>
<td>3 (0.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1: Frequency Distribution on All Variables on the Extent of Use of English in the Education Domain

Note: 1 – Totally in English
2 – More in English than other languages
3 – Equally in English and other languages
4 – More in other languages than English
5 – Never in English

Figure 2: Average Use of English across 6 Domains

Note: the percentage was obtained by averaging across all components of each domain.
The third research question concerns whether the use of English in Tunku Abdul Rahman University College influence students’ language proficiency. The findings of the bivariate correlations displayed that the use of English in the education domain helps to promote the listening, speaking, reading and writing proficiency skills; and thus the students’ level of English proficiency (refer to Table 3). Nevertheless, it should be noted that among the language skills, the students’ academic language use in writing is lacking. As English proficiency is an important factor in the academic progression of students in Tunku Abdul Rahman University College, a greater focus on academic writing would be helpful.

Table 3: Correlations between the Use of English in Tunku Abdul Rahman University College and Language Skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing as well as Level of Proficiency in English (Pearson r correlation coefficient)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>LISTEN (Q18)</th>
<th>Speaking (Q18)</th>
<th>Reading (Q18)</th>
<th>Writing (Q18)</th>
<th>English Proficiency (Q17)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LISTEN**</td>
<td>0.2339**</td>
<td>0.1909**</td>
<td>0.2384**</td>
<td>0.1551**</td>
<td>0.2526**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0012)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LISTEN1**</td>
<td>0.2447**</td>
<td>0.1909**</td>
<td>0.2146**</td>
<td>0.1243**</td>
<td>0.2056**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0095)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLEC**</td>
<td>0.2202**</td>
<td>0.1709**</td>
<td>0.1856**</td>
<td>0.1555**</td>
<td>0.2121**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0003)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0011)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLEC1**</td>
<td>0.1586**</td>
<td>0.1846**</td>
<td>0.1818**</td>
<td>0.1737**</td>
<td>0.1984**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0009)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0003)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLECS**</td>
<td>0.1971**</td>
<td>0.1996**</td>
<td>0.1906**</td>
<td>0.1619**</td>
<td>0.2259**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0007)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLECS1**</td>
<td>0.1356**</td>
<td>0.1968**</td>
<td>0.1600**</td>
<td>0.1330**</td>
<td>0.1699**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0047)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0008)</td>
<td>(0.0005)</td>
<td>(0.0004)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own Ethnic Group (PC1)**</td>
<td>0.1959**</td>
<td>0.2083**</td>
<td>0.1984**</td>
<td>0.1725**</td>
<td>0.2228**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0003)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLEC2**</td>
<td>0.2136**</td>
<td>0.1891**</td>
<td>0.2088**</td>
<td>0.1477**</td>
<td>0.2317**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0020)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLEC3**</td>
<td>0.1910**</td>
<td>0.1738**</td>
<td>0.1630**</td>
<td>0.0900**</td>
<td>0.2218**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0003)</td>
<td>(0.0006)</td>
<td>(0.0608)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLECS2**</td>
<td>0.2199**</td>
<td>0.1831**</td>
<td>0.1995**</td>
<td>0.1236**</td>
<td>0.2303**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0099)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKLECS3**</td>
<td>0.2067**</td>
<td>0.2162**</td>
<td>0.1827**</td>
<td>0.1031**</td>
<td>0.2444**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0315)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Ethnic Group (PC1)**</td>
<td>0.2162**</td>
<td>0.1983**</td>
<td>0.1960**</td>
<td>0.1206**</td>
<td>0.2414**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0119)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>READTEXT**</td>
<td>0.1561**</td>
<td>0.1181**</td>
<td>0.1526**</td>
<td>0.0929**</td>
<td>0.1726**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
WRITEASSIG  
0.1267** 0.0582 0.1420** 0.0761 0.0149
SURFNET  
0.0083  0.2262 0.0030  0.1129  0.7576
TAKENOTE  
0.2597** 0.2221** 0.2540** 0.2181** 0.2039**
TAKENOTE1  
0.2618** 0.2128** 0.2391** 0.2045** 0.1683**

Note: Standard errors are in parenthesis. ** significant at 5% (Ho: no-correlation). Since all variables are measured with the reverse scale [from 1 (highest) to 5 (lowest)], positive correlation indicates that improvement in one variable (e.g. LISTEN) is associated with the improvement in the other variable (e.g. Listening).

The second research question focuses on how much English is used outside the campus in particular family and other social domains while the fourth research question concerns whether the use of English outside the campus influence students’ proficiency. In this section, both these research questions are discussed simultaneously for each of the following domains:

**Family Domain**

The results of the study indicated that there is limited use of English in the domain of family (refer to Table 4 and Figure 3).

Table 4: Use of English in the Family Domain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Totally in English</th>
<th>More in English than other languages</th>
<th>Equally in English and other languages</th>
<th>More in other languages than English</th>
<th>Never in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to Dad at home (Talkdad)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>43 (9.9%)</td>
<td>154 (35.4%)</td>
<td>214 (49.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to Mom at home (Talkmom)</td>
<td>5 (1.1%)</td>
<td>6 (1.4%)</td>
<td>50 (11.5%)</td>
<td>152 (34.9%)</td>
<td>220 (50.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to parents about social topics, current events and social activities (Talksoc)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td>10 (2.3%)</td>
<td>43 (9.9%)</td>
<td>135 (31%)</td>
<td>240 (55.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to parents about education (Talkedu)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td>11 (2.5%)</td>
<td>52 (12%)</td>
<td>148 (34%)</td>
<td>217 (49.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to parents about personal issues e.g. personal/family problems (Talkpiss)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>24 (5.5%)</td>
<td>119 (27.4%)</td>
<td>275 (63.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing letters, notes and messages or sending email, texting to parents (Writepa)</td>
<td>82 (18.9%)</td>
<td>71 (16.3%)</td>
<td>89 (20.5%)</td>
<td>78 (17.9%)</td>
<td>113 (26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to brothers/sisters at home (Talksib)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td>18 (4.1%)</td>
<td>101 (23.2%)</td>
<td>177 (40.7%)</td>
<td>124 (28.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to brothers/sisters about social topics, current events and social activities (Talksiso)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td>16 (3.7%)</td>
<td>69 (15.9%)</td>
<td>173 (39.8%)</td>
<td>162 (37.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to brothers/sisters about education (Talksied)</td>
<td>8 (1.8%)</td>
<td>18 (4.1%)</td>
<td>85 (19.5%)</td>
<td>176 (40.5%)</td>
<td>140 (32.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Count</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Talking to brothers/sisters about personal issues e.g. personal/family problems (Talksiiss)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td>11 (2.5%)</td>
<td>65 (14.9%)</td>
<td>156 (35.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Writing letters, notes and messages or sending email, texting to brothers/sisters (Writesi)</td>
<td>103 (23.7%)</td>
<td>91 (20.9%)</td>
<td>100 (23%)</td>
<td>81 (18.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Talking to your relatives at home (Talkrel)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>10 (2.3%)</td>
<td>50 (11.5%)</td>
<td>158 (36.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Talking to relatives about social topics, current events and social activities (Talkrelso)</td>
<td>8 (1.8%)</td>
<td>12 (2.8%)</td>
<td>38 (8.7%)</td>
<td>153 (35.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Talking to relatives about education (Talkreled)</td>
<td>10 (2.3%)</td>
<td>12 (2.8%)</td>
<td>44 (10.1%)</td>
<td>163 (37.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Talking to relatives about personal issues e.g. personal/family problems (Talkrelis)</td>
<td>8 (1.8%)</td>
<td>10 (2.3%)</td>
<td>37 (8.5%)</td>
<td>133 (30.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Writing letters, notes and messages or sending email, texting to relatives (writerei)</td>
<td>96 (22.1%)</td>
<td>70 (16.1%)</td>
<td>91 (20.9%)</td>
<td>97 (22.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the bivariate correlations showed that there is a positive significant relationship between the use of language at home and language proficiency in the 4 skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (refer to Table 5). This showed that the language spoken at home plays an important role in improving the language skills and language proficiency of students (Blakely-Armitage & Vink, 2015). Hence, if parents are willing to support their children's English learning, there will be a positive impact on the children's English language development (Yi-Chien Lee, 2008; Li, 2007; Ghazali Bin Mustapha and Azadeh Asgari, 2011).
Table 5: Correlation between the Use of English in the Family Domain and Language Skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing as well as Level of Proficiency in English (Pearson $r$ correlation coefficient)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Listening (Q18)</th>
<th>Speaking (Q18)</th>
<th>Reading (Q18)</th>
<th>Writing (Q18)</th>
<th>English Proficiency (Q17)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TALKDAD</td>
<td>0.3170**</td>
<td>0.4038**</td>
<td>0.2722**</td>
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<td>TALKMOM</td>
<td>0.3488**</td>
<td>0.4081**</td>
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<td>TALKSOC</td>
<td>0.3348**</td>
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<td>TALKEDU</td>
<td>0.3483**</td>
<td>0.3834**</td>
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<tr>
<td>TALKPISS</td>
<td>0.3562**</td>
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<td>WRITEPA</td>
<td>0.2969**</td>
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<td>TALKSIB</td>
<td>0.1740**</td>
<td>0.2642**</td>
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<tr>
<td>TALKSISO</td>
<td>0.2255**</td>
<td>0.3197**</td>
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<td>0.3093**</td>
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<td>TALKSIED</td>
<td>0.2100**</td>
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<td>0.2456**</td>
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<td>TALKSISS</td>
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<td>0.2966**</td>
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<td>WRITESI</td>
<td>0.1536**</td>
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<td>0.1617**</td>
<td>0.1601**</td>
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<td>TALKREL</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKRELSO</td>
<td>0.3138**</td>
<td>0.3596**</td>
<td>0.2870**</td>
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<tr>
<td>TALKRELED</td>
<td>0.3323**</td>
<td>0.3561**</td>
<td>0.3223**</td>
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<tr>
<td>TALKRELIS</td>
<td>0.3283**</td>
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<td>WRITEREL</td>
<td>0.2238**</td>
<td>0.2605**</td>
<td>0.1960**</td>
<td>0.2186**</td>
<td>0.2787**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard errors are in parenthesis. ** significant at 5% (Ho: no-correlation). Since all variables are measured with the reversed scale [from 1 (highest) to 5 (lowest)], positive correlation indicates that improvement in one variable (e.g. TALKDAD) is associated with the improvement in the other variable (e.g. Listening).

Friendship Domain

The results of the study indicated that the use of English in the domain of friendship depends on intimacy and ethnicity (refer to Table 6 and Figure 4).
Table 6: Use of English in the Friendship Domain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Talking to friends of own ethnic about social topics, current events and social activities (Talkfsoc)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
<td>24 (5.5%)</td>
<td>116 (26.7%)</td>
<td>212 (48.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Talking to friends of own ethnic about education (Talkedu)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
<td>26 (6%)</td>
<td>114 (26.2%)</td>
<td>207 (47.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Talking to friends of own ethnic about personal issues e.g. personal/family problems (Talkfiss)</td>
<td>8 (1.8%)</td>
<td>21 (4.8%)</td>
<td>81 (18.6%)</td>
<td>202 (46.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Writing letters, notes and messages or sending email and texting to friends of own ethnic (Writefri)</td>
<td>123 (28.3%)</td>
<td>141 (32.4%)</td>
<td>106 (24.4%)</td>
<td>53 (12.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Talking to friends of other ethnic about social topics, current events and social activities (Talkfsoc1)</td>
<td>58 (13.3%)</td>
<td>149 (34.3%)</td>
<td>151 (34.7%)</td>
<td>69 (15.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Talking to friends of other ethnic about education (Talkedu1)</td>
<td>63 (14.5%)</td>
<td>156 (35.9%)</td>
<td>149 (34.3%)</td>
<td>63 (14.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Talking to friends of other ethnic about personal issues e.g. personal/family problems (Talkfiss1)</td>
<td>57 (13.1%)</td>
<td>152 (34.9%)</td>
<td>143 (32.9%)</td>
<td>76 (17.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Writing letters, notes and messages or sending email and texting to friends of other ethnic (Writefri1)</td>
<td>167 (38.4%)</td>
<td>150 (34.5%)</td>
<td>89 (20.5%)</td>
<td>28 (6.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Talking to neighbours of your own ethnic group (Talknei)</td>
<td>15 (3.4%)</td>
<td>40 (9.2%)</td>
<td>87 (20%)</td>
<td>119 (27.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Talking to neighbours of other ethnic groups (Talknei1)</td>
<td>67 (15.4%)</td>
<td>113 (26%)</td>
<td>161 (37%)</td>
<td>69 (15.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4: Frequency Distribution on All Variables on the Extent of Use of English in the Friendship Domain

Friends of own ethnic groups

[Bar chart showing frequency distribution]
Furthermore, the results of the bivariate correlations showed there is a relationship between the use of English in the friendship domain and language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as level of proficiency in English (refer to Table 7). This showed that the use of English in the friendship domain influences not only the students’ listening, reading, speaking and writing English proficiency skills respectively but also the overall level of proficiency in English.

Table 7: Correlation between the Use of English in the Friendship Domain and Language Skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing as well as Level of Proficiency in English (Pearson $r$ correlation coefficient)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Talking to friends of own ethnic about social topics, current events, and social activities</th>
<th>Level of proficiency in English</th>
<th>How well can you speak English</th>
<th>How well can you read English</th>
<th>How well can you write English</th>
<th>How well can you understand English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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<td>.354**</td>
<td>.301**</td>
<td>.273**</td>
<td>.353**</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>434</td>
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<td>435</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>433</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Talking to friends of own ethnic about education</th>
<th>Level of proficiency in English</th>
<th>How well can you speak English</th>
<th>How well can you read English</th>
<th>How well can you write English</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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<td>.308**</td>
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<td>.351**</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Talking to friends of own ethnic about personal issues e.g. personal/family problems</th>
<th>Level of proficiency in English</th>
<th>How well can you speak English</th>
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<td>.344**</td>
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<td>.347**</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Transactions Domain

The results of the study indicated that the use of English in the domain of transactions confirmed Fishman’s (1972 cited in Hartmut Haberland, 2005) domain analysis which suggests that language choices in multilingual settings are far from random. It is assumed that three elements: interlocutor, occasion and topic are involved when making a choice of language, and these elements make it possible to choose the appropriate language in a certain context (refer to Table 8 and Figure 5).
### Table 8: Use of English in the Transactions Domain

<table>
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<th></th>
<th>Totally in English</th>
<th>More in English than other languages</th>
<th>Equally in English and other languages</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Talking to bus conductor/taxi driver of your own ethnic group (Talkbctd)</td>
<td>15 (3.4%)</td>
<td>43 (9.9%)</td>
<td>94 (21.6%)</td>
<td>154 (35.4%)</td>
<td>129 (29.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Talking to sales assistants of your own ethnic group in the market or shops (Talksale)</td>
<td>38 (8.7%)</td>
<td>76 (17.5%)</td>
<td>129 (29.7%)</td>
<td>118 (27.1%)</td>
<td>74 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Talking to government officers, bank employees or doctors of your own ethnic group (Talkgov)</td>
<td>55 (12.6%)</td>
<td>96 (22.1%)</td>
<td>131 (30.1%)</td>
<td>95 (21.8%)</td>
<td>58 (13.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Talking to bus conductor/taxi driver of other ethnic groups (Talkbctd1)</td>
<td>52 (12%)</td>
<td>112 (25.7%)</td>
<td>154 (35.4%)</td>
<td>90 (20.7%)</td>
<td>27 (6.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Talking to sales assistants of other ethnic groups in the market or shops (Talksale1)</td>
<td>67 (15.4%)</td>
<td>147 (33.8%)</td>
<td>153 (35.2%)</td>
<td>61 (14%)</td>
<td>7 (1.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Talking to government officers, bank employees or doctors of other ethnic groups (Talkgov1)</td>
<td>82 (18.9%)</td>
<td>161 (37%)</td>
<td>131 (30.1%)</td>
<td>52 (12%)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Writing business letters for example buying or ordering products (Writebusi)</td>
<td>170 (39.1%)</td>
<td>129 (29.7%)</td>
<td>91 (20.9%)</td>
<td>32 (7.4%)</td>
<td>9 (2.1%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5: Frequency Distribution on All Variables on the Extent of Use of English in the Transactions Domain**

![Chart showing frequency distribution](chart.png)
Moreover, the results of the bivariate correlations showed that there is a relationship between the use of English in the transactions domain and language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as level of proficiency in English (refer to Table 9). This showed that the use of English in the transactions domain influences not only the students’ listening, reading, speaking and writing English proficiency skills respectively but also the overall level of proficiency in English.

Table 9: Correlation between the Use of English in the Transactions Domain and Language Skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing as well as Level of Proficiency in English (Pearson \( r \) correlation coefficient)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Listening (Q18)</th>
<th>Speaking (Q18)</th>
<th>Reading (Q18)</th>
<th>Writing (Q18)</th>
<th>English Proficiency (Q17)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TALKBCTD</strong></td>
<td>0.1416**</td>
<td>0.1999**</td>
<td>0.1022**</td>
<td>0.0966**</td>
<td>0.2209**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0031)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0331)</td>
<td>(0.0441)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TALKSALE</strong></td>
<td>0.1874**</td>
<td>0.2390**</td>
<td>0.2060**</td>
<td>0.1262**</td>
<td>0.2663**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0084)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TALKGOV</strong></td>
<td>0.1864**</td>
<td>0.2541**</td>
<td>0.2256**</td>
<td>0.1606**</td>
<td>0.2727**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0001)</td>
<td>(0.0008)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TALKBCTDI</strong></td>
<td>0.0834</td>
<td>0.1467**</td>
<td>0.0988**</td>
<td>0.1124**</td>
<td>0.1020**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0830)</td>
<td>(0.0022)</td>
<td>(0.0395)</td>
<td>(0.0190)</td>
<td>(0.0336)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TALKSALEI</strong></td>
<td>0.1415**</td>
<td>0.2070**</td>
<td>0.1857**</td>
<td>0.1251**</td>
<td>0.1679**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mass Media Domain

The results of the study indicated that students used most ‘equally in English and other languages’ the domain of mass media (refer to Table 10 and Figure 6).

Table 10: Use of English in the Mass Media Domain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Totally in English</th>
<th>More in English than other languages</th>
<th>Equally in English and other languages</th>
<th>More in other languages than English</th>
<th>Never in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Listening to news on television or radio (News)</td>
<td>31 (7.1%)</td>
<td>61 (14%)</td>
<td>192 (44.1%)</td>
<td>100 (23%)</td>
<td>51 (11.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Reading the newspaper (Readnews)</td>
<td>45 (10.3%)</td>
<td>30 (6.9%)</td>
<td>115 (26.4%)</td>
<td>152 (34.9%)</td>
<td>93 (21.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reading magazines for specific or general information (Magazine)</td>
<td>46 (10.6%)</td>
<td>43 (9.9%)</td>
<td>156 (35.9%)</td>
<td>132 (30.3%)</td>
<td>58 (13.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Surfing the internet for specific or general information (Surfnet1)</td>
<td>85 (19.5%)</td>
<td>116 (26.7%)</td>
<td>174 (40%)</td>
<td>49 (11.3%)</td>
<td>11 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Frequency Distribution on All Variables on the Extent of Use of English in the Mass Media Domain
Besides, the results of the bivariate correlations showed that there is a relationship between the use of English in the mass media domain and language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as level of proficiency in English (refer to Table 11). This showed that the use of English in the mass media domain influences not only the students’ listening, reading, speaking and writing English proficiency skills respectively but also the overall level of proficiency in English.

Table 11: Correlation between the Use of English in the Mass Media Domain and Language Skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing as well as Level of Proficiency in English (Pearson \( r \) correlation coefficient)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Listening (Q18)</th>
<th>Speaking (Q18)</th>
<th>Reading (Q18)</th>
<th>Writing (Q18)</th>
<th>English Proficiency (Q17)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEWS</td>
<td>0.4334** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.4402** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.3607** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.3114** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.4291** (0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>READNEWS</td>
<td>0.4444** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.4394** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.3612** (0.0001)</td>
<td>0.3481** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.4024** (0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAGAZINE</td>
<td>0.4316** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.4352** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.3979** (0.0001)</td>
<td>0.3456** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.3715** (0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SURFNET1</td>
<td>0.3629** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.3276** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.3116** (0.0001)</td>
<td>0.2972** (0.0000)</td>
<td>0.2978** (0.0000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard errors are in parenthesis. ** significant at 5% (Ho: no-correlation). Since all variables are measured with the reversed scale [from 1 (highest) to 5 (lowest)], positive correlation indicates that improvement in one variable (e.g. READNEWS) is associated with the improvement in the other variable (e.g. Listening).

**Entertainment Domain**

The results of the study indicated that students used most ‘equally in English and other languages’ in the domain of entertainment (refer to Table 12 and Figure 7).

Table 12: Use of English in the Entertainment Domain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Totally in English</th>
<th>More in English than other languages</th>
<th>Equally in English and other languages</th>
<th>More in other languages than English</th>
<th>Never in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Watch movies, television programmes or shows on DVDs (Watch)</td>
<td>16 (3.7%)</td>
<td>61 (14%)</td>
<td>209 (48%)</td>
<td>105 (24.1%)</td>
<td>44 (10.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Listen to radio programmes or songs on CDs/MP3 (Radio)</td>
<td>21 (4.8%)</td>
<td>61 (14%)</td>
<td>212 (48.7%)</td>
<td>101 (23.2%)</td>
<td>40 (9.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Read books, magazines, comics, jokes for relaxation (Relax)</td>
<td>31 (7.1%)</td>
<td>46 (10.6%)</td>
<td>172 (39.5%)</td>
<td>121 (27.8%)</td>
<td>65 (14.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 1 – Totally in English
2 – More in English than other languages
3 – Equally in English and other languages
4 – More in other languages than English
5 – Never in English
With regard to the results of the bivariate correlations, there is a significant positive relationship between the use of English in the entertainment domain and language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as level of proficiency in English (refer to Table 13). This showed that the use of English in the entertainment domain influences not only the students’ listening, reading, speaking and writing English proficiency skills respectively but also the overall level of proficiency in English.

Table 13: Correlation between the Use of English in the Entertainment Domain and Language Skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing as well as Level of Proficiency in English (Pearson r correlation coefficient)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Listening (Q18)</th>
<th>Speaking (Q18)</th>
<th>Reading (Q18)</th>
<th>Writing (Q18)</th>
<th>English Proficiency (Q17)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WATCH</td>
<td>0.3354**</td>
<td>0.3225**</td>
<td>0.2988**</td>
<td>0.2222**</td>
<td>0.3078**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RADIO</td>
<td>0.3525**</td>
<td>0.3384**</td>
<td>0.2993**</td>
<td>0.2028**</td>
<td>0.3397**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELAX</td>
<td>0.3957**</td>
<td>0.4322**</td>
<td>0.3558**</td>
<td>0.3162**</td>
<td>0.3846**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENJOY</td>
<td>0.4071**</td>
<td>0.4275**</td>
<td>0.3773**</td>
<td>0.3294**</td>
<td>0.4032**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SURFNET2</td>
<td>0.3368**</td>
<td>0.3137**</td>
<td>0.2664**</td>
<td>0.2385**</td>
<td>0.2856**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
<td>(0.0000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard errors are in parenthesis. ** significant at 5% (Ho: no-correlation). Since all variables are measured with the reversed scale [from 1 (highest) to 5 (lowest)], positive correlation indicates that...
improvement in one variable (e.g. SURFNET2) is associated with the improvement in the other variable (e.g. Listening).

To sum up this section, the findings showed that the use of English is not confined to the education domain but other social domains such as family, friends, and the community. This reflects literacy as a social practice that views language learning as ideological and that learning a language is best handled by participating in meaningful interactions (Street, 2009). Besides, it was found that writing, reading and listening proficiency skills influence on the students’ overall level of English proficiency. This proves that a balanced development of English skills is very important (Peng Shiyong, 2014). Finally, with regard to language use, the results of the interview with students revealed that language use differs substantially across environments (e.g. at home, at school, with friends, and the community etc.). This finding is supported by Fishman who suggests that one language is more likely to be appropriate in some specific contexts than another (Fasold, 1984 cited in Annika Hohenthal, 2003).

4. Educational Implications

The findings of this research can have implications for the ESL classroom as well as in pedagogy.

• The limited use of English in the classroom suggests that teachers should consider more interesting innovations in second language education such as integrating language and content to motivate students to learn and use the language. Peregoy and Boyle (2001 cited in J. N. Moghadam & S. M. Reza Adel, 2011) suggest that reading and writing as well as speaking and listening should be integral parts of all language classroom activities because all these processes interact with one another.

• There needs to be a paradigm shift in teachers’ and students’ conception of second/foreign language learning, literacy as a ‘social practice’ calls for a relaxed, non-threatening, fun and meaningful learning environment. Students interact socially and engage in cooperative learning (Lara & Rosado, 2008).

Conclusion

As made clear from the research, students achieve higher language levels when they have adequate exposure and practice to using English inside and outside the classroom setting. Although teachers have no control over the quantity and quality of language that their students have been exposed to in the past, they can affect future language development by increasing the quantity and quality of language used in the classroom as well as outside the classroom within the school environment.

Recommendations for Future Studies

It is suggested that a longitudinal qualitative study is necessary to examine learners' language use in English in various situations both inside and outside class. Students' actual frequency of language use could be observed and counted in school and in social lives. It would also prove fruitful to examine their English language use through the responses from communication partners such as their peers to examine the issue in depth in a specific situation.
Last but not least, the study should be extended to other public and private universities or colleges using a larger number of participants so that a more comprehensive picture is given of students' difficulties and preferences in various communication contexts. Factors that could be more closely examined include the relationship between age, gender, background, personality, and students' intercultural communication experiences.
References


Street, B. K. (2009). The future of ‘social literacies’. In M. Bayham & M. Prinsloo (Eds.), *The future of literacy studies* (pp. 21-37). Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillan.


Why not Literature: An Investigation into University Teachers’ Perspectives of Teaching English through Literature in the EFL Classroom

Wan-Lun Lee, Fu Jen Catholic University, Taiwan

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Though literature has been viewed as one of the best authentic materials in foreign language instruction since the late 1980s, and its linguistic, cultural, cognitive and aesthetic benefits have been confirmed and supported by a growing amount of research, it still plays a marginal role in many EFL/ESL textbooks, classrooms, and curricula, and is seldom included in TESOL/TEFL courses and programs. In Taiwan, for example, literature has been reserved only for the advanced literary courses for English majors and kept off the majority of university English courses for non-English majors. To explore the reasons, concerns, and problems that might hinder a university English teacher from using literature in the language classroom, the current study investigated these teachers’ perceptions and experience of teaching English through literature by means of a questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. The major findings show that language teachers’ lack of confidence in handling literary texts as well as their perceptions of non-English-major students’ needs for a more functional, practical kind of English led to their reluctance to use literature while literature teachers’ feeling of uncertainty about how to turn a piece of literature into a good language lesson made them choose to rely heavily on ELT textbooks, most of which have very few literary texts, when they teach English to non-English majors; 2) literature teachers were more enthusiastic about learning how to use literature in ELT than language teachers. It is hoped that these findings will provide valuable insights into teacher development and training in this area.

Keywords: literature and language learning
Introduction

Why use literature in the language-learning classroom is a controversial question that remains in the forefront of discussion and debate today. Although literature, whether the classics or any other fictional, imaginative work written in English, has played a prominent role in the English curricula of many non-English-speaking countries over the past few decades, the questioning of the relationship between language and literature teaching has never come to an end. In the sixties and seventies, in fact, the emphasis in modern linguistics on the spoken more than on the written language led to a distrust of “what was seen as essentially a written, crystallized form,” which severely challenged the place of literature in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language (Collie & Slater, 1987, p. 2). It was a time, as Hill points out, when there was “a distinct reaction against the use of any literary English at all in the classroom” (1986, p. 7).

However, “keeping literature off the syllabus” has produced “a certain amount of unease as well,” so since the 1980s, the pendulum has swung the other way and the use of literature in language teaching has attracted a renewed interest among ESL/EFL teachers and researchers (Collie & Slater, 1987, p. 2). Among the main reasons for using literature in ELT, motivation is perhaps “the most important justification for including literature on the syllabus” (Hill, 1986, p. 9). In the reading of an exciting or moving literary text, learners, stimulated by their curiosity, may have a strong desire to read on and on, more and more into the text, despite linguistic difficulties, in order to know what happens next, so if teachers can make a judicious choice of the text to read, literature can be used as “a vital support” to generate “greater interest, motivation and involvement” in the language classroom (Carter & Long, 1991, p. 4).

Another important reason for including literature in the ESL/EFL curriculum is that it provides valuable authentic material for developing skills and knowledge of the target language. As Lazar points out, since literature is not written for any specific purpose of teaching a language, it is one of the best authentic materials in foreign language instruction to supplement “the inevitably restricted input of the classroom” (1993, p. 17). For one thing, literary works present special challenges that demand readers put specific reading strategies into practice (e.g. the prediction or inference of meaning from the linguistic or situational context), which are also useful in their reading of other kinds of material (Hill, 1986). For another, in the reading of literature, learners can be exposed to language that is genuine, unmodified, and undistorted, and thus gain “additional familiarity” with different forms or conventions of the written mode (e.g., irony, argument, narration), which may help “broaden and enrich their own writing skills” (Collie & Slater, 1987, p. 4). Moreover, the compressed or figurative quality of literary language can produce “unexpected density of meaning” or cast new light on common use of language, which may extend learners’ knowledge and awareness of the range of language itself (Collie & Slater, 1987, p. 5).

In addition to the linguistic benefits, using literary texts in the language classroom can also help to “teach culture” (Brumfit, 1985, p. 120) and even provides “a wider educational function” in the classroom (Lazar, 1993, p. 19). On the one hand, although it is true that the world depicted in a literary work is a created one, yet literature still offers “the occasion for genuine exploration of the cultural assumptions
of the target culture” (Gajdusek, 1988). Thus, it can still be seen as a complement to other materials used to increase language learners’ insight into the country where that language is spoken (Collie & Slater, 1987). On the other hand, when asked to examine and respond personally to the values and attitudes in literary texts, learners get the chance to foster their cognitive and aesthetic maturation (Gregg & Pacheco, 1981) as well as develop their ability to make critical and mature judgments (Stern, 1991). Gradually, they will become more and more confident in their ability to sharpen and value their own response to the text and to “relate it to the values and traditions of their own society” (Lazar, 1993, p. 19).

Surprisingly, with so many good reasons for using literature in ELT, it stills plays a marginal role in many EFL/ESL textbooks, classrooms, and curricula, and is even seldom included in TESOL/TEFL courses and programs. In Taiwan, for example, literature has been reserved only for the advanced literary courses for English majors and kept off the majority of university English courses for non-English majors. As a result, students not majoring in English have long been deprived of the chance of learning English through literature and its potential linguistic, cultural, cognitive and aesthetic benefits confirmed and supported by a growing amount of research. This study investigated these university English teachers’ perceptions and experience of teaching English through literature by conducting a questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews and then analyzing and comparing the qualitative and quantitative data to explore the reasons, concerns, and problems that might hinder these teachers from using literature in the language classroom and to examine whether any kind of special training is considered needed to help them exploit this resource confidently and effectively.

Research Method and Procedure

The aim of this study was to investigate university English teachers’ perceptions and experience of using literature with non-English majors in the EFL classroom.

Three research questions were proposed:
1. What are the concerns and problems perceived to influence university English teachers’ decision to introduce literature into the language classroom?
2. How can literature be used in English language courses for non-English majors?
3. What can help university English teachers use literary texts with non-English majors effectively?

With the attempt to fully involve and explore university English teachers' views and investigate these research questions thoroughly, a mixed methods approach for data collection and analysis was adopted in this study to allow qualitative and quantitative data to “support and inform each other” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 310). More specifically, a questionnaire survey was conducted to collect quantitative data, and semi-structured one-on-one interviews were employed for the collection of qualitative data, so that words can be used to “add meaning to numbers” and numbers used to “add precision to words” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 45).

20 Taiwanese teachers with the experience of teaching English language courses for non-English majors at different universities in Taiwan, including six part-time and
three full-time lecturers, two part-time and six full-time assistant professors, and three full-time associate professors, participated in this study. Eight of them were literature teachers with their first degree qualification in English literature while the rest were language teachers majoring in English language teaching, linguistics, or translation. They all filled in the questionnaire but only five of them indicated at the end of the questionnaire that they would like to be interviewed by the researcher.

The questionnaire survey included 25 questions divided into three sections: academic background, perceptions of using literature in ELT, and experience of using literature in ELT, while the interview was conducted by the researcher to investigate whether there were any other concerns or problems about the use of literature not mentioned in the questionnaire survey and to give the interviewee the chance to demonstrate how to use a literary text provided by the researcher in his or her teaching of a class of non-English majors. After the data had been collected by means of these two instruments, the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data began and was completed with the help of SurveyMonkey and NVivo.

Findings and Discussion

Though it is expected that more Taiwanese university teachers may be recruited to take part in this study, the preliminary findings from the data collected from the twenty participants so far can still be summarized below to answer the three research questions.

Q1. What are the concerns and problems perceived to influence university English teachers’ decision to introduce literature into the language classroom?

For language teachers, their lack of knowledge of and confidence in handling literary texts as well as their perceptions of non-English-major students’ needs for a more functional, practical kind of English led to their reluctance to use literature in the language classroom. For literature teachers, their feeling of uncertainty about how to turn a piece of literature into a good language lesson made them choose to use ELT textbooks with non-English majors even though they were aware of the lack of literary texts in most of these books.

Q2. How can literature be used in English language courses for non-English majors?

Language teachers regarded literature as just another resource in ELT, so they would teach a literary text in the same way as they teach a non-literary one. Literature teachers would share background information related to the literary work as well as their literary knowledge of the genre with non-English majors in a way that had no significant difference from teaching English majors.

Q3. What can help university English teachers use literary texts with non-English majors effectively?

Both literature and language teachers agreed that some special training in the teaching of literature would be needed to make the use of literature with non-English majors more effective and successful, but it was obvious that literature teachers were more
enthusiastic about learning how to use literature in ELT from seminars and workshops than language teachers.

**Conclusion**

Considering the great potentials and benefits literature may offer to enrich second or foreign language learning, literature should not only be regarded as the ultimate aim of English instruction for English majors but should also become an integral and integrated component of the language curriculum for non-English majors. The role of the teacher in this ‘enrichment,’ as Hill argues, is an ‘intricate’ but crucial one (1986, p. 108). In the process of integrating literature and language learning, the teacher has to make a balance between them, so that the use of literature can ‘serve the functions of teaching language’ successfully (Aebersold & Field, 1997, p. 156), while the essential pleasure and special enjoyment in reading literature will not be ‘lost in the more instrumental manipulation of a text for language learning’ (Carter & Long, 1991, p. 8). Once the right balance is found and achieved, as Hill claims, students can thus gain both ‘pleasure and profit,’ ‘wisdom and delight’ from their study of literature, both inside and outside the language classroom (1986, p. 108).

It is hoped that there will be more Taiwanese university English teachers taking part in this study, and that the research results may help identify the concerns about and problems of present practices in using literature with non-English majors at Taiwanese universities and then provide EFL university teachers with useful resources and training needed to overcome their fears or difficulties, so that all university students, either English or non-English majors, can get the opportunity to enjoy and benefit from learning English through literature in the EFL classroom.
References


Abstract
Appraisal has been employed in previous foreign studies focusing on corpus-informed analysis and comparison of news reports. However, the previous work in Thailand has inadequately been concerned with appraisal of news report comparison among news agencies, and corpus analysis. Thus, this paper aims to compare media evaluation of Yingluck Shinawatra and Suthep Thaugsuban between two Thai news agencies. Political online news in Thailand written in English from Thai news agency, Bangkok Post and The Nation, published from 31 October, to 31 December 2013 were compiled. Suthep was selected because of getting high frequency in keyness, and playing key role. Collocations, connotations, and Appraisal (Martin & White, 2005) involving attitudinal positioning: judgement, were employed in this study.

The results in Bangkok Post showed more negative attitudes towards Suthep, and Yingluck including impropriety, incapacity, inveracity, and untenacity. In addition, the results revealed negative attitudes towards Yingluck: inveracity, incapacity, untenacity, and impropriety. The results focusing on negative attitudes towards Suthep uncovered that Suthep’s impropriety got the highest attention. However, the results dealt with negative attitudes towards Yingluck showed that Yingluck’s inveracity got the highest attention.

The Nation expressed more negative attitudes towards Yingluck: untenacity, inveracity, incapacity, and impropriety. The results related to negative attitudes towards Yingluck showed that Yingluck’s untenacity got the highest attention. However, the results concerned with negative attitudes towards Suthep uncovered that Suthep’s incapacity got the highest attention. In addition, the results uncovered more various types of negative attitudes towards Yingluck including 4 types than Suthep including 2 types.

Keywords: Corpus Linguistics, Appraisal, Discourse Analysis, Yingluck Shinawatra, Suthep Thaugsuban, political conflicts in Thailand
Introduction

After investigating the previous studies, Appraisal framework has been found in many text types including news (Birot 2008; White, 1998), email discussion (Don, 2007), wine tasting notes (Hommerberg, 2011), the student texts, and published research papers (Hood, 2004), and legal texts (Körner, 2000; Miller, 2002). In addition, the previous work has dealt with the comparison of news reports among various news agencies (Birot, 2008).

In addition, corpus informed approach has been employed in some previous studies including computer based data compilation, tagged data, and the use of concordancing tool, (Don, 2007; Hommerberg, 2011).

The previous research has focused on attitudinal positioning including affect, judgement, and appreciation (Birot (2008; Hommerberg, 2011; Hood, 2004; White, 1998). In addition, the previous studies have been concerned with dialogistic positioning including engagement, and negotiation such as persuasion, argumentation, and expository (Don, 2007; Hommerberg, 2011; Körner, 2000; Miller, 2002; White, 1998). Besides, the previous work has involved intertextual positioning including reported speech (White, 1998).

However, the previous work in Thailand has been inadequately concerned with appraisal of news report comparison among news agencies and little attention has been paid to the analysis of media attitudes towards political conflicts in Thailand by employing corpus analysis, and Appraisal framework. Thus, this paper aims to compare media evaluation of Yingluck Shinawatra and Suthep Thaugsuban between two Thai news agencies. It has implication in providing guidance for using corpus informed analysis of evaluation in text.

The concept of Appraisal framework

The Appraisal framework conducted by Professor James Martin means a particular approach to exploring, describing and explaining the way language is used to evaluate, to adopt stances, to construct textual personals and to manage interpersonal positionings and relationships. (White, 2012) Appraisal focuses on attitudinal positioning, and dialogistic positioning.

This paper focused on attitudinal positioning, Martin (2003), and Martin et al. (2005) containing affect, judgement, and appreciation.

1. Affect
Affect can be classified as four main types:

1.1 Happiness and unhappiness
Happiness contains enjoy, happy, and loving. Unhappiness includes sad, hate, and dislike.

1.2 Desire and undesire
Desire includes want, and request; and undesire contains not want.
1.3 Security and insecurity
Security involves confidence, and trust. Insecurity includes many terms such as anxious and astonished.

1.4 Satisfaction and dissatisfaction
Satisfaction contains attentive, compliment, reward. In terms of dissatisfaction, it contains many terms including fidget, castigate, and angry.

2. Judgement
Judgement can be divided into five main types:

2.1 Normality and abnormality
Normality focusing on how special contains lucky, fortunate, and charmed; and abnormality includes unlucky, hapless, star-crossed, and odd.

2.2 Capacity and incapacity
Capacity contains powerful, healthy, and educated; and incapacity focuses on mild, weak, and uneducated.

2.3 Tenacity and untenacity
Tenacity focuses on how dependable containing brave, heroic, and patient. Untenacity involves timid, cowardly, and impatient.

2.4 Veracity and inveracity
Veracity is concerned with truth and how honest such as truthful, honest, and credible; and inveracity: dishonest, deceitful, and lying.

2.5 Propriety and impropriety
Propriety deals with ethics contains good, moral, and ethical: impropriety focuses on bad, immoral, and evil.

3. Appreciation
Appreciation can be divided into three main subtypes:

3.1 Reaction
Positive terms involve arresting, loving, and beautiful. In addition, negative terms deal with dull, plain, and ugly.

3.2 Composition
Positive terms are concerned with balanced, harmonious, and simple. Besides, negative terms relate to unbalanced, discordant, and extravagant.

3.3 Valuation
Positive terms contain challenging, deep, and innovative. Negative terms include shallow, insignificant, conservative, and reactionary.

Research methodology
According to Baker (2006, pp. 10-12, 2011, pp. 21-24), and Channell (2003, pp. 39-55), Corpus has strengths in terms of investigating semantic prosody, decreasing researchers’ certain cognitive and possibly ideological bias, linguistic intuitions and chancy, systematic observation of naturally occurring data, and the test of hypothesis. Due to these strengths, corpus is employed in this study.

The data in this study were in the form of online newspaper because of consumers’ habit and the research methodological benefits. Globescan (2006, cited by Sriwimon & Jimarkon, 2014), and Pew Research Center (2009, cited by Sriwimon et al., 2014) explain that online news appears to reach a wider audience, and readers are keener online than in any other media. Nowadays, news consumers’ habits have changed dramatically because readers tend to get their news from online news sources rather than newspapers. In terms of research methodological benefits, News websites were used as the data source for corpus compilation because they provided downloadable archives of news articles. Using data from online news sources was methodologically appropriate for this study and was more suitable for a computer-assisted analysis than the printed sources. The data from online newspapers were easily saved and the form of text file and easily used with antconc 3.2.1 which was the monolingual concordancing tool required in this study.

In terms of the news agencies, the data were selected from English daily newspaper in Thailand including Bangkok Post, and The Nation which were two main English daily newspapers in Thailand. Bangkok Post was selected because it is the English-language oldest and longest daily newspaper published in Thailand. The first issue was sold on 1 August 1946. In addition, it portrays as being free from media censorship by critical reporting and commenting on controversial topics such as the impact of dam construction on farmers corruption in the international rice trade, and political controversies surrounding the Thaksin family (Bangkok Post, 2015a, 2015b). Besides, The Nation is English daily newspaper in Thailand founded in 1971. It is free from media censorship. After Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra was elected in 2001, companies associated with Thaksin started discontinuing advertisements in The Nation, in order to put pressure on the newspaper for more favorable reporting. However, The Nation reported on the advertising cuts and still criticized Thaksin’s government (The Nation, 27 February 2008; The Nation and Bangkok Post newspapers in Thailand, 2010).

This paper is a part of pilot study of my dissertation so the data has been collected for two months from 31st October to 31st December 2013. This period was the beginning of political conflicts in Thailand between Yingluck’s government and the opponent. In terms of participant, Yingluck Shinawatra and Suthep Thaugsuban was selected in this study because they played key role in these conflicts as the leader of the government and the leader of protesters respectively and got high frequency of wordlist. Bangkok Post contained 995 tokens of Yingluck and 1311 tokens of Suthep. The Nation included 867 tokens of Yingluck and 716 files, and 867 tokens of Suthep Thaugsuban.

The analysis parts contained many steps: appraising item categorization, exploring media evaluation, and appraising item frequency comparison. Appraising items were categorized concerned with judgement as mentioned in Martin (2003), and Martin et
al. (2005). In terms of exploring media evaluation, go to the concordance menu, type “Yingluck” and “Suthep” to build concordance lines in the search box, and click Start to start the concordance lines results generation. Then use Kwic Sort options to rearrange the concordance lines by sorting words located to the right of the target word. After that, explore the collocations between the target word and appraising item from each concordance line in order to preliminarily select appraising items and categorize them into types of judgement. View the appraising items in the full text in order to see the context of the political conflicts in Thailand and to recheck appraising item selection and categorization.

In terms of appraising item frequency comparison, each type of appraising item was compared by employing relative frequency of percentage calculating from the results of appraising items concerned with Yingluck and Suthep from Bangkok Post and The Nation. Compare similarities and differences of appraising item type frequency focusing on Yingluck found in Bangkok Post and The Nation. Compare similarities and differences of appraising item type frequency focusing on Suthep found in Bangkok Post and the Nation. Compare similarities and differences of appraising item type frequency focusing on Yingluck and Suthep found in Bangkok Post and The Nation.

4. Results of the study

This section was concerned with comparison of media evaluation between Yingluck and Suthep as the appraised focusing on judgement classified as (1) normality, (2) capacity and incapacity, (3) tenacity and untenacity, (4) veracity and inveracity, (5) propriety and impropriety discussed as follows:

4.1 Normality
It was found in Bangkok Post and The Nation that Suthep was appraised focusing on Suthep’s fame. (See Table 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normality</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Celebrity</td>
<td>1 (Tokens) 100.00</td>
<td>0 (Tokens) 0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Star</td>
<td>0 (Tokens) 0.00</td>
<td>1 (Tokens) 100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1 (Tokens) 100.00</td>
<td>1 (Tokens) 100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Capacity and incapacity
The Nation contained 3 terms focusing on Yingluck’s capacity of winning election, Yingluck’s victory of vote of no-confidence, and the ability of delivering a plurality at the polls. (See Table 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capacity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 1
*Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Suthep’s normality between different media*

Table 2
*Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Yingluck’s capacity between different media*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capacity</th>
<th>(Tokens)</th>
<th>(Percentage)</th>
<th>(Tokens)</th>
<th>(Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Victory</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of Suthep’s capacity, the results in The Nation showed more various appraising items including 3 terms than Bangkok Post containing 1 term. Besides, Bangkok Post and The Nation focused on Suthep’s political capacity, but The Nation was concerned with Suthep’s healthiness. (See Table 3)

**Table 3**
*Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Suthep’s capacity between different media*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incapacity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Healthy</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ucceed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of Yingluck’s incapacity, the results in Bangkok Post showed more various appraising items containing 3 terms than The Nation including 2 terms. In addition, the results in Bangkok Post, and in The Nation focused on Yingluck’s political incapacity, and unintelligence. (See Table 4)

**Table 4**
*Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Yingluck’s incapacity between different media*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incapacity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fail</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lacking efficiency</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lacking intelligence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low intellect</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cannot</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be not capable</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Bangkok Post showed Suthep’s political incapacity of forcing Yingluck, and her government to resign expressed by fail. In addition, the results in The Nation focused on Suthep’s incapacity of forcing Yingluck’s government to resign, striking a court, and drawing a response from either ordinary protesters or the businessmen shown by fail. (See Table 5)

**Table 5**
*Frequency comparison of appraising item focusing on Suthep’s incapacity between different media*
4.3 Tenacity and untenacity
The results in The Nation focusing on Yingluck’s tenacity showed more various appraising items including 7 terms than Bangkok Post containing 3 terms. The results in The Nation focused on Yingluck’s independence, but the results in Bangkok Post, and The Nation were concerned with Yingluck’s bravery. (See Table 6)

Table 6
Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Yingluck’s Tenacity between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenacity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Tokens)</th>
<th>The Nation (Tokens)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undeterred</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unyielding</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not afraid</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not rely on</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be in control of her govern</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be the one who make decisions</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not give up</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show no sign of giving up</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of fear</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in The Nation focusing on Suthep’s tenacity showed Suthep’s carefulness, and patience. (See Table 4.22)

Table 7
Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Suthep’s tenacity between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenacity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Tokens)</th>
<th>The Nation (Tokens)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carefully</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patient</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of untenacity, the results in Bangkok Post, and The Nation got 3 terms. In addition, the results in two media were concerned with Yingluck’s dependence, but the result in Bangkok Post focused on Yingluck’s stubbornness. (See Table 8)

Table 8
Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Yingluck’s untenacity between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unenacity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Tokens)</th>
<th>The Nation (Tokens)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of Suthep’s untenacity, it was found in Bangkok Post focusing on Suthep’s stubbornness shown by uncompromising. (See Table 9)

Table 9  
Frequency comparison of appraising item focusing on Suthep’s untenacity between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Untenacity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Tokens)</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Percentage)</th>
<th>The Nation (Tokens)</th>
<th>The Nation (Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncompromising</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In The Nation, the results revealed Yingluck’s focusing on veracity shown by Deny corruption practices. (See Table 10)

Table 10  
Frequency comparison of appraising item focusing on Yingluck’s Veracity between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Veracity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Tokens)</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Percentage)</th>
<th>The Nation (Tokens)</th>
<th>The Nation (Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deny corruption practice</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results focusing on Yingluck’s inveracity showed that Bangkok Post got more various appraising items containing 10 terms than The Nation including 3 terms. In addition, the results in Bangkok Post, and The Nation showed that evaluative meaning was expressed directly such as lie liar, corruption, not sincere, insincerity, and lack of credibility. In some cases, the results in Bangkok Post, and in The Nation showed that evaluative meaning was expressed indirectly. The results in Bangkok Post uncovered hidden messages from the opponent that Yingluck was dishonest because she was accused of turning a blind eye to corruption in government projects, state fund abuse, and Misusing state funds for political gain in order to win her election campaign in the future.

In terms of accusing of ‘crocodile tears’, it showed hidden message from the opponents that Yingluck was a liar because she cried but she was not really sad or sorry. According to Bangkok Post, A video clip showing the caretaker premier allegedly smiling shortly after she appeared to be on the brink of tears when she answered a question about anti-government protesters’ calls to evict the Shinawatra family from Thailand at the Thai Army Club press conference. Yingluck was accused of faking her emotional response to reporters before being unknowingly caught on camera smiling shortly after.
Besides, the results in Bangkok Post and The Nation showed that Yingluck was indirectly accused of liar because she could not keep the promise about rejecting amnesty bill, curbing/lowering the cost of living, and suppressing corruption.

As we have seen, the results of inveracity found in Bangkok Post and the Nation showed that evaluative meaning was expressed both directly and indirectly. (Table 11)

Table 11
Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Yingluck’s inveracity between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inveracity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Tokens)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misusing state funds</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lie</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sincere</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insincerity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of credibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turn a blind eye to corruption</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crocodile tears</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failed to keep promises</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was found in Bangkok Post focusing on Suthep’s inveracity expressed by cheating. (See Table 12)

Table 12
Frequency comparison of appraising item focusing on Suthep’s inveracity between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inveracity</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Tokens)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheating</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Propriety and impropriety
The result in Bangkok Post focused on Yingluck’s legality expressed by legal, but the result in The Nation was concerned with Yingluck’s responsibility shown by responsibly. (See Table 13)

Table 13
Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Yingluck’s propriety between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Propriety</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Tokens)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Responsibly

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lacking morality</td>
<td>1 (100.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail to take responsibility</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>1 (50.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid responsibility</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>1 (50.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1 (100.00)</td>
<td>2 (100.00)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of Yingluck’s impropriety, The Nation got more various appraising items including 2 terms than Bangkok Post containing 1 term. In addition, it was found that Bangkok Post focused on Yingluck’s immorality, but The Nation involved Yingluck’s irresponsibility. (See Table 14)

Table 14
Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Yingluck’s impropriety between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impropriety</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Tokens)</th>
<th>The Nation (Tokens)</th>
<th>(Percentage)</th>
<th>(Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lacking morality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail to take responsibility</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid responsibility</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of Suthep’s impropriety, the results in Bangkok Post got more various appraising items including 14 terms than The Nation containing 2 terms. In addition, Bangkok Post, and The Nation were concerned with Suthep’s illegality, but the results in Bangkok Post focused on Suthep’s violence, and dictator. (See Table 15)

Table 15
Frequency comparison of appraising items focusing on Suthep’s impropriety between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impropriety</th>
<th>Bangkok Post (Tokens)</th>
<th>The Nation (Tokens)</th>
<th>(Percentage)</th>
<th>(Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unconstitutional</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17.39</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Against the constitution</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20.83</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violate the law</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violate the criminal code</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violation of the criminal code</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not regitimate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegitimate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overthrow democracy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violate the charter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not peaceful</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breach the peace</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not angelic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictatorial</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we have seen, the results in Bangkok Post focusing on Yingluck as the appraised revealed 28 appraising items dealt with judgement including 12 tokens of imveracity (42.86 percent), 6 tokens of incapacity (21.43 percent), 5 tokens of untenacity (17.86 percent).
percent), 3 tokens of tenacity (10.71 percent), 1 token of propriety (3.57 percent), and 1 token of impropriety (3.57 percent).

The results in The Nation uncovered 32 tokens of judgement including 9 tokens of tenacity (28.13 percent), 7 tokens of untenacity (21.88 percent), 5 tokens of inveracity (15.63 percent), 4 tokens of capacity (12.50 percent), 3 tokens of incapacity (9.38 percent), 2 tokens of impropriety (6.25 percent), 1 token of veracity (3.13 percent), and 1 token of propriety (3.13 percent). (See Table 16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judgement</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Tokens)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normality</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incapacity</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenacity</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untenacity</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veracity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inveracity</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propriety</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impropriety</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Incapacity, Tenacity, untenacity, inveracity, propriety, and impropriety were found in Bangkok Post, and in The Nation; and capacity and veracity were found in The Nation.

As we have seen, the results from evaluative items classified by employing Appraisal framework uncovered that inveracity got the highest frequency in Bangkok Post but tenacity got the highest frequency in The Nation. The frequencies of incapacity, inveracity, and propriety in Bangkok Post were higher than those found in The Nation. The frequencies of capacity, untenacity, veracity, and impropriety in The Nation were higher than those found in Bangkok Post. Incapacity, inveracity, and propriety got higher attention in Bangkok Post. Capacity, untenacity, veracity, and impropriety got more attention in The Nation.

In addition, the results showed that Bangkok Post express more negative attitudes towards Yingluck than The Nation. Bangkok Post contained 85.72 percent of negative attitudes: 42.86 percent of inveracity, 21.43 percent of incapacity, 17.86 percent of untenacity, and 3.57 percent of impropriety. In addition, The Nation included 57.14 percent of negative attitudes involving 25.00 percent of untenacity, 17.86 percent of inveracity, 7.14 percent of incapacity, and 7.14 percent of impropriety.

In terms of Suthep as the appraised, the results in Bangkok Post uncovered 30 appraising items focusing on judgement including 24 tokens of impropriety (80.00 percent), 2 tokens of incapacity (6.67 percent), 1 token of normality (3.33 percent), 1 token of capacity (3.33 percent), 1 token of untenacity (3.33 percent), and 1 token of inveracity (3.33 percent).
The results in The Nation showed 14 tokens of judgement containing 4 tokens of capacity (28.57 percent), 4 tokens of incapacity (28.57 percent), 3 tokens of impropriety (21.43 percent), 2 tokens of tenacity (14.29 percent), and 1 token of normality (7.14 percent). (See table 17)

Table 17
Frequency comparison of Suthep as the appraised focusing on judgement between different media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judgement</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Tokens)</td>
<td>(Percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incapacity</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenacity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untenacity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veracity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inveracity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propriety</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impropriety</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>80.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we have seen, normality, capacity, incapacity, and impropriety were found in Bangkok Post, and in The Nation. Untenacity and inveracity were found in Bangkok Post. Tenacity was found in The Nation. In addition, impropriety got the highest frequency in Bangkok Post, but capacity, and incapacity got the highest frequency in The Nation.

The frequencies of untenacity, inveracity, and impropriety in Bangkok Post were higher than those found in The Nation, but the frequencies of normality, capacity, incapacity, and tenacity in The Nation were higher than those found in Bangkok Post. Untenacity, inveracity, and impropriety got higher attention in Bangkok Post, but normality, capacity, incapacity, and tenacity got more attention in The Nation.

The results revealed that Bangkok Post expressed more negative attitudes towards Suthep than The Nation. Bangkok Post Contained 93.33 percent of negative attitudes: 80.00 percent of impropriety, 6.67 percent of incapacity, 3.33 percent of inveracity, and 3.33 percent of untenacity. The Nation focused on 50.00 percent of negative attitudes: 28.57 percent of incapacity, and 21.43 percent of impropriety.

In terms of the comparison between Yingluck and Suthep, The results in Bangkok Post focusing on judgement revealed that Yingluck’s incapacity (21.43 percent), tenacity (10.71 percent), untenacity (17.86 percent), inveracity (42.86 percent), and propriety (3.57 percent) got more attention than Suthep’s incapacity (6.67 percent), tenacity (0.00 percent), untenacity (3.33 percent), inveracity (3.33 percent), and propriety (0.00 percent). However, Suthep’s normality (3.33 percent), capacity (3.33 percent), and impropriety (80.00 percent) got higher attention than Yingluck’s normality (0.00 percent), capacity (0.00 percent), and impropriety (3.57 percent).
The results in The Nation uncovered that Yingluck’s tenacity (28.14 percent), untenacity (21.88 percent), veracity (3.13 percent), inveracity (15.63 percent), and propriety (3.13 percent) got more attention than Suthep’s tenacity (14.29 percent), untenacity (0.00 percent), veracity (0.00 percent), inveracity (0.00 percent), and propriety (0.00 percent). However, Suthep’s normality (7.14 percent), capacity (28.57 percent), incapacity (28.57 percent), and impropriety (21.43 percent) got higher attention than Yingluck’s normality (0.00 percent), capacity (12.50 percent), incapacity (9.38 percent), and impropriety (6.25 percent). (See Table 18)

Table 18
Frequency comparison of judgement between Yingluck and Suthep as the appraised

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judgement</th>
<th>Bangkok Post</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yingluck</td>
<td>Suthep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normality</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incapacity</td>
<td>21.43%</td>
<td>6.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenacity</td>
<td>10.71%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unatenacity</td>
<td>17.86%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veracity</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inveracity</td>
<td>42.86%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propriety</td>
<td>3.57%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impropriety</td>
<td>3.57%</td>
<td>80.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Bangkok Post showed more negative attitudes towards Suthep, and Yingluck including 93.33 percent of negative attitudes towards Suthep: 80.00 percent of impropriety, 6.67 percent of incapacity, 3.33 percent of inveracity, and 3.33 percent of untenacity. In addition, the results revealed 85.72 percent of negative attitudes towards Yingluck: 42.86 percent of inveracity, 21.43 percent of incapacity, 17.86 percent of untenacity, and 3.57 percent of impropriety. The results focusing on negative attitudes towards Suthep uncovered that Suthep’s impropriety got the highest attention in Bangkok Post. However, the results dealt with negative attitudes towards Yingluck showed that Yingluck’s inveracity got the highest attention in Bangkok Post.

The Nation expressed more negative attitudes towards Yingluck, and Suthep. They included 57.14 percent of negative attitudes towards Yingluck: 25.00 percent of untenacity, 17.86 percent of inveracity, 7.14 percent of incapacity, and 7.14 percent of impropriety. In addition, the results contained 50.00 percent of negative attitudes towards Suthep: 28.57 percent of incapacity, and 21.43 percent of impropriety. The results related to negative attitudes towards Yingluck showed that Yingluck’s untenacity got the highest attention in The Nation. However, the results concerned with negative attitudes towards Suthep uncovered that Suthep’s incapacity got the highest attention in the Nation. In addition, the results uncovered more various types of negative attitudes towards Yingluck including 4 types than Suthep’s including 2 types.

Conclusion and discussion
The purpose of this paper is to compare media evaluation of Yingluck Shinawatra and Suthep Thaugsuban between two Thai news agencies. The data were Political online news in Thailand written in English published from 31 October to 31 December 2013. Yingluck and Suthep were selected because of getting high frequency in keyness, and playing key role. The results showed that Bangkok Post express more negative attitudes towards Yingluck and Suthep than The Nation.

The results of this study revealed similar types of attitudinal positioning to those described in Martin (2003), and Martin et al. (2005) including judgement. However, appreciation is not found in this study. It may be because the key participant in this work deals with human so the attitudinal positioning may focus on judgement more than appreciation.

The results confirm the previous studies that corpus analysis has implication for evaluation in text because corpus-based approach is beneficial in terms of systematic observation of naturally occurring data and decreasing bias, linguistic intuitions and chancy due to a large collection of texts (Baker, 2006, pp. 10-12, 2011, p. 24; Channell, 2003, pp. 39-55).

Further studies can be conducted to explore appraisal of news reports on other key participants as the appraiser and appraised such as government members including Thaksin Shinawatra, and Pheu Thai Party, and anti-government members: protesters, Abhisit Vejjajiva, and Democrat Party.
References


