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Bilingual Problems of Practice Protocol and Discoveries: Supporting In-Service Teachers of English Learners During COVID-19

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Abstract

The novel COVID-19 pandemic has caused a rupture in the trajectory of education worldwide. In the United States, it has been noted that the schism within education as a result of the pandemic is the biggest threat to national security (Choi, 2020). Even prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, Multilingual Learners, specifically English Language Learners (ELLs), is one of the fastest growing student populations across the United States (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2017), and yet have some of the lowest graduation rates, such as in New York (NYSED, 2020). The pandemic further exacerbated the inequity for immigrant and ELL students with issues such as access to technology, digital literacy, and continuity of learning. This conference proceedings paper reviews a case study from one of the largest urban K-12 school district in New York, U.S.A. and the challenges, successes and promising practices that emerged during a professional development initiative for in-service teachers of ELLs within Bilingual Education programs. These teachers participated in a "Bilingual Problems of Practice Protocol" where they engaged in peer consultancy to systematically discuss their instructional dilemmas during the pandemic. The result of the peer consultancy was the generation of ideas towards resolution. The Bilingual Problems of Practice Protocol provided the forum for teachers to engage in professional learning with each other, where they analyzed instructional dilemmas and contexts, discussed successful practices and tools they discovered, and provided direction for the next steps teachers took in supporting their ELL students during a worldwide crisis.

Keywords: English Language Learners, Professional Development, Problems of Practice

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Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the continuous improvement efforts of one of the largest urban school districts in New York, U.S.A. in building equity and access for English Language Learners (ELLs) after the abrupt shift to remote learning and during the reopening of schools for hybrid instruction during the 2020-2021 academic year. Specifically, this study sought to identify the challenges, promising practices, and successes that teachers of ELLs have experienced within remote and hybrid. It also sought to provide an understanding of how the pandemic, which is often associated with negative impacts on the education systems, has also provided innovation and progress in areas of education that are beneficial for culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms.

In addition, during the pandemic, New York State has experienced a significant increase in the ELL graduation rate. It has increased more than 20 percentage points since prior to the pandemic 2-years ago. The Regents Examinations, New York subject area exams that students must pass in order to graduate with their high school diploma in New York, and the exam exemptions prompted by the pandemic have contributed to the increase in ELL graduation rates by removing this requirement. However, although these exam exemptions were provided during both academic years (2019-2020 and 2020-2021), there is a stark difference in the ELL graduation rate during the heigh of the pandemic in 2020 and during the subsequent year in 2021. This suggests that the increase in the ELL graduation rate was not just due to Regents exam exemptions alone. Shifts in instructional practices because of the innovation, changes in policy, and technology integration should also be considered as contributing factors. These factors were implemented with ongoing systematic professional development that was informed by Improvement Science and the Cycle of Continuous Improvement. This qualitative study explores the and shifts in instructional practices that have emerged as a result of the pandemic and should be maintained during the post pandemic era.

English Language Learners in New York State during the pandemic

The New York State Education Department has indicated that during the 2020-2021 school year there was a total of 2,512,973 total students attending K-12 public schools in New York State (NYSED, 2022). Of that total student population, 240,035 are English Language Learners, or about 9.55% of students. Prior to the pandemic, the ELL graduate rate in June 2019 was 38.9% (NYSED, 2020), an alarming rate for any subgroup of students. In comparison, the statewide graduation rate was 83.4% (NYSED, 2020), noting the significant opportunities gap. During the pandemic, it was reported that ELLs knew their English was slipping away within New York City where 142,000 ELLs engaged in remote instruction (Kim, 2020). ELLs and their families experienced the compounded challenge of online schooling and navigating the systems in a language they don't understand (Rani, 2020), which resulted in bigger losses for children still learning to speak English (Kim, 2020). However, a year into the pandemic the ELL graduation rate rose to 60.5% in June 2021 (NYSED, 2022).

New York State provided exemptions to the Regents examinations required for the graduation requirement during the 2021 academic year (NYSED, 2021); however, these same exemptions were provided during the previous academic year in June 2020 (NYSED 2020), at the height of the pandemic and the ELL graduate rate was only 46.0% (NYSED 2021a). Although the ELL graduation rate increased by 7.1 percentage points in 2020, comparatively

the 2021 ELL graduation rate increased more than doubled in percentage points. It is important to note that the Regents examination exemptions were contingent on students who were scheduled to take the examinations and had to have passed the associated coursework. Therefore, the significant increase in the ELL graduate rate in 2021 also represents a higher ELL course pass rate in comparison to the previous year during the height of the pandemic in 2020. Increases in ELL students passing their courses in comparison with 2020 suggest there were more, and perhaps better, opportunities that were afforded to ELLs within classrooms across the state.

Improvement science

The framework that provided the systematic investigation of the shift in ELL instructional practices is Improvement Science. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching defines Improvement Science as the application of small, measurable, and individualized changes to address specific issues in an educational setting and help uncover the root causes of problems (Grunow, 2015). This is capture through the continuous cycles of improvement, represented in Figure 1. The cycle begins with "Plan" (analyze causes and assess current system), followed by "Do" (explicate improvement hypotheses and try out an improvement protocol), "Study" (measure outcomes and analyze results), and lastly "Act" (revise, refine or relate the intervention). This study will discuss the data collection and analysis within this framework.

Figure 1. Cycle of Continuous Improvement (Langley et al., 2009)

Plan

In order to access the current system of providing ELLs with continuity of learning during hybrid and remote instruction, the following research questions were formulated.

Research Questions. The following research questions guided this study:

1.   *Research Question Number One:* What challenges did ELLs have during remote and hybrid instruction during the pandemic?
2.   *Research Question Number Two*: What were some of the promising practices that have emerged during the pandemic in support of our English Language Learners?
3.   *Research Question Number Three*: What lessons learned need to continue beyond the pandemic in support of our English Language Learners?

The research included a qualitative approach through a case study approach. The case study included data collection from a narrative inquiry and professional development materials. The analysis attempted to understand and explore in detail the challenges, success and promising practices that have emerged as a result of the pandemic. The study included the collection narratives through surveys from one of New York State's largest urban school district with a large population of English Language Learners. The school district has English as New Language (ENL) program in every single school and Bilingual Education programs in multiple schools.   The participants include both ENL teachers and Bilingual Education teachers.   The surveys did not collect statistical information, such as Likert scales surveys; but rather, participants provided brief narratives as their responses to three questions. The questions included:

1.   What are the biggest challenges you and your English Language Learners are facing during remote/hybrid instruction?
2.   What are some of the best practices you have found during remote/hybrid instruction as it relates to English Language Learners?
3.   What success(es) you have experienced since hybrid/ remote instruction began?

The survey was rendered during the early Fall 2020. The school district engaged in remote learning during the first month of the academic year and shifted to hybrid in October.   The responses to the surveys were analyzed and coded until themes emerged for each question and across questions. Points of contact and departure within themes across the three questions were noted and are further discussed in the subsequent section.

Table 1 below contains the themes that emerged though the responses to the first survey question and are not placed in any particular order. Many participants responded with the challenge of access and equity for ELLs to technology and WIFI, which speaks to the lack of resources to complete homework even prior to the pandemic. Those that did have access did not have the digital literacy needed to effectively use the technology nor navigate the learning management systems being utilized by their schools. Many teachers also stated that they noticed their ELLs were not engaged, not participating within remote instruction, and were not completing or submitting assignments. The reference to scheduling issues and meeting the service mandates refers to the state mandates for ELL services, which requires weekly amounts of service minutes based on the proficiency level of the student.

Challenges MLL teachers and students face
Access and equity in technology and Internet
Student engagement, participation & noncompletion of assignments
Lack of digital literacy
Scheduling issues in meeting the service mandate
Class coverages
Simultaneous teaching (in-person & remote)
Co-Teaching online with content area teachers
Social distancing and the need for student collaboration
Need for ongoing professional learning for teachers and families.

Table 1 Themes of responses to survey question #1: Challenges

As part of fulfilling ELL service mandates, one option is to engage in Co-Teaching between the ENL teacher and content area teacher, which proved challenging for many during remote instruction.   Lastly, many teachers also included the need for ongoing professional

developing to help learn the technology and how to integrate the technology within their instruction.

Table 2 below contains the themes that emerged from the responses to the second survey question on the best practices they encountered during remote/hybrid instruction. Three major themes surface that directly correlated with the challenges that were posed by the first survey question. Tables 3, 4 and 5 show examples of responses that participants included that were coded as "best practices."

Best Practices MLL teachers and students face
Student Engagement and Participation
Best Instructional Practices for Language Development
Building Digital Literacy

Table 2 Themes of responses to survey question #2: Best Practices

Best practices for student engagement and participation
NearPod Lessons and other interactive programs for engagement
Chat feature where students ask questions who are reluctant to participate
Digital tools, such as collaboration boards, FlipGrid, and breakout rooms for peer interaction
Providing lessons live and asynchronously if students cannot make live session, they can watch it online, do the lesson and submit
Maintaining constant communication to parents and students with translation technology
Using students' cultures to spark conversations and stimulate high order thinking skills

Table 3 Example responses to survey question #2: Student Engagement

Best practices for language development
The use of shared screen function to show visuals & videos related to the content.
Having a white board behind me to help demonstrate concepts and provide scaffolds
Putting less on slides with translations
Having close captions on in English for student to read and hear what is being said
Having intensive ENL Standalone session with Newcomers
Providing multiple opportunities to practice a skill to generalize the learning

Table 4 Example responses to survey question #2: Language development

Best practices for building digital literacy
Creating a Bitmjoi classroom where students can find digital versions of various resources they can find in the classroom in-person
Creating explicit routines for hybrid and remote learning that has visuals
Reviewing routinely where online resources are with expectations
Using translation programs to mitigate language barriers for students and families
Using cloud based systems so that students have access to all information they may have missed

Table 5 Example responses to survey question #2: Digital literacy

In addition to best practices, the survey asked responded to also discuss any success(es) they have experienced since remote/hybrid instruction. Table 5 contains the examples of responses participants included.

Successes experienced since remote/hybrid instruction
I have improved my technology skills in the process
I have expanded by knowledge on applications for education that can be utilized for ELLs
The students are becoming more comfortable using the technology and there are many programs they can access that promote listening, speaking, reading and writing
Increased parental involvement!!!
More students are engaged and helping them to complete classroom assignment
No cost virtual field trips
I am getting experience in true-co-teaching with regular common planning time.

Table 6 Example responses to survey question #3: Successes

One will notice that what some participants were experiencing as a challenge within one classroom or school, within the same school district other participants within another classroom or school were able to provide a best practice or success story that they experienced within their instructional context. In order words, there was a variation of challenges, best practices and successes teachers and their ELL students were experiencing within the same school district. Therefore, it became important to share the responses and themes with all the respondents.

The results of the data were shared during a meeting with respondents in October 2020. The participants stated that the information shared let them know that they were not alone in the challenges they were facing, but more importantly, it provided motivation and hope to experiment with or learn more about the best practices that was experienced by their colleagues. Therefore, the answers to their challenges were in the room. The teachers requested time and space to engage each other in discussion to share their challenges, successes, and promising practices. This led to the next phase of the continuous cycles of improvement.

Do

Within this stage, we explicate the improvement hypotheses and try out an improvement protocol. The hypothesis was informed by both the survey data and request from the teachers after sharing the results of the survey. The hypothesis is that we can improve instructional outcomes for ELLs during hybrid and remote learning by providing teachers with a forum to discuss their dilemmas and engage in sharing of insights and best practices. This led to the identification of the Problems of Practice Protocol to implement as an intervention that aligned with the hypothesis. The National School Reform Faculty of the Harmony Education Center provides a comprehensive collection of protocols for educators to utilize as part of their institutions continuous cycle of improvement. The problems of practice protocol's purpose is to help individual think more deeply about a concrete dilemma around teaching and learning and to build collaboration and collective efficacy among a group of colleagues.

Once a participate identifies their dilemma, he or she brings it to the consultancy group, frame a focus question that gets to the heart of the dilemma, and prepare background information and context to share with the group. The group engages in clarifying and probing questions to engage in reflective discussion. The group discusses and works to define the issues more thoroughly and objectively. The goal is not to definitively solve the dilemma; but rather to analyze it and bring in a new perspective to help the presenter reach a resolution. An informed professional development series based on the Problems of Practice

Protocol was implemented across the district, which allowed teachers of ELLs to engage in peer consultancy across schools in a systematic matter. This allowed teachers to tap into each other's expertise while building collaboration across the school district, breaking down the silos.

Study

Within this penultimate stage within the cycle, the protocol and hypothesis must be measure in to determine if the intervention is having an effect. A survey was administered after a series of Problems of Practice Protocol sessions to collect feedback on teacher experiences with the protocol. Table 6 provides some of the responses that represented themes in the responses submitted in the survey.

Post Problems of Practice Protocol Survey
Continue to meet with all Bilingual Teachers to continue to have collegial conversations on what is working and what is not working and assist our students in moving forward.
I enjoyed my experience with the protocol, and I received great resources and ideas from colleagues.
Next meeting, I would like to meet with monolingual and bilingual teachers in my grade level.
This was a first attempt at using this protocol. We need more practice using this protocol and along with that, more clarity as to the roles of each person.

Table 7 Example responses to post survey

The post survey analysis provided both successes of protocol as well as suggestions to refine the process, including the expansion of the consultancy group to include non-ELL teachers and the increase in the frequency of the consultancy protocol for practice as this was a relatively new professional development practice for participants. The results from the study informed the next and last stage.

Act

This final stage within the continuous cycle of improvement is where the intervention is either revised, refined, or related. Another way to think about this stage is to either adopt the intervention, adapted it based on the "study" stage, or to abandoned it due to the negative impact it had. The intervention, the Problem of Practice Protocol, was refined to include more teachers, specifically content area or teachers not trained within language learning development, in order to provide insights with content area practices. Further guidance was given on the roles of the protocol as well as the frequency of meetings for this job-embedded professional development.

Conclusions

The pandemic has been catastrophic within the educational system; however, the pressure and circumstance has also allowed for innovation within technology integration and instructional practice for our ELL students. It also brought together teachers to drive their own professional development through a peer consultancy protocol rather than relying on outside consultancy they may not be familiar with the resources, student populations, and school district cultures and dynamic that teachers are intimately familiar with. These

emerging lessons learned would and should continue to be incorporated even within a post-pandemic society. Based on the findings, ongoing professional development on using the resources, as well as opportunities for teachers to exchange and share their challenges and best practices will allow for the development of a professional nexus that will build capacity in meeting the needs of our culturally and linguistically diverse classroom. Further study is needed to determine to what extent has the shifts within instructional practices have impacted the 2021 ELL graduation rate. In addition to the Regents examination exemptions and shifts in instruction, additional variables need to be identified and explored to fully understand the significant increase of the ELL graduation rate in New York during the pandemic.

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A Study of Good Chinese Learners at the University of Hong Kong

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Abstract

This is my third consecutive year of doing the research. As the economy of China is booming, there is a rapid increase in the number of foreign students coming to The University of Hong Kong to learn Chinese. As Chinese is one of the popular subjects for them to choose. Despite COVID-19, from 2020 to 2021, there are still around 520 foreign students (undergraduates or exchange students) come to the University of Hong Kong to learn Chinese as a Foreign Language courses. A language teacher is a facilitator and an instructor of Chinese learning for foreign students. However, in the real world, there are always some good language learners and some less talented language learners in one classroom. So what is the secret of the Good Chinese Learners? What can the language instructors do in order to support good Chinese learners and help the less talented learners to learn Chinese? In the TESOL field, there are a lot of researches have been done by scholars. In the early 1970s, several researchers isolated and defined the concept of Good Language Learner. But in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language field, there are relatively fewer researches. So from January 2017 to December 2021, I conducted a survey about good Chinese learners in CHIN9503 and CHIN9504 classes. The survey consisted of an interview with several questions and I will discuss the result of a survey and its implications in this paper. This research is done in a macro way rather than micro way. Thus this holistic research focuses on finding good Chinese learners rather than focusing on learners' individual differences.

Keywords: Inner Factors, Outside Factors and Settings, Features of Good Chinese Learners, Levels of Proficiency, Implications of Curriculum Design

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Introduction

As the economy of China is booming, there is a rapid increase in the number of foreign students coming to The University of Hong Kong to learn Chinese. For the past decade, Chinese is one of the popular subjects for them to choose. Despite COVID-19, from 2020 to 2021, there are still around 520 foreign students (undergraduates or exchange students) come to the University of Hong Kong to learn Chinese.

A Chinese language teacher is a facilitator and an instructor of Chinese learning for foreign students. However, in the real world, there are always some good language learners and some less talented language learners in one classroom. So what is the secret of the Good Chinese Learners? What can the language instructors do in order to support good Chinese learners and help the less talented learners to learn Chinese? In the TESOL field, there are a lot of researches have been done by scholars. In the early 1970s, several researchers isolated and defined the concept of Good Language Learner. But in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language field, there are relatively fewer researches. So from January 2017 to December 2021, I conducted a survey about good Chinese learners in CHIN9503 and CHIN9504 classes. The survey consisted of an interview with several questions and I will discuss the result of a survey and its implications in this paper. This research is done in a macro way rather than micro way. Thus this holistic research focuses on finding good Chinese learners rather than focusing on learners' individual differences. The survey consisted of an interview with several questions (table 1) and I will discuss the result of a survey and its implications in this paper. This research is done in a macro way rather than micro way and the research help teachers to build up a good Chinese learners' strategy repertoire. Meanwhile, the implication of the research will support both *curriculum design* and *learner training* to achieve learner autonomy in learning Chinese.

Successful language learners

In the TESOL field, there is a model of successful language learners which is called Learner Self-Management (LSM) (Joan Rubin 2005). It is an interactive one and in which there is a continuous interaction between the learner's control mechanism and the learner's knowledge and beliefs. LSM is actually referring to the ability to deploy procedures and to access knowledge and beliefs in order to accomplish learning goals in a dynamically changing environment. Within the LSM system, there are five procedures: planning, monitoring, evaluating, problem-solving and implementing. LSM mainly focuses on individual learner's difference and their characters. Most of these characters cannot be changed by outside force. But in the real world, foreign language learning involves individual inner factors and outside settings:

Good Language Learner inner factors

1. Good planning
2. Monitoring
3. Evaluation
4. Problem-identification and problem-solution
5.Knowledge and beliefs
6. Learning style
7. Motivation
8. Learning strategy
9. Background Knowledge
10. Other factors

Outside factors and settings

1. Classroom learning
2.Syllabus
3. Location
4. Outside classroom learning
5. Language environment
6. Support from others
7. Teaching Methodologies
8. Others

Good language learners and bad language learners study in one classroom, so what can the language instructors do in a macro way in order to support good language learners and brush up bad language learners? So this research is focus on outside factors and settings.

Target students

At the University of Hong Kong, Chinese Language Center offers eight levels Chinese language courses for foreign learners. The eight Chinese courses are shown as follows:
(1) CHIN9501　Level one　　(basic: zero beginners)
(2) CHIN9502　Level two　　(basic)
(3) CHIN9503　Level three　　(basic)(target group)
(4) CHIN9504　Level four　　(Intermediate)(target group)
(5) CHIN9505　Level five　　(Intermediate)
(6) CHIN9506　Level six　　(Higher-Intermediate)
(7) CHIN9507　Level seven　　(Advanced)
(8) CHIN9508　Level eight　　(Advanced)

This research is done by choosing students in level three and level four courses. Now, let us look at what the good Chinese learners did in my classroom at the University of Hong Kong.

The survey of good Chinese learners is conducted by the following questionnaire:

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问卷调查
Questionnaire

姓名：   国籍：   班级：
Name: Nationality: Class:

Q1:你在中国住过吗？哪里？几年？
　　Have you ever lived in China before? Where? How many years?
Q2:你有中国朋友吗？
　　Do you have Chinese friends?

Q3:你常常用中文吗？什么场合？什么时候？
　　Do you often use Chinese? In what situation? When?

Q4:说说你学习汉语的经历：
　　Could you tell me your experience of learning Chinese?

</div>

Table 1: Questionnaire

By observation during the class for 6 weeks and assessments which include dictations, quiz, in-class activities and mid-term test, I will select target students in level three and level four Chinese classes. The target students must perform very well in reading, writing, speaking and listening. Then in the final oral test, I will ask the target students above questions in order to find out the secret of their Chinese study.

Demographic of students in the research

There are totally 48 students being interviewed in the research, among these students, 39 students are Koreans, one student is from Finland, one student is from Russia, one student is from British/Japan, one student is from India, one student is from Sweden, one student is from The Republic of Kazakhstan, one student is from British/ Philippine, one student is from France, one student is from Italy.

Finland	1	2%
Russia	1	2%
British/Jap.	1	2%
India	1	2%
Sweden	1	2%
Kazakhstan	1	2%
British/Philippine	1	2%
France	1	2%
Italy	1	2%
S.Korea	39	81%
Total	48	100%

Table 2: Students Nationality
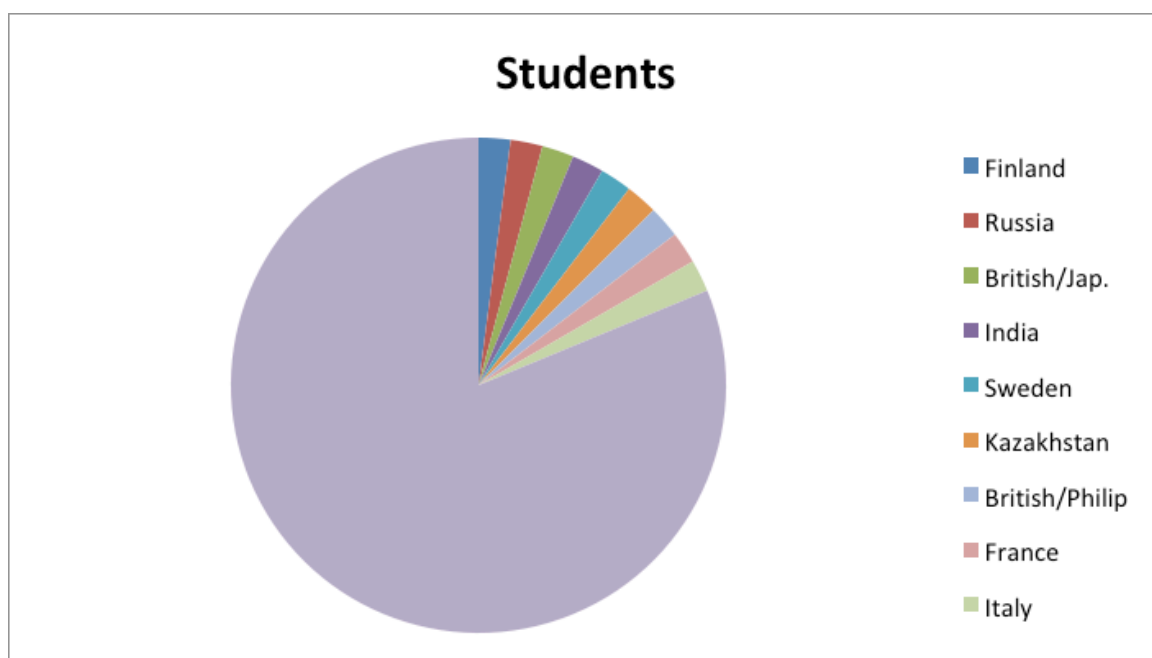
Figure 1: Student Nationality

It is obvious that South Korean students are the majority among the target students. This is due to in recent years a colossal amount of South Korean students lived in China during secondary school time. They come to The University of Hong Kong for tertiary education after secondary school.

Features of good Chinese learners

Firstly, according to the interview, within 48 students, 38 students lived in Mainland China or Taiwan for more than one year before. The range is from 1 year to 12 years. They lived in different cities: Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Chengdu, Dalian, Qingdao, Shenzhen, Nanchang, Zhuhai, Shandong and Taipei. Only 10 students lived and studied in other countries or Hong Kong and never lived in China or Taiwan before. Among those students

who lived in Mainland China or Taiwan before, one of them (2%) stayed for only one month. Another student (2%) stayed for only six months. Five students (10%) stayed for 1 year. Three students (6%) stayed for 2 years. Four students (8%) stayed for 3 years. Eight students (17%) stayed for 4 years. Three students (6%) stayed for 5 years. Two students (4%) stayed for 6 years. Two students (4%) stayed for 7 years. Two students (4%) stayed for 8 years. Two students (4%) stayed for 9 years. Three students (6%) stayed for 10 years. One student (2%) stayed for 11 years. One student (2%) stayed for 12 years.

Year(s) stayed in Mainland China or Taiwan	No. of students	% of total students who stayed in Mainland China or Taiwan before
0	10	21%
Less than 1 year	2	4%
1	5	10%
2	3	6%
3	4	8%
4	8	17%
5	3	6%
6	2	4%
7	2	4%
8	2	4%
9	2	4%
10	3	6%
11	1	2%
12	1	2%
Total	48 students	100%

Table 3: How long did you stay in mainland China or Taiwan?
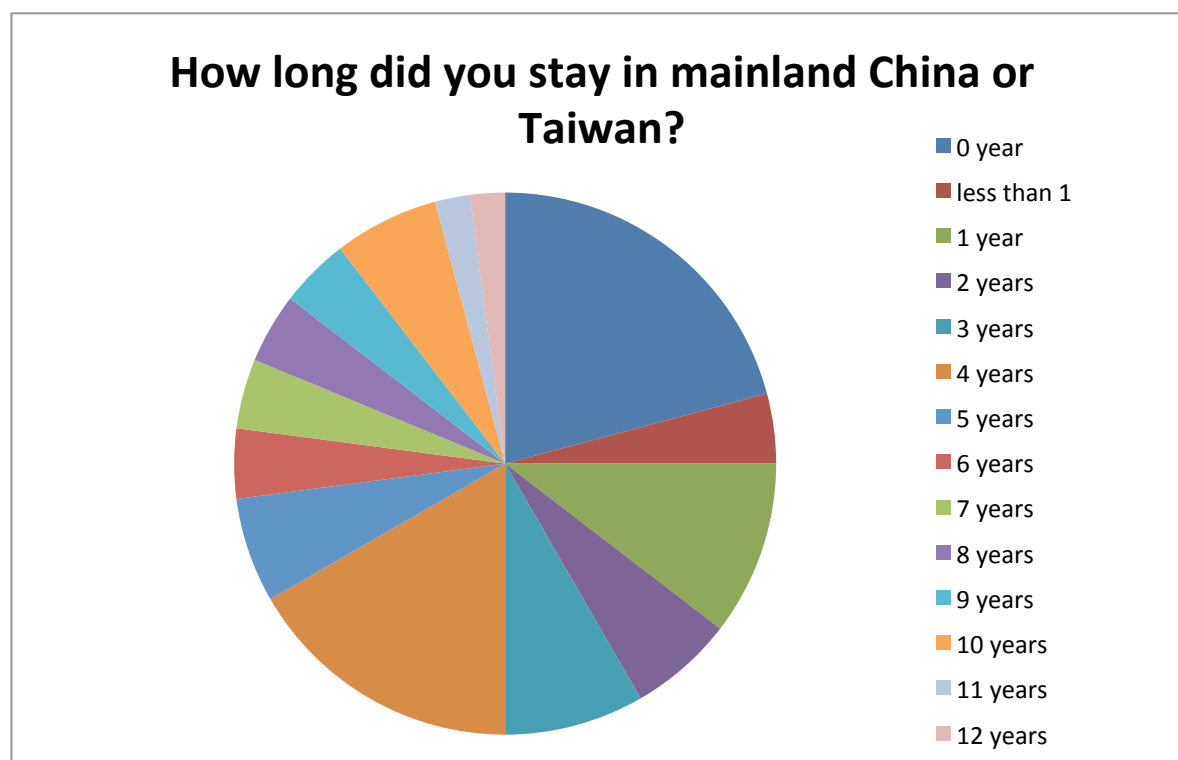
Figure 2: How long did you stay in mainland China or Taiwan?

Secondly, 42 students said that they have Chinese friends and they often have conversations in Chinese. There are six students who do not have Chinese friends however they lived in China before. One of the students is from South Korea. He lived in Beijing for 11 years and studied in Beijing British School but he only used Chinese in restaurants for ordering food. Another student is from Finland. She lived in Shanghai for 4 years and studied in Changning International School. She only used Chinese when she went to restaurants with friends in Shanghai. Apparently, both of them have lived in China for a period of time, their oral Chinese proficiency level is not as good as the other target students.

Thirdly, 4 male students had Chinese girlfriends before which help them to improve their Chinese proficiency.

Fourthly, 2 students attended Chinese local primary or secondary schools before. Their Chinese spoken ability is the best among the target students.

Fifthly, 3 students have Chinese roommates at the University of Hong Kong. They always speak Chinese at the hall of residence.

Sixthly, if we look at 10 students who have never lived in China or Taiwan before, one student said she had Chinese friends when she studied in high school. One student said she does not have Chinese friend but she studied in Malaysian high school and studied Chinese for one year. One student said he has a Chinese schoolmate who helps him to study Chinese at HKU. One student said he does not have Chinese friend but he has a Korean friend who has lived in Beijing for a long time and he helps my student to study Chinese. One student said she lived in Malaysia for 7 years and in Malaysia she has several Chinese friends who help her to study Chinese. One student said he has never lived in China but after he came to Hong Kong, he made some Chinese friends and they help him to study Chinese.

One student is from Korea. She has never lived in China before but she has a friend from China and a friend from Taiwan. Her Taiwan friend introduced more friends to her and now she has many Taiwanese friends. One student is from Italy. She has never lived in China or Taiwan before but in Italy she has a Chinese roommate who helped her to learn Chinese for 3 years. Another French student also has a Chinese roommate from China. They lived together in Paris and they often play Mahjong and drink alcohol together. His roommate taught him Chinese for many years. Besides the French student also has other Chinese friends in France. They always hang out together. The last student is from Korea. She lives in Hong Kong for 5 years. She had many Chinese friends in high school and they often helped her to study Chinese. At HKU, she also has two Chinese friends and they help her to learn Chinese.

In a conclusion, most of good Chinese learners either have lived in China for a period of time or have Chinese friends to help him/her to learn and speak Chinese. If a student has never lived in China or Chinese speaking countries before, then *make a Chinese speaking friend* is crucial.

Levels of proficiency of good Chinese learners

Within good Chinese learners, I also found their difference in the proficiency of Chinese. This difference may be due to individual difference in motivation, learning style, personality, gender, strategies, autonomy, beliefs etc. I put them into five levels. From level 5 (the highest) to level 1 (the lowest).

Figure 3: Levels of proficiency of good Chinese learners
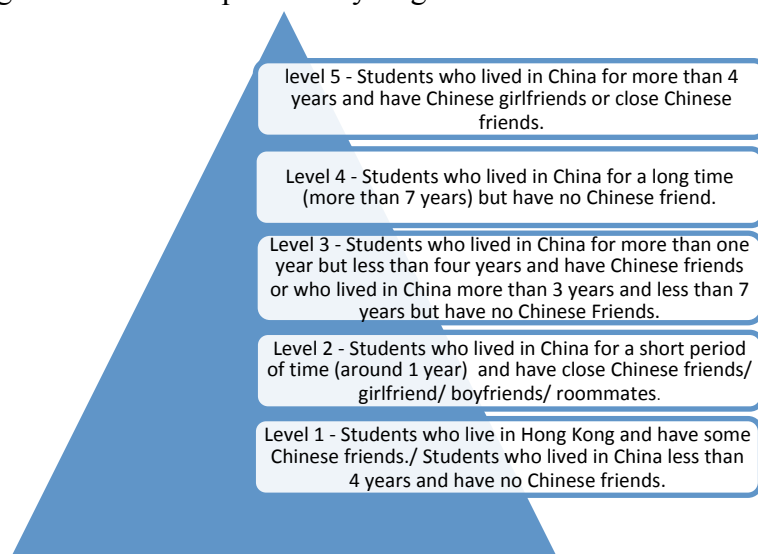
- *level 5 (highest) - Students who lived in China for more than 4 years and have Chinese girlfriends or close Chinese friends.*
- *Level 4 - Students who lived in China for a long time (more than 7 years) but have no Chinese friend.*
- *Level 3 - Students who lived in China for more than one year but less than four years and have Chinese friends or who lived in China more than 3 years and less than 7 years but have no Chinese Friends.*
- *Level 2 - Students who lived in China for a short period of time (around 1 year) and have close Chinese friends/ girlfriend/ boyfriends/ roommates.*
- *Level 1(lowest) - Students who live in Hong Kong and have some Chinese friends./ Students who lived in China less than 4 years and have no Chinese friends.*

Learning a foreign language involve learning in a language classroom and language acquisition in the target language environment. From the above table (Table 4), we can see the importance of appropriate language environment for the language learners to learn a target language. Meanwhile, interaction with native speakers also plays an important role in learning a target language. These two important factors give us some indications in the curriculum design of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language courses.

Implications of curriculum design

Language Learning at times has been put into two categories: the monastery and the market-place approaches. The monastery approach refers to organized language learning in a classroom with students and a teacher following a formal. Rule-based plan while the market place approach would involve being in a context where the target language is spoken. The best language learners combine these two approaches into a perfect self-directed curriculum.

From Table 4, we can see the importance of language environment in learning Chinese. Meanwhile, making Chinese friends also accelerates learning Chinese. From the table, if a foreign student lived in China for more than 2 years and have Chinese friends, the foreign student's overall Chinese performance is better than those who lived in China for more than 7 years.

When we design Chinese curriculum, we can integrate the following courses or activities into our program:
- Exchange program (at least 6 months) with universities in mainland China or Taiwan. The program should be the longer one the better one.
- Also ask exchange partner to arrange one-on-one language exchange program after school.
- Set up Chinese corner in home university.
- To help students to find language exchange partner(s).
- Encourage students live in hall of residence to find a Chinese roommate or hallmate.
- To help students learn Chinese beyond the classroom: using technology, internet, television, video……

Learner Training

Of course, learners do not achieve autonomy by being told to. Autonomy is achieved slowly, through struggling towards it, through careful training and careful preparation on the teacher's part as well as on the learner's. Basing on the research, we can summarize the strategies used by those good Chinese learners into following ways:
- Living in China or Taiwan.
- Living in other Chinese speaking countries.
- Finding Chinese speaking friends.
- Falling in love with Chinese speaking girlfriend/boyfriend.
- Often hanging out with Chinese speaking people.
- Having Chinese speaking language exchange partner(s).
- Having a Chinese speaking roommate/hallmate.
- Immersing themselves in an authentic Chinese language environment.
- Watching Chinese TV programs/ Singing Chinese songs.

Actually, good language learners are flexible and vary their learning strategies; and an

autonomous learner is capable of taking charge of his/her learning for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning. Language instructor is a counselor and a facilitator to assist those students in achieving learner autonomy. The training process of learner training should include the following steps:

(1) To know individual differences and different learning styles among students.
(2) To help students to determine short-term goals.
(3) To help students selecting strategies and tasks to achieve the goals.
(4) Helping students to do self-assessment and evaluation of learning progress and strategies, then make choices.
(5) To build up students' own strategy repertoire and know how to vary strategies according to the context.
(6) To let students take charge of their own learning.
(7) To encourage students go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond.

Improvements in the future

The limitation of the study lies upon the small sample size and levels of students. Unfortunately, this limitation is tied to my teaching levels, I only teach level 3 and level 4 at my university. Thus, I cannot reach students in other levels to include them into the research. Also it is hard to find western students in higher learner groups in the present study. The research would be better if a good-sized sample of learners at higher Mandarin proficiencies can be sourced.

Besides, Benson (2001) outlines five principles for achieving autonomous learning:
1. Active involvement by students in their own learning
2. Providing options and resources
3. Offering choices and decision-making opportunities
4. Supporting learners
5. Encouraging reflection

Arranging immersion Mandarin courses and encourage students to find language exchange partners can help students achieving autonomous learning. Yet, we still to encourage reflection for students during learning Mandarin and improve curriculum to improve other principles.

Conclusion

Hopefully this research project can be carried on in the future to collect more samples of good Chinese learners. Theory and practice in Chinese teaching has traditionally been the main focus when learning in classroom. Thus the focus has been on the design of syllabuses, methods and materials etc. However, a complementary perspective emerged in the 1980s in TESOL field with the notion of learner autonomy, which shifted the focus from the teacher to the learners. Students are encouraged to make decisions about what they learn. Yet as professional Language teachers, we should know the shortcut of learning a target language with the best result and least effort. This is what we should do to as facilitators. We should support students in their autonomous language learning and become a good and autonomous Chinese learner.

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Developing Language and 21st C Skills Through Problem-Based Learning

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Abstract

Students at the American University in Cairo are expected to be able to work on group projects and produce high quality outcomes. However, coming from a school background where rote learning is stressed, many of the students joining the Intensive English Program (IEP) at the university lack the essential problem-solving, creativity, collaboration, and communication skills that are required to perform successfully on such tasks. They also need to improve their language skills before they can take content courses at the university. A project-based course was introduced to address these needs. Throughout this course, students practised essential teamwork skills that allowed them to function successfully in a group. They began by working on short projects, such as information gap, experiential, and teambuilding activities, and activities to redesign a product for a specific need. Then students engaged in longer projects that span several weeks which focused on solving a specific problem using the process of design thinking. To develop creativity, innovative solutions were encouraged, and groups were given the freedom to choose how to organize their work and present their solution. After each project, students reflected on their performance and learning to increase self-awareness. An end-of-semester self-evaluation survey was administered, and the results showed that the activities had a significant impact on the students' confidence in approaching problem-solving tasks, and their ability to collaborate, think critically, create, reflect, and communicate in English. Samples of the activities used and the skills targeted will be presented, and the survey results will be shared.

Keywords: 21st C Skills, Problem-Based Learning, Critical Thinking, University Students, Language Learning

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Introduction

The American University in Cairo sets very high expectations for its students. It requires that students have high English proficiency as it is an English medium university. Students are also expected to possess the skills that will allow them to perform successfully in group work. First year courses often include a number of group projects that require students to work together to produce the required outcome, and professors take it for granted that students already have the skills necessary to complete these tasks.

Students in the Intensive English Program (IEP) of the University have weak language skills, and attend five hours of class per day and work on academic reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. The majority of the students come from schools that stress rote learning and have very little focus on critical thinking skills. These students often lack the 21st century skills of teamwork, communication, critical thinking, problem solving, and creativity.

To help these students gain the necessary 21st century skills and to perform well on their subsequent courses, the IEP launched a problem-based learning (PBL) course, one of five courses offered in the IEP. The PBL course builds on the language skills covered in the other IEP courses, and it focuses on integrated language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking), presentation skills, 21st century skills (teamwork, communication, critical thinking, problem solving, and creativity), and reflective skills. The learning outcomes for this course include working collaboratively with others, communicating effectively, taking responsibility for completing tasks, creating group goals and strategies to complete tasks, reaching consensus in decision making, solving problems, managing time, reflecting on and evaluating learning and performance, and setting goals for progress. These are in addition to integrating the language skills covered in the other four IEP courses.

The problem-solving course aims to achieve the learning outcomes through a series of short and long projects. This paper will describe the activities used and the skills targeted through the assigned projects, and will present the results of a student survey assessing the activities and skills gained.

Short Projects

The first four weeks of this 14-week course are dedicated to practicing the skills required to complete the longer projects later in the semester. Below are some sample short projects:

Teambuilding:
The first type of short project is teambuilding activities that develop the skills of collaboration, communication, and reflection which are essential to successful group work. To complete these activities, students must work as a team to communicate, share ideas, and reach consensus to complete the challenge in the time provided.

- One example of a teambuilding activity is the Tallest Tower, where students work in groups to create a tower using basic supplies, such as paper, tape, and straws. The goal is build the tallest freestanding tower. They have a time limit, and this pushes the participants to work together and collaborate quickly to complete the task.

- Another team building activity is Newspaper Fashion Show where students are given some basic supplies, including newspapers, tape and scissors and are tasked with

creating an item of clothing out of newspaper that will be modeled by a team member. They work together to decide on the design and to create the item. When presenting the design to the class, a team member serves as the commentator and explains the details of the design being modeled.

- During the first week of class, a group campus scavenger hunt can help students break the ice while discovering the landmarks on campus. Teams are given the task of answering a set of questions related to different places on campus. The group works together to respond to as many questions as they can in the allotted time.

- A collaboration challenge that can be adapted to online delivery or socially distanced face-to-face settings is solving a mystery. Each team member is given a set of clues to be shared with their team as the solution can only be reached after considering all the clues. Collectively the team members share the clues orally and work out the solution to the mystery. Teams then present their findings to the class in the form of a news bulletin.

After each teambuilding activity, the instructor leads a debriefing discussion about the activity to help students become aware of the strategies they used to complete the task. Students are then assigned a short reflection consisting of four short questions which introduces them to the concept of reflection.

Divergent Thinking:
Another type of short project focuses on divergent thinking activities that promote creativity, problem-solving, and reflection. These activities encourage students to brainstorm for new ideas and to build on the ideas of their peers to come up with creative solutions to a problem.

To introduce the skill of divergent thinking, students are asked to bring an unusual item from home. In groups of 3-4, they think of new uses for each of these items, other than the use the item is intended for. Items that generate multiple ideas include paperclips, a toothpick, and a paper cup.

To practice the skill of divergent thinking, students are assigned the task of designing a product for a specific user, taking into consideration their specific needs.

- To design a chair, students are introduced to the idea that chairs come in many different shapes and forms, and they must challenge the assumption that a chair must have four legs and a back. Once free from limitations, they are required to design a chair for different users: a toddler, an elderly man, a teenager, etc. Their task is to consider the size, height, safety requirements, stability, etc., and to design a chair that meets the needs of their user. They create a prototype in the form of a sketch or a digital drawing.

- To design a car, students are shown images of different types of cars, including less conventional models that have sliding doors, two or three wheels, two-seater, etc. They are then asked to design a car for a specific user: a parent with a toddler, a person who uses a wheelchair, an elderly couple, etc. They consider the safety issues, comfort level, ease of getting in and out of the car, space in the boot, etc., and sketch their design.

The teams present their designs to their class mates and explain their rationale for including the different features. This is followed by a class discussion on the strategies followed, what went well, and points to work on in future. Students are then assigned a written reflection on the process and are encouraged to set a goal to work on in future group activities.

Long Projects

Once the students have gained some experience in working in groups, they are assigned longer projects that span several weeks. In the IEP PBL course, students are assigned two long projects, each lasting four weeks. These projects are based on the design thinking process and focus on solving a specific problem. They follow five stages:

1. Empathize: In this stage, students learn as much as they can about the problem they are trying to solve. They conduct background research on the problem and interview their users to learn more about their perspectives.
2. Define: Students analyze the results of their interviews and define the main needs and problem(s) to solve.
3. Ideate: Students brainstorm for innovative solutions to the problem.
4. Prototype: Groups create an initial prototype of their solution.
5. Test: Groups test their prototype with another group of users to get feedback. They incorporate this feedback and revise their prototype.

The last stage of the project is to deliver a group presentation on the process followed. Students also write an individual reflection on the experience, outlining points to work on in future projects.

Sample topics used for longer projects:
Redesign a study space: This topic is accessible to students as they have experience with different study areas. Each group chooses a different space to redesign: classroom, study space at home, student lounge, etc. They follow the stages of design thinking to come up with a prototype that addresses the problem identified by their users.

- Design a tiny house:
  After reading about tiny houses and watching a variety of videos on the topic, students learn that tiny houses require great creativity as each item in the house must have multiple uses in order to use the small space efficiently. Each team focuses on a different type of tiny house: dorm room, mobile house, downtown apartment, etc. They get creative in addressing the specific needs of their user and come up with prototypes that are tailored to the individuals they interviewed.

- Solve a problem faced by university students:
  Teams interview other university students to learn about problems that these students face. Then, the team decides on the problem they will focus on. They do research on the topic, gather information, and follow the design thinking stages to come up with creative solutions. Examples of such topics include redesigning the campus to make it more user friendly for visually impaired students, creating origami style paper cups and straws to reduce single-use plastic, and designing an app to help students discover their talents.

Other topics used for projects include designing a toy for a specific age group, designing a startup, and redesigning a product or service.

Results of student feedback

A student self-evaluation survey was administered at the end of the semester to get the students' feedback on the skills learned and the activities they participated in. Students responded to each question on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The students' feedback was very positive, with most responses in the Strongly Agree and Agree categories.

See table 1 for the questions related to the skills learned and distribution of responses across the categories. The survey was completed by 22 respondents.

This course helped me to …	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
improve my ability to collaborate and work in teams.	68.2%	22.7%	4.5%	4.5%	
	Combined 90.9%				
look at problems from different perspectives.	68.2%	22.7%	4.5%	4.5%	
	Combined 90.9%				
break down problems into manageable steps in order to find a solution	68.2%	18.2%	9.1%	4.5%	
	Combined 86.4%				
develop my ability to come up with creative ideas using divergent thinking.	72.7%	18.2%	9.1%		
	Combined 90.9%				
develop my ability to reflect on my performance.	63.6%	31.8%	4.5%		
	Combined 95.4%				
develop my ability to communicate in English.	59.1%	22.7%	13.6%	4.5%	
	Combined 81.8%				
develop my critical thinking and problem-solving skills overall.	63.6%	18.2%	9.1%	9.1%	
	Combined 81.8%				

Table 1: Survey questions related to the skills learned and distribution of responses

The ratings were very positive for all skills surveyed and students felt the course was effective in helping them gain these skills. The skill most highly rated was reflection and this is probably because it is a new skill that very few IEP students had been exposed to previously. The skill of communicating in English was not rated as highly as expected, and this is probably due to the fact that 95% of the students were native speakers of Arabic, so students often reverted to speaking Arabic when working in groups. This is a point to work on in future semesters to find ways to motivate students to converse in English when working together.

See table 2 for the questions related to the activities and how effective they were in developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills.

These activities were effective in developing my critical thinking and problem-solving skills:	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Short projects					
Information gap activities, such as the bank robbery mystery.	54.5%	27.2%	13.6%		4.5%
	Combined 81.7%				
Teambuilding activities, such as the campus scavenger hunt.	50%	27.2%	18%		4.5%
	Combined 77.2%				
Design activities, such as redesigning a chair.	59%	27.2%	9%	4.5%	
	Combined 86.2%				
Longer projects					
Design thinking project 1 - Design a tiny house	63.6%	22.7%	4.5%	9%	
	Combined 86.3%				
Design thinking project 2 - Redesign a product or a service	59%	27.2%	4.5%	4.5%	4.5%
	Combined 86.2%				

Table 2: Survey questions related to the effectiveness of the activities in developing critical thinking and problem solving skills

The ratings were very positive for all activities surveyed. The students particularly appreciated the design thinking activities and projects and this is probably because they require creativity and critical thinking, which the students enjoyed.

Students were also given the opportunity to write comments. In response to a question about the specific aspects of these activities that helped them learn, they mentioned teamwork, communication, time management, divergent thinking, creative thinking, creating prototypes, giving presentations, and writing reflections. Regarding specific recommendations for modifying or improving these activities, only one comment was made suggesting that an option be added to remove a member from a group if they don't do their share of the work. As with all group work, it is difficult to ensure all members contribute equally to the task and this can cause frustration for the other team members. Although there are several opportunities in the course assessment for grading individual effort, there is currently no mechanism for team members to evaluate their peers. This is an option that can be considered in the future.

Implications for the future

Based on the results of the student feedback survey, the main area to work on is finding ways to motivate students to communicate in English during their group discussions. One possible way is to introduce an element of gamification where groups that communicate in English will receive rewards, badges, and/or bonus points. Rewarding speaking in English, as opposed to punishing the use of the L1, will hopefully motivate the students to make the effort. Another way to motivate the students could be to provide more opportunities for them to speak in front of the class and to communicate with other students and teachers. This could motivate them to practice their speaking to gain fluency so that they are more comfortable during these activities.

Another point to consider is ways to motivate all team members to participate equally in the group project. Students get frustrated when they feel that a teammate is not making an effort,

and this can negatively affect the group work experience. Introducing self and peer evaluation as a method to encourage equal participation can be considered. It is possible that if students know that their contribution will be evaluated by their team members at the end of the project, this will help clarify expectations and might motivate them to apply themselves.

Conclusion

The results of the survey indicate that the students felt they benefited from the course and gained valuable skills including integrated language skills, 21st century skills, and reflective skills. They also rated highly the variety of activities they participated in and felt that they helped them gain the skills of critical thinking and problem solving. The IEP is the first course that these students encounter when joining the university and therefore is the first step in their learning. The students will continue to develop these important skills throughout their university courses. Future research could be done to assess the continued development of these skills in subsequent courses.

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Motivation in Learning English as a Second Language Among the Grade 10 Students at Imus National High School

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Abstract

Learning a language is most likely to occur when second language students "want to learn." Gardner and Lambert (1959) proposed two orientations of motivation in second language learning: (1) "integrative motivation" or the motivation to learn a second language to integrate into the target language community; and (2) "instrumental motivation" or learning a second language for a more a practical purpose. Thus, the main goal of this study is to identify and to investigate on the second language learning motivation of the Grade 10 students at Imus National High School by using the modified version of Gardner's Attitude and Motivation Test Battery as the instrument of this study. In the end, it is revealed that the respondents were both significantly influenced by instrumental and integrative motivations to learn English as a second language. It is also revealed that the level of instrumental motivation and integrative motivation of the female respondents did not differ significantly from the male respondents. The study hopes to offer opportunities that will help in augmenting the second language classroom environment and in preparing operative language teaching approaches for optimum second language learning.

Keywords: Integrative Motivation, Instrumental Motivation, Language Education, Language Instruction, Language Motivation, Second Language Learning

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1. INTRODUCTION

In latest years of domination by the insightful language studies, there has been a transferal in focus from the teacher to the learner – from the exclusive focus on the enhancement of teaching to an increased concern for how second language learners go about their learning tasks in a second language. It had become more vibrant that much of the responsibility for the success of second language learning depends, not only from the language teachers and the language curriculum, but mostly with individual second language learners and with their ability to take full benefit of prospects to learn English as a second language. This case created the turning point of study and focus towards the second language learners; thus, making the second language learner, along with the different variables and characteristics, as the crucial element for second language learning.

Lightbown and Spada (2008) stated that second language learning is affected by several factors or learner characteristics. These learner factors or learner characteristics include motivation, aptitude, personality, intelligence, and learner preferences. In the study of Gomleksiz (2001), he identified that the level of cognitive development, socio-economic and cultural background, the ability to acquire a new language, age, and motivation of the second language learner can be expressed as the factors that influence second language learning. Moreover, Peters (2010) concluded in one of his articles that the second language learner's motivation is the most powerful factor on second language learning. Peters (2010) also added that language educators have a concrete and sensible notion that learning a language is most likely to occur when second language students "want to learn."

By the 1990s, Gardner's idea about motivation had prodigious supremacy in second language motivation research (Dornyei, 2001). Both Gardner and Lambert (1959) proposed two orientations of motivation in second language learning: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Yin Mun (2011) summarized the definition of these two orientations of motivation as follows: "second language learners with instrumental motivation learn a second language with a more practical purpose, such as applying for a job or achieving higher social status. Meanwhile, second language learners with integrative motivation learn a second language due to a positive outlook towards the target language group because they wish to integrate into the target language community." Essentially, second language learners are being driven by these distinct orientations of motivation in language learning.

1.1 Conceptual Framework

With all the concepts being established and significant terms being defined and explain, this study aims to fill out the research gaps regarding what orientation of motivation is used by second language learners in the immediate community and what significant impact does these orientations of motivation in second language learning have towards the second language learners. Thus, the major idea of this research is to investigate on motivation as an important factor in second language learning process.

Figure 1: The research conceptual framework. This framework underpins the theory of Gardner and Lambert (1959) on integrative motivation (pushing) and instrumental motivation (pulling)

The conceptual framework of this study is provided above. The conceptual framework underpins the theory of Gardner and Lambert (1959) about integrative and instrumental orientations of motivation. Basically, second language learners are being driven by these distinct orientations of motivation in learning English as a second language. The conceptual framework exemplifies the "great push" of integrative motivation and the "great weight" of instrumental motivation towards the second language learner. However, these orientations of motivation, though assumed to be used by second language learners simultaneously, have varying dominance or effects to them. Certain second language learners may use more of the instrumental motivation, while others use integrative motivation dominantly.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In effect, this study is carried out to investigate the significance of motivation and to ascertain which between the two orientations of motivation had a dominant effect in second language learning among target respondents - the Grade 10 students at Imus National High School for the School Year 2019-2020. Thus, the research question to be addressed is - which between the two orientations of motivation has greater influence to learn second language for the target respondents – in terms of (1) the combined data and (2) between males and females?

1.3 Significance of the Study

Based on the research question, it is highly recommendable that the study is noteworthy because it sheds light on one of the aspects claimed to have a great influence in learning English as a second language – motivation. Recognizing what orientation of motivation – instrumental or integrative – that stimulate second language learners to attend English language classes and to attain the optimum competence in English language is crucial for second language students, teachers, and researchers. With this understanding, language experts and educators may work on enhancing those types of motivation and the factors that increase our second language students' interest in learning English and stimulate these second language students to accomplish higher levels of the cognitive and academic English language proficiency (CALP) and the basic interpersonal communicative English Skills (BICS) to attain communicative competence.

Because of the possible conclusions of this study, it is important to note that motivation truly has an impact on the factors to increase the drive to learn the second language and the language learning strategies that educators must utilize for language learning. Therefore, analysis of motivation and identification which orientation of motivation has a superior effect

are indeed very vital. First, this study may compel language specialist to initiate in deliberating and reviewing the current Philippine language curriculum. Second, this study may also force the language teachers to improve the classroom environment in relation to the orientation of motivation that their students are greatly influenced by to achieve success in second language learning. Lastly, this study is also necessary so that language experts may improvise learning strategies inside the second language classroom so that ultimate second language learning is achieved. In return, second language learners must take the initiative in recognizing the power of these language learning strategies for their own language growth.

In general, this study is imperative because, according to Slavin (2009), recognizing and investigating on second language motivation had been a noteworthy issue in the language learning research for it opens an opportunity to augment the language classroom environment and to offer operative language teaching approaches.

1.4 Scope and Limitations

The scope and limitations in this study must be acknowledged. First, this paper shall only emphasize on and answer the role of motivation in second language learning. Second, this paper shall only consider the two orientations of motivation proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1959). The two orientations of motivation include integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Third, this paper was conducted on a research sample composing of a total number of 100 Grade 10 students at Imus National High School - Main for the School Year 2019-2020. All respondents are 15-16 years old at the time of the data gathering.

However, through random sampling, only 80 respondents were considered. Since the sample size is only a small fraction of the entire population of the entire Imus National High School – Main, the researcher would like to admit that this sample size is not a credible characteristic of the whole populace and cannot be taken as a generality of the results that include all students at Imus National High School - Main.

1.5 Review of Related Literature

The factors that influence second language learning had brought out numerous academic and linguistic research in the past decades. Hegehahn and Olson (1977) saw that learning the second language was entirely dependent on several factors or commonly called learner characteristics which Lightbown and Spada (2008) categorized as follows: motivation, aptitude and personality, intelligence, and learner preferences. These factors determine the success and failure of learning the second language. However, in the plethora of these research, it was revealed that the motivation of the second language learner is one of the most, if not, the most essential factor in second language learning.

It was Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert who first analyzed the impact of motivational variables in second language learning. Gardner and Wallace (1985), who were well-known socio-psychological theorists, defined motivation as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the second language because of the desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in the activity." From this definition, we can describe motivation as goal-oriented and the immediate goal of the learner is to learn the language. Taking this into account, Gardner and Wallace (1985) argued that understanding learner's motivation means examining the learner's penultimate goal or purpose to learn the language. From here, Gardner and Wallace (1985) proposed the two main orientations of motivation. One is

integrative motivation which they defined as "a favorable attitude toward the target language community and possibly a wish to integrate and adapt to a new target culture through use of the language." Second is instrumental motivation which they defined as "a more functional reason for learning the target language, such as a job promotion, or a language requirement."

Meanwhile, Culhane (2004) also clarified the difference between instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Culhane (2004) argued that a second language learner who is influenced by instrumental motivation concerns himself in language development to achieve social goals in learning the target language; while a second language learner who is influenced by integrative motivation focuses on his willingness and interest to promote second language learning through meaningful societal interactions with the language community. In other words, a second language learner would identify himself as an instrumentally motivated learner if he were willing to learn the target language to pass an examination or to apply for a better line of work. On the contrary, a second language learner will classify as an integratively motivated learner if he possesses compassionate attitudes toward the culture of the target language and perceives boundless value in being able to speak foreign languages and to experience appreciation of different cultures.

Nevertheless, there had always been arguments for ages on which among the two orientations of motivation to learn the second language is more influential or powerful. Many studies had produced profound results regarding this issue. For Gass and Selinker (2008), integrative motivation had always been regarded as the most powerful factor for the successful second language learning. Gardner (1985) also found out that integrative motivation had an enormously extraordinary consequence in formal learning environment than instrumental motivation. Lastly, Norris-Holt (2001) declared that, even though both integrative motivation and instrumental motivation are necessary elements of success in second language learning, his numerous studies on motivation proved that it is integrative motivation which had been found to endure long-term success in learning a second language.

Many studies had also debunked these conclusions. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) were the very first sociolinguists who questioned about the power of integrative motivation in learning the second language because they argued that the empirical evidence to support the notion that integrative motivation is a cause, and second language achievement is the effect is still unclear. The research of Wang (2009) also supported the conclusion that it is not integrative motivation, but instrumental motivation that dictates success in learning the target language. For Wang (2009), the virtual prominence of instrumental motivation or integrative motivation is dependent on the context in which a new language is learned.

Moreover, the research of Redfield, Figoni and Levin (2009) had also refuted the notion that integrative motivation determines success in second language learning. In the research conducted among the technology students at Toyohashi University of Technology in Japan, Redfield, Figoni and Levin (2009) were able to conclude that students had more instrumental motivation than integrative motivation because the respondents perceived learning the second language as an academic and professional tool, rather than the key for social interaction.

Yet, Brown (2004) had made a compelling argument that the researchers mentioned above had fairly missed. Brown (2004) stressed out that integrative motivation and instrumental motivation are not automatically equally exclusive. Second language learners use both orientations of motivation, perhaps use the combination of the two orientations, in day-to-day experiences: rather than exclusively selecting one orientation when learning the target

language. Brown (2009) also elucidated that motivation is not entirely dependent on gender and preferences.

These compelling literatures had made significant bearing in this research. One is whether instrumental motivation or integrative motivation has greater influence in learning the second language among the research respondents. And two is whether gender determine the respondents' motivation to learn English as the second language.

2. METHODOLOGY

This section shall give a description of the research method used in the study. It shall describe the participants or subjects and elucidate the research procedures.

2.1 Research Instrument

The study utilized a survey questionnaire which is composed of two parts. The first part is the respondents' profile wherein the following variables were elicited: gender and age. The second part aims to determine the most influential orientation of motivation among the respondents. This was a modified version of Gardner's Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The respondents were required to complete this part by shading the circle of the corresponding item based on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." This part contains 10 items that exemplify the orientations of motivation in second language learning - 5 questions (items 1-5) for the instrumental motivation and 5 questions (items 6-10) for the integrative motivation. The questions are provided below.

1.   I need to learn English because it allows me to get better job opportunities in the future domestically and internationally.
2.   I need to learn English because it enables me to attain more information for my academic requirements.
3.   I need to learn English because other people shall regard me higher if I know the English language.
4.   I need to learn English because it engages me to be involved in international businesses and transactions.
5.   I need to learn English because it enables me to pass assessments in order to further my studies abroad.
6.   I need to learn English because I enjoy having a dialogue with people who speak the English language too.
7.   I need to learn English because it equips me to appreciate the English life style and culture.
8.   I need to learn English because it helps me love literary works, movies and songs written in the English language.
9.   I need to learn English because I think that English is a beautiful language.
10.   I need to learn English because it allows me to make friendly connections and participate freely in the activities of English cultural groups.

2.2   Research Participants

A total of 100 students at Imus National High School – Main for the School Year 2019-2020 participated in the study. Since they are in Grade 10, their ages range from 15-16 years old at the time of data gathering and surveying. Through random sampling, only 80 students were

considered for data treatment, interpretation, and analysis. The frequency distribution of the respondents were 34 male students (42.5%) and 46 female students (57.5%).

2.3 Data Gathering Procedures

Administration of the survey questionnaire happened during the Regular English period of the respondents inside the Learning Resource Area of Imus National High School - Main. The survey questionnaire was proctored by the school librarian to ensure objectivity in terms of the administration and deliberation of potential research outcomes. Before answering the questionnaire, specific instructions were laid down to the respondents. Respondents were also oriented about the importance of honest responses to reach a credible outcome of the study. Thus, they were asked to answer the survey items truthfully and seriously.

3. RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter shall be categorized into two sections. The first section shows the data gathered and analysis on the orientations of motivation as obtained by the survey questionnaire for the combined respondents, while the second section is for the separated respondents (males versus females).

3.1 Motivation in Second Language Learning (Combined Respondents)

SURVEY ITEMS		NUMERICAL SUMMARY			TEST OF NORMALITY		TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE
QUESTION RANGE	REPRESENTATION	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	LIKERT SCALE INTERPRETATION	TEST STATISTIC	P-VALUE	
Questions 1-5	Instrumental Motivation	4.078	0.552	Agree	0.961	0.016	T=3.472 P=0.00084
Questions 6-10	Integrative Motivation	4.035	0.593	Agree	0.962	0.017	COR=0.366

Figure 2: This shows the test of normality and test of significance of instrumental motivation among the combined male and female respondents; and the test of normality and test of significance of integrative motivation among the combined male and female respondents.

Results:

1.   Questions 1 to 5 represent characteristics of instrumental motivation, while Questions 6 to 10 represent characteristics of integrative motivation. The mean for instrumental motivation is 4.078 with a standard deviation of 0.552; while the mean of integrative motivation is 4.035 with a standard deviation of 0.593. Likert scale interpretation indicates that since the mean for instrumental motivation is 4.078 and the mean for integrative motivation is 4.035, it follows that the combined respondents "agree" to instrumental motivation and integrative motivation.

2.   Test of normality revealed that instrumental motivation scores of the combined respondents, $D(80)=0.961$, $p=0.016$, were not normal and therefore significant; also, the integrative motivation scores of the combined respondents, $D(80)=0.962$, $p=0.017$, were not normal and therefore significant.

3.   Correlation and test for significance revealed that instrumental motivation and integrative motivation were strongly and positively correlated, $r(78)=0.366$ and therefore significant, $p=0.00084$.

Conclusions:

The table shown above details the descriptive statistics of the two orientations of motivation and reports on the mean and standard deviation for each motivation. The mean of instrumental motivation and the mean of integrative motivation appear to be close to each other, having 4.078 for instrumental motivation and 4.035 for integrative motivation. Since the Likert scale used on the questionnaire was of 5 points, both averages of the orientations of motivation are above average and are considered "agreeable." This indicates that the Grade 10 Imus National High School - Main students for the School Year 2019-2020 who participated in this study were both instrumentally and integratively motivated to learn the second language.

This result suggests that the respondents consider using both instrumental motivation and integrative motivation in the quest to learn English as a second language. It means that the respondents do not exclusively use just one orientation of motivation, but both orientations of motivation work accordingly and influence the respondents' behavior towards learning the second language. They perceive all constructive and advantageous outcomes - regardless of the orientation of motivation – in learning the second language. They perceive learning the English language for immediate purposes or practical goals and, at the same time, for personal growth and cultural enrichment. This means that the respondents are compelled to study a new language due to the inter-twining effects of concrete recompenses, intrinsic choice, sense of accomplishment, readiness and interest, affirmative attitude, and assimilation to the target language sphere.

The research of Millar and Gallagher (1996) supports this idea. Millar and Gallagher (1996) stated that the motivational requirements of adolescents to study English as a second language may fluctuate at times, but conceivable and measurable connections to all these requirements are still undeniably obvious. It is therefore conclusive that second language learners belonging in this age group have motivational needs to learn English as a second language for as long as second language learning shall provide them a sense of confidence and advantage. In essence, both orientations of motivation are necessities to the respondents for second language learning. For the respondents, instrumental motivation alone will not be sufficient to advance success in second language learning. Both orientations of motivation encourage second language learners to acquire English as a second language.

Though the means of both instrumental and integrative motivations are close to each other, the findings also show that instrumental motivation had a higher mean than integrative motivation. This finding shows that, even though both orientations of motivation work together for learners to acquire a second language, it is instrumental motivation that highly influences them to learn English as a second language. This means that the Grade 10 students at Imus National High School – Main for the School Year 2019-2020 are more "instrumentally motivated" to learn a second language considering the difference of the mean scores between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation as basis of this conclusion.

Aside from the difference between the means of integrative and instrumental motivation, it is revealed that there is a strong and positive correlation between instrumental motivation and integrative motivation and this correlation is statistically significant. This means that there is a significant difference between the instrumental motivation and integrative motivation among the Grade 10 Imus National High School students for the School Year 2019-2020.

This suggests that learners are more likely to be influenced by instrumental motivation than integrative motivation in learning a second language.

This result contradicts the assumptions of Gardner and Lambert (1959) as stipulated in the book of Ellis (1997). This might also be one of the most significant findings of this research because in debunks the conclusions made by the pioneering study conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1959). In his reference, Ellis (1997) stated that in some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1985), integrative motivation was perceived as being more important in any formal language speaking environment. Gardner and Lambert (1985) argue that instrumental motivation had always been secondary to integrative motivation because second language learners view second language learning intrinsically. However, Gardner and Lambert's study was conducted in a formal set-up. This elicits the idea that the respondents for study were academically inclined and formally educated and, thus, the reason why their study revealed that integrative motivation is more influential than instrumental motivation. Yet, this may seem a hasty conclusion that, since the respondents were brought up in a formal environment and the research was administered in a formal setting, the result shall favor integrative motivation. Undeniably, this research paper was conducted in a formal set-up; yet the result revealed otherwise.

This research paper found out that the respondents tend to be influenced more by instrumental motivation than integrative motivation. Though the Grade 10 Imus National High School - Main students for the School Year 2019-2020 utilized both orientations of motivations to learn English as a second language, they tend to learn a second language not mostly because of their optimistic attitude towards the English language community but because they use the language for a more functional or utilitarian purpose. They need to learn English as a second language because, for them, learning English give them high possibility of getting employed or studying domestically and internationally. Since the Grade 10 students at Imus National High School – Main for the School Year 2019 – 2020 are instrumentally motivated, they tend view learning the English language as a key for them to pass their academic examinations and to accomplish their homework and other requirements in school. For the respondents, learning English as a second language and achieving communicative competence shall make other people to respect them and shall make them be involved in international conferences and business transactions.

Thus, this research finding supports the conclusions of Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Wang (2009), and Redfield, Figoni, and Levin (2009) as explained in the review of related literature. The researchers mentioned all found out that the respondents who studied English as their second language are being influenced more by their instrumental motivation than integrative motivation. The researchers stated that, regardless of whether the respondents were in the formal or informal set-up, these respondents feel the need for learning English mainly for utilitarian, scholarly and practical reasons but not predominantly for social reasons.

3.2 Motivation in L2 Learning (Male versus Female Respondents)

MOTIVATION	GENDER	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	LIKERT SCALE INTERPRETATION	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
Instrumental Motivation	Female	4.013	0.450	Agree	1	1.487	0.226
	Male	4.165	0.663	Agree			
Integrative Motivation	Female	3.996	0.673	Agree	1	0.473	0.494
	Male	4.088	0.470	Agree			

Figure 2: This shows the comparison of instrumental motivation of the male respondents versus the female respondents; and the comparison of integration motivation of the male respondents versus the female respondents via test of test of normality and test of significance.

Results:

Comparison of means between male and female respondents for instrumental and integrative motivation revealed the following:

1. Female (M=4.013, SD=0.450) and male respondents (M=4.165, SD=0.663) did not deviate significantly on their instrumental motivation, t(1)=1.487, p=0.226. Since p-value is greater than 0.05, then there is no significant difference between the instrumental motivation of female respondents to male respondents.

2. Female (M=3.996, SD=0.673) and male respondents (M=4.088, SD=0.470) did not deviate significantly on their integrative motivation, t(1)=0.473, p=0.494. Since p-value is greater than 0.05, then there is no significant difference between the integrative motivation of female respondents to male respondents.

Conclusions:

The table above details the descriptive statistics of the two orientations of motivation for the male respondents and the female respondents. The findings show that (1) the level of instrumental motivation of females did not differ significantly from males; and (2) the level of integrative motivation of females did not also differ significantly from the males.

Though prior findings had revealed there is a significant correlation between the instrumental motivation and the integrative motivation of the combined respondents, the above findings show that the Grade 10 female students at Imus National High School – Main for the School Year 2019-2020 do not have a stronger or higher or weaker or lower influence of instrumental motivation versus the male respondents. The same results also revealed that the Grade 10 female students at Imus National High School – Main for the School Year 2019-2020 do not have a stronger or higher or weaker or lower influence of integrative motivation versus the male respondents. Altogether, the female respondents and male respondents do not differ significantly in terms of the two orientations of motivation.

These results had debunked the conclusions of a few language research most primarily the research of Boggiano and Barrett (1992). Boggiano and Barrett (1992) found out that female second language learners are more instrumentally motivated than male language learners. Boggiano and Barrett (1992) also claimed that male second language learners are influenced dominantly by their integrative motivation. Furthermore, Brown (2004) had also revealed that female second language learners are dominant in using instrumental motivation and

integrative motivation in learning English as a second language. This means that male second language do not use any orientation of motivation at all.

Although this research had initially concluded that instrumental motivation is the most influential factor in second language learning among the Grade 10 students at Imus National High School – Main for the School Year 2019-2020, it is also conclusive that there is no significant difference between the two orientations of motivation according to sex. Both male second language learners and female second language learners are fairly influenced by both instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Therefore, this research concludes that the respondents' sex is not an influential variable that determines the orientation of motivation that the respondents use to learn English as a second language. Both male and female respondents acquire a language as a means for accomplishing instrumental objectives such as advancing an occupation, understanding methodical references, conversion and so forth; and, at the same time, acquire a language to assimilate themselves into the culture of the second language community and to become tangled in communal transaction in that language community.

Furthermore, the Grade 10 students at Imus National High School – Main for the School Year 2019-2020 perceive learning the English language in the most appealing way for the male and female respondents both agree on their orientation of motivation. They wanted to learn English to achieve practical goals and to identify themselves with the language community. The motivation of these second language learners encompasses awareness of the concrete value in learning the second language such as accumulating industrial or commercial prospects, improving reputation and supremacy, retrieving scientific and methodological material or just graduating from a course in school; and, at the same time, supports interest on the associative value in learning the second language such as liking the people who use the target language, admiring the culture of the target language community and having the desire to be integrated into the society where the language is being spoken.

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Enhancing Students' Global, Cultural and Social Awareness in East Asian Language Curricula Through the Transformative Language Learning and Teaching

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Abstract

Foreign language pedagogy in the US is facing a paradigm shift, i.e., from communicative language teaching to the emerging Transformative Language Learning and Teaching (TLLT) in response to significant social and political changes (Leaver, 2021). TLLT has the potential to address issues that are important to the field of language education today as it "causes the learner to change in some way – thinking, behavior, acceptance of the other, values, mindset, and/or emotion" (Leaver, 2021, p.16) through their FL learning experiences. However, there are limited scholarly discussions about the implementation and pedagogical implications of this emerging theory. This presentation addresses this research gap by reporting the classroom applications of TLLT in collegiate Japanese and Chinese courses in the U.S. Student responses to the application of TLLT in their language course were analyzed qualitatively. The findings suggest that students in language courses highly value transformative learning experiences that are beyond proficiency-oriented language learning. Amid the pandemic and the national awakening on racial disparity, all educators play a crucial role in promoting social justice. We argue that TLLT has the potential of transforming language learners into linguistically and culturally competent global citizens who respect people of different cultural backgrounds and perceive the interconnectedness of all people as fellow citizens of Earth.

Keywords: Transformative Language Learning and Teaching, Cultural Learning, Global Citizenship Education, Critical Content Based Instruction

Introduction

Foreign language pedagogy in the US is facing a paradigm shift, i.e., from communicative language teaching to the emerging Transformative Language Learning and Teaching (TLLT) in response to significant social and political changes (Leaver, 2021). TLLT has the potential to address issues that are important to the field of language education today as it "causes the learner to change in some way – thinking, behavior, acceptance of the other, values, mindset, and/or emotion" (Leaver, 2021, p.16) through their FL learning experiences. However, there are limited scholarly discussions about the implementation and pedagogical implications of this emerging theory. This paper addresses this research gap by reporting the classroom applications of TLLT in collegiate Japanese and Chinese courses in the U.S.

TLLT is a considerably new concept in the field of language education. Leaver (2021) describes TLLT as "a manifestation of larger changes that are already under way in the dominant transactive education philosophy of world language learning" (p13), which "in its essence, causes the learner to change in some way – thinking, behavior, acceptance of the other, values, mindset, and/or emotion." (p15).

Leaver and Granoine (2000) point out that since the mid-twentieth century, foreign language education has experienced three distinct educational philosophies: transmission, transaction, and transformation. Accordingly, these three philosophies have shaped the teaching of languages in three different paradigms. Leaver (2021) considers transmission approaches to world language education as the old paradigm, transactive approaches to world language education as a new paradigm, and transformative language learning and teaching as an emerging paradigm. In terms of language education, Leaver (2021) summarizes that the current prevalent communicative language teaching (CLT) represents a comprehensive break against the earlier grammar-translation method; and TLLT represents a break with communicative language teaching.

Leaver (2021) summarizes shared characteristics of transformative classrooms that distinguish from transactive or transmissive classes. These characteristics include:

- A goal of producing bilingual/bicultural people through transformations fostered by language learning experiences;
- A multidirectional information flow among autonomous learners and teacher-coaches, who lead learners to self-awareness, cultural awareness, an understanding that the map is not the territory, and subsequent reframing of perspective or situation;
- Open architecture curricula design (OACD) classrooms with flexible syllabi adapted to learner need and unique to each individual class;
- Reliance on authentic materials, people, and situation-based instruction, not on textbooks;
- Activities that cause learners to encounter disorienting dilemmas and use critical thinking, reflection, analysis, and research to understand them

(Leaver, 2021, p18)

As Leaver, Davidson, and Campbell (2021) have indicated, TLLT presents a new philosophy of education for world language instruction, and broad-ranging and frank discussion is essential for the language field to make sense of TLLT and benefit from its potential. Even though early adopters of the TLLT principles have reported varying levels of promising experiences and successes in applying the principles in the study and teaching of world

languages, TLLT as an "emerging paradigm" requires much more close examinations, discussions, and debates. Probably there are more questions concerning TLLT than answers that can be found in the existing literature. For instance, how do instructors select authentic materials that fit learners of different levels of proficiency, how effective is the TLLT pedagogy in developing learners' language competency? Of particular concern is the assessment of students' performance in a transformative classroom, that is, how can instructors ensure that learners experience "transformation" and how to reliably assess such "transformation"? It is our hope that questions like these will provoke further discussions and debates among language practitioners about TLLT.

In the sections below we discuss how TLLC principles were applied in the design and curricula of two foreign language courses - an elementary Japanese course and an advanced Chinese course - at a research university in North America.

Cultural Study toward Global Citizenship in an Introductory Japanese Language Course

Paradigm Shift and the Role of Culture in FL Curriculum

Cultural study has long been an integral part of foreign language (FL) pedagogy. The role of culture in FL instructions, however, has changed significantly over the past several decades as educational philosophy and goals of FL curriculum evolved. Currently, FL pedagogy in the US is going through a paradigm shift in response to social and political changes (Leaver, 2021). Since the 1990s, communicative language approaches which focus on transactional oral communication have dominated the field, and it has been common for the language programs to have proficiency as their primary goal. Under the transactive approaches, the role of culture in FL instruction was to give knowledge (e.g., pragmatics, sociolinguistic facts) that helps learners fit in the target culture and avoid communication breakdowns. In contrast, emerging FL approaches are grounded in the educational philosophy of transformation. Examples of the emerging approaches include, literacy-based approaches (Kern, 2000), critical content-based instruction, transformative language learning and teaching (TLLT), and social networking approach (Tohsaku, 2021) among others. Overarching goal of these approaches is to facilitate learner's personal change by enhancing learner's critical cultural awareness – "an ability to evaluate, critically and on the bases of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries" (Byram, 1997, p.63), equipping learners with intercultural competence – "a critical understanding of their own and other cultures and be conscious that their own perspective is culturally determined" (Garret-Rucks, 2016. P.37), fostering global citizens, creating eco-ethical consciousness (Goulah, 2017), and so forth. In particular, implementing transformative learning theories (e.g., Freire, 2020; Ikeda, 1991-2011, 2010a, 2010b; Mezirow, 1978; O'Sullivan, 1999, 2008; Vygotsky, 2012) to language learning is timely as we are challenging racial discrimination and anti-Asian hate crimes, if we assume that "the fundamental cause [of unjust discrimination in America] lay in the prejudice and bias rooted deeply in people's hearts" (Ikeda, 1995, p. 144).

Transformative Learning and Global Citizenship Education through Meaningful Cultural Reflections in Introductory FL Courses

Despite the growing interest in cultural study based on critical analysis and reflections in FL curriculum, deep cultural learning is absent in most of introductory level courses because of

students' limited proficiency in the target language, teachers' reluctance to use English in a FL course, and teachers' lack of training in this relatively new approach to cultural study (Garrett-Rucks, 2016). As our effort to understand people of different backgrounds (linguistic, cultural, religious, racial, etc.) has critical importance in challenging global issues that our increasingly diverse society is facing, deep cultural learning should be included from the very beginning of FL education, instead of leaving it to advanced level courses, which only a fraction of college students enrolls (Zimmer-Loew, 2008).

Garrett-Rucks (2013) is one of the pioneering works that advocates for the inclusion of meaningful cultural reflections in an introductory FL course using the learner's first language, English. In this study, students enrolled in an introductory French course at a technical college engaged in cultural reflections through an online discussion board after accessing explicit cultural instruction and authentic texts prepared by the instructor. Her qualitative analysis of the discussion and interview transcripts revealed "the collective change in learners' intercultural sensitivity" and "the shifts away from their ethnocentric approaches toward culture" (p. 201).

With this paradigm shift in the field of FL education in the backdrop, the present study advocates for the new role of culture in FL instruction - fostering global citizens and responds to Garrett-Rucks' (2013) call to include meaningful cultural reflections in English in introductory FL courses in the US higher education.

The term 'global citizens' is often used without a clear definition. In the present study, we adopted Ikeda's (2001) definition of global citizens which is grounded in the Eastern principles of dependent origination (i.e., interrelatedness of everyone and everything). Ikeda proposed that wisdom, courage, and compassion described below as the essential elements of global citizenship, and guiding students to possess these elements are the goals for education for global citizenship.

- The wisdom to perceive the interconnectedness of all life and living.
- The courage not to fear or deny difference but to respect and strive to understand people of different cultures and to grow from encounters with them.
- The compassion to maintain an imaginative empathy that reaches beyond one's immediate surroundings and extends to those suffering in distant places.

<div align="right">(Ikeda, 2001, p. 101)</div>

Although Ikeda does not see multilingualism as part of the essential elements of global citizenship, he advocates FL studies in the context of developing intercultural or global perspective (see Goulah, 2012). We developed a learning activity for our Japanese case study, which we named *cultural study toward global citizenship* by applying Ikeda's ideas of global citizenship education and focusing on learner's perspectival and behavioral transformations through such activities as analysis and evaluation, exploration, comparison, and critical reflections.

Research Questions and the Study

The study outlined in this paper is teacher-conducted classroom research referred to as action research which "seeks to clarify and resolve practical teaching issues and problems" (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 171). The study aimed to explore the outcome of the inclusion of cultural study in English in an introductory level Japanese course focusing on (1) students'

reactions, and (2) its transformative learning potential with respect to global citizenship education. The guiding research questions are as follows:

1) How do students respond to the inclusion of cultural study in English in their introductory level Japanese course?
2) How do students respond to cultural study with respect to their growth as global citizens?
3) The present study employed a qualitative method with a "discovery-oriented" approach (Patton, 2002) in order to explore and discover if learners gain the three elements of global citizens, wisdom, courage, and compassion proposed by Ikeda (2001) as well as learners' personal change. Mizuki Mazzotta's students enrolled in an introductory Japanese course (# = 19) participated in this study.

The cultural study activities consisted of (1) a small group student presentation on a cultural topic followed by class discussion, and (2) a discussion board reflective essay on the presentations and discussions they had throughout the semester. Students presented one cultural topic of their choice within the following three themes: Celebrations, ceremonies, and seasonal events in Japan; Japanese architecture; and Japan's efforts towards SDGs – Environmental issues. These themes were selected so that students could explore both "Big C" culture (i.e., literature, fine arts, history) and "Little C" culture (i.e., lifestyle, patterns of daily living).

Students researched on their topic with their group members and prepared a Power Point presentation including a few discussion questions that aim to engage students to analyze Japanese culture's beliefs and values, to compare them with the culture of their own, and to learn different world views. The instructor provided feedback on students' presentation materials prior to their presentations to ensure the quality of presentation. Each group presented for 10 minutes followed by a class discussion which usually lasted 20-25 minutes. The instructor guided the discussions to facilitate transformative learning through critical analysis while keeping in mind fostering global citizens with compassion, courage, and wisdom described by Ikeda (2001) as the elements of global citizens. After the seven presentations, students wrote a reflective culture learning essay on a discussion board in Canvas (a web-based learning management system).

Analysis and Findings

The main data source was students' culture learning reflective essays, which were analyzed using a qualitative analysis software, NVivo to organize and analyze data thoroughly and vigorously in a transparent way. We employed common qualitative data analysis procedures of reading the essays line-by-line to identify emerging themes, which we used as a unit of analysis for coding. In our analysis, we used a combination of deductive approach and inductive approach. Prior to coding, we created a set of codes based on our research questions (deductive approach). In addition, we wanted to allow new themes to emerge from the data, and thus using an inductive approach, we created new codes as we analyzed the data.

RQ1: How do students respond to the inclusion of cultural study in English in their introductory level Japanese course?

Students viewed the inclusion of cultural study in their introductory level Japanese course positively for three reasons: (1) the course content was not mere language learning; (2) cultural study increased their engagement, enjoyment, and/or motivation in their course; and (3) their belief that cultural understanding is integral to mastering a foreign language. Followings are some representative student comments on the three points.   All names used herein are pseudonyms.

> *"I have taken multiple language courses in the past, ..., and not once have I enjoyed taking them.... However, ..., I felt that this class was different....* ***I found that I was actually enjoying myself, and I believe that I was also learning the language more quickly as a result.*** *.... I came to the conclusion that it is because this class not only covers Japanese language, but culture as well."* (Mike)

> *"The culture presentation serves to be an important opportunity for people in the class to learn the traditions and values of Japanese culture, communicate with one another,* ***make meaningful discourse on materials that are beyond language learning, and engage in critical thinking***.*"* (Cindy)

> *"I found that learning language without learning the culture behind them to be a disservice to both the culture and the language one is trying to learn."* (Sally)

In addition, the findings of the present study indicate that discussions among members of the classroom community fostered students' development as global citizens. The class consisted of American, Chinese, and Korean students. Thus, we often had intercultural discussions involving the four cultures of Japan, America, China, and Korea, which afforded students the opportunity to deeply reflect on cultural differences as well as commonalities as fellow citizens of our global society.

RQ2: How do students respond to cultural study with respect to their growth as global citizens?

Cultural study appears to have facilitated students' growth as global citizens. Students reported that they increased their imaginative empathy, felt interconnectedness with people living in other countries as fellow citizens of the planet earth, became more respectful to different cultures, and developed a stronger desire to understand and learn from different cultures. Furthermore, some students' perspective on solving global and local problems changed. By realizing the interconnectedness of all people, some students reported that they felt that promoting sustainability is a shared responsibility among people living on Earth. Furthermore, students of this course took actions to promote sustainability on campus by making a concrete suggestion to the university dining service to reduce food waste, which was adopted by the dining service.

Helen's comment below illustrates her perspectival change. Through presentations and discussions, she realized the interconnectedness of all people which in turn increased her sense of empathy and compassion for others. Moreover, her comment shows that she strives to learn from Japanese culture.

> *"I have been able to further recognize similarities and differences between Japan and my mother country...,* **which shows me that our world is more interconnected than I initially thought**. *I will take this understanding with me moving forward, for I believe that this can* **increase my sense of empathy and compassion for others** *and help me internalize that we are not so different after all. This thought also applies to caring for the environment, in that* **I now truly feel that we are all the same humans living on the same Earth and ought to protect and save what we can….** *I especially hope to follow Japanese people's respect for nature and appreciation for the "little things" in life."* (Helen)

In conclusion, findings suggest that inclusion of cultural study in English meets the needs of introductory level language learners and also affords the language instructor to attain the emerging educational goal of foreign languages---"to help learners grow as global citizens and contribute to societies." (Tohsaku, 2021, p.36).

Implementing Critical Content-Based Instruction in an Advanced Chinese Language Course

Critical content-based instruction (CCBI) integrates critical pedagogy and content-based instruction (CBI) in language teaching. When describing the goals of CCBI, Sato et alc. state that "as students in CCBI curricula are expected to learn language and content critically, namely through critical analysis, they are also expected to develop their criticality - the skills, knowledge, and disposition required to engage in critical analysis - as an outcome of learning" (Sato et al., 2017, p. 59). In other words, through critical reflections in a CCBI classroom, learners are not only receiving new information but also evaluating their past ideas and understanding and are shifting their own worldviews in the process. This is, in essence, the key component of TLLT.

In spring 2021, during the height of the COVID-19 Pandemic, CHN402, the highest-level advanced Chinese course for non-heritage speakers at a research university in North America, was redesigned as a CCBI course for the purpose of engaging students in critical analysis of social justice issues using the target language. Below we discuss the learning outcomes, course materials, and teaching approaches of this course. We will then reflect on student feedback and shed light on the challenges in designing a CCBI course.

To help teachers begin the process of lesson planning within a critical, social justice framework, Johnson & Randolph (2015) proposed four guiding questions and a series of practical guidelines. They are:

1) Who is the source of knowledge? (Implication: Students contribute to the curriculum, some autonomy with assignments.)
2) What resources do we use in the classroom? (Implication: Select authentic resources with counterpoints to dominant narratives.)
3) How do we incorporate language proficiency with critical pedagogy? (Implication: Using a backward design to provide maximum contextualization of social justice themes and language objectives and utilize technology to engage students in critical reflection.)
4) How do we respond to controversy? (Implication: Expect and embrace conflict, be proactive with establishing community and trust in the classroom.)

5) Johnson & Randolph's questions and considerations served as a useful guide when we redesigned CHN402 as a CCBI course to foster not only linguistic and cultural competence but also enhance learners' ability to consider important social issues from diverse perspectives.

Revisiting Learning Outcomes and Using Authentic Texts

The learning outcomes for CHN402 were expanded to include the aims of developing the skills, knowledge, and disposition for critical analysis. Specifically, building upon the aim of developing Chinese language proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing, students are also expected to:

- Analyze texts of various genres in speaking and writing to develop understanding and insights about important social issues that impact the world today,
- Reconstruct and express multiple points of view using connected paragraphs, both in speaking and in writing,
- Think critically about topics of community, national, or international interests, and about your own cultures, be able to empathize with the experiences and perspectives of others,
- Develop skills of an autonomous learner, such as taking control of your own learning, setting your own goals, staying motivated and organized, as well as having the ability to access and evaluate information.

The next step is to select and develop learning materials that align with the outcomes. Based on the goals of the courses and student interests, we have included the following four units in the course.

Texts in Unit 1 Wuhan lockdown and the controversy surrounding Fang Fang's diary
  o Fang Fang's diary on February 12, 2020 (the 21st day of lockdown in Wuhan)
  o "Fang Fang diary: China's national interests and individual freedom during the Pandemic"

Texts in Unit 2 The deterioration of U.S.-China relations and its impact on studying aboard
  o "China-U.S. Decoupling: How does this "separation" shake the world" and "The deterioration of U.S.-China relations: "Sinology Fever" is extinguished"
  o "Confession of a student studying in the United States: How the pandemic shattered my American dream"

Texts in Unit 3 Anti-Asian violence and women in the workplace
  o "China's #MeToo draws more attention: Zhu Jun's sexual harassment case begins two years later"
  o "Crossroads" (a short story)

Texts in Unit 4:) Inequality and social power in Chinese society
  o "2 Immigrant Paths: One Led to Wealth, the Other Ended in Death in Atlanta"
  o "Accident" (an extract from Murong Xuecun's novel *Dancing Through Red Dust*)

When selecting authentic texts, we strove to include a variety of genres and writing styles, such as literary and narrative texts and journalistic writings. We also made sure that the level of difficulty is appropriate for the course and the students. These texts were written by people

of diverse backgrounds and experiences, ranging from famous Chinese novelists to news reporters in China and in the West, and they represent myriad viewpoints on multiple social justice issues, such as domestic violence, sexual harassment, Anti-Asian hate crimes, COVID-19 pandemic, etc.

Clearly, unlike topics that are usually represented in the "Four F's approach" to teaching culture (food, fashion, folklore, and festivals), the texts above are not "light" or "pleasant." Rather, they generate serious and at times difficult conversations. When this type of conversation takes place in a safe and supportive learning environment, students have the opportunity to examine "real struggles by real people in real relations in real communities" (Apple, 2013, p. 24).

A series of learning materials were created for each text, including 1) a study guide, 2) a vocabulary list, 3) an audio recording, 4) an instructional video, and 5) a variety of exercises.

Employing Critical Pedagogy in the Teaching of Social Justice Issues

Similar to TLLT, the central tenet of critical pedagogy rests on the idea that education is a vehicle for social change. It emphasizes that teaching should challenge learners to think critically and develop an analytical awareness of their own situations as well as society, so they have the skills to co-construct a more just and equitable society. One way to apply critical pedagogy in a language classroom is to create opportunities for students to critically discuss the texts and reflect on our own beliefs and actions as well as perspectives different from theirs to examine our assumptions, compare various views on an issue, search for roots or causes, identify problems, or offer informed solutions. This process can potentially lead to changes in how we view ourselves and our place in the world, how we think about a subject, as well as how we react to happenings around us.

In CHN402, we engaged our students in critical reflections in several ways. For asynchronous learning, we asked students to read the assigned texts on their own, and then complete a video-based preview assignment by answering two sets of questions. The first set of questions checks their comprehension of the texts, while the second set challenges students to consider the social issues and the implication. This assignment prepared students for the discussion-based synchronous class. During synchronous classes, we often used the TQE method for critical dialogic engagement with the texts. TQE stands for thoughts (T), lingering questions (Q), and epiphanies (E). Students first worked in small groups in breakout rooms on Zoom to share their own TQEs and wrote down their top two TQEs on the Google slides for the class period. When the groups returned to the main Zoom room, we discussed the questions raised by students, share different interpretations of the texts, and helped each other gain new understandings of the social issues. Additionally, we used teaching materials that present different and sometimes contrasting viewpoints to engage students in critical analysis of the texts and reflect on their own beliefs. One unit of CHN402 was about the lockdown in Wuhan at the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic in early 2020 and the controversy surrounding Fang Fang's diary. Fang Fang, a famous Chinese novelist who lived in downtown Wuhan during the 76-day lockdown, documented her experience and thoughts in her daily essays online, offering a realistic and reflective portrait of daily life under lockdown. In this unit, students read selections of her diary to gain an understanding of what life was like for ordinary Chinese during a strict lockdown. They also reflected on their own experiences in spring and summer of 2020 when various quarantine measures were implemented in the U.S. With this knowledge, we then moved on to media materials and

written texts focusing on the controversy surrounding Fang Fang's diary. One of the articles we read was published on the Chinese language site of BBC News: https://www.bbc.com/zhongwen/simp. The article reported the controversy surrounding the translation and publication of her diary abroad. Some people supported it, while others accused Fang Fang of violating national interests and destroying China's image by "handing a knife to anti-China forces." Students read this article and watched videos illustrating the opposing views on this topic before the class period. The 75-min class proceeded as follows:

- Explicit instruction and guided language practice, 20 min.
- Whole class discussion, 20-30 min. Students discussed the potential reasons for the different reactions to the news.
- Debate in two teams (supporting or opposing to the translation/publication), 20 min. The debate began with a short prep time for each group to consider their arguments, which was done in breakout rooms on shared Google slides, the debate began with presentations of arguments and was followed by responses among members of each group.

In debate, students collaborated with their peers, practiced listening and questioning, and tried to articulate their thoughts and support their arguments, which are all critical skills needed to discuss competing viewpoints. According to Leuser (2003), debates "help students learn through friendly competition, examine controversial topics and strengthen skills in the areas of leadership, interpersonal influence, teambuilding, group problem solving, and oral presentation."

Challenges and Reflections

Teaching CHN402 using CCBI proves to be an effective way of developing students' language proficiency while enhancing their skills in critical analysis. The following written comments from students reveal that in a CCBI setting, students made progress in terms of achieving the learning outcomes. Below are some anonymous narratives from students:

> *"The articles we read were relevant and interesting, and I felt more and more comfortable expressing my opinions in Chinese and felt like I was growing as a speaker."*

> *"I feel like now I am more of a worldly speaker, instead of just a textbook studier."*

> *"I think discussing current events and learning the vocabulary associated with it is so important. ... I find it to enhance my perspective of my surroundings—and it is wonderful to be accomplishing this through a foreign language."*

Reflecting on our experience in revamping CHN402, we realize that teaching social justice issues using CCBI requires careful curriculum planning in order to maintain a balance between language learning goals and the learning of social justice issues. To this end, we created instructional videos with embedded exercises for the purpose of highlighting and practicing important grammatical structures and vocabulary. Vocabulary quizzes and unit tests were aimed to assess reading comprehension and their ability to construct texts using newly learned vocabulary and structures.

We also recognize that not everyone has the flexibility or the time to design an entire course using CCBI due to constraints in existing curricula or educational settings. However, one can begin with one small part of a course, such as a lesson or a unit. The four teachers of Spanish in Glynn & Spenader's study (2020) enacted CCBI in different ways based on their institutional and curricular needs, but they all weaved in social justice issues in existing units such as fashion or sports, which were existing units in their schools' curriculum. For example, in a unit on clothing, one teacher "began with school dress code, and students led her into discussions around gender issues and clothing; her 6th graders underscored how much more restrictive the dress code is for students who identify as female. Ultimately, students challenged gender stereotypes as they wrote their own fairy tales. In these CCBI units that integrated language around clothing and fashion, students were able to not only identify, but also to challenge inequities and stereotypes" (Glynn and Spenader, 2020)

Conclusion

As Leaver indicates, in essence, TLLT aims to cause "the learner to change in some way – thinking, behavior, acceptance of the other, values, mindset, and/or emotion" (p15). Our applications of TLLT principles in Japanese and Chinese courses suggest that TLLT can be implemented through different pedagogical approaches, and students in language courses highly value transformative learning experiences that are beyond proficiency-oriented language learning. Amid the pandemic and the national awakening on racial disparity, all educators play a crucial role in promoting social justice. We argue that TLLT has the potential of transforming language learners into linguistically and culturally competent global citizens who respect people of different cultural backgrounds and perceive the interconnectedness of all people as fellow citizens of Earth.

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Semiotic Pedagogy and Students Cognitive Development: Does the Order of Multiple Representations Play a Role in Meaning Making?

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Abstract

The present doctoral research project studies what mental mechanisms are formed by students to understand scientific concepts and whether and to what extent Semiotic Pedagogy and semiotic systems facilitate the representation of scientific concepts. Specifically, we focus on the way in which students construct cognitive schemata through semiotic resources, organize them in a broader mental context and construct mental fields and new cognitive patterns. A key research question is which combination of semiotic systems are more efficient than others and in which order, so that students recognize the cognitive procedures they follow to understand a scientific notion, when they use different semiotic representations. The present study proposes a theoretical model of cognitive representations through semiotic systems that can be applied in every subject domain. This way, aspects of the learning process are illuminated, as different semiotic systems are combined. At the same time, students become aware of the processes they use while constructing new knowledge. The results from the first phase of the research show that visual representations help more in teaching specific concepts and help students to recognize the cognitive processes they follow. However, they are not sufficient for the production of meaning. Students seem to prefer visual semiotic systems first and then their verbal explanations as texts, as visual semiotic resources are more abstract shapes but allow students to think more deeply, because these semiotic resources activate higher cognitive processes.

Keywords: Student Cognitive Development, Semiotic Pedagogy/ Edusemiotics, Semiotic Resources, Cognitive Science

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Introduction

New findings in the field of Educational Studies focus on the students' internal perceptions and conceptions, studying students' cognitive and mental representations. From the field of Cognitive Neuroscience to the field of Cognitive Psychology and Cognitive Semiotics, researchers do not only study the students' observable actions of learning but also students' cognitive functions during their involvement in learning processes.

With this research doctoral project, we try to combine to different fields of Educational Studies the recent findings from Cognitive Psychology and the new field of Semiotic Pedagogy, as we research the use of semiotic systems and the role of multiple representations in the interpretation of new knowledge. We focus on how different representations affect students' cognitive development in order to help them to interpret, represent and acquire new knowledge. We attempt to understand student's mental system of representations, in order to study which mental mechanisms are constructed to deconstruct knowledge and reconstruct it a new one again, integrating and expanding pre-existing student representations with new structures and constructed concepts.

Our aim is to study the contribution of all semiotic systems to learning, but also how they can be systematized, in order to lead to the proposal of a new theoretical model of cognition and semiosis. The new scientific field of EduSemiotics is applied to help teachers understand how students approach new knowledge (Seif, 2021, Lackovic, 2020, Atoofi, 2019, Ferguson, 2019, Olteanu and Campbell, 2018, Deely & Semetsky, 2017, Oltenau, 2016, Reinertsen, 2015).

Theoretical Framework

From the Cognitive Psychology to the Cognitive Theories of Knowledge Representation

Cognitive Learning Theories research students' mental representations and the procedure of conceptualization: how does a student conceive and assign meaning to external stimuli (e.g a new scientific notion, word, information etc.)? How can we change students' initial representations/misconceptions and how can students interpret and represent new knowledge with different ways (semiotic systems)? These questions are at the heart of cognitive sciences.

The theories of representations mention that each student has his/her own internal representations shaped unconsciously, during the years. Students are usually not able to name these representations. External representations refer to verbal or non-verbal descriptions of phenomena/objects etc., for example graphics, pictures, models, software/microworlds etc. Students can see and describe these representations (Vergnaud, 2009) but that does not mean that a student can interpret and analyze a new notion.

A superior mental procedure is symbolization, which means the representation with multiple semiotic systems. At this research project we argue that when a student can use different ways to represent the same notion, this leads to meaning making and cognitive development. These cognitive skills can be applied to every new knowledge, and every subject domain in the education system, as it refers to the way that students learn (Zazkis, & Liljedahl, 2002). Cognitive theories pay attention on the interior mechanisms of the cognitive system (Smyrnaiou & Weil-Barais, 2003). Modern cognitive theories recognize students as agents

(Agency) of acquiring their knowledge, as they build and rearrange their cognitive representations to approach new knowledge. Therefore, at this research study we assume that students affect the object of learning through semiotic tools, construct cognitive topics and organize them in broader mental frameworks and new cognitive schemas.

Multiple representations are a key tool for scientific knowledge. The acquisition of scientific concepts and the construction of scientific discourse by the students means that the latter cultivates the higher cognitive skills of explanation, justification, comparison, coding and concluding to reasonable conclusions (enculturation in Jiménez-Aleixandre, & Erduran, 2007).

The role of Representations in the Construction of Cognitive Concepts - Schemata – Fields

The student's mental conceptions (Weil - Barais & Vergnaud, 1990) is a dynamic system with regulatory mechanisms, constantly evolving, so that a student passes from the state of incomplete learning to the state of balance of cognitive structures. The individual's cognitive frames capture the cognitive processes for conceptualizing and acquiring knowledge (Weil-Barais, 2001). The concept of mental representations is fundamental in cognitive development, as the modification of the original representations and their symbolic expression in many semiotic systems can lead to the cognitive change (Smyrnaiou, Georgakopoulou et al. 2021, 2020, 2019). Internal representations address the internal configurations of individuals that are not directly observable. In this case student can describe his/her internal processes, but these will be incomplete and imperfect. Verbal descriptions or gestures are part of this introspection. External representations refer to observable structures, such as graphs, images/visual representation or computer microcosmos and in our research project they function as semiotic tools. The interpretation of external representations depends on internal representations. Between the two types of representations there is an interaction relationship, that we try to research during the first phase of this research study.

According to Vergnaud (2009), representation is characterized, initially, by a level of consciousness. Visual, auditory, kinesthetic and verbal perception of a concept - even if it is not formed - is an indication of mental perception. A second characteristic of representations is language and symbols, since without verbalization and symbolization representations cannot be communicated. The process of symbolization differs from that of representation, as it is the expression of the latter in different semiotic systems. That is the reason we assume that the multiple semiotic tools that a student can use, lead to the acquisition of knowledge.

At the same time, the representation of a concept is completed through the conceptual content, which is shaped and enriched gradually during the learning process. The conceptual contents are then organized into systems of topics and sub-topics, as the perceptual ability is synchronized with other semiotic systems. According to Vergnaud (2009), the student's mental schemata are not formed from the beginning, as they include a semiotic system, but they evolve during the learning process. The student's mental perception includes the signified concepts, which are activated when the learner approaches a body of knowledge.

Many times, these initial perceptions of students create obstacles to understanding knowledge, as they lead to misconceptions of a concept, but on the other hand, they are indicative of the student's cognitive functions, as they are responsible for the initial approach

to the concept. Thus, the students code situations, concepts and mental patterns and create conceptual fields.

The processes of organization, coding and classification of mental concepts in broader mental/conceptual fields follow the triple coexistence of the following features:

a) Conceptual fields are made up of situations related to the content.
b) Preconfigured students' misconceptions are taken into account.
c) The symbolic representation of the content and its properties is required.

Representational systems can develop and evolve based on three stages (Goldin 1996, 2000, 2002):

a) the creation stage (inventive - semiotic stage): in this stage new internal, unconscious mechanism are created to start symbolization.
b) the stage of structural development (a period of structural development): the construction of new cognitive topics is based on the previous stage, including the old mental concepts and the new representations.
c) the stage of autonomy (an autonomous stage): the union of old and new concepts/themes/structures will lead to the formation of a now unified cognitive field. At this stage, the generalization of the cognitive field takes place and the knowledge/skill/ability is transferred to other cognitive areas.

At this research study we suggest that the cognitive development of learner is achieved:

a. when a semiotic system of representation allows three kinds of operations:
   i. the formation of representations,
   ii. the handling of these representations within the framework of the specific system,
   iii. and the transformation of the representation into another semiotic system
b. when there is a combination of different semiotic systems (Smyrnaiou, Georgakopoulou et al, 2020, 2021).

At this research study, students are involved in cognitive activities in which they try to work on different "texts", make hypothetical scenarios, represent the notions verbally and visually through diagrams and pictures and transfer their knowledge into real circumstances in which this new knowledge can be explained.

The theory of Semiotic Systems in the Construction of Representations

Semiotic Pedagogy, as a scientific field, studies the meaning making and analyzes how a person constructs meaning. (Lagopoulos and Boklund-Lagopoulou 2020). It also studies the theory of signs and sign systems/symbolic representations/communication through symbols, the structure of signs-symbols-codes and the meaning of symbols. This scientific field deals with anything that can be considered a sign, such as words, images, sounds and gestures, anything that "symbolizes" or "represents" something else (Chandler, 2007).

Researchers engaged in modern semiotic theory examine "signs" as systems in order to investigate how meanings are created and how reality is represented. According to Chandler (2007), the science of semiotic theory is very important as it gives us the opportunity to

understand how reality is directly related to the way people interpret it. Information and various meanings are not automatically transmitted to us, but we create it through the interpretation of a system of codes presented to us without realizing it.

Semiotics is initially based on the theoretical documentation of Saussure (Joseph, 2012) and Peirce (2012), and it is related to three basic concepts, according to Mingers & Willcocks (2014):

a) with the student's personal interpretation with the production and interpretation of signs and symbols (personal world),

b) with the material world (material world, semiotic system of visual representation/ Embodied Learning), as signs can be transmitted through "physical resources", i.e. the use of the body, gestures, etc.

c) and with the social world, because semiotic systems are also socially meaningful.

Cognitive, embodied and social intelligence constitute the basic triplet of semiotics. Batu (2012) describes the stages of analyzing the functioning of semiotic systems:

i. In semiotics the subjects to be analyzed are seen as a structure and we try to explain their production in a conceptual framework.

ii. The semiotic method uses a scientific meta-language. Its aim is to determine the different cognitive paths of the meaning in a text and to check whether, by using metalanguage, the symbol has been systematized.

iii. Semantic approaches focus on construction of meaning rather than on the concepts themselves. They try to understand meaning-making processes.

iv. In semiotic systems, in addition to analogical, common connections, the deviations between them are also studied, in order to decide which semiotic system is appropriate for each concept.

v. Many times, a new model is developed.

vi. In semiotic analysis we move from the inside to the outside, because we study the deep connections within the symbol, we analyze its individual signs and new patterns are identified through comparison.

vii. Either a new mental model is constructed or the symbol is transformed into a cognitive subject, they are considered in a more abstract form.

viii. Knowledge fields are formed.

A proposed Theoretical Model for the role of Semiotic Systems in Cognitive Development: The Cognitive Semiotic Model for Students' Conceptualisation (The Cog-S Model)

In the context of The Semiotic Pedagogy or Cognitive Semiotics, this research argues that in order for a student to acquire new knowledge, he/she has to represent the concept with three or more ways, using semiotic tools. We try to research the ways that students interpret a text, analyze the signs, search for denotations and connotations in order to produce their own scientifically acceptable meaning and the ways that different signs (semiotic representations) may improve meaning making and how students can produce their own meaning. We have designed a theoretical model of knowledge acquisition for the purposes of this research study.

The Cognitive Semiotic Model for Students' Conceptualization (The Cog-S Model) (Georgakopoulou, 2022) assume that semiosis is a cognitive procedure which leads to the

understanding of scientific notions and finally to the way that student interact to the real world (Figure 1).

Multiple representational systems (verbal, visual and kinesthetic representations like Embodied Learning) structure the student's cognitive development, as they explain the multiple mental structures under which knowledge is registered.

The conceptualization of knowledge by the student is a higher cognitive process and today it is achieved in multiple ways. Preformed mental schemata are formed and developed only when the student acts through multiple semiotic resources, passing through the triple level of action, the real world, the mental world, and the symbolic level. Student's targeted action in these three entities helps the student to conceptualize the offered knowledge and categorize it, in order to structure new fields of knowledge.

The connection of different representational languages in the perceptual and symbolic stage inscribes the new knowledge in the student's cognitive structures. At the same time, the student utilizes his/her cognitive background, his emotional involvement and the socio-cultural factors involved in order to categorize and evaluate knowledge. Their mental categories direct the student's actions, motivate him/her to investigate strategies of active cognitive search and finally to combine the stimuli towards the formation of new concepts. It is also accepted that a student's alternative understanding of a scientific concept does not necessarily mean that it lacks internal coherence. For this reason, the existence of multiple representational systems can also be captured with synthetic models of cognitive change. Semiotic systems help to create semantic, as nearby, related cognitive topics are organized, compared, and construct a new cognitive field. Thinking is constituted by representational acts, which in turn result from the organization of internal and external representations.

It is worth pointing out that an important aspect of this study is the question of how different types of representational systems activate different kinds of thinking. This fundamental question leads to the finding that multiple types of semiotic systems lead to a more complete construction of knowledge. The multiplicity and coexistence of representational systems has been the subject of research (Smyrnaiou, Georgakopoulou, et all. 2017), the results of which have shown that in concepts difficult to interpret and explain, students employ multiple representational systems. It is also noteworthy that all representational systems must:

1. to be in absolute balance and harmony, as long as the basic principles, techniques and philosophy of the two objects are not altered, but one gains from the other
2. to co-exist simultaneously, when a concept is presented, and not asynchronously, as then the necessary cognitive connections and meaningful relationships between the characteristics of a concept and its performance are not made.

At this research we assume that semiotic systems present the relations or better organize the relations between representational units. In order to achieve learning, these units must be connected to at least two semiotic systems.
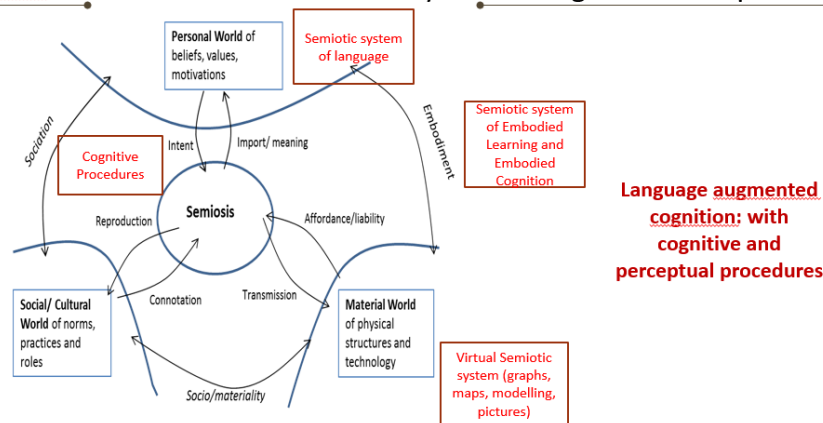
Figure 1: The Cognitive Semiotic Model for Students' Conceptualisation (The Cog-S Model)

Conclusion

The educational practice needs a transition from traditional educational goals to pedagogical goals that will activate students' internal and external mental representations and take into consideration their cognitive development and their socio-cultural development. The choices of the school material, teaching methods, subject domains, school knowledge and activities both at the macro level of educational policy and Curricula and at the micro level of school reality must be structured on the basis of the student overall development. The acquisition of scientific concepts and further all the internal cognitive mechanisms activated in the learning process build abstract, structured, transferable and effective skills that can be activated in any learning environment. The student through the development of an early scientific competence will be able to ask questions, identify solutions, justify their conclusions and structure scientific thinking. With the present proposal, a shift from decontextualized knowledge and the logic of "mistake stigma" (McNeill, & Pimentel, 2010), where the teacher handles the learning process, will be attempted, towards a discovery process of structuring thought for the production of meanings. Decoding and understanding students' cognitive fields will help to understand how students learn and this is the trigger, the basis for the global construction of educational designs.

Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest in the current research.

Ethics Statement

The proposed theoretical model that is described in this study is the main part of a doctoral research study and it is researched with research under the official approval of the University committee for educational research. The research was held in two Experimental Schools in Greece, and all the research subjects agreed to data collection. During the transcription of the audio recordings, we removed or decoded any identification of students and stored the files in university hard drives. The photos, taken with the approval of students and parents, do not reveal any representative information of student identity. Parts of the data can be provided after a request and a justification of use to the authors. The aim of this article is to present the

Cognitive Semiotic Model for Students' Conceptualisation (The Cog-S Model). The results of the research will be published. The transcriptions are currently available in the Greek language but parts of them can be translated.

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Technology, Toucan, and Language Education

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Abstract
Globalization and computerization along with the limitations caused by the current pandemic have all moved us towards having more online presence. From online shopping to online learning, all aspects of our lives have been impacted by technology including how we learn and use languages. The goal of this presentation is to discuss various aspects of Toucan (www.jointoucan.com), a new technological tool that helps people acquire new languages while browsing the internet. Each time language learners visit a web page, Toucan automatically translates certain words in the language that they are trying to learn, thus increasing the level of i+1 input that they receive in their target language (Ashtari & Krashen, 2020). Mason and Krashen (2017) also highlight the importance of the acquirers selecting their own reading materials and being in charge of their own time and exposure to the language as one of the keys to more successful language acquisition. This invisible language acquisition technique allows the users to choose and browse their desired pages that they would normally read while going about their daily activities without any extra burden or added time of focusing on language learning materials or readings assigned by someone else. Moreover, as readers select their own reading materials on their own time, they will also feel more comfortable and have a lower affective filter (Krashen, 2013; McQuillan, 2020). In this paper, we will dive deeper into the research behind Toucan and how this tool has helped hundreds of thousands of language acquirers worldwide.

Keywords: Technology, Language Acquisition, Toucan Language Learning

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Introduction

Globalization and computerization have made significant changes to how we live during the past decades. Studies also report a significant increase in the number of hours spent behind digital devices during the COVID-19 pandemic due to quarantine measures, remote education, and remote work (Nagata, Cortez, Cattle, 2022). The field of language education has not been an exception with many ups and downs throughout the past centuries as our world has moved toward a more bilingual and multilingual sphere. In the following sections we will briefly look at the history of the various language instruction methods throughout the years, and we will look at how technology has created new venues to explore in the worlds of language learning and teaching.

Methods of Language Instruction

The 18th century saw the rise of the Grammar-Translation Method also known as "The Traditional Method " or "The Classical Method" due to its prevalence in teaching classical languages such as ancient Greek and Latin. Grammar Schools were established in Europe where students would frequently go through many hours of grammar instruction, tedious text translation, and memorization of long vocabulary lists. One of the main purposes of such instruction was to enforce discipline and habit formation with the assumption that students would be able to develop their intellectuality through continuous mental exercises (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Even though the grammar-translation method has held its reign over many language instruction methods around the globe to this day, many other more effective approaches have been developed for language teaching. Some of these methods have included: the Audio-lingual Method, the Direct Method, the Natural Approach, Community Language Learning (Community Language Learning (CLL), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Content-based Instruction, and Task/Project-based Learning to name a few. The public use of the internet and the World Wide Web dramatically expanded the way people could communicate with those who do not share the same country, language, and culture. English as the current lingua franca started gaining more and more users in order to meet the need for a common international language. Other foreign languages also began attracting more learners, thus forging new paths to more opportunities and a wider audience for language teaching and learning.

Technology-Enhanced Language Learning

It was not long before Technology-Enhanced Language Learning (TELL) and its branches such as Computer-Assisted language Learning (CALL) and Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) were added to the global language learners' toolboxes. Over the past two decades we have seen the rise of many different websites, applications, and electronic resources in language education. However, research shows that some of these tools have not proven to be helpful or more effective than regular class instruction (Krashen, 2013, 2014). Some of the concerns that users have shared about technological tools in language learning have been the fear of technology fully replacing teaching jobs and language centers, the possibility of losing human interactions, as well as the high cost, technical issues, and time-consuming aspects of such systems (Ashtari, 2016, 2018; Nielson, 2011).

Moreover, many of these tools utilize traditional methods of language instruction such as grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods while focusing more on conscious language learning rather than language acquisition. They also emphasize testing and dry exercises that result in high dropout rates of users (Krashen, 2013, 2014; Nielson, 2011). However, the existence of the limitations listed above does not mean that all technological advances in language education have been in vain. More effective tools have been developed to meet the needs of language acquirers around the world while using the research done over the past 50 years as the basis to improve the learners' experiences. Toucan is one of these tools which we will introduce in the following sections of this paper.

Toucan: A New Technological Tool

Toucan (www.jointoucan.com) is a browser extension that helps language enthusiasts acquire new languages while browsing the internet, without the need for flashcards or other study materials. Each time users visit a web page, Toucan automatically translates certain words in the language that they are trying to learn. The foundation of Toucan is based on the Second Language Acquisition theories and the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982, 2003). According to the Comprehension Hypothesis we acquire languages when "we understand messages, that is, when we understand what we hear and what we read" (Krashen, 2008, p.1). By sporadically translating words on pages that are mainly in a language acquirer's native language, Toucan provides opportunities for the users to understand the text, and at the same time be exposed to new vocabulary in their target/second language along the way.

Language Acquisition Theories Behind Toucan

Self-selected and pleasure reading comprise a core aspect of Toucan. Users choose and browse their desired pages that they would normally read while going about their daily activities without any extra burden or added time of focusing on language learning materials or readings assigned by someone else. Mason and Krashen (2017) highlight the importance of the acquirers selecting their own reading materials and being in charge of their own time and exposure to the language as one of the keys to more successful language acquisition. As readers select their own reading materials on their own time, they will also feel more comfortable and have a lower affective filter. The Affective Filter hypothesis states that a person is far more likely to acquire a new language in relaxed situations, like browsing the web, than in stressful ones (Krashen, 1983, 2003).

In addition, languages are acquired when we are exposed to words and structures that are slightly higher than our current level of proficiency (i+1). Similar to Primary Language Acquisition (PLA), Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is a subconscious process. For instance, children do not memorize indefinite articles or study grammatical concepts in order to improve in their native language. They acquire their first language naturally, by listening to their parents speak and hearing the world around them. Over time, their brains subconsciously notice patterns and figure out how to communicate back when they are ready, starting with individual words and building into full sentences. In other words, comprehensible input or i +1 is naturally provided for them as they increase their level of language competence.

Toucan performs in a similar manner. This innovative system is set to translate progressively larger "lexical chunks," or words that often get used together. These chunks make it easier to

both build vocabulary knowledge and learn how to string words together in comprehensible ways. Each time a new webpage is loaded, Toucan translates a few individual words so that users can add them to their vocabulary by using context clues that are in a language they already know. As their vocabulary increases, Toucan will help them naturally learn how different words work together by starting to translate those context clues.

Conclusion

The importance of the acquirers selecting their own reading materials and being in charge of their own time and exposure to the language has been emphasized in research as one of the keys to more successful language acquisition (Mason and Krashen, 2017). Toucan provides unlimited self-selected reading opportunities for users to acquire their desired language. It also automatically translates certain words at 3 levels of proficiency (Beginner, Intermediate, Advanced at 3 different density measures) in the language acquirers are trying to learn, thus increasing the level of i+1 input that they receive in their target language (Ashtari & Krashen, 2020). Moreover, as readers select their own reading materials on their own time, they will also feel more comfortable and have a lower affective filter (Krashen, 2013; McQuillan, 2020). In short, by providing meaningful context, vocabulary and structures that are comprehensible, and the freedom to choose individual reading materials, Toucan helps language acquirers expand their language knowledge without leaving the comfort of their everyday internet browsing habits.

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Critical Literature Review: Age Factors on Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract
Our understanding about second language acquisition is constantly updating itself due to new and compelling research. This article supports the idea that second language teachers should remain cognizant on the recent developments in research and critically reviews the literature regarding second language learning. This article also explores new theories regarding age factors in second language learning, with particular reference to the bilingual Chinese/English language context. This reviews found that teachers should understand the influence of critical age periods on language learners' second language acquisition. The contextual focus is expanded to variations in the language learning environment, such as parental influence, bilingual schools and use of technology. This article concludes that understanding contextual factors such as age ranges and learning environments is paramount to delivering high-quality of second-language courses, and recommends methods for building an enjoyable and interactive second language learning environment with not much pressure, especially to young learners as well as adult learners. While this paper does review literature regarding adult learners of second languages, to understand more about the pedagogical differences and similarities of adults and children, as it progress, it will increasingly focus on the optimum teaching methods and environmental factors for supporting young learners. In doing so, it will consistently emphasize, based on the research, the importance of educators understanding children's social and emotional development alongside, and as part of, learning a second language. In its summary, some recommendations will be made for teachers of second language learners based on its findings.

Keywords: Age Factor, Second Language Acquisition, Learning Environment, Young Learners, Adult Learners

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Introduction

This paper explores the age and environmental factors that influence second language learning. Considering the first issue of age ranges, it is necessary to review the literature on the differences and similarities between adult and young learners of English as second language. Researchers stress the importance of learners' *beliefs* on how they acquire the second language, placing the individual learner at the forefront of any meaningful understanding about how learners' develop their acquisition in learning second language. Indeed, Westergaard (2021) convincingly argued that learners, regardless of age, the learners have individual abilities and efficiencies in language learning. This seems to suggest that while many benefits may exist in grouping adults and children as separate theoretical age ranges, practitioners of second language teaching should not forget that each learner is an individual learner.

There are axiomatically different factors and priorities for young and adult learners of second language, and the teachers who are guiding their learning. Young learners are not able to learn in a 'static state' like adults, and they are more suited to pictures and visual effects which better spark their interest (Li & Lan, 2021). Colorful imagery can stimulate young learners' cognition and they not suffering from factors such as subconscious pressure, low self-confidence and emotional status (Castañeda, 2017). This review emphasizes the importance of teachers and parents of young second language learners to maintain a pressure-free language environment.

Some research emphasized the importance of the language learning environment on both types of learner. Pfenninger and Singleton (2019) emphasized the difference in adults mature cognitive abilities while other researchers noted the similarities in how adults and young learners learn (Havron & Avron, 2021). Havron and Avron (2021) emphasized how both adults and young learners learn vocabulary about things that interest them, either consciously or subconsciously. This focus on learners' interests necessitates a wider understanding of how and why both adults and children learn English, and what environment can be built either for them or by them to support their interest. Making no distinction between the age ranges, researchers suggested that language learning efficiency can be improved by analyzing strategies, attitude incentives, and cognitive style incentives (Perales & Cenoz, 2002). This evidence seems to support the view that while meaningful differences are bound to exist between adult and young learners of second language, understanding their motivations and characteristics as learners, regardless of age, is the surest way for teachers to guide their acquisition in learning second language.

To understand more about the characteristics and differences of young and adults' second language learning, this paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

i   What differences exist in second language acquisition by children and adults? Why do these differences exist?
ii   What learning environments, and complimentary teaching methods, best support second language learners of difference ages?

Research Question 1:
What differences exist in second language acquisition by children and adults? Why do these differences exist?

Various studies indicate that age has multiple effects on second language acquisition and emphasize that language learning is subject to nuances at progressive stages of learning (Wirth et al., 2020). More specifically, multiple surveys' findings agree that children's ability to receive and implement vocabulary is more pronounced in children aged six and below (Long & Granena, 2018; Sierens et al., 2019). Between six and twelve, there is still a high potential, yet after twelve a downward trend is observable in ease of vocabulary learning (Veríssimo, 2018; Xue et al., 2021). This corroborates that young learners seem to have a special ability when learning languages. Children's ability to imitate language, especially in pronunciation, cannot be matched by adults.

This evidence seems to suggest that the earlier one starts to learn second language, the higher potential they will have in acquiring pronunciation, vocabulary and syntax. This is useful evidence for parents and teachers who want their children to develop second language skills to consider. Teachers and parents should understand that children have different requirement for learning, and pay great attention to language learning materials such as picture books and high-quality audios to help them develop their proficiency in second language. Teachers and parents should prioritize the children's social and emotional development alongside their second language acquisition. Past researches agree that researchers have stressed that young learners are much more receptive to the creation of learning conditions in an unnatural context than adults (White et al., 2017).

Research has ascertained and compartmentalized the differences between adults and children in second language learning by studying age from different perspectives (Muñoz, 2019). Muñoz (2019) synthesized that alongside theoretical understanding of favorable environmental conditions for learning, young learners and adults learners were found differ not only due to their age but by the context in which they learn.

Researchers have demonstrated the importance of how learners' ages affects their psychology as learners of a second language (Yi, 2021). It is evident that the psychological burden of adults is far greater than that of young leaners. Young learners can learn second language far more naturally without the psychological burden of mature adult cognition. Furthermore, adults are more influenced by the habits and parameters of their mother tongue than young learners. From the standpoint of cognition and self-awareness as learners, adults do have more advantages than young learners (Dekeyser, 2018). Adults are able to more fully comprehend why they are learning the second language, what motivations they have, and self-direct their learning accordingly. This also gives adults the ability to build their own learning environment to scaffold their learning journey, whereas young learners require this environment to build and be provided for them.

Neuroscientific studies have demonstrated that young learners have far greater ease in 'separating' the second language from their mother tongue, and achieving full bilingualism (Hartshorne et al., 2018), whereas adult learners, especially those who begin learning a second language in adulthood or late adolescence, have much more trouble in differentiating the two languages. Compelling researches suggested that one reason young learners acquire second languages more easily is that young learners are not yet entirely proficient in their first language (Birdsong, 2018). Birdsong (2018) emphasized that by using the term *neural plasticity*, that these learners' incomplete understanding of their mother tongue allows much more freedom and ability to receive the second language, and most importantly, adopt it alongside their acquisition of the first language.

The wealth of evidence from the researches strongly suggest huge benefits for starting to learn a second language earlier rather than later. The evidence suggested that the critical period of language learning remains powerful until mid-adolescence, when numerous social and psychological factors relating to maturity inhibit the ease of second language acquisition. Indeed, it can be difficult to distinguish people who learn second language in childhood from native speakers, and those who start learning a second language in adulthood invariably have commit more mistakes relating to pronunciation and grammar. Adult learners' pronunciation tends to mimic their first language far more. Muñoz (2017) encourages people to start learning second language as soon as possible to maintain a positive learning attitude. This is corroborated by Yang (2018), who found that first-year students are far more active learners. Progressively, young learners of second language are able to optimize their second language learning by incorporating their early acquisition of it alongside their psychological growth as they mature (Larsen-Freeman, 2018). This allows for their holistic processes of cognition and maturity to be constantly updated.

The current conditions and methods of learning second language are more advanced, efficient, and convenient. Teachers and parents should be aware of the effect of age on young learners' ability to learn a second language and the environmental factors required to support that. To maximize young learners' benefits from superior *neural plasticity* (Birdsong, 2018), they should be guided to learn second language as soon as possible, and continue to learn under these environmental conditions for as long as possible before their psychological maturation changes the parameters of how they learn.

Why do these differences exist?

Research concerning cognitive psychology, linguistics and pedagogy cumulatively explains why significant differences exist between adult and young learners, and that these are caused by differences in thinking, consciousness as learners, memorization, and holistic psychological processes (Matthews et al., 2018). These process are complex, multi-layered and dynamic, and also indicate that regardless of age differences, individual learners' personalities, previous learning experiences and beliefs about learning strongly influence their ability to learn a second language. The age factor widens and partly compartmentalizes these individual differences.

Li and Zhao (2021) found that kindergarten children, benefit from their immature psychological maturity, are instinctive in vocabulary and grammar reception learning with regards to language learning and natural memory. In this way, young learners' immaturity as learners acts as an advantage, and causes them in particular to benefit from imitation and repetition. These make it easier for young learners to inculcate pronunciation and vocabulary learning. Gong et al. (2018) validly recommended prioritizing the socio-cultural environment for young learners learning second language, as building an environment that complement the young learners in learning second language. On the other hand, research on cognitive psychology and memory indicates that understanding adult learners' psychology is the key to strengthening their second language acquisition (Ryan et al., 2021). Additional research shows that adult learners can learn through the external social environment and advanced learning means to mitigate the defects of mature cognition. Finally, a scientific understanding of language input can facilitate successful acquisition of second language acquisition more effectively. Overall, the evidence about why differences exist between different ages of language learners suggests we must complement our understanding with an analysis of

optimizing the language learning environment for both type of learners, as a group and as individuals.

Research Question #2

What learning environments, and complimentary teaching methods. best support second language learners of difference ages?

The research agrees that learning environments are crucial for both young and adult learners. In regards to young learners, the family background is demonstrated to play a significant role. The higher educational level that the parents have, the higher their second language fluency are (Pikhart & Botezat, 2021). Velasco (2020) found that when bilingual parents communicate with their children in two languages simultaneously, the children's ability in the second language is almost equal to their mother tongue. It is common practice nowadays for parents to communicate with their children in both languages. This demonstrates that parents with a high educational background can support their children's learning. Research also demonstrates that more parents inquire from experts about how to optimize their approaches to support their child's learning at home (Velasco, 2020). Scholars often stress the importance in these circumstances of combining the two languages (Bialystock et al., 2014). Through reading books or watching cartoons, research suggests that children benefit most from learning the two languages simultaneously, and not prioritizing one over the other.

Due to technological progress in recent decades, experts have developed many interactive formats, such as games, videos, audio and animation learning materials to support young learners to learn language. Hung et al. (2018) view this as a positive change that educators should incorporate into their teaching strategies. Many multimedia software allows young learners to learn a second language, practice, and communicate anytime and anywhere. The benefits of these are not confined to young learners only. Davis et al. (2018) stated that both adults and young learners can benefit from the wide range of learning choices from social media, websites and interactive learning resources. Pikhart and Botezat (2021) emphasized that language connections are built on social communication, which provide opportunities to practice vocabulary, pronunciation and syntax.

Positive home-learning environments for young learners must compliment the environment they experience at school. Many schools offer teachers continuous professional development programs to cultivate and improve their teaching levels and skills (Fischer et al., 2018). Schools should encourage teachers to participate in the exchange of ideas with international peers to enhance their teaching ability and acquaint their students with creative teaching methods (Major & Watson, 2018). Multimedia imparts great benefits to language learning by making learning more vivid and interesting (Wang et al., 2019). Using multimedia courseware or CD-ROM for teaching can reduce the limited value of teacher-led activities in second language learning, and therefore provide more opportunities to stimulate students' active learning. Chen et al. (2020) agreed that multimedia application have brought far more opportunities for diversifying learning of a second language. Overall, in the twenty-first century, learners can benefit a lot from technological innovation in learning second language. These should be consistently assessed by educators to meet the needs of their students, regardless of age. The best learning environments and teaching strategies for both child and adult learners will incorporate technology appropriately, and provide opportunities for young learners as well as adult learners to interact and direct their own learning.

Conclusion

The evidence from researches proved that age influences second language acquisition in many ways. As a result, the difference nuances of the cognitive level and psychological attitudes at various stages of life must be understood by educators and parents to optimize second language teaching. There are also researches that highlighted the importance of educators to understand second language learners in individual terms, as crucial a point in guiding their successful learning. While numerous differences exist between ages exist, optimized learning will always take the individual into account.

For both age groups, there are evidence that indicates that learning environment should be prioritized by educators so that they can understand how optimum environments for young learners differ from those of adult learners. Most language learners still master English through classroom learning and therefore teachers should consider the actual age of learners to formulate appropriate teaching content, choose teaching forms, cultivate students' interest in English, and most crucially avoid exerting a lot of academic pressure on students. Second language teaching should be reformed to reduce the negative impact of exam-oriented psychology and utilitarianism on students' learning English. Teachers of both age groups should encourage students to communicate and interact with one another in English as much as possible, prioritizing the benefits of learning through social interaction.

Learners of second languages should be able to cultivate their personal interests, put in concerted efforts, and create a language environment that benefits themselves as individuals in their daily life. The main difference here between adult learners and young learners is that adult learners have more ability to create this environment for themselves compared to young learners. Yet, both age groups suffer from the myopic thinking that English is only an examination subject, and realize that English is a valuable means of communication and a way of thinking. Likewise, both age groups will benefit the most from diversifying their learning strategies and including as many multimedia resources as possible to facilitate their learning. Overall, this paper shown that considerable differences exist between different ages of second language learners, and the teaching methods and environmental factors that optimize second language learning are pedagogically connected with one another.

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Children's Incidental Learning of English Through Cartoons: An Italian Case Study

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Abstract

The presentation concerns a qualitative and longitudinal case study of two young Italian children acquiring English incidentally, while enjoying cartoons in a domestic environment. The data from a log kept by a participant observer over eight years are investigated to reconstruct the main steps of the process, from reception to various forms of production. Unlike most of the literature about similar cases, the language perspective chosen in the present study never considers words separately: the evidence given by the two siblings does not show language as a set of isolated items, but as formulaic sequences, also used as speech acts, gradually developing into more complex cohesive texts. Through a linguistic description of the data, the research attempts to establish a parallel with Halliday's (1978) view of mother-tongue acquisition as social and cultural practice: thanks to the children's emotional participation in their heroes' adventures, the virtual world portrayed in the cartoons becomes the social context where communication takes place according to a shared semantic system.

Keywords: Incidental Learning, Cartoons, Formulaic Language, Language As Doing, Bilingualism

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Introduction

Acquiring a second language through everyday TV and film exposure, more recently mainly through the internet, has been taking place for decades in countries where foreign multimedia resources are available in their original voices. Unlike that trend, in Italy dubbing has been a thriving industry for a long time. Today, viewers of some TV channels can opt for films that have not been dubbed, or can search for them online. However, they need a strong motivation to avoid Italian, and a context willing to accept the choice. Consequently, to the best of the writer's knowledge, in Italy literature about incidental acquisition of a second language is rare (Leotta & Di Gregorio, 2020). Therefore, the intention is to report on a case that seems to go against the mainstream.

The study is about two Italian children, brother and sister, the former being almost three years younger, both acquiring English while enjoying cartoons at home since they were one and a half. So far, the little brother, Giovanni, being seven and his sister, Anna, just ten, have never visited an English-speaking country. They live in an environment where English is never spoken, although the adults around them, parents and grandmother, are proficient speakers. The experience began accidentally, having fun with an online English song, and continued with nursery rhymes first, then with animated series suitable for their ages. Cartoons were watched daily, initially for a few minutes, later up to one hour: the children were never unhappy with cartoons in English, thanks to involving tunes, animation and stories. The whole family was encouraging: their grandmother would often share the cartoons with them; their parents would add some evening films in English as family amusement. Consequently, English must have been associated by the two siblings with a pleasant atmosphere.

When their grandmother noticed that the children were profiting from the exposure to English, she started adding notes to a log she was already keeping about Anna's growth developments first, later also Giovanni's. The comments referred to the children's easy acceptance of English, the excitement they had singing along, their native-like pronunciation, their readiness to memorise the utterances and reproduce them, their ability to apply some lines, even adjusting them, to real situations spontaneously, finally, their free use of English, for the time being particularly evident in the elder sibling.

The analysis of the data from the log is the focus of the present longitudinal study, which covers eight years, beginning when each child was a year and a half and ending with Anna being ten and Giovanni seven. The paper opens with a definition of incidental learning, which refers to the way English is acquired in the case studied. Then, it continues with the data organised around the main steps that are interpreted from two language perspectives, which are consistent with each other: the formulaic and socio-semantic ones. A parallel with Halliday's (2004/1976; 1978) theory of first-language acquisition is attempted, which leads to a tentative conclusion about the case as a form of bilingualism. The paper ends with some reflections on early learners' shift from incidental to formal teaching.

Incidental learning

The term 'incidental' was originally applied to natural language acquisition, which takes place thanks to mother-and-child interactions (Warren & Kaiser, 1986). Jylhä-Laide (1994) conducted a survey regarding the literature about a widespread attitude against the confidence that children could learn a language watching television, the evidence to be found on the absence of "modified input and interaction", which "leads to a situation where the learner

receives incomprehensible input and has, because of the ephemeral nature of television, too little time to process it." (93). The author argued against this reasoning, reporting on a six-year-old Finnish girl, who acquired English as a second language incidentally, through cartoons on television, without any formal teaching or any interaction with English speaking people: she was helped by repetitive viewing of the same cartoons, since she could record and view them as many times as wished. Lowery & De Fleur (1995:283) maintained that "[t]he amount of identification that a child has with a television character is another factor which affects the amount of incidental learning that takes place."

Much later, after a detailed overview of the discussion about "implicit", "explicit", "incidental" and "intentional" learning, Andringa & Rebuschat (2015:192-193) revisited the issue, indicating requirements that produce incidental learning, like regularity of exposure, repetitive viewing of the same material, and motivation to follow what is not completely clear. They established a parallel with Krashen's theory (1981), according to which a mental language device, together with a favourable affective filter, would allow implicit acquisition at early ages.

All the requirements were met in the case under scrutiny: cartoons were watched daily for years; repetition of the same cartoons was inevitable because of the limited number of episodes, which provided a smooth progress towards more complex language; the affective component was guaranteed too, thanks to the conducive family milieu; motivation was always very high. This last aspect requires further explanations: the quality of the images and the nature of the episodes induced the impression of involvement in a virtual world and identification with some characters; although the animation resources were aimed at English-speaking children, comprehensible input was never an issue, thanks to the characters' physical performances, and their non-verbal facial expressions, as well as the presence of suprasegmental features, which helped the siblings make sense of the events, no matter how much they could understand the verbal language.

The data

The present study is based on the qualitative data from the log of a participating observer, the children's grandmother. The notes on language acquisition were not systematic in terms of type and frequency of observation. The reasons are manifold: unlike a first language, the experience unraveled slowly over eight years and the observer's remarks might have been caused by changes that became evident accidentally; an incubation period of the language intake very likely occurred all through a long-term exposure to the new code; each change might have evolved earlier, without having a chance to be exhibited; the two siblings needed the right stimulus to indicate the learning stages they were in, especially when moving from a receptive to a productive use of English. Besides, more comments referred to Anna, both because of her age, and because she seemed more prone to manifesting her skills playing, acting and switching to English in the presence of her grandmother.

As already mentioned, it all began, unplanned, when a YouTube song was played for Anna, by then one and a half. It was *In the Jungle the Mighty Jungle*[1] accompanied by an animation in which a dog dances to the rhythm of the song. Anna responded with joyful participation, trying to imitate the movements of the animal. The episode triggered her grandmother's

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[1] A Pat & Stan production.

memories of nursery rhymes from her far away experience with young English children. So, *Twinkle Twinkle Little Star*[2] was followed by many more, all accompanied by animated cartoons. The moment marked the entrance to a fascinating virtual world, where native-English-speaking characters were perceived as real.

English never seemed to discourage Anna, who responded to each single Rhyme without minding how many times it was played. She was almost two when she could sing various songs. She was two and a half when she would sing and perform the characters' actions even with cartoons off, as in *Humpty Dumpty*, *Head Shoulders Knees and Toes*, *If You're Happy*, *Roll Over Roll Over*. By the same time, she could use the main motifs in episodes like the following: the first time she could spot stars in the dark sky, she sang *Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star*; in Venice, seeing a boat in the lagoon, she started singing: *Row Row Row Your Boat*; walking on a little bridge in a park, she said, pretending she was afraid: "Nonna, ho paura[3], *London Bridge Is Falling down*!".

When Giovanni was almost two, he was also absorbed by the animated songs, his most favourite one being *Old MacDonald Had a Farm*, together with other cartoons involving animals, like *Five Little Ducks*, *Baby Shark*[4], and, later, *Caterpillar Shoes*[5]. Soon he showed he was able to make the noise of the animals indicated in English by his grandmother, then, before he was three, he could indicate the animals by their names wherever he could spot them. At a very early stage they both proved they could understand the main points of the songs, could memorise them thanks to endless and never-tiring repetition, and could practise them singing along, while reproducing the movements mentioned.

The entertainment continued with more cartoons where singing alternated with dialogues, like *Mickey Mouse Clubhouse*[6], requiring some verbal and non-verbal responses from the viewer: the repetition of a statement, a yes/no answer, the choice of a tool to solve a problem and a final applause. Anna was almost three when she liked enacting the episode *Sleepy Minnie*, in which she was Minnie, who had fallen asleep due to a magic spell, and her grandmother was the one who would break it playing a 'golden harp'. She was three, when, after telling a little lie, she would say: "Telling lies?", a question from the Rhyme *Johnny, Johnny*. The episodes provided evidence that she could reuse lines from the cartoons appropriately.

They continued watching cartoons daily, from half an hour to one hour: songs connected to festivities, like Halloween and Christmas, were their favourite all through the year. Repeating them and gradually moving to new ones, at the age of five, both children were able to adjust some chunks of the cartoon language to real-life needs: Anna modified the rhyme *Did you ever see my tail* into "Did you ever see my mummy …", and, seeing her father who had just come back, she substituted 'mummy' with 'daddy'. She did the same with the Halloween cartoon *Guess Who?*[7], a question for the family to guess whether it was a witch, a monster or

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[2] All the Nursery Rhyme cartoons mentioned are produced by ChuChu TV Nursery Rhymes & Kids Songs and by Super Simple Songs.
[3] English translation: "Grandma, I'm afraid".
[4] It became very popular in 2016, thanks to Pinkfong, a South Korean entertainment company.
[5] Produced by The Old Branch.
[6] A Disney Television Animation production.
[7] A Pinkfong production.

Frankenstein, on the basis of some details. The same happened with *Trick or Treat, Who Are You?* [8], performing the various characters portrayed in the cartoons.

For a few years, Anna was charmed by *Peppa Pig*[9] with episodes depicting every day events of a young child like herself. Gradually she turned to *Ben and Holly's little kingdom*. When Giovanni was four-to-five years old, unwillingly because the new cartoons did not suit his taste, he would join his sister, provided they would watch cartoons of his choice too. So, on a rainy day, while enjoying splashing water in a puddle, five-year-old Giovanni said: "slip in the mud! Attenzione[10]!", with the purpose of inviting everybody to cautious behaviour, freely reusing an exclamation from *Peppa Pig*, typically amused by jumping in puddles. Anna was almost seven when, on holiday, she reused the king's typical phrase in *Ben and Holly's little kingdom*, "Bad news!", to inform a new German friend, with whom she had spoken some English, about her departure time.

Both children, at times, switched to English, without being asked: when Giovanni was six years old, during meal time, he would spontaneously say: "Can I have some more, please?", or, with the same intention, "I like it", and "A little bit"; when asked to explain the meaning of "it's a piece of cake" from an English resource, he answered" easy peasy lemon squeezy". By the time Anna was nine, to please her grandmother who liked *Ben and Holly's little kingdom*, a cartoon that did not suit her any longer, she suddenly said in English with a condescending tone: "OK, I've run out of cartoons. You can watch it!"; talking to her brother about a selection of cartoons, making an effort to be flexible, she said about her preferred cartoon: "Ok, we can skip it"; on a different occasion, leaving her grandmother alone in the garden to play with her friends, she said, again choosing to speak English: "Sorry grandma, I left you because my friends are here. Do you feel lonely?".

The spontaneous use of English in situated utterances struck their grandmother, who had not expected them: a feeling of disbelief was entered in her log, together with the intention to focus on her grandchildren's language acquisition more specifically. As a result, she took some initiatives, the first one when the siblings were respectively seven and almost ten. It was about their comprehension of a *Pokémon*[11] episode, *Don't touch that 'dile*: after turning off the video, she checked their understanding, asking them to take a turn to give the Italian for each of the following quotations: "What's going on here?", "He's a good friend of mine", "He may sound tough, but he's nice", "I couldn't even sleep the night before", "We didn't find any fingerprints", "Let me remind you", "How dare you!", "How are you doing?", "I mean", "Just a moment", "In the meantime", "What's wrong?", "I guess I was wrong", "You've got it". The answers were all correct, proving that their comprehension could be independent of the visual stimulus. The 'test' proved also that Giovanni had reached a high receptive level, considering his younger age: as his grandmother noted down, he must have profited from following also his sister's more complex cartoons, like *Miraculous Ladybug*[12], *Superhero Girls*[13] and *Star Darlings*[14].

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[8] A Super Simple Songs production.
[9] *Peppa Pig* and *Ben and Holly's little kingdom* series are produced by Astley Baker Davies and Entertainment One.
[10] Italian for 'Be careful!'
[11] A Pokémon Company production.
[12] A Jeremy Zag & Aton Soumache production.
[13] A Warner Bros production.
[14] A Disney-published franchise.

The second initiative involved Anna, when she was heading towards her tenth birthday: she was invited to tell a story, which she willingly accepted, not minding being recorded either. So, she improvised the following story about a dream of hers:

> Ok, but, listen, the story is a really big story, because there is magic in it. It's all my imaginary world, and, well, first, why I don't*[15] sleep on the border* of my bed? Why am I covered with toys? Well, because the last time I sleep* on one border* of my bed, I have* a terrible dream (I was in the other house, not in this house). Well, why am I dreaming speaking in English? Well, I can't imagine their voices in Italy*. So, I need to speak in English, because, then, I can't talk to them any more, because, if I speak in Italy*, they don't understand me. Well, one of my friends, called Sofia, is a captain like me, because my name is Lite, not Anna or something bla, bla, bla, or other names like fancy names. My name is Lite, not 'light' like 'luce[16]', no, only Lite, it doesn't mean anything, only Lite. My friend Sofia needs a name, she can't have my name. Yes, she can have my name. But I don't want*. Well, I need to find a name for her. But … I will think later. Now, I have never told Sofia she is a captain, because, one, I'm afraid, two (I'm telling you the true*) two, because, if I tell her, even one person of my club, she will disturb. It's only in my imagination, something fancy in my imagination, so, not real. So, I'll wait for the right moment to tell her 'You are a captain'. My captain is bla, bla, bla. … It's a long story. If I tell you the whole story, the battery of your phone will weeee!

Rather than the content - which sounds loose for lack of planning - in spite of some grammar errors, the fluency, the overall prosody and the way the text is held together coherently produced a deep repercussion on her grandmother, who wanted to take the third initiative: a telephone conversation with an American relative in New York, called on purpose while Anna was present. Without informing either party, she invited Anna to say hello. So, a conversation ensued, during which she answered questions about her identity ("I'm Anna and I am ten"), then about the weather ("I live near a wood. So, it's everything, sunny, windy, rainy"), about Venice ("A great place!"), her interests ("drawing dragons, elves, shadows, yes, things that are a little dark"); she gave feedback to the interlocutor, like "Yes, I got it", "Wow!", "it's a beautiful name!"; when her grandmother thanked the American lady for giving her the first chance to speak to an English native speaker, Anna remarked "No, this is not the first time: I have speak* English to my friends all the time! Grandma thinks they are imaginary friends, but they are real, they come from another galaxy"; then, suddenly remembering that a pizza was being cooked in the oven, she said: "Grandma, is the pizza burning? Boom! It's exploded!"; when ending the call, she said "Have a good day! Goodbye! See you", apparently being carried away by the event.

Although Giovanni's grandmother was convinced it was too early for him to be challenged with a similar request, since he had been present at his sister's narration of the dream, she asked him if he did not mind telling his own story. This is what he said: "My mum Amazon* two books. She was wrong. My father, my dad, port* me two books". The comments in the log proved his grandmother was very pleased: first of all, he had managed to communicate his thoughts very effectively, secondly, using the two verbs that might have been regarded as errors, he had demonstrated he was assimilating English morphology without the Italian

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[15] The asterisks indicate major language errors.
[16] Italian for 'light'.

inflectional suffix: as a whole, his English was evidence that he was moving on, heading towards more autonomous speaking.

Language analysis

Most studies about incidental language learning focus on vocabulary, as quantitative evidence for its efficacy. There are few exceptions, like Nightingale (2018) who includes pragmalinguistics in the exploration, and Alexiou & Kokla (2019) who focus on formulaic language. The present study shares the belief that incidental learning takes place with full utterances, which gradually reach discourse features. Wray (2002:4) initiated the reflection on formulaic language, defining it as follows: "Words and word strings which appear to be processed without recourse to their lowest level of composition are termed *formulaic*".

Recently, Siyanova-Chanturia & Pellicer-Sánchez (2019:3-4) have connected formulaic sequences specifically to second language acquisition, identifying the main features in "frequency, familiarity, predictability, fixedness, and pragmatic function […]", which play a "role in how we learn, process, and represent language […]". From the data collected in the log, it seems clear that incidental learning and consistent exposure to cartoons seem to facilitate the storage of this type of language, rather than a list of disconnected words. Essays in the book deal with various implications of formulaic language for second-language learners. In one of them Bardovi-Harlig (2019:97) highlights how "[…] formulaic sequences characterise language use within speech communities […]", which should make second-language learning critical. But the cartoon virtual worlds the children in the present study watched are inhabited by characters who speak a variety of English from authentic communities, mainly American and British. It is this language the two siblings were exposed to. In another essay, Lin (2019:79) gives relevance to formulaic sequences for second-language learners with regard to prosodic features, like intonation, pauses, rhythm and stress. The data from the log underline that these aspects were learned together with other aspects of English. In a third essay, Granger (2018:230-240) defines two main types of formulaic sequences, collocations and lexical bundles, the former referring to the recurrence of words within different span sizes, the latter being fixed language strings. Collocations can be detected everywhere in the collected data, as in the nursery rhymes with "clap your hands", "stomp your feet", "nod your head", "world so high", "like a diamond", "in the sky", "Did you ever see my tail?", and more all through the cartoons, which the children stored and retrieved to sing and, gradually, to express themselves, as with "some more", "bright blue", "a long story", "fancy names", "something fancy". The same can be maintained with reference to bundles, as "a little bit", "run out of", "telling the truth", "telling lies", "it's a piece of cake", "easy peasy lemon squeezy", "there is magic in it", "covered with".

The language segments were perceived by the children according to their functions. Evidence was given when they were asked to translate utterances into Italian: they supplied the equivalent function they served in their first language, as in "I mean" translated into "Io penso" and "io intendevo", "I guess I was wrong" into "Penso di avere sbagliato", "I don't have any more" with "Non ne ho più". The idea of "How to do things with words" was first conceived by Austen (1962), then by Searle (1968) with his "speech acts". Halliday applied the idea of "Language as doing" (2004/1975:28) to mother-tongue acquisition throughout the three phases (1978:112-113): the "ideational" phase, in which children act mainly as "observer[s]" to express their experiences "about something … creatures, objects, actions, events, qualities ... - of the world ... "; the "interpersonal" phase, during which a child uses the language as an "intruder"," […] to participate ... engag[ing] in dialogue"; the "textual"

phase, characterised by the production of a cohesive text, which encapsulates all the three "[…] functional components of the semantic system […] in a context of situation ". The coexistence of the three phases marks "the transition into the adult system" (121), although further lexicogrammatical developments will occur.

The data in the present inquiry seem to be consistent with Halliday's description of first-language acquisition, in spite of various differences with the children's second-language learning: the process has spread over a longer time span; the psychological features have developed further; their feeling of pride would force them to be silent, rather than mumbling patchy phrases or uttering them with rough articulation, as babies do.

Although the phases (2004/1976:71-73) overlap, the data from the log have been arranged mostly separately according to their prevalence. The "ideational" phase can be traced very early, when the two siblings used English to refer to an entity nearby, like Giovanni saying "[it's] a dog" with an "informative" and, at the same time, "interactional" function, and Anna singing "Row, Row Your Boat" in Venice with a "personal" function, a manifestation of her feelings of pleasure. After some time, the "interpersonal phase" became clearer, with Giovanni asking "Can I have some more, please?", expressing the "regulatory function", or with Anna uttering an "interactional function" like "Bad news!", or giving feedback on the phone. Evidence for the "textual" phase came from Anna's story, which sounded cohesive (Halliday and Hasan, 2013/1976) thanks to various aspects: conjunction, like "ok", "but", "then", "first", "one", "second", "so"; reference, like" I", "me", "my", "you", "she", "her", "them", "this", "that"; lexical cohesion, like magic/imaginary/imagination/fancy/not real, and "something like that", "something fancy".

In the narrative, the "ideational" phase about the dream coexists with its various functions: the "interactional", through expressive-conative gambits like "listen", "no", "yes"," it doesn't mean anything" and suprasegmental features in the different voice pitch in asides, as in "it's a long story", "I was in the other house, not in this house"; the "imaginative" function by means of phrases like "really awful", "a really big story", "there's magic in it", "It's a long story" and" I'll wait for the right moment".

According to Halliday (2004/1976:88) talking of his son, "Language can now serve […] as an effective means of cultural transmission, as a means whereby in the ordinary everyday interaction in which he himself takes part the essential meanings of the culture can be transmitted to him." It is an aspect that is present in the two children's language, in spite of the fact that the world they were exposed to was virtual: it was a world that borrowed the language "relevant to the context of culture" (1978:124) of the community where the specific variety of native English is spoken. For example, politeness reveals shared behaviour within a social system: the emphasis with which Giovanni asked "Can I have some more, please?" does not correspond to the Italian code, in which the addition of 'per favore' to an interrogative form would sound exaggerated, especially in a familiar surrounding; his phrase "a little bit" is another cultural way to soften a request, making it more socially acceptable; Anna's locution "Like now" is a strategy useful to sound less imposing when asking the interlocutor to respond immediately; her dream story is rich in gambits to keep in touch with the addressee while speaking, like "Listen", "It's a long story", and the closing signal "If I tell you the whole story, the battery of your phone will weeee".

While following Anna's recorded narration, the listener is struck by the perception that she is playing the role of a character she is identifying with: well beyond the fact that her speech is organised around meaningful chunking, the effect emphasises a harmonious articulation by means of suitable suprasegmental features, like rhythm, intonation, stress and pitch, which mark the social relevance of communication items, her feelings about the content and her continuous perception of somebody listening to her monologue. In her analysis of the influence of cartoons during childhood, Poštič (2015:188-190) states: "It is known that when adopting a new language, people adopt a new personality based on the perception they have about the target culture. This phenomenon is called 'mirroring'. Adopting a personality of a cartoon character is very common in childhood, because those characters are funny, interesting and care-free. They appeal to children".

The phenomenon goes beyond imitation: as Halliday (1978:124) states about his son learning his mother tongue, the two siblings did "not, of course, learn all this from single instances, but from the countless sociosemiotic events of this kind that make up the life of social man."

Conclusions

The case of the two children acquiring English incidentally, enjoying repetitive viewing of online cartoons, has been studied on the basis of qualitative data from a log kept over eight years by a participant-observer. The language perspective from which evidence has been analysed is formulaic, since the children's attempts to produce free language reflect the previous storage of language, especially in collocates and bundles (Siyanova-Chanturia A. & Pellicer-Sánch A., 2019), and are consistent with native speaking.

The two siblings' second-language evolution has been found consistent with Halliday's first-language acquisition phases (2004/1975), of which the elder child has already displayed features of the third one, while the younger one still seems comfortable mainly in the second phase, at the same time showing clear signs of further growth. An issue has been raised with regard to the idea that language is a "means of cultural transmission" (2004/1976:88) when learning through cartoons too. An answer has been attempted: the virtual world that is portrayed borrows one or more varieties of English from the real world, together with their cultural codes.

Can the language outcome be considered bilingual? The answer is positive if we accept Halliday's description of Phase III with its textual component: "[…] it is only in combination with textual meanings that ideational and interpersonal meanings are actualised" (1978:112-113). The little girl's production of a cohesive text, with its cultural strategies to appeal to the listener, may easily support this view, while opening a further issue about the type of bilingualism. Peal and Lambert (1962) offer the answer supplying the concepts of "dominant" and "balanced" bilingualism, which can be applied to the present research: the children's mother tongue is by far the "dominant" one in their lives, until they enter their virtual or imaginary world, where English becomes the only language.

When moving from incidental acquisition to formal learning of English, early learners approach language awareness, reducing uncertainties and errors. At the same time they may feel uncomfortable, even lose their enthusiasm, having to attend beginners' classes. On the other hand, a teacher who is not prepared for their presence may feel challenged by the management of the uneven levels. The answer is that specific tasks with different roles

should be organised in the classroom, so that everybody, according to their individual needs, can gain from the situation.

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Computer Adaptive Language Tests (CALT)

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Abstract

Creating a test to adequately assess reading, speaking, listening, and writing proficiency in a foreign language has many challenges. Traditionally, such tests have been paper-based or done by an evaluator in a face-to-face mode. The increasing use of technology in language education has recently shifted the way assessment can be performed. This paper will develop the concept of Computer Adaptive Language Tests (CALT). The definition and characteristics of an effective CALT will be presented alongside an evaluation of currently available CALT platforms. Finally, advantages and challenges of such a language assessment option will be discussed.

Keywords: Computer Adaptive Language Tests, CALT, Adaptive Testing, Language Assessment, Educational Technology

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Introduction

Paper-based tests have been the norm for many years. For language testing specifically, creating a test to adequately assess reading, speaking, listening, and writing proficiency in a foreign language has many challenges. Switching those tests to computer-based tests makes it even harder due to the nature of language teaching and learning. When dealing with a large number of students, creating a level-appropriate and relevant test takes quite some time and correcting those tests is extremely time-consuming. The idea presented in this article is to use technology to benefit both teachers and students during language assessment. Therefore, this article will focus on the integration of technology in summative language assessments and take a closer look at the concept of computer adaptive language testing.

Definition of Assessment

Assessment provides "observable evidence of learning, determines student progress and demonstrates understanding of the curriculum" (Oldfield et al., 2012, p. 3). More precisely, relevant assessments of language proficiency provide clear criteria to the students, support personalized learning, focus on student development, and ensure that feedback leads to students' improvement (JISC, 2010). In fact, to support and engage learners, language teachers should engage the interest of learners through a variety of assessment strategies, offer alternative assignment formats, foster peer review, use technology relevantly (such as using e-portfolios to promote students' reflection and self-assessment), and design assignments in ways that encourage original thoughts and minimize opportunities for cheating (JISC, 2010). To measure students' language proficiency at the end of a module, course, or semester, summative assessments need to elicit, demonstrate and analyze what knowledge and skills learners have accumulated. Standardized multiple-choice questions are omnipresent in such assessments, resulting in "an over-reliance on simple, highly structured problems that tap fact retrieval" (Pellegrino and Quallmalz, 2010, p. 122).

In recent years, interest has risen to use computer adaptive language tests (CALT) in the context of language proficiency assessment in order to perform summative evaluation of learning outcomes (Guzmán and Conejo, 2005). Given the advantages of individual and time-independent language testing, computer adaptive language tests will prove to be a positive development in the field of language assessment (Brown, 1997).

Origins and Characteristics of CALT

In the 1960s and 1970s, the U.S. Department of Defense perceived the potential benefits of adaptive testing and supported extensive theoretical research in computer adaptive language testing (Wainer, 1990). Early attempts to build adaptive tests by the U.S. Army, Navy, and Air Force were often unsuccessful and expensive (Dunkel, 1999). In the late 1980s, computer adaptive language tests grew exponentially thanks to the work of foreign language researchers at the Defense Language Institute and at universities throughout the United States, Britain, the Netherlands, and other countries (Dunkel, 1999).

Computer adaptive language testing is the use of a computer to select and present test items to test-takers according to the estimated level of their language ability (Dunkel, 1999).

The main idea is to have the computer perform like a real-life examiner who would adapt the level of the questions as the test progresses (Dunkel, 1999). As Wainer (1990) mentioned, we learn the most about an examinee's ability when we accurately direct our questions at the current level of the examinee's ability.

A computer adaptive language assessment should reliably adjust to the examinee and generate new questions based on the student's answers. To do so, the computer uses a complex algorithm to score each answer. Based on the score of that item, the computer algorithm adjusts the level of the next item to the next level. Correct answers increase the difficulty and incorrect answers lower the difficulty of the next question. Today, in the field of language assessment, most CALT evaluate students' reading and listening skills. However, it is still difficult to use computer adaptive tests to accurately measure speaking and writing skills because of their intrinsic variability nature. New practices are extending the use and purpose of technology-enhanced assessment, which can now include results management and processing, learning analytics, and tools that enable instant formative feedback and collaboration on feedback processes (Beevers et al., 2011).

Within CALT, there is a real need for identifying and specifying the exact purpose of each assessment. This is important because the purpose of a computer adaptive language test can be any of the following (Green et al., 1995):

- Identify that a learner has met the specific objectives of a language course.
- Indicate a learner's level of achievement in a specific skill (e.g., listening comprehension, reading comprehension, or grammar knowledge).
- Identify specific areas in which a student needs specific assistance (e.g., knowledge and use of specific grammatical points or recognition of specific idioms and vocabulary items).
- Diagnose a learner's strengths and weaknesses.
- Detect if learners have met minimum course requirements.

Case Studies

One of the first examples of CALT was created by the Brigham Young University in 1986 to test reading and listening abilities. Based on its trials and success in establishing the reading and listening levels of students at that university, the first studies of computer adaptive language tests were finally possible. Madsen's study (1991) indicates that in CALT, fewer items are necessary than in paper-based tests to determine the students' level, and the testing time is shorter. In this specific example, an average of 23 items were needed to adequately test the students in about 27 minutes. The comparable conventional reading test used in the study required 60 items and 40 minutes (Brown, 1997). This proves that CALT can save time during language assessment.

In another study, Bergstrom, Lunz, and Gershon (1992) analyzed the responses of 225 students on a medical technology examination and found that altering the difficulty of items slightly raises the number of items that are necessary to test students with adequate precision.

With very little studies available in the realm of CALT and the lack of diversity in terms of languages analyzed, it would be highly relevant to conduct more studies related to CALT. It seems that those limits can only allow us to analyze a few of the current (and still scarce) examples of CALT available on the market today. The six CALT tools analyzed below have been randomly distributed and do not reflect any preference or endorsement from the author.

1. Linguaskill is an adaptive language test developed by Cambridge. It has been trialed for 40 languages from 50 countries to ensure accuracy and reliability. The reading and listening parts are adaptive because the level of the questions varies based on the test-taker answers. Therefore, every test-taker receives a unique version of the test tailored to their ability level (Cambridge English, 2018). For the written part of the test, an automarker, using a complex algorithm, automatically corrects the text entered by the test-taker. The automarker technology works by extracting and analyzing features from the test-takers' written samples such as sentence structure, errors, word combinations, vocabulary used, grammar accuracy, punctuation rules, and text cohesion (Cambridge English, 2018).

2. The Avant STAMP Pro is a computer adaptive language proficiency test evaluating speaking, writing, listening, and reading skills. It provides assessment in 16 languages (including Arabic, English, French, Japanese, Korean, Mandarin, Russian, Spanish). A sample test for the French language shows the authentic reading excerpt on the left side and the multiple-choice question on the right side. Most CALT evaluating students' reading comprehension use multiple-choice questions as they are the easiest type of question for the computer to analyze and grade. One of the drawbacks that can be noticed in this test is the overall use of English for the instructions and for parts of the test itself. Providing an authentic environment would allow for a better measurement of the actual language competencies of the test-takers. Clear and simple instructions in the target language are recommended as well as the use of authentic reading and listening material.

3. The ACTFL Listening and Reading Computer Adaptive Test® (ACTFL L&Rcat) is a computer adaptive language assessment designed to test the English listening and reading proficiency of the test-taker. This test customizes the texts and passages based on the test taker's own reading and listening ability to create a unique testing experience (Language Testing International, 2018). The ACTFL L&Rcat questions are based on a range of informal and formal material on general, social, professional, and academic topics, such as daily interactions, announcements, emails, instructions, newspaper articles, technical reports, literary texts, discussions, lectures, broadcasts, etc. These are real world examples of spoken and written language that surpass the scope of traditional fixed tests (Language Testing International, 2018). One could wish that languages other than English could be evaluated using this tool.

4. The Duolingo English Test is an English language proficiency test using artificial intelligence and machine learning to automatically create thousands of criterion-referenced items, assess each item, and grade test-takers' answers. When Duolingo started designing this test, the company's objective was to create a language proficiency test with greater efficiency, better security, lower cost, and universal access (Brenzel and Settles, 2017). Regarding test security, it is said that test-takers would have to take the test about 1,000 times before seeing the same test item again. Also, this test does not rely on multiple-choice questions but focuses on interactive items such as

listening transcription and speaking exercises. For the speaking part of the test, the computer uses not only speech recognition, but also intonation, rhythm, and stress analysis (Brenzel and Settles, 2017). For this tool too, one could wish that languages other than English could be evaluated.

5. WebCAPE is a multiple-choice assessment that uses adaptive technology to accurately measure reading, grammar, and vocabulary skills. The test is available in English, Spanish, French, German, Italian, Mandarin, and Russian. The company developing it, Emmersion, considers that problems related to cheating and test security are virtually nonexistent in this test because each test is unique to one test-taker. Once the algorithm has reached a point where it can no longer increase or decrease the difficulty of the questions, the test terminates, and the test-taker receives a final score (Emmersion, 2020). Unfortunately, writing, listening, and speaking skills are not evaluated by this tool.

6. TrueNorth is an automated speaking assessment using artificial intelligence to measure speaking ability. This test has three sections that collect three distinct types of data. It begins with a language background survey where the software collects information such as the test-taker's overall language experience and previous exposure to the language being assessed (Emmersion, 2020). The first part of the actual assessment measures how efficiently the test-taker's brain can process language information. It is used to determine the difficulty level for the questions asked in the second part of the test. The second part of the assessment follows a question-answer format, collecting spontaneous responses from the test-takers. For each question, a test-taker has 30 seconds to read the prompt and prepare to respond, and then 60 seconds to respond (Emmersion, 2020). After both parts are finished, the system analyzes all of the data to determine a final score.

After looking at those six examples of CALT, one can still wonder if there is a relationship between item difficulty and test length and what difficulty level would be ideal to precisely measure students' language proficiency level (Brown, 1997).

Advantages of CALT

In a computer adaptive language test, each test-taker takes a unique test that is tailored to their ability level. Questions with low information value about the test-taker's proficiency are avoided, which allows a higher precision across a wider range of ability levels (Carlson, 1994). Some of the advantages of CALT include the following points (Angus and Watson, 2009; Carlson, 1994; JISC, 2010; McNamara, 1991; Pellegrino and Quellmalz, 2010; Wainer, 1990):

- promotes personalization
- improves the appropriateness, effectiveness, and consistency of the assessment
- provides efficient assessment processes that have pedagogic benefits
- allows test-takers to work at their own pace
- test-takers are challenged by test items at an appropriate level and are not discouraged or annoyed by items that are far above or below their ability level
- can be scored immediately, providing instantaneous feedback to the test-taker
- can include text, graphics, photographs, and even full-motion video clips

- can help identify individuals who meet specific performance standards
- provides opportunities to design richer and more interactive assessment and feedback
- supports the diverse needs of learners
- improves learner engagement
- can capture wider skills and attributes not easily assessed otherwise
- provides accurate results with opportunities to combine human and computer marking
- provides accurate, timely, and accessible evidence on the effectiveness of curriculum design and delivery
- increases efficiency and reduce teachers' workloads
- improves assessment validity and reliability
- accommodations can easily be made for visually or auditory impaired test-takers

Challenges and Critiques

First, summative assessments have received significant criticism over the last few years when it comes to accurately measuring the proficiency level of language learners. It is often considered a simple recall of knowledge previously learned that measures students' ability to attain a specific level (Gee and Shaffer, 2010). Additionally, it is seen to offer little in terms of evaluating the actual knowledge or transferable skills that the students would use in the world outside school (Gee and Shaffer, 2010).

The use of technology could potentially solve this issue, but the implementation of new technology tools within the realm of language assessments still brings new challenges. The first would be that computer adaptive language tests do not provide an accurate determination of the grammatical and lexical abilities of students (JISC, 2010). For instance, multiple-choice questions are still often used and simply require candidates to select an answer from predetermined options rather than construct their own answers (JISC, 2010). A badly designed multiple-choice test, resulting in the students guessing the right answer, would negatively impact the viability of CALT.

According to Whitelock and Watt (2008), the following items can be a source of concerns when it comes to implementing computer adaptive language tests:

- technology-enhanced assessment practices are not spread evenly across subjects (still scarce for languages)
- concerns about plagiarism detection
- inability to handle open-ended questions
- difficulties in scalability and transferability of practices
- concerns over reliability and validity of assessment (how to ensure all students receive equivalent tests if questions are selected at random from a question bank)
- user identity verification and security issues
- lack of teacher training on how to use this technology and how to get the most out of the analytics provided by the computer software
- cost of investment in training, support, infrastructure (having enough on-site computers if on-site testing is required)
- use an appropriate scoring method (raw scores, weighted raw scores, or scaled scores)

Language assessment has its own set of specificities that add a few more challenges when it comes to creating a relevant computer adaptive test. For example, in the case of a listening proficiency assessment, items in the pool need to include a variety of listening tasks, such as comprehension of the main ideas, recognition and recall of key details, as well as identification of specific words and phrases (Green et al., 1995).

According to Whitelock (2010), assessment should embrace the "potential to move away from the assessment of individual skills to implement a social constructivist view of learning" (p. 2). Following this idea, some skeptics of the transformative potential of technology tools for learning cite how social and educational identities and inequalities will not necessarily shift through the use of new tools. Hughes (2009) argues that "enthusiasm for the new technologies should be tempered with an appreciation that identity and belonging to learning communities are complex and often unresolved issues for learners" (pp. 291-292). Indeed, studies have shown that the shift in format from paper to digital can create physical and psychological issues for the test-taker (like eyestrain and anxiety) and that familiarity (or not) with technology can greatly impact test results (Fritts and Marszalek, 2010; Lu et al. 2016; Madsen, 1991).

The last challenge, that is sometimes overlooked by teachers and test-takers alike, is the technical difficulties of creating such computer-based assessment tools. The use of technology in computer adaptive language tests can encompass a wide variety of devices from recording equipment, statistical programs, and databases, to programs capable of language recognition (Chapelle, 2008). All those parts need to be relevant and properly set for the assessment to be reliable. Things like the user interface generation, the test engine, and the random yet relevant selection of questions also need to be properly set in order for the test to be viable. One of the requirements of CALT is to provide a flexible and configurable architecture that can be instantiated in a structured way for different use cases (Oppl et al., 2017). As long as this cannot be resolved efficiently, a reliable and viable computer adaptive language test will never be able to accurately determine a test-taker proficiency level in all four modalities (writing, listening, speaking, and reading).

Conclusions

After defining the concept of CALT and providing six relevant and current examples, the advantages and challenges of CALT as well as critiques and literature gaps were discussed.

As García Laborda (2007) states, the benefits of computer adaptive language tests should overcome its drawbacks, as it can be faster, more efficient, and less costly than paper-based tests. CALT can also facilitate the difficult task of level evaluation, rapid correction, feedback, and reporting (García Laborda, 2007. Further research should be done on the accuracy and reliability of CALT. It is also vital to better understand how digital technologies can support fairer and more equitable assessment methods for language learners. Finally, it would be relevant to get more insights in the debate around ethics and the challenges to protect users' data when test-takers are taking a computer adaptive language test, either on-site or at home.

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Investigating Procedures for Translating Vietnamese Noodle Dishes Into English: Application to Language Teaching

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Abstract

The purpose aims at finding translation procedures for rendering Vietnamese noodles - a world well-known cuisine - into English in order to apply in teaching and learning English language skills in general and Translation in particular for EFL (English as Foreign Language) students at The University of Danang in Vietnam in the current context of integration and cultural communication. The background of study is mainly based on translation procedures stated by Newmark P (1988) and Armstrong N. (2005). Translation procedures such as shift (i.e. structure shift and class shift) and equivalence (e.g. cultural equivalence, descriptive equivalence and functional equivalence) are employed to analyze and find out the result of the study qualitatively. The data with different subtypes of two main kinds of Vietnamese noodles, such as Pho and Bun written in English will be collected from prestigious resources such as Guidebooks by Lonely Planet, Cable News Network (CNN) Travel Guide and some other related material or publication, like dictionaries or textbooks. Then a qualitative as well as quantitative analysis of totally 23 different subtypes of Vietnamese noodles, comprising 11 kinds of pho and 12 types of bun having been appropriately and cautiously collected for the research will be conducted so as to discus and find the result of the research. The outcomes are expected to be useful and broadly applicable not only for Vietnamese ESL students but also for ESL students from many other countries in association with transforming their own cuisines into English by means of concerned translation procedures.

Keywords: Vietnamese Noodle Cuisines, Translation Procedures, Vietnamese-English Translation of Noodle Cuisines

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Introduction

The rationale of the research aims at finding translation procedures for rendering Vietnamese noodles - the world well-known cuisine - into English in order to apply in teaching and learning English language skills in general and Translation in particular for EFL (English as Foreign Language) students at The University of Danang in Vietnam in the current context of integration and cultural communication. Among the noodle - based dishes, two most famous and popularized ones, i.e. dishes of pho and bun are selected for research. CNN, a well-known Cable News Network in the United State of America, once ranked pho, the noodle-dish as one of the most delicious dishes in the world and bun rieu of Vietnam as one of the most attractive dishes in Asia." as stated by Linh Nguyen. (2021).

The purpose of the study is to find how the Vietnamese noodles cuisine can be translated in terms of translation procedures and it is hoped to contribute to English language learning in general and to better translation by Vietnamese learners of English in particular. Among noodles cuisine, the study is restricted to the translation procedures of the Vietnamese dishes of pho and bun only.

Literature review and Introduction of dishes

There are some researches that are related to the translation procedures of Vietnamese food or dishes in general, according to Google search, such as "Translation strategies from Vietnamese to English for name of Vietnamese dishes" by Van Anh Luong (2021) or A study on translation of expression used in some Vietnamese dishes into English, by Trang Thi Nguyen (2010). However, the typical study entitled "Investigating Procedures for Translating Vietnamese Noodle Dishes into English: Application to Language Teaching" cannot be seen to my best knowledge.

According to npr.org (2016), top stories in the U.S. and world news, pho is regarded as one of the most traditional dishes and it is considered as central to Vietnamese identity. When we refer to Vietnamese food, that means we refer to the dishes made from rice because in Vietnamese cuisine, rice is always the main dish in comparison with the other food in their daily meal.

In accordance with the news by Alotrip, Vietnam News Travel (2015) states:

> Occupying the first position in the list is pho, which is often called as Vietnamese noodles by foreigners. It can be said that pho creates the soul of Vietnamese food. A typical bowl of Vietnamese noodles is made from linguine-shaped rice noodles, hot broth, fresh herbs, and meat, primarily beef or chicken. Everyone setting foot in Vietnam often says that they will never forget the delectable flavors of pho.

In particular, pho in the North or the South of Vietnam or exactly in Hanoi – the capital of Vietnam and Saigon the biggest city is quite different in terms of taste of broth or the choice of greens. In 2013, Business Insider "ranked Vietnamese pho in the first place of the top 40 cuisines you should try once in your life". International travelers emphasized said that it was the food they thought of first when they visited Vietnam. CNN Staff (2017) also share the idea as follows.

Pho is a Vietnamese noodle soup consisting of broth, linguine-shaped rice noodles called banh pho, a few herbs, and meat. It is primarily served with either beef or chicken. Pho is a popular street food in Vietnam and the specialty of a number of restaurant chains around the world. Pho originated in the early 20th century in northern Vietnam. Because pho's origins are poorly documented, there is significant disagreement over the cultural influences that led to its development in Vietnam, as well as the etymology of the word itself.

Pho is most famous internationally but bun is most popularized over the country, especially in the central and southern country.

In association with the news by CNN, pho might be Vietnam's most famous dish, but bun cha is the top choice when it comes to lunchtime in the capital. It is also said that a dish of pho must be tastier in Winter or cold weather; otherwise a dish of bun is better in summer time. It could be the reason why pho is more popular in the North and bun is more favored in the South of Vietnam where weather is warmer or hotter around the year. Bun cha which originates from Hanoi often served with the delicious fried crab spring rolls is the choice of the former US President Barack Obama during his visit Vietnam in 2016. Vietnamnet (2016) also added the following information:

In "10 Vietnamese dishes praised in foreign press", on 08 May 2015, Anthony Bourdain exclaimed that Hue beef rice vermicelli was the most delicious soup in the world. In the episode, Anthony Bourdrain took audience to Hue Citadel to try famous Hue beef noodles soup. In Dong Ba Market, Bourdrain had an opportunity to taste this dish. After enjoying Hue beef noodles, Bourdrain did not hesitate to give the dish a title "The best soup in the world".

In a documentary film about Hanoi carried out by CNN, fresh-water crab noodles soup (bun rieu cua) was described as an essence of Asian cuisine. With foreign travelers, crab and fried tofu has created special flavors for the dish. Besides, Vietnamese herbs and vegetables also help the noodles soup become perfect by Dtinews.vn (2019).

Methodology

In terms of research methods, in order to reach the goal of the investigation, both qualitative and quantitative approaches were dealt with to answer the research questions. The qualitative approach was referred to discuss and point out the procedures for rendering the Vietnamese noodle dishes into English on the basis of analyzing syntactic features in the source language as well as in the target one. The quantitative approach was applied to calculate the occurrence frequency of procedures or strategies for translating Vietnamese noodle dishes into the English language. With the aim of achieving the goal put at the beginning of the research, it was impossible to use a single method. Therefore, several methods were employed. First of all, the descriptive method was used in order to give a detail description of the English translational equivalents of Vietnamese noodle dishes. Secondly, the analytic method was also essential for the researcher in order to clarify and justify syntactic features of Vietnamese noodle dishes in the source language as well as the target one. In brief, a number of methods as mentioned above were guidelines in conducting the research. However, depending on the set goals of the paper, qualitative as well as quantitative methods were chosen as the dominant ones, the most frequently used methods in the article.

In association with sampling, first of all with data collection, there are 44 samples of were chosen for the research. Based on theoretical background translation procedures of Vietnamese noodle dishes into English, we picked out and classified them into their syntactic structures. Specifically, the data for the research were collected from prestigious materials, namely Vietnamese-English dictionaries by Dang Chan Lieu et al (2008), A Handbook for The English Language Translator by Huu Ngoc et al (2014), Guide books by Mason Florence & Robert Storey (2011) and especially websites of famous Vietnamese dishes mainly introduced by CNN (Cable News Network in the United States) and some other related material or publication, like dictionaries or textbooks as well. In reference to data analysis, the samples of Vietnamese noodle dishes were investigated according to syntactic features. This is the base for finding the translation procedures of Vietnamese noodle dishes in English. Or in other words, the data analysis was carried out based on syntactic features combined with translation procedures. Thus, data analysis was conducted with the following steps (i) collecting samples of Vietnamese noodle dishes from reliable sources, (ii) identifying and grouping into the categories of their syntactic structures, (iii) analyzing to find out the translation procedures of these Vietnamese noodle dishes in English. (iv) suggesting some implications for teaching and learning translation as well as studying and teaching English.

In response to reliability and validity, the data for research were quoted from reliable resources as mentioned above. No any examples for the research were invented so the data for this study are a totally authentic source. Furthermore, the study of translation procedures of Vietnamese noodle dishes into English were conducted on theoretical backgrounds of prestigious authors of translation theories as well as of linguistics. The study result met the requirements of the research questions. Consequently, the research is reliable and valid.

Discussion and Finding

In our research, there are 11 types of dishes of pho and 12 kinds of bun with different ingredients and taste to be collected for investigation. Among 23 types of noodle dishes, there were 44 samples in which 18 samples of pho and 26 samples of bun were randomly collected from prestigious materials. The samples were conducted both qualitatively and quantitatively in the light of the translation procedures by Newmark P, 1988 and Armstrong N. (2005) and syntactic features by Quirk et al (1980, 1999).

Below are the two tables that illustrate the English translational equivalents to kinds of Vietnamese noodles "pho" and "bun".

Table 1. English translational equivalents to Vietnamese noodle "pho"

No	Kinds of Vietnamese "pho"	English Equivalents					Samples
		I	II	III	IV	V	
1	Pho	noodle soup	Vietnamese noodle dishes	rice noodle soup with beef	Vietnamese noodle/ Vietnamese noodle soup/ beef noodle soup	Vietnamese noodle soup	7
2	Pho tai	underdone beef noodle soup					1
3	Pho chin	beef noodle soup					1
4	Pho bo		beef noodle soup				1
5	Pho gau	Noodle soup with half- fat- half-lean brisket					1
6	Pho la sach					Noodle with thinly- sliced pig stomach, and flank with cartilage	1
7	Pho sot vang	noodle soup with beef wine sauce					1
8	Pho nam					noodle with beef flank	1
9	Pho gan					noodle with beef tendon	1
10	Pho ga		Chicken soup with rice noodles			noodle soup with chicken	2
11	Pho bo vien					noodle with beef meatballs	1
	Total	5	3	1	3	6	**18**

For the convenience of data analysis in the two tables, the data chosen randomly for research from different sources are coded as the Roman number, viz. "I" that stands for the data collection from Tu dien Viet Nam (Vietnamese- English Dictionary) by Lieu Chan Dang et al (2008), "II" replacing for the data capture from the well-known guide book, i.e. Vietnam by Mason Florence & Robert Storey (2011), "III" as the data from A Handbook for The English Language Translator by Ngoc Huu et al (2014), "IV" for the websites in relation to the two noodle dishes, i.e. pho and bun that are mainly introduced by CNN and "V" used for other resources from different references, such as kinds of dictionaries or textbooks and the like.

In connection with the information in Table 1, in some communicative contexts, the customers in a pho restaurant can order the noodle by just saying "Pho" or "Pho, please" in short, instead of clarifying different kinds of pho. In this situation, the waiters or waitresses can understand what kind of pho the customer implies. It is the reason why the English equivalent of pho in the above table is translated in such a case in different ways by different sources.

Noticeably, pho in Vietnamese cuisine noodle can be translated into English in different ways. For instance, pho is rendered as "Vietnamese noodles" or "Vietnamese noodle soup" or "beef noodle soup" like being shown in the column "IV.1".

Table 2. English translational equivalents to Vietnamese noodle "bun"

No	Kinds of Vietnamese "bun"	English Equivalents					Samples
		I	II	III	IV	V	
1	Bun	Vermicelli		Rice noodle			2
2	Bun bo	Vermicelli and beef	Rice vermicelli & vegetable served dry, or with beef soup. The dish originated in Hue, where it is called bun bo Hue (Hue beef noodle)	Beef rice noodles	Hue beef rice vermicelli		4
3	Bun cha	Vermicelli and grill chopped meat noodle soup	Rice vermicelli with roasted pork & vegetable, served with mixture of vinegar, chili & sugar		Kebab rice noodles		3
4	bun ca				fish noodle soup		1

5	Bun oc	Vermicelli and shellfish soup		Snail rice noodles			2
6	Bun rieu (cua)	Vermicelli and sour crab soup			Fresh-water crab noodles Soup/ crab noodle soup		3
7	Bun thang	Vermicelli and chicken soup	Riced & shredded chicken with rice egg & prawn on top, served with a broth made by boiling chicken, dried prawn & pig bones	Hot rice noodle soup	Vermicelli and chicken soup		4
8	Bun moc					noodle with steamed lean meat pounded with bits of skin	1
9	Bun nam				Noodle with beef flank	noodle with beef flank	2
10	Bun gan				Noodle with beef tendon	noodle with beef tendon	2
11	Bun xuong					noodle with bone	1
12	Bun chay					noodle with spring roll, mushroom, soybean, peanut, herbs, flavored with soy sauce, broth soup	1
	Total	6	3	4	8	5	**26**

In the table 2, the English equivalent to bun cha is "Kebab rice noodles". Culturally, Kebab is the borrowing words from English language in order to clarify the meaning of Vietnamese noodle in English, the target language.

Pho can be transferred into English as *noodle*, a single noun or *noodle soup* as a complex noun phrase in which *soup* is a head noun and *noodle* are as premodifier. By contrast, bun can be rendered as *noodle* or *vermicelli*. It could be because of the different shapes of bun and pho.

In terms of meaning, *noodle* or *vermicelli* itself normally refers to "the rice only" not the "dishes themselves". However, in some situations, they are replaced for the dishes of pho or bun.

In some cases, the different sources have the same English equivalents to the Vietnamese noodle bun; for instance, "bun nam" in Vietnamese noodle cuisine is rendered in English as "noodle with beef flank" by two different resources. That can be seen in the columns "V.9" and "VI.9".

According to the information from the above two tables, with reference to syntactic features of the two noodle dishes, pho and bun, among the 44 samples there are 42 ones to be constructed as complex nouns, except for "vermicelli" as a single noun formally, the English equivalent of bun as a dish, not the noodle itself (in Table 2, I.1). And the other one (in Table 2, II.2) is structured as a sentence (e.g. *Rice vermicelli & vegetable served dry, or with beef soup. The dish originated in Hue, where it is called bun bo Hue (Hue beef noodle)*).

After the survey of samples in respect of syntactic structure and translation procedures, it can be seen that the most common procedures can be employed to translate the Vietnamese noodle cuisine into English is *shift* in which *structure shift* is more dominant than *class shift*. As regards the occurrence frequency of procedures shown in Vietnamese-English translation of noodle dishes, the highest proportion of 47.7 % is for the *structure shift*. This procedure includes two subtypes, namely the *structure shift* from <Head noun + Post modifier> e.g. (bun bo) in Vietnamese to <Premodifier + Head noun> (Beef rice noodles) and < Head noun + Head noun> e.g. (Vermicelli and beef) in English that equal to 36.4% and 11.3%, respectively. The shift is mostly used because of the differences between the two languages in terms of the syntactic structures of the complex noun phrases in English and Vietnamese. In English, adjective normally functions as pre-modifier to the head noun; otherwise, they are post-modifier to the head noun in Vietnamese. In terms of syntactic features, Quirk et al. (1980: 857-860) stated that complex noun phrase is the one that includes at least one head noun and at least one pre-modifier or post modifier. Furthermore, this translation procedure is identified as *structure shift* by Newmark P (1988:85) because *pho bo* and *bun bo*, which are constructed as head noun *pho* and *bun* postmodified by *bo* (beef) in Vietnamese, are syntactically shifted as head nouns *noodle soup* and *rice noodle* pre-modified by *beef* in English.

The second procedure is *class shift* that accounts for 45.3% of the total. The *class shift* is found because the structure <Head + post modifier> in source language is transferred similarly to the target language as <Head + post modifier>. However, they are different in word class; i.e. <noun + noun> (pho nam) in Vietnamese to be transformed as <noun + ed-participle>, e.g. (noodle soup served with beef flank) in English. It is because English is inflectional language, by contrast Vietnamese is an isolating and analytic one in regard to

morphological features. In accordance with the statement by Newmark P (1988: 84) there are two types of shift, i.e. structure shift and class shift. Structure shift means "source language grammatical structure does not exist in the target language" and "class shift is a translation procedure involving a change in the grammar from source language to target language, e.g. the contrastive positions of adjectives in English and those in French language".

The lowest percentages are the two procedures *descriptive equivalent* and *paraphrase* that account for (4.7%) and 2.3%) respectively. The procedures *descriptive equivalent* and *paraphrase* are normally used in guide books or websites of Vietnamese top dishes mainly introduced by CNN. The translator in the target language tends to describe when translating cuisines into their language as clearly as possible in order to help English speaking people understand the meaning of the dishes as much as possible. For instance, bun bo is rendered into English as "Vermicelli and beef" by Dang Chan Lieu et al (2006:128), otherwise it is transferred as "Rice vermicelli and vegetable served dry, or with beef soup" by Florence, M. & Storey, R. (2002: 116). In accordance with the statement by Newmark P, (1988: 83, 91) *descriptive equivalent* means "the meaning is explained in several words. Otherwise, *paraphrase* is much more detailed than that of *descriptive equivalent*." For instance, "Bun bo" is translated as "Hue beef rice vermicelli" by CNN; otherwise, is rendered as "*Rice vermicelli & vegetable served dry, or with beef soup. The dish originated in Hue, where it is called Bun bo Hue (Hue beef noodle)*" by Florence, M. & Storey, R. (2002: 118). Syntactically, *descriptive equivalent* is normally in the form of a phrase and *paraphrase* is constructed as a sentence. It can be confirmed that the translation of Vietnamese cuisines into English in this context replies on the message that the translator wants to send to the people in the target language, or in other words, these are the dissimilarities of language expressions. That is the reason why Vietnamese-English translation of noodle dishes in Vietnamese-English dictionaries differs from that in English guidebooks and the like.

In conjunction with the translation procedure *descriptive equivalent,* Newmark P (1988: 83) confirmed that it is the translation procedure in which the meaning in a source language is explained in several words in a target language; for example "samurai" is described as "the Japanese aristocracy from the eleventh to the nineteenth century". And the translation procedure *paraphrase* is the translation procedure in which the meaning is much more detailed than that of *descriptive equivalent*, Newmark (1988:91)

The frequencies of procedures for translating Vietnamese noodle cuisines into English can be summarized in the following table.

Table 3. The frequencies of Vietnamese – English translation procedures of noodle dishes

Vietnamese Structures	English Structures	Translation procedures	Quantities	Rates
Head + post modifier	Premodifier + head	Structure shift	16	36.4%
	Head + Head	Structure shift	5	11.3%
	Head + post modifier	Class shift	20	45.3%
	"Complex" noun phrase	Descriptive equivalent	2	4.7%
	Sentence	Paraphrase	1	2.3%

As a result, the concept of complex noun phrases by Quirk et al. (1980: 857-860) as indicated above and also by other English grammarians is really problematic in connection with identifying the syntactic features of Vietnamese noodle dishes in our research. In such a case, a head noun is preceded or followed by a modifier is called complex noun phrases; for

instance, *Vietnamese noodle* (Table 1, IV.1) or *noodle with bone* (Table 2, V.11). However, some noodle dishes with complicated structure can be seen in our research. For example, the English equivalent to *bun thang* as "*Riced & shredded chicken with rice egg & prawn on top, served with a broth made by boiling chicken, dried prawn & pig bones*" extracted from Table 2, II.7 is syntactically named as a complex noun phrase. According to Quirk et al, in this structure of complex noun phrase, *chicken* is the head noun preceded by the pre-modifiers *riced & shredded* and followed by post-modifiers *with rice egg & prawn on top, served with a broth made by boiling chicken, dried prawn & pig bones*. By contrast, in translation procedures or strategies, this structurally complicated term is defined as "descriptive equivalent". In consequence, in the light of translation procedures, the identification of noodle dishes in English must be more convincing than the term "complex noun phrase" in English syntax.

Conclusion

Beside the findings in terms of the occurrence frequencies of Vietnamese – English translation procedures of the two noodle cuisines we have mentioned above, throughout the research, it can be also seen that *pho bo* and *bun bo* that are translated into English as *beef noodle soup* or *beef rice noodle* respectively and some others may disturb the international tourists because in fact, there are some restaurants serving both dishes. Such translation should be taken into reconsideration because the mistake given in this case can be caused by the translation procedures "literal translation" instead of "communicative translation". With regard to the point of view by Newmark, P. (1988), literal translation means the source language grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest target language equivalents but the lexical words are again translated singly. By contrast, communicative translation refers to the rendering the exact contextual meaning of the original.

Then the results of the study can be formulated for the translation of other Vietnamese cuisines into English in terms of translation procedures as well. Next, the outcomes are expected to be useful not only for Vietnamese ESL students who study English but also for tourists who can speak English all over the world to be interested in Vietnamese-English translation of the cuisines in general. Furthermore, investigating the translation of Vietnamese noodle cuisines into English by means of translation procedures is the best way to transfer them into the target language not only semantically or culturally but also syntactically, which can be explained by means of the translation procedures. Last but not least, the finding proves that the translation of Vietnamese noodle cuisines into English is syntactically based on the structure of complex noun phrases.

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How the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages Limits Itself From Harnessing Its Economic and Societal Benefits

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Abstract

Previous qualitative and quantitative studies (Liu, 2015) argue that promoting minority languages increases in FDI and GDP and societal public trust. However, quantitative comparisons of four Balkan countries (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, North Macedonia, and Serbia) suggest the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML), is not reliably providing these benefits. Negative outcomes were found with segregation of linguistic groups. This was hypothesised to decrease public trust and harm economic growth (Liu, 2015)) by pitting linguistic groups against one another. This hypothesis was confirmed through a qualitative comparison of the Netherlands' protection of Frisian and Papiamento, where delegation of protection to local authorities (segregating minorities from others and the dominant group) risked public trust decreases.

Keywords: European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, Minority Language Protection Economic Benefits, Balkan

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1. Introduction

Previous qualitative and quantitative studies (Liu, 2015) argue that promoting minority languages increases in FDI and GDP and societal public trust. However, quantitative comparisons of four Balkan countries (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, North Macedonia, and Serbia) suggest the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML), is not reliably providing these benefits. Negative outcomes were found with segregation of linguistic groups. This was hypothesised to decrease public trust and harm economic growth (Liu, 2015)) by pitting linguistic groups against one another. This hypothesis was confirmed through a qualitative comparison of the Netherlands' protection of Frisian and Papiamento, where delegation of protection to local authorities (segregating minorities from others and the dominant group) risked public trust decreases.

To illustrate this argument, I will first present an overview of the economic and societal benefits of promoting multilingualism. Then I will present the methodology, results, and analysis of the Balkan data. After, I will do the same for the data regarding Papiamento and Frisian. Lastly, I will showcase that the results are best explained via inherent characteristics of the ECRML.

Liu (2015) reports on the economical and societal effects of language regimes in South-East Asia. She argues that language policy (embodied by language regimes), has indirect economic effects. She divides language regimes into four types that either centralise political, cultural, and social power into one language (centralised regimes); share power across more than one language (power-sharing); neutralise power through exclusively promoting a lingua franca (power neutralizing); or share power and neutralise it (neutralized-sharing).

She ran a quantitative comparison of thirty-four countries in Asia between 1945 and 2005, and a deeper qualitative comparison of Singapore and Malaysia. Asia was defined broadly here as ranging from Turkey to Japan; and Russia to the Maldives and Timor-Leste (Liu, 2015:36). Thus, her results are representative of how linguistic policy influences the economy (Liu, 2015:37). Singapore and Malaysia were compared because both were very similar but differed in terms of their economy. Both had made language a central point of their nation state creation and are equally culturally diverse. Further, both had been British colonies, started out with similar GDP, and high unemployment (Liu, 2015:38-39).

In both studies, the dependent variables were economic growth, foreign directed investment (FDI), and social capital or public trust. For public trust, power-neutralising regimes had a significant positive effect on general trust and altruism. Liu (2015:170) argues trust is lower in power-concentrating regimes with large(r) non-dominant linguistic groups due to their disenfranchisement vis a vis the dominant language. With increased recognition, less groups feel disenfranchised and thus public trust increases. However, due to the prestigious position of the dominant language, minority groups still feel somewhat disenfranchised unless a lingua franca is the dominant language.

For FDI, the results indicated that power-concentrating, neutralized sharing, and power-sharing regimes attract very similar amounts of FDI. Only power-neutralising regimes attracted substantially more FDI (Liu, 2015:183). More democratic countries also attracted more FDI compared to more authoritarian countries, as did countries with bigger markets.

For economic growth, the results were that the degree of power neutralization a language regime had, had no direct effect on economic growth. Instead, economic growth was directly positively affected by public trust and FDI. Language regimes thus affect the economy indirectly by affecting public trust and FDI.

Open questions however are i) whether there are inherent aspects of individual frameworks or policies affecting the results; and ii) whether protecting more minority languages yields greater effects. Question i) is important since many EU candidate countries and those in the (EU) Neighbourhood have implemented the ECRML. Question ii) is also important, since recent research shows that current candidate countries protect more languages and need to make more effort to fulfil their obligations under the ECRML (Ramallo, 2019). It is thus relevant to know if increased protection might affect their attempts to fulfil other economic and political EU membership criteria.

To investigate both questions, this paper partially replicated Liu (2015) in a quantitative comparison between Serbia and Albania (to study the effect of not applying the ECRML), and another between BiH and NM (to study the effects of protecting more languages).

2. Methodology

The countries for research question 1 are Serbia and Albania, since they differ in whether they have ratified the ECRML, and in their language regime. Serbia has ratified it, while Albania has not. At the same time, Serbia has a power-sharing language regime, while Albania has a centralised one, which allows the effects of adopting the ECRML and sharing power to be studied. The comparison was run between 2007 – 2019 (one year after the ECRML was ratified).

The countries compared in research question 2 are Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH) and North Macedonia (NM). The countries were selected since they both have a shared power regime but differ in whether they have ratified the ECRML. BiH has ratified it, while NM has not. But since 2001's Ohrid Framework Agreement NM also has a power-sharing language regime. Thus, the effect of the ECRML can be studied a) *vis-à-vis* another minority language protection framework and b) in terms of if the number of languages protected matters since BiH protects more languages than NM (15 versus 2-3). The comparison was run between 2011 – 2019 (one year after the ECRML was ratified).

The countries allow for a good replication of Liu (2015) since linguistic rights are core national questions in these states. Serbia has the linguistically diverse Vojvodina province. Albania has significant minorities (primarily Greek and North Macedonian), who are antagonistic to the state (Cesari, 2014; Giannakou & Tsoukalas, 2011). BiH is divided as a linguistic/ethnic compromise into the Serbian dominated Republika Srpska, the Bosnian and Croat dominated Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the Brčko District, which is under international supervision. I will mainly deal with the state of BiH which comprises of these entities. In NM language also mattered as interethnic violence between Macedonians and Albanians is well documented (Bloodsworth, 2020) and ended with the Ohrid Framework Agreement that directly touches upon cultural, language and educational rights (Petrushevska, 2014).

I adopted the same research design as Liu (2015) with modifications. Like in Liu (2015), I will run three different experiments. One investigating the effect of the ECRML on public

trust, FDI, and economic growth (GDP and GDP per capita). The dependent-, and control variables remain the same, but colonial legacy is not included. The independent variable is also changed to degrees of power sharing, which is based on Liu's (2015) formula for degrees of power neutralization. I calculate degrees of power sharing as in (1). x_{Dd} stands for degree of power sharing between dominant (D) and minority languages (d). n stands for the number of years the language has been used as a medium of instruction in public primary and secondary education. k stands for the number of recognized languages. t stand for a year.

$$(1)\ x_{Dd}\ (country\text{-}year\ t)\qquad =\qquad \frac{n_{d1} + \cdots + n_{d(k-1)}}{n_D * (k-1)}$$

Degrees of power sharing thus takes a value between 0 (complete centralization) and 1 (complete sharing). The data for how many years a language was used as a medium of instruction comes from the OECD's *Education at a Glance* and *Reviews of National Policies for Education: South-Eastern Europe* series. Minority language education data was also gathered from academic journals and for BiH and Serbia from the ECRML progress reports. In the case of BiH where several languages are dominant, only the language with the greatest number of speakers is classified as dominant. Like in Liu (2015), only use of the minority language as a medium of instruction in primary and secondary public education is considered, since public education is the main way, the state legitimises and gives a language power. Tertiary education was not included since the Bologna Process incentivises the use of English for independent reasons. Medium of instruction for Liu (2015) refers to using the language to teach a subject other than the language. I however will also count cases where the language is used to teach the language to native speakers of said language. I do this because this step is more common in the Balkans and these classes often also teach culture and history according to the Council of Europe, which serves as an intermediary step towards using the minority language to teach other subjects. However, if these classes are optional, they will not be counted. If it is not clear that classes are taught for minority language speakers as opposed to as a second language, then it will not be counted. If it is not clear if previously mentioned educational policies were continued, the continuation of the status quo was assumed.

For the first experiment, public trust is the dependent variable. Degrees of power sharing is the explanatory independent variable. Level of linguistic heterogeneity, and GDP per capita were included as fixed control variables, with degree of democracy as a random effect. Public Trust was measured through the level of corruption reported by the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) using a 10-point scale, because corruption levels are strongly negatively correlated with public trust (Diamond, 2007; Jameel, Asif, Hussain, Hwang, Sahito & Hussain Bukhari, 2019; Christensen & Lægreid, 2008; Guo, 2014; Manion, 2004; E. W. Welch, Hinnant, & Moon, 2005). As in the CPI, a score of 10 corresponds to most trusting and 0 to least trusting. CPI scores after 2012 were converted from the 100-point scale to a 10-point scale. Linguistic heterogeneity is measured with the Herfindahl-Hirschman concentration index since it was validated in Liu (2015). Degrees of democracy will be measured with the Economist Intelligence Unit's Democracy Index because it does not consider economic variables, which are used independently in the analysis. It uses a 10-point scale (10 (fully democratic) and 0 (fully authoritarian)). GDP per capita was measured in units of 1000 USD. The data comes from the World Bank.

In the second experiment, FDI is the dependent variable. Degrees of power sharing was the explanatory independent variable. A lagged dependent variable, linguistic heterogeneity, and

market size were included as control variables. Degrees of democracy was a random effect. Market size was calculated via GDP (in billions of USD) and population (in 100,000).

In the third experiment, annual percentage growth rate of GDP is the dependent variable with degrees of power sharing as the explanatory independent variable. FDI, public trust, and linguistic heterogeneity were included as control variables. Degrees of democracy was a random effect.

3. Results

The results for Serbia and Albania indicated that degree of power sharing and linguistic heterogeneity were significant predictors of public trust. However, only degree of power sharing had a positive correlation. Linguistic heterogeneity had a negative correlation.

Fixed Effects

	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	29.24046	10.31537	25.96646	2.835	0.00876*
Power Sharing	5.98361	2.06221	25.36682	2.902	0.00757*
Linguistic Heterog	-91.16314	36.10589	25.99283	-2.525	0.01801*
GDP per Capita	-0.02106	0.09963	25.99695	-0.211	0.83428

Correlation of Fixed Effects

	(Intercept)	Power Sharing	Linguistic heterog
Power Sharing	0.967		
Linguistic Heterog	-0.999	-0.959	
GDP per Capita	-0.259	-0.447	0.218

Table 1: Results for Correlation between public trust and degrees of power sharing in Serbia and Albania

For BiH and NM all fixed variables had a significant negative correlation.

Fixed Effects

	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	22.4034	6.9990	18	3.201	0.00495**
Power Sharing	-7.0669	3.2412	18	-2.18	0.04275*
Linguistic Heterog	-26.8388	10.9074	18	-2.461	0.02421*
GDP per Capita	-0.1237	0.1487	18	0.832	0.41628

Correlation of Fixed Effects

	(Intercept)	Power Sharing	Linguistic heterog
Power Sharing	-0.981		
Linguistic Heterog	-0.995	0.984	
GDP per Capita	0.377	-0.47	-0.466

Table 2: Results for Correlation between Public Trust and Degrees of Power Sharing in BiH and NM

The results for Serbia and Albania indicated that GDP and degree of power sharing was significant. However, only degree of power sharing was (slightly) positively correlated. GDP was (slightly) negatively correlated.

Fixed Effects

	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	-46.59644	43.55309	24	-1.070	0.295317
Power Sharing	-39.80905	16.01937	24	-2.485	0.020318*
Linguistic Heterog	140.206	161.00544	24	0.871	0.392482
FDI(t-1)	-0.02035	0.15237	24	-0.134	0.894877
Population	1.90377	1.72646	24	1.103	0.281092
GDP	2.11508	0.48574	24	4.354	0.000215***

Correlation of Fixed Effects

	(Intercept)	Power Sharing	Linguistic heterog	FDI(t-1)	Population
Power Sharing	0.097				
Linguistic Heterog	-0.995	0.001			
FDI(t-1)	0.121	0.713	-0.051		
Population	0.348	-0.871	-0.438	-0.619	
GDP	-0.032	-0.079	0.035	-0.093	-0.163

Table 3 Results for Correlation between FDI and Degrees of Power Sharing in Serbia and Albania

For BiH and NM no variable was significant, though linguistic heterogeneity would be significant with a negative correlation under a p>0.1 threshold.

Fixed Effects

	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	-7.51392	4.11837	13.94299	-1.824	0.0896
Power Sharing	2.05898	3.49299	14.55192	0.589	0.5646
Linguistic Heterog	13.54725	6.93569	12.94663	1.953	0.0727
Population	-0.04037	0.05055	23.63710	-0.799	0.4382
GDP	0.03117	0.03172	15.99828	0.983	0.3404
FDI(t-1)	-0.14117	0.20108	14.28937	-0.702	0.4939

Correlation of Fixed Effects

	(Intercept)	Power Sharing	Linguistic heterog	FDI(t-1)	Population
Power Sharing	-0.585				
Linguistic Heterog	-0.82	0.017			
Population	-0.188	0.885	-0.393		
GDP	0.127	0.526	-0.528	0.548	
FDI(t-1)	0.105	0.022	-0.165	0.125	-0.046

Table 4: Results for Correlation between FDI and Degrees of Power Sharing in BiH and NM

For Serbia and Albania, only FDI was a significant positive predictor of GDP growth. No other variable was significant in predicting GDP growth.

Fixed Effects

	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	32.9992	103.757	26	0.318	0.753
Power Sharing	-3.7111	19.5205	26	-0.19	0.8507
FDI	1.0515	0.421	26	2.498	0.0192*
Linguistic Heterog	-129.2214	361.4559	26	2.498	0.0192
Public Trust	2.1755	1.6243	26	1.339	0.1921
GDP per Capita	-0.4185	0.8765	26	-0.477	0.637

Correlation of Fixed Effects

	(Intercept)	Power Sharing	Linguistic heterog	FDI(t-1)	Population
Power Sharing	0.979				
FDI	0.585	0.517			
Linguistic Heterog	-0.998	-0.971	-0.604		
Public Trust	-0.036	-0.093	0.493	-0.01	
GDP per Capita	-0.471	-0.563	-0.574	0.458	-0.272

Table 5: Correlation between Economic Growth and Degrees of power Sharing in Serbia and Albania

For BiH and NM no variable was significant at $p < 0.05$. But both Power sharing and linguistic heterogeneity were significantly negatively correlated at $p < 0.1$ level.

Fixed Effects

	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	349.7831	169.9337	18	2.058	0.0543 .
Power Sharing	-256.1268	122.4288	18	-2.092	0.0509 .
FDI	-2.2889	2.3732	18	-0.964	0.3476
Linguistic Heterog	-496.2135	236.5274	18	-2.098	0.0503 .
Public Trust	-07075	1.1025	18	-0.642	0.5292
GDP per Capita	0.9664	0.6579	18	1.469	0.1591

Correlation of Fixed Effects

	(Intercept)	Power Sharing	Linguistic heterog	FDI(t-1)	Population
Power Sharing	-0.999				
FDI	0.165	0.15			
Linguistic Heterog	-0.999	1	0.152		
Public Trust	-0.486	0.455	0.531	0.46	
GDP per Capita	-0.404	0.381	-0.156	0.384	0.357

Table 6: Correlation between Economic Growth and Degrees of power Sharing in BiH and NM

4. Discussion

As the results are preliminary, they are only tentative. The discussion here is therefore held with the assumption that the trends noticed will continue in the future. Though the results are preliminary, they are interesting, since they confirm only a part of the argument in Liu (2015).

The results for BiH and NM gave opposite results than expected. Public trust was only correlated positively with degree of power sharing for Serbia and Albania. But for BiH and NM, the correlation was negative. Further, since degree of power sharing is based on

linguistic heterogeneity, it is surprising that for both comparisons it was correlated negatively to public trust. Similarly, GDP per Capita also had a negative correlation in the BiH and NM comparison.

Considering that a decrease in public trust is the same as an increase in corruption (since public trust values were derived from the CPI), I explain the result as follows: The negative correlation of degrees of power sharing to public trust in BiH and NM is due to the language regime being segregationist. In BiH ethnic majorities are used to define the main constituents of the country. Thus, ethnicities rarely need to come into contact in ways that requires consensus and trust building. Instead, ethnic majorities rule over minorities in largely ethnically homogenous areas. This is also evident in NM where schools exist that have two schools under one roof with separate buildings based on ethnicity (Bloodworth, 2020). Meaning that the metric of power sharing does not actually reflect power sharing in these countries, but rather several centres of power concentration. In contrast in Serbia, while much of the linguistic diversity is concentrated in the Vojvodyna province, there was no evidence to suggest the language regime was segregationist. Thus, ethnicities come into contact with one another, which increases public trust with increased language power sharing. This might also explain why GDP per capita increases in BiH and NM were linked to increases in corruption but not in Serbia and Albania. Concentrated centres of linguistic power tend to increase discrimination and thus corruption. Corruption can set up shadow economies, which end up greasing the wheels of the economy (Honairu, et al., 2020; Beck & Mahler, 1986; Caselli & Michaels, 2013; Jiang & Nie, 2014).

The negative correlation of linguistic heterogeneity in all countries can be seen as a product of the Yugoslav civil war. As a recent war fought along linguistic and ethnic fronts, it probably resulted in higher level inter-linguistic distrust. It is therefore encouraging that well-executed power sharing regimes, can counteract the effect of high linguistic heterogeneity, since high heterogeneity often causes increased power sharing.

The positive correlation of degrees of language power sharing and FDI in Serbia and Albania replicated results in Liu (2015). Also, since degrees of power sharing decreased public trust, in BiH and NM, the non-significance of degrees of power sharing and FDI was not surprising as the increase in FDI in Liu (2015) is based on power sharing increasing public trust. The negative correlation in Serbia and Albania of GDP to FDI is surprising though. Especially since this result was also upheld when market size differences were eliminated. The results are most likely a product of more opportunistic FDI in the region. Since increased market size generally speaking attracts more FDI (Liu, 2015), and FDI is a limited resource, there is a threshold effect where countries with small enough markets gain no advantage from market size increases (Asiedu & Lien, 2003). Therefore, FDI into these countries is riskier. Thus, if the FDI into countries like Serbia and Albania is perceived to be risky, then one way to mitigate the risk is to invest into Albanian and Serbian companies when it is cheap to curtail losses. Since BiH and NM's FDI not being significantly affected by FDI, might be due to the threshold effect on it. That linguistic heterogeneity had a potential negative correlation to FDI in BiH and NM is not surprising considering that linguistic heterogeneity was negatively correlated to public trust which under Liu (2015) would drive up FDI.

The results for economic growth were somewhat surprising in Serbia and Albania in light of Liu (2015)'s results, but since these countries are developing economies, it is not too surprising that FDI is the only driver of economic growth with no effect from public trust. The potential negative correlations in BiH and NOM were not surprising due to their negative

correlation to public trust, though the lack of an indirect relationship between the variables and economic growth seems to suggest the negative effect is stronger than the positive effect measured in Liu (2015).

Thus, increasing degree of power sharing via the ECRML has the possibility to increase public trust which came with some of the benefits found in Liu (2015). However, this seemed to be undone by segregationist language regimes in BiH and NM. It is unclear though, whether this negative effect on public trust is mainly driven by the segregationist language regimes, or the language regime in conjunction with these countries' recent history and overall social and economic situation. Both results would indicate an inherent inefficiency in the ECRML that allows for this situation to occur. But the former would indicate that the problem is more widespread, the latter that it is less so. The former would also indicate that the explanatory power of the competition among linguistic and ethnic groups to explain decreased public trust is stronger as it is not mediated through other variables. I will argue that the first explanation is more likely based on a qualitative comparison between the protection of Papiamento and Frisian by the Netherlands.

5. Comparing the Protection of Papiamento and Frisian by The Netherlands

Comparing how the Netherlands and BiH instantiate the ECRML is useful, because both have ratified the ECRML and delegate minority language protection to local authorities but share otherwise few confounding variables. The Netherlands unlike BiH, has a high Democracy Index score, high level of public trust, and a healthy economy. It also, only protects 5 languages (Frisian, Limburgish, Low Saxon, Romani, and Yiddish) as opposed to 15.

The shared explanatory variable amid very few shared characteristics means that if situations that decrease public trust arise even for the Netherlands, then it is likely that the measured public trust decrease in BiH and NM is due to the a similar language regime. However, measuring a decrease in public trust in the Netherlands might be difficult, since it has a good economy, already high public trust etc. Thus, this research focuses on investigating whether there are situations that (absent these variables) could lead to lower public trust decreases. If this is the case, then these situations could cause decreasing public trust, in BiH and NM that have worse economies and a lower baseline public trust.

The minority languages were chosen because Frisian has the highest level of protection the Dutch state offers. It thus operates as a gold standard of Dutch minority language protection. Papiamento however is not protected state and can thus represent the other end of the spectrum. For instance, Frisian is an autochthonous language, while Papiamento has a colonial legacy. As such, Frisian shares both cultural and geographical affinity with the Dutch, meaning it might be easier to convince people of its needs for protection. Frisian also has a written standard which Papiamento lacks. Thus, Frisian is easier to protect, since both the logistics of producing written material in the language is easier. Therefore, if both languages share situations that could cause a decrease in public trust, then it is reasonable to assume that this applies also to other minority languages in the Netherlands. Such results would mean that situations in which public trust is at risk are i) a more widespread phenomena between ethnic and linguistic communities in the Netherlands and ii) due to this pattern mimicking the one hypothesised for BiH, it is probably an indication of a systemic issue with the ECRML, which indicates the ECRML has inherent characteristics that limit its societal and economic benefits.

The data for this comparison comes from scholarly work, government-funded reviews about minority language protection, and the periodic reports on and by the Netherlands to the Council of Europe. The data focuses on minority language protection in law, education, and culture. These areas were chosen because they match the areas the ECRML identifies as areas in which minority languages should be promoted in. Also, if a language can be used in court, is used for education, and has a cultural presence, then it is highly likely that it enjoys enough power to contribute to an increase in public trust. For Papiamento I also limit my research to Aruba, Bonaire, and Curacao since these islands have the most speakers.

Only results where both Papiamento and Frisian share a situation that could decrease trust will be taking as evidence for the interpretation of the data in BiH and NM. This is done to eliminate language specific variables from influencing the results, and only focus on the results driven by the ECRML.

In education both Frisian and Papiamento are subjects and mediums of instruction in primary school. However, Papiamento is primarily taught for speaking purposes (Dijkhoff & Pereira, 2010:248). Further, schools are within limits free to choose what language to use as a language of instruction. Current legislative efforts are trying to promote the use Papiamento but have historically been hampered by the lack of materials and teachers. Considering that high school was very Dutch dominated, and national exams were in Dutch, many Papiamento speakers in Aruba either dropped out of secondary school or opted for vocational training instead of more academic schooling (Dijkhoff & Pereira, 2008; 2010). Therefore, many schools fought against teaching in Papiamento. The Dutch Education Ministry also indicated that 'Dutch must remain the language of instruction in the Netherlands Antilles' (Dijkhoff & Pereira, 2010:259). In Frisia, Frisian is a required subject in primary school and the lower secondary school. In the latter half of the secondary school, it becomes instead an optional subject (Gorter, van der Meer, and Riemersma, 2008:196). Frisian can also be studied at university, though the class sizes are small. As such, Frisian benefits from legal support, standardization, and access to both teachers and materials, due to its status as a recognized minority language. Thus, while the Council of Europe has noted that educational support of Frisian is 'intolerable' in primary schools (Gorter, van der Meer, and Riemersma, 2008:200), Frisian has not had to battle against public perception, lack of resources or interference from the Dutch government, as much as Papiamento. At the same time though, many of the problems Frisian faces (such as lack of educators and teachers) are partially caused by the Dutch government delegating the protection of Frisian per default to the provincial administration (Gorter, van der Meer, and Riemersma, 2008:195). The situation is thus not unlike Papiamento's, where '[the Dutch government] is very reluctant to intervene in the Caribbean countries, especially where culture and language are at stake' (Bröring & Mijts, 2017:32). Since, Papiamento is not protected under the ECRML, there exist no mandate to force the Netherlands to intervene. As a result, the Dutch government takes a laissez-faire approach to protecting both languages by delegating protection duties to local administrations.

In the justice system, Frisian can be fully used in writing or speaking in court. Though in practice it is hardly being used (Gorter, van der Meer, & Riemersma, 2008:196) that. This is partially caused by a lack of sufficiently proficient law professionals. This, and a related problem also affect Papiamento. Across the ABC islands, local law is often a carbon copy of Dutch law, and that there are not enough trained professionals with sufficient proficiency in Papiamento. The former means that often the Dutch law does not take into account a multilingual situation. The latter means that even if the law is modified, that this modification

is not reinforced in practice. Bonaire, as an official municipality of the Country of Netherlands also must contend with that European judges with no proficiency in Papiamento might rule in cases. Further, specifically for Aruba, Papiamento is always labelled as an option, while Dutch is the default. For instance, while it is possible to swear an oath in Papiamento, the law per default prescribes the Dutch oath (Bröring and Mijts, 2017:35). Additionally, despite being an official language of Aruba, Aruban law still stipulates Dutch exclusively as the language of legislation and criminal proceedings (Bröring and Mijts 2017:35). As such, in law, Frisian has more representation and protections. Though it like Papiamento suffers from trained professionals.

In culture, the presence of Frisian in media, culture and economic activity is modest but increasing (Gorter, van der Meer, and Riemersma, 2008). Often there are only one or two media outlets for television, radio, internet publication or newspapers, and products and advertisements are largely in Dutch. But, since family announcements in newspapers have seen an increase and Frisian is regularly used in elderly care (Gorter, van der Meer, and Riemersma, 2008:199), it seems there are domains in which Frisian is outgrowing Dutch. Frisian also benefits from a strong tradition of promotion literacy that goes back to 1947 (Gorter, van der Meer, and Riemersma, 2008:199), therefore Frisian has a stable cultural representation in literature, song, and theatre. Papiamento shows less similar findings though it is likely that a lack of a written standard and encouragement to use Papiamento cause this. Further, the ABC island's reliance on tourism automatically means that the local language also must contend with being side-lined in favour of attracting foreign travellers. Therefore, in culture Papiamento also fairs worse than Frisian, though it is unclear whether the measures cultural productivity (informed by the ECRML) are useful for a primarily oral language. It is also worth pointing out that the cultural activity in Frisian and Papiamento is driven by grassroot movements (Gorter, van der Meer, and Riemersma, 2008; Oldenhof, 2006; Wiel, 2022). For Papiamento this is not surprising, since the lack of a written standard makes its promotion difficult. Thus, both Frisian and Papiamento show how the delegation of minority language protection to different authorities results in less effective use of the language in cultural matters.

In conclusion, the data from the comparison of Frisian and Papiamento shows that due to the laissez-faire attitude of the Dutch government to minority language protections, separate centres in charge of protecting minority languages are established, even for Frisian that enjoys the highest protection. This in turn affects the quality of protection and risks creating a situation where positive effects on public trust might be hampered, and each language needs to compete against each other for more recognition.

Therefore, the ECRML has inherent limitations since it allows for states to decide how to protect minority languages. This is problematic, as it allows for situations in which a nation state pits ethnic and linguistic groups in competition with one another and lowers the quality of protection. This problem is potentially widespread in the ECRML states since this is the case in both wealthier countries with little (recent) history of linguistic tensions and less-wealthy countries with a history of linguistic tensions. Since this problem also seems to affect public trust negatively, the ECRML risks being a social and economic destabilizer in less wealthy countries with history of linguistic tensions that do not have other attendant factors to cushion the effect of lower public trust. Thus, the ECRML should be revised to account for this effect in these countries, since power sharing language regimes are able to actually increase public trust significantly, if implemented properly. This is of further importance since current EU candidate countries all share the profile of being developing economies with

weak(er) democracies and recent experiences with linguistic tensions. Thus, an unrevised ECRML poses a risk for a smooth possible future enlargement into the region.

6. Conclusion

This paper investigated whether the ECRML could replicate the social and economic benefits associated with shared language power regimes found in Asia (Liu, 2015). Two comparisons were run: One between Serbia and Albania, to test the effects of adopting the ECRML, and another between NM and BiH, to test the effects of protecting more versus less languages.
The results indicated that protection significantly increased public trust only in Serbia and Albania but significantly decreased it in BiH and NM. For FDI, protection was not a significant variable, neither was it for GDP growth. In fact, protection was negatively correlated to GDP growth in the BiH and NM comparison. The surprising negative correlations in BiH and NM were hypothesised to be due to the countries' segregationist language policies, which create competing linguistic groups which decreases public trust and has a negative economic impact.

This hypothesis was strengthened by comparing the protection of Frisian and Papiamento by the Netherlands. The comparison showed that the Netherlands (like BiH and NM) protected minority languages via local authorities. This caused situations where public trust decreases were likely, since the quality of minority language representation in law, education, and culture was low. It also risked minorities competing for scarce resources that local administrations did not have.

Since this situation is caused by the ECRML allowing states to decide which languages and how to protect them, it showed how inherent characteristics of the ECRML limit its ability to increase public trust and the economy.

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The Role of SESC RJ Regarding the Change of Perspective of English Language Teaching

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Abstract

The English language is a mandatory subject at Compulsory Education all around Brazil. Still, not only didactic material and additional resources, but also teaching methodologies face need for updating and improvement due to its lack of correlation among its content, students' interest and the environment they belong to. The lack of contextualization between the lessons and students reality, the excessive exposure to grammatical rules and methodologies that focus on repetitions do not prepare the students neither to their professional life nor to their social relationships, circumstances that lead them to demotivation. Therefore, SESC RJ (Social Service of Commerce of Rio de Janeiro) pedagogic team perceived the need for developing educational materials that could connect teaching practices, keep the students on the center of the learning process, motivate the spontaneous use of the foreign language while valuing aspects of our own culture as well as the foreign ones. In order to make the changes mentioned above possible, we were inspired by works and knowledge from authors like Paulo Freire, Acácia Kuenzer and Claire Kramsch. At the end of this study, we will point out how foreign language learning and culture appropriation are intertwined.

Keywords: SESC RJ, Foreign Language, Learning, Didactic Material, Culture

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Introduction

SESC was created in 1946, in a post war context, with the objective to contribute to the human and economic development in Brazil through high quality social educational actions.
Set in all regions of the country, SESC represents a great social protection network, as it provides to Brazilian citizens services regarding education, health care, art, sports, culture and social tourism. In Rio de Janeiro, the institution holds 22 Units, 5 hotels Units and 2 restaurants that assist trade workers. Where there are no permanent facilities, SESC's services are offered in the 12 Mobile Units which provide access to reading material (BiblioSesc), dental care (OdontoSesc), women health care such as mammography and preventive exams with referral to the public health system (SESC Saúde Mulher).

In addition to the initiatives presented above, SESC RJ also carries out actions to fight hunger through Mesa Brasil, a food bank that, in partnership with other institutions, collects products suitable for consumption that would not be marketed and destines them to the population that is in a situation of food insecurity. Consequently, it avoids food waste in a country where, currently, more than 14 million people do not eat regularly.

Focusing on human development and social transformation, all actions carried out by SESC RJ follow an educational bias, in accordance with one of the best known teachings of Freire (1979, p.74) "Education does not transform the world, education transforms people and people transform the world." Based on this philosophy of work, the area of Education at SESC RJ proposes innovative and networked actions in the constant search to rethink its practices and stimulate the critical sense within a national and world reality of inequalities, indifference and conformism.

> *No one can be in the world, with one world and with others in a neutral way. I can't be in the world of gloves in my hands just checking it out. Accommodation in me is only the way to insertion, which implies decision, choice, intervention in reality.* (FREIRE, 1996, p.77).

In sight of the facts exposed, we can guarantee that SESC RJ's commitment is not only to form, but look at the students' strengths, motivate them to understand and to follow a constantly evolving world; besides, to promote their insertion in society as a citizen who seeks freedom, equality conditions and opportunities for all, initiating this process through the communities where they reside.

Rio de Janeiro is a city with broad number of social issues. For this reason, SESC RJ's Education actions seek to find ways to face the most diverse realities through educational projects such as: Arte, Ciência & Tecnologia (actions aimed at promoting scientific education, cultural appropriation and reflections on the impacts of technology on education and society), Infâncias ((Early childhood education and activities on the schools extra-curricular shift through differentiated methodology and commitment to their rights and children leadership, and Pensamentos e Linguagens (recognition of our own culture, as well as, acknowledge of a diversity of cultures through the teaching of foreign languages and mother tongue).

Pensamento e Linguagens

This area of SESC RJ Education proposes several actions through courses, workshops and events in foreign language and mother tongue that has as main objective the fluency in foreign languages from relevant discussions on the social, cultural, political and economic scenario in which we are all inserted.

Pensamento e Linguagens area is in 13 units of SESC RJ, with 73 classes and a team of 24 instructors. Currently, almost 700 people are enrolled in free of charge foreign language activities, and, in July 2022, more than 640 vacancies were opened for language courses. SESC's foreign language classes are also in 3 public schools in the State of Rio de Janeiro involving a total of 11 classes. We can say that the partnership between SESC RJ and the Education Department of the State of Rio de Janeiro in offering language teaching represents the desire of both parties in changing the perspective in language teaching.

The actions ensure numerous opportunities to use foreign languages autonomously and in real contexts. We may use Aulas Passeio as an example; the students are invited to visit tourist regions of Rio de Janeiro and, while in the tour, which is carried out by a guide tourism speaking in a foreign language, we encourage the appreciation of cultural centers and the discussion of social issues identified during the trip.

Another highlight concerns the on-site and virtual exhibitions, in three languages that allow students of public schools and visitors to recognize their culture and the culture of the other through historical contexts of the language.

As a methodological tool, we also have Web series that portrait the life of two Brazilian characters who experience the challenges of learning the language through themes of our daily lives.

Meetings and festivals, bring together students enrolled at SESC RJ language courses, as well as, students and teachers from the state public school system of Rio de Janeiro that use SESC's materials and training activities, to experience cultural diversity, food and games from target-language countries.

Furthermore, continuous training activities for education professionals and seminars that are intended to emphasize the importance of dialogues and studies regarding education in Brazil. We understand that the actions of Pensamentos e Linguagens bring, not only the benefits of teaching a foreign language seeking the inclusion in the labor market, but sensitize the student so that they pass from a simple follower of cultural practices to a protagonist individual who thinks, reflects, unwinds to build new social practices.

Foreign Language Teaching at SESC RJ

The foreign language teaching in Brazil have been carried out through decontextualized lessons focused on grammar and translations. The main concern was on training students to meet the demands of the labor market, ignoring the positive impact that learning a foreign language can have on the personal growth of citizens, mainly those who, for living in social vulnerability condition cannot pay for specialized language schools.

Compulsory Education in Brazil takes an average of 15 years, which is very positive considering that in the United States of America, the average duration of Compulsory Education is 12 years. However, English language teaching is mandatory only in the last 9 years of schooling and the lessons are carried out through two weekly classes of fifty minutes each. If we consider the number of multinational companies in Brazilian territory, besides the fact that Brazil is a country of great touristic demands, we easily understand the reason why having fluency in languages is a great advantage over those who cannot communicate in a foreign language. Therefore, in search of better job opportunities, many students turn to language schools that charge them for tuition and didactic material. In addition, it is observed that the minor part of the population that can pay for a language courses, cannot, after completing the course, use the foreign language to talk about relevant and significant topics for their daily lives, which leads them to personal development.

Thus, faced the reality presented above, which is how the mission of SESC RJ is reinforced: "Promote socio-educational actions that contribute to the social well-being and quality of life of workers in the trade of goods, services and tourism, their families and the community, for a fair and democratic society." (Departamento Nacional, 2010).

The initiative to offer foreign languages lessons - English and Spanish - free of charge to the public with a family income of up to 3 national minimum wages or practice values far below the market, was the first step taken by the institution, specifically, by the Education Management, to studies regarding the change of perspective in the teaching of foreign languages. The goal was no longer just to provide lessons to citizens who could not afford language schools and teaching materials, but to consolidate language teaching at SESC RJ as a differentiated offer of courses, workshops and significant activities that reflect the reality of students, most of whom living in the communities surrounding SESC units.

All in all and keeping sight of promoting experiences and prior knowledge, thus ensuring that important issues such as respect, politics, inequality, prejudice and culture can be discussed in classrooms.

The purpose is to enhance Brazilian culture while motivating them to get to know the most diverse cultural realities in countries where English and Spanish are native languages. According to Kramsch (1998, p. 17), "the words people utter refer to common experience. They express facts, ideas or events that are communicable because they refer to a stock of knowledge about the world that other people share."

The great differential of teaching a foreign language at SESC RJ is due to two biases: didactic material and teaching practice. The didactic material consists of three books - basic, intermediate and advanced levels. They were designed by the institution's pedagogical team and are available to all students of SESC's language courses at no cost. As mentioned earlier, the decision to develop the teaching material came from the perception that the books used by that time did not reflect the reality of the students and, consequently, had a negative impact on the interaction, precisely because the groups did not feel represented by images and situations presented on those pages. The first and most important decision was to structure units based on Content-Based Learning.

"Content-Based Learning (CBI) is a teaching method that emphasizes learning about a topic rather than learning about the language itself." (Davies, 2003). In other words, after identifying the main subjects of interest to the students enrolled in the foreign language

courses at SESC RJ, the pedagogical team structured the material so that the focus of the classes contemplates significant sets of themes. CBI is not a recently discovered methodology, but it is not very common in languages books and this method is applied, it assumes a very general aspect, which does not praise different generations and lower social levels. At SESC RJ, texts, podcasts, videos and other resources are tools to motivate and stimulate interaction based on the knowledge they already have, regardless of the mistakes and successes in the linguistic structure, after all, the first moment of the class concerns to exploring the themes. Then, in a subtle and planned way, the grammatical structures and vocabulary are introduced to the students - young, adults and elderly.

We believe that, developing the didactic material based on CBI goes against everything that has been offered to students up to then. When we move the focus away from elitist themes, grammatical structures and specific vocabulary to focus on the use of the language in a context in which these students could really see themselves, we reached our goal to make the learning process happen as a consequence of interaction, in addition to making it less complicated and more meaningful.

> *It is common to choose materials, usually books, produced in other countries, unrelated, therefore, to the reality of the Brazilian student, but focused on the reality of other countries. As a result, not only the target language, but also the culture of that language are shaped as elements without any connection with the objective and motivation of those who manipulate them.* (KUENZER, 2000, p.114)

Another differential of what SESC RJ does is regarding the teaching practice. The only guideline that cannot be disregarded concerns the use of the communicative approach. Another differential of what SESC RJ does is regarding teaching practice. The only guideline that cannot be disregarded concerns the use of communicative approach.

After all, all efforts made by the institution to provide lessons that are different from what is made in schools and traditional language courses, focuses on helping students achieve the necessary fluency in the language so that they can search for new employment opportunities and personal development. Therefore, although all skills are worked on in class, oral practice is the main focus.

The other guidelines given to instructors must be interpreted in the light of their students and their needs. Hence, the importance of permanent training, since the professional needs to have a variety of strategies to fulfill the mission of SESC. For the same reason we do not have a Teacher's Guide, we have replaced it with dialogues and collective development of educational resource. Within this context of freedom to lead the lessons, instructors decide which perspectives to explore further and which extra resources to use to provide a complete learning experience for students.

Considering the results of this foreign language teaching - 85% retention of students annually and the expressive number of students who enroll in courses through other students recommendations - the institution's work expanded the boundaries of the units and reached the Schools of the State of Rio de Janeiro. The partnership between SESC RJ and the State Department of Education began in 2020 with English and Spanish language lessons using our didactic material that is available at no cost. Currently, three public schools in the State of Rio de Janeiro follow the methodology and partake trainings with the SESC RJ team.

The institution's expectation is that this partnership will be extended and that we will be able to expand to other schools all the learning experiences we offer to students of the courses at the units.

Conclusion

Based on the experiences obtained in these years of teaching foreign languages in the units of SESC RJ, we can say that this initiative was the starting point for reflections on discussions that have been raised regarding teaching in Brazil. Effective learning cannot be guaranteed only by exposure to the language, but by active participation of the student in the construction of his own learning process, as well as the understanding of language as an instrument of decolonization and deconstruction of established pre-concepts, opening spaces for new thoughts that lead to reflections and transformative actions about oneself and the community that surrounds it.

We have achieved the goal, through courses, workshops, and seminars, enabling the learning of foreign languages, expanding their world perspective and so as meeting student's demands and providing a dynamic, playful and contextualized learning.

We strengthen cultural identities by encouraging students to express themselves from their social practice when dealing with diverse topics related to everyday life. Thus, we foster empowerment by promoting access to information and other discourses, resulting in the social inclusion of subjects as ethical citizens, aware of their rights and duties.

The appreciation of the intellectual tradition of the community students are inserted and a teaching method that values their linguistic and cultural identity are the answer of the issues raised on the beginning of the article. As a conclusion, we point out how learning foreign languages and the appropriation of their own culture are fundamental keys to the production of knowledge.

Annex 1

Figure 1. Interaction among students from diferent generations

Annex 2

Figure 2. SESC RJ's students showing SESC'S material

Annex 3

Figure 3. Children enrolled in Infâncias Project visiting Pensamento e Linguagens Comic Strip exhibit

Annex 4

Figure 4. Picnic after Aula Passeio (a tour guided by a touristic guide)

Annex 5

Figure 5. Students presentation of their studies concerning Halloween and Dia de los Muertos

Annex 5

Figure 5. Students presentation of their studies concerning Halloween and Dia de los Muertos

Annex 6

Figure 6. Story telling – actions with Primary School children at State Public Schools in Rio de Janeiro

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A Study of the Washback Effects of a Standardised Test on the EFL Context

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Abstract

This study determines the washback effects of the TOEIC on EFL learning and instruction in South Korean hagwons or private cram schools. It uses a sequential mixed-method design involving both quantitative and qualitative components. Firstly, a quantitative survey was conducted on a sample of 103 students and 22 teachers. The teachers and students were given separate questionnaires comprising Likert-style items with possible responses on a scale of 1 to 5. The sample of participants was selected using a non-random convenience sampling method. All the participants were selected from the researcher's professional and personal networks. The survey was followed by in-depth qualitative interviews of seven students and six teachers who consented to be interviewed. The results of the survey were codified and the percentage of affirmative, neutral, and negative responses were calculated. These quantitative results were triangulated with the themes that emerged from the analysis of the qualitative interviews. Consequently, this study provided several insightful observations about the positive and negative washback effects of the TOEIC on EFL learning and instruction. In particular, it was found that EFL teachers in Korean private schools or hagwons tend to "teach to the test" instead of aiming to improve the students' overall competence in English. The students also spend most of their time practicing those areas of the EFL course that are emphasized by the TOEIC. Lastly, some suggestions were put forward to eliminate the negative washback effects of TOEIC on EFL learning in South Korean private schools.

Keywords: Washback, Standardised Tests, English for Academic Purposes, Second Language (L2), TOEIC, EFL Context

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The popularity of standardised English proficiency tests has increased exponentially all over the world in the twenty-first century due to the rise in global mobility (Hall, 2016). According to Benson (2021), the number of IELTS test-takers worldwide almost doubled from 1.7 million to 3 million between 2011 and 2017. While about 3 million people across the world took the TOEIC in 2003, the number skyrocketed to 7 million by 2018 (Chapman, 2003; Chaisuriya and Shin, 2019). Consequently, the rising popularity of these tests could have a significant influence on individual teaching as well as learning styles. In particular, South Korea's rapid economic growth during the last few decades has given rise to a strong emphasis on education. As the opportunities for social mobility increased, so has the pressure on South Korean students to perform well in examinations and move up the social ladder. English language skills are highly coveted across the country since English is a gatekeeper for higher education, employment, and upward social mobility (Buschfeld and Kautzsch, 2020). Millions of students in South Korea's "testocracy" strive to perform well in standardised English proficiency tests to secure admission in elite schools or land a position in a reputed organisation abroad (Booth, 2018, p. 1). Test like the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), IELTS (International English Language Testing System), TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), and the local Korean TEPS (Test of English Proficiency) have assumed great significance vis-a-vis the demand for EFL[1] (English as a Foreign Language) courses.

South Korea's test-oriented teaching and learning cultures could pose a significant threat to students' proficiency in using English effectively in real-life situations. Choi (2008) has recognised that English proficiency tests in South Korea result in several unwanted effects on learning, mainly because students tend to spend more time developing test-taking strategies instead of acquiring English skills for real-life communication. Nevertheless, the test still has had significant positive effects on the motivation levels of EFL learners in many parts of the world. For instance, it has been found that the test improves motivation levels for English learners in countries such as Japan and Thailand (Nguyen and Habók, 2021; Kanazawa, 2012). Hence, the increasing popularity of the TOEIC has given rise to a need for studies such as the current one, which focuses on the washback effects of the TOEIC.

One of the most reputed English proficiency tests is the TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), which was introduced in 1979 by the ETS (Educational Testing Service). Test-takers from across Europe, Asia, Latin America take the test as a prerequisite for seeking employment abroad. Besides, reputed multinational corporations and government agencies often rely on the TOEIC score as an indicator of English proficiency while recruiting employees (Lougheed, 2018). The TOEIC was introduced in South Korea in 1982 and has subsequently gone on to consolidate its status as one of the most sought-after proficiency tests in the country (Kim, 2021). The number of South Korean TOEIC test-takers in 1999 was 1379. However, by the middle of the second decade, this number had swelled to around 400,000 (Kim, 2021, p. 117). The increase in the number of TOEIC test-takers in South Korea and the rest of the world has been accompanied by a concurrent proliferation of private institutes and study materials that teach students test-taking strategies and random

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[1] EFL (English as a Foreign Language): EFL refers to English language learning in a country where English is not the first language.

guessing skills instead of real-life communication skills. Hence, learners tend to do well in the test if they master these strategies without an in-depth understanding of the language. However, there is a growing realisation among some test-takers in South Korea that the TOEIC score is not an adequate indicator of real-life English proficiency (Kim, 2021). An investigation of the washback effects of the TOEIC in South Korea can reveal the myriad views on the test's influence on English learning and instruction.

1.2 Purposes of the study

English language tests (ELTs) are of various types depending on their purpose. For instance, placement tests are conducted before the learner takes up a course in an institution. These tests are designed to determine the appropriate English course or level of instruction for the learner (Hyland and Shaw, 2016). If the objectives of the English learning course are clearly specified, the developer of the placement test designs the test in multiple levels based on the course objectives. The level of competence of the learner for each criterion helps determine a suitable level of instruction in the language learning course (Bachman, 1990). The placement test is closely related to the diagnostic test. The diagnostic test is designed to determine those areas of English learning in which the learner has significant weaknesses and therefore, needs more targeted instruction (Hyland and Shaw, 2016). Bachman (1990) points out that a placement test "can be regarded as a broad-band diagnostic test" because it separates students who are weaker in English from those with greater proficiency in the language before assigning them to the relevant level of instruction (p. 60). As in almost every kind of language testing, there are significant differences within the category of diagnostic tests as well. For example, these tests could be designed based on the content of a particular program, or they could test general proficiency in the language (Bachman, 1990).

McNamara (2002) has identified two other types of tests based on the purposes they serve - achievement tests and proficiency tests. Achievement tests assess "the quantum of language skills acquired by a learner" at the end of a course (Sharma, 2002, p. 180). These tests help to ascertain the effectiveness of language instruction and whether the learner has progressed according to the goals of language learning (McNamara, 2002, p. 6). Achievement tests are closely linked to progress tests, in which the assessment process is undertaken during the course of language instruction to determine the progress the learners are making (Alderson, Clapham and Wall, 1995). Both placement and achievement tests are based on the syllabus of the specific course for which they are designed. These tests are closely related to the language learning and teaching context. However, Phakiti (2014) also points out that these tests are usually not based on clear theoretical constructs. Consequently, the test scores do not have much generalizability. The TOEIC is not based on the syllabus of any English learning course and cannot be classified as an achievement or progress test.

In contrast to achievement tests, proficiency tests are not based on any specific course. Stranzy (2013) points out that proficiency tests "attempt to measure how well a learner can use a language regardless of the circumstances in which it was acquired" (p. 876). The test scores of high-stakes proficiency tests are often appropriated by universities and companies in English-speaking countries as gatekeepers to entry for students from non-English-speaking countries (Stranzy, 2013). The TOEIC is a proficiency test which is not based on any English course.

2. Findings and Implications

The results of the survey and the interview are presented with relating them to each other. The implications of these results also are discussed.

Regardless to the attitudes towards mock tests, 14 out of 22 (64%) teachers responded with "agree" or strongly agree when they were asked whether they tend to give less importance to those skills that are unlikely to be tested in the TOEIC (See Table 1). 6 respondents (27%) responded with "strongly disagree" or "disagree", while 9% gave a neutral response. These responses are consistent with the responses to question 9 of the teacher's questionnaire, which is closely related to it. In response to question 9, 13 teachers (59%) strongly agreed that they align their teaching objectives with the objectives of the TOEIC. However, 7 of the remaining responses (32%) were neutral (See Table 1). Only 2 teachers disagreed that the TOEIC objectives determine their teaching objectives. These responses indicate that there is a marked tendency among EFL teachers to "teach to the test."

Teachers and students seem to agree regarding the areas of the English language taught in the institution. Just like their instructors, most of the students agreed that they were taught only those aspects of English that are likely to be tested during the TOEIC (See Question 23 of the students' questionnaire). While 69 students (67%) "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with the statement, 31 (30%) either "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed." The remaining 3 students gave neutral responses. The high percentage of affirmative responses to this question lends further support to the conclusion drawn from the teachers' surveys that EFL teachers in South Korea have developed a practice of "teaching to the test." Furthermore, in one of the interviews, student C pointed out that her teacher "spends around half the class duration talking about the TOEIC and how to perform well in the test with minimal effort." Student D also remarked that her teacher often "avoids discussion on those areas of English that are not crucial for the TOEIC." Reluctance among teachers to spend time on aspects of English learning unrelated to the TOEIC is a significant negative washback effect of the TOEIC.

A question in the teacher's questionnaire was meant to investigate whether teachers "tend to focus more on communicative competence rather than grammar because of the TOEIC test." If the "strongly disagree" and "disagree" responses to this question are added, 16 out of the 22 (72%) teachers claimed that they did not adopt a more communicative approach towards EFL instruction as a result of the TOEIC. Out of the remaining six teachers, 5 (23 %) responded with "agree" or "strongly agree", which implies that they did focus more on communicative competence in class to ensure that the students are well-prepared for the TOEIC. Further insight into these responses can be gained if they are compared with the responses to question 12. Interestingly, when asked to describe their EFL teaching methods, 14 out of the 22 respondents (63%) answered that they follow the grammar-translation method. While 3 of them (14%) employ the audio-lingual method, the remaining 23% claimed that they have adopted the communicative language teaching (CLT) method (See Table 2). As Cheung, Said and Park (2014) have pointed out, the grammar-translation method is the traditional method of English language instruction in South Korea. The results of the study indicate a marked reluctance to depart from the traditional grammar-translation method despite the rising popularity of the TOEIC.

During the qualitative interview sessions with the teachers, most of the teachers had something interesting to reveal about this preference for grammar-translation method. Teacher B claimed that the grammar-translation method "is a time-tested method that should

work regardless of the nature of the exam". Teacher D commented that "communicative competence is impossible to achieve if the student does not have good command over grammar". Teacher E also emphasized that the grammar-translation method is "the most effective" teaching method. These responses reveal a general trend that teachers do not feel the grammar-translation method has become outmoded despite the TOEIC's emphasis on communicative competence at the workplace. Dailey (2010) has also identified this general unwillingness among South Korean teachers to teach communicatively. The reasons for this hesitation will be explored in the discussions sub-section (See the discussion under Q.1 in section 5.3).

When students were asked regarding their EFL instructors' teaching methods, 78 out of 103 (75.7%) students either disagreed or strongly disagreed that their teachers encourage them to participate more in class as a part of the preparation for the TOEIC (See Question 26 in the student's questionnaire). When students were asked about classroom participation during the interviews, four of the five interviewees answered that classroom participation comprised an insignificant part of the time spent in class. These answers were consistent with the survey responses.

Item Number in the Teacher's Questionnaire	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Item 7	The teacher spends majority time conducting mock tests in class	1	4	12	3	2
		4.5%	18%	54.5%	14%	9%
Item 8	The teacher focuses on teaching those language skills that are likely to be tested in the TOEIC	4	11	1	5	1
		18%	50%	4.5%	23%	4.5%
Item 9	The teacher seeks to align teaching objectives with TOEIC objectives	2	11	7	2	0
		9%	50%	32%	9%	0%
Item 10	The teacher tends to focus more on communicative competence than grammar because of the TOEIC	4	1	1	10	6
		18%	5%	5%	45%	27%
Item 11	The teacher tends to give less importance to those skills that are unlikely to be tested in the TOEIC	4	10	3	3	2
		18%	45%	14%	14%	9%

Table 1: Teacher's perspective of the washback effects of the TOEIC on teaching methods
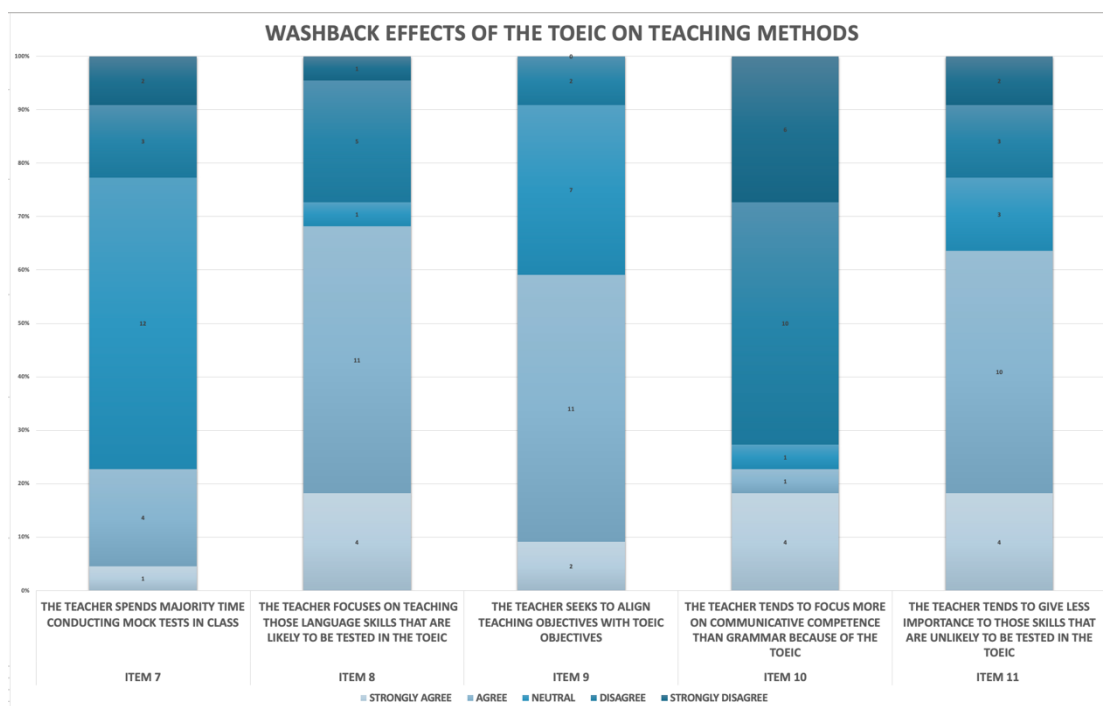
Figure 1: Washback Effects of the TOEIC on Teaching Methods

| Topic	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4
EFL Teaching method	Grammar-translation method (GTM)	Audio-lingual method (ALM)	Communicative language teaching (CLT)	Task-based learning (TBL)
No. of teachers	14	3	5	0
	63%	14%	23%	0%
Factors influencing teaching methods	Employer's expectations	Peer's expectations	Learner's expectations	Proficiency test requirements
No. of teachers	2	0	11	9
	9%	0%	50%	41%

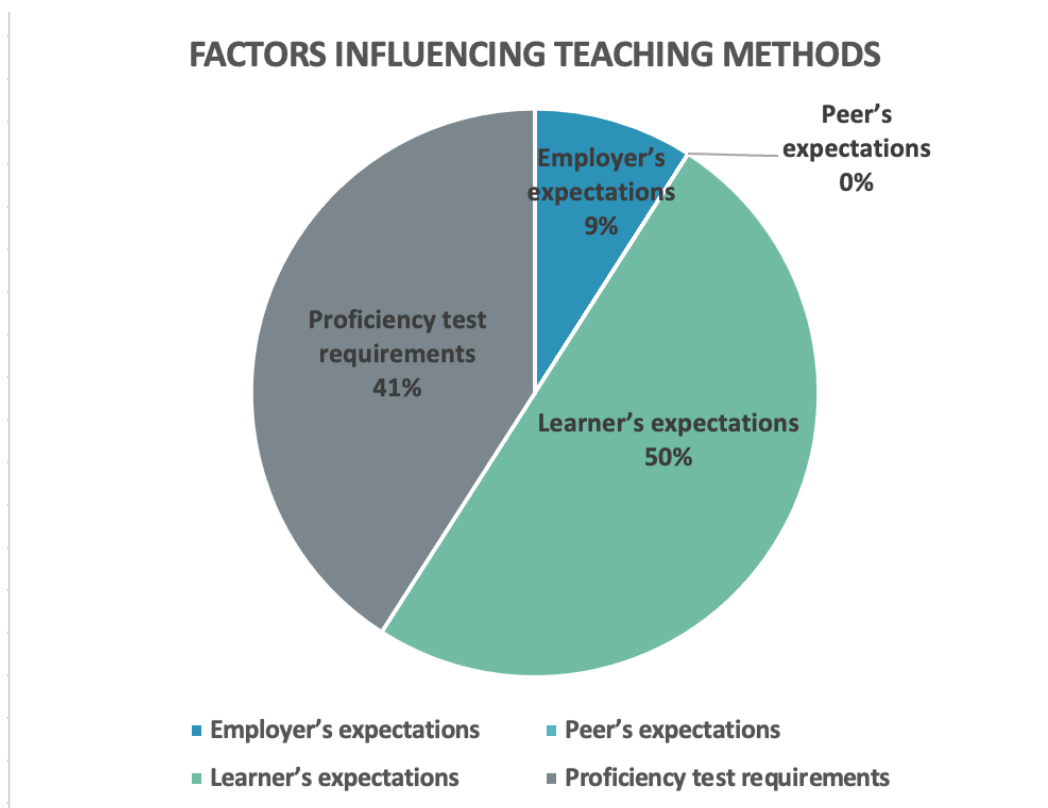Table 2: More results on teaching styles
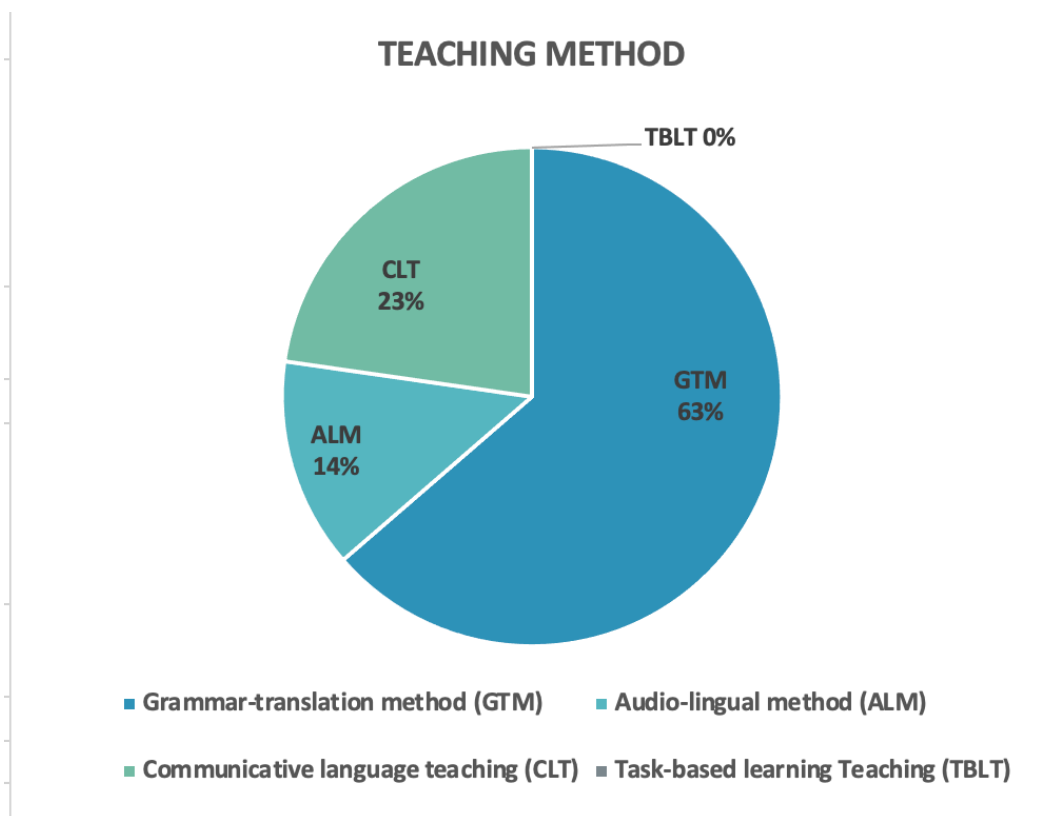
Figure 2: Teachng Method

Figure 3: Factors Influencing Teaching Methods

One of the most crucial questions to determine the effect of the TOEIC on students' learning attitudes was Question 11 in the students' questionnaire. The question asked the students to

respond to whether they would take English learning less seriously if the TOEIC did not exist. In reply, 48 students (46.6%) agreed, and 10 students (9.7%) strongly agreed that they would have indeed taken EFL learning less seriously if the TOEIC did not exist (See Table 3). A much smaller proportion of students would have learnt English if the TOEIC had not existed. While this finding might appear to indicate that the TOEIC serves as a motivator for English learning, it also has as a negative washback effect. Hidri (2018) has argued that language assessments "should not be viewed as an end in itself, but rather as a fundamental element of the learning process" (p. 191). In South Korean private language schools, proficiency tests like the TOEIC make students regard EFL learning as a mere gateway to educational and employment opportunities. Hence, they do not learn the language with the objective of improving their real-life communication skills.

Interestingly, when the teachers were asked the aforementioned question in the survey, most of them refused to agree or disagree. 17 out of 22 teachers (77%) gave a neutral response when they were asked whether South Korean students learn English only to secure high scores in tests such as the TOEIC (See question 21 in the teacher's questionnaire). During the interview, Teacher B remarked that "it is difficult to predict what students would have done if the TOEIC would not have existed." Although most agreed that the TOEIC is a motivating factor, they were hesitant to claim that there were no other motivating factors besides the test. Consequently, the large number of neutral responses is indicative of the teachers' aversion towards making predictions about students' behaviors.

Type	Item	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Student	Item 11	The student would have taken English learning less seriously if not for the TOEIC	10	48	12	30	3
			10%	47%	11%	29%	3%
Student	Item 21	TOEIC encourages the student to take learning more seriously	13	52	6	29	3
			13%	50%	6%	28%	3%
Teacher	Item 22	TOEIC has increased the motivation levels of stduents	1	2	17	1	1
			4.5%	9%	77%	4.5%	4.5%

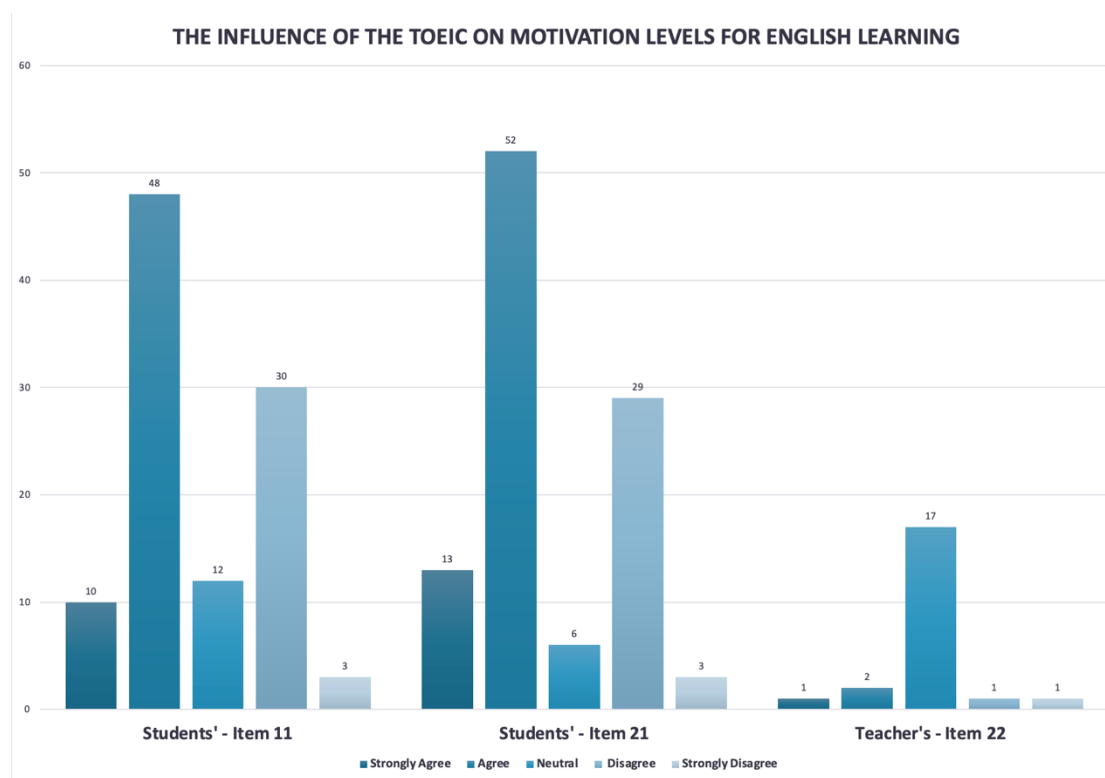Table 3: The influence of the TOEIC on motivation levels for English learning

Figure 4: The Influence of the TOEIC on Motivation Levels for English Learning

A separate section of the teacher's questionnaire was dedicated to exploring the washback effects of the TOEIC on EFL course content of private English schools in Korea. 4 teachers (18%) strongly agreed and 11 of them (50%) agreed that they "include only those teaching content that are relevant to the TOEIC and exclude the rest." In comparison to the total of 68% affirmative responses, only 18% (4 out of 22) gave a negative response, i.e., "disagree" or "strongly disagree." 3 of the responses (14%) were neutral (See Table 4).

During the interviews, the teachers' opinions were generally consistent with the survey results. Teacher A denied leaving out course material unrelated to the TOEIC but admitted that she usually spends maximum time on TOEIC-specific content in class. Teacher C also expressed a similar opinion when he remarked that giving tasks not related to the TOEIC is futile "because students do not take them seriously anyway." However, most of the teachers claim that they wouldn't have modelled their course content on the TOEIC in the absence of external pressures.

Item Number in the Teacher's Questionnaire	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Item 15	The teacher excludes teaching content unrelated to the TOEIC	4	11	3	2	2
		18%	50%	14%	9%	9%
Item 16	The TOEIC helps teachers discover problems and inadequacies in course materials	1	4	13	3	1
		4.5%	18%	59%	14%	4.%
Item 17	The teacher spends less time on course content that is not likely to be covered in the TOEIC	6	12	0	2	2
		27%	55%	0%	9%	9%
Item 18	The teacher makes students do classroom exercises that are closely modelled on the TOEIC	6	11	0	3	2
		27%	50%	0%	14%	9%

Table 4: Teachers' views on the washback effects of the TOEIC on course content
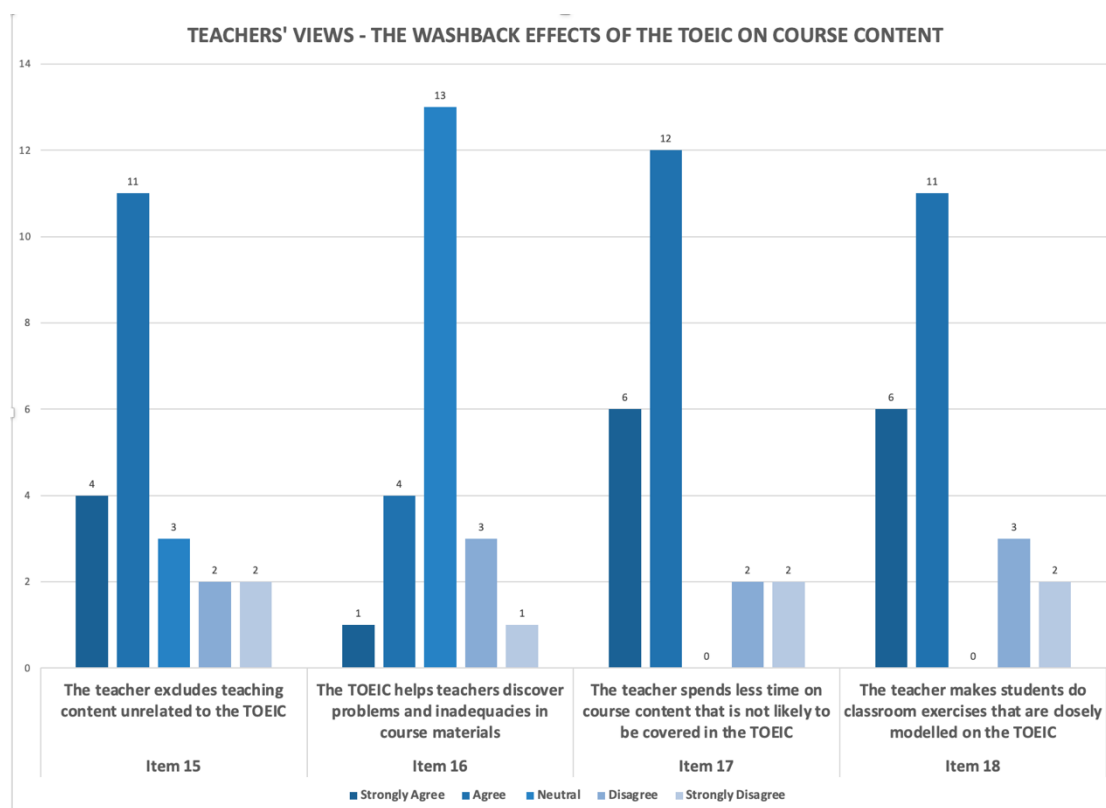

Figure 5: Teacher's Views – The Washback Effects of the TOEIC on Course Content

Although a majority of the students claimed that they would not have learnt English if the TOEIC hadn't existed, 86 of them (83.5%) recognized the need to work further on their English skills even after taking the test (See question 13 in the student's questionnaire). Only 17 out of the 103 students (16.5%) felt that they need not improve their English further. While this finding might appear to be surprising, the interviews reveal that retention of English skills in the workplace is a major reason why South Korean EFL learners continue to develop their English skills after taking a proficiency test. For instance, Student A declared that "I learnt a lot of English skills while preparing for the TOEIC, but I could lose all these skills if I don't work on them in the future." Hence, these results indicate that the TOEIC is a strong motivator to learn as a foreign language, but students tend to continue working on their English skills even after taking the test.

When the teachers were surveyed, they were asked whether students learn English with the only objective of performing well in the TOEIC. Most teachers do not believe that students have no other objective besides performing well in the TOEIC. Only 1 teacher (4.5%) chose the "strongly agree" option, while 3 chose "agree" (14%). In one of the qualitative interviews, Teacher B shed more light on this aspect of EFL learning in South Korea. He argued that "performing well in the TOEIC is not an end in itself for the students." Rather, it has gained popularity among South Korean students because it "serves as a gatekeeper for job opportunities abroad." These results show that students continue to work on their English skills after taking the TOEIC because the test is not the only objective behind learning English.

Item	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Item 7	The student spends more time on the sections of the course content that are relevant to the TOEIC	21	54	15	10	3
		20%	52%	15%	10%	3%
Item 8	The student tends to focus on multiple-choice questions in listening exercises	22	50	3	20	8
		21%	49%	3%	19%	8%
Item 9	The student tends to focus on multiple-choice questions in reading exercises	23	46	3	22	9
		22%	45%	3%	21%	9%
Item 11	The student would have taken EFL learning less seriously in the absence of the TOEIC	48	10	12	30	3
		46%	10%	12%	29%	3%
Item 12	The TOEIC has helped the student set concrete goals	13	37	1	38	13
		13%	36%	1%	37%	13%

Table 5: Students' views on the effect of TOEIC on English learning

Figure 6: Students' View – The WAshback Effects of the TOEIC on English Learning

Students were also asked whether they focus more on multiple-choice questions to perform well in the TOEIC reading and listening test. 67% of the students agreed or strongly agreed that they tend to focus on multiple-choice questions in their reading exercises. 30% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed, while the rest gave neutral responses (See Table 5). In the interview, student B opined that practicing multiple-choice questions is "a great way to learn for the TOEIC because "one can find the correct answer by a process of elimination even if there is some uncertainty" This opinion indicates that the TOEIC also encourages students to take the easiest possible route to success at the cost of communicative competence. According to Green (2013), the over-emphasis on multiple-choice questions is an example of negative washback because it atomises knowledge and dilutes the quality of EFL instruction.

Along similar lines, most teachers agreed (50%) or strongly agreed (27%) that the classroom exercises they give the students "are closely modelled on the kind of questions that are asked in the TOEIC." Only 23% of the teachers who participated in the survey gave a negative response to the question. These responses suggest that EFL teachers in South Korea tend to emphasize practicing those kinds of questions that are most likely to be tested in the TOEIC. They also imply that teachers emphasize multiple-choice questions in reading and listening exercises because of the format of the TOEIC reading and listening test. In the qualitative interview, the teachers were asked questions regarding their preference for multiple-choice questions. Teacher B explained that "the [institution's] management insists on making students practice only those kinds of questions that are a part of the TOEIC. This view indicates that teachers tend to encourage practicing TOEIC-specific questions, albeit under pressure from the students and the management.

When asked whether the TOEIC has had an overall positive impact on EFL learning in South Korea, the students and the teachers had contrasting opinions. 73 out of the 103 students

(71%) agreed that the overall impact of the TOEIC on English learning is positive. On the other hand, only 8 out of 22 (36%) teachers replied "yes" when they were asked the same question. Also, when asked which standardized proficiency test is the best option for EFL learners, only 2 teachers (9%) selected TOEIC. 11 of the remaining 22 (50%) chose IELTS, 7 (32%) chose TOEFL iBT, and the remaining 2 (9%) chose "others." The responses to this question suggest that IELTS and TOEFL iBT are more popular than TOEIC in South Korea, ostensibly because of the negative washback effects.

During the qualitative interviews, all the teachers were highly critical of the TOEIC's multiple-choice format for the reading and listening tests. Teacher A claimed that it would encourage students to take the "easier route to a high score." Teacher E also mentioned that "one-word answers would have been a better indicator of the student's listening and reading skills." Teachers tend to be more perturbed than students about the long-term negative washback effects of the TOEIC on English language learning.

3. Conclusion

This research study was one of the rare studies investigating the washback effects of the TOEIC on South Korea's private education system. It was also reasonably comprehensive as it mixed qualitative and quantitative methods. However, the study had notable limitations too. This concluding chapter will highlight these limitations before suggesting avenues for future research.

3.1 Limitations of the study

As the study on TOEIC washback focused only on private language schools, the results cannot be extrapolated to EFL teaching and learning in South Korea in general. Furthermore, the generalisability of the study was reduced by the fact that a non-random convenience sampling method was used (Gitsaki and Coombe, 2016). Since the participants were drawn from the researcher's personal and professional networks, no claims can be made about the sample's representativeness of a larger population of EFL teachers or students in South Korean private language schools. The results of the study are applicable only for the teachers and students of the two chosen institutes. A larger sample and the use of random sampling in the time and logistical constraints could have helped draw inferences about the effect of TOEIC on English learning in South Korean private language schools.

In addition to the generalisability issues, the quantitative component of the study did not involve a control group. A control group is a group of participants that are not subjected to a specific condition present in the experimental group. Control groups help eliminate the possibility of exogenous or confounding variables that could yield the same results (Lune, Pumar and Koppel, 2010). The absence of a control group in a survey compromises its internal validity, thereby making it difficult to draw inferences about cause-and-effect relationships (Bryman, 2015). Therefore, this study remains inconclusive as to whether the TOEIC alone caused the aforementioned washback effects. Although a few targeted questions on the TOEIC were asked in the survey questionnaire, the possibility of confounding factors contributing to the survey results cannot be completely ruled out. For instance, another proficiency test or some other aspect of the Korean education system could also be responsible for the washback effects determined in this study. In a more detailed analysis, a control group could have been formed comprising EFL students not preparing for the TOEIC and EFL teachers who do not train students for the test. Such a study could have

conclusively determined the washback effects of the TOEIC in the context of South Korean private language schools.

Additionally, there were a few limitations in the survey design. The survey could have been improved further by considering question order effects in greater detail. Although all the Likert-style items were grouped together while revising the questionnaire, the response to the previous item could influence the following response (Lavrakas, 2008). Although it is impossible to accurately predict the question order effects in a given survey, some steps could have been taken to minimise them. For example, the survey items could be randomised and presented in different orders to different participants (Lavrakas, 2008). Moreover, despite the repeated revisions and the pilot study, certain ambiguities remained in the phrasing of the survey items. For example, Question 10 of the student's questionnaire does not elaborate on the exact meaning of the phrase "majority time." Similarly, the phrase "majority time" question 7 in the teacher's questionnaire could have been worded differently to avoid many neutral responses.

3.2 Recommendations

Despite the current study's issues related to generalisability, it can nevertheless be used as a pilot study for more extensive research projects on the washback effects of the TOEIC in South Korean private language schools. The classroom observation could eliminate the personal biases of the participant. On the other hand, the semi-structured interview could shed light on those aspects of TOEIC washback that are amenable to observation. Furthermore, the quantitative component of future research studies on washback effects should have a separate control group for the quantitative part of the study, i.e., the survey. When the findings from the control group are compared with the experimental group results, the direct washback effects of the TOEIC can be distinguished from the spurious ones that are influenced by confounding variables. Lastly, extensive research studies on the topic conducted in the future should involve random sampling methods for more generalisability.

Future research studies on washback effects in South Korea could take into account the experiences of the parents in addition to those of the teachers and the students. Such diversity of perspectives could provide a more in-depth understanding of the washback effects of the TOEIC in the South Korean context.

I am grateful to everyone mentioned above again that I was able to grow so much over the past two years.

Appendix 1: Student's questionnaire

Students' Questionnaire

Dear Student,
Thank you for taking the time to answer this survey. This survey questionnaire is meant to find out your views on the effect of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) English language proficiency test on English learning in South Korea. The questionnaire includes questions about your learning as well as the teaching methods adopted by your teachers in English class. The answers provided will remain fully anonymous in the report.

Background questions
This section of the survey will ask you a few questions about your background.

1. What is your gender?
Male   Female

2. What is your age?
15-18   18-21   21-24   24-27   27-30

3. Which of the following proficiency tests do you intend to take? (Select all that apply)
IELTS   TOEIC   TOEFL IBT   Others (…………………………………)   [please specify]

4. For how long have you been preparing for the TOEIC proficiency test?
Less than 3 months
3 months to 6 months
6 months to 9 months
9 months to 1 year
Above 1 year

5. What is your highest completed degree?
Middle School
High School
Bachelor's Degree
Master's Degree
Doctoral Degree

Impact of the TOEIC on your attitudes towards EFL learning
This section is meant to assess the effect of the TOEIC on your personal English language learning strategies and motivation levels for learning. For Question No. 6, please select the two most relevant options. For Questions 7 to 12, please select which of the five options best reflects your approach towards English as a foreign language (EFL) learning. The response to the last question is either a "yes" or a "no."

6. Which of the following reasons describes your motive(s) for attending English classes? [Select the two most important motives]
To meet parental expectations
To become competent in using English in daily activities
To perform well in English proficiency tests
To secure better job opportunities in the future
To pursue higher studies
Others (………….) [Please specify]

7. I spend more time on those sections of the EFL course content that I feel is relevant to the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral Agree   Strongly Agree

8. I tend to focus more on multiple-choice questions in listening exercises because the listening component of the TOEIC exclusively comprises multiple choice questions.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

9. I tend to focus more on multiple-choice questions in reading exercises because the reading component of the TOEIC exclusively comprises multiple choice questions.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

10. I spend majority time going through the material taught in class to score better in the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

11. I would have taken EFL learning less seriously if I didn't attempt the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

12. The TOEIC test has helped me set concrete goals while learning English.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

13. Do you feel it is essential to work further on your English proficiency after taking the TOEIC?
Yes   No

Students' views on the TOEIC test

This section is meant to assess your views regarding the contribution of the TOEIC proficiency test to EFL learning in general. For all the questions in this section, choose the option that best reflects your opinion on the TOEIC.

14. The TOEIC score is a good indicator of the test-taker's proficiency in English speaking and listening?
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

15. Students preparing for the TOEIC learn English better than those who do not take the test.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

16. The TOEIC test focuses too much on communication skills in English required at the workplace.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

17. The TOEIC test is inadequate for those who wish to develop their communication skills in English for higher education.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

18. The TOEIC listening and reading tests have to be modified because they encourage me to focus on multiple-choice questions and ignore longer answers.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

19. The TOEIC test encourages me to focus equally on all the four facets of English learning, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

20. The TOEIC test encourages me to take EFL learning more seriously.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

21. Preparation for the TOEIC speaking component helps reduce anxiety in real-life communication in English.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

22**.** Do you think the TOEIC has had an overall positive influence on EFL learning?
Yes   No

<u>Your perceptions of the influence of TOEIC on EFL teaching</u>

The questions in this section will aim to explore students' opinions on the influence of TOEIC on classroom EFL teaching methods. For all the questions in this section, choose the option that best reflects your opinion on the instruction of English by your teachers.

23. My EFL teachers teach only those aspects of the English language that are likely to be tested in the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

24. The EFL course content in my institution is tailor-made for good performance in the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

25. The EFL teachers in my institution encourage students to answer multiple-choice questions in reading or listening exercises to perform well in the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

26. My EFL teachers encourage students to participate more in class to ensure that students are well-prepared for the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

Thank you for your response to the questionnaire.

I would like to conduct in-depth interviews to explore the TOEIC in greater detail. If you are available for a short 10-minute interview, I would be thankful to you for giving me your precious time.
Please add your email here so that I can contact you for more details.

Appendix 2: Teacher's questionnaire

Teacher's Questionnaire

Dear Teacher,

Thank you for setting aside time to answer this survey. I would like to ask you a few questions regarding your experiences while instructing students who wish to appear for the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). The responses to this survey questionnaire will be used to explore the washback effects of the TOEIC on EFL learning and teaching. The responses to this survey questionnaire will be used to explore the washback effects of English language proficiency tests on the instruction of English to EFL learners. The responses will remain anonymous in the final report.

Background Questions

1. What is your gender?
Male   Female

2. To which of the following age groups do you belong?
20-30   30-40   40-50   Above 50

3**.** For which standardized test do you train EFL students? [Select all that apply]
TOEIC   TOEFL IBT   IELTS   Others (…………) Please name the test

4. For how long have you been teaching English?

Less than 2 years   2 to 6 years   6 to 10 years   More than 10 years
5. For how many years have you been training students for the TOEIC?
Less than 2 years   2 to 6 years   6 to 10 years   More than 10 years

6. How many periods of 1-hour EFL classes do you take up per week?
Less than 6   6-12 periods   12-18 periods   18-24 periods   Above 24 periods

Teaching Methods

This section of the questionnaire focuses on the influence of the TOEIC on how you teach EFL students. For the questions in this section, please choose which of the five options best describes your opinion on the mentioned aspect of the TOEIC and EFL teaching. While responding to question 13, you can select multiple options.

7. I spend majority time conducting mock tests in class to ensure that my students perform well in the TOEIC.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree   Agree

8. I particularly focus on developing those language skills of my students that are most likely to be tested in the TOEIC.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree   Agree

9. I seek to align my teaching objectives in EFL classes with the objectives of the TOEIC proficiency tests.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree   Agree

10. My EFL teaching methods tend to focus more on communicative competence (CC) rather than grammar because of the TOEIC tests.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

11. I tend to give less importance to those skills that are unlikely to be tested in the TOEIC.

Strongly disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

12. Generally, which category would you place your EFL teaching method?
Grammar-translation method (GTM)
Audio-lingual method (ALM)
Communicative-language teaching (CLT)
Task-based learning (TBL)

13. Which of the following skills has the TOEIC encouraged you to emphasize while teaching EFL students?
[Select all that apply]
Reading   Writing   Speaking   Listening

14. Which of the following factors influences your teaching method the most?

Employer's expectations
Peer's expectations
Learner's expectations
Proficiency test requirements

Teaching Content

This section will assess the extent to which the TOEIC test compels teachers to modify what they teach in class. Please choose the most appropriate option out of the five given options for each question in this section.

15. In class, I include only those teaching content that are relevant to the TOEIC and exclude the rest.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

16. Proficiency tests like the TOEIC help me discover problems and inadequacies in my course materials.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

17. I spend less time on course content that is not likely to be covered in the TOEIC tests.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

18. I make the students do classroom exercises that are closely modelled on the kind of questions that are asked in the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

General perspectives on the influence of language proficiency tests

This section will focus on teacher's perspectives on the effects of the TOEIC on the learning process and EFL instruction in South Korea in general. Please select the most appropriate option for each of the questions given below. The last question in this section allows multiple responses (if applicable).

19. The TOEIC score is a fair indicator of the students' real-life communicative proficiency in the language.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

20. Students who obtain low scores in the TOEIC tend to develop a negative attitude towards EFL learning.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

21. I think EFL students in South Korea learn English only to perform well in proficiency tests such as the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

22. English language proficiency tests like the TOEIC have increased the motivation levels of EFL learners in class.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

23. EFL learners are now increasingly hesitant to learn those skills that are not likely to be tested in the TOEIC.
Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

24. Do you think taking the TOEIC is an integral part of the EFL Learning process?
Yes   No

25. Do you think the current formats of TOEIC has had an overall positive impact EFL learning in South Korea?
Yes   No

26. In your opinion which is the best option for standard EFL testing for EFL students in South Korea?
IELTS   TOEIC   TOEFL IBT   Others (please mention)

27. What do you think is the main advantage of standardized EFL Tests? [Select All that Apply]

Improving one's skills
Gaining employment abroad
Social prestige
Admission in overseas institutes of higher education

Thank you for your response to the questionnaire.

I would like to recruit in-depth interviewees regarding the washback effects of the TOEIC. If you are available for a short 10-minute interview, I would be very thankful to you for giving me your precious time to find out further information.
Please add your email ID here so that I can contact you for more details.

Appendix 3: Student's semi-structured interview

How long have you been preparing for the TOEIC at this institute?
How has your learning style changed because of the TOEIC?
What are the specific teaching methods that you think your teacher has adopted only because of the TOEIC?
What are the ways in which you think the TOEIC has positively influenced your English learning experience?
What are the ways in which you think the TOEIC has negatively influenced your English learning experience?
What is your opinion on the extensive practice of mock tests and multiple-choice questions as preparation for the TOEIC?
What are some ways to eliminate the negative effects of the TOEIC on English learning and teaching in South Korea?
Is there anything you would like to add about how the TOEIC has influenced your English learning experience?

Appendix 4: Teacher's semi-structured interview

For how long have you been teaching TOEIC aspirants at this institute?
Could you shed some light on some aspect of your EFL teaching style that has been directly influenced by the TOEIC?
What are some specific influences of the TOEIC on the learning strategies of the students you teach?
How has the TOEIC influenced the course material you prepare for your students?
What are some positive ways in which the EFL has positively influenced EFL teaching or learning in South Korea?
What are some positive ways in which the EFL has positively influenced EFL teaching or learning in South Korea?
What is your opinion on the overall influence of the TOEIC on English teaching and learning in South Korea's private institutions?
How do you think the negative effects of the TOEIC can be mitigated?
Would you like to add anything else about the effect of the TOEIC on English learning or teaching?

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Exploring the Use of Oral Communication Strategies by Speakers of French as a Foreign Language

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Abstract

The study investigates the use of communication strategies (CSs) as a factor mediating foreign language speaking proficiency. Ten learners of French at a Pre-Intermediate - Intermediate level speaking Swedish as L1 were asked to watch six short cartoons and present their contents. All participants have also completed a Placement test prior to performing the task. The resulting set of narratives has been analyzed with a specific aim of identifying the word searching situations and the CSs used to overcome problems caused by difficulties in retrieving the lexical items needed. Additionally, each set of narratives has been evaluated in terms of its informational density. Taken on a case by case basis, the data shows a variety of individual styles adopted by learners to tackle lexical problems. In fact, the use of CSs that are especially instrumental seems to be a far better predictor of communicative efficiency than vocabulary tests scores. It follows that acquiring a foreign language entails becoming a proficient user of CSs and an important pedagogical implication is that explicit training in using such strategies can be highly beneficial.

Keywords: Communication Strategies, SLA, Interlanguage

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1. Introduction

It has been noted that the mismatch between the linguistic resources that foreign language (FL) learners dispose of and the communication goals they are trying to achieve when speaking a FL gives rise to a number of systematic phenomena that function as coping mechanisms helping to prevent breakdowns in communication (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). These are known as communication strategies (CSs) and have been studied quite extensively see (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997 for a comprehensive review). However, despite the fact that CSs have been attracting the attention of researchers for more than four decades, there still is no definition or taxonomy that would be accepted by all the researchers in the field (see the discussion in Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

Even though there is a wide array of potential definitions offered in the literature, they are seem to build upon two essential properties of CSs – problem orientedness and consciousness.

With regards to problem orientedness, it has been suggested that FL production entails handling a specific set of problems including:
- own-performance problems: lack or improper use of linguistic resources (Tarone & Yule, 1987),
- other-performance problems: elements of the interlocutor's speech perceived as problematic (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995),
- processing time pressure: the learner's need for more time to plan and process speech than in L1 production (Tarone & Yule, 1987).

While problem orientedness as an essential property of CSs has never been called into question, with regards to CSs being conscious, it has been suggested that consciousness in this case is a continuum rather than an "all or nothing" phenomenon (Færch & Kasper,1983). Indeed, efficient and frequently used CSs can be automated (Gass & Selinker, 1994).

For the purposes of this paper, the notion of CSs has been operationalized as "any potentially intentional attempt to cope with any language related problem of which the speaker is aware during communication" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:179).

While this definition is wider than some others offered in the literature (see Dörnyei & Scott, 1997 for a review) and thus encompasses a wide array of phenomena, the scope of this paper includes CSs deployed in a specific context: word searches during oral production of a narrative. A word search could be best described as instances of perceivable effort to convey the message connected with the fact that the word the speaker initially planned to produce is, for some reason, unavailable.

Such situations are a common phenomenon in foreign language production and the CSs deployed by the speakers to avoid potential breakdowns in communication are varied. The taxonomy adopted for the purposes of the current analyses is the one originally proposed by Poulisse (1993) and further refined in Dörnyei & Kormos (1998). It should be noted that, even though most taxonomies of CSs including the one used here were developed in 90s, they remain relevant and are still used by researchers in the field (see, for instance, Rosas 2018; Montero, 2019).

Poulisse related the taxonomy suggested to Levelt's (1989) model of speech production and proposes that, when the lexical item needed cannot be retrieved, the speaker can either (a) abandon or change the original speech plan or (b) keep the original macro plan and modify the preverbal message only. Solution (a) results in Content reduction strategies – Message abandonment, Message reduction or Message replacement – while solution (b) results in Substitution strategies (where a problematic lexical item is replaced with another item) or Reconceptualization strategies (communicating the message according to an alternative plan e.g. exemplifying, illustrating, providing descriptions).

Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) relate these strategies to own-performance problems (Tarone and Yule 1987) and also note that the list of CSs would be incomplete without strategies that help speakers deal with other FL oral production problems. Of particular interest for the present study are CSs that are related to processing time pressure (Tarone & Yule 1987). Since FL speech production is not as automated as L1 speech, it stands to reason that some processes would require more time to complete creating a need for "stalling mechanisms" that would "keep communication channel open and provide more time and attentional resources" (Dörnyei & Kormos 1998: 368) to retrieve a problematic item or deploy an alternative CS. These include various types of fillers (e.g. hesitation markers) and repetitions (see Dörnyei & Kormos 1998 for a detailed overview).

2. Methodology

Ten native speakers of Swedish learning French as a foreign language were asked to watch six short cartoons and present their contents in a form of a narrative. All participants have completed a placement test and were estimated to be between B1 and B2 levels. They watched each cartoon twice and were instructed to try to be as precise and informative as they could when presenting it.

The narratives produced were video recorded and transcribed using ELAN 6 software. A total of 128 sequences qualifying as a word search were identified and further analyzed. Instances of speakers' linguistic (and gestural) behavior that seemed instrumental for handling lexical difficulties were annotated using the taxonomy of Dörnyei & Kormos (1998). The choice in favor of this taxonomy was made due to the level of specificity it offers. Even though a revised and updated version of this taxonomy was offered by Nakatani (2016), the difference resides in the fact that Nakatani adds a phochological dimension to it (e.g. positive attitude as a CS) that cannot be fully investigated based on speech samples alone. For that reason, the original version of it was chosen for the purposes of analysis.

It should be noted that the data was collected for the purposes of the author's PhD project which had much broader research questions. Another set of data collected as a part of the PhD project included the oral production of 32 native speakers of French and 18 native speakers of Swedish who watched the same set of stimuli and followed the same set of instructions, the only exception being that they produced narratives in their native language. This allowed for some interesting observations regarding the differences between L1 and FL oral production.

3. Analysis

3.1 General remarks

First of all, it should be noted that word searches are a phenomenon that is not limited to FL speakers' oral production. However, there are factors that make word searches in FL production a rather peculiar phenomenon and set them aside from what we can observe in L1 oral production. Firstly, they are much more frequent in learners' language. Secondly, because learners are aware of the discrepancy between their communicative competence and the situation's demands, every word search is a potentially face threatening situation. See, for instance, excerpts (1) and (2). In (1), produced by a native speaker, one can see that no attempt was made to preserve the initial message (a shark fin appears over the water). After two pauses followed by fillers and a comment the speaker changes the message for a more general one (there is a shark in the water) and doesn't seem to be bothered by her inability to retrieve the exact word. In contrast, the speaker in (2) seems quite intent on preserving the message. She produces an English word first hoping that it also exists in French. However, she suspects that it doesn't (note the hesitant "maybe") so she substitutes it with a description.

(1)   *ils voient un (.) erm (.) erm ben j'ai   oublié   le mot (.)*
Eng: they see   a   erm   (.) erm well I've forgotten the word
       erm bon on peut en conclure que c'est un requin
Eng: erm well we can conclude   that   it's a shark

(2)   *on voit la la fine peut-etre je sais pas   le   mot mais c'est la partie*
Eng: we see the the fin   maybe   I don't know the word but it's a   part
       de poisson qui est visible (.) erm (.) erm (.) oui sur (.) la surface (.) de la mer
Eng: of   fish   that is visible (.) erm (.) erm (.) yes (.) on (.) the surface (.) of the sea

This tendency to be very specific and include as many details as possible is something that actually sets the FL narratives aside from those produced by native speakers. One example illustrative of this trend is (3) where a speaker is trying to produce a more specific term (a handbag) instead of a generic one (a bag). It is remarkable that in a group of 32 native speakers, 30 used the generic term *sac* (a bag) and were not trying to be more specific. The speaker in (3), however, seems extremely dissatisfied with that level of genericity and actually does not seem to treat the sequence as a communicative success.

(3)   *le voleur (.) erm (.) il (.) il (.)   vole   la (.) c'est pas un sac mais c'est un (.)*
Eng: the thief (.) erm (.) he (.) he (.) steals the (.) it's not a bag but it's a (.)
gestures
       huh! je sais pas   j'ai   oublie   le mot mais la femme a une chose que
Eng: huh! I don't know I've forgotten the word but the woman has a   thing   that
       le voleur il   vole cette chose
Eng: the thief he   steals that thing

3.2 Overview of the Communication Strategies used by the participants

Participants that were most successful in the task tended to use clusters of strategies to tackle problems caused by vocabulary deficiencies. For instance, in (3) the speaker is trying to find a French equivalent to a Swedish expression *tar ner* (take down) and starts with a series of self repetitions and fillers which then is followed by a description of what it means exactly to

take a cat down from the tree. She then comments letting the interlocutor know that she has a particular concept in mind but does not find the right words in French. After that, she produces the word in English, makes another comment and finally, at the end, retrieves the word.

(4)   *pour erm pour re- erm ah pour hah pour prendre le chat dans ses mains*
Eng: to   erm   to re- erm ah to   hah   to take   the cat in   his   hands
     et le m le mettre dans la rue alors pour (.) comment ce mot en français
Eng: and it p put it   on the street   so   to (.)   how this word in French
      save it *je ne sais pas le mot en français erm alors oui (.)*
Eng: *save it* I don't know the word in French erm so yes (.)
       c'est ça le sauver
Eng: that's it save it

The fact that FL speakers generally produce more output that L1 speakers to achieve a particular communicative goal is well attested in the literature as the "waffling phenomenon" (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Edmondson & House, 1991). There can be many explanations to why this happens. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1986) suggested that it could be related to the learners' "lack of confidence and eagerness to ensure that the message gets across" since even advanced learners "still feel uncertain of the effectiveness of their communicative interaction" (p. 177). This explanation seems to be specifically relevant to the learners' 'behaviour in word searching situations. Indeed, a word search is a clear indication of the speaker's being aware of a certain communicative problem and, as we have seen in (3), even when the solution found is indeed satisfactory, a learner does not always perceive it as such. An alternative (or complementary) expalation would be L1 interference manifesting itself as learners striving to frame the information in the exact same was way as in their L1 (see 3.4 for more details and further examples).

Overall, the speakers tendency to use bundles of strategies to overcome a specific problem in communication also accounts for the fact that the number of word searches and the number of CSs deployed generally do not add up meaning that for one word search more than one CS would be deployed. Furthermore, both are subject to great variation, as can be seen from Figure 1.
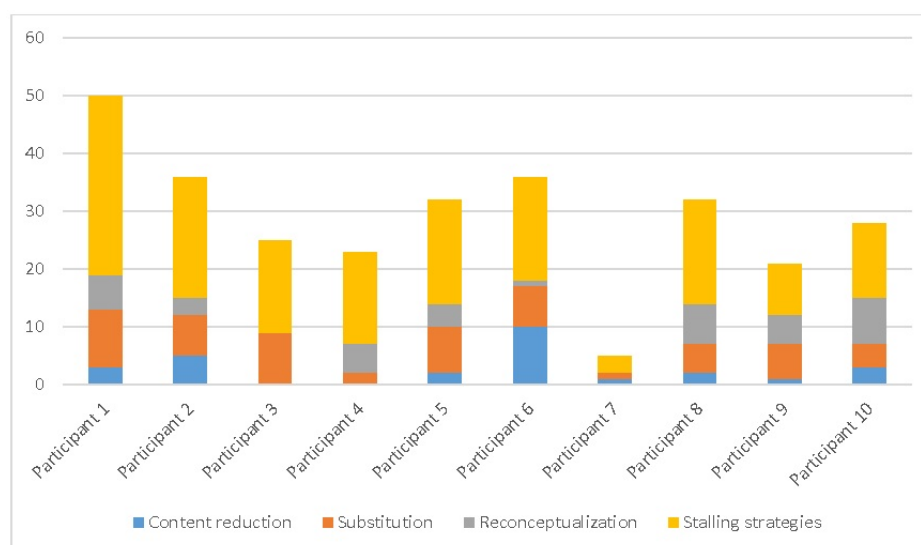

Figure 1. Number of word searches and specific SCs deployed by each participant

In what follows, an overview of different types and subtypes of CSs use will be presented and accompanied by the illustrations from the data.

3.3. Stalling strategies

Stalling strategies are mechanisms used to "keep communication channel open and provide more time and attentional resources" for a communicative problem to be solved (Dörnyei & Kormos 1998: 368). As can be seen from Figure 1, these strategies seem to be widely practiced by learners. This is because even at advanced levels processing time is still an issue and speakers often need to gain time to come up with a solution to the communicative problem at hand while keeping the communication channel open. The first sign of disfluency in communication is long pauses and, therefore, all strategies of this type are circling around various ways of filling these.

Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) distinguish between pauses and repetitions as means of addressing processing time demands. While unfilled pauses have not been attested in data, there were various types of filled pauses and self-repetitions.

There were various types of filled pauses (depending on the type of fillers employed) attested in the data.

Nonlexicalized pauses feature instances of what Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) call "umming and erring". In other words, these refer to sounds that are not words but rather used by the speakers to mark hesitation. For instance, in (4) above the speaker opens with a series of non-lexicalized fillers coupled with self-repetitions before proceeding with other CSs.

Lexicalized pauses feature "filling words or gambits to fill pauses, to stall and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty" (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998:369), such as *actually, your know, okay,* etc.
A rather specific type of such fillers attested in the data are metalinguistic comments and think-aloud protocols.

Metalinguistic comments refer to instances of speakers explaining their communicative difficulties to the interlocutor. For instance, in (4) the speaker makes two such comments; first she utters *comment ce mot en français* (how *is* this word in French) and then *je ne sais pas le mot en français* (I don't know the word in French). Similarly, *j'ai oublié le mot* (I've forgotten the word) in (1) is also an instance of a metalinguistic comment. These seem to not only fill the pause but also show the interlocutor that they have a specific concept in mind but struggle to find the right word.

In contrast, in (5), straight after a self-repetition and a nonlexicalized filler *eh*, the speaker seems to verbalize her thinking process as she searches through a specific semantic domain (vehicles) in order to find the right word.

(5)   *dans un dans un eh pas un train pas un bus*
English: in   a   in   a eh not a train not a   bus
        mais cet objet   qu'on utilise pour se rendre dans un autre planète
English: but this object that one uses to   get   to   another planet

In addition to non-verbalized and verbalized pauses described in Dörnyei & Kormos (1998), there also were instances of gesture/mime filled pauses where a specific gesture was used to fill the gap where a problematic item would otherwise be.

As can be seen from Figure 2, some of the Stalling strategies are fairly common across participants (e.g. Umming and erring) while others seem to be subject to great individual variation (e.g. Metalinguistic comments).
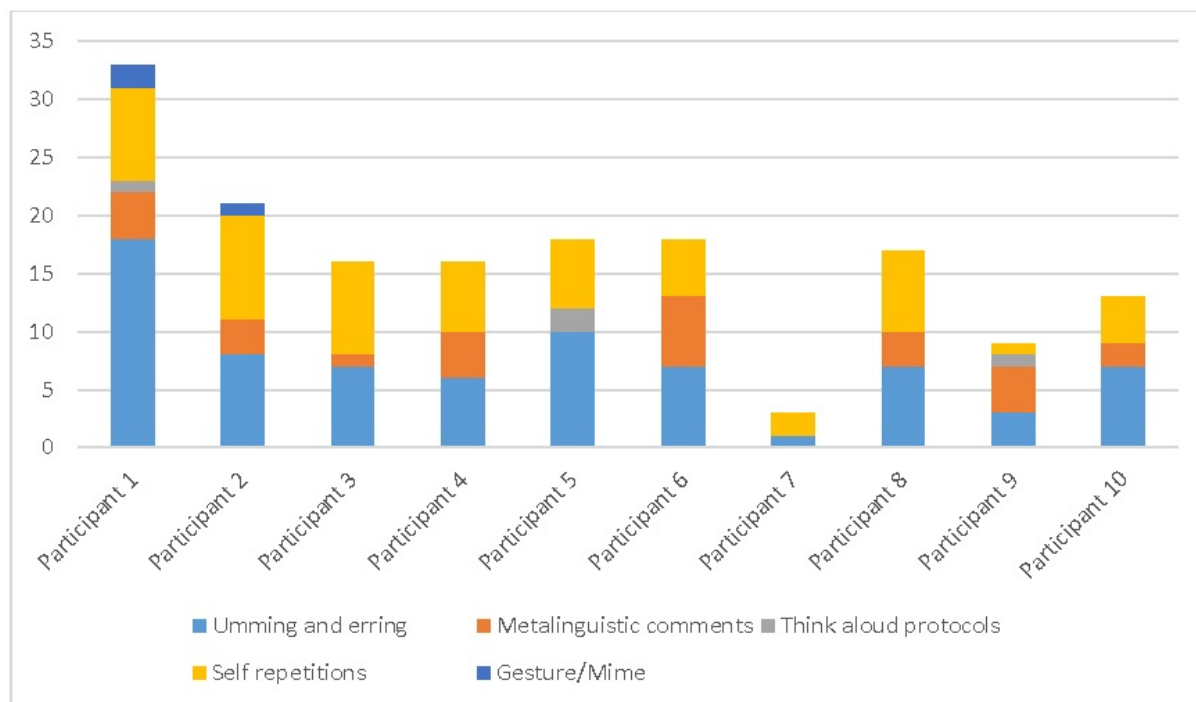

Figure 2. Stalling strategies used by the participants

3.4 Content reduction strategies

According to Poulisse (1993), when the intended lexical item cannot be retrieved, one possible solution is to simply stop the speech production and give up the message thus resorting to Message abandonment.

Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) note furthermore that abandoning the message entirely is not the only way of reducing the content communicating and add Message reduction (reducing the message by avoiding certain problematic topics and thus leaving out some of the intended elements) and Message replacement (feeling incapable of executing the original speech plan and substituting the original message with an alternative one) to the list. They group all the three into a group of Content reduction strategies. In practice, of course, in order to analyze something as an instance of Message replacement, there needs to be the evidence of Message abandonment first. For instance, in (6) the speaker's original plan was to say that there was no gravity, however, the term "gravity" proved to be problematic. She, therefore, changed the original message (there was no gravity) for a more general one (they are in space).

(6)   *parce qu-il y a pas de erm parce qu'ils   sont erm   en l'espace*
English: because there is no   erm because they are   erm   in space

3.5 Substitution strategies

Based on Poulisse (1993), if the message is not abandoned, and the speaker does not seek the help of the addressee, they can use a Compensatory strategy, which implies that "he will attempt to find an alternative way of encoding his original communicative goal" (p. 179). Poulisse (1993) lists two types of substitution strategies (Substitution and Substitution Plus) as subtypes of such Compensatory strategies. In essence, the problematic item is replaced by another and differences between subtypes of Substitution strategies boil down to what is used as a replacement. As can be seen from Figure 3, there is a lot of individual variance in terms of preferences to various Substitution CSs so each speaker's production presents as a unique set problem solving techniques.

Code switching refers to instances of speakers inserting lexical items in a language other than the language of the speech production. While it is often assumed that it is L1 that the speaker would resort to, the participants actually tended to use English as a resource more often than their native language (Swedish). For instance, while in (7) the speaker switches to her L1, (3) contains a switch to English. This is all the more interesting considering that English was not the language of interaction between the participants and the researcher. Neither was it the language of the task. This seems to be a consequence of Sweden being a predominantly multilingual society where in most situations being able to fluently speak and understand English is assumed and not really put into question.

(7)   *Eah (.)   et (.) après (.) erm (.) l'oiseau (.) erm (.) eh (.) eh (.)*
English: Eah (.) and (.) after (.) erm (.) the bird (.) erm (.) eh (.) eh (.)
         l'oiseau se lève eah (.) eah (.) sort?
English: the bird gets up eah (.) eah (.) exits?
         flugar   ut   foglen men
English: flies   out   the bird but

There is another noteworthy feature of a word search in (7): the speaker actually gets it right before the code switch. Indeed, it is perfectly natural in French to use the path verb *sortir* (exit) to describe the situation (a bird flying out of the cage). However, the speaker herself doesn't seem to think this is the right term and this might be connected to the fact that Swedish does have preference for more specific, manner encoding verbs for motion events description (Zlatev et al., 2019). In other words, at least some of the instances where speakers kept deploying additional CSs even though what they produced is perfectly acceptable might also be due to L1 interference.

Approximation refers to insertion of an "alternative item that shares semantic features with the target word or structure" (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998:359). For instance, in (8) the word in question is *fauteuil* (armchair). However, when the speaker realizes the exact term cannot be retrieved, she uses *chaise* (chair) as something that is "close enough".

(8)   *qui s'est assied sur une (.) erm (.) eh (.) chaise*
English: who is seated on   a (.) erm (.) eh (.) chair

All-purpose words are generic lexical items, such as "thing" in English, used in contexts where more specific words are lacking. For instance, in (9) the word used is *chose* (thing) which can, in principle, replace any concrete noun:

(9)   *et   il sort pour (.) erm (.) pour obtenir pour chercher une (.)*
English: and he exits to   (.) erm (.) to   get   to   fetch   a   (.)
        erm (.) oh j'ai oublié   ce   mot erm et il prend cette chose
English: erm (.) oh I've forgotten this word erm and he takes this thing

Foreignizing refers to picking a word in a language that is not a language of the speech production and adjusting it to fit into the FL phonological and morphological rules. For instance, in (10) the speaker uses an English expression *shopping cart* to adjust it according to the rules of French phonology and morphology. Again, many instances of English words used in this way shouldn't come as a surprise given that all participants were fluent in English.

(10)   *erm (.) et   elle prend une erm (.) carte du shoping?*
English: erm (.) and she takes a   erm (.) *shopping cart*?

Grammatical word coinage refers to creating a non-existent word while following the rules or word formation in a given language. For instance, in (11) the speaker coins a word to designate researchers using the word *recherche* (research) as a base and adding the appropriate suffix *–eur* generally conveying a meaning of agency. One should note it is almost right – the exact term is *chercheur,* so such communicative behavior has its potential rewards: one might actually guess the right word without having previously learned it.

(11)   *ces deux hommes erm (.) rechercheurs? je crois (.) scientifiques?*
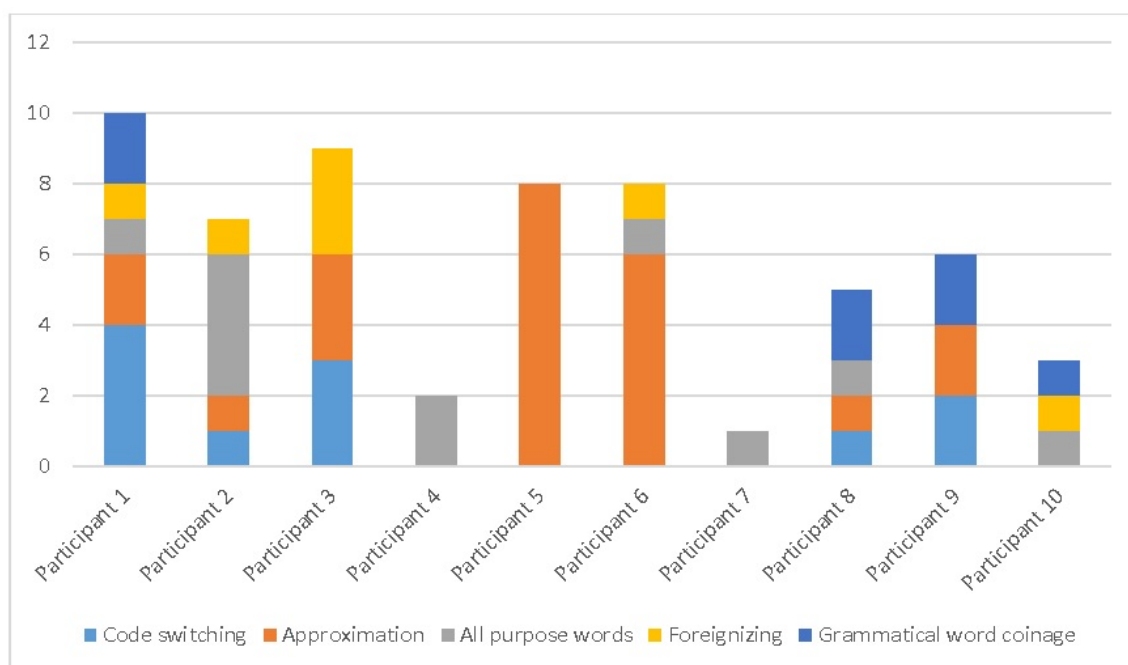   these two persons erm (.) researchers?   I believe (.) scientific?

Figure 3. Substitution strategies employed by the participants

3.6 Reconceptualization strategies

Reconceptualization strategies involve "a change of preverbal message involving more than one chunk <…> The change can take various forms" (Poulisse, 1993:181). For instance, the

speaker can choose to replace a word designating the concept in question by a list of words referring to its conceptual features or select a few items that together combine to refer to the concept in question. In (12), for instance the speaker lists both visual attributes and functional characteristics of the object in question (a shopping cart):

(12)   *mais alors c'est comme un panier mais sur les roues   (.) je sais pas comment le dire (.)*
English: but   well   it's   like   a basket but   on the wheels (.) I don't know how to say it (.)
        pour mettre les choses qu'on achète
English: to   put   the things that on buys
<…>
        dans ce panier je vais le dire comme ça
English: in this basket   I will   say it like that

Again, it is noteworthy that reconceptualization is not all the speaker is doing. She also makes a meta linguistic comment to let the interlocutor know of her uncertainty and, in the end, realizing that she will need to go back to the concept in question again and again during the narration, she introduces a generic term *panier* (basket) to facilitate reference tracking.

3.7 Individual differences

When it comes to oral production, it is logical to assume that the students at higher proficiency levels would be more efficient communicators and that part of that proficiency would come from successful use of CSs (Fernández Dobao, 2001; Safont Jordá, 2001). It is true that those who scored higher in the placement test tended to also be more informative. However, the relationship between proficiency scores and informational density is not as straight forward as one might think. Indeed, as can be seen in Figure 4, some students with almost identical scores still got very different scores when their narratives were evaluated for informational density.
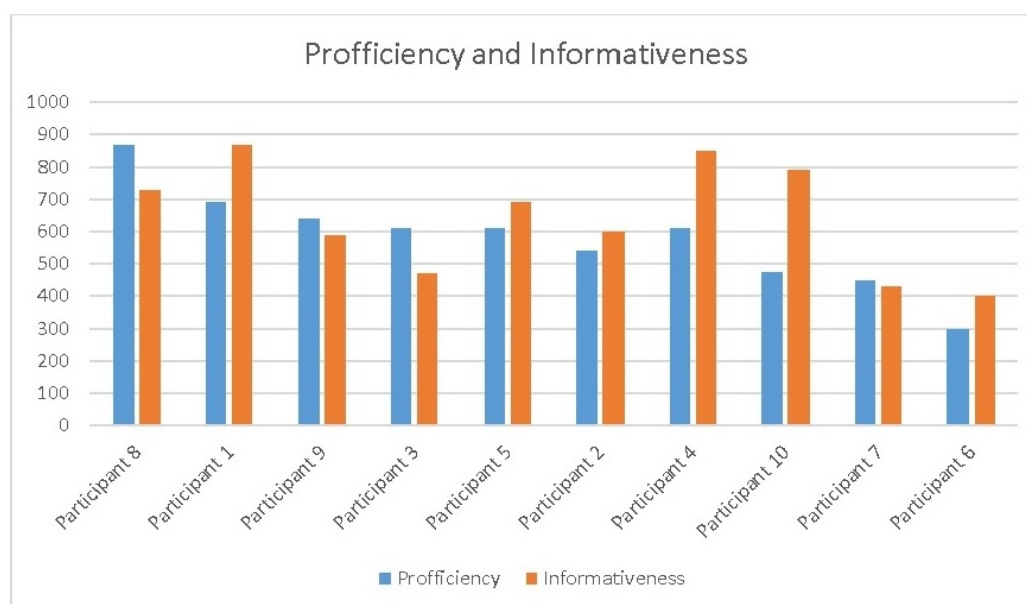

Figure 4. Proficiency levels and informational density of the narratives produced

See, for instance, a sharp difference in the levels in informativeness between Participant 7 and Participant 10 even though their proficiency scores were almost identical. When one examines closer the two sets of narratives produced by the learners, what becomes immediately obvious is that the two speakers have different approaches to handling communicative difficulties. More specifically, there is a difference in the use of CSs.
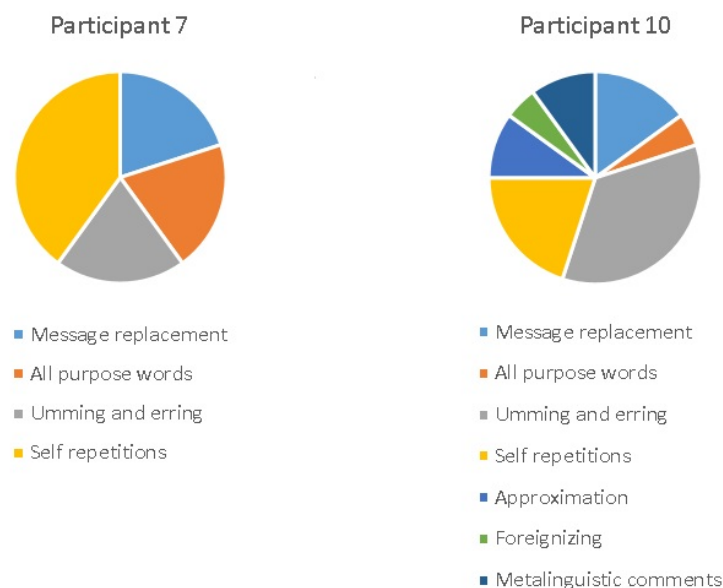

Figure 5. SCs employed by Participant 7 and Participant 10

The difference in CSs used is both quantitative (Participant 10 engages in many more word searches) and qualitative (Participant 10 uses a wider variety of CSs), which is presented in Figure 5. One could say the two learners have different styles when it comes to communication in FL.

This, of course, is the most extreme example in the data set. However, the same tendency is observable in other participants (see Figure 1 and Figure 4).

4. Discussion and Conclusions

A major factor explaining keen interest in CSs within the SLA research community is the observable discrepancy between what is taught in the classrooms and what learners actually need in real life. From that point of view, much has been said about relative efficiency of various CSs vs their processing cost. Poulisse (1993), for instance, notes that, even though ideally the speakers strive to produce the message at minimal cost and high level of comprehensibility thus satisfying Grice's (1975) *Least Effort Principle* and *Cooperative Principle*, in foreign language learners' production those are often in conflict. Poulisse goes on to state that, from that perspective, Substitution strategies and Reconceptualization strategies differ: Substitution strategies (*Code Switching, Approximation* and *All purpose words)* tend to be least comprehensible but require less effort while *Reconceptualization* tends to be the most successful but also costly. One should, however, be careful not to overgeneralize since every communicative act is embedded in a unique set of circumstances and being sensitive to those is also a big part of strategic language use. For instance, in (12) *Reconceptualization* and a use of an *All purpose word* are parts of the same solution to a communicative problem where an *All purpose word* is indeed needed for the sake of more

economical reference tracking. Similarly, even though Dörnyei & Scott (1997) put *Message replacement* into the Content reduction category of CSs, one can see that in many cases it is a perfectly valid solution that does not lead to any information loss. This is because every speaker also considers the addressee's knowledge of the world and the situation described making a calculated guess of how much will be inferred and thus can be omitted. Therefore, change from a more specific (there is no gravity) to a more general (they are in space) message in (6) is justified, as long as the context allows the addressee to infer the omitted information. After all, any situation can be described in a multitude of ways each of those being equally valid, which also is why, as can be seen from (1), native speakers often resort to Message replacement too. In other words, when it comes to exact solutions adopted in each situation, there is always a lot of room for creativity regardless of the language one speaks.

This creative side of the speech process is something that is always subject to individual variation. As can be seen from the present data analyses, many factors can potentially contribute to that. One of the factors in play is a specific cultural environment and the amount of language learning experience one has had. In this case, the fact that all participants had previously learned at least one language in addition to their L1 has played a role. Firstly, the very experience of actively reflecting on L2 grammar can boost analytical skills that many of the CSs (for instance, *Grammatical word coinage*) rely on. Secondly, speakers that grew up in an environment where English is widely used as lingua franca come to use it as a communicative resource.

Other factors contributing to successful strategic language use might stem from both personality traits and commitment to the task since it is obviously speakers that are willing to engage in risk taking communicative behavior (to make an effort to express themselves despite lack of words rather than avoid the topic altogether) that become successful communicators. In light of that, it seems worthwhile to promote that mentality during foreign language instruction.

At the same time, successful communication seems to be about more than positive attitude, confidence and willingness to take risks. As some of the examples demonstrate, sometimes the speaker is successful without actually realizing that. Perhaps some conscious reflection on strategic language use (e.g. appropriates of generalization) could help boost learner's communicative competence by helping them realize that sometimes it's ok not to be 100% precise. In that respect, the data presented here seems to suggest, once again, that CSs can and should be taught as a part of the curriculum, as previously proposed in Dornyei (1995) and Nakatani (2005) among others.

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Against the Odds - A Hong Kong Primary One English Immersion Class

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Abstract
This study reports the findings of a Hong Kong aided school which debuted one English (L2) immersion class in Primary one (Grade one equivalent) in 2019-20 in the midst of legal uncertainty and the predominantly Chinese (L1) environment. Data were collected using MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), and teacher and parent interviews. Despite being constrained by the initial language barrier, there is evidence showing the immersion class students displayed the following favourable attributes: 1. Motivation in class participation and 2. greater improvement in L2 when compared to those enrolled in normal classes. The study enriches understanding of the strengths and challenges faced by lower primary level immersion classes in Asia where similar undertaking and research literature are scarce.

Keywords: Immersion, Primary Level, English as a Second Language, Hong Kong

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I.   Introduction

The target school is a local aided school in Hong Kong which debuted one English (L2) immersion class in Primary one (Grade one equivalent) in the academic year 2019-20 in the predominantly Chinese (L1) environment within the school and its neighbourhood, a remote public-housing-dense town sited in a district with a larger poor population (Government of the HKSAR, 2019). Demand for English medium classes there, like the other districts of Hong Kong, has nevertheless been strong because of the prestige attached to English. Such demand is typically catered for by fee-paying private or direct-subsidy (semi-private) schools. The default medium of instruction (MOI) in tuition-free government or aided primary schools is Chinese (L1). While tuition-free primary schools which adopt English as the MOI are present[1], their student populations are often ethnically and linguistically diverse, justifying the use of English as the lingua franca there. A casual chat with a local primary school principal revealed that it was widely understood, though never written as rules, that Education Bureau (EDB) in Hong Kong was not ever in favour of seeing (partial) English (L2) as the MOI adopted at primary level in tuition-free schools, because of its skepticism on the effectiveness of immersion education at the said level. The immersion class initiated at the target school, therefore, is one of the few pioneers of Hong Kong immersion education at primary level in a largely monolingual, tuition-free setting.

The immersion class of the target school generally admits students whose performance in English was better. Parents' readiness to support their children in learning in L2 is also an important consideration. It is fair to say that the majority of the students in the target class (n=25) possessed desirable qualities of L2 learning, though there was a sizeable minority not possessing all such qualities out of the lack of suitable candidates as reported by the target school.

It is noteworthy pointing out that immersion as a means of raising students' L2 proficiency is akin to another educational approach, namely Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which has been widely adopted in Europe in the last two decades with generally positive results (See for example Merino and Lasagabaster 2018).

II.   Scope of evaluation and methods

There are two objectives of this study. First, it presents staff members' views of immersion class students' language and content subject achievement, and personal development. Second, it presents the evidence, if any, that students were motivated when attending content subjects conducted in L2. Where applicable, evidence facilitative or detrimental to the programme as a whole will also be presented.

Data were collected from two methods, namely, semi-structured interviews and observations. The semi-structured interviews which took place in March 2020 were 20-30 minutes long for each stakeholder. This kind of interview gives the interviewer 'some latitude to ask further questions in response to … significant replies' (Bryman, 2016). There were three groups of stakeholders. The first group consists of the immersion class core subject teachers of English Language & General Studies (G.S.) (1), Chinese Language & Putonghua (1), and Maths & Computer Studies (C.S.) (1). The second group consists of School administrators, namely Principal (1) and School Curriculum Leader (1). The last group consists of only one

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[1] See for example Li Cheng Uk Government Primary School http://www.lcu.edu.hk/

stakeholder: a parent representative whose daughter was studying in the immersion class and who was a teacher at the same school without teaching involvement in the target class. The English version of the set of general questions asked in the interview is attached in Appendix I.

As for the observations, there were two kinds. The first involved two face-to-face lesson observations in Maths and General Studies respectively conducted by the researcher in October 2019. In the observations, MOLT (motivation orientation of language teaching) classroom observation scheme (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) was used (See Appendix II) to gauge student motivated behaviour in the content lessons taught in L2. MOLT allowed observers to code and gather students' motivated behavior in classroom in a minute-to-minute fashion objectively. Its' validity is empirically tested (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, ibid). The variables of observation and the details are extracted as follows:

Table 1: Variables of MOLT classroom observation scheme

Variables	Attention	Participation	Volunteering for teacher-fronted activity
Description	The extent to which students appear to be paying attention without displaying any inattentive or disruptive behavior.	Students are actively taking part in classroom interaction or working on assigned activity.	Students are volunteering without the teacher having to coax them in any way.
Proportion needed	At least two-thirds of the class	At least two-thirds of the class	At least one-third of the class
Examples (where applicable)	- looking at the teacher and following his/her her movements - looking at visual stimuli - turning to watch another student who is contributing to the task - following the text being read - making appropriate nonverbal responses	NA	NA

It is worthwhile pointing out that the part on teacher's motivating behaviour in the original version was skipped, so as to give exclusive focus for students' motivated behaviour, which is the second objective of this study and what truly matters in L2 classroom where demotivation is a common threat. Also, while both lessons lasted for 30 minutes, only 25 minutes of which were evaluated. The reduced time of observation allowed the teacher and the students to settle before the teacher began to teach and end the lesson, the latter of which was particularly important as some students were getting excited (instead of motivated) with the recess right afterwards.

The second kind of observation involved inspection of three videos clips, showing vignettes in three content subject lessons, namely Maths, General Studies (G.S.) and Computer Studies (C.S.). There was also another video clip showing student interacting with each other in recess time. The four clips, each ranged from 1.5 to 4.5 minutes long, were compiled in December 2019 by the school for promotional purpose.

Worth noting are the limitations of the methods used. The academic year of 2019-20 presented major difficulties to all schools in Hong Kong. F2F lessons and/or school suspension were in place from mid-November to mid-December 2019, and from the end of

January to early June 2020 because of COVID-19 mingled with social unrest in Hong Kong. As such, only a small scale evaluation based primarily on the qualitative evidence gathered in a mixed method approach was felt viable. Nevertheless, because of the presence of multiple sources of information, data triangulation remained in place, securing the reliability of the qualitative data gathered.

III.   Findings

The findings based on the data gathered from interviews and observations shed lights on two questions, namely, stakeholders' views of immersion students' language and content subject achievement, and personal development, and if there is objective evidence showing students were motivated despite the challenge of L2 instruction in content subjects. Towards the end, stakeholders' view on programme administration will also be presented.

i) Stakeholders' views of immersion students' language and content subject achievement, and personal development

In general, stakeholders were positive on immersion student academic achievement. The English teacher (who also taught G.S.) reported that there was 'a big difference' in English improvement in the immersion class, especially among the weaker students, when compared to the normal class which she taught concurrently. Using English in and outside the classroom among classmates became natural as she and some other teachers observed.

The teacher of Chinese and Putonghua reported no negative effect was observed in student participation in class. Handwriting and homework collected also did not reveal observable differences compared to ordinary primary one students based on the teacher's experience. Immersion class performance in Putonghua, however, was reported to be not as strong as the normal class performance. However, that was due to less Mainland students present in the immersion class rather than other factors like MOI in her judgment.

A NET who taught C.S. and Maths reported that students were generally doing well in both subjects but had difficulty in long questions in the latter. This was echoed by the original Maths teacher, who specified that topics under 'Shape and Space Strand' involved a great deal of Mathematical terms such as 'base' and 'vertex'. But topics in other strands which were more concrete were generally well handled by students.

Similar to Maths, the G.S. teacher (who was also the English teacher) revealed that some G.S. topics such as 'Materials' were a challenge, because they were not within students' experience and vocabulary. The challenge was partially offset with in-class interactive activities and multi-modal presentations (e.g. videos and realia). The G.S. teacher maintained that despite the challenge, student performance was not severely affected in general, thanks to the school policy of prioritising knowledge and concept acquisition rather than spelling and long questions in homework and assessment. Noteworthy pointing out here is that the same priority was also in place for the ordinary classes taught in L1 as well.

The parent representative reiterated that she was delighted to see the 'amazing' improvement in reading and listening of her child after enrolment in the immersion class. For reading, she reported that her child no longer had problems reading in prose quickly. For listening, her child was able to understand English cartoons without difficulty. She credited these positive developments to the immersion class because even when studying in a kindergarten with

English as the medium of instruction previously, her child did not display the rate of improvement she saw. As for Chinese, she conceded that her child was not as strong probably because of more exclusive focus on English both at school and at home. However, she was satisfied with the way Chinese was taught at school and in the zoom sessions, where learner diversity was catered effectively thanks to the well-designed lessons by the subject teacher.

No interviewee was aware of any negative effect in the personal development in the immersion class when asked if that was the case. Problems in motivation of learning and stress level were again not observed. On the contrary, some teachers speculated that immersion students were in general on the stronger side of personal development because those enrolled in the class typically came from family of stronger parental care and involvement. This is an observation which may be ascertained through the more established psychological tools (e.g. The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire. See Hills and Argyle, 2002) in the future.

ii) Evidence showing if students' motivated behaviour was present in the content subjects conducted in L2

This question would be answered based on the data gathered using the simplified version of MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme from the two class visits in Maths and G.S. respectively. In addition, some vignettes of daily classroom teaching and learning which were produced for school promotional purpose would be looked at as well. Albeit in a small way, they did supplement with the rather limited observation data.

In the lessons observed (25 minutes each X 2 lessons), the class (n=25) fared well in all three variables (i.e. attention, participation and volunteering) in the MOLT scheme. Here is the table summarising the data collected:

Table 2: Data collected using the MOLT classroom observation scheme

Variables of motivation	Criterion	Minutes observed	% of class time fulfilling the criterion
Attention	2/3 class (i.e. ≥17/25)	30 out of 34 minutes	88
Participation	2/3 class (i.e. ≥17/25)	14 out of 16 minutes	88
Volunteering	1/3 class (i.e. ≥9/25)	9 out of 12 minutes	75

About 88% of the class time where the whole class teaching took place, students were observably paying attention, displaying favourable observable behaviours such as looking at teacher's visual stimuli and watching other students' contributing to the tasks. For participation, again in 88% of the class time, students were actively participating in the assigned group or individual activities. Finally, for volunteering in the teacher-fronted activity, about 75% of the class time such criterion was met. The minutes which fell short of that criterion actually involved the teacher consciously ignoring stronger students' intention to answer a couple of difficult questions and calling out names one by one of the quieter majority.

As for the four video clips, a number of observations could be made. First, similar level of student motivation was present in the three curricular subjects filmed (Maths, G.S. and C.S.). This was in line with the observations of the class visits aforementioned. Second, the subject teachers involved conducted the lessons methodically, with clear progression of revision, demonstration, practice and finally consolidation. Games and activities were commonplace.

In addition, there was evidence showing students were using L2 for casual interaction among themselves and with their class teacher in the recess (non-curricular time). The utterances observed ranged from one or two words to a complete sentence. As such, students display age-appropriate to age-superior level of L2 in their rest time in the researcher's view. The practice of using L2 during the rest time also follows the tradition of immersion programmes in Canada and Wales, U.K., which were regarded as the protocols in bilingual education (See Baker 2011).

There are a number of caveats which concern the validity of the data collected and must be pointed out though. First, despite the presence of favourable motivated behaviour in the lessons observed, participant bias, the tendency for the observed subjects to exhibit behaviour felt desirable, was possible, which could result in the presence of a confounding variable. This is especially the case when only two lessons were observed and both fell on the same day. For future improvement, the participant bias could be made less likely by observing more lessons in a longer stretch of time, which makes displaying the desirable traits more difficult if the subjects so wish.

Also, the clips inspected were rather short and created for school promotional purpose; deletion of unfitting screens was expected. Still, given 1) the number of content subjects the clips covered, 2) their assemblance with the general observations in the earlier face-to-face class visits, and 3) staff comments about students' use of English in and outside class, there was credible evidence of effective learning and teaching taking place in the immersion class. The extent, though, need to be ascertained further with greater amount of evidence.

iii) Stakeholders' view on programme administration

Regarding stakeholders' view on programme administration, no major difficulties were recalled. The administrators and teachers attributed the smooth delivery of the immersion programme to the contemplation and preparation in human resources which had taken place as long as nine years before the programme's debut. One example was about getting financial resources for recruiting extra NETs (Native English Teacher) and ELTAs (English Language Teaching Assistant) by submitting Quality Education Fund[2] proposals and leasing school out for paid events during school holiday. Another example was active recruitment of subject teachers of Chinese ethnicity but were born and raised in English-speaking countries. Those teachers were said to be more conversant with the local working culture and have higher English proficiency.

An issue in the immersion class which was rectified is worth reporting. The administrative team noticed that one subject teacher who was fluent in English experienced some difficulty expressing the content subject knowledge clearly in English in their routine observations. This was the case because, as research pointed out (See Lin, 2020), L2 Academic Language is rather different from L2 Everyday Language; command in one does not necessarily guarantee command in another. To rectify the issue, the school arranged a NET to co-teach with the subject teacher, who was delegated the new role of advising the NET the way of teaching the subject and designing and correcting the homework in addition to serving as the Assistant Teacher in the lesson. Both the subject teacher and the NET expressed satisfaction of the arrangement and acknowledged the improved teaching effects. The practice of co-

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[2] Quality Education Fund aims to finance projects for the promotion of quality education in Hong Kong. In 2016/17, 560 projects were supported, with the total grant of $169.6 million (US$21.7 million).

teaching would become another option of teaching assignment in the immersion class the year after as reported by the administrators.

IV. Summary and the way forward

To reiterate, the two objectives of this study are to 1) reveal staff members' views of immersion students' language and content subject achievement, and personal development, and 2) ascertain if students were motivated when attending content subjects conducted in L2.

Unanimously positive views were expressed by the teachers and administrators on the immersion class students' language and content subject achievement. As the English cum G.S. teacher and the parent representative reported, students' improvement in English was significant, especially when compared to those enrolled in normal classes. Content subject achievement of the immersion class was speculated to be on par with that of the normal classes despite challenges in certain topics which required more abstract thinking and vocabulary. There was no evidence showing that students' rapid advancement of L2 was made at the expense of their L1, as the caveat put forward by some literature in bilingual education, nor was there evidence showing any negative personal development among students because of the greater linguistic challenge.

Based on the data gathered from teachers, class visits and video clips, there was evidence showing that immersion students were motivated in class and participated well in the lessons conducted in L2. This was likely the result of the teachers' competence in English and their ability to deliver lessons methodically. Interactive activities and multi-modal presentations also went a long way in enhancing learning and teaching effectiveness.

In addition, there was evidence showing that the administrative team's ability to implement policy which eased the linguistic demand in the early stage and handle issues which might potentially affect the learning and teaching quality when they arose. It is noteworthy pointing out that co-teaching between the NETs and local teachers could be a possible way out for the potential lack of expertise in L2 content subject instruction among local teachers should such an issue arise.

Looking forward, the major challenge would be the increasing linguistic demand in homework and assessment, where fill in the blanks, and short and long questions involving writing, would be more dominant as the immersion students are promoted to the higher forms. Vocabulary, in both receptive and productive sense, is another major challenge, as successful completion of homework and assessment cannot be rid of accurate understanding and spelling of key words.

In fact, when evaluating a partial immersion programme in another local primary school, the researcher observed that the challenges aforementioned limited student performance rather significantly in formal assessments despite that similarly favorable conditions were present in class observations. To raise students' ability to cope with the increasing linguistic demand, schools running immersion programmes can consider adopting Language across the curriculum (LaC).

A major feature of LaC is called curriculum mapping, which involves language and subject teachers in finding related topics and presenting them around the same time of the year. With this arrangement, students could learn the subject content in multiple perspectives and use the

language taught authentically (See Curriculum Development Council, 2017). Structured repetition of vocabulary, essential to vocabulary acquisition (See Chu, 2019), is also much more likely with this arrangement. As such, students' mastery of the subject language is facilitated in a more promising way.

In fact, the target school is of good potential to undertake LaC as the immersion program involves only a finite number of staff who are already set to teach in the programme. There are occasions where a teacher would teach multiple subjects within the same immersion class as revealed in the present study. The comparatively small number of staff involved allows convenient communication and cooperation among themselves within the same form or even across forms when LaC is adopted in the future.

As for the possible improvement of the future evaluation of the immersion programme, quantitative data (e.g. exam results), where situation permits, shall be collected to ascertain academic achievement with greater confidence. Students, the major stakeholder, can also be interviewed in an age-appropriate way to see if they are satisfied with the programme and grow healthily despite the linguistic challenge.

Appendix I
General questions of the Stakeholder Interview

Stakeholder Interview on P1 Immersion class

Objective:

To gather impressions of the Primary One English Immersion class from the perspective of the key stakeholders after its debut in September 2019.

Questions:

1. Why did your School implement an English immersion class?

2. What expectations did you have for the immersion class prior to its commencement?

3. Is there anything of the class that is out of your expectation so far?

4. What are the major difficulties when implementing the immersion class?

5. What remedial actions were taken? How well did they work?

Please answer the following question to the best of your knowledge. You can skip any part though if you do not feel you have the knowledge.

6. What's your impression of the students in the class so far in:
    a) language achievement (English, Chinese & PTH)
    b) content subject achievement, and
    c) personal development (e.g. learning motivation, stress level, happiness level, etc)

7. If the immersion class is to be extended next academic year, are there any extra measures needed?

END

Appendix II

A simplified MOLT (motivation orientation of language teaching) classroom observation scheme

Learners' Motivated Behavior

Class: _____ Subject: _____ Date & Time: _____

	Attention			Participation			Volunteering		
	VERY LOW (few Ss)	LOW (1/3 – 1/2 of the class)	HIGH (>2/3 of the class	VERY LOW (few Ss)	LOW (1/3 – 1/2 of the class)	HIGH (>2/3 of the class	T nominates S/Ss	S/Ss need encouragement to volunteer	Eager volunteering (>1/3 of the class)
1									
2									
3									
4									
5									
6									
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