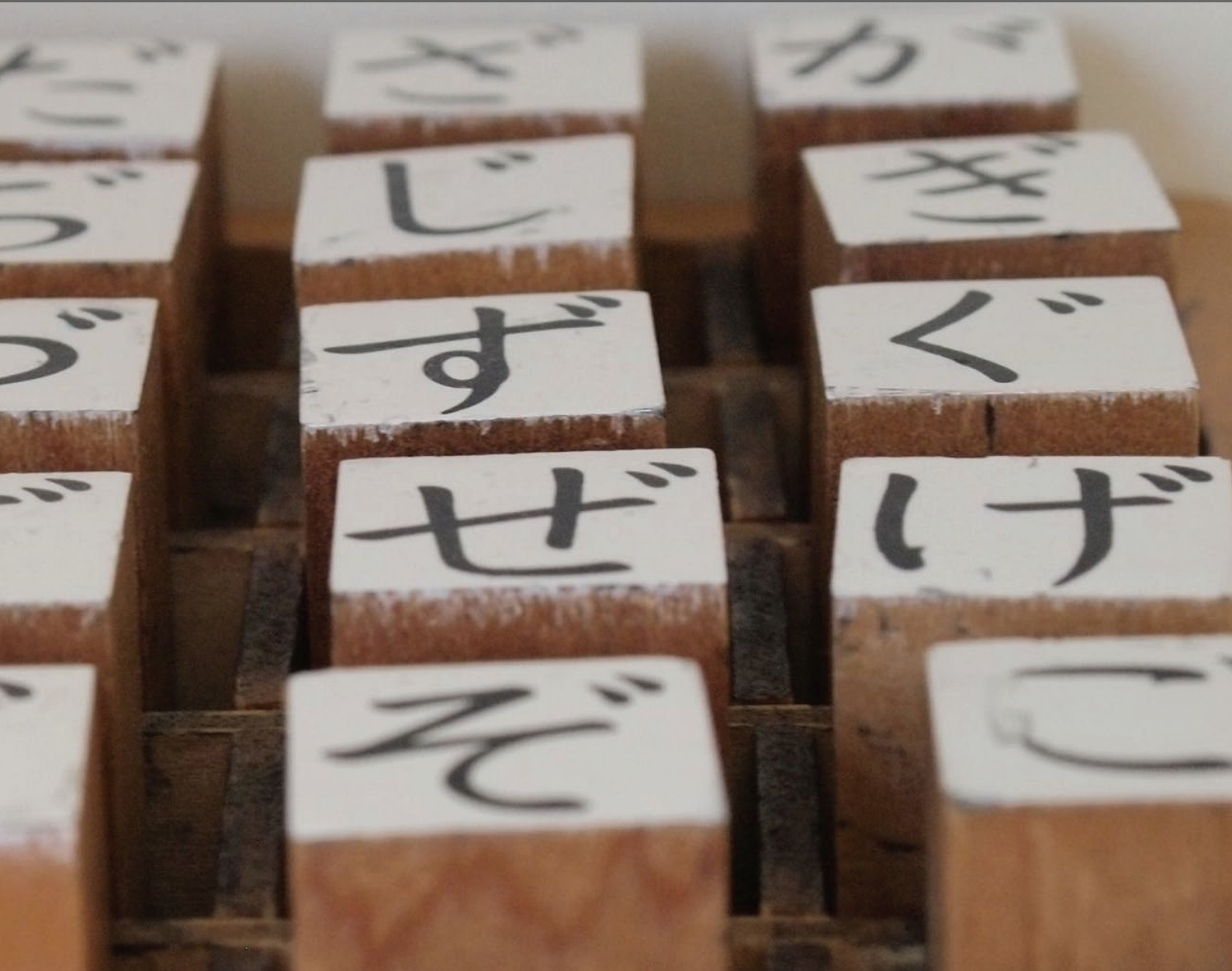


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Cross Cultural Representation in Pakistani's EFL Textbooks

Shamim Ali, AIOU, Pakistan

The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2017
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Abstract

The spread of English language as an international language has increased the numbers of its non-native speakers more than its native speakers all over the world .It has arisen the issue of the possession of this language. This study aims at describing and exploring the type of cultural content found in English Language textbooks in Pakistan. Considering learner's various language needs. Now a days it has become gradually more important that English as a Foreign Language be taught with accompanying other communication skills as well such as; intercultural knowledge ,critical thinking awareness and developing the sharp sense of cultural awareness. Therefore in early 1990's it was felt that EFL textbooks should include Pakistani's culture as students can understand the locally contextualized discourse more easily and effectively. Culture is based on social, political and religious values and norms of a society. The reflection of culture in the textbooks has impact on the cognitive abilities of students as it has more affinity with their life. The model of Risager's Analytical Categories 1990 will be applied to expose cross cultural representation. The study investigates how target culture and Pakistani's culture are portrayed in the textbook of grade 10 level. The culture introduced in these texts has impact on the personalities of the students. The present study highlights the depiction of both cultures in these textbooks. In this study, it will be investigated how texts are exploited for introducing the culture and values of the society in which these texts are produced and how they entail the invisible ideologies.

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1. Introduction

This study focuses on representation of cross cultural elements in English textbooks taught in Pakistan at HSSC Level. During my school life my teachers used to say that to command over a language we need to know 3Ls. And those 3Ls are Life, language and literature. These three are associated with culture. Therefore to understand the culture we need to learn language. This statement has been approved and experimented by the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, which tells that language shapes culture. This hypothesis suggests that language and culture are integral part and we cannot detach language from culture, and secondly to teach language means to teach a culture. Therefore this is a common trend to incorporate culture in language teaching.

In recent times, English language has been used in different contexts and we can see the production of different varieties of English language. In the traditional teaching methods teachers in Pakistan were only concerned to develop learners linguistics ability as a result it was noticed that learners were unable to communicate freely with foreigners. In recent years it is observed a paradigm shift which led English language teachers, and text book designers to review their methodologies in order to develop useful communicative competence. Therefore the teachers, textbook writers and language planners have become more interested to find out the important role of culture in English teaching and to make our learners aware of the significance of cross-cultural competence.

Textbooks plays vital role in developing the cognition of students, and they have great impact on the thought process of students. My research investigates that how these textbooks represent the Pakistani's culture and the foreign culture. At the same time the study examines how discourses included in these textbooks make or have impact on the world view of students who read these textbooks. In this study, the I tried to find out the description of events, Images, characters, typical cultural events and entire fabric of arts and intellectual activities in the light of comparison between Pakistani's culture and foreign culture.

EFL textbooks that I have selected for the current study are written and approved by Pakistan Education ministry. These textbooks are studied by thousands of students every year, hence; they have a great impact on the cognitive abilities of students. Being a Professor in Allama Iqbal Open University ,and making students assignments in every semester it gave me an idea to analyze the books of HSSC, EFL textbooks from cross cultural perspective.

Teaching English as a foreign language has been included in Pakistan from the basic level. Being an official language of Pakistan English language enjoys the high status and it is widely used in the legislative ,executive, and judicial and in the officer ranks of Pakistan's armed forces. Pakistan's. Law and Constitution of our country are written in English It is also widely employed as a medium of instruction in our schools, colleges and universities .English is taught for communicative purposes at international level while our native language Urdu fulfils their communicative needs at local level.

1.1 Background

Language is the most ingredient of culture and shaped by culture. Language is the carter of culture and it reveals the cultural features of a community in which the language is spoken. Language and culture are closely related to each other therefore we can say that ethnicity strengthens its roots because of language. From the aspect of language teaching we have to keep in our mind that, to teach a foreign language is to edify another culture, to learn a language is also to gain knowledge of another culture. Steffensen, Joag-Deve, & Anderson, 1979 highlight in their study which is related to cross-cultural comprehension. They were in the opinion When the EFL learners read the passage about the daily activities from their own culture they learn more rapidly because they recall a big amount of information, create more culturally appropriate elaborations and embellish the content an appropriate manner. At the same time if they read the daily activities passages in "foreign language they read the passage more slowly and culturally-based distortions take place. Their results signified that cultural context influences knowledge, and this phenomenon occurs regardless of an individual's background.

English is an International Language and cultural issues stemmed from a post Cold War conception of the expansion of English. Crystal says (1997), the spread of English starts in the 1950s, at that time the picture of English as a world language was quite dim and theoretical, and its practical aspects had not been highlighted.

Cook (2008) states that English has become 'hyper central language' and has spread in all societies. As it has become an international language therefore it is used everywhere in different fields of life. It has become a globalized language from corner to corner of the world. The English language circle has increased and most of the non-native speakers employ it in their day to day conversation. As this is the known fact that Language transmits its culture to learners and at the same time we transmit the culture through language therefore, we notice cross cultures elements in EFL classroom. Brown (2009) discussed 9th principle on the language culture connection that teaching a language infuses its cultural norms, way of thinking, customs, values, traditions and entire code of conduct.

English is the most important language used as second language in all walks of life in the world. Richards & Schmidt (2002) opined that the term EIL (English as an International Language) confirms the status of English as the most important language .Moreover, it is used in different varieties in the world. It is authenticated by the tern 'Englishes'. Chang (2006) is of the view that English is the most important, dominating, prominent and influential language in educational fields ,thus it has prevailing influence in our day to day life .In the most of the part of the world it is a major language which is learnt as a foreign language.

As English language is associated with globalization therefore the EFL textbooks designed for learning of language help in communication and facilitating the process of learning the target language. As it carries the culture of the people who present and produce them. The culture travels along with EFL textbooks Gray (2002) states that

EFL textbooks are primarily designed to help in learning the language but unconsciously, foreign culture is embedded into the readers. Most of the universities all over the world offer courses to international graduate students in English as a foreign language (EFL) and at the same time they offer training courses for prospective EFL teachers in their Linguistics Department.

AIOU offers Post Graduate Diploma in Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). It is a 30 credit hour programme and it was introduced and launched in the late 1980s. The aims and objectives of this programme are to give understanding about different techniques, approaches and methods which can be used for learning and teaching of English as a foreign language in the classroom in Pakistan. It covers theoretical and practical aspects of English teaching. It is quite beneficial not only for those teachers who are already teaching English but also for those who want to instruct English as a foreign or second language in future.

Teaching English to non native people started from 15th century as Jenkins (2000) states and its purpose was to help non-native speakers to communicate effectively with the native speakers.

With globalization the concept of teaching English almost changed. Pennycook (2007) affirms that English language is linked with globalization. Most of the people study English language, as the key for developing their international understanding and to know the world regulation. In the whole process of globalization, English language has played an important and very significant role.

Bottery (2000) says that globalization is linked to the wide spread authority of English language. Due to the internet English language has transformed the world into global village and all humans on the earth are gathered at one platform. The supremacy of English language is striking in all this process termed as globalization. It is very important to mention here that globalization and English language have great harmony and both of them walk side by side, towards the goal of business, communication and world politics, making its simpler and easier ways around the world. Globalization and English language are exposed to the practical use in the everyday of the human's life, wherever they are around the world.

The status of English is understood as a powerful economic tool for development. In the entire globe the status of English as an international language has increased its role in discourse and scholarship. It is a most important instrument for any kind of Cross-Cultural Communication and for cultural Awareness. Brumfit (1995) states "the ownership of an interest in English has become international in the last half century. He further emphasized that scholarship about English has become international and is recognized by all communities. The users of English language have witnessed an enormous increase in the 20th century in number. Widdowson (1994) is of the opinion that the terms of 'native speaker' and 'non-native speaker' had to be restructured, reframed and it should be substituted with terms of 'monolingual English speaker' and 'bilingual English speaker'. And the term bilingual English speaker is very appropriate. Because BES are able to learn new words easily. They can use

information in new ways. BES always come up with solutions to problems when they connect with others.

With the increasing awareness of the non-native speakers of English language, it is the need of time that English should be focused and it should be used as lingua franca. In the present scenario, English is known as common lingua franca all over the globe. And it is a fact that almost 80% are non-native speakers, as the speakers of English belong to poles apart cultures and backgrounds therefore it should be value free. It should not be only in the hands of native speakers but it is the equal property of all speakers who use either as a native speaker or non-native speaker. (Sowden, 2011).

The community of English language speakers is increasing day by day. The native speakers used English for social, political, financial and cultural benefit. Phillipson (2009) calls it 'linguistic imperialism' and it is which is related to 'cultural imperialism'. Through the expansion of English language in the world, the culture of the British also transfers to the non-native speakers. We can say that culture is a major and indivisible component of any language. It is in my opinion one of the most enjoyable aspects of acquiring a new language. It develops your interests and your motivation. Richards & Schmidt (2002) state that cultural imperialism is communicated through teaching of language and promoting the culture of the owners of the language. The invisible ideology of the target culture works through language. Culture has its roots in environment and technology and it flourishes with increase of energy resources.

2. Theoretical Framework

This study investigated the representation of the source culture and the target culture in EFL textbooks of HSSC level through micro and macro level. It examined how both cultures are introduced in these textbooks used for the teaching of English as a foreign language and at the same time this study compares the representation of the foreign culture and the Pakistani's culture. The data will be analyzed by applying the model of Risager's Analytical Categories (1990, pp 182-183). Risager model provides for each series of the textbooks proper analysis. The listing, provides with quantitative data as regards the amount of references for the representation of local target and international cultures in each of the series under consideration. Following elements will be considered at micro and macro levels

1. At micro-level following points will be considered
 - a. The geographical definition of characters
 - b. The social definition of characters
 - c. Material used for developing the sense of environment
 - d. Different situations of communication
 - e. Subjectivity and interaction of the characters: such as their feelings, attitudes, values perceived notions and their culturally related problems

2. At macro-level following points will be considered
 - a. Social, political and historical issues:
 - b. Sociological facts about present-day
 - c. Socio cultural problems and their effect on the society
 - d. Historical background

At the same time International and intercultural issues will be discussed Comparisons between the International and intercultural will be dealt with the perspective of ESL students point of view

3. Statement of the Problem

EFL learners need to connect with course on three basic levels; text to text, text to self, and self to the world. Every ESL learner tries to bring something to the classroom. And if the text or the course book is familiar with the backgrounds and/or prior knowledge of ESL learners it helps a teacher to engage students in learning experiences that connect with their diverse cultural backgrounds and it helps them building their knowledge .It is my personal observation that a single teacher may not be able to represent as many cultural perspectives as he/she may like, teachers can make her/his curriculum useful by adding variety of resources in order to make the learning more swift and their text more culturally accessible and relevant. Textbooks exercise impact on the cognitive abilities and behaviours of students. The ideologies introduced through these textbooks influence the thoughts of the students. This study examined the representation of Pakistani's culture and foreign culture in the textbooks.

4. Significance of the Present Study

The study aimed to investigate the portrayal of cultures in discourse practices and images. This study tried to find out the depiction of cross cultural elements in the texts of ESL textbooks. The study explores that how glimpses of cultures are introduced and promoted through textbooks. This study is quite significant in this sense that how a text connects to their lives or to give an example of a particular idea as they would experience it in their native language. Teachers can bring the text in the classroom and it is quite valuable because even if they speak about their culture with their teachers they will learn more.

5. Objectives of the Research

The following are the objectives of the study:

- To highlight representation of Pakistani's culture and foreign culture in EFL textbooks at HSSC Level.
- To find out similarities and differences in the discourse practices in Pakistani's culture and foreign culture.
- To examine how culture is introduced through teaching of English language in Pakistan.

6. Research Questions

The current study will find out answers of one primary and four subsidiary research questions:

Primary Research Question How are Pakistani's culture and foreign culture portrayed in ESL textbooks at HSSC level?

Subsidiary Research Questions

1. How is cultural anthropology portrayed in English textbooks?
2. How are historical, political and social glimpses exhibited in English textbooks?
3. To what extent do you find proportion of international and Pakistani's cultural issues?
4. What sort of literary style dominates in the English textbooks?

7. Delimitation of the Study

The study is delimited to English textbook of HSSC Level of AIOU. This helped in facilitating the comparison of Pakistani's culture and foreign culture introduced through textbooks selected for the present study.

8. Focus of the Study

This study finds the portrayal of foreign culture and Pakistani's culture in EFL textbooks at HSSC level. It examines how culture is introduced in textbooks through the teaching of English language. In this study it is investigated how representation of two cultures differ in the textbook.

9. Material

The corpus of my study was the text book of AIOU. These representative ESL/EFL textbooks are currently being used in Pakistan for teaching English at secondary level. The AIOU English textbooks considered in this study were selected based on their representativeness of the most commonly used materials in Pakistan. Sample of texts from book was highlighted. And especially that text was highlighted in which cultural awareness was shown. The following criterion was kept in mind for analyzing the ESL textbook

- **Goals:**

Awareness of skills, knowledge, understanding the formal properties of language

- **Tasks:**

ESL learners can process and synthesize cultural information. Students can use the language in meaningful

- **Presentation:**
Culture for raising, showing cultures for relevance, direct or indirect ,implied or stated
- **Representation and perspective:**
Biasness ,stereotyping
- **Cultural Artifacts:**
People, languages, places and activities

10. Questionnaire

For the research purpose I underwent two phases for evaluation .First I gave questionnaire to the teachers .Those two phases were the analysis of the textbook and the questionnaire . to the teachers. My both phases were quite interesting because it was the major aim of my research to find out the answers of my research questions. In both phases I defined the criteria for evaluation .I developed various checklists

11. Participants

A total number of twenty teachers of Islamabad and Rawalpindi (Pakistan) were taken for this research. I gave them ESL textbook for my research, some of the teachers were already teaching this book. Questionnaires was disseminated to teachers and they were requested to give their impartial opinions about the ESL textbook taught by them at HSSC level by AIOU.As I have mentioned it earlier that my aim was to investigate ESL textbook at grade 10 from perspective of cross culture representation. Nature of my study is primarily textual analysis with qualitative and quantitative analysis. So this study tried to highlight how Pakistani's culture and foreign culture are integrated into the textbook.

12. Data Analysis

12.1 Questionnaire for Teachers

	Questions for Teachers	Yes	%	No	%
a.	Does the used ESL textbook reflect students' culture adequately?	20	100%		
b.	Do students feel comfortable while reading the elements related to the foreign culture?	15	75%	5	25%
c.	Do you find an over use of the foreign culture in the ESL textbook of AIOU?			20	100%
d.	Do the majority of students develop their comprehension well when it is demonstrated through the foreign culture?	15	75%	5	25%
e.	Do the pictures in ESL text book show students' cultural, ethnic and religious background?	20	100%		

f.	Do the pictures used in ESL textbooks reflect students' background their cities, traditions and landscapes?	20	100%		
g.	Do you smooth the progress of text sometimes to avoid the foreign culture?	10	50%	10	50%
h.	Is there enough exercises based on the language of local culture in the proposed ESL textbooks?	20	100%		
i.	Would you like to design EFL textbooks considering EFL learners environment?	20	100%		
j.	Do you replace some foreign elements with the local one during your teaching time?	10	50%	10	50%

12.2 Questionnaire for Students

	Questions for Students	Yes	No
a.	Does your ESL textbook reflect your culture adequately?	100%	
b.	Do students feel comfortable while reading the elements related to the foreign culture?	83%	17%
c.	Do you find any representation of Pakistani famous personalities in your ESL textbook?	100%	
d.	Do you develop your comprehension well when it is demonstrated through the foreign culture?	67%	33%
e.	Do the pictures in ESL text book show your' cultural, ethnic and religious background?	100%	
f.	Do the pictures used in ESL textbooks reflect your background your cities, traditions and landscapes?	100%	
g.	Does your teacher smooth the progress of text sometimes to avoid the foreign culture?	67%	33%
h.	Is there enough exercises based on the language of local culture in the proposed ESL textbooks?	100%	
i.	Would you like to help designers for writing textbooks considering your needs?	87%	13%
j.	Do you want your teacher to replace some foreign elements with the local one during their teaching time?	87%	13%

English textbook of HSSC Level has been selected for the analysis of this study. Thousands of students study these textbooks every year in Pakistan. The discourse generated through these ESL textbooks influences the worldview of students. The ideologies introduced through these textbooks have deep impact on the cognitive abilities of students.

According to the analysis of the questionnaire, the results indicated that teachers and ESL learners were more excited to teach, learn and participate effectively in the classroom. Most of the ESL learners agreed that they have the ability to understand the content well when it targets their local cultural and religious background. This demonstrates that local culture has a great influence on students learning process. At the same time most of the teachers also relied rely on the local culture while teaching a particular aspect which is presented through foreign culture in the imposed English textbooks. The statistical data proved evidence above that students are more relaxed and engaged when teachers facilitate items using students' own culture and local topics related to their surroundings and to their real life.

13. Conclusion, Findings and Recommendations

In conclusion, I must say that introducing the students to the other culture is important. Because they should be aware of other cultures too. They should be open to change. But using it abundantly and arbitrarily may leave negative impact on them. This study of mine is not against using the foreign culture in the English textbooks, my opinion is these students are in need of learning the language more than knowing the other culture. Whereas, it is against the overuse of it. The results showed that students of HSSC level are more in need of learning the language more than knowing the foreign culture. ESL learners do not comprehend effectively inside the classroom when they were dealing with features presented through the foreign culture. In my opinion our Education ministry should adopt new research for designing ESL text book and they should take them into consideration while designing a textbook.

In conclusion I must admit that AIOU English text books contain aspects that make ESL learners comprehend the content easily because their religious beliefs, their cultural background and environment have been discussed in an explicit manner. AIOU textbooks writers follow bottom-up approach which enable textbook writers to know students' needs

The majority of texts reviewed in this study meets the specifications required for effective cultural awareness. Most of the contents address the criteria and it fosters optimal intercultural inquiry. It develops awareness and understanding of the local culture as well as the cultures of English-speaking countries. Major findings from each research questions were delineated. The recommendations for future research is offered based on the findings of this study

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Factors impacting on teacher cognition and teachers' approaches to language teaching in Japanese high schools

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Abstract

This paper investigates cognitive factors that impact and enable implementation of communicative approaches to language teaching, CALT, by public high school teachers in Osaka, Japan. The experiences, beliefs and knowledge of 46 teachers were investigated using a questionnaire. Of those, 4 participated in semi-structured interviews, as did 3 student teachers. Through this mixed-methods approach, the paper triangulates qualitative and quantitative data. The results showed that early experiences as learners affect the development of values and beliefs about approaches to language teaching. English teachers in Osaka are increasingly likely to have experienced CALT themselves as learners, and to be somewhat knowledgeable about such approaches. The findings also revealed that teachers hold increasingly positive attitudes towards implementing appropriate amounts of CALT. However, they apply CALT cautiously, due to a range of concerns about proximate and systemic issues. The way teachers respond to these concerns was affected by beliefs they hold, resulting from their experiences as learners, about language teaching. The results suggested two ways in which CALT implementation could be enhanced. The first is reform the university exam to assess communicative language use. The second is for both learners and teachers to be given more opportunities for skills practice, to develop greater meta-cognitive awareness and encourage developments in language or teaching skills. Finally, the results show demographic trends and changes in education policy in Osaka prefecture that will affect the implementation of communicative approaches to language teaching, which could have implications outside this context and provide avenues for future research.

Keywords: cognition, communicative approaches to language teaching, senior high school, Japan

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Introduction

Communicative English skills are essential in many fields, yet not all Asian countries have successfully promoted them. Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, MEXT, is aware of the poor communicative skills of students. Although MEXT never promotes specific communicative approaches to language teaching, CALT, it claims, "the development of students' proficiency in English...is crucial for Japan's future...especially in the development of communication skills" (MEXT, 2014, Background to the Reform). However, only 31.9% of high school students in their final year are at target proficiency. Concurrently, Japan's local competitors show gains in desirable communicative skills. It is clear something is amiss.

An emerging area of interest is teacher cognition: the experiences, beliefs and knowledge of teachers. Cognitive factors powerfully influence classroom practice (Mama & Hennessy, 2013; Pajares, 1992), perhaps more than teacher training itself. Nishino describes how experiences Japanese teachers of English, JTEs, had as students may instill beliefs that affect practice. MEXT needs to understand the beliefs, experiences and practices of its JTEs. The purpose of this mixed method study is to examine the implementation of CALT, assess experiences and cognitive factors that may affect how JTEs implement CALT, and finally to look at factors that may help them apply CALT more effectively. Data were collected with a questionnaire and an interview, adapted from Nishino (2008; 2012), Richards and Sato & Kleinsasser among others. In-service teachers were given a questionnaire, and some were interviewed. Student teachers were also interviewed. The study addressed the following research questions:

RQ1: How do JTEs view their own approaches to English teaching?

RQ2: What do JTEs know and believe about communicative approaches to language teaching?

RQ3: What factors do JTEs believe would help them implement CALT in their classrooms more effectively?

Literature Review

Key Concepts

Teacher Cognition

Clark & Peterson first attempted to categorize teachers' thought processes, known now as teacher cognition. Feryok & Kubanyiova, citing Freeman and Walberg, note, "What teachers do in the classroom is a reflection of the rich tapestry of their mental lives". Burns et al., citing Numrich, describe a thematic analysis of the diaries of trainee teachers. This study similarly uses a thematic analysis to identify links between JTEs' experiences as learners and their current cognitive states and practices.

Communicative Approaches to Language Teaching (CALT)

CALT are teaching approaches where communication is essential. Two prominent CALT are Communicative Language Teaching, CLT, and Task Based Language

Teaching, TBLT. Both develop communicative skills through meaning focussed activities using authentic language. Teacher support and activity design help learners self-correct, bringing their attention to grammar in context .

Brandl , citing Doughty & Long identifies 8 principles of CALT:

1. Communicative tasks are the basic unit
2. Learning occurs by doing
3. Learners are exposed to authentic language
4. Learners are given meaningful and comprehensible input
5. Learners work together
6. Grammar instruction occurs through meaning focused activities
7. Teachers give feedback
8. Awareness of the needs and limitations of learners

Communicative Language Teaching, CLT, aims to develop learners' communicative competencies (Hymes, 1972) through meaningful, authentic language use in communicative activities . Task Based Language Teaching, TBLT, maintains CLT's focus on meaning, communication and authentic language use but recasts it in terms of classroom tasks: co-operative group activities that prepare learners to complete real world tasks. However, suitability is not guaranteed for either approach in all contexts. Sato echoed Li (1998) cautioning that in Japan, "there is little or no practical need to use English outside the classroom".

Education Reform in Japan

In the post-war period, the Course of Study showed support for grammar-translation approaches. The National Centre Test, the university entrance exam, still emphasises grammar and translation . However, reforms introduced between the 1980s, when CALT rose in popularity (Kubota, 2010; O'Donnell, 2005), and today (MEXT, 2009; 2013a; 2014; 2016) have all stated that improving communication skills is the main purpose of English education in Japan. Attempts to introduce CALT have struggled. Japanese TOEFL scores rank lowest across Asia. A slim majority of JTEs are now above target proficiency. MEXT describes a national survey of 3,459 public high schools. It found that reforms are having some impact on professional development and JTE proficiency, but none on student proficiency or classroom English use. Local initiatives by Osaka Prefecture BOE, like the SET program, are targeting communication . Additionally, the high school entrance exam system is changing. From 2017 translation will be removed. Listening, reading, writing and speaking rewarded more equally. Furthermore, schools will accept external test scores as part of enrolment decisions. Prospective students in Osaka with a high TOEFL iBT score will be awarded additional points towards their entrance exam.

Challenges Indicated by Previous Research

Teachers' choices in the classroom impact the success of a program more than government policy . Previous research indicates JTEs are favourable towards CALT, but tend not to use them . Uncertainty about either approach is widespread . Investigations of CALT across Asia (Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007, 2013a, 2013b) and local studies in Japan (Abe, 2013; Burns & Humphries, 2015; Gorsuch, 2000; Nishino, 2008, 2012; Sakui, 2004) all highlight elements of the dissuasive role played by teacher's own experiences with the education system throughout their lives, which

in turn impact beliefs about CALT. As Borg notes, “Teachers’ cognitions... emerge consistently as a powerful influence on their practices”.

Summary

This study builds on previous research, assessing cognitive factors affecting the implementation of CALT in Osaka. It clarifies the links between JTEs’ experiences as learners and attitudes towards language teaching. Subsequently, it compares and contrasts these attitudes to the JTEs’ current practices. Finally, it examines the beliefs and attitudes of JTEs to consider ways in which the implementation of CALT could be enhanced.

Research Design

A mixed methods methodology was chosen to achieve triangulation , of qualitative and quantitative data, combining their complementary strengths (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The instruments selected were a questionnaire and a semi- structured interview.

The population of full time high school JTEs is around 24,000 nationally (METI, 2010). This study samples JTEs in Osaka prefecture, of which there were 1473 in 2014 (MEXT, 2014b). For this study, a clear research design was used, based on Creswell & Clark’s (2007) decision trees. Phase 1 collected a large set of quantitative data. Analysis of Phase 1 data provided avenues for exploration in Phase 2, a “follow-up explanations model” (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p.72).

Research Instruments

The research design necessitates two separate instruments for Phases 1 and 2. A structured questionnaire was selected in Phase 1 and a semi-structured interview in Phase 2.

Questionnaire

Written in English and translated into Japanese. Most items were closed-ended, using nominal or interval scales such as Likert and multiple choice. Some open-ended items were included to identify themes for Phase 2. Responses were translated into English for analysis. Response time was around 15 minutes. Online survey platform www.qualtrics.com was selected for its simple yet powerful design. 53 JTEs at 13 schools signed consent forms, and 50 questionnaire responses were received- a response rate of 94.3%. 37 of these responses were complete. 13 were incomplete to varying degrees. Table 1 profiles the respondents.

Attribute	Frequency (n=46)	%
Gender		
Male	25	54
Female	21	46
Min: 1 Max: 2 Mean: 1.46		
Teaching Experience		
1) 1-5 years	11	24
2) 6-10 years	9	20
3) 11-15 years	5	11
4) 16-20 years	3	7
5) 21+ years	18	39
Min: 1 Max: 5 Mean: 3.17		
Experience Living Abroad		
1) None	8	17
2) 1-6 months	13	28
3) 6 months- 1 year	12	26
4) 1-2 years	7	15
5) 2+ years	6	13
Min: 1 Max: 5 Mean: 2.78		
Classes Taught		
1) Reading	46	100
2) Grammar	42	91
3) Writing	32	70
4) Oral Communication	39	85
5) Listening	34	74
Min: 1 Max: 5		

Table 1: Profile of Questionnaire Respondents

Semi Structured Interview

The interviews were 40-60 minutes in length. The questions explored participants' experiences, beliefs and knowledge. The interviews were audio-recorded for later transcription and coding. Interviewees in their early career (1-10 years experience), mid-career (10-20 years experience) and late career (21+ years experience) were sought. 5 JTEs indicated on the questionnaire they would participate. There were 4 early and 1 late career teacher. For scheduling reasons, only 1 could be interviewed. 3 JTEs, one from each career category, were asked personally by me and participated. Three student teachers known personally to me participated. They were all graduates of the 2013 academic year from the same high school. The interviewees are profiled in Table 2.

JTE Interviewees				
Name	Gender	Public High School Teaching Experience	Experience	Additional Classroom Experience
1) O	Male	33 years	5) 20+ years	n/a
2) H	Male	12 years	3) 11-15 years	n/a
3) E	Female	1 year	1) 1-5 years	n/a
4) K	Male	2 years	1) 1-5 years	1.5 years FT/ 4 years PT
Student Teacher Interviewees				
Name	Gender	Grade	Experience Studying Abroad	Classroom Experience
1) A	Female	4th year	9 months, Philippines	Yes- Japan
2) B	Female	4th year	8 months, U.S.	Yes- Japan/ U.S.
3) C	Female	4th year	8 months, U.S.	Yes- Japan/ U.S.

Table 2: Interviewee Profile

Data Analysis

Questionnaire. After Phase 1, incomplete responses were included. Initial analysis revealed only 3 respondents in two mid-career experience categories. Most respondents were early or late career. The (n) of group 11-15 is still 3, and the small size of this sample may have produced anomalous results. Possible causes are suggested in the Discussion. 4 responses were deleted because the respondents answered only one question. Instances of variance in (n) are noted. (n) has a maximum value of 46.

Interviews. Pre and in-service teachers were interviewed. Pre-coding and theme selection then commenced. Codes or “natural units of meaning” were repeatedly refined to identify patterns. Quotes are presented verbatim, however editing decisions were made to preserve the narrative flow upon transcription .

Length of Experience. To examine teacher cognition over time, length of teaching experience was used for comparison. JTE’s were classified as belonging to one of five experience brackets, noted in Table 1 and 2.

Methods of Analysis. For the majority of data, descriptive statistics were produced. Where the sample size was large enough and deemed appropriate, an independent t-test was used.

Recruitment and Ethics. Permission was granted by Osaka Prefecture BOE to recruit participants. All communications were in Japanese to both ensure accurate data and comprehension of participants’ rights. Informed consent was obtained, and participation in Phase 2 solicited. Interviews were single session, face-to-face, conducted in seclusion. The interviewees volunteered to speak in English. Participants

were reminded they could withdraw consent at any time. Identifiable participant data was made anonymous and encrypted. Only I had access to the raw data. Paper documents were stored securely.

Results

Organization. The results have been organized thematically, broadly following the research questions. First, experiences JTEs had as learners were examined. Second, their current practices as teachers were assessed. Third, JTE knowledge and beliefs on CALT were investigated. Finally, influences on CALT use were analysed.

Experiences as Learners.

Activities Experienced. The example activities were drawn from Richards . Table 3 shows the activities, ranked by frequency. Repetitive activities targeting accuracy and linguistic competencies were most common. These results imply that a majority of participants' teachers used a small set of tools that target linguistic competencies frequently, alongside a set of simple communication focussed activities with less frequency.

#	Answer	Responses (n)=43	%
9	Jigsaw Tasks	0	0%
3	Interviews	0	0%
19	Surveys	0	0%
8	Task Based Activities	1	2%
1	Debate	1	2%
14	Discussion	1	2%
6	Other	1	2%
13	Information Gap	2	4%
11	Opinion Sharing	2	4%
21	Information Transfer	5	11%
15	Situational English	6	13%
17	Puzzles and Games	7	16%
4	Role-Plays	7	16%
12	Creative Writing	8	18%
7	Speeches and Presentations	9	20%
10	Authentic Examples of English	13	29%
20	Group or Pair Work	13	29%
5	Pronunciation Drills	23	51%
16	Mechanical Practice	26	58%
2	Repetition Drills	27	60%
18	Grammar Translation	43	96%

Table 3: Reported Activities Teachers Experienced as High School Students

All interviewees corroborated these findings. They reported activities like analysing sentential grammar and translation from English into Japanese. For instance:

(H) *“Teachers just read a passage and described the grammatical structure”*

Reports of communicative activities were limited:

(O) *“Before university I never practised any speaking or pronunciation”*

Teaching experience was measured against activities experienced to compare differences. Teachers of all ages reported activities emphasizing accuracy. Grammar translation was the most highly reported activity. Activities typical of TBLT like debate occurred infrequently. However as Figure 1 shows, early career teachers (1-5 and 6-10 years) reported slightly more communicative activities than late career teachers (21+ years).

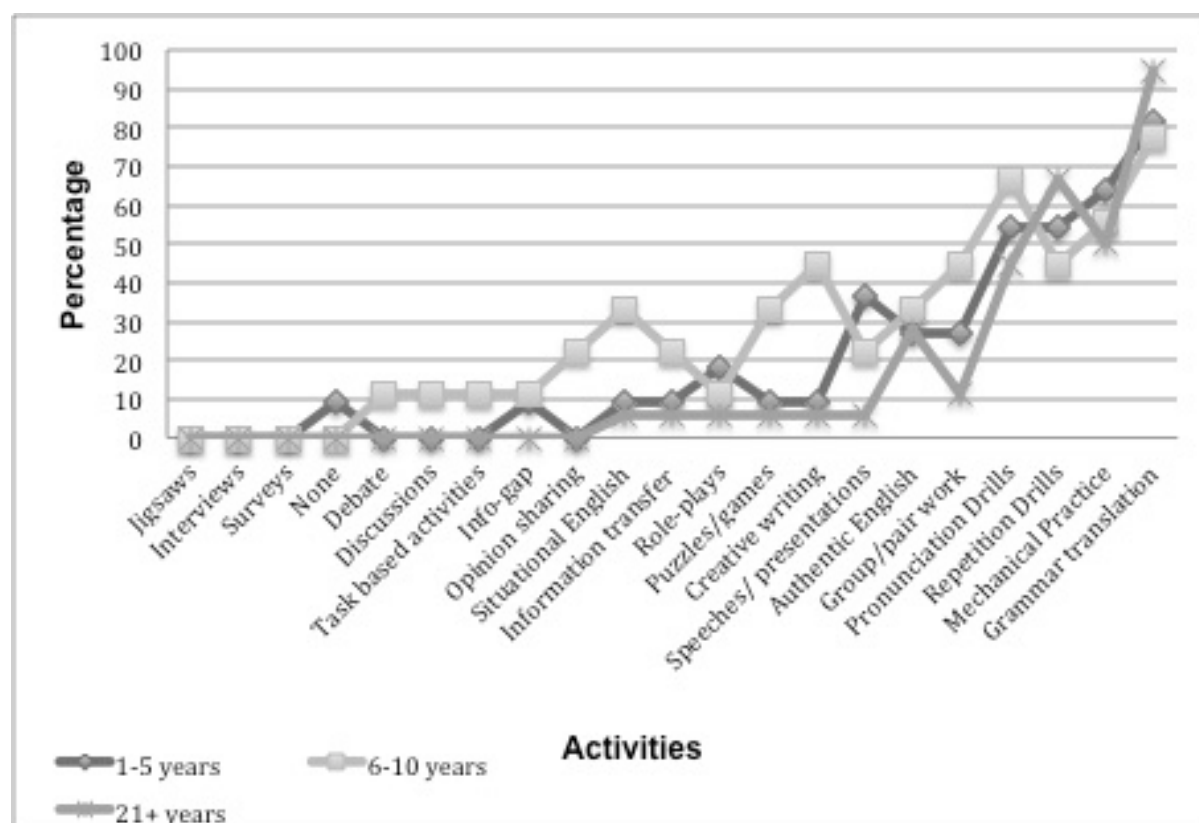


Figure 1: Early and Late Career JTEs Experience of Classroom Activities as Students

These results mirror Table 3. However, they show differences in the extent to which output promoting occurred. JTE (O) experienced no communicative activities, however the student teachers reported the many:

(B) *“The teachers prepared ‘active learning’ activities like debate, we practiced pronouncing words...and we learned how to write essays”*

Major activities undergone as students have remained similar regardless of experience, although communicative activities have become slightly more commonplace.

Important English Skills for Participants’ Teachers. Respondents identified reading, grammar, vocabulary, and accuracy as the most important areas for their

teachers. Speaking, fluency, listening and pronunciation were the least important. Table 4 shows their responses ranked by mean value.

#	Skill	1) Not Imp orta nt	(2) Slightly Import ant	(3) Import ant	(4) Very Import ant	(n)	M ea n	Mi n	Ma x	SD
8	Fluency	5	17	18	3	43	2.4 4	1	4	0.8
9	Accuracy	1	12	24	6	43	2.8 1	1	4	0.7
5	Pronunciation	3	6	18	17	44	3.1 1	1	4	0.8 9
4	Speaking	1	8	17	18	44	3.1 8	1	4	0.8 1
2	Writing	2	6	16	20	44	3.2 3	1	4	0.8 6
6	Grammar	0	6	15	23	44	3.3 9	2	4	0.7 2
3	Listening	1	6	10	27	44	3.4 3	1	4	0.8 2
7	Vocabulary	0	6	12	26	44	3.4 5	2	4	0.7 3
1	Reading	0	1	13	30	44	3.6 6	2	4	0.5 3

Table 4: Mean Ranking of Perceived Importance of Skill Areas
Interview data substantiated these findings:

(O) *“We learned English only for the entrance examination”*

These findings suggest that the university exam affected the JTEs’ teachers’ priorities.

University and In-Service Teacher Training. Participants were asked if they agreed with statements about their teacher training, to examine links with attitude formation. Table 5 shows their responses. There were few chances to teach practice CALT lessons. The interview data seem to partially support these findings. Early career JTEs like (E) and (K) and student teacher (B) reported learning of CALT theory at university, but had no chance to apply these theories in real classrooms during training.

#	Answer	University Teacher Training (n)=25		In-Service Teacher Training (n)=30	
		Response	%	Response	%
1	Promoted CALT	17	68%	13	43%
2	Improved my skills of managing group/pair work	9	36%	20	67%
3	Provided materials for communicative activities	9	36%	15	50%
4	Provided chances to observe CALT lessons	6	24%	21	70%
5	Provided chances to give CALT practice lessons	3	12%	8	27%
6	Provided practical guidance from MEXT about CALT	0	0%	1	3%

Table 5: Respondents' Views of Teacher Training and CALT

(O) aside, interviewees' comments about university training in Japan were negative. Training had not helped them develop applicable skills. Authentic classroom practice with students was frustratingly absent. All three student teachers spent 1 academic year abroad on their courses, as did (E). They had positive classroom experiences during their year abroad, including chances to practice in real classrooms. When asked whether the training in Japan or abroad had been better:

- (C) *"The U.S. I think. Because we just did demo lessons in Japan. In the U.S., I actually learned how to teach speaking, listening, error correction. So I could see, 'Oh, I should do it like this!' Specific strategies."*

These findings indicate that a potentially crucial role in attitude formation is played by practical experiences in the classroom during training.

Experience Living Abroad. The length of time JTE participants spent living abroad is reported in Table 1. An average participant spent around 6 months abroad. The interviews revealed profound cognitive impacts. (E) described how her experiences motivated her to keep using English, forcing herself to ask more questions in conversation. Her experiences also broadened her awareness of different styles of communication:

- (E) *“In Japan one person talks, the other person listens, and we never say anything right? In other countries when somebody speaks, then I speak. It's like catch ball [motions catching and returning a ball].”*

Encounters with ESL speakers made interviewees reflect on their own perceptions of the adequacy of non-native Englishes. (C) thought error-averse Japanese students could benefit from similar attitudes. Deep changes in outlooks towards education in Japan were also apparent. (H)'s experience at international school in Mexico made him want to become a teacher who gives students opportunities to speak and share opinions.

Impactful Experiences as Learners. Positively and negatively inspirational teacher figures left impressions. (H) talked about teachers who were strongly negatively inspirational figures. (K) favourably contrasted an elderly teacher who made a lasting positive impression with the majority of his teachers. (C) mentioned a particularly inspirational teacher:

- (C) *“I decided to be a teacher because of [her] actually... She communicated with native speakers very fluently. I felt, ‘Oh, I want to be a teacher like her!’”*

The impact such figures have on attitude formation may be important. Similarly, events or memorable activities may be crucial. (C) recalled a school English Camp:

- (C) *“I realised how poor I was at speaking English at that time. I just said, ‘Oh, really?’ in conversations but I just...reacted. I really couldn't talk about the things I wanted to talk about. I couldn't express my feelings, which was frustrating.”*

(E) described similar experiences at university, experiencing frustration at her reactive role. This realisation dramatically increased her motivation and encouraged her:

“That's what I found out, I always have to think, “What can I ask? What can I ask?” Or, you don't say anything. You always have to think of the next question, and that became my habit.”

In order to understand the attitudes that influence JTEs' classroom practice, it is crucial to look at key developmental experiences they have as learners.

Current Practices

Activities Used Today. Table 6 shows the regularity of reported current CALT use. The majority reported sometimes using CALT. Particular activities reported by participants are shown in Table 7, listed in terms of reported frequency. The most common activities focus on accuracy and linguistic competencies. Table 1, showing what classes participants teach, supports this.

Question	Never			Always	(n)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Do you use CALT principles, methods, materials or activities in your classroom?	1234				44	2.09	0.83	1	4
	9	26	5	4					
	(20%)	(59%)	(11%)	(9%)					

Table 6: Reported Frequency of CALT Use in Classrooms

The results in Table 6 and Table 7 indicate that participants felt they used CALT sparingly, reflected in the type of activities they reported using. The interviewees felt open towards choosing communicative activities at appropriate times and difficulty levels. (O) warned of the need for a nuanced approach when using CALT:

(O) *“At first we should teach them the basic knowledge of English before doing task-based activities”*

His comments about level appropriateness were echoed by (H). JTEs used CALT in their classrooms in a restrained manner, taking into account the needs of particular classes.

#	Answer	%	Frequency (n=41)
3	Interviews	0.00%	0
9	Jigsaw	2.44%	1
6	Other	4.88%	2
19	Surveys	7.32%	3
1	Debate	12.20%	5
17	Puzzles & Games	19.51%	8
13	Information Gap	19.51%	8
14	Discussion	21.95%	9
21	Information Transfer	24.39%	10
8	Task Based Activity	31.71%	13
16	Mechanical Practice	34.15%	14
15	Situational English	36.59%	15

10	Authentic Examples of English	39.02%	16
12	Creative Writing	41.46%	17
11	Opinion Sharing	41.46%	17
4	Role-Play	43.90%	18
7	Speeches/ Presentations	46.34%	19
2	Repetition Drills	56.10%	23
18	Grammar Translation	73.17%	30
5	Pronunciation Drills	85.37%	35
20	Group/ Pair Work	87.80%	36

Table 7: Reported Activities Used in Class as JTEs

Activities Comparison. Comparing Table 3 and Table 7 tells us how frequently activities experienced as learners were used as teachers. Most activities appear in similar positions. However, this may not present a wholly nuanced picture. Several JTEs insisted they always tried to inject communicative components into classes:

(O) *“I use a similar teaching style to my high school teachers, but I combine it with speaking activities as the students like to talk to each other.”*

(H) has students read and listen to each other, wants them to spend more time speaking than listening to him, and rarely translates. (E) tries to replicate an experience she had in the Netherlands and teach content using English.

CALT: Knowledge of Theory and Policy

Knowledge of CALT. Knowledge of CALT, and sources of knowledge are reported in Table 8.

Knowledge of CALT					
	Responses (n)=46		%	Mean	SD
Heard of CLT?					
	Yes	29	63	1.37	0.49
	No	17	37		
Heard of TBLT?					
	Yes	29	63	1.37	0.49
	No	17	37		
Sources of Knowledge					
	CLT			TBLT	

Source	(n)	%	Source	(n)	%
No Response	0	0	No Response	0	0
Teachers' Union Workshops	2	6.9	Course of Study	2	6.9
Other	3	10.34	Teacher's Manuals	2	6.9
Teacher's Manuals	3	10.34	Other	3	10.34
Other Teachers	4	13.79	Teachers' Union Workshops	4	13.79
BOE Seminars or Workshops	4	13.79	BOE Seminars or Workshops	5	17.24
TESOL Seminars	8	27.59	Other Teachers	7	24.14
Course of Study	10	34.48	TESOL Seminars	8	27.59
University Teacher Training	10	34.48	University Teacher Training	10	34.48
Books, Journals, Online	12	41.38	Books, Journals, Online	15	51.72

Table 8: Sources of CALT Knowledge

A majority of respondents and interviewees had heard of either CLT or TBLT, from similar sources. Some interviewees were able to give broad descriptions of CALT:

(E) *“Its mainly about communication, doing pair work, speaking out.”*

However, detailed knowledge was generally patchy. Of CLT, (C) believed it had something do with putting students in real situations. Others showed confusion between CLT and TBLT:

(K) *“If we can communicate, or you can deliver your message and the listener gets the meaning or gets what you want to say then that's ok?”*

Detailed TBLT knowledge was also patchy. (O), (A) and (C) had not heard of it. When asked to define TBLT, both (E) and (H) were able to identify the group problem solving aspect.

CALT: Beliefs

Importance Placed on English Skills by JTEs. Table 9 shows the importance participants placed on skill areas. The responses are ranked by mean value. It shows that areas of linguistic competency such as grammar and receptive skills such as reading were considered the most important.

#	Skill	(1) Not Important	(2) Slightly Important	(3) Important	(4) Very Important	(n)	Mean	Min	Max	SD
8	Fluency	5	17	18	3	43	2.44	1	4	0.8
9	Accuracy	1	12	24	6	43	2.81	1	4	0.7
5	Pronunciation	3	6	18	17	44	3.11	1	4	0.89
4	Speaking	1	8	17	18	44	3.18	1	4	0.81
2	Writing	2	6	16	20	44	3.23	1	4	0.86
6	Grammar	0	6	15	23	44	3.39	2	4	0.72
3	Listening	1	6	10	27	44	3.43	1	4	0.82
7	Vocabulary	0	6	12	26	44	3.45	2	4	0.73
1	Reading	0	1	13	30	44	3.66	2	4	0.53

Table 9: Mean Ranking of Perceived Value of Skills Among JTEs

When comparing Table 9 and Table 4, many of the skills occupy similar positions. However, there were statistically significant differences in relative perceptions of importance. The mean score of the importance of speaking increased from 1.31 to 3.18. Independent t-tests found that speaking, fluency, listening, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and reading were all considered significantly more important than they had been for their own teachers. Accuracy was significantly less important to the JTEs than they felt it had been for their own teachers.

These data show complex links between experience, beliefs and practices. For example, Table 4 showed that accuracy was important to JTE's high school teachers. Today, accuracy was rated relatively unimportant to JTEs. However, their choice of activities noted in Table 9 shows that JTEs often choose repetitive activities like drills, emphasizing accuracy. Early learning experiences may contribute to later attitude formation and practices in ways JTEs are not aware of. This may indicate that links between JTEs' experiences as learners, beliefs and practices are affected by situational factors.

Influences on CALT Use

Factors that influence CALT use. Table 10 shows factors influencing CALT use in class, the most important being proximate, classroom level concerns. Class size was top, and the MEXT Course of Study was ranked as least important. The most important factors were rooted in structural features of the education system: too many,

de-incentivized students, too little time and not enough meaningful support in the form of professional development or usable pre-made materials.

#	Question	(1) Not Import ant	(2) Slightly Importa nt	(3) Importa nt	(4) Very Importa nt	Fre que ncy	Me an	M i n	M a x
7	MEXT's Course of Study	16	18	4	4	42	1.9	1	4
4	University Exam Preparation	10	11	12	10	43	2.5	1	4
3	Assessing Performance	5	15	17	6	43	2.6	1	4
10	School Support	3	13	15	13	44	2.9	1	4
2	NET's Presence	3	11	13	17	44	3	1	4
11	Teacher Training	2	8	16	17	43	3.1	1	4
8	Student Appropriateness	2	8	14	19	43	3.2	1	4
1	Access to Materials	2	6	15	21	44	3.3	1	4
6	Classroom Management	1	5	17	20	43	3.3	1	4
9	Student Motivation	2	3	10	29	44	3.5	1	4
12	Time	1	1	17	25	44	3.5	1	4
5	Class Size	0	3	12	28	43	3.6	2	4

Table 10: Mean Ranking of Factors Affecting the Decision to Use CALT

Factors that would enable CALT. Participants explained what would help them use CALT more. Their responses were coded by theme and put into Table 11. Most responses fitted the trends shown in Table 10. However, one disparity was that the university exam had been rated as only (2) Slightly Important, and yet Table 11 shows the essential role it played. If communicative activities were to be introduced more widely, then the university entrance exam needs to reward communication in order to increase student motivation.

#	Problem	Basic Themes	Solution
1	Materials	Current materials do not inspire, and are not appropriate. No pre made assessment schemes.	Make more materials available
2	NET	Without a NET, JTEs can't give enough explanation. NETs bring different perspectives. Interacting in English with the NET is pleasurable.	
3	Assessment	Quantifying students' progress is difficult. Dependent on the teacher's experience.	
4	University	The biggest indicator of our success or failure. No communicative component. Students demand we teach to the test. Grammar drills and translation achieve higher scores. Communication reduces exam performance.	Reward communication in the entrance exam.
5	Class Size	Average class size is 40. Exchanging opinions, etc. is impossible in classes of this size.	Reduce size to 10 at best, 20 at most.
6	Classroom Management	Maintaining control is hard. Can't monitor communication easily. Communication classes are too playful.	
7	Appropriateness	Care and time are needed to adapt. Many students lack the language ability to vocalize their thoughts.	
8	Motivation	Motivation is key. If an activity isn't geared toward university exams, many won't be motivated. Students feel embarrassed and nervous speaking English. Japanese students are not good at self-directed communication.	Training in how to raise motivation. NETs in class. Smoothly acclimatize students to communication.
9	Support	Needs lots of teamwork and co-ordination. JTEs have many competing duties. Academic schools can't dedicate resources.	
10	Training	Many teachers don't know about CALT or how to use them. Practical case examples are limited. Many JTE's communication skills are too limited.	

11	Time	Creating materials and preparation takes too long The payoff doesn't justify the time spent. Students are under time pressure already.	Practical training, seminars, materials that help us visualize how to implement these classes would make more JTEs keen.
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Table 11: Site-Dynamics Matrix of JTEs Beliefs About Choice Factors for CALT

Many interviewees mentioned student motivation. (A) noted that many students might simply not be interested in English enough to want to participate in demanding communicative activities. (H) added that communicative activities may be unsuitable for typically error-averse Japanese students:

(H) *"I'm Japanese and I'm afraid of making mistakes, even if I'm trying not to show it *laughs*."*

(B) and (K) described concerns about the university exam. (K) remarked that for third year students, communicative activities could be de-motivational and feel like wasted time. He added:

(K) *"We need to be very careful when we teach those communication skills."*

The lack of assessment of communicative skills on the university exam is a key disincentive for JTEs, indicating tensions with MEXT policy.

Discussion

The findings validated conclusions on the nature of JTEs knowledge and beliefs about CALT, and factors influencing those beliefs, made by previous studies of CALT in Asia, like Butler (2011) and Littlewood, (2007). The findings indicated links between participants' experiences, beliefs and practices, providing substantiation for the relevance of teacher cognition studies of classroom practice. Most importantly, the findings newly highlighted current trends and dynamics occurring with CALT implementation in Osaka prefecture.

The Experience Gap

Looking at Table 1 and 2, many participants were either late or early career. Only 1 mid-career interviewee could be found. Long-term demographic changes in Japan may have had a negative impact on teacher hiring. This has implications for education in the prefecture, and might explain the experience gap that arose in the study.

Yamazaki describes how urban centres experienced drastic changes over the 20th Century. In the post-war period, there was high teacher recruitment. However, from the latter half of the 1980's onwards, average ages increased and the birthrate

decreased. Accordingly, Yamazaki notes that compared to around 3000 new teacher hires in Osaka prefecture in 1974, there were only 79 teachers hired in 1988.

Over the next ten years, teachers in Osaka who were hired in the 1980's will start retiring. If hiring does not increase, there will not be enough mid or early career teachers to replace them. Osaka has started hiring more new young teachers to address the impending experience crisis. The prefecture hired 85 new high school English teachers in 2015 alone. These trends are reflected in the skewed demographics in this study, and may account for anomalous results: there are simply fewer mid-career teachers.

RQ1: How do JTEs view their own approaches to English teaching?

JTE participants saw their classroom choices as driven by students' needs, and their judgments of appropriate teaching tools. As with their predecessors, participants taught a lot of grammar and reading classes in Japanese, using a small set of explicit instruction techniques to encourage noticing of grammatical structures and improve accuracy. That said, increasingly JTE participants are more eager and able to teach students in English about using English, not to only teach knowledge about the language in Japanese. Participants recognized that students enjoy communication, and that it has a place in their classrooms. Participants use more supplementary communicative activities at appropriate times in their classes than ever before.

Irrespective of student level, JTEs face the same problems: motivation and needs. What students feel they need from English class determines their motivation. Blanket decrees from MEXT for JTEs to encourage communicative English may not match how JTEs perceive the students' needs and wants. There is little alignment between these perceptions and what MEXT tells JTEs that students need. This relates to how JTEs see their own approaches to teaching because these findings suggest their own educational experiences help develop a 'value calculus'. From this, JTE participants may approach a class with views about their students' short and long-term learning needs and motivations. Then, they make calculations about what and how to teach. Participants feel that students applying to university do not currently need communicative skills to succeed. Instead, they need a rigorous command of grammar structures, good translation skills and a wide vocabulary. In the past this incentivized many teachers to only choose activities that prioritize linguistic and receptive skills, and neglect communicative skills.

When interviewees were asked what qualities were needed in a successful teacher, they talk about driven, passionate individuals, who can motivate their students. On the questionnaire, motivation was also a commonly stated factor. Participants see their approaches to teaching English in terms of their role as motivational facilitators; energizing students into achieving whatever English language learning goals are within their grasp. Participants select a needs-appropriate blend of communicative and linguistic oriented activities and methods.

RQ2: What do JTEs know and believe about communicative approaches to language teaching?

There was a lack of clarity on the specifics of CALT. However more, younger teachers were increasingly aware of CALT. As was shown, growing numbers of younger JTEs will soon be the majority in Osaka prefecture after the current cohort of

late-career JTEs retire, which may imply this trend will continue. Even if participants were unclear on specific details, there was guarded support for CALT. Used in suitable quantities, participants felt CALT have a place in their classrooms.

Beliefs about appropriate levels of CALT use differ. The results of this study confirm research such as Borg (2003), Numrich, and Kiss, showing how teachers' experiences as learners have complex interactions with cognition and practice. Specifically, participants' judgements of student motivation or appropriateness are situated within the context of broader structural restraints imposed by the current assessment system. Furthermore, the results confirm previous teacher cognition studies like Nishino (2012) and Richard et al., showing how the development of participants' values, which underlie beliefs and determine consequent pedagogical choices, are deeply affected by foundational experiences. These may inform teachers' beliefs and practices.

RQ3: What factors do JTEs believe would help them implement CALT in their classrooms more effectively?

Participants felt that a wide array of acute and systemic changes was needed. First, class sizes would need to be reduced to make communicative activities easier. Second, professional development practices need improvement. Participants need more hands-on, in class experience actually using CALT, alongside advice about applying CALT in their context. In this regard, the results of this study substantiated those of Mori (2012), which showed the importance of teacher cognition studies for improving professional development practices in Japan. Hiring more teachers may give JTEs time to attend to other pastoral responsibilities. Finally, the results showed that many participants believe that the university exam needs reforming, to assess listening, speaking, reading and writing equally. JTEs felt that no individual change alone would make it easier to use CALT. Broad revolutions are required.

Conclusion

Demographic shifts have been occurring in this prefecture in Japan. More, younger JTEs were more likely to have had some positive experiences with communicative language use as learners than their older counterparts. JTE participants also seemed more knowledgeable and likely to hold positive beliefs about CALT today than they might have done in the past. Beliefs and values greatly determine classroom practice. Developed over a participant's lifetime of educational experiences, these beliefs inform teaching. The changes in JTE participants' classroom practice shown here, thus provide substantiation for this relationship. If MEXT truly wants to encourage more communicative English language use, then considering how to positively change the beliefs of its teachers may be more beneficial than new policy initiatives.

Two practical ways to do this became apparent. The first, and most important, is that MEXT needs to change the system of incentives surrounding communicative English use. Between 1990 and 2014, annually over 90% of high school graduates took the university entrance exam. By changing the nature of the exam to equally assess communicative skills, more students of all ability levels may be incentivized to try harder at communicative activities. Assessing productive English use would alter the motivational calculus for students and teachers, potentially changing beliefs. The second thing shown in this study is that providing more opportunities for authentic

practice can only be a positive thing. For Japanese teachers, the more time spent in the classroom and actually doing communicative lessons is far more valuable than just learning about how to do them. However, in the end the demographics of the teaching population may do more for the success of CALT in this regard than MEXT ever could.

The Way Forward and Future Avenues of Study

This study is one of the first in the English language literature to link teacher cognition, successful implementation of CALT and demographic changes in Japan. There is an opportunity for further longitudinal studies of the rapidly changing demographic landscape of the teaching population. Such studies could better examine impacts of demographic changes on beliefs about teaching communicative skills in Japan, and assist efforts to improve the teaching of communicative language skills.

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Blended Learning for In-service Teachers' Professional Development: Lessons from the Experience of a Singaporean Chinese Language Teacher Educator

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Abstract

Traditional face-to-face workshop is a common avenue for the professional development (PD) of in-service teachers. Chinese Language (CL) teachers in Singapore also attend such workshops frequently. Research has however shown that such workshops often failed to establish sustained learning and produce little impact on teachers' practice, as well as students' achievement. To address this efficacy issue, a blended learning workshop for CL teachers was designed and conducted. Specifically, this study examined the experience of designing and implementing blended learning as seen through the eyes of a Singaporean teacher educator. This teacher educator had gone from being a participant to becoming an instructor of blended learning workshop. The role switching of the individual in different settings allowed acquisition of deeper insights into blended learning workshop as a PD approach. The considerations of the instructor, and the challenges she faced during design and implementation were described. The significance of this research lies in the lessons from the findings that could be useful for consideration when blended learning teachers' professional development workshops for better outcomes are to be designed.

Keywords: blended learning, professional development, course design, in-service teachers, Chinese language teachers

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Introduction

With the rapid advancement of information and communication technologies (ICT), professional development of teachers sees a shift towards more self-directed form requiring a change in the ways of learning some teachers have adhered to for decades. Some profound changes are noted in many studies at the micro level of learning activities that harnessed the affordance of ICT. For example, learning in the context of social media has become highly self-motivated, autonomous and informal (Dabbagh, & Kitsantas, 2012; McGloughlin & Lee, 2010; Smith, Salaway, & Caruso, 2009). Learners are also taking greater responsibility for learning (Vaughan, 2007), and engaging in more reflective practices and critical discourse (Shaw, 2015). Harnessing ICT, blended learning is one approach that contributes to these shifts in teachers' professional development workshops. Advantages of blended learning identified by scholars include its transformative potential (Graham & Robison, 2007; Garrison & Kanuka, 2004), and its ability to enhance self-regulatory and self-efficacy of participants (Matheos, Daniel, & McCalla, 2012; Shea & Bidjerano, 2010; Gulbahar & Madran, 2009). Blended learning, where online and face-to-face instruction intersects, seems to take advantages of merits of both modalities. It has arisen as a promising approach for teacher's professional development (PD) now that the Internet is widely accessible by teachers. Blended learning in teachers' PD can potentially overcome limitations such as one-size-fits-all and transmissionist teaching found in traditional face-to-face workshops. Although there is a recent emergence of blended learning studies for teachers' PD with useful findings reported (for e.g. Belland, Burdo, & Gu, 2015; Matzat, 2013; Tondeur, Van Laer, & Elen, Philipsen, Zhu, Van Laer, & Pareja Roblin, 2016), descriptions of the design of PD and the learning environment enculturated by the designs were somewhat scarce. There is also little information about instructor's growth in the process of conducting blended learning workshops. To contribute to conversations over these gaps, the design of blended learning workshops, as a mean to advance Chinese Language (CL) teachers' professional development, is conducted by a teacher educator in this paper. Through her eyes, the considerations by a teacher educator, who has gone from being a participant to becoming an instructor of blended learning workshop, are examined. To guide this inquiry, the following research questions are explored from the perspective of the workshop instructor:

1. What are the considerations for designing a blended learning workshop?
2. What are the personal learnings derived from the designing blended learning workshop?

A Review of Blended Learning Literature

In recent years, researchers and educators have been touting the benefits of blending online and traditional face-to-face learning. Blended learning has moved into the centre stage of higher education and progressively into professional development

programmes. According to Graham (2006), definitions of blended learning include, (1) combining instructional modalities (or delivery media), (2) combining instructional methods, and (3) combining online and face-to-face instruction. Our research adopts the third definition. Potentials of blended learning highlighted in many empirical studies and meta-analyses include flexibility of time (Graham, 2006; Ocak, 2010), self-pacing and assess (Jun & Ling, 2011; Sardesai & Kamat, 2011), elimination of time, place, and situational barriers (Kanuka, Brooks, & Saranchuck, 2009). Many studies stated that blended learning should not be narrowly defined as the combination of the two modalities (Caner, 2009; O'Toole & Absalom, 2003; Patrick & Sturgis, 2015; Picciano, 2009). Instead, the designers should consider these channels' demonstrated merits for desired outcomes during integration (O'Toole & Absalom, 2003). Moreover, learning experiences are diverse due to the many components (e.g. pedagogy, knowledge accessibility, personal agency and social interactions) of blended learning that can impact learning environment (Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003). Therefore, a fundamental redesign of learning and teaching is required (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004). Our study seeks to contribute to existing research by further exploring the factors that shape a blended learning environment.

In the area of teachers' PD, traditional face-to-face workshops are common. The impact of such workshops is often weakened when the teachers return to their busy routine work. Often delivered in disconnected sessions, such PD programme is less effective in transforming teacher's behaviour or affecting students' learning (Hellmig, 2008). Blended learning, as a relatively new form of PD, is said to address these issues (Alayyar, Fisser, & Voogt, 2012; Gynther, 2016; Kuo, Belland, Schroder & Wallker, 2014; Means, Toyama, Murphy, & Baki, 2013; Onguko, 2013). However, blended learning PD's outcomes and viability are also being debated. Steiner, Paul, Robert, David, and Laura. (2016) illustrated a blended learning PD for high school science teachers that was later described as having a beneficial impact on engaging teachers, deepening their understandings and connecting them with resources. Ho, T. V., Nakamori and Ho, B. T. (2014) added that knowledge was co-created through activities that facilitated and maintained the training as a continuous and long-term process. However, the insight from a case study by Boitshwarelo (2009) revealed a discouraging low participation in the workshop due to lack of adequate ICT skills and confidence besides constraints of the workplace (including culture, administrative support, ICT access). Another study showed that blended learning participants were less likely to be transitioning to, or practising new strategies as they cited not able to reasonably use in the classroom (Leake, 2014). Other issues raised were increased cognitive loads (Ellis, Steed, & Applebee, 2006), learners' readiness to engagement (Donnelly, 2006) and extra effort and time investment (Benson, Anderson, & Ooms, 2011). The abovementioned learners' outcomes were nevertheless, subjective in nature.

To seek further understanding of these issues, some scholars examined the views and perspectives of blended learning instructors (Belland, Burdo, & Gu, 2015; Jeffrey,

Milne, Suddaby, & Higgins, 2014; Jokinen, & Mikkonen, 2013). Critical issues and principles to the instructional practices of instructors were reported in these studies, but the personal learning of the instructor as a designer during this process appeared to be less explored. An early study of Ellis, Steed, and Applebee (2006) showed that instructors conceptualised blended learning very differently during implementation. Similarly, Gedik, Kiraz & Yasar Ozden (2013) demonstrated that joint use of two environments (face-to-face and online) entailed new design approach that requires harmonisation of both environments, with the need to evolve pedagogy that is tailored to focus on the aims of learning. It would be challenging for an instructor to manage the transition of traditional face-to-face delivery into more complex facilitation that blended learning requires. da Luz Correia, Mauri and Colomina (2013) suggested that special expertise of instructor is needed in the meaning-making process. An instructor is expected to carefully plan and design to ensure the blending of face-to-face and online practices, (1) support the learning outcomes (Jokinen & Mikkonen, 2013); (2) develops new designs for instruction and course delivery (Mccown, 2010; Mohanna, Waters, & Deighan, 2008), and (3) promote engagement of learners (Kliger & Pfeiffer, 2011).

The Current Blended Learning Workshop Design

To actively engage teacher participants during the workshop and to answer the call to shift away from a transmissionist approach, the design of the workshop in this study adopted a social constructivist view of learning (Vygotsky, 1986). Learning is anchored on social interactions aimed at constructing the community's knowledge. As such, the role of workshop instructors is less of a teacher giving direct instructions but more of a facilitator of learning. This switching of instructor roles may require a change of the instructor's epistemic beliefs about learning and teaching to provide transformative instruction, rather than merely exposing participants to available resources through a top-down dissemination. For the use of ICT in blended learning to be effective, an instructor needs to clarify the purpose of the course and make explicit the adopted pedagogical principles (Sharp & Oliver, 2013).

The current workshop was designed to encourage more instructor-to-learners and peer-to-peer interactions. In the 10-hour workshop spanning two weeks, there were two face-to-face sessions, one at the beginning, and one at the end. Online interactions were carried out in between these face-to-face sessions (Figure 1). Suggested dates to guide the posting and responding in the discussion forum were laid out in a timetable. During the face-to-face session, the instructor would first lead learners to discover some topics of interest related to a central theme through spontaneous discussion. Subsequently, the online platforms served to extend and continue the class discussions online. Two online platforms were used: a discussion forum for threaded discussions, and a Facebook group for learner reflections. Ground rules aimed at encouraging online interactions among participants were also introduced. For example, a *24-hour rule* stipulated that participants were expected to provide a reply response within 24

hours of receiving any comment left by their peers; a *post-1-reply-2 rule* was introduced to initiate and sustain discussions. The course participants were in-service primary school Singapore CL teachers.



Figure 1. The blending of interactions in a workshop

Research Methodology

The case study method (Merriam, 2009) was adopted in the current study. Rose (pseudonym), a lecturer of the Singapore Centre for Chinese Language (SCCL), was the subject of study. She had previously attended blended learning workshop, conducted by the second author, as a learner. Subsequently, for the first time, she used the approach as an instructor. As a former learner, she was familiar with what she could potentially gain from such blended learning workshop, and she could predict the enablers and barriers to the success of implementation. As a teacher educator, she was very accustomed to conducting traditional workshops focused on knowledge transmission. To facilitate the blended workshop based on the social constructivist way of learning, she had the need to reexamine her existing skills and make adjustments for the approach.

The current study closely examined Rose's experience of designing and conducting a blended learning workshop. Data sources included a face-to-face interview with the instructor, instructor's field notes, instructor's reflective notes, and discourse artefacts found during the workshop. Conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) of the collected data was carried out. To enhance the trustworthiness of the analysis, two members of the research team coded the data separately before getting together to discuss agreements in the categorisation and divergent opinions that have emerged (Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen, & Kyngäs, 2014). Triangulation of data from multiple sources was also exercised to enrich the findings (Rothbauer, 2008).

Findings

Based on analysis of the data, the relevant experiences of Rose that answered the research questions were presented in this section. The two main themes were namely, (1) workshop design considerations, and (2) instructor's personal frustrations.

Workshop design considerations.

The first theme that emerged was related to Rose's considerations in the design of the blended workshop. These considerations were founded upon Rose's past personal experience as a school teacher and participant of blended learning workshop. Firstly, a transition period for adoption of self-regulation habits was considered. Based on her experience, Rose was aware that teachers always faced a shortage of time due to their busy work schedule. As a result, Rose expected teachers to prioritise their school work over tasks related to their learning. To minimise procrastination, Rose created a Whatsapp group to send reminder messages in the hope of increasing response rate. She also provided a timetable of to-do tasks, and added the ground rules of interactions, and deadline information. Rose described her motivation as follows,

My way of doing it can be a kind of driving force, without intention to threaten the learners. Hopefully with this intervention, they will be willing to follow the instruction, rather than posting at their own wishes. Since I want the learners to enjoy process of learning, they might need some "pushing". When he is willing to post and see someone else's response, he can then enjoy the learning outcome while being encouraged to continue the act.

Overall, Rose was satisfied with the outcomes as learners were observed to be frequently posting and reflections were lengthy. In her other reflection, Rose considered how she could create a transition period to help learners to adapt to the new environment and regulate their learning processes:

My idea is that there is still a need for a period of transition from passive learning to autonomous learning before becoming an autonomous learner. This process requires that a crutch is to be obtained by the learner himself. Now, in addition to inform him that there is a crutch available for use, I will also remind him to use the crutch in time. Before he can feel the joy of self-determined learning, he has to go through this process. I think the teachers have no such ideas and habits, thus this reminder work is probably necessary.

In addition to lending support when needed, Rose also chose to provide limited spoon-feeding to the teacher participants,

My upbringing is also a process of being "spoon fed". I can truly understand expectations of teachers, and their hopes of bringing

something back after the workshop. If I am to attend a workshop, I will also share the same thoughts. This is why on the second face-to-face session, I have tried to balance the things and allow teachers to at least bring back what they have expected. During the second face-to-face, I have provided some practical examples for the teachers, but the process of “feeding” was not so straightforward through PPT presentation. I still asked questions in addition to giving examples, allowing other teachers to present their examples for the purpose of encouraging discussion. I believe that most of the teachers will feel “I did learn something” at the end of the course.

In the above actions, akin to knowledge transmission, Rose recalled her personal upbringing and learning experience and empathized with the teachers who would come to the blended learning workshop with expectations based on traditional workshops. Next, a climate of trust was purposely built as a trustful learning environment allowed learners to feel confident and accountable to each other during their interactions. As Rose said during her interview,

Obviously, the interactions I tried to enforce on the first face-to-face session helped them to find a common interest and topics. It played a role to help build relationship with unfamiliar people that eventually became co-learners to exchange ideas comfortably. During that particular face-to-face session, I had stressed to them that there would be nothing absolute, and we were all co-learners. I did not really demand them to produce outcomes of learning, for example submission of assignments. I think that all of these must be communicated in advance. Some teachers may hesitate to post openly about their thinking or ideas because we never have such a habit.

Setting the stage in the first face-to-face session was critical. Rose began by drawing on her prior experience as a learner. Firstly, she saw the importance of facilitator’s presence in supporting learners experiencing and transiting into an unfamiliar style of learning. Subsequently, a safe and low-pressure environment was needed for learners to express ideas and opinions more readily. To achieve this, Rose began with the communication of ground rules to encourage inclusive discussions. Following that, Rose attempted to create classroom equity by encouraging the expression of divergent views. Rose assured them that in this learning environment, there is no single right or wrong answer; learners should not be judgmental towards each other’s ideas. Although the deviation from the traditional knowledge transmission might render learners uncomfortable as they deemed little knowledge received, Rose allowed the presence of such discomfort. She believed that over time, learners would learn to accept such approach as they went through the workshop.

Thirdly, to tackle learners’ existing understanding of learning as Rose described,

During the class, we first communicate clearly the circumstances that might appear in this new learning approach, or “brain wash” them with how the class would be conducted, after which a question was entailed: “if your peer keep remain silent, do you think he will learn?” I am sure the teachers will answer “yes”. Teachers will then follow the way of thinking, and understand that those who not participate do not mean they learn nothing. From this experience, he learned that to train a student to become autonomous learner, one must first discover his own learning process.

As Rose predicted that most teacher participants lacked the experience of social constructivist learning in their formal education, it was crucial to facilitate discussions so that learners began to conceive alternative ways of learning (cf. transmissionist).

Lastly, an inquiry approach towards active learning was the key as Rose recalled,

The power of questions is infinite. The learners need to find out the problems and reflect on its relevance to their experience. Curiosity can drive them to figure out what is, for example, AFL (Assessment for Learning) in my class. They will try to sort out its meaning through internet searching. I feel that learners in my class more or less do well in this exercise. Some of them even find out books and try to recall what they have learned previously. I feel that my questions have encouraged them to find out answers. These questions are the driving force behind the attempts to transform them into autonomous learners.

In both face-to-face and online sessions, Rose promoted learners’ interactions through enculturating reflective inquiry practice. A blended learning setting afforded such practice within the virtual space, where more questions could be generated during the asynchronous interactions. Rose’s underlying intention was to encourage learners’ to think actively. Such an approach was subsequently observed to boost the intrinsic motivation of learners and helped to develop autonomous learners.

Instructor’s personal frustrations as a professional.

The second theme that emerged was related to Rose’s personal reflection from a professional perspective as she embarked on the journey of designing and conducting blended learning workshop. For instance, she described some personal struggles during her interview,

It was very painful. It was the pain of a senior instructor. Delivering course is something very familiar to me, it is not easy, but controllable. I can submit the course curriculum to the centre and start a class anytime, completely under my grasp. But blended learning is a concept, a complete subversion for a senior. From “known” to “ignorant” is kind of pain. This is just like one day somebody tells you suddenly that what you have learned is not something that I want now. You have to re-think how you deliver the course. Imagine our feelings.

In the above quote, Rose appeared to have undergone a period of perceived helplessness as she felt that the blended learning workshop required her to perform very differently from before. As a very experienced teacher educator who had conducted countless PD workshops for teachers, she felt subverted by blended learning as a PD approach. As Rose recalled some of these challenges,

The biggest challenge is the ability to synthesize the conversations of learners. For example, teachers put 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10 together on a plate; the facilitator has to consider whether to put 1,2,3 on a plate, and 4,5,6 onto another plate. In the shortest possible time, the facilitator must first complete classification. After the classification of the subject content, he has to sort out, integrate and put forward highlights that are more prominent. If a facilitator does not have a strong ability to synthesize, analyze and express, the course can hardly succeed, and hardly avoid falling back to traditional routine. Another challenge is to lead teachers to discuss during face-to-face sessions.

In the above quote, Rose found facilitation, as a process, challenging. Specifically, it was related to the synthesising of ideas found in the classroom discourse. As the participants were many, their ideas could be diverse. Rose felt the need to summarise these ideas to focus learners' attention on some key points during the face-to-face conversations. However, the learners were not the only persons gaining from this process as Rose recalled,

The added value of this blended learning course is the extended learning. I have prepared 1,2,3,4,5,6,7, but I may only teach 7,8,9, I may also need to find out 10,11,12. They are learning, and at the same time, so do I.

As seen in Rose's words, the instructor could observe personal growth in the process of facilitating learners' growth. This could have made the frustration not all negative. But very importantly, Rose recalled receiving peer support during this journey,

I'm very grateful to have two colleagues with experience to talk to, they have answered a lot of my doubts and resolved many uncertainties in perceptions. For example, many learners do not follow the post-1-reply-2 rule, from my perspectives, it will be like "they don't learn" or "they are not doing well", very much resemble a student who doesn't submit assignment. But my colleague guides me to think that although the learner doesn't express his view during class or post-1-reply-2, it doesn't mean that he learn nothing. This thought never came to me before, because I always assume that you will never learn if you don't follow the rules. This is the teachers' general thought.

In the above quote, a source of Rose's frustration was the apparent non-performance of the learners in online discussions. This is even though she had planned and clearly laid out detailed instructions for the teacher participants. In this case, Rose had

assumed that if instructions were not followed, learning could not take place. However, her frustration was resolved after hearing colleagues' different perspectives which helped her to look at the issue differently.

Discussion

This paper followed the journey of a blended learning instructor to described the considerations on workshop design and her personal learning outcomes. From her experience as a formal learner in the blended learning setting, she foresaw some issues that might emerge during the workshop. Taking preventive measures, she put in place practices that act as enablers towards shaping a desired blended learning environment. These included sending reminders and creating a timetable with to-do-list and ground rules to follow. Although participants welcomed the measures, the demand for self-discipline and time management skills in blended learning posed a challenge to some participants. However, the instructor was well aware that habits would require time to develop, especially when teachers are so used to transmissionist-styled workshops. Her actions served to reinforce the expectations associated with the workshop aimed at enculturating a community of autonomous learners.

Following her effort to establish engagement norms, the instructor noted that a transition period was required before meaningful active participations among learners could be achieved. A complete transition from traditional to blended learning mode would require an extended period. Since the current workshop occurred over a short limited duration, it was hard for teacher participants to be totally detached from what they had been experiencing usually. Moreover, learners' variability was uncontrollable and posed a sense of uncertainty to the instructor right from the beginning of course planning. Therefore, any instructor may feel more secure by mitigating the risk, in this case, through limited spoon feeding during this transition period.

Next, the instructor considered how to build a climate of trust and openness to encourage the social meaning-making in blended learning. Mutual respect and trust were keys to enhancing communication and diversity of thoughts. The several tactics used by the instructor included building rapport at the start of the class, and emphasizing on everyone's right to their personal views, in other words, no single right or wrong towards different perspectives during the first face-to-face session. Rapport is probably less examined because it is often unmeasurable (Dyfrenforth, 2014). The instructor's experience in this study, however, showed that building rapport appeared to be central to the overall blended learning experience.

Another theme emerging from this study was how facilitation of the workshop impacted the instructor-self. To increase learners' engagement and promote autonomous learning, the instructor had extensive forethoughts before the actual conducting of the workshop. Based on the instructor's experience, knowing how to

teach in a traditional workshop was indeed different from knowing how to conduct a blended learning workshop. It appeared that the instructor's personal learning occurred at several levels in the process of design and implementation. In the beginning, the instructor started with adopting strategies used in the previous workshop she had attended as a learner with some adjustments to fit the new workshop content. Professional growth was achieved when she reflected on her practices and intentionally introduced changes to respond to considerations during the design and implementation processes. However, the instructor perceived this as a *painful* process as she had to *unlearn* what she had been learnt and applied over the years of delivering courses. Also, as seen from the instructor's journey, it would take extensive preparation and efforts to design and enable dialectic discussion. Particularly, the use of questioning aimed at promoting dialectic discussions required careful planning and sequencing. Hence, we noted that the amount of time and effort spent in designing and facilitating blended learning might be significantly more compared to the traditional delivery approach.

Therefore, the professional development of new instructors coming on board to conduct blended learning workshop is critical. This would include preparing instructors for the impending challenges, both skillfully and psychologically. Of particular importance, perhaps is to provide the new instructors time to learn and explore this novel approach. The instructor in the current study was not under any pressure to perform, nor given any hard target to deliver. The instructor also highlighted the importance of a team learning approach for a beginner to blended learning. In the current study, the instructor had the support of more experienced colleagues who had conducted blended learning workshop. The instructors, new and old, came together to discuss and explored ideas on the design and revision of instructional activities. These included the blend structure of the face-to-face and online components, and the learning goals of the workshop.

Conclusion

In this paper, we took a quick peek at the learning of an instructor new to blended learning. While the process may not be as frustration-free as we would like to see, the new instructor had journeyed through various considerations during the design and implementation of blended learning. The expectation of workshop participants with a traditional view of learning was a key aspect to be managed in the process. The instructor could have given up on the journey if she had not received the support of more experienced colleagues coming together to work as a team in support. For institutions working on blended learning to advance teachers' professional development workshops, this paper presented some lessons for sharing and consideration.

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Special Filipino Curriculum (SFC): A Technology- Oriented Curriculum for Foreign Language Students

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Abstract

The technology-oriented curriculum aims to develop a program that aids students who speak foreign languages as they learn the Filipino subject. Its objectives are to look into the learners' needs; enumerate the competencies that shall be developed by the curriculum; and evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum of Special Filipino Class (SFC).

Teachers and students of SFC in Saint Pedro Poveda College were used in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD) in order to identify the topics to be developed in the curriculum while three experts in the field of curriculum and language evaluated the created course.

The results of the evaluation revealed that the foreign students who are studying the Filipino language give much importance in sharing their ideas and understanding of the people around them, thus making them more practical in choosing the lessons and activities to do. On the other hand, the second language teachers focus on the teaching of Filipino values and culture embedded in their lessons.

With these results, the infusion of technology was made to the strategies in teaching Filipino language to create meaningful activities for the students that will cultivate not only just their knowledge and skills about the topics they need to learn but also the underlying cultural values in using the language.

The study further recommends that there shall be a tracer study for the students who underwent the program to know the impact of what they have learned in the course on the field they chose after high school.

Keywords: second language, curriculum development, personalized education

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Introduction

Effective communication leads to diverse ideas that might help in making progress in the community, but in the instance that the language becomes a barrier for an individual to interact with the people around him; he faces a problem not just in understanding and expressing his ideas but also in establishing himself to the new environment where he is. The same context is what most of the foreign students are experiencing, especially when they go to the countries that speak a different language. It is where the well-aligned and well-planned second language curriculum is needed.

In the school system of the Philippines, Filipino is referred to as 1) a subject to be taught, and 2) a language to be used in teaching. It is a required subject in the Basic Education Curriculum of the Philippines as mandated by Article XIV, Section 6, Philippine Constitution 1987. Transferees from foreign countries and as well as students from international schools shall undergo a program that will help them hasten their learning of the Filipino language as directed by the Department of Education (DECS before) in its DECS Order No.26, s.1994. There is a great need for all the students in the Philippines, whether a Filipino or a foreigner, to learn the Filipino language because it is mandated by the curriculum and it is much needed as they stay in the Philippines.

In Saint Pedro Poveda College, there is a program that helps the foreign students to cope with the requirements of the Department of Education (DepEd) in learning the Filipino subject. However, there are significant factors that hinder the achievement of the program's purpose. First, there is a 'colonial mentality' in most of the Filipino families, especially those who belong to the upper class. This mentality creates a thinking that Filipino is an inferior language and only used by the lower class. Second, the students are not interested in the subject because most of the things they hear, see, or read are in English. Lastly, the current program of Special Filipino Class (SFC) did not undergo a study that may produce students that either have a weak foundation or have a slow progress in learning the Filipino language.

The main objective of the program is to provide assistance to students who speak foreign languages as they learn the Filipino language. The other objectives mainly focus on looking into the learners' needs; identifying and distinguishing the competencies that shall be developed by the curriculum; and evaluating the effectiveness of the curriculum of SFC to the students.

The following three main points became the foundation for developing the curriculum: (1) philosophy to establish, (2) competencies to develop, and (3) content to teach. To meet the objectives set for the study, further research was done through different literature that may help in the development of the curriculum as seen in Figure 1.

The study, which is qualitative in nature used a descriptive-developmental method. Since the major objective of the study is to create a suitable curriculum that caters the students' needs that will help them gear up to the 21st century learning through motivating second language learning approach, focus group discussion (FGD) and the survey were used to gather data among teachers and students of SFC under the High School Department. Topics that need to be developed by the curriculum were

identified by the teachers and students of SFC (AY 2015-2016). Thus, the curriculum was drafted. To make it more inviting for the students, challenging, interactive, and technology-oriented activities were made. Several activities were designed for each lesson to fit with students' varied interests and intelligences.

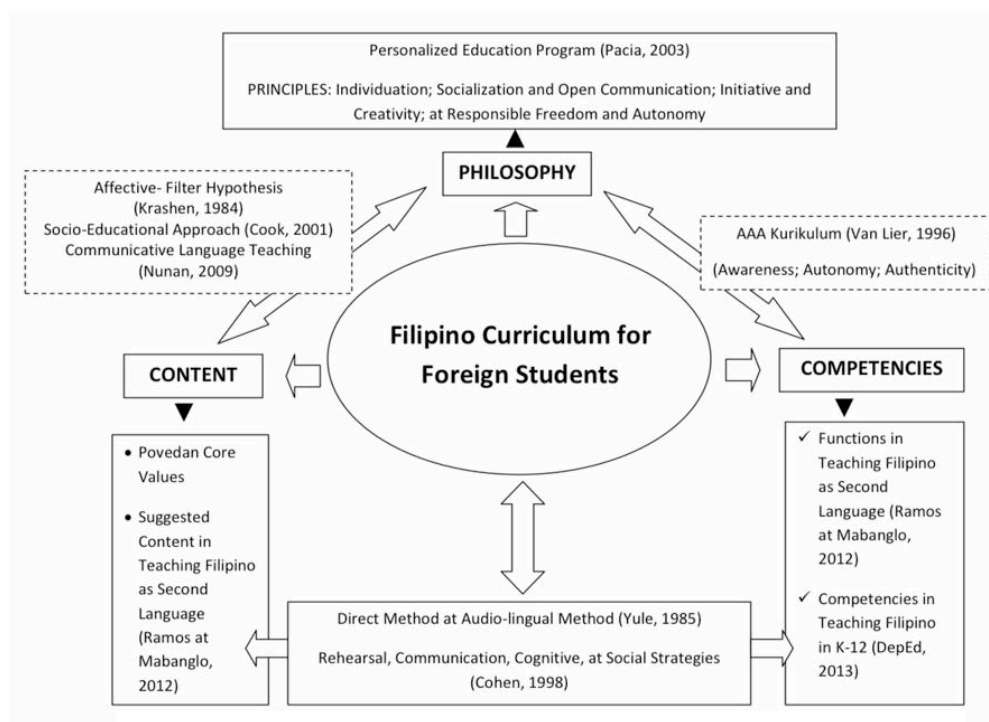


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Authentic materials were utilized to make learning more meaningful. Commercials, television shows, newspaper clippings, back label recipes are some of the materials used to show how Filipino language can be used in our daily lives. On the other hand, some of the activities were designed to make different iOS and Android applications and websites as useful tools in participative and interactive learning.

To arrive with the result of the study, a trial of a lesson from the curriculum that is appropriate for their level was done by the students of SFC (AY 2015-2016). Also, the teachers of SFC were able to review and make some comments and suggestions about the first draft of the curriculum. These recommendations were used to revise the curriculum. An evaluation of the entire curriculum was made by three specialists (Filipino language; Filipino subject Curriculum; Curriculum specialist).

For the curriculum's first objective which is to identify the needs of the foreign students in learning the Filipino language, the students and teachers agreed with different mean results that the lessons, concepts, and skills that are significant in their daily interaction are in the developed curriculum as shown in Table 1. Students also aim to cultivate deeper understanding of emotions in different situations happening around them in its cultural value.

The results of the needs analysis were validated by the teachers of SFC emphasizing on the Socio-Educational Approach of Cook (2001) regarding proper responding and expressing of ideas in different situations. The alignment of the curriculum was done in such a way that it followed the spiral curriculum design as shown in Table 2 regarding the focus of the different levels of the curriculum.

Skills	Mean	Interpretation
Speaking	3.63	Agree
Reading	3.60	Agree
Writing	3.03	Partially Agree
Listening	4.37	Agree
Watching	4.11	Agree
Overall Mean:	3.75	Agree

Table 1: Overall Interpretation of Needs Analysis (Students)

Level	Main Points
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To use the Filipino language (FL) to express thoughts and emotions in simple everyday conversation
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To use FL to get to know more about the people they interact with and have a deeper understanding of others
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To see the relationship between different statements and to share ideas that can be useful for others

Table 2: Focus of the Different Levels of the Curriculum

For the second objective of the curriculum which is the enumeration of competencies and identification of possible strategies and activities for each lesson, the researcher conducted an interview among the students of SFC apart from the survey on students' needs and further research on the essential competencies in second language learning. The results of the interview among the students highlighted the following strategies in the lessons they discussed that they find helpful to their learning: (1) learning FL alone or with a partner rather than in a big group; (2) using written materials, pictures, and different forms of media in their discussion; (3) checking of understanding through written exams and interactive games aside from dyads; and (4) understanding the culture that is incorporated with learning the FL in arts, beliefs and traditions. Lastly, the third objective was to evaluate the results of the curriculum. The result of the evaluation is shown in Table 3, as well as the comments and suggestions from the different groups of evaluators. Overall, the devised curriculum is favourable, if not highly favourable for the evaluators that make it a useful development in the field of teaching Filipino as a second language.

Evaluators	Evaluation
Students 3.67- Favourable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Vocabulary words and examples sentences help a lot so that they can use the words properly in communicating with others. ✓ Reading materials and videos are vital part of the lessons.
Teachers 4.53- Highly Favourable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Enhancing the use vocabulary words by creating more venues for the students to use it. (Application)
Experts 4.01- Favourable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Various activities were made to assess the understanding of the students. ✓ The Filipino sayings, if used properly can be a good spring board for deeper understanding of Filipino culture and to develop good values among students.

Table 3: Results of the Evaluation of the Curriculum**Conclusion**

The developed curriculum made the researcher realize the following conclusions: 1) For the students of Filipino as a second language (L2), the most important part of learning L2 is to interact with people using the language and understand the emotions that goes along with how they deliver the message; 2) Teachers play a vital role in making learning an interesting, memorable and worthwhile experience for the students without sacrificing the content or the competencies that are needed to be attained; 3) As the level of understanding and skills in L2 increases, there is a wider array of content that teachers can use to teach the language; 4) Vocabulary, values, and culture are the three main areas the teachers need to focused on as they teach Filipino as a second language; and 5) Teaching second language to foreign students can be interesting, especially in the part of students if we try to incorporate technology in how we teach our lessons; making it interactive and participative challenges and tests the creative thinking skills among the students employing technology as an effective tool in teaching the students of today- the 'Millennials'.

Based on the conclusions made from the study, the following are the recommendations for further and future research: 1) Make a research that focuses on strategies that can be used for the different needs and intelligences among students of foreign languages; 2) Create a list and make use of new applications or websites that can be utilized to promote an interactive and participative teaching-learning experience; 3) Strengthen the partnership among the family, school, and community in forms of gatherings, seminars, symposiums, and others to create a strong support group for the students; and 4) Produce a tracer study for students who undergo the SFC to see the implications or impact of the program in their chosen fields.

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Syntactic Variety and Writing Quality: An Investigation on EFL Students' Argumentative Writing

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Abstract

The variety of syntactic structure of sentences has regarded as an important indicator of sentence fluency and writing proficiency. However, previous research on the relationship between syntactic variety and text quality has failed to reveal consistent patterns. Therefore, this study aims to examine the relationship of a single measure of syntactic variety with the quality of argumentative writing. It is hypothesized that syntactic complexity increases with the proficiency levels. The greater complexity of sentence used in an essay, the higher the score of the essay will be rated. A sample of 30 TWE essays written by Chinese test takers at different levels are compared to 10 by native speakers. Essays rated as Chinese 4, 5, and 6 and Native 6 represent three different levels of proficiency. The results indicate that syntactic features, such text length, number of T-units, words per T-unit, words per clauses and numbers of subordinate clauses, tend to have positive relationship with writing holistic ratings. Finally, pedagogical implications are discussed on how to integrate syntactic variety instruction with other sentence-combing exercises in a writing classroom for second language writers.

Keywords: syntactic variety, argumentative writing, EFL writers

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Introduction

Writing has been a challenging task not merely for native speakers, but also for language learners to master. Both writing researchers and instructors in second language writing field have been devoted to exploring the elements and instructional strategies that contribute to effective writing. As stated in a document about teaching of writing by the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), writers should be “aware of stylistic options that will produce the most desirable impression on their reader” (2004). “Stylistic options” refers to syntactic structures and varieties applied in one’s text to get the message across. In addition, for many widely used writing proficiency tests, the evaluation of sentence construction is often as one indicator of a text’s quality that distinguishes groups of writers at different proficiency levels. In a summative description for TWE scoring guide (ETS, 2004), an essay scored 6 “demonstrates syntactic variety and appropriate word choice” whereas an essay scored 2 shows “serious and frequent errors in sentence structure or usage.”

In this study, it is hypothesized that several selected syntactic features, i.e. words per clauses, clauses per T-units, ratio of subordinating clauses to T-units, and other sentence-level features such as mean length of sentences, length of texts, represent different aspects of sentence complexity. Second, it is hypothesized that the measures of syntactic complexity are related to the quality of writing.

Literature Review

Measures of syntactic complexity

In composition research, syntactic complexity has been reported as one important variable that may influence the overall writing quality. In Beers and Nagy (2009), syntactic structure of sentences is an important component of writing fluency, and thus contributes to the flow of a text. In addition, using complex syntactic structures allows more succinct expression of complex ideas. In line with style guidebooks and ESL writing handbooks, researchers argue that the variety and the complexity of sentence structures will influence the effectiveness of the message conveyed. To be specific, a text that relies exclusively on simple and short sentence patterns is unlikely to leave readers with favorable impression. On the other hand, a text containing sentences that vary in length and style or to begin in different ways shows the writer’s intention to make use of a variety of syntactic structures.

In the 1960s, several studies on second language acquisition focused on syntactic complexity and variety in order to account for the developmental changes in learners’ writing. In a series of important studies by Hunt (1965, 1966, 1970), he argued that the syntactic complexity in writing revealed a positive relationship with age. In these studies Hunt used various measures of syntactic complexity, including sentence length, clause length, and ratio of subordinate clauses to all clauses. The most important contribution of these studies is that Hunt proposed a new measure—the T-unit, which is a more dependable and consistent technique of dividing writing into small units. Hunt identified T-unit as “minimal terminal syntactic unity”. The explanation on T-unit he proposed is as follows:

They [T-units] are terminable in the sense that it is grammatically acceptable to terminate each one with a capital letter at the beginning and a period or question mark at the end. They are 'minimal' in the sense that they are shortest units into which a piece of discourse can be cut without leaving any sentence fragments as residue...each is exactly one main clause plus whatever subordinate clauses are attached to that main clause (5).

It is reported that the average length of the T-unit correlates closely with the maturity of a learner's writing ability. In other words, the length of T-unit increases as writers mature. As a writer gradually masters sentence construction, there are two possible ways to account for the increase in T-unit length; one is to add more dependent clauses to the T-unit, and another is to lengthen the main clauses by adding phrases and words. For instance, in Hunt's studies, twelfth grade students produced more subordinating clauses than did fourth graders. Also, noun clauses and adjective clauses nearly or more than doubled in frequency in twelve graders' written texts. With regard to T-unit expansion by increasing the number of sub-clausal elements, Hunt concluded that older writers tended to use larger numbers of modifiers of nouns, such as genitives and prepositional phrases. Hunt's studies, especially the introduction of T-unit, have allowed for description of developmental features of learners' control over syntactic features and have also fostered numerous studies afterwards. Using T-units, sentences, and clauses as measures enables researchers to have objective, normative criteria for mature writing, and to identify syntactic characteristics responding to the quality of writing (Neilsen and Piché, 1981).

Research attempts to quantify syntactic complexity have focused on various sentence-level features, such as the number of words per T-unit, the number of words per clause, and the ratio of subordinate clauses to all clauses. The analysis of the study follows Hunt's measures of syntactic complexity: 1) clauses per T-unit, 2) words per clause, and 3) words per T-unit.

Subordinate clauses per T-unit

The ratio of clauses to T-units is to measure three types of subordinate clauses, noun, adjective, and adverb clauses. Texts with a higher ratio of clauses per T-unit would have more complex sentences, or sentences that have embedding with complex relationship among ideas. On the contrary, texts with lower ratio of clauses tend to have more simple sentence structures. It is assumed that the number of clauses per T-units increases when writers become elder and more mature. However, the increase was observed gradually and no significant differences were found between high school and adult writing. This result implies that the number of clauses per T-unit may not be a distinctive feature in written language. Instead, as shown in previous studies (Scott, 2004), it is a more significant characteristic in spoken language.

Words per clause

By measuring the length of clauses (in words), it allows writers to communicate information in a more concise manner. A more mature writer is able to condense information from multiple clauses into one single clause. As Hunt (1970) pointed out, there is a significant expansion in words per clause in written produced by high school students and adults than those produced by younger students. The highly condensed

clause structure is also recognized as a characteristic of academic writing.

Words per T-unit

A number of studies on syntactic complexity used words per T-unit or number of words as a measure (Ferris, 1994; Grant & Ginther, 2000; Scott & Winsor, 2000).

Syntactic complexity, genre and writing quality

In addition to the discussion of age and its relation with syntactic complexity, it has been reported that the measures of syntactic complexity are related with the genre of the writing. In a recent study, Beers and Nagy (2009) analyzed 41 seventh and eighth graders' essays of two different genres, narrative and persuasive. The results indicate that words per clause have a positive correlation with the quality of argumentative essays, but not for narratives. Clauses per T-unit is positively correlated with quality narrative, yet negatively correlated with the quality of essays. This study also showed one of the measures of syntactic complexity that contributes to the quality is clause-internal. That is, essays that are rated highly tend to have more clause-lengthening prepositional sequences. The influence of text genre on syntactic complexity is also reported in Ravid's (2005) study. The study examines the syntactic constructions in two different genres, narrative and expository, produced by 4th graders to adulthood. The results indicate that in expository texts numbers of the measure and longer clause length (words per clause) were found. One possible explanation is that different genres have distinctive communicative goals and thus writers need to achieve the communicative purpose through using different syntactic complexity as style. It is possible that in a genre that values more details and description, like narratives, writers would construct a text consisting of longer clauses.

As reported in Crowhurst (1983), studies on syntactic complexity have fallen into two orientations. The first way is to examine the relationship between syntactic complexity and writing quality (prediction/relationship studies). Second type is to study whether instruction on syntactic complexity could affect the writing performance. Crowhurst concluded that neither T-unit length nor clause length was a good predictor of writing quality. Second, sentence-combining studies may help to improve writing quality, yet the improvement did not result in the increasing of T-unit numbers and clause length.

Syntactic complexity and pedagogical implication

Sentence combining (SC) is a methodology technique frequently used in grammar and composition instruction. It is based on the premise that all of sentences generated from Kernel sentence structures "through a process which intuitive for native speakers of a language" (Davidson, 1997, p. 49). Deep structures can be combined through the transformational process to produce more complicated structures.

In 1980, experimental research recommended SC practice to increase in syntactic maturity, which contributing overall writing quality. The practice first started off for elementary and junior high school learners. In Morenberg, Daiker, and Kerek (1978), they designed a 15-week instruction on first-year college students in which SC activities were made to be exclusive content of the course. After 15 weeks, the

participants in the experimental group achieved significantly higher scores than students in the control group trained in a conventional curriculum. In many ESL writing guidebooks, sentence-level exercises are recommended to learners to improve the syntactic complexity in compositions. In Oshima & Hogue's (2006) *Writing Academic Writing*, it is clearly stated that effective writers make best use of all four kinds of sentence patterns, i.e. simple, complex, compound, and compound complex, to create the variety of sentences and also to make the text flow. On the other hand, the authors suggest that the use of compound-complex sentences, which are regarded as the most difficult patterns to master, is considered an indication of more mature writing style. Hunt's studies also recommended that the maturity of writing could be fostered by integrating sentence-combining practice into curriculum materials.

The present study

Also indicated by Beers and Nagy, the previous literature explores relationships between syntactic complexity and writing quality seem to yield inconsistent results. Also, limited research has offer pedagogical implication for writing instruction. By presenting descriptive statistics, this study examines the measures of syntactic complexity with respect to level of writing proficiency to see whether different proficiency groups reveal different patterns. It is hypothesized that the measures of syntactic complexity increase with the proficiency levels. Some pedagogical implications on integrating sentence-level practice in ESL writing class will also be discussed.

Methodology

The sample

The original sample consists of 40 TWE written by Chinese test takers and 10 written by native speakers of English. Essays marked as Chinese 3, Chinese 4, Chinese 5, Chinese 6, and Native 6, 10 essay samples per group, present three different levels of writing proficiency by two different L1 backgrounds. The essay prompt requires test takers to write an argumentative essay on the issue of whether teachers should make learning enjoyable and fun for their students.

Analysis

Each sample essay was first counted its word counts and numbers of sentences using the default word count function of *Word*. Then, each sentence was analyzed and coded manually using Hunt's T-unit, followed by marking the three types of subordinate clauses. The raw data were then computed in excel, which allowed me to do descriptive statistics. Before the raw data on all syntactic variables were calculated, the highest and the lowest number of each variable for every proficiency group were eliminated. The intent of excluding the outliers from both ends for each group is to ensure that the performance within groups is more homogeneous. In addition, since the study mainly reported descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation, the extreme cases may have a major influence the interpretation of the results. Table 1 listed the syntactic variables that this study examined.

Table 1. Syntactic variables examined in the present study

T-unit	One main clause + any subordinate clause or nonclausal structure that is attached to or embedded in it
Clauses	Main clauses + three types of subordinating clauses, i.e. noun clause, adjective clause, and adverb clause
Words per T-unit	Mean length of T-unit; the total number of words divided by the numbers of T-unit
Words per clause	Mean length of clauses; the total number of words divided by the number of clauses
Clauses per T-unit	Subordination ratio; The number of three types of subordinating clauses (adverb, noun, and adjective clauses) divided by the number of T-unit

Results and discussion

The analysis of the 50 TWE essays revealed differences among the essays with respect to score rating. Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations of essay length in terms of average sentence numbers and mean number of words and T-units. Min and Max number for each variable are also provided.

Table 2. Mean and Standard deviation for essay lengths and T-units

Syntactic features	Group	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Mean number of sentences	Chinese 3	8	9.63	2.07	8	14
	Chinese 4	8	13.00	3.34	10	19
	Chinese 5	8	15.75	2.49	11	18
	Chinese 6	8	13.13	2.19	10	17
	Native 6	8	15.63	2.62	11	18
Mean number of words	Chinese 3	8	159.13	20.05	134	201
	Chinese 4	8	209.25	32.23	194	256
	Chinese 5	8	267.75	43.65	219	334
	Chinese 6	8	277.38	56.02	210	386
	Native 6	8	291.63	24.12	263	345
T-unit	Chinese 3	8	11.38	2.88	9	16
	Chinese 4	8	14.88	3.76	10	21
	Chinese 5	8	17.13	2.45	13	21
	Chinese 6	8	15.13	3.31	11	21
	Native 6	8	18.25	2.06	15	21

With regard to text length and its relation with writing proficiency, Figure 1 presents a clear picture that there seems to be a tendency that the average sentence number increases with respect to groups Chinese 3, Chinese 4, and Chinese 5. The more proficient a writer is, the more sentences he/she can construct in a timed writing test. This is in line with lots of previous findings that proficient writers produce longer texts in timed writing. However, Chinese 5 revealed a different pattern in this tendency. The average numbers of sentence decreased in this group. The result

implies the mean length of sentence may not be a strong indicator that distinguishes different proficiency groups for the sample essays in this study.

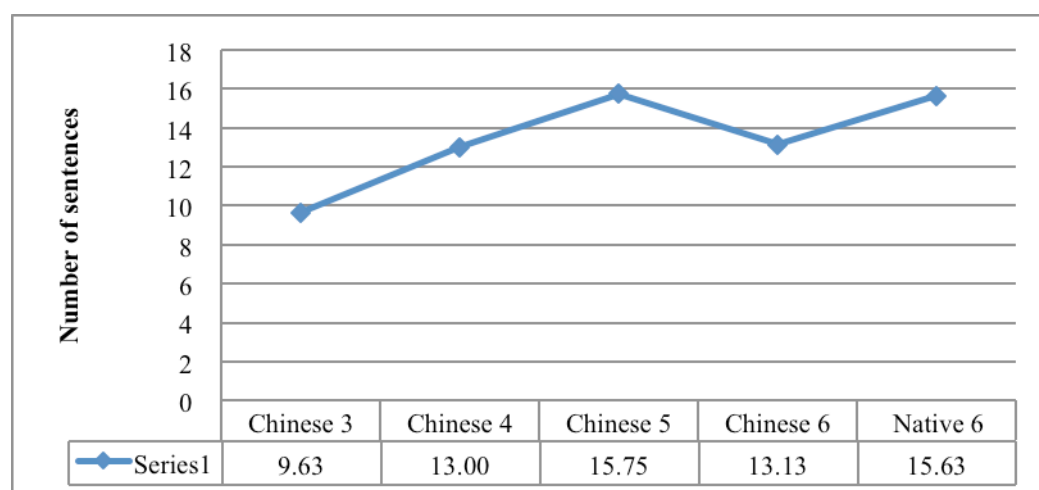


Figure 1 Mean length of text (in sentences) per proficiency group

The same with findings of mean sentence numbers, Figure 2 presents a clear increasing tendency of mean number of words as the writing proficiency gets higher. The increase is more salient from Chinese 3 and 4 while the increase becomes moderate for Chinese 5, Chinese 6 and Native 6.

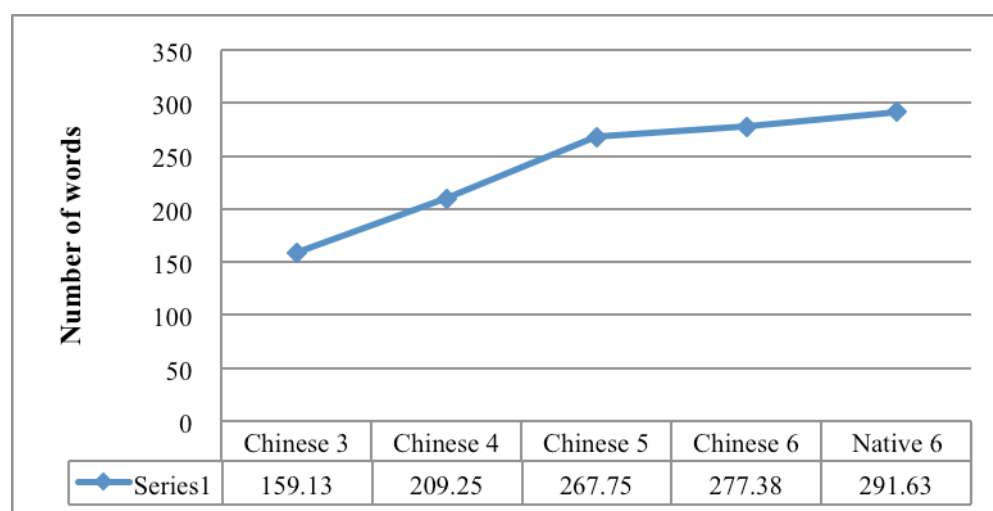


Figure 2. Mean length of text (in words) per proficiency group

Figure 3 presents the mean number of T-units per proficiency groups. There is a tendency of increasing on the number of T-units in higher rated essays. Yet, Chinese 6 revealed a different tendency of decreasing in the number of T-units. The finding is in consistent with the average number of sentences.

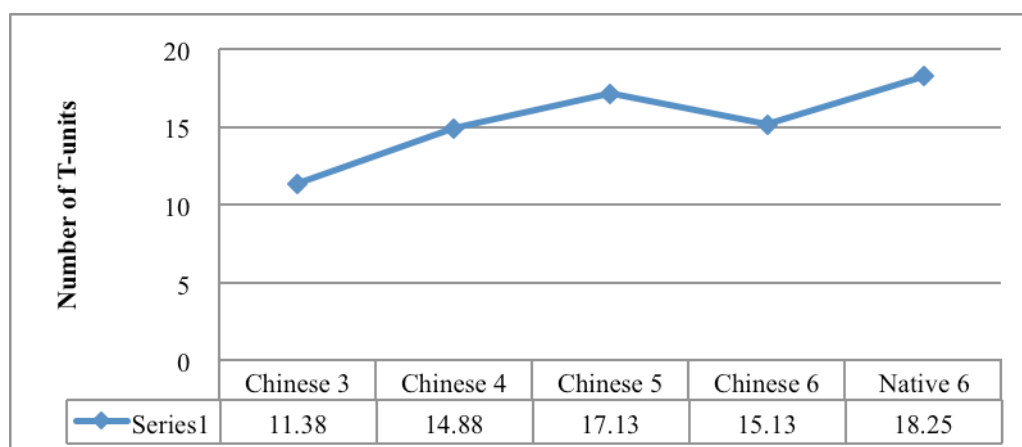


Figure 3. Mean numbers of T-units

Figure 4 presents results of the mean number of words per T-units, words per clause, and clauses per T-unit. As seen in the line graph, the words per T-unit and words per clause revealed a similar pattern; that is, the numbers of these two measures go up for Chinese 4, 5, and 6. Based on previous literature, this finding suggests that with the increasing of proficiency level, the syntactic features get more complex; more words are used in each T-unit and clause. This also means that when writers become more mature and proficient, they compress more ideas into a syntactic unit. On the other hand, Chinese 3 and Native 6 did not follow the trend. Chinese 3 are found more words per T-unit and per clause than Chinese 4 or Chinese 5 while Native 6 used slightly less numbers of these two measures. It is likely that by quantifying syntactic complexity, it can merely be used to describe the tendency of some proficiency groups. The measures of syntactic complexity alone, however, may not describe the quality of writing. In this case, it is likely that Chinese 3 has a lot of longer but weak T-unit and clauses, which adversely influenced information clarity. On the other hand, Native 6 has much shorter, yet concise T-unit and clauses that attribute to better writing quality. It is also likely that language accuracy might play a more important role than syntactic complexity in a writing test. Thus, essays of higher scores are those composed of simple and clear syntactic structures with no grammatical errors.

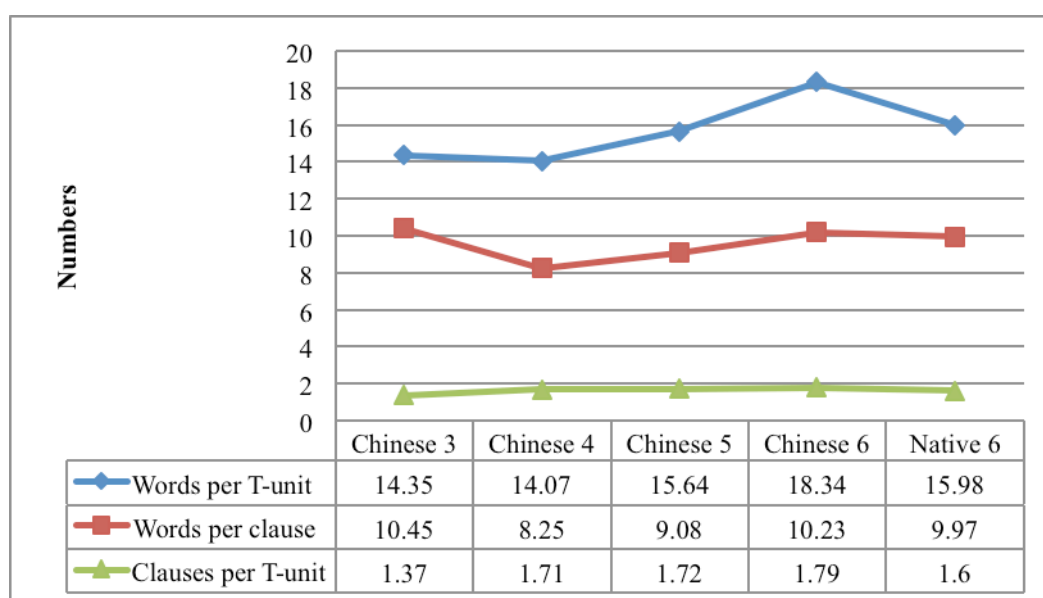


Figure 4. Measures of syntactic complexity per proficiency group

Figure 5 presents the mean numbers of three types of subordinate clauses per proficiency groups. In general, the number of subordinate clauses increases in higher scored essays. Chinese 3 used fewer subordinate clauses compared to other proficiency groups while the increase is moderate in Chinese 5, Chinese 6 and Native 6. With a close examination of the types of subordinate clauses, it is interesting to note that three types of subordinate clauses are equally used by Native 6s. This may suggest that within this group, the test takers could manipulate any type of the subordinate clauses equally well. It may also imply that this group displays more varieties of sentence patterns. Among the three types, the use of adjective clauses tends to have a positive relationship with the proficiency of the groups. Native 6 used most adjective clauses compared to the other groups. In regard with the functions of three types of subordinate clauses, adjective clauses are used to modify nouns and pronouns and used to add detail to sentences. It is likely that higher proficient writers will be able to compress more information into one T-unit by using adjective clauses.

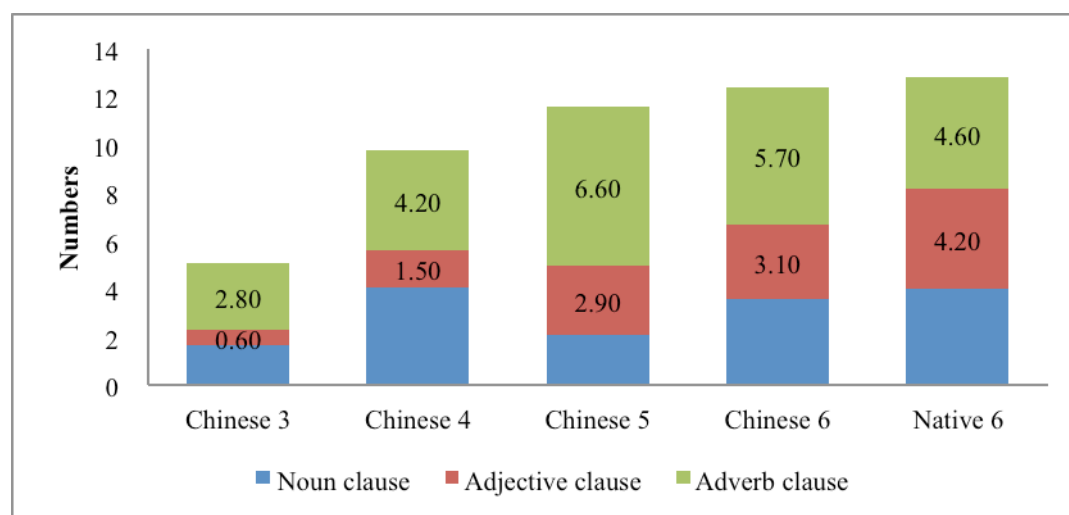


Figure 5. Mean number of three types of subordinate clauses per proficiency group

In addition to reporting the mean number of subordinate clauses, another important reason accounting for less use of subordinate clauses for Chinese 3 and Chinese 4 is due to the problematic clause constructions. Chinese 3 essays were found 9.09% ungrammatical subordinate clause usage and Chinese 4 found 11.54%. The error ratio is calculated from the numbers of incorrect sentence patterns divided by total number of T-units within the group. Since T-unit is applicable to mature syntactic structure, in the present study, sentence fragments were excluded from the data. In Chinese 3, problematic T-units resulted in syntactically or semantically ungrammatical are as follows.

e.g.1 *“for example, math, chemistry physics.”* (C302)

e.g.2 *“Rather than those strict teacher.”* (C310)

e.g. 3 *“In the other way, are also know that enjoyable and fun can make us awake from tiring.”* (C308)

As can be seen in the examples, the incomplete syntactic structure may contribute to lower ratings. More error examples in the data samples seem to imply that the writers at this level may benefit explicit instruction on English kernel sentences that enables

them to construct basic syntactic patterns before writing more complex structures.

It is noteworthy that Chinese 4 revealed a different syntactic fragment types than did Chinese 3. It is observed that Chinese 4 test takers tended to make longer sentence structures, yet failed to attach subordinate clauses to main clauses as illustrated in the following examples. This type of syntactic problem may leave an impression to the readers that the information is not fully completed. In the sample data, some of main clauses came right after the fragmental subordinate clauses, while some were left incomplete.

e.g. 4 *“As a teacher, no matter you are a physical teacher, a art teacher, a science teacher or a math teacher.”* (C405)

e.g. 5 *“If the students find the learning interesting.”* (C410)

e.g. 6 *“If a teacher simply follows the context of the book, without making any effort to improve the lesson.”* (C402)

Unlike Chinese 3, Chinese 4 writers may need instruction on what constitute complex sentence patterns and it is possible that this group of writers may benefit from sentence combining exercises.

Conclusions and Implications

The study is to explore the relationship of various measures of syntactic complexity with rated timed essays by three groups of Chinese writers and one group of native writers at different proficiency levels. It is hypothesized that the measures of syntactic complexity increase with the proficiency levels. Thus, by analyzing 40 rated TWE essay samples, this study is to examine whether the measures of syntactic complexity can be used as predictor of writing proficiency.

The results of the study show that groups of writers at different writing proficiency seem to display different patterns in terms of syntactic complexity. Some measures of syntactic measures seem to have positive relationships with the writing proficiency. Higher rated essays are found to be longer in length; that is, more sentences, words, and T-units are produced per text than in lower rated essays. The three measures, however, are found to be more salient in Chinese 3, 4, and 5, and Native 6, while Chinese 6 revealed a different pattern than the other groups.

With regard to words per T-unit and words per clause, the results indicate that the number of these two syntactic measures increase with the proficiency for Chinese 4, 5, and 6. This is in line with the hypothesis that the more proficient a writer is, the more syntactic measures are used in his/her writing, and thus the more syntactic complexity is featured for the writing. However, it is also noted that the measures are not applicable to two groups, the lowest rated essays (Chinese 3) and the highest rated essays (Native 6). It is argued that the measures of syntactic complexity might be objective or normative criteria, yet the measures may not be sensitive to the effectiveness of information. In the case of Chinese 3 and Native 6, it is likely that the lowest rated essays are found to have more, yet less effective units, while highest rated essays less, but more effective ones. In terms of types of subordinate clauses, it is found that there more proficient writers write more subordinate clauses than do low proficiency writers.

Among three types of clauses, adjective clauses are found to have positive relationship with proficiency. The mean number of adjective clauses increases when the proficiency gets higher. This finding suggests that high proficiency writers produce T-units that contain more detail by using adjective clauses. Another interesting finding is that Native 6 display equal means for three types of subordinate clauses, which may be that writers at this group have good command of the subordinate clauses. With a close examination of the clauses used, problematic subordinate clause uses were marked in Chinese 3 and 4 essays. The error types are related to the proficiency. Subordinate clauses errors made by Chinese 3 indicate that this group encounters difficulty in composing simple structures because most of the errors impede the understanding of messages. To this group, explicit instruction on basic English sentence structure may be necessary and helpful. In Chinese 4 essays, errors are found more frequently as sentence fragments. It is obvious that writers in this group may benefit from instruction on how to construct complex sentence, in which subordinate clauses have to be attached to main clauses to form a grammatical sentence. Sentence-combining could be effective exercise for this group.

Although the findings on measures provide insights on syntactic complexity, this study is limited in several ways. Firstly, the number of sample size for each proficiency group is very small. Only 10 essay samples for each group limit the generalizability of the study. In addition, even if the outliers at both ends for each group are excluded from the descriptive statistics, based on the standard deviations, it is admitted that the variation among individuals within a proficiency group is relatively high. Finally, since only one rater is responsible for the data analysis, it is likely that the result of the analysis may be subjective.

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***Teachers' View on The Use of Portfolio Assessment in Secondary Schools
in Indonesia***

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Abstract

Having been undergoing several changes in a decade, the concept of students' evaluation system in Indonesia has significantly transformed. In this regard, portfolio assessment has been taken into account as an alternative way to measure students' development based on the process and result of learning. However, lack of familiarity with this kind of assessment, followed by strong influence of traditional and standardized testing, may prevent teachers from having best insight about portfolio assessment. Therefore, this current study was carried out to investigate teachers' understanding in implementing the portfolio and the contents of the portfolio complied. The framework of qualitative research was employed in this study. The data were collected from four respondents by means of documents and interviews. The result of the study obviously indicated that the contents of students' portfolio comprised of wide ranges of topics in different genres. Furthermore, teachers' understanding on the implementation of portfolio as a means of evaluating students' learning was highly good. In spite of that, it was highlighted that students' involvement in determining the topic and the allocated time for product revision were absent. Therefore, professional development program has to be carried out to enhance teachers' capabilities in implementing effective portfolio based assessment and overcoming the present problems.

Keywords: portfolio, alternative assessment, evaluation

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Introduction

Assessment has been an integral part of language teaching. It provides teachers and educational professionals an insight into students' achievement, ability, and their level of study; whether or not they have achieved the learning goals. Brindle (2001) asserts that assessment, as a variety of ways of collecting information on a learners' language ability or achievement, can be used for various purposes: (1) selection: e.g. to determine whether learners have sufficient language proficiency to be able to undertake tertiary study; (2) certification: e.g. to provide people with a statement of their language ability for employment purposes; (3) accountability: e.g. to provide educational funding authorities with evidence that intended learning outcomes have been achieved and to justify expenditure; (4) diagnosis: e.g. to identify learners' strengths and weaknesses; (5) instructional decision-making: e.g. to decide what material to present next or what to revise; and (6) motivation: e.g. to encourage learners to study harder.

The developments in Indonesia's education have been marked with the change in curriculum, which affects the systems of teaching-learning process and also assessments. Current language teaching emphasizes no more of traditional way enlightening learners solely by transmitting knowledge, but focus more on what students will need to succeed in the real world (Huang, 2012). Based on the exposure from deputy minister of education and culture of the republic of Indonesia for education (2014), in terms of assessment, the new curriculum 2013 reinforces the shift from assessment through test to alternative assessment which measures attitudes, skills and knowledge based on the process and results. In this type of assessment, students are evaluated based on what they integrate and produce rather on what they are able to recall and reproduce, which also is used to align the conceptions of teaching and learning that place more emphasis on the learners' progress (Coombe, Purmensky, & Davidson, 2012; Bataineh & Obeiah, 2016).

It is further described that the planning of the assessment should be in accordance with the competences to be achieved, socio-cultural contexts, principles of assessment and the implementation of the assessment in a professional, open, educational, effective, and efficient condition. In addition, assessment's results must be reported in objective, accountable, and informative ways. This kind of assessment is done by teachers in the form of classroom assessments. One of the most popular alternatives in assessment, especially within a framework of communicative language teaching, is portfolio development (Brown, 2004).

Portfolio is a purposeful collection of students' works that demonstrates to students and others of their efforts, progress, and achievement in given areas (Genesee & Upshur 1996: 99, in Brown, 2001:418). It resembles a collection of individual pieces of work including reflection, selection of evidence, process of evaluation and artifact (Chang and Wu, 2012, p.266). Coombe, Purmensky, & Davidson, (2012) believe that portfolios are works being compiled in a way that allows students to provide evidence of self-reflection and to reflect accomplishment to specific instructional goals and objectives. In addition, Brown (2001) states that the content of portfolios may include essay, compositions, poetry, book reports, art works, video or audiotape recordings of students' oral production, journals, and virtually anything else one wishes to specify. It is a typical instrument of the alternative assessment measures that is intended to

enhance teaching and learning in a learning centered framework (Hirvela & Sweetland, 2005 in Ghoorchaiei, Tavakoli, & Ansari, 2010).

Previous studies have indicated that using portfolios in foreign language education have lots of advantages. A portfolio can be a learning tool that promotes students' improvement in academic achievement (Ghoorchaiei, Tavakoli, & Ansari, 2010; Vangah, Jafarpour, Mohammadi, 2016; Bataineh & Obeiah, 2016), self-directed learning (Huang, 2012) and achievement motivation that gives students a sense of accomplishment after they complete their work and compile them in the portfolios (Singh & Samad, 2013). Furthermore, tezci & dikici (2006) found portfolio also enables student to develop critical thinking since it is based on the cooperation of the teacher and students in finding solutions to the problems. It can also enhance students' learning responsibilities (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000; Nunes, 2004 in harmer 2007; Tezci & Dikici, 2006; Sandford & Hsu, 2013). It means that students can become more autonomous, and it can foster student reflection and help them to self-monitor their own learning. In addition, Mokhtaria (2015) summarizes portfolios are useful for involvement of learners, increase of accountability, a common vision of goals, authentic picture of learning, improved teaching/learning and reflection of assessment reform.

Before creating portfolio, there are a number of matters needed to be concerned. Tangdhanakanonda & Wongwanichb (2015) highlight the five common essential steps in making a portfolio, i.e., planning for portfolio assessment, collecting created products, selecting products and reflecting on selected products, revising and evaluating products, as well as utilizing results from portfolio assessment. Therefore, teachers are supposed to pay attention to every single step in attempt to create good portfolio. Aside from that, Brown (2001) proposes some guidelines for using portfolio in a classroom; (1) specify to students what the purpose of the portfolio is (to emphasize accomplishments, to offer tangible material for feedback from teacher, etc.), (2) give clear directions to students on how to get started (many students will never have compiled a portfolio before and may be mystified about what to do), (3) give guidelines on acceptable material to include, (4) collect portfolio on pre-announced dates and return them promptly, (5) be clear yourself on the principal purpose of the portfolio and make sure your feedback speaks to that purpose, (6) help students to process your feedback and show them how to respond to your responses.

Furthermore, Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000) describe the characteristics of a well-organized portfolio. They assert portfolio should be able to measure the students' progress over different areas and needs to include more than a single sample. A portfolio assessment also requires the students to provide a wide range of topics in different genres to explore their ability. Besides, the context is demanded to be rich. Considering the matter of assessment process, students' experiences are vital factor that need to be discovered. Another characteristic of good portfolio is students get opportunity to revise their works before the final assessment. It also involves students' decision. They have the right to select their own works for making a portfolio. Moreover, student-centered control plays important part as well. It means students take the responsibility to learn the lesson. Reflection should be considered too. Students are expected to able to self-assess their works and reflect on the works little by little as they go on. Aside from that, portfolio needs to reveal the students'

growth in a specific area over a great time and exhibits the progress of every piece of work after the treatment and assessment processes.

Despite its benefit, portfolio assessment also leads to some consequences. Harmer (2007) asserts that firstly, portfolio is time-consuming. Secondly, teachers are also required to get clear training in how to select items from the portfolio and how to give them grades. Thirdly, some students may leave their portfolios until the end of the course when, they expect, their work will be at its best. Above all, when students work on their own away from the classroom, it is not always clear that the work reflects their own efforts or whether, in fact, they have been helped by others. Moreover, parental or community disapproval for such a new and unfamiliar system of assessment and the current status and role of traditional, standardized testing (especially high stakes testing related to promotion and graduation) can be the obstacles as well. (Mokhtaria, 2015). Hence, having good comprehension on how portfolios should be designed, maintained, and connected to objective criteria is a crucial matter.

As one of the primary means of assessment in today's classroom, with the implementation of the curriculum 2013, portfolio holds an essential part to provide the thorough assessment on students' development. However, the reality shows that the teachers' understanding of using portfolio as a tool of assessing students' learning is still needed to be considered. The preliminary study conducted in some schools revealed that even though the schools have implemented the curriculum 2013, yet the portfolio assessment is not highly used. As a consequence, teachers may still have lack of familiarity with this kind of alternative assessment. Furthermore, some teachers are still heavily influenced by traditional and standardized testing. Some teachers even do not have a clear idea about the works of students that can be used as a portfolio like projects.

Regarding to its potential benefits to students and implementation in the current curriculum, this study is trying to answer the following questions: (1) What kinds of portfolio contents are collected by the teachers? (2) To what extent do teachers understand the portfolio assessment implemented? To get more insight into the matters, this study was set as a qualitative study with explorative and descriptive approach. Data were collected from four English teachers experienced in implementing portfolio assessment; two junior high school teachers and two senior high school teachers. Documents gathering was carried out in order to determine the contents of portfolio used. Meanwhile, an open-ended interview was performed to get the information related to each teacher's perception on the use of portfolio in terms of pre-activities (preparation), on progress activities (while students doing the portfolio), and post-activities (evaluation).

Conclusion

From the document interpretation and the transcriptions of interviews, some relevant data have been identified and analyzed. The results of analysis have been organized in terms of the questions that this study is trying to answer. Hence, each data will be presented in accordance with the questions.

Question 1: What kinds of portfolio contents are collected by the teachers?

Based on the interpretation of teachers' documents on students' portfolios collected, it was discovered that the contents of portfolios compiled in both junior and senior high schools comprised of wide ranges of topics in different genres (see table 1).

Document source	Contents of portfolio
Junior high school teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Announcement - Poster - Birthday Invitation - Presentation result - Procedure text - Events of the day & Journal diary (recount text) - Drama project
Senior high school teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poster - Invitation card - Interview record - Expressing advice - Expressing opinion - Mind mapping the concept of materials - Comic (narrative text)

Table 1. Kinds of portfolio contents in secondary schools

Both junior and senior high school students were asked to make portfolio that includes wide ranges of topics in different genres. According to Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000), since portfolio is used to measure students' progress, more samples are needed. Particular topics were chosen by teachers to be employed in this assessment, including short functional texts (invitation, poster, and announcement); genres of texts (descriptive, procedure, recount and narrative); and transactional and interpersonal communication expressions; (asking and giving opinion). Moreover, most contents of portfolios done involving writing skills of the students, such as the making of poster and invitation by the two levels of secondary schools. This is in line with previous researches conducted by Bataineh & Obeiah (2016); Vangah, Jafarpour, & Mohammadi (2016); Obeiah, & Bataineh (2016); Roohani & Taheri (2015); Nezakatgoo (2011); and Ghoorchaei, Tavakoli & Ansari (2010) that figured out the use of portfolio assessment had great contribution to students' writing improvement. Furthermore, other tasks involving students' writing could be noted from their designing announcement.

Even though portfolio is more effective to develop writing skill, yet, to construct a good portfolio, students need to use other skills as well like reading, speaking and listening. Students' mind mapping activity, drama project, and presentation report were the tasks that demanded them to use all language skills well. Students were supposed to design their mind mapping of the concepts of the lessons that they had learned regarding to the elaboration of the idea of genres of texts in terms of social function, generic structure, and language features. On the other hand, the task of interviewing family members on the topic of asking and giving advice demanded students to explore their speaking skill. The same skill was also emphasized on the drama project activity. Students performed a drama and it was recorded by using

video recorder. Meanwhile, in making report of presentations, the students should listen to their peers' presentations and made sure that they understood the point prior to writing them down as a report. As stated by brown (2001), the content of portfolio may not only consist of essay, composition, book report, but also art work, video or audiotape recording of students' oral production, and virtually anything else one wishes to specify. Besides, this type of assessment could lead students to be more creative and independent. As it is cited in Derakhshan, Rezaei, & Alemi (2011), Aschbacher (1991) enumerates one common characteristic of alternative assessments is requiring problem solving and higher level thinking. Thomas et al., (2005) add that a dynamic ongoing assessment like portfolio may aid in stimulating thinking and promoting students' independence. It is supported by Hashemian & Fadaei (2013) and Mokhtaria (2015) who found that portfolio considerably improved autonomy of learners and inspired them to become active and engaged learners.

Question 2: To what extent do teachers understand the portfolio assessment implemented?

This seeks answers about teachers' idea of the implementation of portfolio assessment in terms of pre-activities, on-progress activities, and post activities.

Through the data gathered from the interviews, it became apparent that in terms of preparation, teachers shared some similar idea such as associating the portfolio with the learning objectives and selecting the materials in accordance with the objectives. One learning objective that the teachers wanted to achieve was students understand the context of language used and produce the correct product of learning. In this regard, Suherdi (2015) believes that English for 21st century requires the students to have exposures to texts in real communicative contexts in which they are used to accomplish communicative purposes. Portfolio can contextualize learning and link experience with personal interpretation (David, Davis, Harden, Howie, Ker, & Pippard, 2001) as portfolio facilitates students' involvement in the process; therefore, they are more likely to find relevance and meaning in their school assignments Sandford & Hsu (2013). Then, the use of portfolio might contribute to develop the intelligences of the students such as linguistic, visual, and so forth. This was the reason why teachers paid more attention on students' readiness before doing the main activity of making portfolio. Most teachers would check on their students' preparation and understanding and provide examples so that students would be able to make portfolio correctly in the upcoming activities.

After knowing the suitable materials, the teachers decided the topics of the portfolio in which students had to work on later. However, it was noted that when it came to topic determination for portfolio, teachers became the center. All topics were selected by teachers only. Whereas, the use of portfolio was supposed to enhance students' autonomous learning and the ability to take responsibility for their own decisions. Therefore, students should be given chance to share opinion. For this reason, Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000), Sharifi, & Hassaskhah (2011), and Czura (2013) claim that in portfolio assessment, incorporating the learner's suggestions and opinions into decision making is vitally important. As a result, they will be able to make appropriate choices when working on their own. Portfolio assessment is intended to enhance teaching and learning in learner centered framework (Hirvela & Sweetland, 2005 in Ghoorchaie, Tavakoli, & Ansari, 2010).

Moreover, it was pointed out that there was a difference in setting the duration of working with the portfolio. Some students had limited time to finish their work because they did it at school. The teachers wanted to ensure students did the work by themselves. Harmer (2007) says when students work on their own away from the classroom, it is not always clear that the work reflects their own efforts or whether, in fact, they have been helped by others. As a consequence, students' real comprehension might not be identified. On the other hand, a number of students were given time to do their portfolio at home so that they could prepare better. Brown (2001) points out that portfolio should be collected on pre-announced dates.

When it comes to on progress activities, all teachers either from junior or senior high schools always provided instructions of what the students were supposed to do and gave guidance to them such as how to decide the theme, how to use certain expressions, and how to select appropriate words. Furthermore, the teachers monitored and kept an eye on students' progress. They had to ensure the students really did the task. In this stage, not only did the teachers had students to consult with them during working on portfolio, but they also tried to encourage the students to enhance their desire to work with other people. It was also discovered that while doing portfolio, the teachers saw some of their students still encountered a number of obstacles that hindered them to design a good portfolio such as being less creative, being not focused on their own works, lack of vocabulary and dealing with the due time.

The finding also revealed some matters that teachers concerned when students did portfolio. The first was providing instruction and giving guidance; such as how to decide the theme, how to use certain expressions, and how to select appropriate words while doing the portfolio. Students should know what they supposed to do. Teacher should give clear directions to students on how to get started because many students will never have compiled a portfolio before and may be mystified about what to do (Brown, 2001). Some examples may be a big help for students. The second was having the students consult with teachers. Teachers monitored students' activities and made sure that the activity went well while encouraging them to do better. This finding showed that portfolio could promote cooperation among learners and teachers. David, Davis, Harden, Howie, Ker, & Pippard (2001) state that portfolio enhances interactions between students and teachers. It can remind students that learning is a two-way process between learner and educator.

However, it was discovered that only small number of students could do it due to the fact that teachers had to deal with big class size. This obstacle was highlighted by wing (2006) as well. He reported that it was not feasible for a teacher who taught in big class to sit down with each pupil to discuss his/her portfolio regularly. For that reason, teachers should find alternative way in order to have the opportunity to have face-to-face interaction with their students. The third was monitoring students' progress. Alternative means of assessments is used to align with the conceptions of teaching and learning that place more emphasis on the learners' progress (Bataineh & Obeiah, 2016). With different statement, David, Davis, Harden, Howie, Ker, & Pippard (2001) believe portfolio for students' assessment does not only measure and reinforce the desired learning outcomes but also enhances the development of strategies, attitudes, skills and cognitive processes which are essential for lifelong learning.

In addition, some other constraints and difficulties in portfolio implementation were identified. A number of obstacles that hindered students to design a good portfolio were being less creative, being not focused on their own works, lack of vocabulary and dealing with the due time. Studies done by Caner (2010) and Huang (2012) figured out that portfolio assessment required students to have extra duties, responsibilities, and skills that they were not familiar with. They might still be influenced by the traditional test. Therefore, students should be informed how to cope with this alternative assessment. The finding was also supported by Tangdhanakanonda & Wongwanichb (2015) that found lack of knowledge of portfolio assessment and poor attention and cooperation of students in creating the portfolios could lead them to be less creative. Furthermore, portfolio would require a great investment of time to complete (Thomas et al., 2005; Sharifi, & Hassaskhah, 2011; and Mokhtaria, 2015). Consequently, some students might find it is difficult to complete the task on time.

For post-activities, the data revealed that teachers reviewed and assessed the students' works based on several elements such as the content, the decoration and the display of portfolio. Language components were also put into consideration like grammar, vocabulary, and spelling. Additionally, students' seriousness and efforts were seen by teachers as well. One benefit of alternative assessment, according to Tsagari (2004 cited in Hashemian & Fadaei, 2013), is it evaluates the process and product of learning. Hashemian & Fadaei (2013) affirm that portfolio provides a broader measure with respect to what the learner can do. However, it was pointed out that all of the students' works was only assessed once. As a consequence, students did not get a chance to revise their works. Actually, one characteristic of good portfolio is students get opportunity to revise their work (Hamp-Lyons and Condon, 2000).

Tangdhanakanonda & Wongwanichb (2015) highlight some essential steps making a portfolio which are selecting products, reflecting on selected products, revising and evaluating products. Teacher should contribute students' involvement in self-assessment and self-reflection to their sense of control over the learning (Ezell & Klein, 2003). Once learners realize the materials compiled into their portfolio serve a meaning for their own learning, they will become more aware that the portfolio assessment offers them a way to monitor their own progress they make in learning.

In summary, the findings showed that the contents of students' portfolio comprised of wide ranges of topics in different genres which were expected to further enhance language learning. Portfolio assessment can help students to demonstrate specific skills within the context in which they were taught so that they may view the importance of using language both in and outside of the language classroom. Meanwhile, teachers' understanding on the implementation of portfolio as a means of evaluating students' learning was highly good. The teachers were able to implement some of the essential steps in using portfolio assessment which are (1) associating the portfolio with the learning objectives (2) setting the duration for portfolio completion, (3) providing instruction and giving guidance, (4) building cooperation among learners and teachers, and (5) having some indicators to evaluate students' portfolio. There were two crucial matters that teachers should concern more. First, teachers have to incorporate the learner's suggestions and perspectives into decision making like determining the topic of portfolio. Second, students should be provided with the opportunity to revise their work so that they can notice their own progress in learning.

Therefore, it is undeniably important that sufficient professional development program has to be managed for teachers to develop the concepts and the use of portfolios for different purposes. As a result, they can gain the best knowledge for implementing effective portfolio based assessment.

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The Challenges of Teacher-Mediated vs Computer-Mediated ESL Instruction

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Abstract

Technology is changing at an unprecedented rate, and without the proper machinery in place, one stands the risk of being left behind. Previously called computer-assisted language learning, it has been replaced with the familiar terms such as e-learning and the learning management system (LMS). To what extent do ESL teachers need to be involved in technology to accomplish our classroom goals? How can we design a program with instructional materials and activities that make learning goals achievable by individuals with a wide range of speaking abilities? This paper presents the benefits and challenges that face both teacher-assisted language learning (TALL) and technology-assisted language learning (tall). It will demonstrate the effectiveness of teacher-assisted instruction through the use of mind mapping. Mind mapping requires direct conversation patterns for active and meaningful student participation. The role of the teacher is to promote active student engagement – to make class fun, enjoyable and meaningful. E-learning, on the other hand, involves use of network technologies to create, foster, deliver and facilitate learning anytime and anywhere. Several virtual learning environments have been created to deliver partial or full online instruction. The presenter will demonstrate an e-learning technique that has been found to accomplish this goal. Are TALL and tall separate and distinct entities? How do they facilitate exchanges between student-teacher & student-student? How can these modes of instruction be combined to facilitate active and meaningful student participation. Can we meaningfully integrate both modes of instruction to design a truly effective and challenging program for communicative competence?

Keywords: mind mapping, computer-assisted language learning, technology-assisted language learning

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Introduction

This paper presents the benefits and challenges that face both teacher-assisted language learning and technology-assisted language learning also called e-learning. It will demonstrate the effectiveness of the use of different types of mind maps as a useful teaching strategy in the teacher-assisted language learning. Contrary to what some believe, mind mapping is not just an alternative teaching tool that can be used when the teacher runs out of teaching strategies. Rather, it requires direct teacher involvement and essential conversation patterns for active and meaningful student participation. The strategy assumes that the role of the teacher is to promote active student engagement by making the class fun, enjoyable and meaningful. E-learning, on the other hand, involves use of network technologies to create, foster, deliver and facilitate learning anytime and anywhere. Several virtual learning environments have been created to deliver partial or full online instruction with students left alone for individual study.

First, the author attempts to summarize the large amount of language learning materials available online. The author then reviews some theories in relation to the different stages of ESL instruction arguing that there are some points in language instruction when students are ready for computer assisted learning and there are some points when teacher presence is irreplaceable. The goal is to avoid the excitement that leads to “indiscriminate” use of technology in instruction. Finally, different types of mind maps are introduced to show the effectiveness of teacher presence to promote effective language learning. The task is not to argue whether computer-assisted classroom is better than teacher- only classroom (Beatty, Ken, 2008) or vice-versa. The presenter will demonstrate how computer assisted learning can help accomplish the goals ESL instruction when used the right way at the right time.

An overview of the existing online materials

Allow me to make an assumption, that we have used technology, or computer to say the least, at one point in our teaching career. The explosion of ESL software and programs in the market, and technology for that matter, seems to have made language teaching “easier”. At the same time, on a different ground, however, this has made the choices more difficult and has challenged the teachers’ discriminating ability. This section will prove this point. A survey of existing materials and resources reveals that there are three major types of learning support available for ESL learning online. The first group consists of ESL teaching and learning websites. The other group consists of both free and commercial software and programs and applications. The third group consists of packages that come with e-learning communities. These are summarized in Fig. 1 and will be briefly described below.

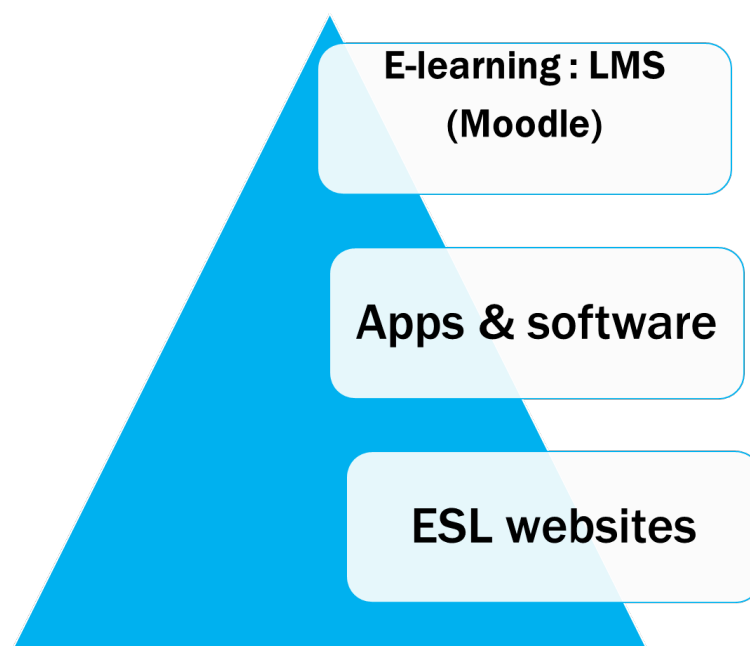


Figure 1: A Summary of technology-supported ESL materials

The first group, and probably the oldest form of online support for ESL learners, comes in the form of ESL websites and online Courses.

The most common and probably one of the oldest existing online support for ESL students are the ESL websites and online courses. One of the oldest and most popular site is the Dave's ESL Café : <http://www.eslcafe.com/students/> Several ESL websites have been created in different countries, both free and paid, and have provided easy access for ESL learners. ESL websites are found in almost all countries where English is taught as a second or foreign language. In the UK for instance, the following site has been evaluated as <http://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/>

A survey of the Seven Great ESL websites are found in <http://www.i-studentglobal.com/learning-english/7-great-esl-websites-for-english-learners>

Some interesting features of ESL websites are: they are free and they include several activities to help improve discrete skills of vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure and pronunciation. Li's study (2014) investigated the role of ESL websites as a means to practice the interactive-based language learning in-class instruction. Data collected revealed the students had an overall positive attitude to using the websites. For the teacher, ESL websites are loaded with great teaching materials, fresh and exciting new ESL strategies. On first glance, the availability of ESL websites has made teaching a lot easier. But has it really done so? Are students ready for the tasks demanded of them at the online courses? At what point of ESL instruction can teachers justifiably allow students to explore the contents of the ESL websites? Is there a systematic way to use these as instruments for a more effective learning?

The second largest group of online support comes in the form of software, programs and applications.

Thousands of CALL programs have been published and used based on the behaviorist and constructivist approaches to learning. On the whole, ESL software programs and applications are available in the market for all the four language skills covering different learning levels. For instance, pronunciation software provide exercises from simple voice recognition to production of long sentences. An example of an ESL

Software for beginners can be found in

<http://www.toptenreviews.com/software/education/best-learn-english-software/>

Drill and practice programs provide greater opportunities for language learners to master content area vocabulary while others have been developed to assist in vocabulary building and spelling. Likewise, grammar exercises come in different forms like basic word formation, grammar multiple choice and sentence construction. Some of these programs are interactive while most are intended for individualized learning and are normally scored automatically. Self-assessment quizzes or analogous devices, normally scored automatically.

ESL applications as well as interactive videos have recently been developed for teachers use. An example is found in <http://www.fluentu.com/english/>

The third form of online support for English learning, and the most recent ones, comes in the form of community-based blogs.

Online learning courses have constantly been re-designed to better supplement class learning and enrich regular classroom activities.

Specifically, ESL learners can access to can make use of the web links to search more information relative with their language courses. Both audio and video materials can be accessed online easily.

They can login the chat room of the platform and conduct group learning. The Moodle is one of the original platforms that made possible the ESL learners to exchange learning

materials and experiences. When the concept of e-learning was popularized, the term Learning Management System (LMS) became a trend wherein educators are given access to create effective learning communities. In the beginning online learning was described as more individual-centered, but with the advent of creative learning communities such as community blogs, ESL students can freely explore the infinite online world to communicate with other learners.

Stages in Scaffolding Language Instruction

The introduction of new technologies and constant and broader adoption of existing ones is a compelling invitation to the realm of the unknown. For teachers, not just researchers, this creates an excitement in the refining of the edges and poses a challenge in defining details that constantly change in relation to existing ones. Does this mean that machines and technology can replace teachers' role in instruction at any time? The answer is NO, or at least definitely NOT YET. Then, at which point of instruction is CALL needed to provide a more effective learning? How is this possible, and why? The complexity of the teacher's job has created the need for support in terms of physical resources and environment very imperative. Likewise, limitation of physical availability of the teacher dictates the need for tools that manage and promote learning. This section reviews the different stages of ESL instruction and examines at what point of language instruction can CALL truly assist the teacher and promote learning, in order to avoid the excitement that leads to "indiscriminate" use of technology in instruction. My task is not to argue whether computer assisted classroom VS teacher only classroom (Beatty, Ken, 2008) but to show that online activities can best be used as supplement to classroom teaching at some stages of ESL instruction.

In a nutshell, the stages of ESL instruction come in five stages: the Readiness stage,

the Input stage, the Collaboration stage, the Transfer stage and the Expansion stage. This is summarized in the Fig 2 below. It is best that teachers are always aware of what students are capable of at the different stages in order to maximize the use of software and technology to promote learning.

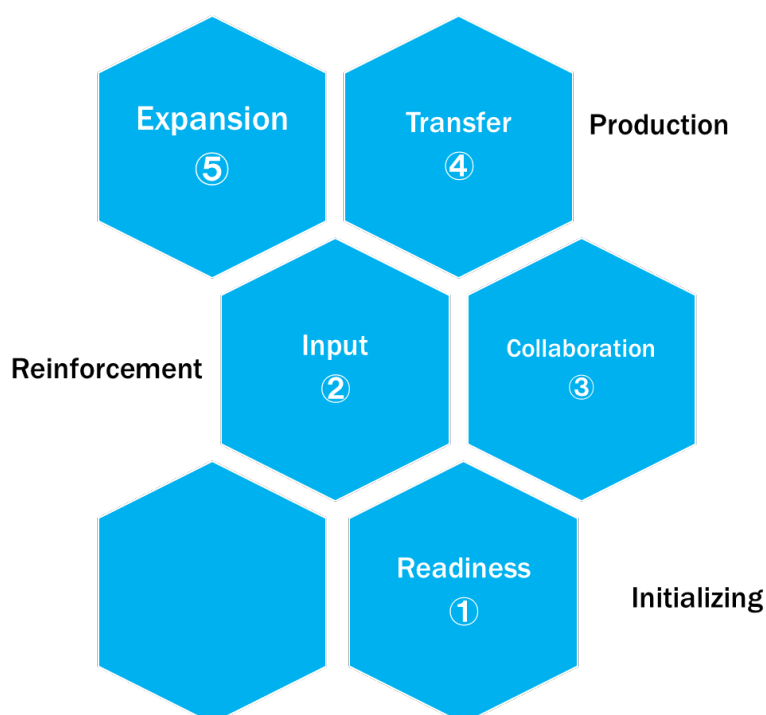


Figure 2: Stages of ESL Instruction

1. The Readiness Stage

Before instruction takes place, readiness for learning has to be established. How much is the brain ready to cope with instruction? What kind of instruction is suitable? Instruction has to be able to gauge the specific level to match delivery of content and teaching approach. At this point, schools determine the specific levels and groups thru evaluation and placement tests. With reading comes motivation, the extent of personal engagement in learning. It is not wise to leave the students to computers and online at this period of language study.

2. The Input Stage

This stage is also called the Presentation stage wherein the teacher builds foundational knowledge and skills. This stage is translated into the everyday tasks called the lesson proper. The teacher is called to deliver content of instruction and divide learning tasks in chunks. It is therefore imperative that the teacher decides specific teaching strategies taking into consideration the following: the students' various learning style, individual differences in terms of language level, motivation, interest, learning needs. Since provision of good models and examples is necessary, the teacher cannot leave the students to work the computers at this

stage. A lot of teacher-student interaction is essential to develop the foundation skills and knowledge desired. Through interaction and repetitive drills and exercises, skills and knowledge are reinforced. Teacher presents language activities in various context in which it takes place. Thus we see diverse contexts of the language such as shopping, transportation, restaurants, hospital, immigration, as well as asking and giving directions. The students can repeat and capable of short utterances, but learning is mostly directed. It is thematically determined and guided by the teacher. Mind mapping plays an important role at this stage of language development. Since the human mind remembers greatly through by forming associations, mind maps provide multiple opportunities for students to remember basic vocabulary and structure. Fig. 3 below is an example of how students can easily remember the months of the year, by associating them with seasons of the year as well. This can also provide basic practice for basic expressions like birthdates. Similarly, students can remember faster the various means of transportation by grouping the items according to land, air and water, as shown in Fig. 4.



Figure 3: Sample of Mind Map (1) for low beginners

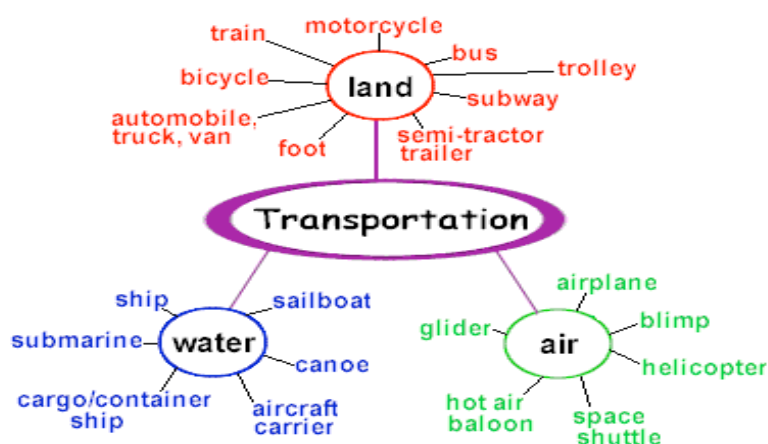


Figure 4: Sample of Mind Map (2) for low beginners

3. The Collaboration Stage

At this stage, students can use language for grammatical competence, word formation, greater spelling competence and sentence construction skills. The end goal is grammatical competence. Since students can use the language as expressions of inner world, the teacher is called to employ instructional tasks that facilitate language interaction. Students are capable of interaction with other students, with teacher, with the computer, and community. By this time, students can be slowly introduced to online communication. Stevens (1992) however differentiated between conversation between learner and peers, conversation between learner and teacher, and conversation and exchanges that take place when learners interact with the computer. The computer, as described by Ellis (1998) does not take active part in discourse, but respond intelligently to learner inquiries. Since students have gained more vocabulary and stronger grammatical awareness, mind maps can be useful in remembering nuances in grammar and basic idioms of the language. Fig. 5 is an example. More importantly, mind maps can be recycled and re-developed to suit the concept and level of students. For example, the teacher can expand mind maps on seasons of the year in order to include more concepts that relate to their experiences, giving much more practice on communication. The mind map showing for months of the year, as in the above, is developed further by challenging students to talk of experiences using language structures learned at this level, as shown in Fig. 6 below.

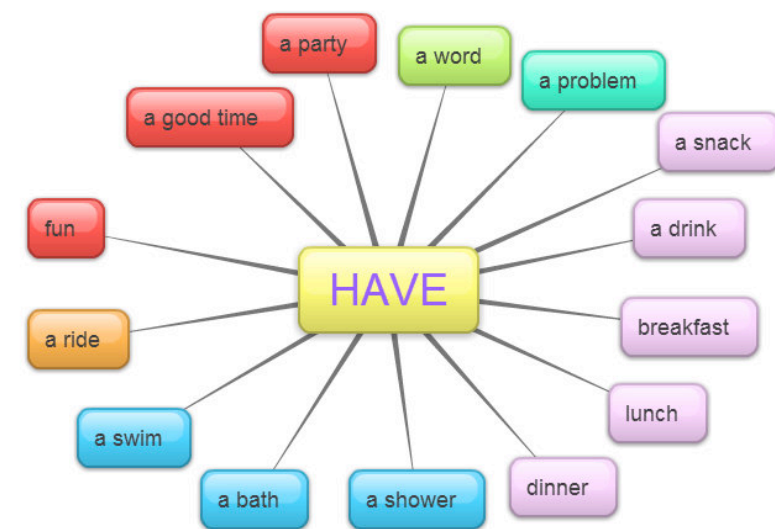


Figure 5: Sample of Mind Map on English Prepositional Idioms for Intermediate Learners

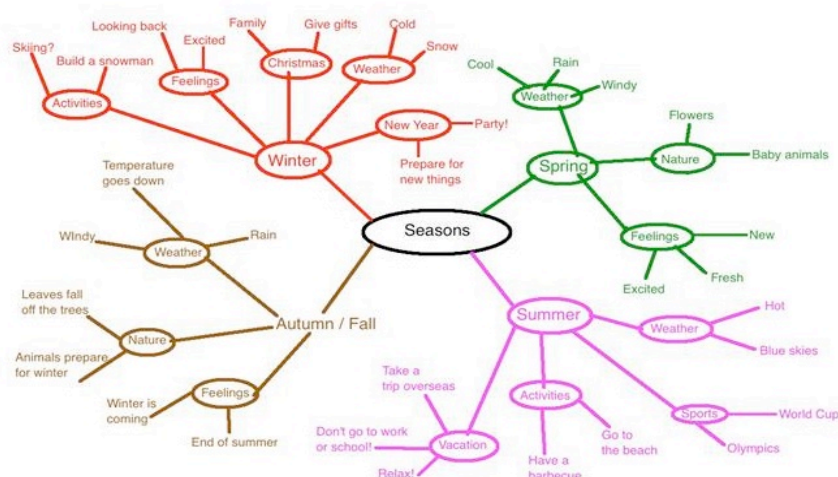


Figure 6: Sample of Expanded Mind Map on Seasons for Intermediate Learners

4. The Transfer Stage

From grammatical competence, the students move on to sociolinguistic competence as the end goal of learning at this stage. Activities require students not just basic understanding of tasks, but an ability to apply meaning of utterances as well. To the extent that they have developed linguistic competence, students can, and are expected to, start and keep conversations going. Instruction needs to give practice in the various language skills such as descriptive, narrative, and other forms of speech acts. To be able to engage in negotiation of meaning (next stage), students need discourse that provide opportunities for input and encourages output. (Ellis, 1998)

At this stage, the goal of learning is language production. As such, activities that give opportunities to use language to collaborate with a community are necessary. Three types of collaboration are found to be most effective: collaboration with other students, collaboration with the teacher, and collaboration with a community. These three types are different but they present opportunities for negotiation of meaning and second language acquisition as a result of scaffolded instruction. Therefore, this is the best time to introduce the student blogs, the community part of moodle, and other more recent packages that support language learning. When students can rightfully be given freedom to explore the internet for their language competence, what remains the task of the teacher? The teachers can never be replaced by technology even in a highly technologically invaded learning environment. As Ellis said “The computer does not converse with the student. It simply responds intelligently.” And mechanically, I would say. The human element in the teacher-student interaction will always be needed. For instance, the best collaboration in the advanced and highly advanced stages of ESL learning can best take place when students collaborate with peers and teachers. To do this, the teacher can use the infinite possibilities of mind mapping at this stage rather than simply providing topics for discussion. Students discuss, compare, and argue on the benefits of city life and country life, the role of women in society, health

benefits of spending time indoors and outdoors, and many others. We see an example in Fig 7 below.

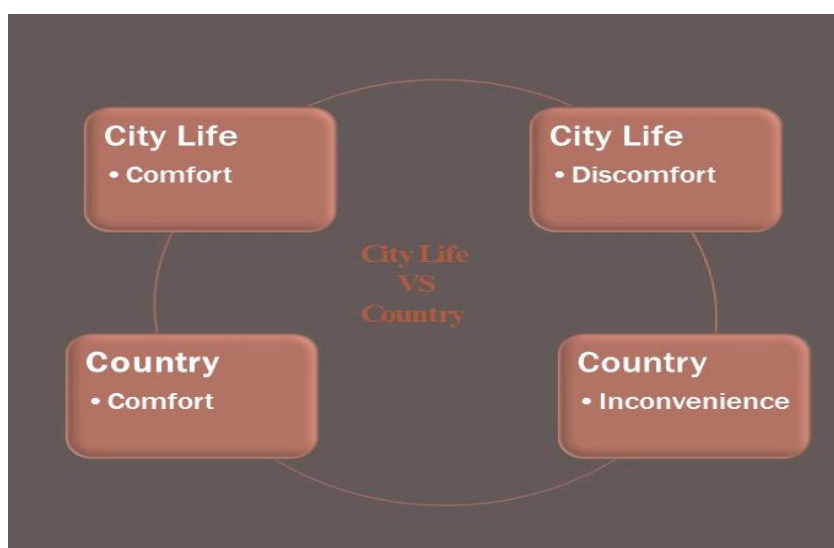


Figure 7: A Mind Map for Discussion: High Intermediate Learners

5. The Assimilation & Application Stage

At this stage, students can manipulate situations to create a wide range of meanings. They are not only ready to engage in a series and a variety of exchanges. Likewise, with language competence comes critical thinking. Language comes with thought. Students have become comfortable in thinking and producing the language. The end goal of collaboration with other learners, with the teacher, and with the community at large is beyond simple grammatical practice. The goal of communication is negotiation of meaning. Technology can now occupy a larger part in language learning. Students can move beyond the confines of teacher-made exercises and explore the online community. The end goal of instruction is discourse competence, giving students freedom to explore the language.

Summary and Conclusions

The debate on the issues of technology use in the ESL classroom continues. On one side are those who argue that technology provides all the answers to the questions. It seems pretty attractive and easy to jump into the bandwagon and let technology do the teaching. That makes teaching “easier”. On the other side of the debate are those who emphasize the importance of traditional teachers. They are often criticized as not able to notice how unrealistic it is to provide high-quality teachers at scale in the “current monolithic model of classroom-based instruction”. They are also accused of overlooking “the breadth and complexity of the job of good teaching” makes it nearly impossible for most teachers to do all of the critical aspects of their job exceptionally well. “Technology will not improve our education system if we marginalize or eliminate teachers. Likewise, our education system will not meet modern needs at scale until we innovate beyond the factory-model classroom. Innovation may lead us to classroom setups and teacher roles

that look very different from today, but a human element will always be an essential part of the equation. By framing the debate as technology vs. teachers, we create a false dichotomy. Instead, our conversations should focus on finding ways to let technology do what it does best so that we can leverage teachers to do what they do best.”

Technology adds another dimension to classroom. New educational technologies have the ability to energize students and educators alike, but newfound access and capability mean nothing without an engaged leader who can pull these tools together in a practical and meaningful way. That means the role of the teacher remains ever-important in the high technology learning environment. But there is one key difference. Perhaps in this new environment, the teacher’s role is becoming less traditional – shifting from that of “orator,” or the sole source for information, to more of a “facilitator/ mediator.”

Research on the use of technology has been decades now, but is still comparatively young. It still suffers from fragmentation and firm documentation. Furthermore, research on CALL is associated more with several other areas, rather than ESL theories. For instance, the relation between computer use in the classroom and learner autonomy, and computer learning and cooperative learning are some of the areas of interest in the field. “Many researchers have pursued individual agendas that are often tied to soon-obsolescent software.” (Beatty, 2003). Language teachers are CALL consumers, and as CALL consumers, we are obliged to follow an enlightened path: integration of ESL instruction and CALL. Technology and computer are meant to supplement face-to-face language instruction, not replace it.

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Changing writing classrooms through group dynamics

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Abstract

Teachers and students can struggle with the rigors of EFL academic writing classes. Students are often unfamiliar with the writing process and can be overwhelmed by writing academic essays. Since establishing a positive classroom environment is a key factor in learning, it is important to create this in the writing classroom. This paper focuses on improving the writing process of EFL students by using literature circles to develop positive group dynamics in a writing classroom. Typically used in reading classes, literature circles emphasize collaborative learning and role allocation to create a student-centered learning environment. By adapting the traditional roles of literature circles to meet the needs of writing students, the author sought to encourage students to strengthen their writing through communication with peers. While not a research study, this paper explains some of the perceived benefits of including literature circles in an academic writing classroom.

Keywords: writing, group dynamics, literature circles

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1. Introduction

It can be argued that university EFL writing classes in Japan are the bane of both students and instructors alike. Students often bemoan the undertaking of academic essay writing as being too demanding while instructors can become distressed when reading through essay after essay and wondering why students are not grasping the basic concepts of writing that have been reviewed repeatedly. Unlike speaking and listening skills, which have obvious benefits to students, writing skills are often underdeveloped in students, many of whom will not need English academic writing skills after graduating.

One key to understanding why Japanese students struggle with academic writing is to examine writing instruction that takes place in the Japanese education system prior to entering university. Cummins' (1980) Interdependence Hypothesis stated that L2 literacy is at least partially dependent on L1 literacy, and there has been extensive study on how L2 learners transfer their writing abilities from their L1 (Edelsky, 1982; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Mohan & Lo, 1985). As a result, we can expect that a student's L2 writing skills can be impacted by the instruction they have received in secondary education and, to think about how we can improve our students' writing, we must first understand the writing background of students.

High school writing courses in Japan fail to adequately prepare students for university academic writing courses due to an overall lack of emphasis on writing in L1 as well as L2. Gilfert, Niwa, and Sugiyama (1999) asserted that Japanese high school students have difficulty in writing in general, and the culprit is they are not taught, in their native language, how to write in a coherent, communicative manner. Even in their L1, Japanese writing students are not taught adequate writing skills so, as writing instructors, it is important to temper our expectations of the type of work that writing students produce. In their study of writing in Japanese high schools, Kobayashi and Rinnert (2002) found that students are not exposed to many writing-based activities in classrooms because writing in the L1 is not emphasized, which not only fails to develop writing ability, but also important academic skills such as critical thinking and conducting research. As a result, students entering a university writing course lack both the knowledge and experience to produce an academic essay. In other words, unlike speaking, listening, and reading skills, which are present in most forms of high school English assessment, writing is largely neglected in both L1 and L2.

One of the first steps in developing writing skills is for students to understand that the process of writing is not something done in a vacuum. Writing should only be thought of as a solitary activity when considering the aspect of inscription, or putting pen or pencil to paper or typing on a keyboard (Bruffee, 1999). Writers often discuss ideas, ask questions of others, and have peers look at their work so there are communicative aspects to writing which are included in the writing process. Although the actual act of writing is usually done alone, the writing process includes working with others. Bruffee (1999) stated that writing is one decision after another and that making accurate and knowledgeable decisions is something that is best learned collaboratively, or through collaborative learning.

Collaborative learning is rooted in Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) where what a learner can accomplish with the assistance of others can bridge the gap

between what someone is able to and not able to achieve (Vygotsky, 1978). If teachers can make their writing classes more collaborative, it may provide students with a better learning environment to strengthen their writing. Collaborative learning allows students to participate in their own learning by giving them the tools necessary to learn and giving them the opportunity to apply their learning effectively (Grover, 2010). One of the underlying premises of collaborative learning is that group members respect each other's contributions and abilities (Hogarth, 2010). In order to create this type of learning atmosphere, it is essential to have good group dynamics within a classroom.

For positive group dynamics to develop, participation by all members is crucial (Fisher & Ellis, 1990) and there needs to be open communication and high levels of inclusion, acceptance, support, and trust (Johnson & Johnson, 2003). Similarly, it is important to promote interaction among the students, let them learn about each other, encourage cooperation, and model friendly and supportive behavior by the teacher to generate rewarding group experiences (Dörnyei & Murphy, 2003). If there is good group dynamics in the classroom then students are more willing to engage in discussions and develop as academic writers. If students feel they are in a safe environment, then they will be more open to acceptance, support, and trust amongst each other and develop the social aspect of writing.

Literature circles, originally developed by Harvey Daniels and his colleagues for elementary and secondary schools in America, have primarily been used in EFL in reading courses. Literature circles gives students the chance to engage in multiple discussions with classmates about the material they have read. Daniels (1994) stated, "The constant recombining of people into new groupings also enacts the principle of group dynamics whereby widespread, diffuse communication and friendship patterns in a classroom build cohesion and productivity" (p. 28). When doing literature circles in a classroom, students meet with several different groups, depending on the roles or tasks they have been assigned for the reading. Dörnyei and Murphy (2003) emphasized that roles are important to the productivity of a group and that role allocation "increases the learning potential of the group and fosters development of abilities in different members" (p. 119). While teachers have reported success in using literature circles in EFL reading classes (Furr, 2004; Hsu, 2004; Sevigny & Berger, 2014), the use of literature circles can also have a positive effect on EFL writing classes.

2. Literature Circles

Literature circles involve collaborative learning and student-centered learning. The origin of literature circles is usually attributed to Karen Smith in 1982 whose fifth grade elementary school students created their own small groups to discuss the novels that they chose for independent reading without any assistance from the teacher (Daniels, 1994). This is the basis for what Daniels, in addition to Katherine L. Schlick, Nancy J. Johnson, and Bonnie Campbell Hill, developed into the literature circles that are widely used today.

Although there are many variations on how to do literature circles, the original concept of them is the basis for how teachers implement them in class. Daniels (1994) defined literature circles as small student reading groups formed and guided by the following principles:

1. Students *choose* their own materials;
2. *Small temporary* groups are formed, based on book choice;
3. Different groups read *different books*;
4. Groups meet on a *regular, predictable schedule* to discuss their reading;
5. Kids use written or drawn *notes* to guide both their reading and discussion;
6. Discussion *topics come from students*;
7. Group meetings aim to be *open, natural conversations about books*, so personal connections, digressions, and open-ended questions are welcome;
8. In newly forming groups, students play a rotating assortment of task *roles*;
9. The teacher serves as a *facilitator*, not a group member or instructor;
10. Evaluation is by *teacher observation and student self-evaluation*;
11. A spirit of *playfulness and fun* pervades the room;
12. When books are finished, *readers share with their classmates*, and then *new groups form* around new reading choices (p.18).

While not all of these features are essential to conduct literature circles, they are the founding principles which have guided teachers interested in using literature circles in the classroom. It is also important to clear up some of the key misunderstandings of literature circles. Literature circles are not teacher-centered, are structured for student independence, responsibility, and ownership, are flexible and fluid, and not an unstructured and uncontrolled talking time for students (Schlick Noe & Johnson, 1999). When using literature circles, the students are leading discussions based on their own questions and topics within a structured framework created by the teacher. In other words, while the teacher may be responsible for establishing how literature circles are set up within a classroom, it is the students who determine the themes and content within their discussion.

While these are the basis of literature circles, it is important to note that these can be adapted for an EFL setting. Daniels and his colleagues first implemented literature circles in elementary and secondary school classrooms in Chicago. Furr (2004) changed the first four of Daniels elements to better fit an EFL classroom by having instructors choose appropriate materials for the students, small temporary groups formed on student choice or instructor discretion, different groups reading the same text, and when books are finished, having students prepare a group project as well as the instructor providing additional information to fill in the gaps of student understanding.

Literature circles are structured for students to become independent and responsible for their learning (Noe and Johnson, 1999). One of the ways to do this is through collaboration, which is at the heart of literature circles. This is accomplished through different role sheets that students complete. While every student is responsible for

reading the text, each student has a different role to complete so each member makes a distinct contribution to the overall group. Daniels (1994) stated that what is vital to make cooperation work is, “assigning specific, structured roles to the different group members. This way, each person has a special, individual responsibility, a job to do, a piece of the puzzle to contribute if the group is to succeed” (p. 24). The use of roles is the most important aspect of literature circles.

2.1 Roles

The aspect of roles in literature circles is the real magic of literature circles (Furr, 2004). Roles are vital to collaborative work to be successful because when each person is assigned a specific role, “members feel satisfied with their part in the group process in groups with different roles and/or jobs to do; such groups can work efficiently, smoothly, and productively” (Cohen & Lotan, 2014, p. 115). Daniels’ (1994) original literature circle roles for non-fiction included a Discussion Director, Passage Master, Vocabulary Enricher, Illustrator, and a Connector. The Discussion Director is responsible for creating questions to ask the other group members and lead the group discussion. The Passage Master chooses different sections of the reading and explains the reasons for choosing the selected passages. The Vocabulary Enricher shares the important words that are found in the reading and explains to the group the meaning so that everyone in the group understands the vocabulary. The Illustrator draws a visual representation of the reading. It can be a specific scene, a character, a flow chart, or anything related to the reading. The Connector must find ways to connect the reading to the outside world. For the roles to be successful, there should be a mix of structure and openness so roles should specify a purpose or task for the reading rather than the general content, while still being open-ended to allow students to understand that there is more than one correct answer (Daniels, 1994). Upon finishing the reading, each student does his or her assigned role and then shares the information with the group.

2.2 Roles for writing classes

In an attempt to make writing classes more collaborative, the author tried using literature circles in a university writing class. For an academic writing class, not all of Daniels’ original roles are relevant and they need to be adapted to a writing context. The roles were revised into a Leader/Quiz Master, Summarizer/Illustrator, and Passage/Reference Person. The Leader/Quiz Master was responsible for creating two comprehension questions about the reading and two discussion questions based on the reading. The Summarizer/Illustrator summed up the reading into three key points and made one illustration of the reading. The Passage/Reference Person chose three passages from the reading, explained why they were chosen and then did the APA referencing information for the reading.

Each role was modified so that it contributed to establishing positive group dynamics while also addressing a specific writing skill. The Leader/Quiz Master was responsible for facilitating the discussion by asking members to share their role work with the group. In addition, the Leader/Quiz Master learned how to analyze a text and gather ideas. Since this role is responsible for creating comprehension and discussion questions, the Leader/Quiz Master also learned to pick out key details to ask the other members of the group.

By summarizing the reading, the Summarizer/Illustrator used summarizing skills that are useful in writing concluding sentences as well as closing paragraphs. Also, by creating an illustration of the reading, this role usually brought about the most laughter in the group as both the Summarizer/Illustrator and the rest of the group members typically had a mixture of appreciation, humor, and fun when looking at the illustration. This meets Daniels' (1994) fifth element of using a written or drawn note to guide their discussion as well as his eleventh one of bringing a spirit of playfulness and fun to the room.

The ability to correctly use APA format in writing is not easy for many EFL students, so the Passage/Reference Person has the opportunity to practice these skills by doing three citations of the reading as well as the reference for the reading. By explaining why the passages were chosen as well teaching group members how to reference the reading, it fulfills Greenlee and Karanxha's (2010) characteristics of creating good group dynamics by focusing on a common goal with the desire to benefit all members. If the students were going to use these citations in their essay, it was essential for them to understand the APA format for the article. (Role Sheets Appendix A)

All of the roles in these adapted literature circles were designed to both teach writing skills and facilitate good group dynamics to create a more effective learning environment. Day and Ainley (2008) stated that a classroom with literature circles gives students, "an opportunity to hear a wide range of cultural perspectives, language, and points of views in a non-threatening environment" (p. 158). The distinct roles of Leader/Quiz Master, Summarizer/Illustrator, and Passage/Reference Person provided students with three different perspectives of how to approach the readings that had been assigned while allowing them to use different language, based on their role assignment.

3. Implementation

Literature circles were used in two sections of an academic writing class at a private university in central Japan. The classes were mandatory academic writing classes comprised of mixed-level second year English majors. All second year students were divided into 20 sections with ten teachers taking two sections each. There were between 15-20 students per section. While the topics of the essays were coordinated, the teachers were given the freedom to instruct their students in their own manner as long as the overall goals of the writing classes were achieved. The goals of this writing class were to build on the skills that they learned in their first year writing courses. In their first year, the students took an academic writing class in which they moved from paragraph writing in the first semester to a 150-300 word five paragraph essay in the second semester. This second year class was designed to have students develop their understanding of the writing process, essay structure, and APA skills.

3.1 Class schedule

Each semester was 15 weeks long and students were required to complete three essays. Each essay had a four-lesson cycle (Table 1) which included topic introduction, brainstorming, peer editing of first drafts, teacher feedback on second drafts, and final draft submission.

Table 1: Four-week lesson cycle

Class	Class Contents
1	Topic 1- Introduction and Brainstorming
2	Topic 1- Discussion
3	Topic 1- Peer Editing of 1st Draft
4	Topic 1- Writing Skill Workshop, Submission of 2nd Draft

The lesson cycle began in the second week of classes since the first week was reserved for introductions, orientation, and a writing assessment activity. After submitting their second drafts in the fourth week of the lesson cycle, students restarted the cycle and began the next essay topic. As a result, overlap occurred, where students would be working on their third and final drafts for one essay while preparing to write the first drafts for the next essay. The final two weeks of the semester were used for writer conferencing, an in-class writing assessment, and final reflections and feedback.

3.2 Class procedure

Literature circles were used in every essay lesson cycle. The readings were assigned for homework during week one of the cycle and then used in class the following week (Table 2).

Table 2: Four-week lesson cycle with literature circles included

Class	Class Contents	Homework
1	Topic 1- Introduction and Brainstorming	Read Article A or B and do literature circle role sheet.
2	Topic 1- Discussion (Literature Circle)	Topic 1 Essay 1st Draft
3	Topic 1- Peer Editing of 1st Draft	Topic 2 Essay 2nd Draft
4	Topic 1- Writing Skill Workshop, Submission of 2nd Draft	None

The author chose two news articles (Article A and Article B) to give students background information on the essay topic. The articles were between 400-550 words and taken from various news websites. Providing appropriate material for the students fulfilled Furr's (2004) adaptation of Daniels' element of having the instructor provide appropriate material for the students. Half of the students were assigned to read one article while the other half were assigned the other article. Students were then given their literature circle roles. In a class of 18 students, this allowed for even distribution of roles (Table 3).

Table 3: Ideal literature circles role distribution

	Article A	Article B
Leader/Quiz Master	3 students	3 students
Summarizer/Illustrator	3 students	3 students
Passage/Reference Person	3 students	3 students

If there were less than 18 students in class, the author would reduce the number of Leader/Quiz Master roles. When there were more than 18 students, the author added Summarizer/Illustrator and Passage/Reference Person roles. The reasoning behind this balancing in roles is that the Leader/Quiz Master role has less development of writing skills than the other two roles, so increasing the number of Summarizer/Illustrator and Passage/Reference Person roles also increased the opportunity for students to develop their writing skills. Students were responsible for reading their article and completing their role sheet.

During the next class, the literature circle groups involved three stages. In the first stage (“Same Role Group”), the students met with the others who read the same article and performed the same role, so all Article A Leader/Quiz Masters were in one group, all Article A Summarizer/Illustrators were in another group, and all Article A summarizer and illustrators were in a group. An identical set of groups was also formed of students who read Article B. While in the “Same Role Group,” students had between five to seven minutes to share their work and ideas with each other. This allowed students to check their work with their peers and make changes to their work. During this group work, the author walked around the classroom to monitor and assist students when necessary but mainly allowed students to collaborate without much teacher interference. Daniels’ (1994) ninth principle for literature circles emphasizes that teachers should serve as facilitators rather than group members or instructors. In this stage, as well as the following stages, students were told that they were to read their work to their group members and not put their work down on the table for the rest of the group to copy. It was emphasized that this was a speaking and listening activity as well as a reading and writing activity.

The next stage, named “Same Reading Group,” involved reforming groups of students who read the same article to include at least one Leader/Quiz Master, one Summarizer/Illustrator, and one Passage/Reference Person per group. Ideally, in a class of 18, there would be six groups, three for Article A and three for Article B. If there were too many students of one role, then having two students with the same role in one group was acceptable. If there were not enough students of one role then the author asked a student to perform the same role for two different groups.

During this stage, the Leader/Quiz Master led the discussion by welcoming everyone to the group and asking the Summarizer/Illustrator to share their role with other students by telling everyone the three key points to the article and explaining the illustration. As the summarizer was doing this, the other group members wrote the information on their Literature Circles Worksheet (Appendix B). After the summarizer finished, the Leader/Quiz Master asked the Passage/Reference Person to share the passages that he/she chose and the reasoning behind choosing them. On their role sheets, the students were given examples of how to explain their reasoning, such as the passage supports a key point on the topic, reveals surprising or new

information on the topic, or says something that they completely disagree with. The Passage/Reference Person gave examples of how to cite the article and shared the APA reference for the article, all of which the students recorded on their Literature Circles Worksheet. Finally, the Leader/Quiz Master asked the comprehension questions on his/her role sheet and the other group members wrote down both the questions and answers on their Literature Circles Worksheet. To end this stage, the Leader/Quiz Master asked the two discussion questions on the topic. This “Same Reading Group” took at least 20 to 30 minutes due to the exchange of information. As with the previous stage, the author’s role was to monitor and provide assistance to students when needed. The most common request during this time was to check if the citations and references followed APA format.

The final stage, “Information Exchange,” paired students so that each pair had someone who read Article A and one who had read Article B. During this stage, the pair shared the summary, passages with APA citations and references, and discussion and comprehension questions and answers with their partner. This stage allowed students to teach their partner about the article they read and gave students information on both readings. This final stage took between 20 and 30 minutes.

To wrap up the activity, the students reformed groups and discussed the questions prepared by the Leader/Quiz Masters. Students were given ten minutes to discuss the questions in their groups before coming together for a class discussion. The students were told that both Article A and B could be used as reference material for their essays. The use of literature circles was repeated for every essay cycle in the first and second semester, with the articles increasing to 550-800 words for the second semester.

4. Potential problems and benefits

A typical problem that can occur with any type of group work or collaborative learning is not having all members do their share of the work. While the assignment of different roles in literature circles can aid in this by creating a sense of responsibility to their classmates, it is important to make sure that each member clearly understands the responsibility of the role that has been assigned. Cohen and Lotan (2014) claimed that in order to ensure the effectiveness of role assignments, it is important to make the roles public knowledge to the rest of the class, rotate roles so that every member will eventually do each role, specify in great detail the responsibility of each role, and make sure all group members are clear about the responsibilities of each role. By making these principles clear to all students it helped the author reduce the number of students who failed to contribute to the group because the students realized that they could not complete their group tasks without the participation of all members.

The primary reason for using literature circles in an academic writing class was to build positive group dynamics. While this study was based on observation and not measurement, the author observed students discussing the essay topics and essay drafts more openly than in previous classes in which literature circles were not used. This occurred in group work where students did different writing workshop activities as well as before class started. A number of factors likely contributed to this, including positive group dynamics. Future studies can examine student perceptions of

writing being either a solitary or collaborative process with a pre-study questionnaire followed by a post-study questionnaire of whether the use of literature circles changed their initial perceptions.

The author also observed more engagement from students during peer response of first drafts. Unlike previous years of this writing course, students were more profuse in their comments and suggestions about their peers' essays. The feedback that students gave to the author regarding peer response was much more positive than in previous years as students claimed to find much greater value in the peer response process than classes in which literature circles were not used. Again, this is not based on formal research, but on the author's collection of student reflections and observation and a future study that measures the impact of group dynamics on peer response is needed to demonstrate the significance of these factors.

The ancillary purpose of using literature circles was to improve student's writing skills. While data was not collected about the improvement of the writing skills of the students, the author did notice that there were fewer APA mistakes among the students than in previous years. The impact of literature circles on this was not measured and this could be a result of prior student knowledge and training. Similarly, while students demonstrated improved summarization skills, this may or may not have been the result of the use of literature circles. While the author noticed improvement in these two skills, it is important to note that more research should be conducted to measure the significance.

5. Conclusions

The author has found that using literature circles in an academic writing classroom can improve the process of academic essay writing by strengthening positive group dynamics in an EFL classroom. One of the key components of literature circles is assigning different roles to students to foster a collaborative learning environment. By creating groups in which contributions from all members is necessary, cooperation is essential, and communication is open, positive group dynamics begin to form and student perceptions of writing as a solitary endeavor begin to transform into the peer-supported activity that most writers recognize it to be.

There are many aspects that are involved in building up the writing skills of EFL students and while learning grammar, voice, essay structure, and researching skills, among others, are in lessons incorporated into most writing classes, establishing a positive learning environment within a classroom can make acquiring and polishing these skills easier. The inclusion of literature circles in an academic writing class is not a substitute for teaching writing skills but an activity which fosters group dynamics while helping to develop some of the writing skills that the students have already learned about.

Using literature circles in writing classes can help to make the writing process a bit more communicative for EFL students and, as a result, allow them to understand that writing benefits from communication with others. In addition, the practice of literature circles uses the four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing, so its inclusion in a writing class can help develop writing skills that are not adequately

cultivated in high school. While further study is needed, any class may benefit from the positive environment created by using literature circles.

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Appendix A

Leader/Quiz Master

Title _____

Questions about the reading:
1.
2.

Answers

1.

2.

Discussion questions:
1.
2.

Summarizer/Illustrator

Title _____

Three Key Points:
1.
2.
3.

My Picture:

Passage/Reference Person

Page/ Paragraph	Why you chose that passage
(1)	
(2)	
(3)	

APA Format

APA Reference

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Appendix B**Literature Circles Worksheet- Article A****Passages**

Page/ Paragraph	Why the passage was chosen

Reference**Summary of the Article**

1.

2.

3.

Literature Circles Worksheet- Article B**Passages**

Page/ Paragraph	Why the passage was chosen

Reference**Summary of the Article**

1.

2.

3.

“I am afraid of Learning English”: The Interplay between Anxiety and Learning Experience on Indonesian Senior High School Students’ Academic Performance

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of learning experience and anxiety on senior high school students’ academic performance in Indonesia. A small-scale quantitative study was conducted using convenience sampling. Two kinds of data collection were administered: a questionnaire and an evaluation of students’ academic record. A 40 items Likert scale questionnaire was distributed to measure students’ learning experience and level of anxiety and students two-year progress reports were studied and tabulated to analyse students’ performance in learning English. By using descriptive analysis and correlation, the study found that: (1) Students who have positive learning experiences develop a low level of anxiety but a high academic performance. (2) The correlation between language experience and academic performance is significantly positive. It can be seen from sig. 0,000 < 0,01 and because the correlation is high with a coefficient of 0,747. (3) The correlation between language anxiety and academic performance was negative. Here we see sig. 0,000 < 0,01 and a high coefficient of 0.748.

Keywords: anxiety, learning experience, academic performance

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Introduction

“I can’t speak English.”

“Learning English is only for smart students.”

“I don’t understand at all what the teacher says.”

Those above expressions are commonly heard in my classroom, even though English is taught since elementary school. In Indonesia, it is introduced as a foreign language and a compulsory subject. Despite having been mandatory for a long time, there are negative stereotypes of how complicated it is. In class, students are required to show their ability both in oral and written skill. Additionally, an important parameter of successful academic performance on English in Indonesia is a student’s national exam score. This is a standard test designed by the government to measure the students’ comprehension of English and to grade the quality of a school. It is held annually for students in the twelfth grade of senior high school. Students are made aware early on their studies of their responsibility to prepare themselves for the national exam and the university entrance. For most this is a troublesome burden. Having such perspective in mind the students feel more worried in studying English.

Anxiety over individual differences is believed to be one of the most important factors affects second language (L2) learning. Unfortunately, some students had felt uneasy and worried since the very first time they learned a L2, while others might experience it later after some negative occasions (Price, 1991). Feeling nervous, worried, anxious, and uneasy in a L2 classroom is certainly led to disadvantages. In fact, anxiety can bring detrimental effects by reducing the opportunity to comprehend study materials. Research has consistently shown that anxiety can have a negative influence on the L2 learners’ performance (Horwitz et al., 1986; Macintyre, 1995; Arnold & Brown, 1999; Kitano, 2001; Gardner, 2010; Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

For decades, researchers have believed that many learning variables are linked to the presence of anxiety, for instance: Saito & Samimi (1996) investigate the effect of anxiety on language performance. Additionally, Bailey et al., (1999) correlate language anxiety and learning style. Gregersen & Horwitz (2002) discuss the link between anxiety and perfectionism. Furthermore, Gopang et al. (2016) establish the relation between anxiety and learners’ belief. However, the potential relationship between anxiety and learning experience is not empirically tested. That is why the purpose of this study is to investigate the link of those variables as well as their influence on academic performance.

Defining foreign language anxiety

Even though anxiety is mostly seen as a negative trait, some researchers believe that it can be positive in particular situations. It has become one of individual characteristics that is believed to have a significant impact on L2 learners. Dörnyei (2005) classifies anxiety into two different groups. First, beneficial vs inhibitory or facilitating vs debilitating. Despite the dichotomy of terminologies, they represent both the positive and negative sides of anxiety. Anxiety in certain condition can support individual performance under certain conditions, depending on the kinds of emotions at play. For example, feeling nervous of parents’ presence in a school performance might encourage a student to perform her best. However, if she feels too worried, she may

be afraid come on stage and cause mistakes. The second group is referred to as state and trait anxiety. State anxiety occurs as a response to a threatening situation, which lasts temporarily and fades once the threat disappears (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Meanwhile, trait anxiety is a kind of permanent individual difference that makes the person anxious in every situation (Scovel, 1991). This kind of anxiety differs from one individual to another. For example, some students will be anxious when interacting with new classmates, whereas others will enjoy the opportunity.

However, Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) differs from both of those kinds. Horwitz et al., (1986, p. 128) says that FLA is ‘a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the L2 learning process’. Unlike state anxiety, which can diminish over time, if repeated occurrences cause students to associate anxiety with L2 performance, anxiety becomes a trait rather than a state (Tanielian, 2014). Once language anxiety has evolved into a lasting trait, it can have pervasive effects on language learning and language performance (Oxford, 1999).

Sources of foreign language anxiety in second language classroom

Many factors can trigger the prevalence of anxiety. Anxiety is related to what happens in a classroom, such as teacher-students’ interaction. The teachers’ behaviour plays a crucial role; their supportive talk can facilitate or debilitate anxiety. For example, if the students feel uncomfortable because of over correction, anxiety might emerge. However, the situation can be different if the teachers encourage and support them in less anxious L2 classroom climate. (Phillip, 1992).

Based on her research, Young (1991) categorizes potential sources of anxiety into six types: personal and interpersonal anxiety, learner’s belief toward learning, teacher’s belief about teaching, teacher-student interaction, classroom procedure, and language testing. The first cause reflects on how students view themselves. Those with low self-esteem tend to be more anxious about their existence in the L2 classroom, especially when it relates to their readiness to face competition or show their ability. In addition, learners’ belief about learning itself is considered important; negative stereotype of the capabilities required when mastering a L2 will affect a student’s anxiety. If students have an assumption that learning will be difficult they are likely more anxious than those who can approach the L2 learning experience more positively. Moreover, teachers’ belief in their teaching methods also contributes to the level of anxiety. This belief influences their interaction with the students, thus teachers who create a tense atmosphere and who focus on correcting every mistake may create more fear and anxiety. Therefore, by being less supportive, they create an unpleasant learning environment. The anxiety related to interacting with the class can affect some student’s performance; being asked to communicate in front of an audience is a daunting task. Students can feel nervous, scared, and unready when answering a teacher’s question orally, when presenting idea in a group, or when demonstrating a project in front of the class. The last potential source is L2 testing. Test anxiety involves both communicative and non-communicative elements. Students’ confusion of the test format and content can provoke higher levels of anxiety; for example, those students who have spent many hours studying but who are presented with a different assessment will complain and become upset.

Otherwise, three interrelated causes of anxiety are proposed by Horwitz et al., (1986): communication apprehension, language testing, and fear of others' evaluation in the L2 classroom. The first cause is related to expressing thought orally. It refers to a discomfort speaking in front of other people, whether in a small group or in front of the whole class. Understanding a L2 completely is impossible and expressing opinion in other languages requires a complicated thought process. Miscommunication might always therefore occur, which can lead to frustration for both speaker and listener (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). The second aspect involves being anxious in the face of examination. This fear comes when students have a high concern for their academic achievement and place high demand on themselves (Liu & Jackson, 2008). It also occurs when students find the difference between material taught and the substance of the test. Meanwhile, the last aspect is fear of negative evaluation from other people, specifically teachers and classmates. Students are afraid of being corrected for their performance (whether written and spoken language) so they may become anxious in attending a L2 class. Those students who already had anxiety remain silent in the classroom.

Learning experience in influencing anxiety

A student's learning experience is formulated during the years they spend in the classroom itself. This factor then influences the attitude of the student towards the act of learning. That classroom is noticeably vital in creating a student's experience and attitude toward L2 learning (Nikolov, 1999; Czier & Kormos, 2009).

A model of the relationship between learning experience and anxiety has been developed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) and later summarized by Ellis (2008). This model describes how learning experience in different stages influences anxiety. At first, students are not anxious starting their language learning, thus any anxiety at this stage is likely to result from low degree state anxiety. Then, if the students have a negative experience of the learning process once it actually commences their emotions and attitude being to be shaped accordingly; at this time, their anxiety will continuously grow and affect their performance. Heron (1989) calls it *archaic anxiety*, which is 'repressed distress of the past-the personal hurt, particularly of childhood, that has been denied so that individual can survive emotionally' (p.33). Therefore, such unpleasant past experience can threaten current situation (Arnold & Brown, 1999).

The model is outlined in the following table (Ellis, 2008 P. 483):

Stage	Type of anxiety	Effect on learning
Beginner	Very little-restricted to state anxiety	None
Post-beginner	Situation anxiety develops if the learner develops negative expectations based on bad learning experiences	Learner expects to be nervous and performs poorly.
Later	Poor performance and continue bad learning experiences result in increased anxiety.	Continued poor performance

Methodology

Context

This research investigated students at one senior high school in Indonesia, located on a small island. The students have been learning English as a foreign language, which is primarily only studied in school. Nevertheless, some of them might be learning English in a private institution in addition. All students were in the twelfth grade (the last year of high school) and were aged between 16 and 17 years old.

Method

Quantitative method usually measures learners' attitude or behaviour in learning by gathering closed-ended information. In this research, it was deployed to generate a broad picture of the correlation between students' learning experience and anxiety and their academic performance.

Research questions

1. To what extent does learners learning experience influence their academic performance?
2. How does anxiety influence a learner's academic performance?

Participant

Because I considered the problems within the school I taught, convenience sampling was employed in selecting the research participants. This selection of sampling was aimed for practical reasons (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010). 45 twelfth grade of my students were chosen on the basis of their different levels of academic performance. A criterion for inclusion in the study is that they should have been learning English for a long time and should be facing the national language exam the following April.

Data Collection

The data was collected through two different methods. First, a modified questionnaire, constructed using insight from relevant research, was deployed. This used a five-point Likert scale (absolutely disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neither agree nor disagree = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5) and was distributed to participant online (using a Google form). Second, in order to understand the relationship between student anxiety and academic performance, I studied school documents on student scores. After distributing the questionnaire, the names of students participated were listed to find their scores from the past two years.

Instruments

The instrument used for this research was developed around several five-points Likert scales, using close-ended items. The questions were selected from two sources: the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) questionnaire proposed by Horwitz (1983) and cited in Horwitz et al., (1986) and a learning experience questionnaire developed by Csizer and Kormos (2009). The questionnaire consisted of 40 items measuring these following aspects:

- 33 items asked about student anxiety. This focused on anxiety surrounding difference aspects of learning English, including preparation prior to class, performance in class, and learning outside the class. To simplify participant understanding about the context, the words language and foreign language in the original FLCAS were replaced by the word English.
- A number of questions covering learning experience were included. These focused on the way in which students like to learn English, both inside and outside classroom and their attitude toward English and activities related to it.

Data Analysis Procedure

Scores for each of 40 items for each questionnaire were initially recorded in Microsoft Excel, where data were organized in separated tabs for independent groups. After that, all items of the FLCAS Likert scale were reversed for the negatively-worded questions to obtain the mean. Similarly, the 7 items focusing on learning experience were organized in positively-worded statements, before the mean was counted. Furthermore, 8 columns of scoring data were taken from the students' record from their first and second year of senior high school. The scores represented both the students' testing and practical skill, on the scale of 1-4, in which 4 for the highest. Raw data was then copied and pasted into SPSS 24 for numerical analysis.

In analysing the data, both descriptive and correlation analysis were used to obtain a clear picture of result. Descriptive analysis illustrated the distribution of variable percentages in pie charts. Furthermore, the correlation analysis chosen was a non-parametric statistical analysis. This is one of several used when parametric assumptions cannot be filled. Non-parametric statistic does not tend to specific parameter or known as free-distribution procedure (Verma & Mallick, 1999). It has some distinct advantages. Because two variables outcomes in this research were ordinal, using parametric analysis was impossible. As Daniel (2000) says outcomes which are ordinal, ranked, not relied on normality, or measured imprecisely are

difficult to analyse with parametric test without having a major assumption of their distribution. In addition, analysis is relatively simple to conduct since it does not require a complicated math.

Using a nonparametric statistical correlation, which is Spearman's rank correlation coefficient or known as Spearman's rho, is 'the most straightforward procedure of all' (Connolly, 2007. P. 214). It measures the relationship between two variables by using correlation coefficient or r .

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum_{i=1}^N d_i^2}{N^3 - N}$$

Note:

d_i : the difference between two variables
 N : the number of sample

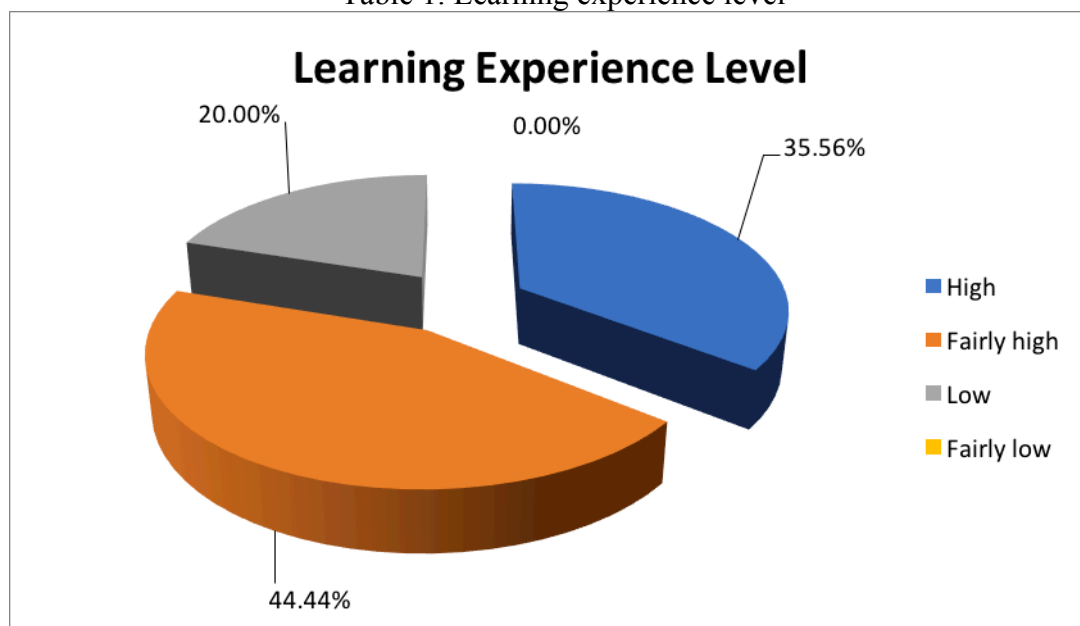
The score of correlation coefficient ranges from $\pm 0,00$ until $\pm 1,00$. + is a sign for positive correlation, while – describes the contrary. Furthermore, to measure the significance correlation between variables, the score of sig. is considered. If sig. < 0.01 means there is a significant correlation between variables. Otherwise, if sig. > 0.01 describes no sufficient correlation.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive analysis

As Dörnyei & Taguchi (2010) argue, rather than listing every score taken from a study, summarizing the numerical data by presenting the mean and range of values is more acceptable. Based on the questionnaires distributed, there were 7 items of learning experience that represent conditions in the language classroom. The statements focused on the extent to which students enjoy learning English, both in the classroom or outside. The mean percentage was then grouped into four categories: High : ≥ 4 , fairly high : ≥ 3 , low : ≥ 2 , and fairly low : ≥ 1 . Looking on the data taken, we can talk of three categories of student learning experience: 35.56% high, 44.44% fairly high, and 20.00% low.

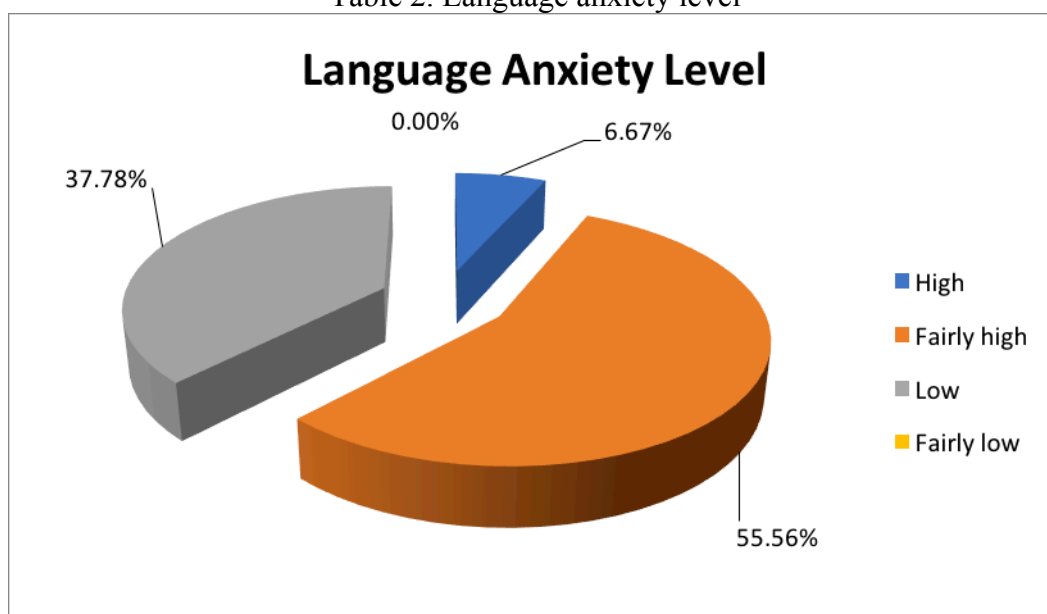
Table 1. Learning experience level



The 33 items of FLCA are generally divided into three categories of anxiety: communication apprehension, testing anxiety, and fear of others' evaluation. Items such as statement number one "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class" measures student communication apprehension anxiety. This kind of statement is repeatedly tested to explore the first cause of a student's frustration. At the same time, some questions investigated the worry of preparing for or undertaking a language test. This is shown in statement number (21) "The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get", which seeks to understand whether students become uneasy even though they have already prepared themselves for the test. With regards to a student's fear of negative evaluation, whether from peers or teachers, item number (7) asks "I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am". This type of anxiety prevents the students from expressing their ideas because they are scared of not being seen to fail.

The distribution of language anxiety shows most participants have a high level of anxiety in learning English. The percentages are classified using the similar groups as before. The result shows as follow, 6.67% high, 55.56% fairly high, and 37.78% low.

Table 2. Language anxiety level



Students' academic progress report

Unlike both above variables, data for which was obtained through questionnaires, the data covering academic performance as drawn from the previous two years of a student's record, including two different aspects of scoring. First is theoretical knowledge, which focuses on student understanding on the grounding theory of a topic. The score reflects performance in a number of tasks from the beginning of the semester: daily tasks, homework, the mid-term test, and the final test. Second, practical skill concerns student application of their learning. For instance, the use of certain grammar in a writing task or different expressions when speaking. The range of scores can be seen in the following table:

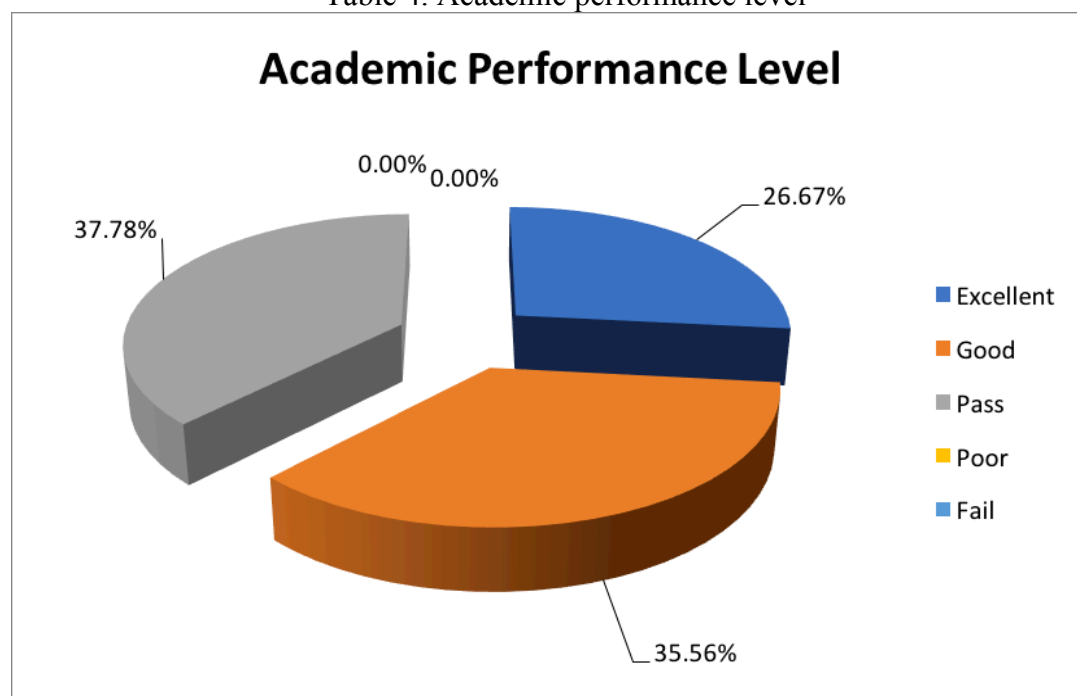
Table 3. Academic score description

Score Description			
Mark	Theoretical Knowledge	Practical Skill	Attitude
A	3,85 - 4,00	3,85 - 4,00	Excellent
A-	3,51 - 3,84	3,51 - 3,84	
B+	3,18 - 3,50	3,18 - 3,50	Good
B	3,00 - 3,17	3,00 - 3,17	
B-	2,51 - 2,99	2,51 - 2,99	Pass
C+	2,18 - 2,50	2,18 - 2,50	
C	1,85 - 2,17	1,85 - 2,17	Poor
C-	1,51 - 1,84	1,51 - 1,84	
D+	1,18 - 1,50	1,18 - 1,50	Fail
D	1,00 - 1,17	1,00 - 1,17	

Taken from: students' progress report

The calculation was started by tabulating scores for the previous four semesters across the two dimensions above for each. Then, the sum of the eight columns of scores were drawn to find the mean of score for each student. It can be seen that the majority of students' academic performance were good, with the percentage of 26.67% excellent, 35.56% good, and 37.78% pass.

Table 4. Academic performance level



Learning experience, language anxiety and academic performance in scatter diagram

Before explaining the correlation of each variable, we can map the relationship between variables on a scatter plot, which can depict the link between them. First, we focus on the relationship between learning experience and academic performance (see diagram 1 below). Data was sorted from the smallest to the largest score. It can be clearly seen that higher level of student experience is correlated with higher academic performance. Students' experience goes together with their level of performance. Both variables present a positive relation.

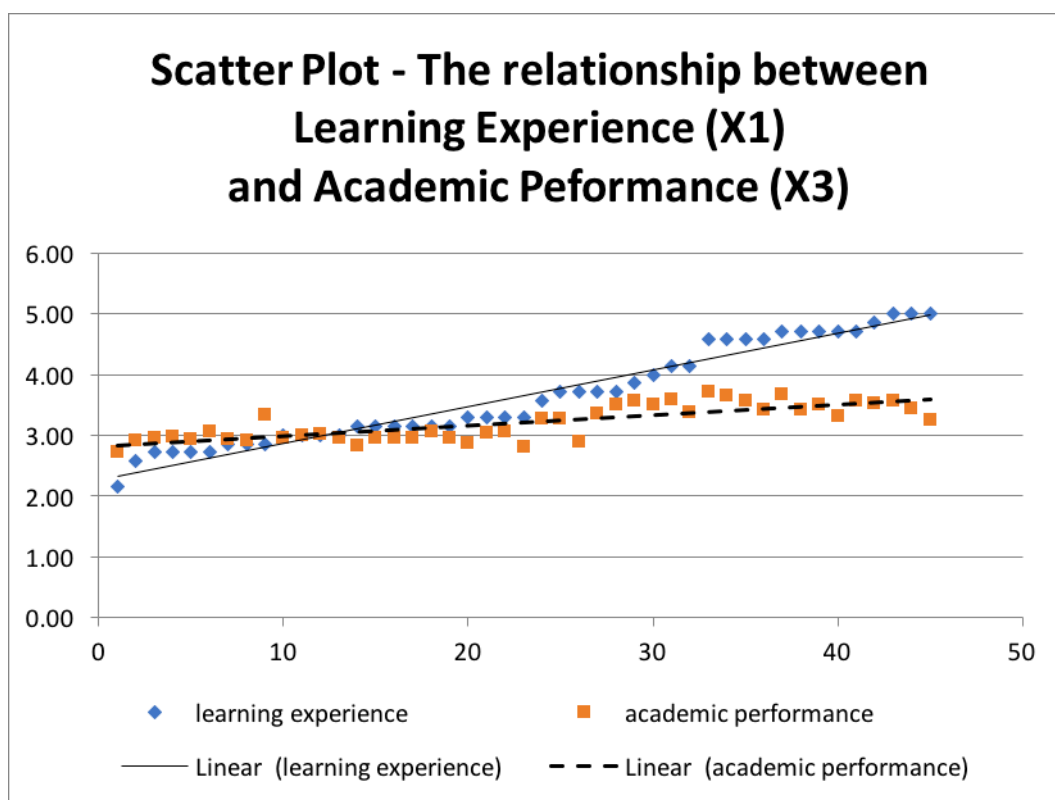


Diagram 1 scatter plot-the relationship between x1 and x3

On the contrary, when we focus on language anxiety we see it has a negative relationship with academic performance. From the following diagram, it is obvious that the line of x2 is crossing x3. It means that the higher level of anxiety, the lower the student's academic performance is.

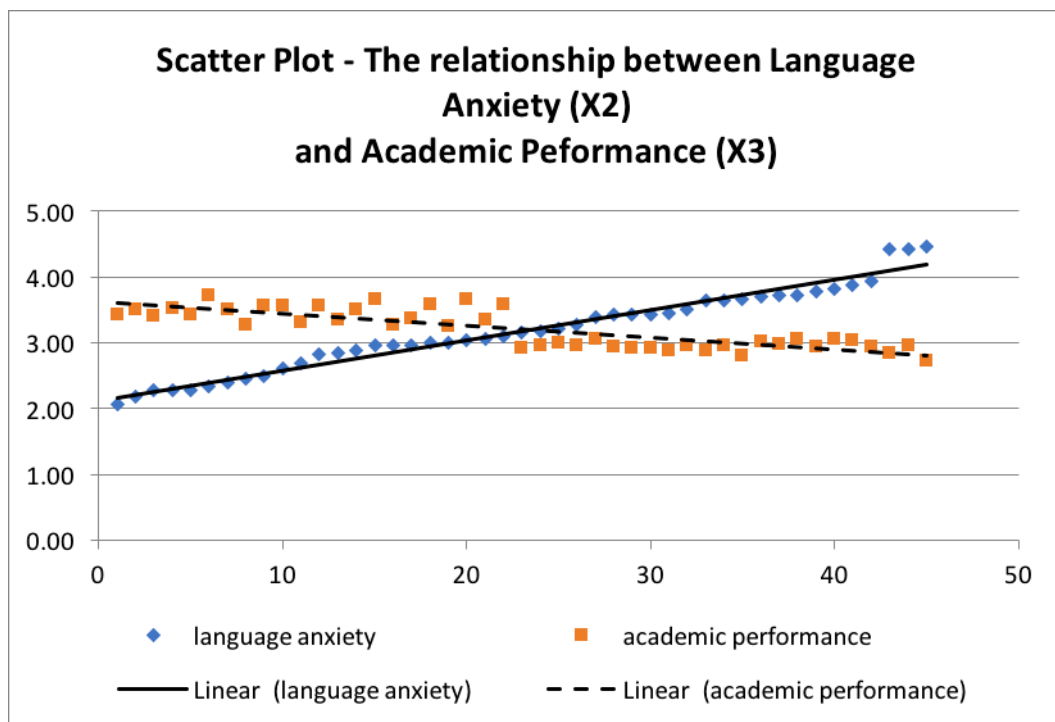


Diagram 2 scatter plot- the relationship between x2 and x3

Correlation Analysis

The correlation used to test these following hypotheses:

H_0 : Learning experience does not influence student academic performance.

H_1 : Learning experience has a significant impact on student academic performance.

While,

H_0 : Language anxiety does not affect students' academic performance.

H_2 : Language anxiety has a significant effect on students' academic performance.

Nonparametric Correlations					
			learning_experience	language_anxiety	academic_performance
Spearman's rho	learning_experience	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	-,700**	,747**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000	,000
		N	45	45	45
	language_anxiety	Correlation Coefficient	-,700**	1,000	-,748**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.	,000
		N	45	45	45
	academic_performance	Correlation Coefficient	,747**	-,748**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	.
		N	45	45	45
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 5- non-parametric correlation among learning experience, anxiety, and academic performance

Based on the Spearman's rho analysis, it can be concluded that: The correlation between language experience and academic performance is significantly positive. It can be seen from sig. $0.000 < 0.01$ (H_0 rejected) and the correlation is high with coefficient $r = 0.747$. However, the correlation between language anxiety and academic performance was negative, we can see this when we look at sig. $0.000 < 0.01$ and the high coefficient $r = 0.748$.

The Role of Teacher in L2 classroom

The question addressed by this research was whether learners' experience or anxiety in the classroom effects their theoretical and practical academic performance. It was found that a more enjoyable experience of L2 learning can be beneficial for improving students' performance. We also saw that higher levels of anxiety are

negatively correlated with academic performance. Since both variables are related to teachers' role in the classroom the need to create a supportive learning environment is increased. A supportive environment allows students to focus on improving their skill without being over worried of their surroundings (Phillip, 1992). To provide such an atmosphere it can be clearly seen that the role of teachers is significant. Their contribution in providing classroom experience influences the students' level of anxiety. 'Each had vivid memories of past teachers and how these teachers had treated them in class. In some cases, instructors had alleviated their anxiety' (Price, 1991, p. 106). Since anxiety is a personal feeling that varies from one student to another, teachers cannot merely generalize and adopt one strategy. Therefore, teachers should focus on responding to individual students' needs.

However, although feeling worried is universal, another factor need to be considered when talking about anxiety is students' cultural background (Horwitz, 2001). As their reaction is influenced by their origin and custom, one practice that is acceptable could be burdensome for others. For instance, Indonesian students do not find it comfortable to argue with and oppose their teacher during learning, unless they are asked to do so. Teachers should identify their students, start from a less confrontational situation and then teach accordingly. As Dewaele & MacIntyre (2014) argue, the frequency of using foreign language helps lowering the level of anxiety. In short, when the students start feeling comfortable, their anxiety will decrease.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

The aim of this study was to find the correlation between L2 experience and anxiety toward academic performance. The results indicate that L2 experience positively affects performance, while anxiety works conversely. The more positive experience students have been gained in a classroom, the better their performance in that L2 subject. On the contrary, when the students feel under pressure and feel anxious across the three different dimensions of anxiety (communication apprehension, language test, and fear of others' evaluation) they do not perform well.

This leads to a number of suggestions for teachers in the L2 classroom and raises questions for further research. First, an important idea to consider is that teachers hold major responsibilities for student progress. The knowledge of how learning experience and anxiety are predominant in facilitating students' performance makes the teachers task more important. After diagnosing anxiety amongst their students, they should be encouraged to create a classroom with less pressure and provide a more supportive atmosphere. Since learning a L2 itself is already a complicated matter, teachers can take several steps to support their pleasant experience (Oxford, 1999):

- Start working on students' self-esteem and self-confidence, especially for those who have been anxious for a long period. Building their belief of their own capabilities can help them change perspective about language learning. However, it will not be easy for high school students, who tend to be doubtful and worried about themselves and their emotional development (Dörnyei, 2001).
- Teachers should foster a non-threatening classroom by avoiding competition amongst students from the start.

- Help students to realize when they feel worried as soon as possible. They can then make them overcome their anxiety more effectively.

After knowing that anxiety play an important role in supporting or hindering academic performance, more continuous research on this area should be maintained. Although, there have been many finding on this field using different participants, continued investigation and comprehensive research into anxiety, especially in Indonesia, to find its sources and the strategy to overcome it, is necessary to help teachers foster lower anxiety in order to help students to enjoy learning a foreign language (Kitano, 2001).

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English as the World's Lingua Franca and the Challenges of Developing Strategic Competence

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Abstract

A common theme in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) research is a tendency to focus on pragmatics and accommodation with regards to turn-taking, the status of the interlocutors, and contextual usage. There tends to be less research on the usage of directives for task-specific purposes where a common outcome is sought. Such task-based communication requires that the participants be able to facilitate understanding to achieve such specific results. This paper will discuss a research plan which proposes the implementation of a pedagogy for communication strategies where international university students are the target recipients. The plan posits the relevance of strategic competence within English as a Lingua Franca while exploring a pedagogy of communication strategies to be adapted to university classrooms. The pedagogy focusses on achievement strategies through direct methods such as circumlocution, approximation, and retrieval. Interactional Strategies such as comprehension checks and expressing misunderstanding will also be taught. Through a task-based assessment based on Yule's theory of *Referential Communication*, the researcher intends to discover which strategies enhance communicative performance. The paper concludes by highlighting the relevance of developing the strategic competence of students in an increasingly competitive global market while offering recommendations for further integration into foreign language classrooms.

Keywords: English as a Lingua Franca, Strategic Competence, Task-based Communication

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Introduction

In making a case for the improvement of strategic competence regarding university education and the use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), it is worth remembering that strategic competence is an integral component of communicative competence, interactional competence, and the resulting communicative performance. Communicative competence is a theory as described by Canale and Swain (1980) to consist of the three necessary competencies that are grammatical, social, and strategic. Because of these three competencies, most students can communicate with ease in their L1, and the necessity of strategic competence where communication strategies are used to maintain dialogue is less apparent. When speaking their L1, most interlocutors have an easier time co-constructing meaning based on shared linguistic and social norms that allow the conversation to flow. Thus, interactional competence comes more naturally with regards to initiating and maintaining conversations within the speech communities of the speaker's L1 and is easier to manage.

When speaking a second language, the risk of communication breakdown increases depending on the language skills of the interlocutors involved. Each interlocutor is unique, and in L2 dialogues they may lack the shared linguistic and cultural resources that they would have when communicating in their L1. The L2 hindrances to communication could be physical with regards to the way one articulates pronunciation, or cognitive with regards to processing meaning and understanding, or some combination of both. These types of breakdowns require specific strategies to be implemented to keep the communication going. If such hindrances are perceived to be too great, it creates obstacles in adapting and integrating across linguistic and cultural boundaries, and as a result, communicative performance is affected. The stakes become even higher when traversing these limitations requires a task to be performed or a problem to be solved. Such interactions require achieving the desired result which will depend on an even greater understanding of one another and a higher degree of strategic competence.

As English continues to dominate the world stage, foreign language learners studying in an international university need to demonstrate confidence in being able to negotiate meaning or express nonunderstanding in situations where the difference between understanding and misunderstanding could be vital to job performance or have other real world consequences. With regards to this research, the directive and informative functions of language are of the utmost importance because of the roles they play in problem-solving as it relates to task-based communication. Through an awareness of and instruction in methods for negotiating meaning, strategic competence, and as a result, both communicative competence and communicative performance can be improved. These improvements will lead to the better usage of ELF by students at Assumption University (AU) where this research will take place.

Background

International universities are a microcosm of multilingual interactions among students and faculty alike. On any given day, it is possible to hear a variety of languages being spoken. This array of cultural diversity is no different for a university like AU where students and faculty are drawn from all over the world. Some features distinguish AU from other international universities. For one, AU is located in Thailand, and as a result, the majority of its students are Thai. For years 2014 to 2016, AU had 11,115 students enroll with 1,640 of them being international students from outside of Thailand. Even with a predominance of Thai Students, according to the Assumption University Undergraduate Bulletin (2011: 11), “English is the officially approved medium of instruction at Assumption University. Five courses are in the Thai language but only for Thai speaking students. Students whose native tongue is not Thai follow the same courses in English.” Therefore as a requirement to be considered an international university, and to be able to accommodate a culturally diverse student body and faculty, English is the lingua franca used to bridge the communication gap. As English is the official medium of communication, there is a necessity for remedial English to be taught to those students who may not meet the language requirements needed to perform in an international academic setting. Such instruction is the responsibility of the *Institute for English Language Education* (IELE). In 2016, there were approximately 8,413 students enrolled in IELE courses. According to the IELE (2016) website, the two core ideals of the IELE are its *Vision* and *Mission*.

According to their vision, the IELE prides itself in being a “leading institute in English language education and research in Thailand known for its excellence” with “professional instructors, motivated and proficient students, state of the art courses and technologies” and an international environment. The students of IELE are seen as “individuals who are linguistically competent and able to communicate effectively in English both in speech and in writing” while seeking to improve competency and have critical thinking skills. The mission of the IELE is about enabling the students “to acquire English language skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and critical thinking” while being “exposed to World Englishes” to “function successfully in a multicultural environment using global English.”

Of these two ideals, some points are of particular interest for this research. Regarding the vision of the IELE, the author aims to explore and improve the English proficiency of the IELE’s students with regards to strategic competence and overall communicative performance. Such an endeavor will expound upon the interactional competence of the students as well by challenging their listening and speaking skills through task-based interaction while using oral ELF standards as a benchmark for assessment.

All the points regarding the *mission* of the IELE have direct and consequential effects on the development of this research and in particular, its methodology. Enabling the student’s ability to think critically while speaking English is tantamount not only to the ideals of the IELE, but also the author. By pursuing the improvement of strategic competence through task-based endeavors, “research suggests that pairing

communication strategies with appropriate metacognitive strategy training could enhance learners' awareness of strategy use and develop their communicative skills" (Nakatani 2005: 78). Ultimately, for students to approach better fluency in English, they need to consider not just what they are learning, but how and why they are learning it. The pedagogy to be used for the instruction of communication strategies intends to address these deeper issues of second language acquisition. These factors concerning the IELE's vision and mission have also helped to shape the rationale for this project.

Rationale

Three core elements have been chosen based on their merits with regards to teaching and assessing the IELE's students' ability to negotiate meaning while communicating. They are ELF, Strategic Competence, and Task-Based Communication. Each of these elements is of equal importance to this proposal and follow no order of priority or hierarchy. Individually, each item has a wealth of research to support it and based on such; the author has chosen to combine the three.

ELF

Many Assumption University students share neither a common culture nor a common mother tongue. As a result, English is a contact language in that it is the only language they share and are able to communicate with. Thus, previous studies of ELF tend to focus on the ethnography of its speakers. For example, many academics such as Jenkins (2002, 2007, 2009), Kirkpatrick (2007, 2010), and Seidlhofer (2004, 2008, 2011), have demonstrated the effectiveness of ELF in the communicative engagement of social settings involving people of different ethnicities. These studies tend to focus on such interactions through the lens of pragmatics and accommodation with regards to turn-taking, the status of the interlocutors, and contextual usage. These studies are socially oriented towards the study of interactional competence with regards to conversational maintenance. Even though the negotiation of meaning is touched upon to different degrees of detail within these studies, strategic competence is for the most part, not the focal point. One exception being Jenkins (2000) *The Phonology of English as an International Language*, with the establishment of the Lingua Franca Core (LFC). Through the isolation of specific segmental and suprasegmental factors, Jenkins was able to address specific intelligibility issues. This categorization of the LFC provides the metric for investigating strategic competence in this study.

The rationale is that by using the LFC as a standard regarding segmentals, suprasegmentals, and articulatory settings for pronunciation, the author will be able to assess which communication problems occur while underpinning why students use certain strategies instead of others. This rationale runs congruent with the idea that the students' achievement of intelligibility is usually a reciprocal effort as opposed to a singular one. In previous ELF research, that mutual intelligibility has been analyzed as a product of the ability to accommodate one another. This research proposal does not shy away from speech accommodation, but would rather examine its role in problem-solving with regards to strategic competence.

Strategic Competence

As previously stated, university students using ELF need to be able to give and receive instructions while dealing with any misunderstandings during such interactions. With regards to listening and speaking in a foreign language such as English, studies have shown that breakdowns in communication frequently occur where reciprocal communication is required. Communication breakdowns arise when it comes time to demonstrate that the language learner understands what they have been told at that very moment. A pedagogical example is with common gap fill exercises where students are required to give each other the missing information that is necessary to complete the exercise. Some students can complete such tasks with relative ease while others have problems regarding their ability to convey meaning through giving instructions, or the opposite, to receive and comprehend the instructions. Those that don't immediately understand have a tendency to employ the strategy of what Firth (1996: 243) refers to as "let it pass" instead of acknowledging the misunderstanding as it occurs. These difficulties with strategic competence are not just isolated events by students of the IELE at Assumption University. Such observations have been made before by other researchers such as Dornyei (1995), Dornyei and Thurell (1991), and Dornyei and Scott (1995) with regards to strategic competence in general. Wei (2011) also provides examples regarding Chinese foreign language learners, and Kongsom (2009) has even conducted research with regards to Thai university students.

Task-based Communication

Through task-based teaching and assessment, this study aims to investigate ELF's effectiveness in a communicative setting where it is imperative that common understanding be reached. In this regard, some of the pragmatic and sociolinguistic considerations of fluency hold less importance than the ability to demonstrate the strategic competence needed to negotiate meaning and be able to complete the task. This demonstration is important because it is the author's hypothesis that many IELE students are not as strategically competent for task-based ELF communication as they could be. Tasks are essential to this research because of their ability to elicit communication strategies from the participants. They provide a variety of methods for ascertaining information while also being creative and exciting instructional tools. Through open and closed tasks, reciprocal tasks, focussed and unfocussed tasks, among others, instruction will be given to the students on ways to improve strategic competence. A closed focussed task will also be used to conduct an assessment which will facilitate a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the students' performance. Through video recordings and discourse transcriptions, the author will analyze both a control and experimental group. From the transcribed videos, the author will target specific incidences of miscommunication and the related strategies used. While transcribing the discourse analysis, the LFC will be consulted to understand why the strategies were used. Through research dependent on task-based instruction and assessment, the following objectives need to be met to answer the research questions.

Objectives

1. The primary purpose of this research is to raise awareness of the inherent value of strategic competence among IELE students by helping them to establish a better understanding of their English language abilities.
2. To develop and implement a pedagogy for teaching communication strategies that encourages students to focus on achievement strategies to negotiate meaning while improving their overall spoken English.
3. To bolster students' confidence so that they are more willing to communicate because of their capacity to ascertain task-based goals through the negotiation of a common understanding.
4. To investigate and develop a better understanding of the relationship between communication strategies, English as a Lingua Franca, and Strategic Competence.

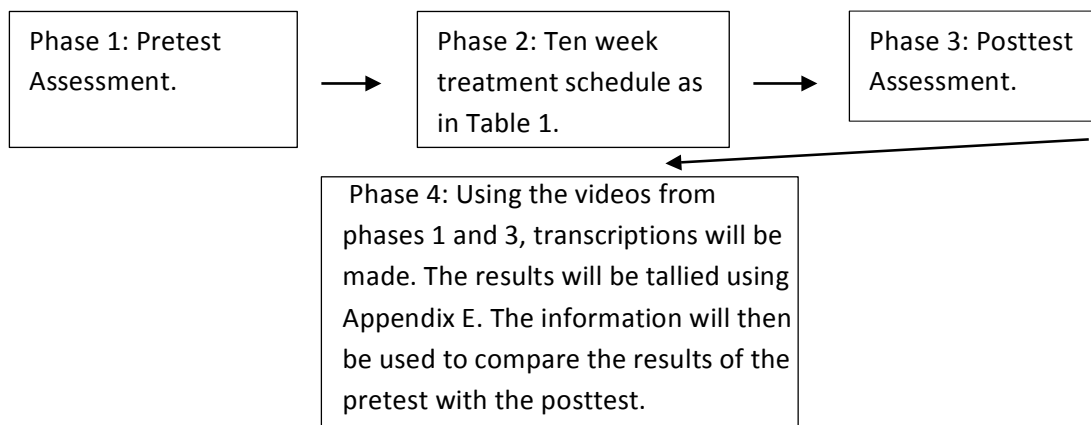
Research Questions

1. Which of the Lingua Franca Core features are most dominant in the students' language?
How do such features affect the students' communication?
2. What are the dominant communication strategies used for ELF task-based communication by IELE students?
3. How significant is the correlation between better overall communicative performance and receiving the treatment?

Participants

The participants in this research will consist of 60 students from the BG1002 English course at Assumption University. Each participant is required to be a non-native speaker of English and to possess a "functional" ability of spoken English. It is believed that students from IELE's BG1002 classes are most suitable because they have completed the other foundation courses offered by the IELE.

Figure 1: Phases of Research



Treatment Outline

The treatment will consist of ten classes that are one hour long for a total of ten hours. After the ten hours of instruction are complete, the posttest assessment will commence. Through this pedagogy, the author will instruct the participants on the usage of the communication strategies found in Table 1. Each week will have separate exercises about the strategy to be taught and will outline the key concepts of each strategy while providing examples. “Task-based language teaching constitutes a strong version of *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT),” (Ellis 2003: 30) and since a task is already being used as an assessment tool, the author believes that tasks can also be pertinent as tools of instruction. Nunan (2004: 4) relates this pertinence in that “a pedagogical task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning.” So by using tasks for both assessment and CLT, the participants will become more comfortable with the reciprocal aspects of language usage. Thus, with regards to this pedagogy, the target language of ELF needs to factor in reciprocity where accommodation and communication strategies are the focus, and the meaning to be expressed needs to be intelligible so that directives can be followed. Nunan (ibid: 35-37) provides seven principles for task-based language teaching which are scaffolding, task dependency, recycling, active learning, integration, reproduction to creation, and reflection. Scaffolding requires that the lessons and materials provide a framework of support in which ideas and concepts build upon each other. This framework of support also relates to task dependency in that each task relates to and builds upon the one that has come before. “Recycling allows learners to encounter target language items in a range of different environments, both linguistic and experimental.” Active learning is making sure that learners are “actively using the language they are learning.” Integration is making sure that learners are “taught in ways that make clear the relationships between linguistic form, communicative function, and semantic meaning.” Reproduction to creation is the idea that that language learners need to be able to use the taught forms in creative ways. Finally, there needs to be an opportunity for learners to reflect on what they are learning and how well they use it. These seven principles are to be considered when introducing the pedagogical sequence of the tasks to be used for teaching accommodation and communication strategies to improve Strategic Competence and Communicative Performance. Nunan (ibid: 31-35) proposes a six-step procedure that requires schema building, controlled practice, authentic listening practice, focus on linguistic elements, freer practice, and finally, the introduction of the pedagogical task. The example steps given here will reflect a general framework for teaching the communication strategies found in Table 1.

Treatment Outline: Class Duration: 1 Hour

- **Step 1 Schema Building**

This step will be used to introduce what communication strategies and Accommodation are along with the purpose and definition of the strategies to be taught in the given lesson. The first lesson will cover the concept of accommodation and some strategies that will directly affect it. The focus will be the importance of convergence with regards to reaching a mutual understanding. This convergence comes from having confidence in one's own ability to communicate rather than being overly concerned with "errors." This step will also require the teaching of expressions and vocabulary that may be essential to using each communication strategy effectively.

- **Step 2 Controlled Practice**

In the controlled practice, the learners will use Accommodation and the communication strategies in a controlled environment that will be specific to the function of the strategy needed.

- **Step 3 Authentic Listening Practice**

In this step, the researcher will provide examples of "authentic or simulated" exchanges where the communication strategies are being used. These exchanges are intended to build upon the knowledge acquired from step 2.

- **Step 4 Focus on Linguistic Elements**

The linguistic elements referred to in this step are those that may interfere with intelligibility such as lexicogrammar or phonology. For example, learners may listen again to the exchanges from step 2 and identify what elements are causing the problems with intelligibility and what communication strategies could be used to help remedy the miscommunication.

- **Step 5 Provide Freer Practice**

All the steps up to this point will have led to spoken interactions that are very structured with the language learners reproducing what they have been instructed to do. For the learners to internalize what they have learned, "they should be encouraged to extemporize, using whatever language they have at their disposal to complete the task... Those who innovate will be producing what is known as 'pushed output' (Swain 1995) because the learners will be 'pushed' by the task to the edge of their current linguistic competence."

Table 1: 10 Week Treatment Schedule

Class	Subject Matter
1	Will introduce accommodation and communication strategies.
2	Performance Problem-Related Strategies: Self Repair and Other Repair.
3	Direct: (<i>Resource deficit-related strategies</i>) Circumlocution (Paraphrasing), Approximation, All Purpose Words, Literal Translation, Retrieval, and Mime.
4	Interactional: (<i>Resource deficit-related strategies</i>) Own-performance problem-related Strategies: Comprehension Check.
5	Interactional: Other-performance problem-related strategies: Asking for repetition, clarification, confirmation, and expressing misunderstanding.
6	Indirect Strategies: Own-performance problem-related strategies: Verbal Strategy Markers.
7	Review: Self Repair and Other Repair.
8	Review: Direct and Indirect Strategies.
9	Review: Interactional Strategies.
10	Reinforcement: All Strategies.

Assessment

Specific factors of language knowledge were considered in the development of the assessment task for this dissertation, and are based on what Ellis (2003: 27) refers to as the “transactional function, where language is used referentially to exchange information.” For our purpose, this sharing of information is in the form of directives and is considered to be a focused task. These focused directives are to be assessed on their communicative effectiveness that is determined by the usage of communication strategies to negotiate meaning with regards to intelligibility. For the task to be completed successfully, “speakers need to be able to identify and encode the referents they wish to communicate about” (ibid: 76).

A model for communicative effectiveness was developed by Yule (1997) with regards to *referential communication* where interlocutors exchange information by referring to the location of objects or people. The acts of reference were evaluated by how communicatively effective they were rather than their grammatical accuracy. The task devised as an assessment tool for this dissertation is an adaptation of Yule’s reference model combined with the research model of Shortreed (1993). Shortreed asked speakers to describe objects on a grid so that listeners could draw them onto an empty grid. Due to the task’s complexity regarding “less shared reference” and “more descriptive detail,” the results found that there was a great deal of “repair strategies” like “requests for confirmation” and “clarification” used (Ellis 2003: 94).

There are two elements in Yule’s model which are of considerable importance. The first element is that both participants in the task need to be able to identify the referent. Only the speaker will have a diagram that shows the location of the referent.

The listener will have to manifest and reproduce the referent in location as instructed by the speaker; hence the need to negotiate meaning by both interlocutors. Negotiation of meaning will also require a second element which requires the participants to be able to account for each other's role. They need to be able to recognize the importance of one another's perspective, make inferences of such, consider such inferences when communicating and respond to such communication accordingly. If both elements are adhered to accordingly, the task should be completed effectively with a high level of communicative performance which will make assessment easier.

The author will be looking at the overall performance of the participants while assessing their strategic skills. In this regard, the performance on the task becomes the construct that is the basis of assessment. As the construct, this task will be scored according to speed and the correctness of the resulting placement of the referent as previously discussed. This combination of speed and correct placement will create a score which will be deemed the variable considered *Communicative Performance*.

Once all the data with regards to *Communicative Performance* is collected from both the pretest and posttest, a statistical analysis comparing both groups will be performed. With these factors in mind, the task-based assessment of this dissertation would be categorized as what Baker (1989) as quoted in (Ellis 2003: 283-285) describes as an "indirect (analytic) and "performance referenced." It is *indirect* in that the context is "artificial" and based on "an analysis of the criterion performance in order to obtain measures of the specific features or components that comprise it. They seek to assess proficiency using specific linguistic measures, which are obtained from the test itself." Obviously, the task as such is an artificial construct. This artificiality enables the author to focus on the meaning negotiation component of the assessment. This act of negotiating meaning not only meets the criteria to classify this assessment as "performance-referenced," but also draws in the ELF context as a test "of the ability to perform specific functions or strategies." The findings of the assessment will be used to answer the research questions of the next section. It is the hope of the author, that by answering these questions, that a determination of the effectiveness of teaching *Strategic Competence* can be achieved.

Data Analysis

The data compiled for each dyad and will be divided depending on whether the data belongs to the pretest or the posttest. There are many factors to be considered for analysis such as:

- Intelligibility and the issues that arise.
- Is communicative accommodation occurring?
- The communication strategies used.
- The number of times strategies are utilized.
- Timing with regards to how long a task takes to be completed.
- The accuracy of the completed tasks.

First, the recordings collected will be transcribed and then analyzed for raw data concerning miscommunication and the resulting communication strategies. Such strategies will be tallied and categorized according to Appendix A. The number of strategies used, completion time and task accuracy will all be dependent variables to be measured and compared between the two tests. The data analysis of these figures will create a better understanding of *Communicative Performance*. Using frequency distributions, a calculation of the frequency of communicative strategies used will determine which ones were relied upon the most. Such data is relevant with regards to the research questions to determine if strategies are being used, and if so, which ones. The statistical differences between the pre and posttest must be compared and evaluated to deduce accurate quantitative results. For such comparisons, paired t-Tests will be conducted.

Limitations

The first limitation is the fact that only Assumption University students will be participating and the majority of which are Thai. For a proper sampling of international university students, it would be necessary to conduct multiple assessments in and outside of Thailand. Such an endeavor is too time-consuming and costly for a single researcher. Another limitation is with regards to the personalities and motivation of the participants. The students will be of a BG1002 level which most likely means that they are freshmen or second-year students. Issues of motivation will need to be addressed with regards to affective schemata, but there will always be a concern for what attitude the participants will have with regards to being assessed. For example, the use of a camera as a recording device may be deemed as intrusive by some students and will have an effect on their communicative performance by creating language usage anxiety.

Significance

The importance of this research is that it offers another facet of understanding to the ELF research of the past. As mentioned, previous ELF research tends to focus on the pragmatic and sociological constructs of conversational English through ethnographic studies. Most notably, the use of speech accommodation in acts of convergence or divergence with regards to the interactions of different cultures. This research focusses on the strategies necessary for interlocutors to negotiate meaning and accurately perform tasks regardless of the ethnographic, sociolinguistic or pragmatic circumstances that may be present. These strategies are significant in that their relationship with intelligibility concerning the LFC will be established.

By focusing on instruction in communication strategies through task-based assessment to evaluate the pedagogical effectiveness of the lessons, different facets of strategic competence with regards to IELE students and ELF will be explored. This exploration is significant for curriculum development that focusses on interactional listening and speaking skills. This is particularly helpful for curriculums that tend to be oriented towards static one-way tasks that are devoid of interactional assessment. For example, if a speaking class only focusses on giving presentations, there may be a

small degree of interaction between class members, and between students and the instructor. Between students, such dialogues are not necessarily in English, and the interactions with the instructor are not formally assessed. Furthermore, there may also be no formal listening assessment, or as such, no interaction takes place. The pedagogy developed for this research intends to supplement the current curriculum of AU with a facet of communicative innovation that will improve IELE students' English language usage by developing their abilities to negotiate meaning to reach a better understanding. The focus on strategic competence and ELF will also have positive effects regarding interactional competence and or communicative competence as well.

Summary

In summary, this paper has established the reasoning behind this research which is to explore, assess, and improve the communicative performance of IELE students through developing their ability to negotiate meaning via strategic competence. It is necessary to demonstrate to what extent strategic competence is taking place via task-based teaching and assessment. In answering the proposed questions, the author will be required to observe what comprehensible interlocation has occurred. Such questions require qualitative and quantitative data where the answers will substantiate and provide insight into how strategic competence can help students be better communicators in using ELF. In reiteration of the purpose of this research, it is not just about being able to get through a normal conversation; it is about using the language to get results. Thus a higher perspective of listening, speaking, and most importantly, student interaction is required. In short, through a trifecta of ELF, Strategic Competence, and Task-based instruction and assessment, the author intends to improve the communicative performance of international university students. In short, international university students need to be better prepared to handle situations involving miscommunication and misunderstanding as it is an important skill that will be invaluable to future employers such as those within the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) for example where English is used as the *lingua franca*.

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Appendix A

Communication Strategies

Dyad Number:	Participant 1	Participant 2	Finish Time:
Communication Strategies:			
Accommodation Strategies:	Participant 1	Participant 2	Total Occurrences
Attempts at Convergence			
Direct Strategies:	Participant 1	Participant 2	Total Occurrences
Circumlocution			
Approximation			
All Purpose Words			
Literal Translation			
Retrieval			
Mime			
Own-performance:	Participant 1	Participant 2	Total Occurrences
Self-repair			
Comprehension Check			
Verbal Strategy Markers			
Other-performance:	Participant 1	Participant 2	Total Occurrences
Other-repair			
Asking for repetition			
Asking for clarification			
Asking for confirmation			
Expressing Misunderstanding			

*Japan Away from Japan:
The Tehran Supplementary Japanese School*

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Abstract

How can my multiracial children maintain and even improve their competency of their heritage languages? This is a common struggle of many parents and families who are raising multiracial children. Particularly, in the case of the biracial families of Japanese and Iranian heritages in Tehran, Iran, this struggle seemed quite serious. During the three years from 2013 to 2016, the authors observed Japanese-Iranian children and families at the Tehran Supplementary Japanese School where the children learned reading and writing in Japanese once a week. And the authors found that the key to successfully maintaining and improving their Japanese level greatly depended on their learning environment especially at home and in an appropriate cultural context where they could get exposed to Japanese culture as they used the language.

Keywords: learning Japanese, learning environment, learning context, bilingualism

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Introduction

In what kind of environment do multiracial children learn their heritage languages effectively? What kind of support do they need? Who should they learn from? These are some of the common concerns among parents and families raising multiracial children. And these concerns are significant especially when the language in question is a minority language. As Shin (2013) pointed out, heritage languages are often marginalized from mainstream discussions because the majority populations do not see them as being relevant to their own lives.

The researchers lived in Tehran, Iran, for three years from April 2013 to March 2016 and taught at the Tehran Supplementary Japanese School once a week as volunteer assistant teachers. It is a parent-run weekend heritage language school located in the western part of Tehran. At the school, children of Japanese and Iranian heritages learn reading and writing in Japanese. Most of these children were born in Japan to a Japanese mother and an Iranian father who got acquainted and married in Japan. They moved to Tehran with their family at some point in their toddler years. These children go to their local Iranian school on weekdays, socialize with their Iranian friends, family and relatives, and experience Iranian rituals and events throughout the year. Their dominant societal language is Persian.

In recent years, the community of the Japanese living in Tehran has been quite small due to the decreasing diplomatic, political and commercial activities between Japan and Iran. The number of the Japanese residing in Iran was approximately 620 according to the survey conducted by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan in October, 2015 (“Basic Data of Islamic Republic of Iran”, 2016). This fact implies that there are quite limited opportunities for Japanese-Iranian children and their families to use Japanese outside the home. Shi (2009) claimed that “the home language is a minority language and isolated from the speech community of the language” (p.148). And in fact, this is also the case for most Japanese-Iranian families living in Tehran.

As opposed to this reality, Japanese mothers from the Tehran Supplementary Japanese School were increasingly encouraging their children to maintain their Japanese and even further improve it and taking an active role in their learning of the language. These mothers pointed to the necessity of their children’s competency of Japanese for pursuing better future academic and career opportunities and appreciating their biracial heritages of their parents. One mother said, “I want my child to understand the importance and advantage of his biracial background as he becomes fluent both in Japanese and Persian. I also believe being bilingual will eventually lead him to various future possibilities.”

The researchers noticed that there are a few children who are outstanding as bilinguals at the school. From our observation of these children, we found that their Japanese mothers were making a tremendous effort that contributed to their success. We chose three of these mothers and conducted interviews with them in February and March 2017 to examine how they contributed to their children’s progress especially at home. Also, the researchers found that maintaining and improving a heritage language

greatly depends on an appropriate cultural context where learners can be exposed to the culture as they learn the language. Although heritage language education and bilingualism have been often discussed, little research has been done on cases of heritage language education of Japanese-Iranian children.

Thus, our research questions are the following:

- How does the role of Japanese mothers affect the development of their Japanese-Iranian children's competency of Japanese?
- What implications do these findings have for educators and researchers whose interests are heritage language education, bilingualism and learning Japanese?

This study is significant as it explores the role of the mothers of children learning a heritage language and the challenges that they face although it primarily sheds light on a small group of participants. However, as the world becomes globalized and closer, it aims to examine possibilities for a wider community whose interests are heritage language education, bilingualism or learning Japanese.

Related Research

According to Shin (2013), a heritage language is also known as a community language, native language, and a mother tongue mostly used by immigrants and their children. In her study of Latino students in American schools, Valdés (2001) noted that a heritage language speaker is a person who grew up in a home where a language other than English is used and who are bilingual in the home language and English. Thus, for Japanese-Iranian children who immigrated to Iran with their Iranian father and Japanese mother, Japanese is their heritage language. And they are heritage language speakers of Japanese who are also proficient in Persian, the majority language in their society.

In many cases of heritage language speakers, they often feel disconnected from speakers of the majority language due to their outsider position inherited from the native culture of their parents (Makinina, 2013). Furthermore, "promoting the interests of minority populations is not a priority for majority populations" (Shin, 2013, p.78), so heritage language speakers tend to easily lose motivation to maintain their heritage language. Children who are not raised with the cultural and linguistic background dominantly observed in the school are likely to experience conflict (Romaine, 2000). Consequently, Japanese-Iranian children living in Tehran may not be able to relate their heritage language to their immediate Iranian society and may end up giving up on maintaining it.

Therefore, parents' active involvement plays an essential role in the development of their children's heritage language. On bilingual education in the US, Brisk (1998) pointed to the necessity of the parental role of developing the heritage language and culture and encouraging their children to learn English to function in their immediate

society. In Japanese-Iranian families in Tehran, Japanese mothers' devotion and effort contribute to their children's successful Japanese development. Nesteruk (2010), in her research on heritage language maintenance and loss among Eastern European children in the US, mentions that mothers, especially those who are not fluent in the dominant language and who has little contact with it, help maximize early heritage language exposure. She also pointed out that these mothers are even capable of teaching their children the basics of reading and writing in their heritage language in addition to teaching speaking in it.

However, Makinina's (2013) study found the following:

It is important to help students recognize the uses and purposes of their heritage language that go beyond so-called 'kitchen Russian' of predominantly informal communication into a wider academic and professional life, and promote lifelong learning. These issues arise not only for speakers of Russian, but in a wide variety of ways for all heritage language learners (p.42).

To elaborate on Makinina's view, Shibata (2000) claimed that weekend schools were one of the best ways to support heritage language learners in a wider community outside the home as "there is a limit to parent's efforts regarding ability, patience, time and resources in the long term" in supporting their children with the maintenance of their heritage language (p.339). According to Shi (2009), there are many advantages to this style of bilingual education, such as sharing teaching ideas, reduced fatigue from teaching alone, and children being able to meet peers (p.148). Moreover, Brown (2011) found out that parents clearly linked the benefits of keeping their children's heritage language to broadened opportunities for employment (p.34). In addition to these practical advantages, "it is the heritage language that provides a sense of identity to immigrants and their children" (Brown, 2011, p.33). Shin (2013) also pointed out that higher heritage language proficiency promotes a stronger sense of bicultural identity.

Favorable attitudes toward and understanding of heritage language learners in the majority community are also highly expected in terms of successful heritage language education. Brisk (1998) noted that heritage language learners are more willing to advance within the system in which the dominant society respects their culture and background. To develop learners' linguistic and sociocultural skills, adults and schools need to support learners' efforts in maintaining their culture while also learning to function in the dominant culture (Brisk, 1998).

Method

This article is based on an ethnographic study that looks into how three Japanese-Iranian children who lived in Tehran and attended the Tehran Supplementary Japanese School for three to eight years maintained their Japanese. The focus was put mainly on their Japanese mothers' contribution to their bilingual development. The collected data was analyzed qualitatively. According to Merriam (1998), there are four characteristics of qualitative research: the researcher (1) is interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed (2) is the primary instrument for

data collection and analysis (3) must get involved in fieldwork such as observation, and (4) employs an inductive research approach in which theory is built from observations and understandings gained in the data collection.

Data Collection and Analysis

This study is mainly based on the semi-structured interviews conducted with the children's Japanese mothers in February and March, 2017, in which the researchers communicated with them via email. However, informal data such as anecdotal conversations related to the study were also included in order to triangulate the data from the interviews. All the interviews and conversations were done in Japanese. In addition, the researchers' interaction with and direct observation of the children and their families in Tehran over the three-year period between 2013 and 2016 were analyzed as they complement the study. This is an exploratory study. The findings will not be applied to Japanese-Iranian children and families in general as the focus of this study is on a small group of three participant families.

Participants

Three Japanese mothers who were raising their Japanese-Iranian children bilingually in Tehran and had children between 12 and 19 years of age were recruited for the study. All of the mothers knew the objectives of this study and were chosen because of their commitment to raising their children bilingually. The researchers knew all the mothers and families as they taught the children at the Tehran Supplementary Japanese School as volunteer teachers. The families had similar backgrounds in terms of the parents' level of education and socioeconomic status. All members of the families except infants were bilingual of Japanese and Persian.

All the participant mothers and children are addressed by their pseudonym in the study. Sakura Yamada is the mother of Hayato who was 19 years old when the interview was conducted. Mayumi Sato is the mother of Ryota, 14 years old. Asami Ozaki's daughter, Nana, was 12 years old. All the three children were born and spent their infant and toddler years in Japan. The mothers understood basic Persian for daily communication outside their home. The children's Iranian fathers used to live and work in Japan for seven to 18 years. They were fairly fluent in Japanese. The home language in the three families was Japanese.

Mrs. Yamada and Hayato moved to Tehran when he was five years old. He lived there for 12 years and five months until he graduated from high school, and now he is living in Japan alone and searching for a job. He has a younger sister and a younger brother. They live in Tehran with their parents. Mrs. Sato and Ryota started living in Tehran when he was one year and seven months old. They moved back to Japan in the middle of his second year in junior high school and goes to junior high school in Japan now. His Iranian father still lives in Tehran alone. He has no siblings. Mrs. Ozaki moved to Tehran with Nana when Nana was three years and six months old. After having lived there for six years and five months, they went back to Japan with

the rest of their family. Nana goes to junior high school in Japan now. She has a younger sister.

The Tehran Supplementary Japanese School is a parent-run weekend heritage language school where Japanese-Iranian children learn reading and writing in Japanese on Thursday mornings. In Iran, the weekend is Thursdays and Fridays. The children go to their local Iranian school, either public or private, from Saturday to Wednesday. The word “supplementary” means “hoshu” and “school” “ko” in Japanese, so the school is known as the “Hoshu-ko” in its own community. In this article, the school is referred as the Hoshu-ko hereafter. There are four classes: grades one and two, grades three and four and grades five and six in elementary, and grades one to three in junior high. Each class normally has three to ten students.

The Hoshu-ko was established in 2009 voluntarily by a group of Japanese mothers with support from their Iranian husbands. It aims to teach Japanese-Iranian children how to read and write in Japanese, give them opportunities to experience Japanese culture and raise their awareness of the importance of learning Japanese as their heritage language (<http://www.zenkaiken.jp/teheran/index.html>). However, the school has not been officially approved by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan since its establishment. Although Hoshu-ko students occasionally join cultural and sporting events at the Japanese School of Tehran¹ where children of Japanese expat families living in Tehran temporarily for business take subject courses based on the curricula designated by the Ministry of Education of Japan, the Hoshu-ko does not receive enough support from the local Japanese community. At the Hoshu-ko, Japanese mothers take turns to serve on the management or work as teachers or assistant teachers. And the mother-turned teachers develop their own teaching materials and design their lessons.

Hayato first joined the Hoshu-ko when he was ten as a second grader in elementary and attended for six years. Ryota studied at the school for eight years from grade one in elementary to grade two in junior high. Nana spent three years from grade two to four in elementary. The patterns of language use of Japanese and Persian in the three families are shown in Table 1.

Findings

Mrs. Yamada’s Strategies for Promoting Hayato’s Bilingualism

According to Mrs. Yamada, it was very important for her to raise Hayato as a bilingual. She pointed out that bilingualism would offer him a wide variety of choices in the future. For example, her husband and she had known since Hayato’s early childhood that they would send him back to Japan for higher education or a career opportunity partly because he would have better opportunities there, and partly

¹ The Japanese School of Tehran is partially financed by the local board of Japanese corporations based in Tehran and follows the curricula of the Ministry of Education of Japan. The teachers are sent from Japan by the ministry.

because he would not want to remain in Iran after becoming 18 years old when all Iranian boys have to join the army for compulsory military service.

Table 1. Language Use in the Three Families

	Basic Daily Language Use of the Three Families	Language Used by/with the Children Before Starting the Hoshu-ko	Language Used by/with the Children After Starting the Hoshu-ko
Hayato Yamada	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Japanese was the language used every day at home. -Hayato spoke in Japanese with his younger siblings. -His Iranian relatives addressed him in Persian. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Hayato spoke only in Japanese with his mother. -When he lived in Japan, his father spoke to him in Persian and he learned basic Persian greetings and numbers. -He was addressed in Persian in kindergarten in Tehran which he started at age 6 years. -After he started elementary school, he started using Persian more than before. -His father helped him with his homework in Persian. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Hayato spoke in Japanese with his family and Persian outside the home. -He used Persian when he did homework with his father. -He started learning reading and writing in Japanese. -He communicated with other Japanese-Iranian children both in Japanese and Persian. -He occasionally chatted with friends and family in Japan online. -He liked reading cartoons and playing games in Japanese.
Ryota Sato	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Japanese was the language used in everyday conversations at home when all the family members were together. -Ryota was addressed in Persian when he was with his Iranian relatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Ryota spoke only in Japanese with his mother. -When he was in Japan, his father taught him basic Persian vocabulary such as names of fruit and vegetables. -He was often in a Persian-only environment after he moved to Tehran at age 1 year and 7 months. -His mother taught him Japanese on a regular basis in addition to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Ryota spoke in Japanese whenever he was with his mother. -He used mostly Persian outside the home and when he was only with his father. -He started learning reading and writing in Japanese. -He was addressed both in Japanese and Persian by his Japanese-Iranian friends. -He talked with his extended family in Japan online.

		daily conversations. -He started speaking only in Persian when he is with his father after he started elementary school.	-He read books of his interests in Japanese.
Nana Ozaki	-Japanese was the everyday language used by all members of the family. -Nana spoke in Japanese with her younger sibling. -She was addressed in Persian when she was with her Iranian relatives.	-Nana spoke only in Japanese. -She did not learn any Persian until she started kindergarten in Tehran at age 3 years and 10 months. -She sometimes watched movies or read picture books in Japanese. -She started using both Japanese and Persian depending on the situation after she started kindergarten.	-Nana spoke in Japanese at home and Persian outside the home. -She started learning reading and writing in Japanese. -She liked reading books in Japanese in her free time. -She communicated with her extended family in Japan online. -She used both Japanese and Persian when she was with Japanese-Iranian friends.

Mrs. Yamada always made sure that Hayato spoke only in Japanese to her and the other members of his family except when he worked on his school assignments with his father in Persian. So, she was quite confident that Hayato acquired a native-level fluency in Japanese for daily conversations. What contributed to his fluency in spoken Japanese is not just his everyday communication with his family in Japanese. In addition, Hayato spent his four-month summer vacation with his family in Japan every year from age eight to 13. He attended school in his neighborhood for several weeks each time experiencing a variety of events and activities, learning different subjects in a Japanese classroom setting, and most importantly being fully exposed to Japanese and Japanese culture.

Mrs. Yamada taught Hayato how to read and write basic Japanese letters at home, but she could not deny the difficulty of teaching him when it came to teaching of *kanji* characters and how to read stories critically. She said, “Unlike daily conversations, teaching my son reading and writing was much more difficult than I had expected. Both of us often got emotional and frustrated when he did not understand something or made errors.” Mrs. Yamada recalled that Hayato and she reduced their stress as he started learning at the Hoshu-ko. It became his first opportunity in Tehran to learn Japanese from Japanese adults except his mother and to learn with Japanese-Iranian peers in a formal setting. Hayato, in addition to learning reading and writing in Japanese in class, not only enjoyed chatting with his peers in informal Japanese, but

also learned how to speak to adults politely in addition to learning reading and writing in Japanese in class.

Mrs. Sato's Strategies for Promoting Ryota's Bilingualism

Mrs. Sato pointed to the benefits of being bilingual to Ryota emphasizing its role in understanding his roots. She said, "My Iranian husband and I want our son to be proud of his roots and understand both his heritage cultures. It will guarantee him an ability to perceive the world in a flexible way." She claimed that being bilingual had cognitive advantages as well and believed that her son would learn third and fourth languages easily. Also, as in Hayato's case, Mrs. Sato wanted Ryota to have high school and higher education back in Japan so that he would be exempted from the mandatory military service in Iran.

Mrs. Sato used Japanese with Ryota thoroughly. Even when he spoke to her in Persian when he was very little, she persistently spoke to him in Japanese until he completely understood Japanese was the only language to be used with her. His Iranian father was also very understanding and made sure that Ryota always used Japanese whenever his mother was present. He developed a native-level fluency in Japanese for daily communication, and according to Mrs. Sato, he demonstrated great skills of reading and writing in Japanese as well.

Mrs. Sato involved herself in the development of Ryota's learning Japanese to a great extent. For instance, at his early ages she regularly read Japanese picture books, sang Japanese nursery songs, and showed Japanese TV programs for children to him and had him play with the Japanese language on online educational sites. When he was about to be four, she started showing Japanese animations and reading Japanese story books to him, playing Japanese card games with him and teaching him how to read and write basic Japanese letters. When Ryota started showing his interest in music, Mrs. Sato decided to have him take piano lessons from a Japanese pianist coincidentally living nearby. Mrs. Sato tried every possible way for her son to be exposed to and use Japanese as much as possible.

During Ryota's elementary school years in Tehran, Mrs. Sato took him back to Japan every summer for two to four months to have him live with his Japanese family and attend school in the neighborhood. As he went back to the same school every time he was back in Japan, students and teachers of the school always looked forward to his return and welcomed him each time. This positive environment encouraged him to learn school subjects in Japanese actively at the school. Also, Mrs. Sato involved Ryota in the local community especially with children of similar ages. For instance, he went to a swimming school and a music school. At the latter, he interacted a lot with other Japanese children by playing the piano or traditional Iranian instruments to accompany their music in a practice session or even at a recital.

Even though Mrs. Sato was extremely eager to teach Ryota Japanese and give him as many opportunities as possible to use the language in Tehran and Japan, she voiced her concern and limitation of continuing teaching him at home especially when it

came to improving his reading and writing. She said, “Mothers tend to teach their own children strictly, and children get rebellious to their mothers. So, this kind of teaching/learning sometimes doesn’t have meaningful outcomes.” Thus, she admitted that the teachers at the Hoshu-ko made a tremendous contribution to the development of his reading and writing skills.

Mrs. Ozaki’s Strategies for Promoting Nana’s Bilingualism

Mrs. Ozaki said that it was essential to her and her husband that their daughter, Nana, be fluent in both Japanese and Persian. Mrs. Ozaki insisted that by being fluent in two or more languages she would acquire high communicative skills and be able to understand people from different backgrounds and cultures in the future. Her Iranian husband and she always addressed Nana in Japanese until she finished kindergarten. From then on, she used both Japanese and Persian with her father and younger sister depending on the situation while she kept using only Japanese with her mother. Mrs. Ozaki continuously provided her Japanese DVD’s and books that she liked. As a result, Nana became interested in reading and writing in Japanese.

Mrs. Ozaki’s priority was to give Nana quality education. Nana attended the above-said Japanese School of Tehran for about two years. Mrs. Ozaki and her husband agreed that she would receive better education there than at Iranian elementary schools. At the Japanese School, Nana, studied all the subjects from monolingual Japanese teachers, with mostly monolingual Japanese classmates in a typical Japanese classroom setting. And all the classes and conversations were done in Japanese excluding the Persian and English classes. Through her Japanese school life, she experienced Japanese cultural events and extracurricular activities, and had close-knitted relationships with her Japanese friends and their families.

Nana did not need a lot of help from her mother with her learning reading and writing in Japanese thanks to her education at the Japanese School. She left the school for a number of reasons and transferred to a local Iranian elementary school. At the same time, she started studying at the Hoshu-ko. Having had an adequate instruction of reading and writing in Japanese, Nana demonstrated an extremely outstanding ability at the Hoshu-ko. One of the researchers, as the assistant teacher of her class, remembers that she was constantly improving her Japanese proficiency and that she was one of the few students who were able to read and write critically in Japanese. Furthermore, when Nana attended a local Japanese elementary school while she was with her Japanese family back in Japan in summer, she had no major difficulty in catching up with the subject classes taught in Japanese.

Discussion

This study reveals, first, the approaches to childhood bilingualism from the perspective of three Japanese mothers of Japanese-Iranian children; second, the role of the mother in developing bilingualism; and third, the challenges the families faced. The mothers of this study were motivated to teach their children Japanese as they were aware of “the social, emotional, cognitive, and economic advantages of

bilingualism” (Rodríguez, 2015, p. 189). All of the mothers said that there would be better academic and professional opportunities in Japan or elsewhere if they spoke more than two languages. Also, these families believed that maintaining their heritage language would lead their children to understand their biracial background and help build their identity. What was distinctive in this study was that the families had known even since their immigration to Iran that they would go back to Japan or at least send their child back alone sometime in the future. Therefore, raising their children fluent both in Japanese and Persian was one of their biggest concerns.

As Rodríguez (2015) pointed out, parents have “the responsibility for transmitting their language to their children” (p.190). In the participant families, it was the Japanese mothers who made the biggest contribution to the successful development of their children’s bilingualism. They had persisted on their Japanese-as-the-home-language policy since their children were infants. Their Iranian husbands and other family members also followed the policy. They taught vocabulary, lullabies, songs, stories, and games in their native language at home. Also, they managed to teach basic reading and writing of Japanese with which they had difficulty later in their children’s bilingual development. They all recognized the essential role of the Hoshuko in terms of the instruction of formal and written Japanese. At the school, their children learned Japanese of different types of formality by interacting with Japanese teachers and friends from similar backgrounds, by experiencing Japanese culture in class and also by joining events at the Japanese School of Tehran a few times in the year. In addition, the mothers enlisted the support of their extended families by using online video calls to communicate with family members living in Japan in Japanese and by visiting Japan to send their children to a local school for several months almost every year.

However, in Tehran, Persian is the majority language and dominates people’s lives in their everyday affairs from work and education to politics, economy, information exchange and personal relationships. On the contrary, Japanese is a minority language and has almost no significance to the public. It is not astonishing that parents of Japanese-Iranian families struggle to give their children opportunities to learn and use Japanese in the community given the fact that there is society’s pressure on them to acquire Persian. Overcoming these obstacles requires the involvement and collaboration of parents and educators in the context of the community (Rodríguez, 2015, p.191).

Fasciano (2014) pointed to the necessity of providing learners opportunities to “use their language in local and global communities, relate that language to the learners’ life and provide purpose for the continued use of that language” (p.22). As per Dewey (1938), educators should consider learning as the continuum of learners’ immediate community. Community engagement in language learning provides the learner with the opportunity to understand and engage with the target cultures and gain insight into the nuances of the regional language and perspective (Fasciano, 2014, p.23). Unfortunately, in Tehran, communal support for Japanese-Iranian children and understanding of the benefits of having these bilingual children to the local community are not adequate. As a result, their Japanese mothers are the ones who are

solely responsible for their children's bilingual development along with support from their husbands. And also, the Hoshu-ko cannot help positioning itself isolated from the local community.

Conclusion

To respond to our research questions, we identified the following prominent themes that provide evidence of how important the mother's role in the child's acquisition and maintenance of Japanese as a heritage language in Japanese-Iranian families in Tehran: using Japanese as the home language, teaching the child basic Japanese at home from early ages, exposing her/him to Japanese as much as possible, sending her/him to a heritage language school, and receiving support from extended families in Japan as summarized in the discussion. However, this study indicates that there is a limitation of the role of the mother especially in the instruction of formal and written Japanese. Also, it points out that support for and understanding of children learning a heritage language in the community are quite essential for the successful development of their bilingualism.

To conclude, we would like to make the following implications. First, parents, together with the educators of the Hoshu-ko, need to find ways to have members of the local Iranian community acknowledge and think positively of the existence of the school and its children. This way they can create a positive learning environment for their children. Additionally, heritage language learners especially when they are minorities in their community, it is difficult but necessary for them to learn the language and its culture side by side in an appropriate, possibly authentic, cultural context. In the situation of the participants of this study, they should definitely work collaboratively and closely with local Japanese communities such as the Japanese School of Tehran and Japanese expat families in the future. For example, they should hold more Japanese cultural events together and have more opportunities to interact with each other at individual, familial and organizational levels. Through these events and interaction, Japanese-Iranian children can relate the Japanese language to their life and motivate themselves to learn it. As for the Japanese community members, they can find their life in Tehran more meaningful as they learn about Iranian culture from interacting with Japanese-Iranian families.

The findings can be applied to many cases of children's heritage language acquisition and maintenance. And yet as this study was conducted only on three particular mothers and their children, further research will be necessary to appeal to a wider, more general community of learners, parents and educators who are involved in heritage language education, bilingualism and learning Japanese.

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Developing Global Leadership Skills with Model United Nations (MUN)

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The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

This paper summarizes the symposium contributions as they were presented at the Asian Conference on Language Learning held in Kobe:

(1) Lori Zenuk-Nishide, *MUN and Opportunities in Japan*; For 15 years, the author has used MUN an EMI curriculum with Japanese students and continued this as Conference Organizer for NMUN Japan in 2016. MUN and related opportunities in Japan will be provided along with research into the positive effects of participation on learner self-efficacy.

(2) Sonoko Saito, *Global Jinzai and the Value of Participating in MUN for Japanese Universities*; This paper explains the benefits and challenges of MUN in the context of “Global Jinzai Education” for Japanese universities. Many skills developed in MUN match the factors suggested by “Council on Promotion of Human Resource for Globalization Development” to belong to “Global Jinzai,” or the workforce with a global mind.

(3) Neil McClelland, *Preparing Delegates for NMUN 2016 – A First-time Experience*; The author describes his experiences supporting student-delegates through the various stages of preparing for the NMUN Conference in November 2016. By highlighting web-based resources that proved useful, the paper covers the process of researching and writing an effective Position Paper in advance of the Conference.

(4) Donna Tatsuki, *Flipped Classroom, CLIL and Model UN Simulations*; The author offers a case study on how a cohort of 28 students (Japanese and non-Japanese L1s) from a consortium of Japan-based universities were prepared for the National Model United Nations during five intensive workshops held over a four-month period in a flipped classroom CLIL framework.

Keywords: Model UN simulations, English as a Medium of Instruction, Global Jinzai, Flipped Classroom, CLIL, negotiation, academic writing

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Introduction

In November of 2016, the National Model United Nations (NMUN) came to Japan for the first time ever. The year 2016 was auspicious as it was the 60th anniversary of Japan's membership in the United Nations. More than 380 student delegates from universities in eleven countries met in Kobe to discuss current international concerns in English. This paper offers perspectives on the event from the point of view of two of the event organizers and two faculty advisors who prepared delegates to participate. In the first section (*MUN and Opportunities in Japan*), Lori Zenuk-Nishide gives an overview of what MUN simulations are, the range of benefits they provide, and a description of MUN opportunities available. Section two by Sonoko Saito (*Global Jinzai and the Value of Participating in MUN for Japanese Universities*) considers the value of MUN activities in the effort of fostering “Global Jinzai” —a key priority of MEXT. The third section by Neil McClelland (*Preparing Delegates for NMUN 2016 – A First-time Experience*) delves into the preparation process with a specific focus on position paper writing. Finally, Donna Tatsuki (*Flipped Classroom, CLIL and Model UN Simulations*) does a case study of one cohort of delegates that was prepared for NMUN, providing a glimpse of MUN as flipped learning in a CLIL setting.

Section 1: *MUN and Opportunities in Japan (Zenuk-Nishide)*

What is MUN?

The participation in MUN simulations builds global citizenship. According to NMUN.org “Experiential learning [simulation] that provides students with a better understanding of the inner workings of the UN and a forum to hone skills in diplomacy, negotiation, critical thinking, compromise, public speaking, writing and research” (NMUN/NCCA, 2017, n.p). The flow of a MUN meeting is summarized in Figure 1.

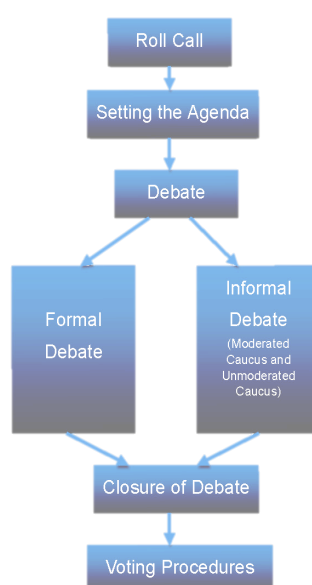


Figure 1. Flow of the Meeting

What are benefits of MUN?

The participants in a MUN simulation gain knowledge and expertise in unfamiliar topics in a context where they have autonomy over their learning. This establishes the mutually supporting influences of personal growth, increased willingness to communicate, increased competence, and increased self-efficacy (Zenuk-Nishide & Tatsuki, 2012). They learn 21st century skills in a carefully designed step-by-step process. First and fundamentally, they develop research and reading skills in their quest to become experts on the topics and agendas set by the meeting as well as the actions and policies of the country within the UN body they are representing. Next, along with learning the formulaic speech required to obey the rules of meeting procedure, they learn the skills of negotiation (stating positions, conflict resolution, cooperation and consensus building) followed by speech and intensive listening to enable persuasive argumentation. This leads to an enhanced ability to write position papers and resolutions because of improved critical thinking skills (Zenuk-Nishide, 2015). Autonomous learning ignites a self-motivated desire to attain mastery of new skills or challenges and orients to sustained, life-long learning (Zenuk-Nishide, 2016).

Learning, knowledge accumulation and skill building are not the only benefits however. A far deeper and profound benefit is the development of a sense of global citizenship. This occurs through the acquisition of knowledge and understanding in areas of social justice, diversity, sustainability, the relationship of globalization to interdependence and the mechanisms of peace and conflict. Furthermore, the ability to practice global citizenship requires the skills of respect, conflict resolution and a dedication to challenge injustice or inequalities. The third pillar of global citizenship concerns the shaping of values and attitudes by developing both a sense of identity and self-esteem while nurturing empathy and a respect for diversity with a certainty in the belief that people can make a difference (Oxfam, 2015).

Exploring MUN opportunities

There are many ways to get involved in MUN events. In Japan, one of the best events is JUEMUN (Japan University English Model United Nations), established in 2010. The two hosting universities, Kobe City University of Foreign Studies and Kyoto University of Foreign Studies alternate as hosts for the event. University students from anywhere in the world may participate assuming they have at least a mid-intermediate level of English, a willingness to communicate and interest in international relations/global affairs. Universities are encouraged to support MUN classes, seminars or projects not only so that faculty and students are enabled to join, but because the fostering of global citizenship and the increased collaboration between universities are among MEXT's most important educational goals. At the high school level is the annual Kansai High School Model UN, which was founded by the author and her colleagues in 1990 at Kyoto Gaidai Nishi High School.

At the global level, participation in the various NMUN events (New York, Washington D.C., or off-shore) push student delegates to even higher levels of competence and personal development. The NMUN Japan event hosted by Kobe City University was the first such global event in Japan. Thanks to the success of the event, it has been announced that in 2020, NMUN will return to Japan, hosted again by Kobe City University of Foreign Studies.

Section 2: *Global Jinzai and the Value of Participating in MUN for Japanese Universities (Saito)*

This section discusses the value of Model United Nations for Japanese universities by placing the activity in the context of Japan's attempt in fostering younger generations having global minds called "Global Jinzai." This part of paper is based on the 2016 experience of a group of students and faculty members at the University of Kitakyushu joining a National Model United Nations (NMUN) conference co-organized by a US based NPO and the host university, Kobe City University of Foreign Studies. Our project aimed at exploring appropriate ways and systems in which Japanese universities could use MUN activities to foster "Global Jinzai." The possibility of developing collaborative relationships among universities, along with the exploration of teaching and learning methods such as active-learning, was also addressed.

The NMUN conference was held in Kobe, for the first time in Japan, to mark the 60th anniversary year of Japan's acquiring the membership of the UN. Noting this opportunity for the students, a group of researchers at the University of Kitakyushu advertised the event, and as a result, recruited four students to be part of a project. The project was based on research started in 2015, but as project leader I had become acquainted with MUN in 2011 during a visit to Old Dominion University in the US, where MUN is widely facilitated. The project is also indebted to the University of Kitakyushu, which supported the project in the form of an intra-university research grant. The University is the municipal university of Kitakyushu City established as a foreign studies college in 1946 and has been committed to bringing up generations capable of contributing to the well-being of the international community. It is one of the universities chosen for "Go Global Japan Project" in 2012, a project launched by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

Factors of "Global Jinzai" nurtured through MUN

What is "Global Jinzai"? "The Council on Promotion of Human Resource for Globalization Development," an advisory board with the Chief Cabinet Secretary as Chairperson, addressed the issue of its definition. The English translation of "Global Jinzai" in their report is "global human resources," and they suggested factors in "Global Jinzai" that "Japan must develop and utilize as it goes forth in this globalized economy and society." According to the final report in 2012, they are "linguistic and communication skills" (Factor I), "self-direction and positiveness, a spirit for challenge, cooperativeness and flexibility, a sense of responsibility and mission" (Factor II), and "understanding of other cultures and a sense of identity as a Japanese" (Factor III). Additionally, the Council further explored the measuring standard for Factor I and gave five levels. The advanced two levels, the levels 4 (linguistic skills for bilateral negotiations) and 5 (linguistic skills for multilateral negotiations) are particularly relevant to MUN. The Council also mentioned more qualities that are required for "core individuals for future Japanese society" such as "broad and well cultivated mind and profound expertise, willingness to find and solve problems, teamwork and leadership skills (to bring together persons of various backgrounds), public-mindedness, moral sensibilities, and media-literacy."

These factors and qualities can be developed through MUN preparations and conferences. By simulating UN systems as part of the delegation of an assigned country, students go through a procedure taken by the international society to reach a collective will to address certain issues. Example topics are “the Elimination of Weapons of Mass Destruction” and “Meeting the Sustainable Development Goals for All Nations and Peoples and All Segments of Society” (from NMUN Japan agendas) and participants need to know the subject well through extensive research. Until about a month before the conference, when the position paper submission deadline is set, students work on position papers. They refer to both online and off-line materials to find out their appropriate position. All submitted papers become accessible for participants to read for what others have to say. Reading skills are intensely trained together with research skills and media-literacy.

Once the conference is open, formal and informal debates take place alternately, where participants explain their own positions, propose policies, negotiate with others to reach consensus. They employ different types of communication; public speaking and bilateral and multilateral negotiations. With negotiations proceeding, they begin to write draft resolutions in cooperation with others. In addition to Factors I, II, and III, the qualities anticipated in “core individuals for future Japanese society” together with high level communication skills are expected to develop through MUN activities. It is also notable that most part of the preparations and discussions are done through participants’ active learning with some leading instructions by instructors.

According to the comments of MUN participants, they themselves seem to become aware of their growth including enhanced linguistic and communication skills, research skills, knowledge in international relations, expanded global views by being exposed to a variety of “Englishes” and perspectives, and enhanced self-confidence and motivation for further learning as they came to see correctly what they could and could not do. The four-day MUN experience also seems to have a positive impact on scores in English proficiency tests, which is worth further exploration. A conference is beneficial for students as a place of networking as well, getting to know students in their age group from different parts of the world, at home and abroad.

Aspects to be explored

While the benefits of MUN for “Global Jinzai” seem convincing, there are also challenges to be addressed. For example, university administrative support, both financial and administrative, are necessary to make students’ MUN participation sustainable. Japan’s geographical location would make joining many of the conferences abroad long-distance international travel. It is expected that the level of responsibility to be shouldered onto universities becomes even higher, when the global situation is becoming unstable and unpredictable. The financial burden cannot be ignored either. In addition to making the international MUN experience attractive and rewarding enough for students, the program should ideally be able to help participants finance the travel expenses.

The number of nationwide conferences like JUEMUN (Japan University English Model UN) should ideally increase to give students in Japan more chances to be involved in MUN. Also, if more international students in Japan participate in such events, domestic MUN would be even more dynamic. Effective public relations and

supporting systems should favorably be devised. As MUN is an international activity, commitment to the activity would strengthen the tie among the universities and students within and outside Japan. The ways to build specific academic ties are worth pursuing as well.

As for diversity, the discussions seem to be very much influenced by English language ability of native speakers. On the other hand, a variety of Englishes were actively exchanged in the conference rooms, which impressed some of the participants from our group. MUN could be a relevant place to explore the issue of World Englishes.

With evident benefits of MUN for nurturing “Global Jinzai” in Japan, it is worth addressing the challenges that seem to exist. The Seventh UN Secretary General Kofi Annan regarded education as the key to global peace and wellbeing. MUN is committed to this international effort, and university education in Japan taking an active part in the effort seems relevant and appropriate.

Section 3: *Preparing Delegates for NMUN 2016 – A First-time Experience (McClelland)*

This section presents a brief overview of the author’s experience helping Japanese undergraduates at one university prepare for NMUN 2016. By far the most challenging aspect is composing an initial ‘Position Paper’ that outlines the standpoint of the assigned country on the topics covered by the NMUN committees. Indeed, this is an especially demanding task for Japanese students, as many essential reference materials are only available in English. Thus, while the NMUN preparation guide provides excellent advice for delegates, it clearly requires adaptation to the needs of students tackling the activity in a second language. In summary, it was found that an initial focus on published evaluations of a country’s past performance greatly helped students produce a Position Paper in the time available.

The university

The discussion starts with a brief description of the university and rationale for participating in NMUN. The University of Kitakyushu is a mid-sized university in West Japan (See Figure 2). In 2016, the university was ranked 183 nationally overall, but 14 for English Education. This reflects a long-standing reputation for a quality English education program that dates to its original founding as a foreign language college. In other respects, the University of Kitakyushu is a typical city-funded, public university in Japan.



Figure 2 Location of the University of Kitakyushu

In 2012 the university was adopted as a Type B *Global-Jinzai* institution (MEXT, 2012) leading to initiation of a five-year ‘Global Education’ program. For the administration, this fulfilled two goals; first raising the profile of the university locally, and second bolstering existing opportunities for students with good language skills. In line with this new program, some members of faculty further independently started a cross-departmental project to help students to participate in Model United Nations (MUN) in English.

Writing a position paper

The first task facing prospective delegates is to write a Position Paper outlining their country’s standpoint on the topics covered in the NMUN committees. This is a fairly daunting task, as delegates not only have to research general information about the country, but also past and current actions by the Government relating to the various committee topics. Further, the Position Paper must be written from the point of view of the Government represented. In brief, the Position Paper is a maximum of two pages, with an introduction followed by overviews of the topics addressed. Each topic section further needs to include: (1) a ‘problem statement’ introducing the problems and standpoint of the country; (2) a ‘precedent statement’ describing past initiatives, domestic and international; and, (3) an ‘intention statement’ outlining possible solutions or recommendations. An additional challenge for delegates is that each of these ‘statements’ needs to be supported by references to existing laws, treaties, UN resolutions, or regional initiatives.

The NMUN preparation guide

To assist delegates in their research, the *NMUN Position Paper Guide* (NMUN, 2016b, pp. 4-6) provides extensive advice, which is summarized in the flow diagram shown in Figure 3. While this constitutes a comprehensive and useful list, it is clearly written under the assumption that the documents mentioned would be accessible to prospective delegates. Those from language backgrounds other than English, however, are likely to face considerable hurdles in handling such an extensive research agenda, and careful consideration should be given to the balance of research done in English versus the delegates' first language.

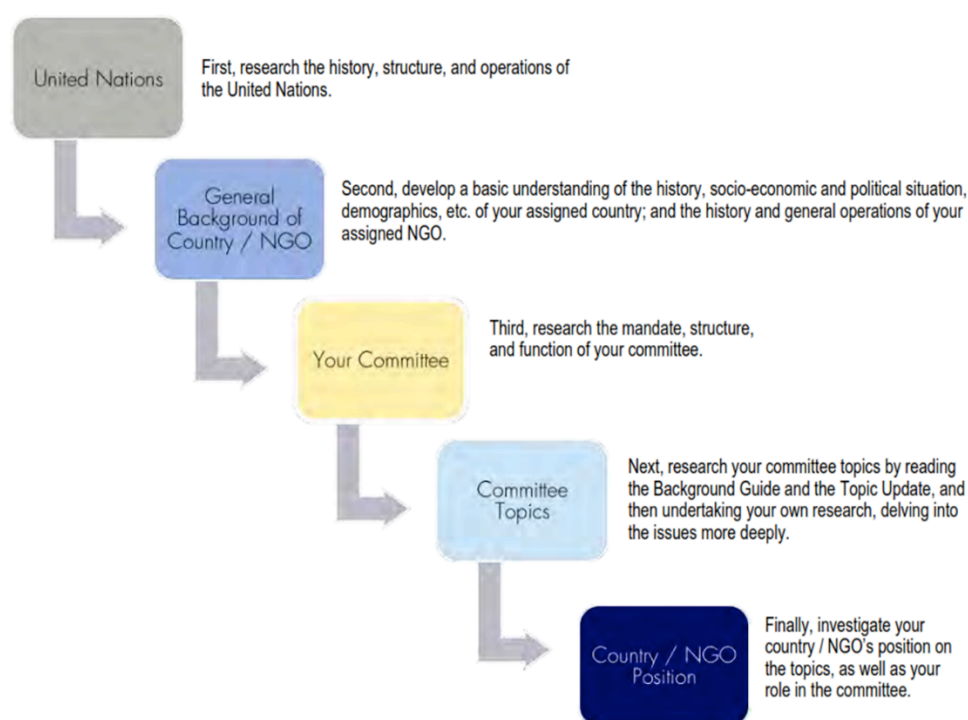


Figure 3. NMUN Guide to Effective Conference Preparation

Adapting to the needs of Japanese students

The key to successful preparation for NMUN is clearly to optimize the time spent researching. For Japanese students, the first three steps in Figure 3 can be easily handled in their first language. However, the last two steps; "*Committee Topics*" and "*Country/NGO Position*" present more of a challenge. In relation to "*Committee Topics*", the Background Guide is a substantial document written entirely in English, while much of the information for the "*Country Position*" is only available in the four languages of the UN, or perhaps that country's language alone. To complicate further, it is possible that a Government may anyway have taken no action at all on many of the topics covered. It is thus necessary for delegates, not only to understand the committee topics, but also to match them to the interests and past actions of their assigned country.

One solution is for delegates to start their research by first seeking out past evaluations of their country's progress. Fortunately, excellent resources exist, especially for topics related to the 2000 UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and subsequent UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Both these fall under the auspice of the UN Development Program (UNDP) and are thus evaluated regularly. Probably the best resource available is the by-country evaluation of the MDGs (UNDP, 2016). In addition to highlighting which topics are a priority for each country, these reports often also include details about both past UN support and participation in regional initiatives. In this way delegates avoid spending time researching topics that cannot be included in the Position Paper due to inaction by their country, while at the same time identifying the important UN and regional initiatives.

A second strategy found to help delegates focus their research efforts, is to adopt a simple structure that emphasizes only essential information. At minimum, the topic outline needs to include: (1) a country-specific problem statement; (2) a description of the international context; (3) an account of past domestic and regional actions; and, (4) a statement of future intention. By starting their research with past evaluations, delegates can easily identify which aspects of the topics are a priority and what kind of specific problems have been dealt with up to now (part (1) of the topic outline). Further, they should get an overview of past domestic actions, such as relevant legislation or support for NGO activities, and contributions to regional initiatives (part (3) of the topic outline). Delegates can then develop a feel for the international context around their country by further researching the organizations and agreements mentioned (part (2) of the topic outline). Perhaps the most difficult section of the topic outline for delegates to write is part (4), the statement of intention. While they may need to investigate additional sources for specific statements by their Government, the analysis of past actions should also give a strong idea of future directions. The main point is that by conforming to a simple structure for writing the topic statements, delegates can focus their research to find the most immediately relevant information necessary.

In summary, the experience of mentoring delegates to NMUN 2016 leads to three basic recommendations for adapting the activity to Japanese students. First is to encourage delegates to do as much as possible using their first language. Second is to start with past evaluations of the country's performance, as a way of identifying problems and issues and past actions by the Government. Third is to adopt a format for writing the position paper that covers; (1) the problem, (2) the international context, (3) past actions by the country, and (4) future intentions, for each NMUN topic. By adopting these strategies, it was found that delegates were able to research and produce a Position Paper in a timely and efficient manner.

Section 4: *Flipped Classroom, CLIL and Model UN Simulations (Tatsuki)*

The other sections in this paper have covered many of the details of what takes place during an MUN event and some of the outcomes. This section will make the MUN—CLIL connection and will argue that effective preparation for a MUN event best takes place in a Flipped Classroom environment. It will close with recommendations of resources that might be utilized to develop a MUN-CLIL Repository.

The CLIL connection to MUN

Participation in a Model UN Simulation is quintessentially CLIL because it requires in depth research on countries, socio/political issues, the development of written and spoken skills to negotiate proposals, build alliances and the use of critical thinking for innovation to find creative solutions to real world problems. This is of great importance since the future is in the hands of our students: They absolutely must have opportunities to take leadership and practice the art of diplomacy in a safe supportive context.

Defining ‘Flipped Learning’

According to the Flipped Learning Network Hub (2014):

Flipped Learning is a pedagogical approach in which first contact with new concepts moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space in the form of structured activity, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter.

Likely good teachers have been doing something like flipped learning for a long time. Frankly, despite the recent technology hype, flipped learning and flipped classrooms do not require the use of much technology. There have been a number of misconceptions. One particularly egregious misconception is that many people wrongly believe flipped learning requires videos. Flipped learning has become almost indelibly identified with the use of video. This is a problem because it could be discouraging some educators from trying a flipped classroom design.

According Robert Talbert (2017) “flipped learning does not require video. In fact, it’s possible to have a highly effective flipped learning environment without any video whatsoever, or even much in the way of high technology in the first place” (page). In fact, the concept of flipped learning was in force many years before video was widely available. The point is that one MAY use video to flip a class but there is no evidence that one MUST use video, or sophisticated technology of any kind for that matter.

Flipped teaching for flipped learning resembles coaching more than teaching. The Flip Learning page describes four ideological pillars, which are paraphrased here: 1) a flexible environment in which students participate in the decision of when where and with whom to learn outside the classroom, 2) a commitment to learner centered approaches, 3) a constantly evolving and developing content that is created and curated through learner and instructor efforts, and 4) a professional educator who nurtures the development of a learning community by providing pertinent feedback and direction in order to scaffold learner interactions and abilities both in and outside of the classroom.

It may be helpful to think of it schematically (see Figure 4). Activities outside the class are represented by the objects on the left and inside the class on the right.

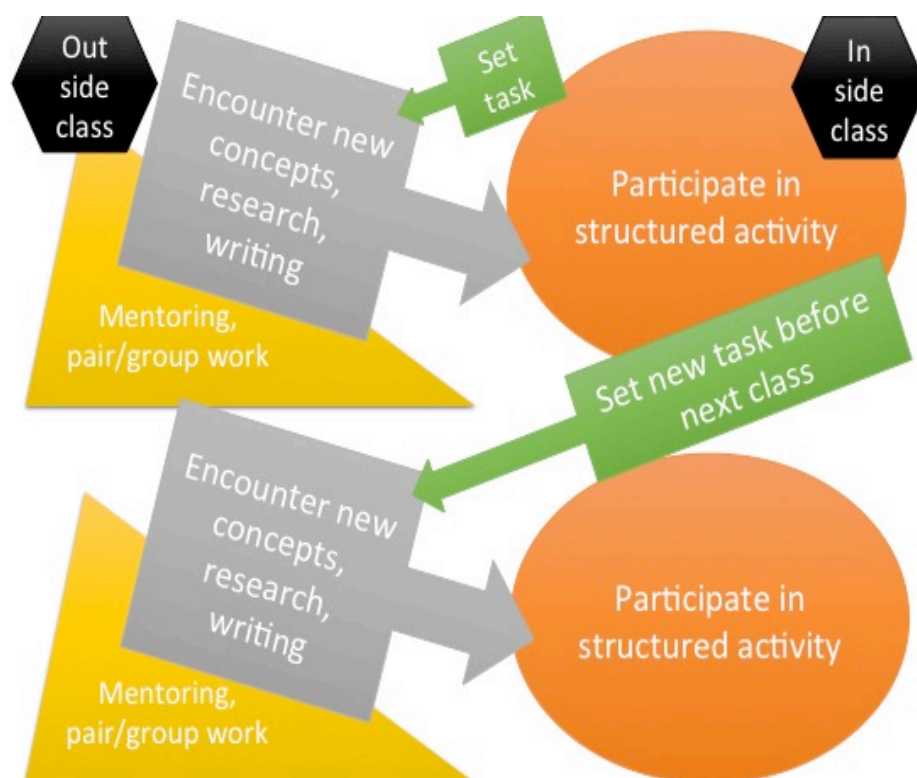


Figure 4. Inside and Outside the Flipped Class Visualized

The teacher/instructor sets a task (researching, activity, experience, writing, reading) for the learner to accomplish before the next class meeting. The learner is free to decide how to accomplish the task but is encouraged to work with others (who may be peers or mentors) and may contact the instructor for support or resources. The thus prepared learners come to class ready to share what they have learned and prepared to engage in a structured activity designed to apply what was acquired before class. At the end of class a new task is set and the cycle repeats.

Case study: A ‘Flipped Classroom’ in preparation for NMUN

After a stringent screening process of testing assessing and interviewing, students engaged in educational contracting by which they promised to work cooperatively and flexibly with mentors and teachers and other group members in order to effectively prepare for the MUN event. Furthermore, they had to promise to attend and fully participate in five three-hour intensive class sessions. Pair mentoring, group work and individual research was done off campus, at student homes, and by Skype. Table 1 summarizes the activities of each session:

Table 1. Overview of sessions and flow of intensive MUN preparation

<interview screening, educational contracting, researching>	
Session 1	self introductions; meet/greet; pairs fill out country profiles; share in regional blocks; student mentors introduce position paper (PP) contents and research methods; practice formal debate procedure
<do research: committee mandate, each agenda; summary in paragraph; read background guide; prepare PP outline; meet with partner share goals for MUN>	
Session 2	share research with your committee on each agenda; student mentors take Q & A on PP context and citation style; also Q&A to reduce pressure, anxiety; practice meeting transitions/motions
<research and write PP; communicate with partner>	
Session 3	practice writing Working Paper (WP) as a precursor to draft resolutions using UN stylistic Conventions (preambulatory phrases and operative clauses), meet in regional and committee blocks for peer feedback and brainstorming
<research and write PP; communicate with partner>	
Session 4	meet in regional and committee blocks for peer feedback and brainstorming, practice meeting transitions/motions
<NMUN Simulation Event>	
Session 5	Debriefing, Reflection, Evaluation

Building a MUN-CLIL repository

Numerous online, public resources are available freely to educators and learners who are preparing for a MUN event. Obviously the UN itself is the first source to consult: The Dag Hammarskjöld Library < <http://research.un.org/en>>; the Official Documents Search (for Past UN Resolutions) < <http://www.un.org/en/documents/ods/>>; International Treaties and conventions < <https://treaties.un.org/>>; and so on. Individual nations/governments also offer materials freely: U.S. State Department background notes <<http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/>>; The World Fact Book (CIA of the U.S.A.) < <https://www.cia.gov/Library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ve.html>> and media outlets also offer resources: BBC Country Profiles <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/country_profiles/default.stm>; Radio Free Europe / Radio Liberty <http://www.rferl.org/> among others. For even more resources, visit the following websites: NMUN Japan Background Guides & Resolutions http://www.nmun.org/nmun_japan16.html ; NMUN Preparation Guides & Resources http://www.nmun.org/ny_preparations.html ; Japan University English Model UN (<http://juemun.org>); American Model United Nations <https://www.amun.org/>; Model UN in a Box Simulation Guide <https://www.amun.org/simulation-guide/>

Conclusion

“Model United Nations all begin with the same rules and protocols but they quickly emerge as a dynamically co-created experience, every one of which is unique, unlike no other” (Zenuk-Nishide, 2011, p. 5). Model UN simulations provide an academic forum for the discussion of global concerns in a context that closely parallels the “real world” of global policy meetings. Through the participation in a MUN, students develop understanding of the inner workings of the UN as they build skill in diplomacy and compromise. It is our hope that this paper will convince readers of the

profound value of MUN events and encourage some to bring this opportunity to their students.

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***Investigating ‘Interest’ Development of Indonesian Students in an MA TEFL
Programme in Learning English as an L2***

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Abstract

This study contributes to the understanding of interest development in second language learning. It describes the conditions which trigger students’ situational interest in learning English as a second language, and how temporary situational interest contributes to the development of more stable individual interest. The data are gathered from two Indonesian students on an MA Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) programme at a UK university, through the use of introspective, semi-structured interviews. The key findings are: significant conditions triggering interest in learning English as an L2 were associated with external factors which caused a highly emotional impact; and the person-oriented situational interest provided an ideal model, which maintained the learner’s interest through every phase of interest development, and supported them through challenges and difficulties.

Keywords: situational interest, individual interest, second language learning, learning English, interest development

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Introduction

The term ‘interest’, sometimes a synonym for ‘intrinsic motivation’ or ‘inherent curiosity’ (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a), has appeared in many discussions of second language (L2) learning over the last 20 years. It is widely used with regard to language teaching materials: for example, in making lessons interesting (Dörnyei, 2001), and choosing interesting texts for reading and learning the language (Macalister, 2011; Tomlinson, 2013). Nonetheless, more specific details, including the features of interesting lessons, how they vary according to numerous contexts, and how to help reluctant learners in learning L2 and performing various language learning activities which do not appear to interest them, are still required.

‘Interest’ is a source of intrinsic motivation for learning: students persist longer on tasks, spend more time, read more deeply, remember better, and obtain higher grades (Silvia, 2008). Proven to act as a powerful motivator as well as a key component in intrinsic motivation and self-determination (Green-Demers et al., 1998), it eventually results in more independent learning and in learners employing a greater variety of cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies (McWhaw & Abrami, 2001).

It can be seen, then, that ‘interest’ is an important construct which plays a significant role in learning L2. For that reason, the study of it can help educators understand and improve the teaching and learning of English as a second language: particularly in cases where English is a compulsory school subject, an educational requirement instead of a personal interest.

However, investigations into interest and its development in L2 research, as well as the literature on interest in applied linguistics, are still limited. How interest might be triggered, enhanced, and maintained is a question for further research. Moreover, although several research approaches have examined development processes, hardly any attempts have been made to integrate the empirical findings through a prevailing theory of interest development, and describe it from the perspective of the individual instead of the population (Krapp, 2002).

Accordingly, this study investigates the development of interest in learning English as a second language by focusing on the life experiences of two Indonesian students in an MA Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) programme at a UK university. It endeavours to understand the conditions which may trigger the students’ situational interest; and how short, situational interest contributes to relatively more stable individual interest in learning English as a second language.

Literature Review

The Role of ‘Interest’ in L2 Learning

In L2 language learning, ‘interest’ is not adequately conceptualised. It is often associated with ‘enjoyment’ (Dörnyei, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1999), ‘integrativeness’ (Dörnyei, 2005), ‘arousing curiosity’ (Guillauteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), and ‘desire’ (Kubota, 2011). That said, ‘interest’ is often used to refer to things instead of personal traits; and can generate knowledge-seeking behaviours which lead to knowledge and personal growth, lifelong learning, and life satisfaction (Tin, 2016; Ainley, 2013).

‘Interest’ is a source of intrinsic motivation with unique characteristics, which helps us understand students’ complex language learning behaviour in a particular context (Del Favero et al., 2007; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Hidi, 2006). For example, it is used to explain students’ engagement in a tedious task with reference to self-determination and self-regulation (Thoman et al., 2007; Sansone et al., 1992).

‘Interest’ in L2 learning is now viewed as dynamic. Learners’ interest fluctuates according to the multi-faceted rapport between them, the objects, and the context. Sansone and Thoman (2005) report that interest is dynamic in nature: depending on the engagement of individuals with objects of interest, as well as adjacent contexts. Potential objects of interest for L2 learners to interact with include: (1) language content elements (grammar, vocabulary, and language skills); (2) non-language content varieties (topics and themes); (3) language learning tasks and real life activities. Contexts include in-class or out-of-class settings: the role of the teacher, peers, students’ moods, time, and place (Tin, 2016).

Among various types of interest proposed (Krapp et al., 1992; Hidi & Anderson, 1992), situational interest and individual interest are the most popular categorizations. They differ in terms of perseverance about the objects of interest. Situational interest, often activated by attractive, fresh and thought-provoking elements of an object, is reasonably insecure, temporary, and context particular; while individual interest is more stable. Individual interest develops gradually from time to time, supported by situational interests: which constitute ‘vehicles’ for personal interest and enduring interest, both of which are vital in personal growth and self-directed learning (Tin, 2013).

Given the depictions above, this study conceptualises ‘interest’ as a dynamic construct which generates a feeling of craving for knowledge, and leads to the determined engagement of L2 learners with objects of interest. It promotes successful language learning, leads to knowledge and personal growth, and helps learners cope with a potentially unapproachable L2 learning experience. Both individual and situational interests play a significant role in the learning process. It affects, to a certain degree, what is learnt and how well it is learnt (Schraw and Lehman, 2001). In sum, ‘interest’ motivates learning and exploration, and helps people build broad knowledge and obtain skills and experiences.

The Development of ‘Interest’ in L2 Learning

The development of interest is explained in terms of developmental modifications in a person’s patterns of interest. This is known as a four-phase model of interest development: triggered situational interest, maintained situational interest, emerging (less-developed) individual interest, and well-developed individual interest (Hidi and Renninger, 2006). Through continued engagement or support, interest endures and deepens (Renninger, 2000; Renninger & Hidi, 2002; Renninger et al., 2004). The first phase, which can last for a short or long period of time, may provide the basis for interest to connect to the second phase, when there is support from the environment. In the third phase, learners no longer rely upon explicit external support, and begin to engage with the object of interest; while in the last phase, learners continue to seek access to re-engage.

Yet a discussion on how ‘interest’ develops in L2 learning has not been elaborated on in the literature. A study that investigates ‘interest’ in L2 from a developmental perspective, in which ‘interest’ is seen as a process changing over time rather than as a static feature, is required. The development of interest covers the transition from situational to individual through several developmental stages and trajectories: in other words, how individual interest, an enduring long-term interest, might develop; and how short-term situational interest contributes to this. According to previous research, the experience of being interested in an actual learning situation is usually the result of an interaction between individual and situational features (Hidi & Baird, 1986; Bergin, 1999; Krapp et al., 1992). Situational interest is triggered primarily by external factors in a given learning environment, in order to develop an individual interest (Hidi, 1990; Krapp et al., 1992; Murphy & Alexander, 2001). Eventually, individual interest is integrated into the structure of the individual’s self-system, which results in firm intention (Krapp, 2002).

However, this is a multi-stage process which cannot adequately be described by both situational and individual interests. Thus a developmental continuum between the very beginning of a situational interest and a stabilised individual interest should be considered. To illustrate the developmental processes, a model representing the idea of such a multi-stage concept is provided in Figure 1. The stages begin with the generation of a situational interest triggered by external stimuli for the first time, move to a situational interest that lasts during a particular learning time through internalisation, before turning into an individual interest, which is relatively stable in terms of enduring engagement.

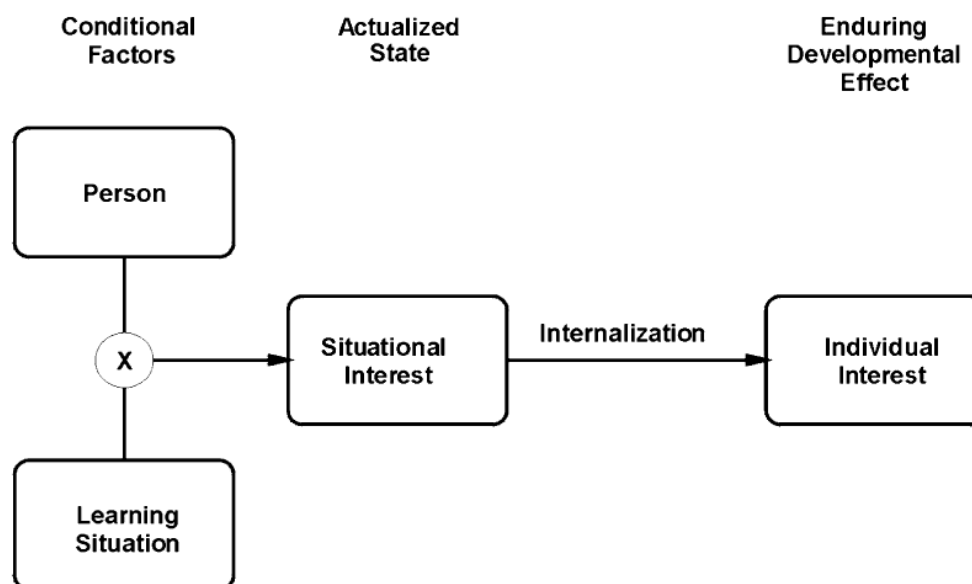


Figure 1: A model of transition from situational to individual interest (Krapp, 1998, p. 191).

Methodology

Context

The context of this study involves two Indonesian students on an MA Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) programme at a UK university. The study focuses on their English learning experiences: specifically, their interest in learning English as a second language. They are experienced English teachers with relevant educational backgrounds. They confirm that English is their object of personal interest.

Research Questions

1. What conditions trigger the students' situational interest in learning English as a second language?
2. How does their situational interest contribute to the development of individual interest?

Participants

This study uses critical case sampling (Dörnyei, 2007): relevant participants who best represent the phenomena are chosen. The participants are two Indonesian students on an MA Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) programme at a UK university. They are purposively selected because they have developed an interest in learning English as a second language, as proven by their educational backgrounds and experience in teaching English, based on my observations as part of the community.

As this research aimed to investigate the phenomena in a particular context, selection of the participants did not attempt to represent the entire population. As Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) note, within complexity theory, the purpose of research is only to discover specific generalisations, not universal ones; albeit, the outcomes of one context might be relevant to other contexts. Similar findings from more than one context can be significant by way of discerning the possibility of connected results.

I contacted the participants, asked them about participating voluntarily, and informed them that the data would be kept confidential. They both agreed to take part. The participants were Jihan (32) and Tamara (28), who both started their full-time Master's in September 2016. Both began learning English at junior high school. Jihan graduated from her Bachelor's degree in English Literature, before teaching English at a private school for seven years. Meanwhile, Tamara, who is yet to become a teacher at a state junior high school, has taught for nine years, with English Education as her undergraduate major.

Method and Instrument

The data were collected through semi-structured interviews aimed at gaining deeper, more relevant information about the phenomena under investigation (Dörnyei, 2007). The in-depth retrospective interview was chosen, as it has proven to be a rich source of case material in research on interest involving adult learners (Barron, 2006;

Renninger & Hidi, 2011). The learners were asked to reflect on past critical moments. This concept has been used in qualitative research interviews to investigate such incidents (Finch, 2010). Although these reflections may not offer a directly mirrored image of the experience, they establish a basis for story-telling, enabling participants to revisit and make meaning of their lived experience through narratives.

The interview guide was adapted from Tin (2016), with some modifications. The questions have four parts: participants' background information; English language teaching and learning experiences in the past; other interests; and perceptions of interest in teaching and learning English. As the retrospective nature of the interview depends on participants' memory of past events, I focused on eliciting particular events and asking for specific examples (Ericcson & Simon, 1980).

The interview guide was prepared in two versions: one in English, and one in Bahasa Indonesia, the participants' first language (L1). The participants were able to choose whichever they preferred for the convenience of the interview. Jihan preferred to use Bahasa Indonesia, while Tamara chose English.

Data Analysis Procedure

First, the interviews were transcribed. Jihan's transcript was also translated into English. The transcripts were then read multiple times to familiarise the researcher with the data (Smith & Osborn, 2008). Episodes in which students talked about past critical moments which triggered their situational interest, as well as the possible relationship between situational interest and individual interest in learning English, were read particularly thoroughly: so as to categorise and identify the answers to the research questions.

Results And Discussion

Conditions Triggering Situational Interest in Learning English as an L2

The analysis suggests that significant conditions triggering interest in learning English as an L2 were associated with external factors, which caused a highly emotional impact: for example, coming into contact with an inspiring figure, or support from parents, close friends, and motivating teachers. Inspiring figures were clearly vital in generating interest. The learners' experience in encountering an attractive use of English made them realise what they had not noticed earlier. As Jihan put it, "It was just so cool".

Jihan: I liked English after graduating from senior high school. I was inspired by a news anchor. That news anchor delivered the news by using English, and it looked amazing. She looked very intelligent, very smart talking in English, in other people's language very fluently; it was just so cool.

Before Jihan observed the news anchor who so impressed her, she had never been interested in English and simply treated it in the same way as other subjects. She took English solely to achieve good academic scores. She had not yet appreciated that English is global and universal. However, after her discovery, she recognized the value of learning English and became interested. Her ignorance of English turned into

positive feelings, and she came to start learning the language seriously: “I would learn English seriously”.

Jihan: I think when I was in junior and senior high school, for example, when I watched English movies that (inaudible) like that; I was just amazed and didn't know that I would learn English seriously yet. It wasn't like that until I graduated and was inspired by that news anchor.

Jihan's interest, then, was triggered not only thanks to being inspired by a public, successful English user, but also by her realisation of the benefits of English. Its use by the news anchor triggered her desire to be like her: to be 'amazing, intelligent, smart, and cool'. When she appreciated the substantial advantages provided by English, this created the cognitive interest necessary to seek further knowledge and trigger positive feelings around learning the language.

As well the excitement unpredictably initiated by the stimulating individual in question, the contiguous environment could also trigger interest in learning English as an L2, even during early years. Unlike Jihan, whose interest began after high school, Tamara's interest was prompted when she was young, thanks to support from her family: especially her father, an English teacher. She has studied English since age five or six, and continued to learn it formally in junior high school; her father was her first English teacher there. Her interest seemed to increase at that point, both because of the way her father taught her English; and her friends, who joined her in practising the language. As Tamara says, “Until now he's my inspiration”.

Researcher: What made you become interested in learning English?

Tamara: My father. My father was my first English teacher in junior high school and the way he taught English was totally different even from mine now. It was so light, easy and ,you know, interesting. I don't know how he did it. Until now he's my inspiration.

Researcher: Could you remember the first time you became interested in English?

Tamara: Well, I remember when I was in junior high school, I had kind of many friends who liked to talk, to discuss, or to sing a simple English song. I think that moment would be the, you know, not really the first because I had studied it informally since I was really young. But it was the moment, I mean; it's around 14 years old.

How Situational Interest Contributes to the Development of Individual Interest

The two participants, Jihan and Tamara, developed individual interest: the characteristics of which (Krapp, 2002; Schraw & Lehman, 2001) include stable and persistent desire. Since their situational interest had been triggered by significant people they had encountered and admired, they had not lost their interest in learning English, despite the difficulties they had faced in their learning experiences.

Researcher: Have you ever lost interest in learning English?

Jihan: No. I'm still loving it.

Tamara: In learning English? I don't think so.

It appears that the sources of situational interest played a significant role in the sustainability process. As their situational interest triggered knowledge-seeking behaviour, the two learners ultimately enjoyed the learning process, even though they encountered difficulty in specific aspects (e.g. writing, linguistics, translation). They were aware of their constraints, but willing to work on them and improve. As long as the learners possessed situational interest, they were eager to solve these problems and improve their knowledge and competencies. The questions here, though, revolve around what happened in the process of attending to their individual interest, and how situational interest contributed to their development continuum.

In Tamara's case, her father – also her source of situational interest – contributed directly in further developing her interest by providing support. As well as encouraging her to experience performing English at a school event, he had helped her practise English at home since childhood.

Researcher: Did you practice your English with your father or other family members?

Tamara: Yeah, most of the time with my father, sometimes with my friends who like English just like me.

When, at senior high school, Tamara's teacher did not meet her expectations, her father gave her advice which helped her maintain her interest in spite of the circumstances.

Tamara: When I started senior high school, things changed, and I didn't really like my English teacher because the way he taught didn't stimulate me. I think because he ignored using English when he taught. It was kind of weird for me. But, it's not lively like my father, but my father said that 'because you already like it, you need to like it like more and more and do it by yourself because it will be useful for you one day'.

At a later stage, when she worked as an English teacher and faced problems in her workplace, she asked her father how she could be like him: someone who had taught successfully for many years.

Researcher: And how did you cope with that feeling [losing interest in teaching English]?

Tamara: Normally I cried. I always cried facing my problems. But it's kind of self-awareness or things like, okay it's the thing that I chose. I cannot simply give up. And you know, at that time, I also called my father, and I asked how could you survive thirty years of teaching? Even me in my third year, I gave up. I said something like that. And he told me that I needed to let it go like, I needed to, I cannot be really. Sometimes I liked saying to myself that I should do this and I should do this; I failed, and it was a difficult time. But I am not that way right now. I am kind of happier now.

All of which highlights Tamara's desire to be a successful English learner and teacher: just like her father, her basis of situational interest. In this case, person-oriented situational interest provided an ideal model, which maintained the learner's interest through every phase of interest development, as well as supporting them through challenges and difficulties.

This aligns closely with Jihan's case. The news anchor, her role model, unconsciously directed her to enjoy her Pronunciation course on her undergraduate degree. She was aware of its benefits and learnt it persistently by herself, supported by the teaching methods of the lecturer, which met her needs.

Jihan: In pronunciation, we were taught to speak language, some words in English, correctly. It was kind of challenging because the lecturer really motivated us to speak English correctly, although his motivation appeared not to be good, because it involved physical punishment - he brought a long ruler and anyone who couldn't manage good pronunciation would be hit by that ruler, so it was kind of challenging and also terrifying at the same time. But I still found it very useful for me, so that now I could know how to pronounce words in English in the correct way. Because pronunciation is important, if we spoke incorrectly, people would not understand. So if we intended to say a word but the way we pronounced it was wrong, then people wouldn't understand us.

I am learning by myself. Sometimes I like to talk to myself in front of the mirror, and repeat words like interesting words from the movie.

Conclusion And Pedagogical Implications

Conclusion

This study has sought to validate the theory of interest development of learning English as an L2 by integrating the empirical findings and describing the results from the perspective of the individual. The results help confirm the theory that conditions trigger learners' situational interest in learning English as an L2; and to the understanding of interest development by explaining the role played by situational interest in the development of individual interest. The research has also sought to widen current understandings of the complex phenomena of interest development in an L2.

Importantly, external factors such as an admired individual and/or supportive environment (e.g. parents, close friends, and inspiring teachers) appear to trigger situational interest, the basis of relatively stable individual interest. This person-oriented construction of situational interest contributes to the future development of interest, while ensuring its preservation by supporting learners in dealing with problems. Future research would be more vigorous and effective were it to be conducted via a long-term, longitudinal study, or for the purpose of generalisation. Conducting all interviews in English is also more likely to preserve reliability and validity, which may have been constrained somewhat by the need to translate one of the interviews in this study. However, despite these limitations, the findings have valuable implications for improving the English learning and teaching process: particularly in educational settings where English is obligatory, rather than a matter of personal interest.

Pedagogical Implications

It is common for students not to be interested in learning English as an L2; in such cases, they learn English merely to pass their courses. Inspiring teachers, the most important actors in learning environments, can help mitigate this problem. Indonesian students are interested in subjects taught by motivating, supportive teachers. Successful users of English, such as the news anchor highlighted by Jihan, can also attract students' attention and help them appreciate the benefits provided by English in specific, real life contexts. Such teachers and successful English users can provide a basis which helps trigger situational interest and lays a platform for enduring individual interest.

The ways in which situational interest contribute to interest development identified by this study strongly suggest that the teacher is the core focal point in facilitating students' learning of English. The teacher should provide students with the opportunity to appreciate the benefits of learning the language, and facilitate use of the language in ways which trigger emotional impact. Further, they could support development by helping students overcome problems. This means that if the teacher is unable to engender conditions which enable students to appreciate the attractiveness of English and the importance of learning it, this may leave learners unable to absorb sufficient knowledge and develop effective English language skills. Moreover, if the teacher is unable to support the development process, students will inevitably encounter difficulty and may not even obtain the individual interest integral to the successful learning of any language.

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***Expressing Locality in Learning English:
A Study of English Textbooks for Junior High School Year VII-IX in Indonesia
Context***

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Abstract

This paper intends to investigate the transfer of English language to Indonesian students of junior high school in a multicultural setting. As a locus of discussion, the investigation problematizes English textbooks “Real Time: An Interactive English Course for Junior High School Students Year VII-IX” which signify the imbalance accounts of cultural elements as highlighted by both the target language and the local attributes. In other words, domination occurs generated by the English language as an authoritative translanguage submitted to “the Other”. Such premise has led to a question that this project would then analyze, referring to how the cultural elements of the target language are presented in the textbooks and gradually reduce the degree of the oppressive ideology.

Ideally, English teachers teach the language in accordance with the nature of language learning in which they are trained and expected to teach the language within the culture of the target language. This provides a penetrative space of a foreign ideology for its language to be taught. In the context of Indonesia, learning English as international language is considered dilemmatic. To some extent, the ideal pedagogical approach of English learning moves to different direction. English textbook in Indonesia incorporates the cultural elements of the target language, such as names, terminologies, and objects. The textbooks portray 128 foreign elements and 27 local elements. By having the cultural components, the textbook should promote learners’ cultural sensitivity of both cultures to avoid misunderstanding and confusion as well as support language learning as a bidirectional process instead of instrument of oppression. The analytical elaboration examines the cultural characteristics in the forms of form of names, terminologies, and imagery of both cultural domains; English and Indonesia. Thus, the learners are imposed to the culture of the target language and forced to internalize the concept of values under the influence of the target language which tend to marginalize their native culture.

Keywords: Bidirectional process, Identity, Local Culture, Oppression

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Introduction

Current curriculum in Indonesia emphasizes the notion that learning should foster the character building of the students. Curriculum of 2013 which is published by the Minister of Education includes character building in the learning goals which then should be carried out in the learning process. Such effort aims to build students' cultural awareness of their own culture and enforce their cultural identity in order to avoid the loss of values and identity in the middle of the globalized world. However, in the context of Indonesia, learning English as international language is considered dilemmatic. Ideally, English teachers teach the language in accordance with the nature of language learning in which they are trained and expected to teach the language within the culture of the target language. This provides a penetrative space of a foreign ideology for its language to be taught. If the foreign culture takes most parts of the instruction, this condition may lead to cultural crisis. It is then possible that the exposures to the native cultures are reduced and more penetrations from foreign culture are accommodated. The danger is that people can lose their identity or face the threat of losing their identity due to this cultural invasion (Freire, 1970, p. 152). Learners will respond more to the foreign cultures, imitate, and internalize the new cultures in their lives. Since learning is an instrument of domination, teachers should pay more attention to factors that pose some threats to identity.

As learning is shifting to knowledge-based process, providing students with necessary contents for language learning is considered beneficial. Non-linguistics contents should be put into consideration as well because the information that the students obtain from learning is believed can promote their culture and identity. Therefore, effective textbooks should accommodate exposures of both cultures. Teachers demand more English textbooks which can facilitate cultural dissemination of both local and global values. English textbook in Indonesia incorporates the cultural elements of the target language, such as names, terminologies, and cultural wisdoms, objects, and factual information. More textbooks signify the imbalance accounts of cultural elements as highlighted by both the target language and the local attributes. In other words, domination occurs generated by the English language as an authoritative translanguage submitted to "the Other". Such premise has led to a question that this project would then analyze, referring to how the cultural elements of the target language are presented in the textbooks and gradually reduce the degree of the oppressive ideology. This paper intends to investigate the transfer of English language to Indonesian students of junior high school in a multicultural setting. A series of textbooks published by local publisher, PT. Erlangga titled "Real Time: An Interactive English Course for Junior High School Students Year VII-IX" is analyzed to examine the presence of cultural contexts in English and Indonesia.

Cultural Identity

Miller describes that cultural identity as a condition when each individual favors differentiation and localization and validates human differences and the rights of diversity (in Miller, Kostogriz, & Gearon, 2009, p.127). In the context of language learning, people should promote cultural identity by respecting the diversity that the learners have, including their existing knowledge, backgrounds, motivation levels, and cultures. One should value the cultures of the target language and the local

cultures. By doing so, there is no culture being marginalized. The fact that learners are diverse requires each individual to give respect on others' identity as Pavlenko mentions that language learning should be carried out with respect to the ideological and sociopolitical processes which both enable (re)negotiation of identity (2009, p. 220). Therefore, promoting identity can be described as the effort to expressing the locality in the process of earning new language and learning its culture.

Language Learning and Instrument of Oppression

Freire mentions that education is the exercise of domination because education becomes an act of depositing (1970, p. 72). Learners expose themselves to a new concept and internalize it in their minds. There is a ruling power that drives the process of earning the contents, including the information that should be given and this involves the act of distinction. Referring to the contents in English textbooks, the acts of distinction and domination appear as a form of symbolic power that decides what is culturally valuable and what is not (Freire, 1970, p. 67). Therefore, contents in textbooks become instrument to impose ones' cultures towards others. People who are non-native to the cultures are exposed and they tend to be forced to internalize the cultures to learn the foreign language. This condition portrays the oppressive ideology which takes into account.

Bidirectional Process

Pavlenko describes language learning as a bidirectional process where the boundaries of the target language category are modified without changing that of the native language (2009, p. 175). Pavlenko further mentions that the acquisition process involves immersion process (2009, p. 170). Bidirectional process enables learners to bring themselves to a new horizon without ever losing their existing or prior knowledge. When they are exposed to a new concept, they also recall their memories upon the pre-existing knowledge they have in mind. That is also how bidirectional process works in language learning. When the students learn a new culture, they reinforce their local culture, so they build their sensitivity towards both cultures.

Methodology

The study examined Real Time textbooks for Junior High School Year VII to IX. The textbooks consist of three textbooks. The three textbooks researched were written by non-Indonesian author edited by two Indonesia editors published by a local commercial publishing company, PT Erlangga. The textbooks present variety of cultural representations of both foreign and local cultures which include names, terminologies, cultural notes, factual information, and images. The study employed content analysis where analytical elaboration was used to examine the cultural characteristics in the forms of form of names, terminologies, and imagery of both cultural domains, which lead to a discursive context on how language acts as signifier and signs. In addition, the study also focused on the distribution of both cultures to identify if there was dominating culture which could lead to cultural invasion.

Discussion

Language learning should promote the cultures and identity since it is always conducted in multicultural setting. The different background, culture, and identity between the learners and the native speakers require more contents that can value the differences and similarities between both cultures. Morgan and Cain mention that meanings and values are learned concurrently with language (2000, p. 4). Since language and culture are inseparable, the contents and activities should raise awareness of the multicultural values. One of the media used to disseminate the cultures is textbook, so good textbook should portray the language as well as the cultural values and identity.

Book	Foreign Cultures					Local Cultures				
	Names	FI	CN	Term	Im	Names	FI	CN	Term	Im
RT 1	53	4	14	7	50	48	3	-	-	4
RT 2	56	2	8	3	58	37	1	1	-	6
RT 3	71	6	10	2	52	27	8	1	-	5

Table 1. The Distributions of Foreign and Local Cultures

Language and culture are interconnected because language denotes and embodies specific cultural factors (Morgan and Cain, 2000, p. 6). The use of language can represent the identity of the speakers and the culture underlies the language used by the speakers. Therefore, when ones learn a new language, they also expose themselves to the values and cultures of the native speakers. Byram and Morgan mentions that language learning has to be complemented with culture-specific meanings, which include cultural elements and social features (1994, p. 1). This becomes the basis of integrating cultures and their manifestations in the language learning contents, particularly textbooks.

Based on the analysis, foreign and local cultures are represented in the forms of names, terminologies, cultural notes, factual information, and images. They reflect how the cultures are manifested in the real life context as perceived by the learners. The cultural forms serve as signifiers which create mental images of the cultural identity. They appear as the portraits which are recognized and perceived by the senses of the learners (Greimas, p. 8). By using names, terminologies, cultural notes, factual information, and pictures, the writer wants to create mental images that will be processed by the learners as internalized concepts in their minds.

Names

In order to portray the cultures of the target language, the writer uses names of people and places. Names like Jim, Jack, Jane, Ken, Mrs. Jones, Darla, and Stephanie or surnames like Bates, Smith, Robinson, and Baley are common to use in the West. The textbooks also mention names of various places like Los Angeles, Tucson, Perth, Arizona, San Diego, Atlanta, Disneyland, Grand Canyon, Mount Helen, Empire State Building, New York, and University or Arizona which are located in foreign countries. The writer uses these names to give context and setting that the events take place in

foreign countries and almost all of the conversations are performed by people from English-speaking countries under the circumstances of foreign cultures.



Image 1. The presentations of local people and local names

To accommodate the background of Indonesian learners, the textbooks often mention common local names like Fitri, Toni, Anton, Meta, Rani, Margo, Sujatmiko, Sudirman, Gunardi, and Rudi. These people are depicted as Indonesians speaking to foreigners in various situations, such as invitation, introduction, and request. In addition, to make the contexts more localized, the writer uses several names of big cities or famous tourist attractions in Indonesia, such as Medan, Semarang, Jakarta, Surabaya, Bandung, Bromo, Senggigi Beach, Lombok, Bali, Kuta, and Taman Mini Indonesia Indah. The setting illustrates that English is spoken in Indonesia as international language. However, due to less exposure to the cultural setting in Indonesia, most of the contents are presented with the influence of foreign cultures. The learners will build the mental images of the situations.

Terminologies

The textbooks mention some terminologies that do not appear in local culture of Indonesia. The terms include potluck party, feet for measurement, summer camp, slumber party, hitchhiking, and barbeque party. Indonesian learners are not familiar with these terms because they do not have the same cultures. When learning these concepts, they are exposed to the new cultures. They will construct and internalize the concepts of potluck party, feet, summer camp, slumber party, and barbeque party which are common in foreign countries. This condition is conflicting with the idea to express the locality because the textbooks tend to omit other cultural terminologies that are present in Indonesia context.

Cultural notes

Unlike other English textbooks in Indonesia, Real Time adds cultural notes as parts of the units. These cultural notes are available at the end of the units which allow discussions on foreign cultures. Some examples of the cultural notes are celebrations in America, healthy lifestyle in America, American parents, family in America, culture of teenagers in the US, American friendly culture, and 'Time is Money' in America. Almost all contents discussed in cultural notes are about the cultures of the

Americans. Some images also follow the discussions to give clear pictures of how the cultures are practiced.

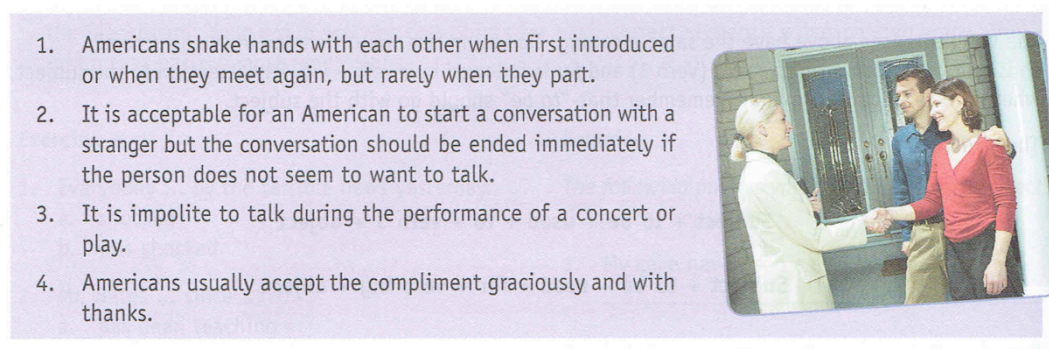


Image 2. Americans manner

The textbooks do not mention cultures of Indonesia in the cultural notes. The example of the cultural notes above illustrates how Americans hold manners in socializing with others. The fact shows that language learning has been ‘Americanized’. Failures to promote the local cultures can lead to the loss of identity during the learning process. In fact, multicultural language learning should accommodate students’ diversity, especially their cultures, identities, and values.

Factual information

The writer discusses seasons, topography, price, measurement, abbreviations, NASCAR sports in America, and American Express card as factual information of the cultures of the target language. By doing so, the writer wants to promote the foreign cultures. The textbooks also discuss some factual information from Indonesia. This effort is to disseminate both cultures in the process of language learning. The learners then can internalize both values to avoid losing the identity and culture.

- Maya : Which channel is your favorite?
 Tara : I like channel E-news.
 Maya : Why do you like it?
 Tara : Well, it has many interesting programs, such as soap operas and quiz shows.
 Maya : I don't like watching soap operas. I like watching news and music programs.
 Tara : What is your favorite channel?
 Maya : Hmm, I like both CNN and MTV.
 Tara : I like MTV too. It has many good programs.
 Maya : We have to be careful though. We are not supposed to watch too much TV.
 Tara : You are right.

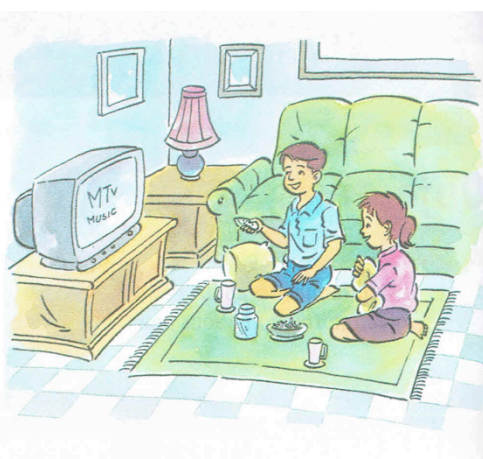


Image 3. Conversation between Two Friends about Foreign TV Channel

The image above illustrates the conversation between two friends. They are talking about their favorite TV programs. Unfortunately, the TV programs that they are

talking about are not from local TV. CNN and MTV are American-based TV channels. Using these as the examples of TV program instead of local TV programs will reduce the value of local identity.



DID YOU KNOW?

Antara is Indonesia's National News Agency. It was founded by Adam Malik, Soemanang, A.M. Sipanhoentar and Pandoe Kartawigoena on December 13, 1937. *Antara* was the one which first announced the proclamation of Indonesian independence on August 17, 1945.

Image 4. Factual Information about Local Culture

In order to bring more localized content, Real Time textbook for grade IX describes one of our national mass media. The writer mentions *Antara*, a national news agency which was founded and published in Indonesia. To express more local contents, teacher using the textbooks can provide more additional examples of factual information in Indonesia. The discussion can be followed by presenting the examples of local identity.

Images

Most of the pictures in the textbooks illustrate the cultures of the target language. The images show some cultural aspects and phenomena, such as celebrations in the US, food, iconic places in the US, coupons, and fairy tales in the US. The images are mostly used to support descriptions of objects or customs in the cultural notes or situations in the conversations, so the learners can understand the settings and contexts. In all units, the textbooks also present some images showing the activities of Americans family, workers, and students. They portray how they socialize, celebrate some important events, study at school, or play to represent how the Americans live.



Image 5. The representation of local culture

The locality is expressed by presenting some images that relate to the local cultures. Several units portray several pictures of Indonesian cultures, such as traditional dance, memento, traditional means of transportation, local folktales, and cultural icons in Indonesia. The pictures also describe how Indonesian students spend their time at

school. However, only some images are followed with descriptions or stories. To give example, textbook for grade IX contains a picture about the story of Timun Mas and several units in textbook for grade VIII and IX present several images that describe Kuta and Tanah Lot, whereas, other images are not followed by descriptions. The image presented above portrays Barong, a traditional dance from Bali.

Expressing the Locality

Since language learning is conducted in multicultural setting, the contents given should accommodate students' diversity in terms of cultures, values, and identities. Expressing the locality in the textbooks will work best to disseminate the values of both cultures and reduce the sense of oppression and domination of one culture to another.

Real Time textbooks have presented some cultural representations of both cultures. However the distributions are still imbalance because the textbooks represent more Americanized contexts. The use of names and the presentations of factual information, cultural notes, and images build the context and identity of the American cultures. Therefore, this is quite effective to help the students internalize the cultures of the target language. In order to promote local culture and reduce the domination of foreign culture representations, the textbooks have added more contextualized and localized contents. Several units in the textbooks present conversations between native speakers and students from Indonesia. Typical Indonesian names are also mentioned in several parts of the textbooks. By doing so, the textbooks have managed to accommodate the identity of local people. They are portrayed as local people with local identity who take parts in international communication.

Cultural contents in the textbooks also present factual information about Indonesian cultures. In several units, the writer describes the cultural and tourism icons of Indonesia such as Borobudur, Kuta, and Bromo. By learning the language, the students also learn about the local cultures as well. In addition, the textbooks also provide several images to represent the values and cultures of Indonesia. The representations of the local cultures in the textbooks will build students' awareness of their identity while internalizing new concepts of foreign cultures in the language learning process. As what Brown mentions, language learning is connected with cultural learning because when ones teach a language, they also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting (in Richards and Renandya, 2002, p. 13).

Language Learning and Cultural Representation

Although the number of the local cultures is limited, Real Time textbooks have expressed the local cultures of Indonesia. The use of images, factual information, and local names try to build more localized contexts and promote the local cultures during the process of learning others' language. While learning, Kramsch mentions that language learners should promote the attitudes, values, and beliefs they share with the social group they belong to (in Carter & Nunan, 2001, p. 202). Not merely receiving the new language and its cultural values, language learners should express their local values and identity. One way to teach the culture is by understanding the cultural background portrayed in the literature (Haynes, 2007, p. 60). If the contents in the

textbooks provide enough cultural exposure, the learners will find it easier to build the mental images about the cultures that they are supposed to learn.

If the contents can represent both cultures, the learning will promote the dissemination of both cultures and encourage the students to appreciate the diversity. The students will understand the similarities and dissimilarities between them and restrain any negative attitudes towards one culture. On the other hands, most English textbooks used have not put enough information about the local culture. Most images, cultural notes, factual information, and names represent foreign cultures and have stronger penetrations on the students.

Language Learning and Identity

Learning is a form of domination and oppression. People with authoritative power decide what to learn, how to learn, and when to learn. Textbook writers can decide what are valuable to mention in the textbooks. Real Time textbooks present more contents about American and Western cultures which include the way they live and socialize. In order to reduce the degree of oppression, the writer tries to mention various forms of local culture. However, compared to the number of foreign cultures, this is still inadequate, so the textbooks have more Americanized or Westernized identity. This idea shows how learners as non-native members encounter the identity of native speakers (Byram & Grundy, 2003, p. 2).

Identity is multiple and shifting (Kostogriz in Miller, Kostogriz, & Gearon, 2009, p. 116), so identity is fluid. It keeps changing as people progress towards the goal. Learners' concept on identity can also change as they move towards the learning goals. Therefore, multicultural awareness is necessary to build because they can acquire the target language without ever losing their identity. The expectation is that they can internalize the culture of the target language and relate it with their own culture. Based on Kostogriz (in Miller, Kostogriz, and Gearon, 2009, p. 122), multicultural awareness itself can be raised by contrasting the target culture and the learners' culture and identity. Learners should be encouraged to value the diversity.

Conclusion

Cultural learning follows language learning. Contents in English textbooks do not only mention the language aspects but also represent culture and identity of the native speakers. In order to reduce the domination of one culture to another culture, the contents should promote both cultures. Although still considered imbalance, Real Time textbooks have provided several cultural representations of Indonesia by using names, factual information, and images. The presence of these items helps the learners to understand the values and cultures of the target language without ever losing their own identity.

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***Motivational Changes and Their Effects on Achievement:
Japanese High School English Learners***

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Abstract

This longitudinal study investigates (a) changes in Japanese high school English learners' motivation over the 3 years of high school, and (b) whether their motivational changes over the high school years predict achievement at the end of high school. A questionnaire was developed drawing on the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 1985) and the self-determination-theory scale (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000), and administered to 190 students 3 times at yearly intervals. 10 constructs were identified. Concerning (a), in general, Desire to Learn English declined in the early years of high school, whereas Motivational Intensity and Attitudes Toward Learning English increased in the later years of high school. Concerning (b), higher achievement was predicted by the growth of Motivational Intensity, Attitudes Toward Learning English, and Intrinsic Motivation and the decline of Amotivation over the high school years. The results suggested which constructs intervention should be focused on.

Keywords: L2 motivation, the socio-educational model, self-determination theory, latent growth curve modeling, longitudinal study

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Introduction

L2 motivation can change over time. For example, Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, and Mihic (2004) found in their 1-year-longitudinal study about French learners at a Canadian university using the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB; Gardner, 1985) that although there was little change for general variables (e.g., interest in foreign languages, attitudes toward French Canadians, instrumental orientation, desire to learn French, and attitudes toward learning French), there was significantly greater change for classroom-related variables (e.g., French class anxiety and motivational intensity). Irie (2005) found comparable results in her combined cross-sectional and 3-year-longitudinal study about Japanese junior high school English learners using her AMTB-based questionnaire.

Concerning Japanese high school English learners, past research has found that generally, their motivation may fall early but rise later in high school (Hayashi, 2005; Miura, 2010; Sawyer, 2006). However, if motivation is not a single construct but consists of various finer-tuned constructs as in Gardner et al. (2004), it is unclear which constructs follow this trend. In addition, little is known about the effect of motivational change over time on achievement. Thus, it is unclear whether the growth of a particular construct of the learner over the high school years predicts achievement. This study is a 3-year longitudinal investigation into the motivational changes of a cohort of Japanese high school students and the effects of the changes on achievement to address these issues.

Literature Review

Theoretical Models

Gardner and associates (e.g., Gardner & Lambert, 1959) started systematic investigation into L2 motivation in Canada, and based on their research Gardner (1985) developed the socio-educational model of L2 acquisition, characterized by integrativeness and instrumentality. The latest version of the model (Figure 1; Gardner, 2010) includes the following constructs. Integrativeness refers to the learner's will to interact with the native speakers of the L2; it is measured by integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, and attitudes toward native speakers of the L2. Attitudes to the learning situation reflect the learner's attitudes to the teacher and the class. Instrumentality represents the pragmatic value of learning the L2. Motivation refers to the driving force; it comprises motivational intensity (i.e., the strength of the learner's effort expended to learn the L2), desire to learn the L2, and attitudes toward learning the L2. Language anxiety reflects the learner's apprehension. According to Gardner's (2010) hypothesis, motivation, language anxiety, and aptitude can have a direct effect on L2 achievement. On the other hand, integrativeness, attitudes to the learning situation, and instrumentality can exert an indirect effect on L2 achievement via motivation (The broken arrow from instrumentality to motivation indicates the instability of the effect). Gardner (1985) developed the AMTB to measure these constructs.

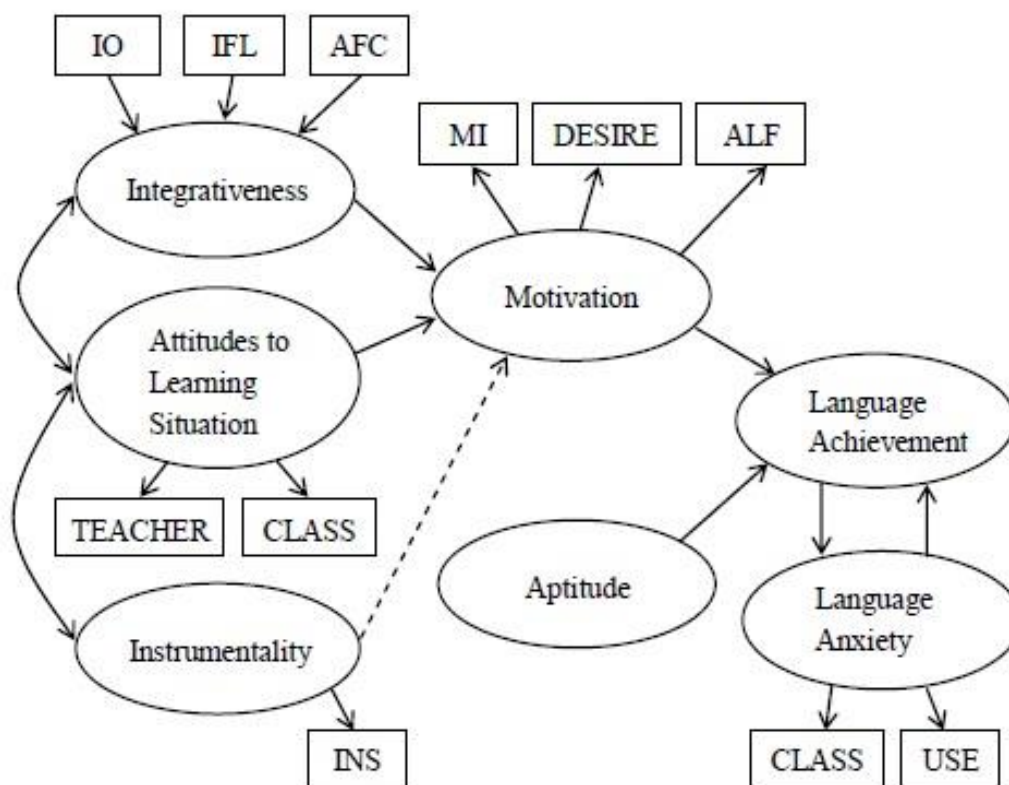


Figure 1. The socio-educational model, re-created from Gardner (2010, p. 88). IO = integrative orientation; IFL = interest in foreign languages; AFC = attitudes toward French Canadians; MI = motivational intensity; DESIRE = desire to learn French; ALF = attitudes toward learning French; INS = instrumental orientation.

Noels and colleagues (e.g., Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999) initiated using self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985) in the L2 motivation field. SDT concerns amotivation (i.e., lack of motivation to act), extrinsic motivation (i.e., motivation to act in order to obtain separable outcome), and intrinsic motivation (i.e., inherent motivation to act) on a hypothesized continuum. Extrinsic motivation is categorized into four regulations based on the extent to which it is externally motivated. First, external regulation, the most externally motivated form, is propelled by a demand or reward from outside the self. Second, introjected regulation, which entails an intake of a regulation but not a complete intake as one's own, refers to behaviors conducted to avoid guilt or anxiety or to uplift one's ego. Third, identified regulation refers to cases where one consciously conducts an activity that agrees with a personally important goal. Fourth, integrated regulation, the least externally motivated form, refers to cases in which the activity agrees with one's other goals, beliefs, and activities, so that conducting the activity expresses the self. SDT claims that external regulation can be internalized over time: It can change into a less externally motivated form of extrinsic motivation (i.e., introjected, identified, or integrated regulation). Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000) developed an instrument to assess these components of SDT in L2 learning.

Empirical Research

Some researchers investigated Japanese English learners' motivational change over the school years by having university students look back on their past. Sawyer (2006) asked university students to graphically show their motivational fluctuations from junior high school through university. He found that on average, their motivation declined in the 1st year but rose in the 2nd and the 3rd years in high school. Miura (2010) replicated Sawyer's study and found comparable changes in the high school years and suggested that the motivational increases in the later years of high school were strongly influenced by university entrance examinations.

Other researchers looked into Japanese English learners' motivational change using SDT. Hiromori (2003) administered his SDT-based questionnaire to 1st-, 2nd-, and 3rd-year high school students and analyzed the data cross-sectionally. He found that the number of students motivated by external regulation (e.g., pressure from parents) decreased over the high school years. In the 3rd year, there were only those with low motivation and those motivated by identified regulation (e.g., helpfulness of English learning for one's personal development). It may be that the external regulation observed in the early years either had largely disappeared or had been internalized to be identified regulation in the 3rd year. Hayashi (2005) administered a questionnaire using a retrospective design to university students. The results indicated that the average motivational strength of his participants declined in the 1st year, slightly increased in the 2nd year, and rose in the 3rd year of high school, which parallels Sawyer (2006) and Miura's (2010) findings. In addition, his SDT-based analysis of the written reasons for motivational highs and lows indicated that the students who ended up with strong motivation had displayed high introjected/identified regulation¹ (e.g., pressure from teachers mentioned as a reason for a motivational high), which could be considered to be an internalized form of external regulation, in their high school years. Both Hiromori and Hayashi's findings suggested that Japanese high school English learners can internalize external regulation during the high school years.

Research Questions

Past research on the motivational change of Japanese English learners has suggested a general falling-and-then-rising trend and possible internalization of external regulation during the high school years. However, to intervene precisely and effectively, the following questions should be answered: (a) Which particular constructs in the theoretical models fall and rise? (b) Does the growth of an internalized form of external regulation and of any other construct over the high school years predict achievement? Answers to these questions will help teachers decide which constructs to target. In this study, to address (a), motivation was viewed not as a single construct but as a profile made up of multiple constructs measured using the variables in the AMTB (Gardner, 1985) and the SDT scale (Noels et al., 2000). To address (b), this study investigated, for each construct, whether the learners' individual differences at the beginning of high school and the changes in those differences over the high school years predicted achievement, operationalized by their test scores. The research questions are as follows:

1. Which constructs of Japanese high school English learners, measured using the variables in the AMTB and the SDT scale, fall and rise during the 3 high school years?
2. Do the learners' individual differences on any construct at the beginning of high school predict achievement measured by their test scores at the end of high school?
3. Do the changes in the learners' individual differences on any construct over the high school years predict this achievement?

Method

Participants

The participants were 190 1st-year high school students aged 15-16 at the beginning of this study, from a private boys' school in eastern Japan. Because of absenteeism and natural attrition, 185, 173, and 172 of them answered the questionnaire in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd years of high school, respectively. They all had six to seven 50-minute English classes focused on reading, writing and grammar, and oral communication each week. The teaching methods were mostly traditional: Emphasis was placed on translation, grammatical analysis, and memorization. The teaching materials included books of words and phrases for university entrance examinations and questions from past university entrance examinations, from the 1st year on. Because the participants had all passed the school's competitive entrance examination and intended to proceed to university, their English proficiency (early intermediate) and their academic ability in general were above the national average.

Instrumentation

The Japanese High School Motivation Battery (JHMB), which included a 35-item AMTB section and an 18-item SDT section, was developed.

The AMTB section was based on Gardner's (1985) AMTB. The items were drawn from his AMTB and, if necessary, reworded in accordance with the Japanese context, while the characteristic quality of the variables was maintained. This section was designed to measure eight variables: integrative orientation (IO; two items; e.g., "Studying English is important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people"), interest in foreign languages (IFL; five items; e.g., "I wish I could speak another language perfectly"), attitudes toward native English speakers (ANES; five items; e.g., "Native English speakers are trustworthy and dependable"), motivational intensity (MI; five items; e.g., "When it comes to English homework, I work very carefully, making sure I understand everything"), desire to learn English (DLE; five items; e.g., "If I knew enough English, I would read English magazines and newspapers as often as I could"), attitudes toward learning English (ALE; six items; e.g., "English is an important part of the school program"), instrumental orientation (INST; three items; e.g., "Studying English is important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job"), and language class anxiety (ANX; four items; e.g., "I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class"). MI mostly measures self-reported behaviors relevant to high school English classes. DLE represents an idealized feeling about learning English rather than a desire, for example, to learn it to pass university entrance examinations. ALE includes attitudes toward learning English at school. The MI and the DLE items

were three-choice items as in Gardner's AMTB. A 5-point Likert scale (1 = *disagree*, 2 = *slightly disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4 = *slightly agree*, and 5 = *agree*) was used for the other items, whereas a 7-point Likert scale was used in his AMTB, to reduce the cognitive burden on the participants.

The SDT section was based on the scales used by Noels et al. (2000) and Vandergrift (2005). The items were either adapted from their scales or added anew, whereas the characteristic quality of the variables was preserved. This section was designed to measure four variables: amotivation (AMOT; three items; e.g., "I don't know why I study English"), external regulation (ER; three items; e.g., "[I study English] In order to succeed in university entrance examinations"), introjected/identified regulation (IIR; six items; e.g., "[I study English] Because I think it is important for my personal development"), and intrinsic motivation (IM; six items; e.g., "[I study English] For the pleasure I get in finding out new things"). As in Hayashi (2005), introjected and identified regulations were not distinguished—because students who study English to pursue a personally important goal (identified regulation) may also study it to avoid guilt or anxiety or to uplift their ego (introjected regulation) with their goal as a backdrop—and IIR was viewed as an internalized form of ER. The same 5-point Likert scale as used in the AMTB section was used.

A Japanese version of the JHMB was administered to the participants with the school principal's permission approximately one month after the beginning of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd years of high school (Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3, respectively) during a homeroom hour.

Achievement

Achievement was measured by the participants' scores on the final high school English achievement test given 5 months before their graduation. The test reflected conventional university entrance examinations in Japan: It included reading comprehension, sentence translation, and grammar/vocabulary questions but did not include listening or speaking components. As the participants entered this private school mainly to prepare for university entrance examinations, their scores on this test were considered to be appropriate measures of their achievement. The 90-minute test consisted of multiple-choice questions (70%) and short questions (30%).

Data Analysis

First, the constructs that the 12 JHMB variables were expected to measure were validated with the Rasch rating scale model (Rasch, 1960), using WINSTEPS 3.68.2 (Linacre & Wright, 2009). A Rasch analysis of item fit and a Rasch PCA of item residuals was performed on each construct. The validation was carried out by ensuring acceptable item fit to the Rasch model and ensuring that each construct was acceptably unidimensional. The criteria were set as follows: (a) Item separation is sufficiently high (above 2.00), (b) no items misfit the Rasch model (infit and outfit mean square statistics are between .50 and 1.50; Linacre, 2009), (c) the variance explained by the Rasch measures is sufficiently high (above 50%), and (d) the unexplained variance explained by first residual contrast is sufficiently low (below 3.0 eigenvalue units; Linacre, 2009). The results indicated that one motivational intensity (MI) item and two introjected/identified regulation (IIR) items did not measure the

constructs these items were expected to measure. These items were deleted from further analysis. As integrative orientation (IO), interest in foreign languages (IFL), and attitudes toward native English speakers (ANES) are hypothesized to measure integrativeness in Gardner's (2010) model (Figure 1), the IO, IFL, and ANES items were analyzed together. The results showed that the IO and IFL items measured one construct (see Tables A1-A3 in Appendix), whereas the ANES items measured another. The participants might have perceived the IO and IFL items as more abstract, whereas they might have found the ANES items easier to relate to because they had been taught by native English-speaking teachers. Hence, IO and IFL were clustered together. External regulation (ER) and instrumental orientation (INST) belong to different theoretical models. However, instrumental reasons originate from outside the self and, therefore, are naturally considered to be external regulations. Indeed, the ER and the INST items are similar: Both include reference to university entrance examinations and good jobs in the future. Thus, the ER and INST items were analyzed together. The results indicated that one item, namely INST1, did not measure the same construct as the other items (see Tables A4-A6 in Appendix). This item was deleted from further analysis, and ER and INST were clustered together. As a result, 10 fundamentally unidimensional constructs were identified across the three waves of data: Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages (IO + IFL), Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers (ANES), Motivational Intensity (MI), Desire to Learn English (DLE), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), Language Class Anxiety (ANX), Amotivation (AMOT), External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation (ER + INST), Introjected/Identified Regulation (IIR), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM).

Second, the raw scores from the JHMB were converted into interval Rasch person measures:² A person measure was given to each participant for each construct at each measurement time. The descriptive statistics at each time point are shown in Tables 1-3. The Pearson correlation coefficients between the 10 constructs at each measurement are shown in Tables 4-6.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics at Time 1

	Mean	SD	95% CI	Skew ^a	Kurt ^b
IO + IFL	55.75	6.61	[54.80, 56.71]	.26	1.19
ANES	48.45	8.21	[47.26, 49.64]	-.14	.90
MI	48.85	6.66	[47.88, 49.81]	.16	.22
DLE	54.15	12.15	[52.39, 55.91]	-.30	.20
ALE	51.69	5.88	[50.84, 52.54]	.44	2.72
ANX	49.94	5.52	[49.14, 50.74]	.61	2.03
AMOT	43.09	8.41	[41.87, 44.31]	-.87	2.50
ER + INST	58.19	7.74	[57.07, 59.32]	.31	-.76
IIR	54.65	7.68	[53.53, 55.76]	.27	.81
IM	49.69	7.65	[48.58, 50.80]	.46	1.49

Note. SD = standard deviation; CI = confidence interval; IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation.

^aSEskew = .18, ^bSEkurt = .36.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics at Time 2

	Mean	SD	95% CI	Skew ^a	Kurt ^b
IO + IFL	55.88	7.23	[54.79, 56.96]	.23	.42
ANES	48.07	8.38	[46.81, 49.33]	-.24	.20
MI	49.33	8.53	[48.05, 50.61]	.13	-.12
DLE	52.21	11.73	[50.45, 53.97]	-.20	-.08
ALE	51.04	5.91	[50.16, 51.93]	.07	1.38
ANX	50.02	5.87	[49.14, 50.90]	.29	2.14
AMOT	42.47	8.30	[41.22, 43.71]	.14	-.80
ER + INST	57.72	8.11	[56.51, 58.94]	.40	-.99
IIR	53.69	7.87	[52.51, 54.87]	-.13	.99
IM	49.07	8.40	[47.81, 50.33]	-.04	1.10

Note. SD = standard deviation; CI = confidence interval; IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation.

^a $SE_{skew} = .19$, ^b $SE_{kurt} = .37$.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics at Time 3

	Mean	SD	95% CI	Skew ^a	Kurt ^b
IO + IFL	55.99	8.05	[54.78, 57.20]	.32	-.01
ANES	48.73	8.55	[47.44, 50.02]	-.41	.70
MI	51.63	7.70	[50.47, 52.79]	-.21	.08
DLE	51.32	11.55	[49.59, 53.06]	-.27	-.25
ALE	52.66	6.31	[51.71, 53.61]	.04	2.69
ANX	50.27	5.86	[49.39, 51.16]	.15	1.84
AMOT	42.52	8.32	[41.27, 43.78]	.24	-.39
ER + INST	58.13	8.67	[56.83, 59.44]	.16	-.85
IIR	54.09	8.08	[52.88, 55.31]	-.11	.84
IM	49.80	7.71	[48.64, 50.96]	.15	1.69

Note. SD = standard deviation; CI = confidence interval; IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation.

^a $SE_{skew} = .19$, ^b $SE_{kurt} = .37$.

Table 4
Intercorrelations of the Rasch Person Measures for the 10 Constructs at Time 1

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. IO + IFL										
2. ANES	.491 ^{**}									
3. MI	.450 ^{**}	.364 ^{**}								
4. DLE	.749 ^{**}	.468 ^{**}	.463 ^{**}							
5. ALE	.657 ^{**}	.371 ^{**}	.396 ^{**}	.617 ^{**}						
6. ANX	-.033	.024	-.074	-.007	-.030					
7. AMOT	-.434 ^{**}	-.152 [*]	-.268 ^{**}	-.413 ^{**}	-.527 ^{**}	.109				
8. ER + INST	.323 ^{**}	.135	.258 ^{**}	.243 ^{**}	.280 ^{**}	.168 [*]	-.214 ^{**}			
9. IIR	.785 ^{**}	.443 ^{**}	.450 ^{**}	.682 ^{**}	.661 ^{**}	-.065	-.470 ^{**}	.362 ^{**}		
10. IM	.734 ^{**}	.639 ^{**}	.467 ^{**}	.606 ^{**}	.632 ^{**}	.010	-.376 ^{**}	.253 ^{**}	.692 ^{**}	

Note. IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation.

^{**} $p < .01$. ^{*} $p < .05$.

Table 5
Intercorrelations of the Rasch Person Measures for the 10 Constructs at Time 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. IO + IFL										
2. ANES	.617**									
3. MI	.422**	.307**								
4. DLE	.652**	.523**	.534**							
5. ALE	.607**	.464**	.536**	.586**						
6. ANX	-.131	-.040	-.129	-.188*	-.103					
7. AMOT	-.513**	-.276**	-.401**	-.534**	-.685**	.140				
8. ER + INST	.328**	.093	.038	.089	.306**	.098	-.288**			
9. IIR	.755**	.520**	.375**	.668**	.692**	-.087	-.562**	.407**		
10. IM	.692**	.668**	.403**	.594**	.633**	-.073	-.415**	.208**	.709**	

Note. IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation.

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 6
Intercorrelations of the Rasch Person Measures for the 10 Constructs at Time 3

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. IO + IFL										
2. ANES	.462**									
3. MI	.364**	.128								
4. DLE	.593**	.248**	.433**							
5. ALE	.628**	.241**	.443**	.576**						
6. ANX	-.111	.233**	-.183*	-.174*	-.115					
7. AMOT	-.380**	.138	-.314**	-.308**	-.516**	.171*				
8. ER + INST	.431**	.117	.124	.108	.297**	.131	-.335**			
9. IIR	.772**	.387**	.358**	.486**	.657**	-.077	-.439**	.455**		
10. IM	.679**	.575**	.324**	.470**	.576**	-.028	-.104	.255**	.669**	

Note. IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation.

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Finally, to evaluate the effects of motivational change on achievement, the participants' questionnaire data and their test scores were analyzed with latent growth curve (LGC) modeling involving sequelae of change, using EQS version 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2007). In the model, the participants' individual differences at the beginning of high school and the changes in those differences over the high school years were represented by the intercepts (i.e., their person measures at Time 1) and the slopes (i.e., the rises or declines of their person measures between Times 1 and 3), respectively. The LGC modeling was used in this study because it allows the individual's motivational trajectory, represented by the intercept and slope, to be treated as a predictor.

Figure 2 shows the linear-growth LGC model used in this study for each construct. Note that observed variables V1, V2, and V3 (i.e., the participants' person measures for the construct at Times 1, 2, and 3, respectively) are represented by two latent variables, the intercept and the slope, which are estimated. The intercept is a constant for any given individual for any given construct across time; hence, its factor loadings were fixed at 1 for each measurement time. The slope is the rate of change; assuming that the slope is linear, the factor loadings for the slope were set at 0, 1, and 2 for Times 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The achievement (i.e., the participants' *T* scores³ on the achievement test) was hypothesized to be predicted by the intercept and the slope: The thick arrows from the intercept and the slope to the achievement represent this hypothesis. The asterisks indicate that the parameters, which indicate the strength of the effect, are estimated.⁴

The factor loadings for the slope were set linearly at 0: 1: 2 originally. However, the growth rate that fits the data best might not always be linear. Thus, in addition to the linear-growth model, two non-linear models were made for each construct and tested for comparison. In the first model, the growth rate was set so that it reflected the construct's mean person measures at Times 1-3 (Tables 1-3).⁵ In the second model, the growth rate was set so that the *t* value for the slope → achievement parameter was largest.⁶ This approach was adopted because a *t* value greater than |1.96| for the parameter indicates that the growth/decline of the construct over the high school years predicts achievement, which will lead to pedagogical implications. As a result, three models (i.e., one linear and two non-linear models) were obtained for each construct, and the best-fitting model was selected for each construct. Goodness of fit was evaluated using the chi-square (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The best-fitting models⁷ are shown in Table 7.

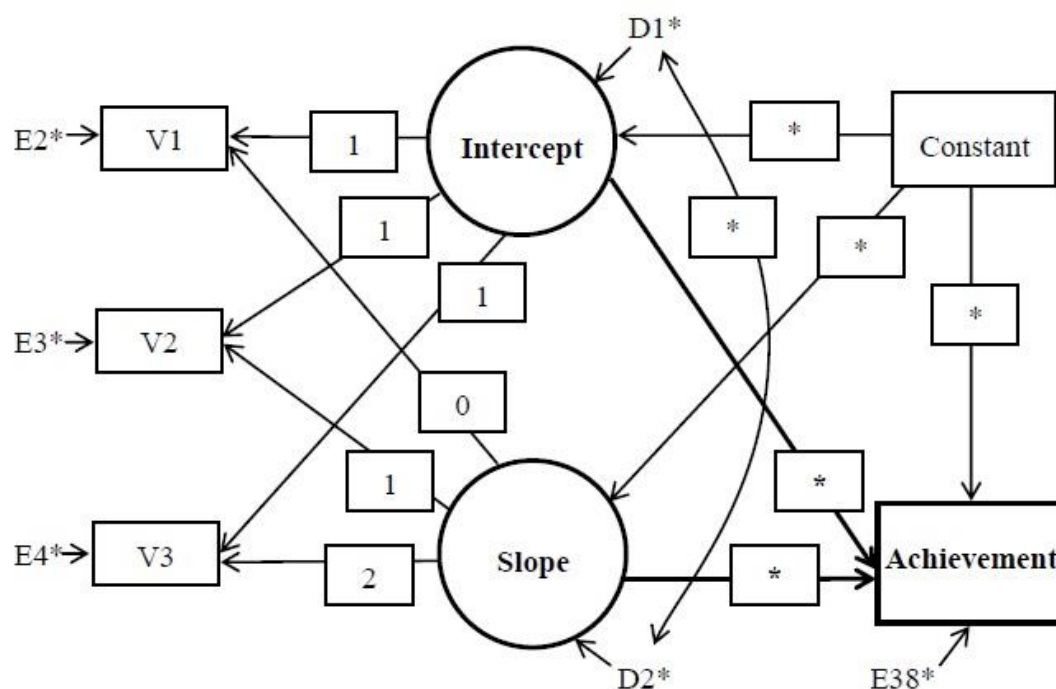


Figure 2. Representation of the linear-growth LGC model used in this study. V's = observed variables; D's = disturbances; E's = errors.

Results

Changes in Average Motivational Profile

Tables 1-3 show the mean person measures for the 10 constructs at each measurement time. A one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted for each construct to assess whether there were significant differences in the means over time, using PASW Statistics 18.0. The results indicated a significant difference for Motivational Intensity (MI), Wilks' $\Lambda = .88$, $F(2, 159) = 10.99$, $p < .05$; Desire to Learn English (DLE), Wilks' $\Lambda = .87$, $F(2, 159) = 11.44$, $p < .05$; and Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), Wilks' $\Lambda = .91$, $F(2, 159) = 8.38$, $p < .05$. Following the significant results, paired-samples t -tests were conducted for the Time 1-Time 2, Time 1-Time 3, and Time 2-Time 3 pairs for each of these constructs to assess which means differed significantly from each other. The alpha level was set at .017 using the Bonferroni method ($.05 / 3 = .017$) to control for Type I error. Significant difference was found for MI between Times 1 and 3, $t(166) = -4.56$, $p < .017$, and between Times 2 and 3, $t(165) = -3.40$, $p < .017$; DLE between Times 1 and 2, $t(167) = 3.24$, $p < .017$, and between Times 1 and 3, $t(166) = 4.97$, $p < .017$; and ALE between Times 2 and 3, $t(165) = -4.09$, $p < .017$. Figure 3 represents the changes in these constructs. Note that the decline of DLE was the only significant change between Times 1 and 2, and the increases of MI and ALE were the only significant changes between Times 2 and 3.

Table 7

Predicting Achievement by the Best-Fitting Models

Construct	Intercept → Achievement		Slope → Achievement		Growth rate		
	Parameter	<i>t</i>	Parameter	<i>t</i>	T1: T2: T3		
IO + IFL	.32	3.88*	.19	1.76	0: 1: 2.00		
ANES	.31	2.38*	.31	1.62	0: 1: 1.53		
MI	.24	2.76*	.41	2.85*	0: 1: 3.45		
DLE	.37	3.65*	-.48	-1.40	0: -1: -1.46		
ALE	.38	4.66*	.26	2.47*	0: 1: 2.00		
ANX	-.21	-1.95	-.01	-.05	0: 1: 4.13		
AMOT	-.49	-3.57*	-.39	-2.52*	0: 1: 1.17		
ER + INST	-.01	-.08	.25	.17	0: -1: -.13		
IIR	.43	4.62*	.18	1.70	0: 1: 1.58		
IM	.42	4.22*	.38	3.04*	0: 1: 1.87		

*(Table 7 continues)**(Table 7 continued)*

Construct	Fit index						
	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	CFI	RMSEA	90% CI of RMSEA	
						LB	UB
IO + IFL	2	1.51	.47	1.00	.05	.00	.23
ANES	2	.77	.68	1.00	.00	.00	.03
MI	2	6.33	.04	.97	.18	.07	.33
DLE	2	.23	.89	1.00	.00	.00	.15
ALE	1	.06	.80	1.00	.00	.00	.13
ANX	2	.34	.84	1.00	.00	.00	.14
AMOT	2	1.06	.59	1.00	.02	.00	.21
ER + INST	1	.50	.48	1.00	.00	.00	.19
IIR	2	2.78	.25	1.00	.00	.00	.17
IM	2	2.58	.28	1.00	.00	.00	.14

Note. The *t* values greater than |1.96| indicate a parameter estimate that is significantly different from zero. Parameters estimated for regressions (→) are presented in standardized form. A free parameter was added to the ALE and the ER + INST models based on the Lagrange Multiplier test. IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CI = confidence interval.

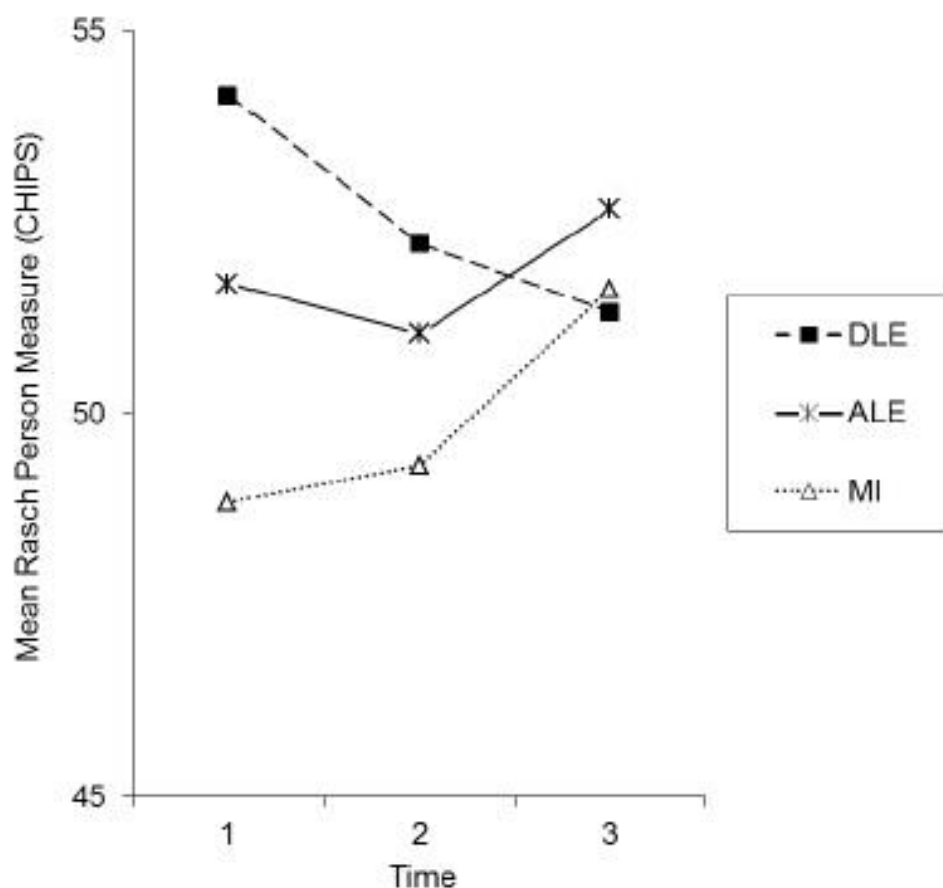


Figure 3. Changes in the mean Rasch person measures for DLE, ALE, and MI. DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; MI = Motivational Intensity.

Predicting Achievement by Initial Individual Differences

Table 7 shows that the intercept → achievement parameter estimates were significant for all constructs except Language Class Anxiety (ANX) and External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation (ER + INST). The results indicate that lower person measures for Amotivation (AMOT) and higher person measures for the remaining seven constructs at the beginning of high school predicted higher achievement (The negative parameter value for AMOT indicates that the lower the initial person measure, the higher the achievement).

Predicting Achievement by Changes in Individual Differences Over Time

Table 7 shows that the slope → achievement parameter estimates were significant for Motivational Intensity (MI), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), Amotivation (AMOT), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM). The results indicate that the growth of MI, ALE, and IM and the decline of AMOT over the high school years predicted higher achievement (The negative parameter value for AMOT indicates that its decline predicted higher achievement).

Discussion

Changes in Average Motivational Profile

Tables 1-3 as a whole do not show the falling-and-then-rising trend of Japanese high school English learners' motivation suggested by the literature (Hayashi, 2005; Miura, 2010; Sawyer, 2006). However, considering that motivation was conceptualized as a single construct in the past studies but as a profile composed of 10 constructs in this study, the form of motivation applied in the past studies might correspond to a few of the constructs in this study. In this study, the decline of Desire to Learn English (DLE) was the only significant change between Times 1 and 2, and the increases of Motivational Intensity (MI) and Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE) were the only significant changes between Times 2 and 3 (Figure 3). Note that these constructs are the components of motivation in Gardner's (2010) model (Figure 1). Thus, using his conceptualization of motivation, the results of this study indicate that motivation declined between Times 1 and 2 and rose between Times 2 and 3, which is comparable with the trend suggested by the literature. The results of this study also indicate which components of motivation changed.

It may be that the class's increasing focus on the preparation for university entrance examinations⁸ undermined some students' Desire to Learn English (DLE), which represents students' feelings about learning English unrelated to university entrance examinations, in the early years of high school. DLE continued to decline (Figure 3) probably because as the students got deeper and deeper into the preparation for university entrance examinations, the issues described by the DLE items, including talking to English-speaking neighbors and seeing an English play, became less and less relevant. On the other hand, most students, hoping to enter a prestigious university, began to study English seriously in the later years of high school. This may have been reflected in the rise of Motivational Intensity (MI) and Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), which represent students' behaviors and attitudes, respectively, relevant to learning English at school.

Predicting Achievement

Table 7 shows that achievement was predicted by the slopes (i.e., the rises or declines of the participants' person measures between Times 1 and 3) for Motivational Intensity (MI), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), Amotivation (AMOT), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM) (Group 1). On the other hand, achievement was predicted not by the slopes but by the intercepts (i.e., the participants' person measures at Time 1) for Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages (IO + IFL), Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers (ANES), Desire to Learn English (DLE), and Introjected/Identified Regulation (IIR) (Group 2). These results can be interpreted as follows: The Group 2 constructs take more time to affect achievement than the Group 1 constructs. How does this interpretation fit in with the theoretical models?

Regarding Group 1, according to Gardner's (2010) model (Figure 1), Motivational Intensity (MI) and Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE) are components of motivation, which can affect achievement directly. Intrinsic Motivation (IM) and Amotivation (AMOT) are not included in his model. However, IM fits into

motivation because it concerns positive affect toward learning English. AMOT is the antithesis of motivation; therefore, it also fits into motivation although in the opposite way from its other components. As the constructs in Group 1 are all components of motivation and affect achievement directly, Group 1 taking less time to affect achievement is in agreement with Gardner's model.

Regarding Group 2, according to Gardner's (2010) model, Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages (IO + IFL) and Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers (ANES) are components of integrativeness, which can affect achievement indirectly via motivation. Introjected/Identified Regulation (IIR) is not included in his model. However, as IIR can be considered to be a somewhat-internalized form of External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation (ER + INST), which belongs to instrumentality in his model, IIR fits between instrumentality and motivation⁹ and affects achievement indirectly via motivation. As they all exert indirect effects via motivation, IO + IFL, ANES, and IIR taking more time to affect achievement is compatible with Gardner's model. As Desire to Learn English (DLE) is a component of motivation in Gardner's model, it does not seem to fit into Group 2. Because achievement was measured using a test similar to university entrance examinations, which DLE does not concern, DLE might not have the same effect in this study as hypothesized in Gardner's model.

Conclusion

This study investigated Japanese high school English learners' motivational changes and their effects on achievement. Major findings and implications are as follows.

Concerning the changes in the average motivational profile, Desire to Learn English (DLE) declined in the early years of high school, whereas Motivational Intensity (MI) and Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE) increased in the later years of high school. These changes may explain the falling-and-then-rising trend found in the literature (Hayashi, 2005; Miura, 2010; Sawyer, 2006). DLE (i.e., idealized feelings about learning English) declined possibly because the students began to concentrate on the preparation for university entrance examinations. However, as high school students' ultimate goal of learning English should be beyond passing university entrance examinations (e.g., Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2011), their DLE ought to be raised. To develop students' DLE, teachers should be encouraged not to focus on university entrance examinations strongly in the early years of high school but to expose them frequently to real-life English in the media, on the Internet, and by English-speaking people schools may invite.

Concerning the effects of motivational change, higher achievement was predicted by the growth of Motivational Intensity (MI), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM) and the decline of Amotivation (AMOT) over the high school years. High school teachers might want to target these constructs. To develop students' IM (i.e., inherent motivation to learn English) and prevent their AMOT (i.e., lack of motivation to learn English), teachers ought to engage them in more activities in which they acquire knowledge, accomplish challenging work, and get stimulated through their use of English, such as projects and services to foreigners. On the other hand, as the results suggested, MI and ALE (i.e., behaviors and attitudes, respectively,

pertinent to learning English at school) can be expected to increase in the later years of high school as university entrance examinations draw near.

In addition, concerning the theoretical models, the results suggested that all constructs identifiable with Gardner's (2010) motivation but Desire to Learn English (DLE) take less time to influence achievement than other constructs.

The limitations of this study include what follows. First, the participants were all private school students intending to proceed to university; thus, they do not represent the entire high school student population in Japan. In addition, the sample size was too small to conduct factor analysis. Second, achievement was measured using a test similar to conventional university entrance examinations in Japan. Had it been measured differently, the results on its prediction might not have been the same. Therefore, due caution is necessary before generalizing the results of this study.

Notes

¹Hayashi (2005) did not distinguish the two regulations.

²The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0).

³ $T = 10z + 50$. The T score is known as *hensachi* in Japan.

⁴The parameters were estimated using the maximum likelihood procedure.

⁵For example, for IO + IFL, the growth rate was set at 0: 1: 1.85 because the difference between the means at Time 1 and Time 3 was 1.85 times as large as the difference between the means at Time 1 and Time 2: $(55.99 - 55.75) / (55.88 - 55.75) \div 1.85$.

⁶The first two loadings of the original 0: 1: 2 loadings were retained and the third loading was changed until the t value for the slope \rightarrow achievement parameter was at its largest value. For instance, the maximum t value for the slope \rightarrow achievement parameter for IO + IFL occurred when the third loading was 1.28; hence, the growth rate for IO + IFL was set at 0: 1: 1.28.

⁷The best-fitting models for IO + IFL and ALE were linear-growth models; those for DLE, ANX, and ER + INST were mean-based models; and those for ANES, MI, AMOT, IIR, and IM were t value-based models.

⁸For example, the oral communication class taught by a native English-speaking teacher was not given in the last 2 years of high school.

⁹IIR should not be identified with motivation because it is still extrinsic and concerns separable outcome.

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Appendix

Rasch Tables

Table A1

Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the IO and IFL Items at Time 1

Item	Residual loading	Measure	SE	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
07 IFL5	.65	51.8	.4	.72	-2.9	.70	-2.8
05 IFL3	.46	50.1	.4	1.27	2.2	1.17	1.3
02 IO2	.16	53.4	.4	.95	-.4	1.11	1.0
06 IFL4	.10	53.5	.4	1.12	1.1	1.09	.8
03 IFL1	-.59	47.1	.5	1.26	1.9	1.20	1.3
04 IFL2	-.58	44.5	.6	1.33	2.2	1.13	.7
01 IO1	-.40	49.6	.4	.74	-2.5	.73	-2.3

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). IO = Integrative Orientation; IFL = Interest in Foreign Languages.

Table A2

Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the IO and IFL Items at Time 2

Item	Residual loading	Measure	SE	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
02 IO2	.64	52.6	.4	1.15	1.4	1.19	1.5
01 IO1	.52	50.0	.4	.70	-2.8	.73	-2.2
07 IFL5	.29	52.3	.4	.82	-1.7	.84	-1.3
04 IFL2	-.62	44.4	.6	1.10	.7	.81	-.9
03 IFL1	-.46	47.4	.5	1.11	.9	1.21	1.3
06 IFL4	-.26	53.8	.4	1.08	.8	1.16	1.3
05 IFL3	-.22	49.4	.4	1.24	1.9	1.17	1.2

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). IO = Integrative Orientation; IFL = Interest in Foreign Languages.

Table A3

Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the IO and IFL Items at Time 3

Item	Residual loading	Measure	SE	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
04 IFL2	.82	46.0	.5	1.03	.3	1.17	1.0
03 IFL1	.74	48.2	.5	1.09	.7	1.11	.8
05 IFL3	.00	48.6	.5	.94	-.4	.86	-1.0
07 IFL5	-.56	52.1	.4	.92	-.7	.92	-.7
02 IO2	-.33	52.8	.4	.95	-.4	1.00	.0
06 IFL4	-.32	52.6	.4	1.24	2.0	1.23	1.8
01 IO1	-.10	49.6	.5	.91	-.7	.92	-.5

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). IO = Integrative Orientation; IFL = Interest in Foreign Languages.

Table A4

Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the ER and INST Items at Time 1

Item	Residual loading	Measure	SE	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
13 INST1	.74	54.6	.4	1.41	3.6	1.64	5.1
14 INST2	.56	50.8	.4	.94	-.5	.87	-1.1
38 ER1	-.68	46.6	.5	.93	-.6	.81	-1.3
40 ER3	-.49	51.7	.4	.90	-.9	.91	-.8
15 INST3	-.41	46.2	.5	1.10	.8	.94	-.4
39 ER2	-.21	50.0	.4	.85	-1.3	.80	-1.7

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). ER = External Regulation; INST = Instrumental Orientation.

Table A5

Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the ER and INST Items at Time 2

Item	Residual loading	Measure	SE	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
13 INST1	.81	53.5	.4	1.50	4.1	1.69	5.1
14 INST2	.58	49.9	.4	1.11	1.0	1.14	1.1
38 ER1	-.69	47.0	.5	.90	-.7	.74	-1.8
15 INST3	-.59	47.1	.5	1.24	1.7	1.07	.5
39 ER2	-.48	50.9	.4	.74	-2.5	.73	-2.3
40 ER3	-.32	51.7	.4	.81	-1.8	.80	-1.8

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). ER = External Regulation; INST = Instrumental Orientation.

Table A6

Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the ER and INST Items at Time 3

Item	Residual loading	Measure	SE	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
38 ER1	.80	46.2	.5	1.40	2.6	1.17	1.1
15 INST3	.74	46.1	.5	1.08	.6	.82	-1.1
39 ER2	.10	51.3	.4	.65	-3.3	.65	-3.2
13 INST1	-.70	53.2	.4	1.60	4.6	1.86	5.7
14 INST2	-.42	50.9	.4	.70	-2.8	.69	-2.8
40 ER3	-.02	52.2	.4	.87	-1.1	.89	-.9

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). ER = External Regulation; INST = Instrumental Orientation.

Teachers' Attitude toward Journal Writing

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Abstract

Teachers have many tasks that they should do. So, they must be professional in teaching. One of the ways to be professional is to know how to think critically toward their teaching. They should know how to reflect their teaching to help them to know about their strength and weakness in teaching. Based on the observation, some teachers think that journal writing helps them to reflect about their teaching in the classroom. But, the others feel that it is too difficult to conduct. This study tried to explain the complete result of his observation toward the real situation of teachers in their teaching and learning process as well as their attitude toward journal writing and gave some solutions for increasing their ability to think critically toward journal writing. The research design was mixed method where the study collected data by using questionnaire and open-ended questions. The data were about the teachers' attitude toward journal writing, what the teachers can get from journal writing and about whether journal writing influences teachers' professional development or not. The respondents were English teachers in Indonesia, aged 22-38 years old. They were selected purposely by assumption that they were rich of information (Creswell, 2009) about journal writing that they have already conducted. Finally, this study found that journal writing as guideline can be one of ways that teachers do to improve their professionalism. However, it is not easy to be professional because it needs sacrifice.

Keywords: Professional teacher, professionalism, journal writing, motivation, strength, weaknesses, reflection

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Introduction

The global era forces us to be professional in our occupation, including teachers. By developing teachers' professionalism, it is expected that teachers can face the global challenges. However, not all teachers can develop their professionalism due to their teaching place, their awareness as teachers and lack of informations. Being professional means that they should know how to deal with some kind of situations in their teaching process such as how to deal with their students, stakeholders even with the curriculum.

The curriculum of English in Indonesia has continuously changed from time to time. The curriculum or program developers often fail to consider the teachers, students, and the culture in which the new curriculum or practices must be embedded. This change influences the teachers. Without teachers' professional development, it will give a burden to English teachers. Teacher should start over based on the new curriculum. Teachers cannot run the learning process well because they should adjust with the new curriculum. Teachers need to know whether they have adjusted with the new curriculum or not. Teachers' reflection on their teaching and learning is very important to reach it. It will help them to know about their teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Teacher education programs must turn away from focusing on producing proficient practitioners because such practical skills related to instruction and discipline (e.g. Creating and delivering lesson plans, classroom management, and implementation of an assortment of content-specific methods) can be learned over time during their everyday school work with their students. It means that teachers should be more active in the process of teaching including pre-teaching, teaching and post teaching. Teachers can learn from their teaching experience to enrich their teaching skill. While they prepare the better education to the students, they need to know how to develop their skill by mastering their subjects and how to understand their students' personality. To reach these things, teachers need to develop their professionalism. This process reflects upon their competencies, keep them updating information, and develop them further. Teachers have their own roles in the classroom to make the learning process success such as controller, prompter, participant, resource, and tutor (Harmer, 2007b). Moreover, a teacher should be well-prepared, needs to keep the students' records and should be reliable in managing the time allocation for the activities in the classroom (Harmer, 2007a). The usefulness of teacher education program becomes a concern among teacher educators. This issue relates to get teachers prepared for educating the students. The lack qualities of teachers become boomerang for education itself. Teachers should achieve abilities, knowledge, competencies and skills for the effective and efficient learning and teaching process in the classroom. They must know how far their achievement to make them develop their professionalism as teachers.

Continuous professional development will be effective if it is collaborative, uses active learning and delivers to groups of teachers; including periods of practice, coach, follow-up, promote reflective practice, encourage experimentation, and respond to teachers' needs. It means that reflective is one of the ways that teachers need to do if they want to develop their professional. It is related to the statements that reflection has a core value of professionals and plays an important role in professional

training (Brock, 2015). Teachers need to prepare themselves to develop their professionalism. Professional development is ongoing, experiential, collaborative, and connected to and derived from working with students and understanding their culture (Edutopia, 2008). Teachers should be more patient in increasing their ability both in teaching and learning because they must be rich of experience. However, the concept of teacher development is unclear (Evans, 2002). It is still vague among educators because there are not clear parameters for teachers whether they develop or not.

Teachers should be familiar with reflective thinking to develop their professionalism. A variety of approaches is currently used to help teachers develop a critically reflective approach to their teaching, including action research, case studies, ethnography, and journal writing (Calderhead, 1989). A researcher further claimed that teachers' lack of reflective thinking leads to intellectual dependency on those persons who give them clear-cut and definite instructions as to just how to teach this or that (Dewey, 1910). It is supported by other researchers that teacher educators considered pre-service teachers' reflective journal writing in the system often limited to descriptive/ technical reflection, consistent with the literature that the reflection levels in pre-service teachers' writings were primarily descriptive or technical rather than critical/ transformative (Hatton & Smith, 1995).

The purpose of writing in a journal is to have a place to record our observations of what goes on in our own and other teachers' classrooms, write about our discussions, consider teaching ideas, and reflect on our teaching (Gebhard, 2009). Teachers reflect on what they have done in the classroom. Other researchers defined reflective teaching as a recognition, examination, and rumination over the implications of one's beliefs, experiences, attitudes, knowledge, and values as well as the opportunities and constraints provided by the social conditions in which the teacher works (Zeichner & Liston, 1987).

Reflecting on the previous elaboration, this study aimed to investigate the English teachers' attitude toward journal writing. The underlying reasons concerning the study are only a few numbers of English teachers who had applied journal writing in their teaching and learning process. Investigating teachers' attitude toward journal writing gave important information to know the teachers' feeling about journal writing. To achieve this purpose, this study attempted at addressing these questions:

1. What is the teachers' attitude toward journal writing?
2. Does keeping journal writing influence the teachers' professional development?

Scope of study

Relevant to its purpose, the study explored English teachers' attitude toward journal writing. This study also tried to find out whether journal writing can help teachers to develop their professionalism as teachers.

Significance of the study

This study is intended to provide significance for many areas. Basically, this study tried to explore English teachers' attitude toward journal writing. This study contributes to the teaching field by providing relevant statement and opinion to apply

journal writing to all teachers in Indonesia. Finally, result of this study can be used as a useful guidance for both teachers and stakeholders to improve teachers' professional. It is very wise to think that aspect of teachers' attitude toward journal writing can be one of the reasons for stakeholders to give their teachers some training, including journal writing.

Definition of terms

1. Teachers' attitude : Respondents' attitude toward something. It is the impression of positive or negative feelings toward certain issue.
2. Journal writing : a set of notes which written by teachers. It contains the situation in the classroom (approach, technique, method, weakness, strength, evaluation, problem, and so on).

Research Methodology

The study was mixed method where the study collected data by using questionnaire and open-ended questions. The data were about the teachers' attitude toward journal writing, what the teachers can get from journal writing and about whether journal writing influences teachers' professional development or not. The respondents were English teachers in Indonesia, aged 22-38 years old. They were selected purposively by assumption that they were rich of information (Creswell, 2009) about journal writing that they have already conducted. The participants come from different age and teaching experience. The detailed of participants can be seen in the appendix C. This study used questionnaire (see appendix A) and open-ended questions (see appendix B) to collect the data needed as instruments. The questionnaires were design based on the benefits of journal writing (Richards, 1998). The questionnaire was consisted of 20 statements which used a four-Likert scale to indicate their responses of agreement toward journal writing, their attitude and the benefits of journal writing. The last is Open-ended questions were also given to the teachers to support their attitude toward journal writing and to know whether journal writing helps them to develop their teachers' professionalism. The instruments were made in google form and distributed via online from October 19th-21st, 2016. There were 13 responses on 19th October 2016, 6 responses on 20th October 2016 and 1 response on 21st October 2016. Each respondent took 10 until 15 minutes to respond this questionnaire and open-ended questions. The total of 20 respondents' responses was analyzed through percentage of each statement of the questionnaire and the result was analyzed descriptively. Then, the open-ended questions were analyzed descriptively. The goal of this study is to find whether journal writing is effective toward the teachers' professional development and to know the teachers' attitude toward journal writing.

Conclusion

Findings and Discussion

The questionnaires were distributed to the teachers to know their attitude toward journal writing. This is indicated by the students' percentage score got from the first questionnaire as shown in the following table:

No	Statements	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
1.	I am very delighted to write my reflection on journal writing.	15.0	70.0	10.0	5.0
2.	Journal writing gives me additional motivation to improve my skill.	30	65.0	0	5.0
3	Writing my reflection on journal does not limit my idea in teaching.	30.0	55.0	5.0	10.0

The teachers were mostly very delighted to write their reflection through journal writing. We can see that 70% of teachers agreed with it, 15% of teachers strongly agreed with it, while 10% of teachers disagreed and 5% of them strongly disagreed with it. It means that most of respondents wrote their reflection without any pressure and enjoyed it. However, we cannot deny some of them were not delighted. It can be caused of their less understanding about how to write their reflection well through journal writing (Taczak & Roberston, 2016). When they write down their reflection about their teaching they feel more motivated. It shows from the second statement where 65% of teachers agreed with it, 30% of teachers strongly agreed with it, and 5% of them strongly disagreed with it. It meant that almost teachers believe that journal writing can give them additional motivation to improve their skill in teaching. It is related to another study that one of the benefits of journal writing is to increase the motivation (Farrah, 2012). Besides, the journal writing does not limit their idea in teaching even trigger them to think critically. This support from the third questionnaire which the result is 30 percent of teachers strongly agreed, 55 percent of them agreed with it, while 5 percent of them disagreed with it and 10% strongly disagreed with it.

No	Statements	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
4.	Journal writing can help me to develop my professionalism as teacher.	30.0	65.0	0	5.0
5.	Journal writing can make me focus to develop my teaching skill.	35.0	55.0	0	10.0
6.	Writing my reflection on journal makes me focus on assessing my students.	35.0	50.0	5.0	10.0

Journal writing is a form of reflection which plays important role in professional development (Brock, 2015; Richards, 1998). It is related to the result of the questionnaire that there are 65% of teachers agreed with it, 30% of teachers strongly agreed with it, and 5% of them strongly disagreed with it. this meant that most of the teachers think that journal writing can help them to develop their professionalism as

teachers. Then, they can be more focus on how to develop their teaching skill because they do not only assess their students but also assess themselves which means that they can use their reflection to develop their performance in teaching. It was supported from the result of study that journal writing can improve skill and knowledge (Farrah, 2012; Nga, n.d.). Besides, teachers also can focus on how to measure their students' performance because they have the record of the activities occurred in the classroom. It showed that there are 35 percent of teachers strongly agreed that writing on journal can make teachers focus on assessing their students, 50 percent of them agreed with it, while 5 percent disagreed and 10% strongly disagreed with it. It indicated that almost teachers can focus on assessing their students through journal writing.

No	Statements	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
6.	Writing my reflection on journal improves my self-confident in teaching.	30	55.0	5.0	10.0
7	Writing my reflection on journal helps me decide what method that I will use for the next teaching.	45.0	45.0	0	10.0

One of the benefits of journal writing can improve self-confidence (Farrah, 2012). It also felt by almost the participants where we can see the questionnaire number 6 showed that 30 percent of participants strongly agreed that writing on journal can improve their self-confident in teaching, 55 percent of them agreed with it. Though, there were numbers of teachers did not think so. They cannot feel motivated when they conduct journal writing. Although to be successful teachers, they must be confidence to create a great teaching and explanation to the students without any hesitation. Furthermore, writing reflection can help teachers to decide what should they do on their next teaching, such as suitable material, teaching method and so on. It related to the result of study that 45 percent of teachers strongly agreed and 45 percent of them agreed that Writing my reflection on journal helps me decide what method that I will use for the next teaching. Even though, 10% of the teachers strongly disagreed with it.

No	Statements	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
8	Writing my reflection on journal is effective and efficient to improve my skill.	30.0	55.0	10.0	5.0
10	Writing my reflection on journal can make me realize my strength and weakness in teaching.	55.0	35.0	5.0	5.0

It implied that almost teachers thought that writing their reflection on journal is effective and efficient to improve their skill. We can see number 8 that 30 percent of teachers strongly agreed and 55 percent of them agreed with it. it was almost teachers thought about writing journal reflection as an effective and efficient way to get good skill. while 10 percent of them disagreed with it and 5% strongly disagreed. They

might disagree because of lack insight about writing reflection on journal. Finally, almost teachers thought that writing their reflection on journal can make them realize about their strengths and weakness in teaching. We can see statement number 8 that 55 percent of teachers strongly agreed and 35 percent of them agreed with it. it was amazing to know that only 5 percent of them disagreed and 5% strongly disagreed with it. it meant that almost teachers can be more effective in finding good methods and techniques to teach in the classroom because they can find out their feebleness.

Writing reflection is one of ways to develop the teachers' professionalism. Writing reflection can be on journal writing. Using journal writing to reflect the teachers' teaching experience in the classroom enables to make their professionalism develop because in journal writing, teachers can learn more about their teaching in the classroom, find out their weakness, strength, solve the class problem and many more. Knowing their weakness during teaching process can make them aware for the next teaching because teachers should know and change their mistake in teaching. Whatever the types of journal writing that teacher engage in, it provides useful benefits for teacher (Richards, 1998).

Those who thought that it can help the teachers' professional development because it provides them many benefits in their teaching such as they can focus and be motivated to improve their skill and self-confident, they can realize their strengths and weaknesses and they can easily assess the students through it. a study found that journal writing can grow self-confident and gain trust (Walker, 2006). Some thought that it cannot help the teachers' professional development because it gives them awareness and boredom when they want to teach so it can be burden for them when teaching and wasted more time. It related to the statement that keeping journal writing is wasting time and uninteresting (Burns, 2010). It is a challenge for teachers to do journal writing endlessly because they try to develop their professionalism in many ways. Hence, doing reflection to their teaching experience that written in a journal is one of their ways.

Implication

Finally, this study suggests that journal writing can be one of ways that teachers do to improve their professionalism. They can do better when they have guideline, and then journal writing can be their guideline for the better teaching in the next time. It is not easy to be professional because it needs sacrifice. We need to spend our time by thinking and doing something to develop our teaching professionalism. However, some teachers still cannot apply it because they are lack on insight about how to do reflection through journal writing. So, it is very delighted if the government provides any training for teachers about the implementation of journal writing.

Appendices

Appendix A

Age : _____ years
School : Junior High School/ Senior High School/ Vocational School
Length of Teaching : _____ years _____ months
Gender : M / F

Questionnaire

Please tell us a little bit about yourself by answering the following questions. There are no “right or wrong” answers. We just want to know more about you and your interaction with the students in classroom. Please fill out the questionnaire by checking (✓) the appropriate column.

No	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Dis-agree	Strongly disagree
1.	I am very delighted to write my reflection on journal writing.				
2.	Journal writing can help me to develop my professionalism as teacher.				
3.	Journal writing can make me focus to develop my teaching skill				
4.	Journal writing gives me additional motivation to improve my skill				
5.	Writing my reflection on journal makes me focus on assessing my students.				
6.	Writing my reflection on journal improves my self-confident in teaching.				
7.	Writing my reflection on journal helps me decide what method that I will use for the next teaching.				
8.	Writing my reflection on journal is effective and efficient to improve my skill.				
9.	Writing my reflection on journal does not limit my idea in teaching.				
10.	Writing my reflection on journal can make me realize my strength and weakness in teaching.				

(Created based on Richards J.C. and Ho, 1998)

Appendix B

Open Ended Question

These questions aim to get data about the teachers' professional development. This is not to assess you, as a teacher. So, answer these questions without any pressure from outsider. Thanks a lot for your participation.

Direction :

Answer the questions below!

1. What is the source of my ideas about language teaching?
2. Where am I in my professional development?
3. How am I developing as a language teacher?
4. What are my strengths as a language teacher?
5. What are my limitations at present?
6. Is there any contradiction in my teaching?
7. How can I improve my language teaching?
8. How am I helping my students?
9. What satisfaction does language teaching give me?

(Adopted from Richards J.C. and Ho, 1998)

Appendix C

Data of Respondents				
Timestamp	Age	School	Length of teaching	Gender
10/19/2016 0:04:54	24	Senoir high school	1 year	Female
10/19/2016 0:33:30	28	Junior high school	3 years	Female
10/19/2016 0:35:36	28	Junior high school	5 years	Female
10/19/2016 0:36:38	30	Senoir high school	8 years	Male
10/19/2016 5:03:03	22	Vocational high school	1 years	Female
10/19/2016 5:04:36	25	Senoir high school	0 year 6 months	Male
10/19/2016 5:12:32	24	Senoir high school	1 year	Female
10/19/2016 5:17:43	37	Vocational high school	6 years 5 months	Female
10/19/2016 5:19:15	27	Junior high school	4 years 8 months	Female
10/19/2016 5:36:38	37	Junior high school	15 years 11 months	Female
10/19/2016 5:39:37	24	Junior high school	1 years 6 months	Female
10/19/2016 6:00:12	28	Vocational high school	5 months	Male
10/19/2016 10:23:34	28	Junior high school	4 years 3 months	Male
10/20/2016 12:46:07	30	Junior high school	6 years	Female
10/20/2016 13:23:47	28	Elementary school	4 years	Female
10/20/2016 14:09:55	34	Senoir high school	6 years	Male
10/20/2016 19:24:44	26	Junior high school	2 years	Male
10/20/2016 20:08:34	38	Elementary school	16 years	Male
10/20/2016 21:48:51	29	Junior high school	5 years	Male
10/21/2016 1:42:48	35	Elementary school	7 years and 5 months	Female

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***Learning Growth and Attitude Of Students Exposed to
Prolonged Non-Contractual English
Intervention Program***

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The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

This study is quasi-experimental in nature which utilized an intervention program sponsored by the US Embassy through the English Access Microscholarship Program to help develop the language skills of the students. Fifty (50) students ranging from 13-20 years old who have economically disadvantaged backgrounds and show low performance in English skills (speaking, reading and writing) were encouraged to learn English and develop their linguistic skills through after-school instruction and enhancement activities.

This study aimed to measure the effect and its magnitude on the English language skills of students after being exposed to a prolonged non-contractual English intervention program. This study also assessed whether or not, the program has significantly changed their attitude and perception toward other cultures.

Using the pretest and posttest, the results show that there was a significant change in the linguistic performance of the students exposed to the prolonged non-contractual English intervention program.

As far as English language learning is concerned, it is concluded that the students may improve significantly their linguistic skills if they are exposed to an intensive intervention program without any pressure to pass the course. It is further concluded that the Access Program has opened the minds of the students to other cultures.

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Introduction

One of the identified causes of learning barrier of Filipino students is poor level of proficiency in English. This problem is usually more felt in the rural areas where there are less exposure to mass media and contact to English speaking individuals. This scenario is true in Tawi-Tawi, an island province in the southernmost tip of the Philippines, and is considered as the gateway to the Borneo-Indonesia Malaysia Philippines – East Asia Growth Area (BIMP-EAGA) region. To address this problem, the Mindanao State University -Tawi-Tawi was established with a mandate to provide quality education to the Muslim community along fisheries, oceanography and other related disciplines (Republic Act No. 6060, Congress of the Philippines, 4 August 1969). MSU-TCTO has witnessed some students entering their freshmen year who could hardly complete a sentence in English without committing errors either in grammar, pronunciation or in sentence construction. Their difficulty in English oftentimes, if not always, lead to their struggle in understanding and learning new concepts and theories in other fields of study – not because of the complexity of the concepts and theories, but due to their limited understanding of the English terms used in texts and in teaching.

Many factors have been pointed out by researches as reasons of poor English Language skills. Among the many factors that can be thought of, poor teaching during the early years of schooling tops the list. To remedy the situation, many universities and colleges offered English remedial programs for students who have low English language skills with the hope of improving their chances of finishing college. In many cases, intervention programs are implemented using the usual “pass-fail” criterion where learners are assessed of their performance in conformity to the prescribed “learning skills” to pass the course. In such situation, students are often forced to comply of what they are required to attain that contribute to the high anxiety level of the students, which may hinder learning.

According to Krashen (1982), one obstacle that manifests itself during language acquisition is the affective filter, i.e., a “screen” that is influenced by emotional variables that can prevent learning. This study is anchored on Krashen’s Affective Filter Hypothesis in language learning which states that when the anxiety level is low, learning is high. This anxiety, fear or frustration may prevent a student from learning or accomplishing a learning task. In the study of McIntyre and Gardner (1989), it was found out that learner’s anxiety could be associated with language learning and that Communicative Anxiety is a factor in both the acquisition and production of vocabulary. Analyses of the correlations between the anxiety scales and the measures of achievement show that scales of foreign-language anxiety and state anxiety are associated with performance.

One of the innovations in the learning environment of the students in MSU-TCTO is manifested in an intervention program sponsored by the US Embassy through the English Access Microscholarship Program which aims to develop the language skills of the students through after-school instruction, enhancement activities and intensive sessions. The students enrolled in this program are not “contractually obliged” to pass the course through standard sets of achievement levels of English language skills, i.e. pass-fail. Instead, they are encouraged to use English and develop their linguistic skills during class hours, after-school instruction, and even during enhancement

activities, thereby creating an environment with low anxiety level and assures success in language learning. The students are given unit tests only to determine progress of learning as far as language skills and culture appreciation are concerned.

The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To measure the degree of effect on the English language skills of students after being exposed to a prolonged non-contractual English intervention program;
2. To compare the magnitude of change in the class performance of those students exposed to the program compared to their peers who are not participants of the program; and
3. To assess whether or not, the program has significantly changed their attitude and perception toward other cultures.

Methods

The research is quasi-experimental in nature. Fifty (50) students ranging from 13-20 years old who have economically disadvantaged backgrounds and show low performance in English skills (speaking, reading and writing) were exposed to an English intervention program through after-school instruction and enhancement activities sponsored by the US Embassy, Manila. The program, among others, include developing their English language skills, exposure and training in the use of computers and participation in activities that are usually practiced in Western cultures. Their performances in class, skills in English language, attitudes and perception towards other cultures were assessed and monitored during the whole program. The change (if any) on their attitude and performance was compared to their peers who are non-participants of the program.

Following a quasi-experimental research design, two groups were utilized in this study, i.e., the **experimental** group and the **controlled** group. The controlled group consists of students who are enrolled either in high school or college but are not enrolled in the Access Program, while the experimental group are those students who are enrolled in the Access Program with MSU. Both groups have similar language profiles and level of English proficiency at the start of the study.

To compare the magnitude of change in the linguistic performance of both groups, pretest and posttest were conducted before and after the exposure of the students to a prolonged non-contractual English intervention program.

Venue and Duration

The English language intervention program was conducted in the Mindanao State University – Tawi-Tawi College of Technology and Oceanography (MSU-TCTO) located in Sanga-Sanga, Bongao, Tawi-Tawi, Philippines. For assessment and comparison of effect of the program, students from the neighboring schools, where some students participating the program come from, were also included in the assessment and monitoring as the control. This study was conducted from January 2016 to February 2017.

Results and Discussion

I. Assessment of Access Students' Learning Growth

The data on Table 1 displays how the attitude and performance of learners engaged in the Access program change over time. The scores are transformed into percentages from the maximum (perfect) score for better appreciation on how their attitude, knowledge and skills progresses while undergoing the program.

Table 1
Pre-test and Midterm Assessment of English Language Skills, Knowledge on Western Culture, and Attitude Towards Western Culture and Ideas

Area of Assessment	Period of Assessment		Change
	Pre-test (Start of the Program)	Midterm Assessment	
English Language Skills	47.2%	53.0%	5.7%
Knowledge on Western Culture	38.5%	64.3%	25.8%
Attitude Toward Western Culture	54.3%	86.4%	32.1%

At the start of the program, despite that those learners have undertaken the Philippine basic formal education, their scores on English language skills and knowledge of Western Cultures are still low. Their appreciation on Western Culture and ideas is already fair. During the midterm assessment their skills in the use of English Language improved a little from 47.2% in the pre-test to 53.0% in the midterm assessment gaining an increase of 5.7. However, a large advance can be observed on their knowledge in culture as well as their perception towards the same culture gaining an increase of 28.8 and 32.1 percentage points, respectively.

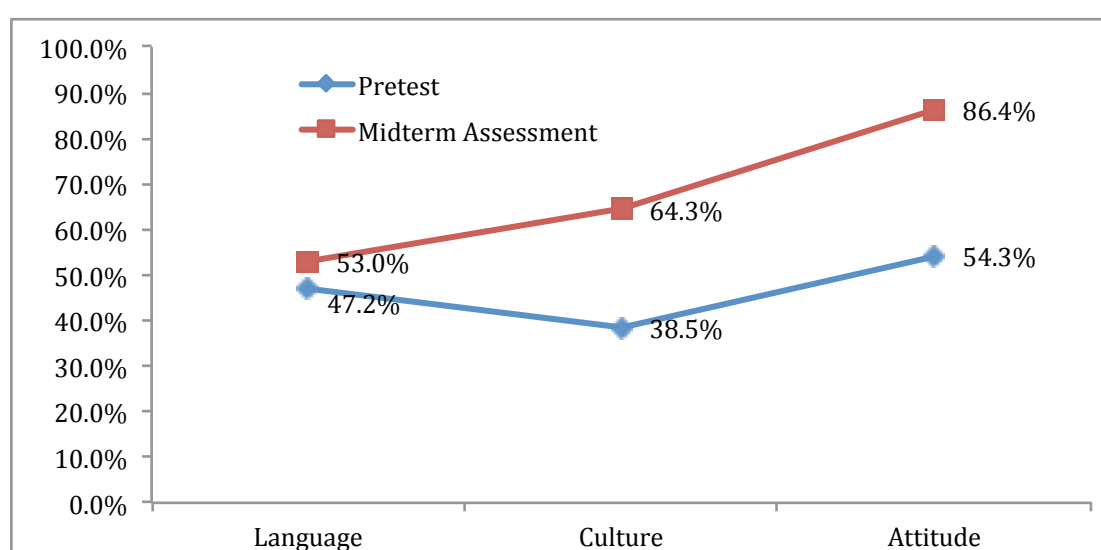


Figure 1: Plot of the pre-test and midterm assessment scores of access students

The graph in Figure 1 depicts the progression of the access learners' attitudes and performance during the first half of the program implementation. As already mentioned earlier, huge improvement was expressed on their knowledge in culture and positive perception– i.e. acceptance and tolerance to the culture of Western nations.

The next table presents the statistical test results using t-test which explore whether or not the magnitude of change on the access learners' skills and attitudes is immense enough to conclude that indeed there was a significant learning growth among access learners during the period.

Table 2
Summary of t-test comparing **pre-test and midterm** assessment scores of access students

Assessment Area Compared	Paired Differences			t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean		
English Language Skills	.05741	.16265	.02711	2.118	.041
Knowledge on Western Culture	.25833	.20195	.03366	7.675	.000
Attitude Toward Western Culture	.96296	.35544	.05924	16.255	.000

At 5% level of significance, the results show that the midterm assessment scores among access students are significantly higher than their pre-test scores. It could be claimed that the access program has significantly improved the learners' knowledge and skills as well as meaningfully changed their views towards western people and culture.

II. Access and Non-Access Learners' Comparison

During the midterm assessment a group of non-access students were given the same assessment questionnaires. The latter was chosen from among the peers of access students whose ethnic, social, economic and educational background are similar to the access learners. The purpose is mainly to evaluate if the level of skills as well as the perception of the non-access varies from those in the program.

Table 3
Access and Non-Access Learners' Midterm Assessment Scores

Area Assessed	Learners Grouping		Difference
	Access	Non-Access	
English Language Skills	64.3%	44.0%	20.3%
Knowledge on Western Culture	53.0%	45.6%	7.4%
Attitude Toward Western Culture	86.4%	59.6%	26.7%

The results of the assessment given to the two groups indicated that learners engaged in the Access program have higher percentage scores in all areas being assessed. Among the three subjects of interest, students who participated in the Access program achieved much larger percentage scores in the English Language performance and higher acceptance (positive) ratings on Western cultures compared to the non-access counterparts.

The plot in Figure 2 depicts the disparity on the average mean responses (in percentage) between the two groups.

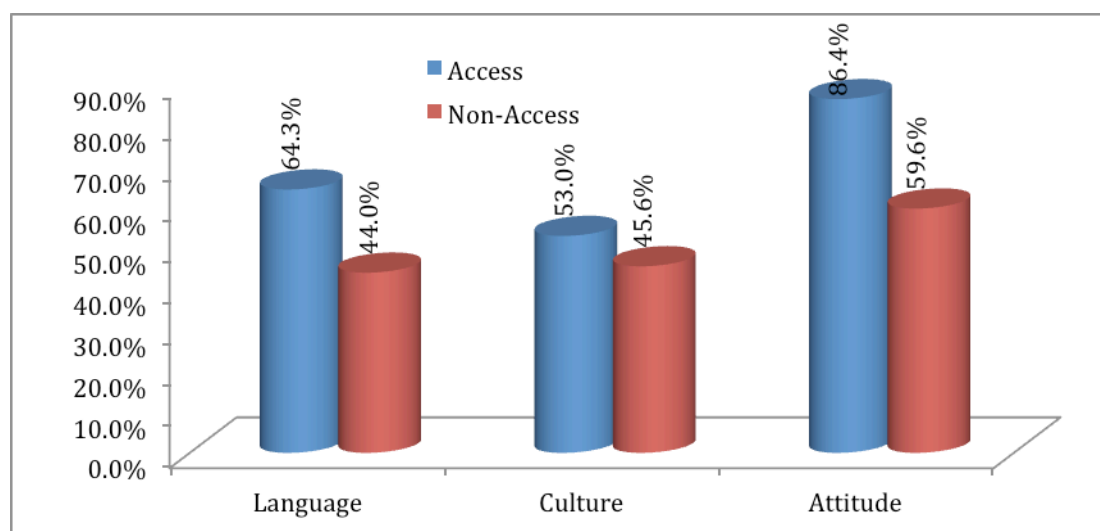


Figure 1: Plot comparing the midterm assessment scores of access and non-access students

To answer the notion whether or not the differences of the mean responses are persistently higher which is sufficient to conclude that access students performed better than the non-access, a series of independent t-tests comparing the two groups' scores were made. The results are summarized in Table 4.

Assessment Area Compared	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
English Language Skills	.20306	.04126	4.922	.000
Knowledge on Western Culture	.07408	.03711	1.996	.050
Attitude Toward Western Culture	.80141	.09089	8.818	.000

The above results indicated that except on the area of knowledge in western culture, access participants possess better English Language skills and give much favorable attitude towards acceptance and tolerance to western cultures. This further suggests that the program has significantly influenced ones knack in English language. It also opens up to understanding and tolerance to a culture which is different from theirs.

Findings

1. Students enrolled in the Access program have significant learning growth in the three areas being assessed, i.e., English language skills, knowledge on western culture, and attitude toward western culture. The Access language program has moderately improved the English language skills of the students.
2. Compared to Non-Access students, the students enrolled in the Access program showed large improvement in their knowledge of western culture.
3. Access students have manifested significant positive change in their attitude towards acceptance and tolerance to western culture. This suggests that the Access program has significantly influenced ones knack not only in the English language but also opens up to understanding and tolerance to a culture which is different from theirs.

Conclusion

As far as English language learning is concerned, it is concluded that the students may improve their linguistic skills if they are exposed to an intensive intervention program without any pressure to pass the course. It is further concluded that the Access Program has opened the minds of the students to other cultures.

Recommendations

1. Since English language learning is significantly higher in a non-contractual learning environment, i.e., the anxiety level of the students in learning the target language is low, this intervention program may also be implemented in other Asian countries that consider English as a target language.
2. The Access Program must be continued as it has an impact on the economically disadvantaged but intelligent students enrolled in the program. It empowers not only the underprivileged students but also their families and the communities that they belong to by giving them a new perspective of the world through appreciation of other culture.
3. Further in-depth study on the impact of the Access Program to the community be conducted.

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Teaching Writing through Clustering Technique

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Abstract

Teaching writing is considered as the most difficult skill. However, one of the objectives of teaching English in secondary school in Indonesia, especially for writing skill is students are expected to be able to write descriptive text well and accurately. Therefore, an EFL teacher needs appropriate strategies in teaching writing to achieve this objective. One of excellent strategies which can be used is clustering technique. Clustering technique can help students in solving their problem in writing text, especially for generating and organizing ideas in planning stage. This study aims at capturing secondary students' achievement in writing descriptive text by using clustering technique as a way in generating their ideas before writing. Experimental research method with pretest-post test design is applied in a class of twenty five secondary students. The sample was taken by using purposive sampling technique. The result reveals that the mean score of pretest is 5.7 and the mean score of post test is 7.1 and the result of t-score is 4.9. The t-value at the significant level 0.05 is 2.064 and at the significant level 0.01 is 2.797 with the degree of freedom 24. Since, the result of t-test is higher than t-value, the alternate hypothesis is accepted. In other words, there is a significant difference between pretest and post test score. It proves that the use of clustering technique is effective to improve students' achievement in writing a descriptive text.

Keywords: teaching writing, clustering technique, descriptive text

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Introduction

Nowadays, in Indonesia English is known as a foreign language. It means English is just for academical context and it is not used as a daily communication tool. However, English is an international language which has an important role in communication by people to interact with other people in the world. For these reasons, the government of Indonesia has decided to include English in Indonesia education curriculum with creating English language policy that English must be taught since primary school until university level.

English has four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing skill. Especially writing skill is considered as the most difficult skill in teaching English. However, teacher is expected to teach this skill until students able to write their ideas in English well. It is shown by one of the objectives of teaching English in secondary school particularly in basic competence of the first grade is that students are expected to be able to write a descriptive text well and accurately (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional [Depdiknas], 2006). This become one challenge for English teacher. To answer this challenge, English teacher need to teach how to write a good writing.

Wyrick (1996) states a good writing is a good idea organization. The idea has to be organized in a sistematically logical order. Therefore, students need to teach technique how to organize ideas into a good writing. In other word, the students have to know how to gather and organize their ideas well.

Nunan (2003) defines writing as the process of thinking to invent ideas, thinking about how to express into good writing, and arranging the ideas into statement and paragraph clearly. Besides, Creme and Lea (2003) states that writing is a process to find words and those words are put together in particular formations to make sentences, then grouped together into good paragraphs.

Furthermore, Trimmer (1995) explains that stage of writing process is divided into three stages (planning, drafting, and revising) and one of them is related to good idea organization, namely planning. As the first stage, planning is the most important step in writing process because it is a basic process of thinking in starting a writing product. Planning stage is a series of strategies designed to find and formulate information in writing. In other word, it is an activity to gather and organize good ideas into a good text. Styati (2010) concluded that students need to know technique in writing, especially in planning stage. Thus, students have to be taught the techniques in this planning stage.

Many techniques can be applied including clustering or mapping technique in planning stage because research results find that this technique is effective to use for generating ideas in teaching writing. One study by Styati (2010) results that clustering technique is more effective than direct instruction to teach writing descriptive text. Moreover, Henry (as cited in Ventis, 1990) concludes that clustering technique improves understanding and retention of concepts by providing students with an approach to learning facilitates thinking. Thus, the use of clustering technique in writing process is proposed to be implemented in teaching writing especially in a descriptive text to help students solve their problems in generating and organizing their ideas.

Clustering technique is chosen because it is simple and easy to be applied in teaching writing. Besides, it also gives students freedom in gathering their ideas without thinking about big and structured idea. Rawlins (1996) states that students do not need a thesis or a great idea. They can start with a word, a phrase, a visual image, a picture or a sentence. Teacher just gives one thing; a word, a phrase or a picture to students as a topic in brainstorming their idea.

Another reason is clustering technique also allows students to think creatively and specifically (Owen, 2009). Students in gathering their ideas can relate the topic they saw to their own personal experience and write freely all ideas that come to their mind. As a result, the students can collect some important and specific details about the topic (a picture, a word, a phrase, or a sentence). Then, they fill them in the cluster diagram to finally be organized according to the generic structure of a descriptive text (identification and description). Besides that, clustering technique can also make students easy to see the relation between ideas and it make students become more easily to write (Rumisek and Zemach, 2005).

For these reasons, analyzing the use of clustering technique in teaching writing was conducted. This study focuses on writing descriptive text in secondary school. The main objective of this study is to know whether clustering technique can improve students' achievement in writing descriptive text or not, particularly in generating and organizing their ideas. There are many reasons that make clustering technique appropriate for the students of secondary school, such as clustering technique is simple and relatively easy to be applied in teaching writing, clustering technique gives freedom in gathering ideas, and clustering technique also allows students to think creatively and specifically. In addition, the effect of clustering technique can make students get an easy way to write down their ideas.

Descriptive Text

There are several kinds of text in academic writing for teaching English in secondary school. One of them is *descriptive text*. Descriptive text is a text which describes things in specific detail. According to Siswanto, Arini, and Dewanto (2005) a descriptive text is a text which describes a particular person, place, or thing. In descriptive text, the writer usually uses the simple present tense. Here is the structure of a descriptive text: identification; identifies phenomenon to be described and description: describes parts, qualities, characteristics of the person or something that is described.

Clustering Technique

Clustering technique is one of the ways of teaching language, especially in writing skill for generating ideas. Oshima and Hogue (2006) define clustering technique is another brainstorming activity that can be used to generate ideas. In addition, clustering is a simple yet powerful technique in planning stage to help the students generate some idea (Richard and Renandya, 2002). For this study, clustering technique used is focused on spider cluster diagram. Below it is an example of spider cluster diagram.

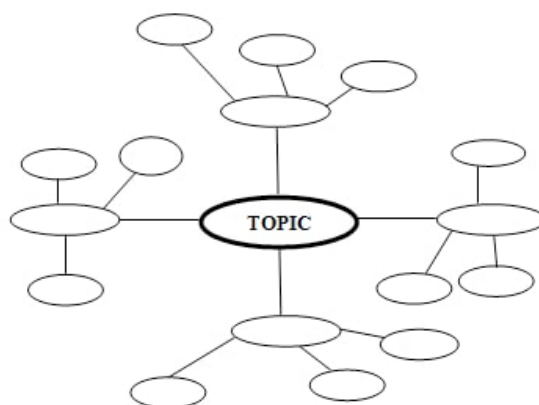


Figure 1: cluster diagram (adapted from Rumisek and Zemach, 2005).

Research Method

Methodology used in this study is *experimental quantitative research*. The experimental research is the only type of research that can test hypotheses to establish cause-effect relationships, then quantitative research is the collection and analyses of numerical data in order to explain, predict, or control phenomena of interest (Gay, Mills, and Airasian, 2006). Thus, this research uses numerical data collection to examine the hypotheses.

For research design, this study uses the one-group pre test-post test design. The one-group pre test-post test design involves a group that is pre tested (*O*), exposes to a treatment (*X*), and post tested (*O*) (Gay, Mills, and Airasian, 2006). In other word, this design has three steps: pre test (measuring the dependent variable), treatment (applying the independent variable), and post test (measuring the dependent variable again).

As this study uses the one-group pre test-post test design, sample of this study is chosen one class consist of twenty five students of secondary school selected by using purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling (judgment sampling) is the process of selecting a sample that is believed to be representative of a given population (Gay, Mills, and Airasian, 2006). In other words, the researcher selects the sample using his experience and knowledge of the group to be sampled.

In order to get a reliable data and to increase the accuracy of the data, this study used inter-rater reliability. There were two raters for rating students' worksheet (pre test and post test worksheet); the first one is the researcher and the second one is the English teacher in that school. The researcher and the independent rater (the English teacher) analyzed the worksheet individually and separately. The two score is then joined together and divided by two. The data of pretest and posttest was analyzed by using SPSS version 22 with significant value 5% ($\alpha=0.05$) and/or 1% ($\alpha=0.01$).

Conclusion

The result of statistical analysis data reveals that there is a positive improvement in all aspects of writing score (content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics). It can be seen on students' scores between pre test and post test which have statistical difference. However, only on two aspects, namely content and organization there is a statictically significant improvement. This result is relevant with the function of

clustering technique to generate and organize ideas well in planning stage (Oshima and Hogue, 2006). That is why the other three aspects of writing score, namely vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics do not increase statistically. The description of data is showed below.

Pre and Post Test

The pre test was conducted in order to find out the students' ability in writing descriptive text before the treatment. This score is used to compare with the post test score in order to see whether the students have the improvement in writing a descriptive text or not. The length of the text is 50-80 words and the time for the test is 80 minutes. The data of the pre test showed that the mean of pre test is 5.7. While, the post test is conducted to know the increase of students' ability in writing descriptive text after the three time treatments. In the post test, the text should consist of 50-80 words in 80 minutes. The statistical analysis of post test score showed that the mean of post test is 7.1. For mean of each writing aspects in pre test and post test could be seen in the table below.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Data

	Pretes dan posttest	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Content Score	Pretest	1.840	.4500	25
	Posttest	2.400	.5401	25
	Total	2.120	.5675	50
Organization Score	Pretest	.940	.5268	25
	Posttest	1.600	.5401	25
	Total	1.270	.6244	50
Vocabulary Score	Pretest	1.320	.4052	25
	Posttest	1.420	.4491	25
	Total	1.370	.4263	50
Grammar Score	Pretest	1.080	.4717	25
	Posttest	1.160	.3742	25
	Total	1.120	.4233	50
Mechanics Score	Pretest	.940	.6007	25
	Posttest	1.080	.4491	25
	Total	1.010	.5296	50

Based on the table above, it could be seen that the highest mean is content (1.84) and the lowest is organization and mechanics (0.94) in pre test. If it makes in line, there are content (1.84), vocabulary (1.32), grammar (1.08), organization and mechanics (0.94). While, in the post test, it happens the same pattern again which the highest mean is content (2.4) and the lowest is mechanics (1.08), but there is a difference here in posttest which organization has improved (1.6). As a result, there are content (2.4), organization (1.6), vocabulary (1.3), grammar (1.16), and mechanics (1.08) in line.

From the data above, it can be formulated some conclusions. First, students made many errors when they were writing in pre test. The most error made by student is in mechanics. Second, students make an improvement in post test, but mechanics still became the lowest aspect which student got. Third, students made a good

improvement in content and organization aspect in post test. It is different with pre test which organization is one of aspects that the mean is low. In brief, it can be said that there is a quite good increased achievement on students' writing score in all writing aspects.

The Improvement of Students' Score

Based on the mean of pre test and post test results, it could be concluded that students' achievement in writing descriptive text increased after the treatments. The following table showed the increase of the mean between pre test and post test.

Table 2: Paired Samples Statistics of the Data

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 Pretest Score	5.700	25	1.8257	.3651
Posttest Score	7.100	25	1.7619	.3524

Based on the table, it could be concluded that there is a good increase of students' score in the term of mean score in all writing aspect, including content, organization, vocabulary, grammar and mechanics with the gain of mean at 4.1. Then, to see the significant differences of mean from each aspect of writing score between pre test and post test, it could be seen in the table below.

Table 3: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects of the Data

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Content Score	3.920 ^a	1	3.920	15.865	.000	.248
	Organization Score	5.445 ^b	1	5.445	19.133	.000	.285
	Vocabulary Score	.125 ^c	1	.125	.683	.413	.014
	Grammar Score	.080 ^d	1	.080	.441	.510	.009
	Mechanics Score	.245 ^e	1	.245	.871	.355	.018

Based on the table, it could be concluded that students got a good improvement in writing after giving treatment (clustering technique) in all aspect of writing. However, only in two aspects got the statistically significant improvement. The two aspects are content and organization. The content score with $p=0.01$ has significant level at 0.000230 and the organization score with $p=0.01$ has significant level at 0.000065. Since those significant levels are lower than p -value 0.05 and 0.01, it indicates that there is a statistically significant improvement in content and organization aspect.

While, the vocabulary score with $p=0.01$ has significant level at 0.412519, the grammar score with $p=0.01$ has significant level at 0.509637, and the mechanics score with $p=0.01$ has significant level at 0.355319. Since those significant levels are higher than p -value 0.01, thus, it can conclude that there is no statistically significant improvement in vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics aspect.

In brief, these data show that cluster diagram could help students in their writing, especially in generating and organizing their idea. This finding is relevant to some ideas proposed by Ventis (1990), Wrick (1996), Richard, and Renandya (2002), Oshima and Hogue (2006). This finding also completely supports Styati's research finding (2010) that shows clustering technique is effective to teach writing descriptive text. Thus, cluster diagram appears to be a very effective tool for improving students' writing skill. Not only cluster diagram makes learning writing more interesting, but also cluster diagram makes students' ability in writing increase.

Hypothesis Testing

The hypotheses were tested by t-test formula. The t-test is the primary statistic used to determine whether or not means from two different scores are significantly different. The t-test was tested by using SPSS version 22. Two hypotheses were applied in this study: alternate hypothesis (H_a) and null hypothesis (H_0), where H_a shows if there is significance difference between the two scores while H_0 denotes that there is no significance difference of two scores.

Table 4: Paired Samples Test of the Data

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Pretest Score - Posttest Score	-1.4000	1.4142	.2828	-1.9838	-.8162	-4.950	24	.000

From the statistical analysis of the t-test in the table above, it can be seen that t-test result with $p=0.01$ has significant level at 0.000047 for two-tailed test. The significant level is lower than p -value 0.01. In other word, it shows that the t-test of two scores between post test and pre test is 4.95. It is higher than t -value at the level of significance 5% t -value=2.064 and the level of significance 1 % t -value=2.797 for two-tailed test with the critical value for degree of freedom, df 24. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternate hypothesis (H_a) is accepted. It means that there is a significant difference between the two scores of the post test and pre test. In other words, there is a statistically significant difference on student's writing achievement between pre test and post test scores when they were taught by using clustering technique.

Discussion

Based on the analysis of the students' composition in the pre test, it can be found that students got several problems related to content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. First of all, it is about describing another idea (topic), for example: there is a student that took 'my idol' as a topic. She started writing 'I have an Idola. His name Taylor alison swiff or taylor swiff. His is born in Pennysylvania, 21 years ago,' but in the next sentence, she wrote another idea: 'His son are Andrea and Scoot Swiff', then wrote about Andrea and Scoot Swiff until the end. Second point is about unclear idea, for example: 'Blood flows from her grandmaother's art than an opera

singe. Besides, there were some redundant sentences, for example: in identification, she wrote *'I have one idol. Her name is Katheryn Elizabeth'* and in description, she wrote again the same thing, *'My idol is Katheryn Elizabeth.'*

The next problem, there is other student who lack of competence in organizing logical order of ideas. First, in identification she explained about her house's measurement and location. After that, she continued by describing her house's condition. Then, in description she moved backward and explained again the measurement of her house. The students also could not decide where to put the identification of the text, and how to describe the topic in chronological order. From the explanation above, the writer summarized that they still did not understand the order of their composition, especially about the structure of descriptive text.

Furthermore, there are some points in grammar which can be headlined. The first point is *tobe*, for example: *'His name Taylor alison', 'Taylor very beautiful', 'That house very comfortable'* and *'my house in Banda Aceh.'* The second one is about final *'s'*, for example: *'four bed room.'* The third one is about *pronoun*, for example: *'His is born.'* The fourth point is about subject-verb agreement, for example: *'Taylor Swiff have blue eyes'* and *'my house it is not so big'*. The last is about words order, for example: *'my story house'* and *'tree two manggoe'*. In mechanics, there are about capital and full stop, for example: *'I have an Idola, His name Taylor alison'* and *'my house is not big. but it comfortable.'*

All of the problem in the pretest above had good improvement gradually. Based on the observation and analysis of their composition at the first day of treatment, it is still hard for them to use the correct grammar for their sentences. They still did not use the correct verb or the correct subject for the sentences and also they did not use *'to be'* for the sentences without verb. Besides, there were still some errors in mechanics, but there is a good improvement; they could organize their composition better than when they were pre tested. They knew what they were going to write and they would not lose the ideas because they had the cluster diagram to guide their ideas.

For the second day of treatment, the improvement in their writing is quite good. Their mistakes in grammar and mechanics seemed minor. However, some students did the same error in grammar and mechanics. Some of them still forgot to put *'tobe'* after the subject without verb and to put full stop at the end of the sentences. For example, *'He his very funny'* and *'She has fair SkiN.'* The most important part here, now they exactly had the ideas for constructing their writing. In other words, they knew what they wanted to write.

In last treatment, the students' compositions seemed better than at the first and the second treatment. There were few students that did many mistakes in their writing, but most of students made a good improvement in their writing. Besides, some students still did minor mistake in their writing. But all of them got a good improvement in their writing and also the important thing is the students did not feel that writing is a difficult thing anymore.

Then, at final test (post test), students made some quite big improvements. They made a good improvement, especially in content and organization. Besides that, after they were taught by using clustering technique, they began to understand how to generate

their ideas for a writing text. They started to focus their writing in one topic only. They also limited the content of their writing by only describing one particular object.

Implication and Limitation

There are some implication of this study. First of all, English teacher, specially English teacher in secondary school can apply clustering technique in order to improve students' achievement in writing activities because this is a good way to help students generate and organize their ideas. Besides, students especially secondary school students can create cluster diagram before they start writing something. However there are some weaknesses of this technique, such as students were confused in translating the word from students' L1 (Indonesia) into English and students made cluster diagram that is out of the topic. For the first problem, the student can consult to dictionary and then memorize the words. While, for the second one, the teacher can give a limited sub-topic list of cluster diagram to help the students.

There are some limitations for this study. The limited sample is main point. The sample are only twenty five students from one class. Then, the number of treatments are also limited, only three times meetings. Besides, the method used is not true experimental research, but it is pre experimental study. Therefore, the future researchers who intend to conduct the study more detail about the effect of using clustering technique for teaching writing, can make this study as a starting point. In addition, the future researcher can also conduct the study in the different level of students by using different kind of text.

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The Implementation of Teacher's Motivational Strategies in EFL Classrooms

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Abstract

This study aims at describing how EFL (model) teachers in Junior High school, Senior High School, and Vocational High School under FISS educational program, generate student's initial motivation in learning EFL, identifying the strategies done by those model teachers to maintain student's motivation in learning EFL, and revealing how those model teachers encourage positive retrospective self-evaluation of the students' motivation in learning EFL. The need to foster students' communicative skill in English derives teachers to be able to support their students' development. To make it true, teachers need to have capability to motivate their students, by implementing certain motivational strategies, so that the students can be successful English learners. There are still few researches in motivational strategy as well as the implementation in Indonesian context. Therefore, this study is conducted in Indonesian context with its cultural attributes, which is unique and specific compared to other researches with the same topic in different context and paradigm. Descriptive qualitative, with case study as the approach, is used as the design of this study regarding to the type of data and the way to analyze the data as well as the way to present the result. There are three secondary schools located in Surabaya, involved in this study representing each level of secondary education. The research is done through interview with the teachers as well as students and observation during the natural teaching and learning process in the classroom to reach the three research objectives.

Keywords: model teachers, EFL, motivation, motivational strategies, secondary school, cultural context

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Introduction

Indonesia is one of many countries in Asia which have accomplished important step dealing with the development of students' English communicative skills. It could be seen from the exertions that have been dedicated to improve the teaching and learning of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) at schools in Asian countries (Nunan, 2003; Spolsky and Sung, 2015). The main purpose of learning English is for communication. Therefore, the essence of communication cannot be separated from English language learning. Students need to be able to communicate with others using English. To help them with that goal, there is a need from teacher to foster students' communicative ability in English so that they can achieve the main goal of learning English.

In Indonesia, the response concerning the importance of EFL learning and teaching has been translated into RPPNJP (*Rencana Pembangunan Pendidikan Nasional Jangka Panjang*/Long-Term Education Development Plan) 2005-2025 and UU No.20/2003 about National Education System where it is stated that education in Indonesia is aiming at producing students having knowledge as well as skills required for adapting to this globalization era. Therefore, there is no doubt that English is one of the factors in equipping students to be able to realize the vision and mission of Indonesian national education.

In order to meet the goal of producing students who can compete in the globalisation era, Indonesian government has done some efforts including conducting some educational innovations. One example of educational innovation that had been applied was the Fledgling International Standard School (FISS) program in 2009 which used English as the language of instruction. It is a program innovated in 2009. Based on National Education Department data, schools which were categorized as FISS had to have teachers teaching foreign language, in this case English, integrated with other school subjects such as mathematics and science. This was a huge challenge for the teachers who were not only required to have good English skills but also required to have strong pedagogic, personal, social and professional competencies. It is stated in Government Regulation No. 74 year 2008. Although FISS has been eliminated but the core (the use of English as the medium of instruction) still occurs.

Related to FISS (or the context of schools with English as the medium of instruction) as the umbrella, it requires students to develop their communicative skills in English as the global or international language. In this way, if the students have no motivation to learn and develop their English skills then the program and the purpose would not be achieved. Therefore, teachers as the main person contacted with those students, need to have capability to motivate the students in order to help them develop their English skills. In this case, teachers are expected to implement motivational strategies to make it true.

Motivational strategies as a way done by teachers to help students develop their communicative in English as what has been explained previously, has been applied in some places with different context. This study focused on the motivational strategy done by EFL teachers in Indonesian context in order to help the students develop their communicative skills in English as well as make the aim of the program comes true.

One significant theory in L2 motivation comes from Dörnyei (2001) who develops previous concepts and theories into formulating the components of motivational teaching practice. According to Dörnyei (2001), motivational strategies can be defined as techniques to improve “individual goal-related behavior” which, at the same time, refer to “motivational influences” soberly done to achieve some particular positive effect as the emergences.

Dörnyei (2001) himself along with Csizér (1998) had conducted a research in Hungary to find out which motivational strategies were important for teachers and how often they used these strategies in their classes. In 2008, a more thorough research on teachers’ use of motivational strategies in the classroom was conducted by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) in Korea. The study observed the teachers teaching practice and found out that the motivational strategies used by them had successfully increased their students’ motivation. A similar study with what Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) had done in Korea was also conducted in Iran (Papi and Abdollahzadeh, 2011). The result shows similar finding that teachers’ motivational practice did relate to students’ motivated learning behavior.

In Indonesian context, there are only few topic that can be found in the topic about motivation. One example is the study by Nichols (2014) who wanted to find out Chinese senior high school Indonesian students’ motivational strategies preference. The result shows that the strategies chosen by students were effective in increasing students’ motivation in the classroom, but not so effective in increasing students’ intrinsic motivation. Another study was conducted by Kassing (2011) who tried to find out how the motivational strategies used by English Education lecturers at a private university in Sulawesi, affect their students’ motivation to learn English. The last study on motivational strategy in Indonesian context that is important to be mentioned here is the study by Astuti (2016). Astuti conducted a research on the motivational strategies used by senior high school teachers who are successful in motivating their students to learn English.

There are already some researches that have been conducted in relation to the motivational strategy topic as what has been explained previously. However, the motivational strategy research in Indonesian context is still rare. Therefore, this study is conducted to fulfill that gap.

There are several question which are going to answered through this study. They are: 1) How do model teachers generate the student’s initial motivation in learning EFL?; 2) What strategies do model teachers have to maintain the student’s motivation in learning EFL?; and 3) How do model teachers encourage positive retrospective self-evaluation in learning EFL?

Through this study, it is expected that it will give more information related to the use of motivational strategy since it provides specific Indonesian context as well as its cultural context compared to the previous researches. In addition, this study covers different levels of secondary school in Indonesia so that it is more holistic. Furthermore, it can motivate, inspire, and help teachers to implement motivational strategy in their own classroom.

Literature Review

Motivation

Motivation is the process of encouraging a person to make a certain purpose then to be pursued by action. (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Motivation considers (a) *why* people decide to do something, (b) *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, and (c) *how hard* they are going to pursue it (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Motivation is generally differed into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Motivation in this study can be defined as An individual's personal drive to accomplish something (Riggs & Gholar, 2009), a goal or task, despite trials or struggles they may have accomplishing the task.

Students' Motivation in EFL Learning

In relation to foreign language learning, Gardner (2001) claims that motivation drives an individual to put in effort to achieve a goal; it makes the individual persistent and attentive. Besides, motivation is regarded as the one of the key factors in determining success in foreign language learning, so that the teachers need to mastery the strategies in motivating language learners as the important aspect in foreign language motivation theory analysis (Khatib & Sarem, 2012). It means that motivational strategies are required to be held by every teacher. Gardner also states that a highly motivated individual enjoys striving for a goal and makes use of strategies in reaching that goal. Motivation in learning a foreign language is frequently raised when the students view the language valuable that they are willing to take effort to learn and master it (Gardner, 2001).

In Dörnyei's (1994a) three-level framework L2 motivation, it can be seen that there are three different levels which construct motivation in learning a particular foreign language, including the level of the language, the student or learner, and the learning circumstance.

William and Burden (1997) also feature a framework of motivation to learn a foreign language which consists of internal and external factors. Internal factors include intrinsic interest of activity, perceived value of activity, sense of agency, mastery, self-concept, attitudes, other affective states (anxiety, confidence, and fear), developmental age and stage. External factors refer to significant others (parents, teachers, and peers), the nature of interaction with them, the learning atmosphere and also the wider context (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). So, motivation is regarded as the one of the key factors in determining success in foreign language learning

Motivational strategies

Techniques that promote the learner's goal-related behaviors called as motivational strategies. In other word, Dörnyei states that motivational strategies deal with process of motivating a person intentionally to pursue plans and attain certain effect (Dörnyei, 2001). Motivational strategies includes the instructional interventions applied by the teacher to generate and stimulate student motivation and self-regulating strategies used purposefully by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation (Guilloteaux and Dörnyei 2008).

To organize the motivation, the classroom practitioners should apply the diverse techniques. Dörnyei made several systematic attempts in motivating learners which are organized in four motivational dimensions (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Creating basic motivational conditions.

The early way to motivate learners requires the teachers to generate motivation effectively among learners. It can be attained by creating these following three conditions: (1) appropriate teachers behaviors, (2) a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and (3) a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms (Dörnyei, 2001).

Generating initial motivation.

In establishing motivation in classroom, the teachers face the issue how to find ways to encourage their students to accept the learning goals and to enjoy the classroom activities (Dörnyei, 2001). However, this dimension of motivational strategies is set to increase the learner's expectancy of success and develop positive attitude toward the language learning (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

Maintaining and protecting motivation.

To maintain and protect the learner's motivation, the teachers should make learning stimulating and enjoyable, present tasks in a motivating way, set specific learner goals, protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence, allow learners to maintain a positive social image, promote cooperation among the learners, create learner autonomy, and promote self-motivating learner strategies (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation.

This last phase of motivational strategies deals with the learners' reactions of their past performance. This phase is going to show how the teachers are capable of leading learners in evaluating their achievement to become better in future (Dörnyei, 2001). The teachers can conduct this phase by promoting adaptive attributions, providing effective and encouraging feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering grades in a motivational manner (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

Those four motivational dimensions are served as theoretical framework of motivational strategies motivational strategies in teaching EFL.

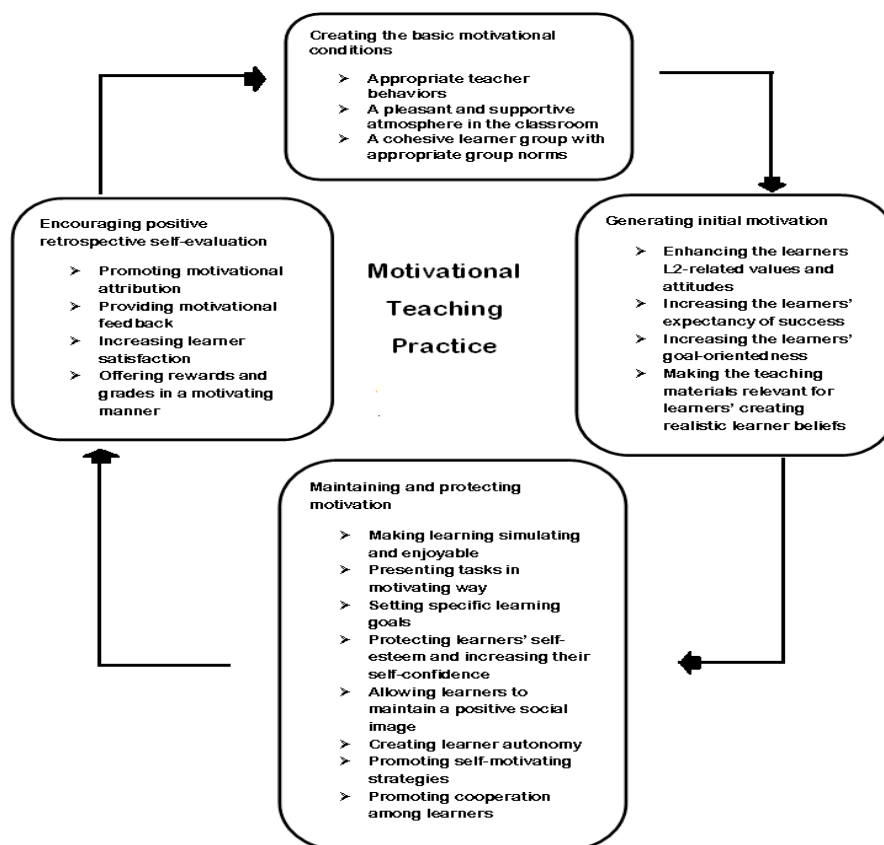


Figure 1 :The motivational teaching practice parts in EFL/ESL classroom (Dörnyei, 2001)

Based on Dörnyei's (2001) concept of motivational strategies, the initial stage to motivate students in EFL learning engagement is creating basic motivational conditions. This phase is conducted to stimulate students' motivation in learning EFL before any further attempts stepped. There are three most importance of this motivation phase: 1) Appropriate teacher behavior and a good relationship with the students, 2) A pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom, and 3) A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.

One previous research has ever been conducted in Sulawesi Indonesia by Kassing (2011). She explored both university level students' and their lecturers' perceptions of teaching strategies that both groups considered impact on students' motivation in learning EFL.

Generally, most researches dealing with motivational strategies have been conducted in other countries such as Taiwan, Oman, Iran and Colorado. They tried to find out the motivational strategies implemented by teachers in a country/region scale with large numbers of participants in which questionnaire is the primary technique to obtain the data and most participants were from specific level of school, not all levels (Khatib, 2012; Al-mahrooqi, 2012; Dörnyei, 1998). As the example, Khatib (2012) has investigated the motivational strategies used by Iranian high school EFL teachers from the student's perspectives through questionnaire given to them. The students reveal that only few teachers practice motivational strategies in Iranian High Schools.

The second is Dörnyei (1998) who found motivational strategies that are mostly used and appropriate by Taiwanese English Teachers obtained by questionnaire. The result shows that the different state has different believe of motivational strategy because of the different condition. Hsu (2009) conducted a comparative study of motivational strategies used between novice and experience teacher at secondary EFL setting in Taiwan. This study proved that the experience teachers have better strategy than novice teachers.

To summarize, the findings of Al-mahrooqi (2012), Dörnyei (1998) and Hsu (2009) reveal that different condition, situation, and location contribute huge influence for motivational strategy practiced by teachers. In addition, Ramey (2013) also studied motivational experiences by the middle school students in Colorado in learning Math used narrative inquiry. The study found that satisfied condition will influence students' motivational desire in learning.

Research Method

This study uses qualitative research design in order to answer the research questions. This design is needed although Gomm, Hammersley, & Foster (2000) states that planning and conducting qualitative research is indeed a challenging task. As motivation is prevalently up and down during learning and it is such complex behavior of individuals, it needs many diverse ways of promoting it. In fact, almost any influence a person is exposed to might potentially affect such behavior. Motivational strategies refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect (Dörnyei, 2001). Therefore, this study needs a frequent, subtle, and process-oriented approach, qualitative research design, which is able to report and explain the process of such behavior and provide in depth understanding and evidence of how teachers' behavior and strategies might motivate and engage students in EFL learning. In other words, this design is chosen since this study has descriptive characteristics in terms of the data and how to present them.

Case study, as a sub-design of qualitative research is preferred to be used in conducting this study. It aims to gain wide range of information and seek the view, beliefs, and perceptions of the study participants to recognize the teachers' motivational strategy phenomena at ex-FISS school. The aims are in line with this study which investigates and depict how EFL teachers motivate their students. Consequently, descriptive design with qualitative approach with case study is intended to recognize the phenomenon and answers the research questions (Berg, 2001). Ultimately, this approach enables exhaustively study of motivational strategies within a specific context. As the result, it is clear that this study is positioned within descriptive qualitative research.

The subjects of the study are EFL secondary school teachers and students from the school using English as medium of instruction. There are three teachers chosen as the representatives of 3 different levels of secondary education in Indonesia covering Junior High School (SMP), Senior High School (SMA), and Vocational Schools (SMK). Meanwhile, the students are the ones taught by those chosen teachers. The 2nd grade students for each level are chosen because they are the ones who are in the middle of 3-year school experience.

In choosing the teachers, FISS, called as school with language of instruction today, becomes the main umbrella. Interview is conducted to find 'model teachers' for each level of Secondary school. The process is followed up by the analysis until the researcher comes to a decision of having 1 model teacher for SMP, 1 model teacher for SMA, and 1 model teacher for SMK.

This study use Natural setting since it deals with knowing how the implementation of motivational strategy in the EFL classrooms which means that it seeks for a phenomenon that occurs daily or regularly. It deals also with natural teacher and student behaviors as what they do every meeting. The teaching-learning process runs as it does and there is no manipulation needed.

In collecting the data, interview and non-participant observation are used to answer the research questions stated in the beginning. The interview is done towards the chosen model teachers and the students described previously. Interview guidelines for interviews for both subjects are prepared.

Non-participant observation, as the next data collection technique, is done through observing the teacher's teaching in the classroom. Particularly, it observes how the implementation of motivational strategy in the classroom occurs. Observation guidelines, field-note, and video recorder & camera are used as the instruments of doing non-participant observation.

The results of the observation checklist are analyzed by counting the percentage of checked items and giving description about each percentage result. Meanwhile, the result in the field-note is analyzed by putting what are noted into words with organized description. Therefore, the result can be understood and evaluated. The result taken in the form of recordings is analyzed by looking at the visual teacher's behavior and relating it to the other data before turning the final result into description. The result of the interview is put in the form of interview transcription. Then, it is analyzed by clustering the information uttered in the transcription into themes based on the statements and put it into narrative description.

Limitations

There are some limitations in this study which is taken into special consideration. Firstly, the data collection period is not too long so it does not cover the implementation of motivational strategy in whole year or semester. Secondly, the scope of this study is limited only in Surabaya city, East Java, Indonesia which is taken as the context. Lastly, participant numbers are only the representatives of 3 schools using English as a medium of instruction.

Conclusion

From the study, it can be concluded that motivational strategy is needed for teachers to help students improve their English communicative ability. In other words, the existence of motivational strategy is very important for the success of teaching English for students so that they can be successful learners having good communicative ability. In addition, in Indonesia, teachers in schools using English as

medium of instruction need to implement motivational strategy in their English teaching-learning process. Therefore, through this research, it can be concluded that the context provided (Indonesia), regarding to the existence of schools which use English as medium of instruction, encourages English teachers to implement motivational strategy in their classroom.

Some suggestions can be given to English teachers and further researcher. It is suggested for English teachers to implement motivational strategy in their class/teaching for it will help their students improve their communicative skills in English and become successful English learners. Furthermore, it is suggested for further researchers to do further investigation on motivational strategy in different context (maybe broader) due to the fact that it is important but still limited to certain context only.

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***Teaching How to Think and Write: Realities and Suggestions on Writing
Instruction in English Education in Japan***

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Abstract

The current Course of Study of Japan manifests that an objective of “English Expression” is to evaluate facts and opinions from multiple perspectives and to communicate with others through good reasoning (MEXT, 2009). In reality, a survey revealed that 82.1% of national and public high school seniors were at the A1 level of writing in the CEFR framework (MEXT, 2016), although 46.7% of their teachers answered that they taught writing based on what the students had listened to or read. These data show that teaching English writing for Japanese students poses a serious problem. Moreover, in the previous study which analyzed “English Expression I” textbooks, we found that they offer few activities which involve high-level thinking skills (Nagakura and Kawano, 2016). In this paper, we examined the writing tasks of high school textbooks from perspectives such as length, topics, and connection with reading in an attempt to probe the realities of English writing instruction in Japan. Furthermore, through a survey with university first-year students, we found that few participants had learned paragraph writing at their high schools, and half of them had difficulty in articulating an appropriate claim for an opinion. This leads to the necessity of teaching basic writing skills and of extending it to writing that expresses students’ thoughts through the process writing approach: organizing ideas, locating resources to advocate opinions, and making a strong conclusion. In this study, a writing curriculum that fits first-year university students is proposed.

Keywords: L2 writing instruction, paragraph writing, high school English textbook analysis

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Introduction

The Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT) has initiated a restructuring of English language education in response to a criticism of ineffectiveness of teaching in the subject. The major objectives of the plan include establishment of Foreign Language as a non-graded subject at third grade, English as an official school subject at fifth grade, and the raising of curriculum standards for both the middle and high school. The new plan, which will be fully implemented by 2020, aims to develop students' English proficiency in the four language skill areas: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Moreover, the new standards aim to encourage acquisition of more advanced English production skills, including making arguments, debating and presenting.

In contrast to these goals, results of the National English Test for high school seniors in 2015 showed that most of the students' speaking and writing proficiencies were at A1 level of CEFR, with many students also reporting low motivation to learn English (MEXT, 2016). According to the survey results accompanying the performance test, 10.6 % of teachers taught students how to make discussion or debate in English classes, and 34.8 % taught them how to make a speech or presentation. As for writing, 46.7 % taught students to write about what they had read or listened to, and it is rare to find students who have experience in writing opinion essays in school. Overall, it is clear that teachers need to spend more time on teaching advanced skills of English production.

Enhancement of students' English production skills is also a challenge due to teachers' limited experiences in speaking and writing English themselves. Moreover, the shortage of instructional time and under-developed instructional resources make it difficult for teachers to improve. Improving education in writing may be the hardest task, since writing as an activity has received the least focus in English language instruction. It is also especially difficult to teach English writing in Japan because of the many differences in writing conventions and rhetoric between the two languages. As for teaching materials, we divulged that many of the certified English textbooks, which are major resources for teachers, are not well organized for teaching writing (Nagakura & Kawano, 2016).

With the current condition of teaching English production in Japan at a suboptimal level, what level of writing abilities and characteristics do current Japanese college students demonstrate? What method of classroom instruction is effective for them?

The purpose of this study was twofold: To conduct a detailed analysis of writing instruction in selected secondary school English textbooks, and to develop an effective and usable writing program for college students. Pilot testing with the developed program was conducted to evaluate its feasibility and to collect suggestions for improvement. In order to develop an effective writing module, a survey that explores college students' experiences with English writing and their attitudes towards learning English was administered. Also, an on-demand writing pretest was implemented to measure their level of writing. In this paper, the textbook analysis and the details of the developed writing module are discussed; then the results of the pre-teaching survey and pretests are reported.

Textbook Analyses

Curriculum and the Role of Textbooks

High school students in Japan study two English subjects, Communication English and English Expression. The latter attempts to develop students' productive skills such as speaking and writing, and one of the goals is that students should engage in activities such as "evaluating facts and opinions from multiple perspectives and communicating with others through good reasoning (2009)." English Expression I, which is usually taught to the first- or second-year high school students, has an objective that students will be able to write with due attention to phrases and sentences indicating the main points, connecting phrases, and reviewing one's own writing. In English Expression II, which is for second- or third-year high school students, the aim is for students to write with due attention to passage structure, references to charts and tables, and useful English expressions, while clarifying the points of an argument and its evidence, and reviewing and revising one's own writing. These descriptions are in line with the goals of the new plan discussed above; in other words, the Course of Guidelines manifests that students should learn how to write argumentative passages and also how to revise them. At the first part of this study, which is a textbook analysis, we aim to verify whether the textbook serves to achieve such goals. Textbooks play an essential role in English education in Japan where English is learned as a foreign language. Therefore, examining textbooks will indicate how and what students are actually learning in terms of writing tasks.

Previous Study on English Expression I

In the previous study, writing tasks in four major English Expression I textbooks were analyzed from the perspective of the cognitive levels of writing tasks (Nagakura & Kawano, 2016). In total, 255 tasks related to writing were categorized into the six levels of cognitive dimension of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001); Level 1 (Remember), Level 2 (Understand), Level 3 (Apply), Level 4 (Analysis), Level 5 (Evaluate) and Level 6 (Create). Most units/lessons of the textbooks had three components: rules of sentence structure were introduced first, and then the rules were applied in some examples and exercises, followed by some open-ended questions/activities at the end of the unit/lesson. Of all the tasks included in the textbooks, it was found that Level 2 tasks accounted for 33.7 % and that 34.5% of the tasks were at Level 3. There were few tasks of Levels 4 and 5, while 17% of them were at Level 6. It was notable that the textbooks had very limited writing activities at Levels 4 and 5, which would encourage critical thinking of the students. Also, it was found that the English Expression I textbooks emphasized mostly grammar rules and sentence structures, and included few tasks of paragraph writing. As such, it might be difficult for the students to learn to think and write in English, unless the teachers supply supplementary guidance and materials, which is not usually feasible with their busy schedules. To most high school students, writing seems to mean translation and grammar practices.

English Expression II Textbook Analysis

In the present study, we attempted to probe how writing is taught in two bestselling English Expression II textbooks, textbook A and textbook B; in particular we

analyzed the writing tasks included in these textbooks from the perspectives of 1)scope and sequence, 2)components of a lesson, and 3)themes and topics of the lessons. Two raters analyzed the tasks independently, discussed the ratings, and came to agreement in cases when discrepancies with ratings occurred.

Scope and sequence

Both textbooks had basically the same flow of instruction; with the first part, they showed how to construct English sentences, featuring the grammatical rules of each lesson. Textbook A contained 20 lessons in the first part, and textbook B had 12 lessons.

The second part dealt with how to write a paragraph; it covered the definition of a paragraph, organization of a paragraph such as the topic sentence and supporting details, and some patterns of organizations. Textbook A had 5 lessons, or 10 pages in this part of the entire textbook which had 143 pages in total, while textbook B had 8 lessons, or 16 pages of instruction on paragraph writing, and 4 lessons, or 8 pages on essay writing out of 163 total pages.

In the third part, oral presentation activities such as speech, presentation, and debate, were included. In other words, the textbook started with activities in which students write sentences, and as the lessons progress, instructions were given as to how to write a paragraph. Then they would study how to write speech scripts towards the end of the textbooks.

Components of a lesson

Both textbooks had the same pattern of a lesson flow; a lesson had three components; first, a model reading passage is presented. In textbook A, the average number of words of the reading passage of a lesson was 74.8 words. Every model passage was accompanied by a Japanese translation in textbook A. Textbook B had a model reading passage of approximately 110 words. The Japanese translation of the reading passage is given at the back of the textbook.

As the second component, both textbooks presented explanation, grammar points, and exercises for the model passage. Most exercises were closed exercises, grammar practice and translation, and these covered the largest number of textbook pages in both textbooks.

Finally, a free writing exercise was included, which was introduced in a sentence in Japanese; it had no further explanation or guidance to complete the task. An example was, "Write about your most memorable present you have ever received in 60 words." In textbook A, most lessons concluded with exercises which require 60-word compositions. Students were to write short paragraphs of five to six sentences at most. Textbook B had similar writing tasks with more scaffolding activities. An example from textbook B read, "recommend a place to visit, using the memo of Exercise C", which was a mapping tree exercise used for brainstorming. Textbook B did not specify how many words a paragraph should have, though most students would write a few sentences after being prompted. There were no tasks for students to write a

paragraph from scratch, starting from brainstorming and constructing an outline by themselves.

Themes and topics

The Course of Guidelines recommends including themes that are instructive and appropriate for high school students. In particular, it is recommended to present topics related to everyday life, science and technology, communication, career education, social issues, and culture. We tallied the topics of lessons, using these labels. As a result, it was found that the lessons to teach sentence structures were about everyday life, personal topics, the culture of Japan, foreign cultures, and career education. Lessons on paragraph writing were about everyday life, science and technology, and social issues. For oral presentations, topics were about social issues and science and technology. This tendency shows that, in order to encourage paragraph writing, essay writing, and discussion script, thought-provoking topics such as science and technology and social issues are necessary. Topics such as everyday life and career education are more difficult to employ to promote critical thinking.

Table 1.

Topics of lessons in two English Expression II textbooks

Text-book	Everyday Life	Science and Technology	Communication	Career Education	Social Issues	Culture of Japan	Foreign Culture	Others
A	4	6	1	3	3	4	4	1
B	5	8	0	1	2	0	2	2

Teaching Paragraph Writing to Japanese College Students

Designing a Teaching Writing Module

Responding to the urgent need to develop effective English writing lessons for Japanese college students, a handful of studies have investigated the characteristics and limitations of Japanese students' writing through classroom teaching in recent years (Kamimura, 2000; Kamimura & Oi, 2006; Sasaki, 2004; McKinly, 2006; Tanaka et al., 2007, Tsuji, 2016, among others).

Kamimura & Oi (2006) followed 38 Japanese college EFL students as they progressed through a year-long course in argument writing and their understandings of rhetorical and linguistic features that are necessary for formal academic writing, and concluded that the students were able to produce essays of better quality through explicit instruction over at least a year of teaching. This study was a continuation of the authors' writing intervention study (Kamimura & Oi, 1998), which suggested that Japanese EFL writers tend to be less skilled in constructing a sustained argument due in part to the Japanese writing tradition of encouraging authors to express personal feelings when recounting their memories or experiences.

Tanaka et al. (2007) studied 100 college freshmen to investigate changes in their motivation for writing after receiving interactive teaching practices in English writing classrooms. They hypothesized that when students more actively involved themselves in writing activities such as peer discussion work and frequent feedback sessions between an instructor and students, their own motivation to write English would increase. Using a survey to measure students' motivation, the study found a significant intervention effect from the classroom teaching. Thus, they argued that raising a student's motivation as a writer is also a critical component of writing education, in addition to providing explicit writing instruction.

Based on these findings from the literature, we hypothesized that both explicit linguistic and rhetorical content for instruction and motivational pedagogical approach are necessary to improve students' writing. This study incorporated a process instruction approach, which was guided by the cognitive theory of process writing (Flower & Hayes, 1981). In this approach, writing is conceived of as a set of distinctive thinking and cognitive processes organized in a hierarchical, highly embedded structure. The module for this study is sequenced to follow the process writing approach through a cycle of planning and organizing, goal setting, translating ideas into language, and evaluating and revising writing and editing.

It may not be a coincidence that the results of past studies with Japanese university students are aligned with the findings and recommendations of the November 2016 report on best practices from the What Works Clearinghouse of the U.S. Department of Education (Graham, S., Bruch, J et al, 2016), which reviewed accumulated research on effective practices in writing in secondary education. The report makes three recommendations for effective writing instruction: 1. Explicitly teach appropriate writing strategies using a Model-Practice-Reflect instruction cycle; 2. Integrate the teaching of writing with the teaching of reading to emphasize key writing features; 3. Use systematic assessment of student writing to inform instruction and feedback.

Given these current understandings in the field in Japan and the U.S., the following four major approaches were used in developing an intervention module for this study:

- 1) By viewing writing as a process of thinking, guide students step by step.
- 2) Generate ideas through discussion and brainstorming with peers.
- 3) Provide feedback focusing on the forms and flow of arguments rather than grammatical suggestions.
- 4) Explicitly teach how to write an outline and how to elaborate arguments, providing effective support through reading materials.

Intervention Module

Building on previous findings and theories, seven content lessons were developed. English teaching time is typically 100 minutes long per lesson. For this study, a chunk of 40-45 minutes in each lesson was allocated for writing instruction, with the rest allocated for reading and other activities.

Table 2.
Content of lessons and its target strategy

Lesson	Instructional content	Targeted Approach
1	Review students' writing in the pretest. A main focus point is to teach the structure of a paragraph and the role of a topic sentence. A handout is created with examples of good paragraph writing and poor paragraph writing.	Explicit teaching and detailed feedback
2	Teach more on paragraph writing, focusing on providing reasons to support a claim and formulating an opinion logically connected to that claim. Develop and submit an outline for an opinion paragraph. Topic: The prevalence of SNS (Social Networking Service) is beneficial for education or the prevalence of SNS is harmful for education.	Peer collaboration and discussion
3	After providing comments on the submitted outlines, teacher offers and discusses examples of good outlines. Students rework their outlines through pair-work. The teacher also explains how to elaborate outlined reasons.	Provide detailed feedback, Peer collaboration and discussion
4	The students write a paragraph on Word Document at a PC room. The paragraphs are sent to the teacher via university network system. The teacher comments on the paragraphs and returns them to the students before the next class.	Write on Word at PC room (Skill) Provide detailed feedback
5	Students review the comments provided by the teacher with their peers. Teacher and students discuss what the biggest challenges are in making each paragraph more logical. A handout is created to teach students how to write logical arguments.	Peer collaboration and discussion.
6	Integrate reading materials into writing instruction. Learn how to elaborate further on reasons and make an opinion stronger by supplying objective information. Teacher also explains the rubric for evaluation.	Explicit teaching with provided reading materials.
7	Teach how to revise first drafts. Type up a final draft in class and send it to the teacher via university network system.	Write on Word at PC room (Skill)

Method

Participants

Participants were 61 students majoring in science at a large private university in Japan. Two groups of students were included from three separate classes: 27 students enrolled in a mandatory Freshman English class, and 36 students enrolled in two required academic presentation classes for third-year students.

In this paper, only data from the Freshman English class ($n = 27$) are presented. This class was leveled as intermediate among three levels of Freshman English classes. Among the 27 students, there was one student whose native language is neither Japanese nor English. Three other students noted that they had a short experience of living abroad.

Study design

The study included a sequence of 7 lessons, with a session of orientation and pre-intervention data collection at the beginning and post-intervention data collection at the end. Data collection instruments were a writing task and an English learning survey that assessed students' English learning past experiences as well as their attitudes and beliefs toward English learning (Full survey: See Appendix).

The writing task was to write a paragraph (150-200 words) on a blank sheet of paper in 25 minutes. The direction was "Please write a paragraph of 150-200 words by stating a position of agreement or disagreement with the given statement. Prompt: Advancement of technology makes our lives better."

It should be noted that this paper aims to discuss the usability of a novel English writing module and to explore its feasibility as instructional material for Japanese college students who have had limited English writing instruction. The effectiveness of the module will be assessed when all of the lessons of the program have been taught and analyzed.

Results

Pre-teaching survey

With respect to previous experience in English education, all students responded that they had experiences of "Translating Japanese sentences to English sentences" and "Constructing English sentences with given words or expressions." However, more than half of the students did not have experience in "Writing a paragraph" (56%) or "Writing an essay with multiple paragraphs" (60%). The survey item "Expressing own thoughts and feelings in a chunk of 3-5 English sentences" received the most diversity of responses: students' writing experiences differed greatly in this area, ranging from "I never did this" to "I did this almost every week."

Regarding their experiences in terms of the process writing approach as described above, the survey data showed that at least 80% of the students had experience in brainstorming and planning when they wrote, and 74% of them had at least some

experience in revising what they wrote. However, two thirds of the students also reported that revising their own writing by themselves was difficult and that they appreciated sharing their writing with peers to get others' feedback. One noticeable finding was that 76% of the students had not used reading materials when writing a paragraph or an essay, yet more than two thirds reported that intensive reading of supplemental materials would be helpful for them in writing their own thoughts.

Table 3.

Percentage of students in terms of frequency of their English writing experiences

	Never	Once a year	Once a semester	Once a month	Almost every week
Translating Japanese sentences to English sentences	0	16	12	12	60
Constructing English sentences with given words or expressions	0	12	20	28	40
Expressing own thoughts and feeling in a chunk of 3-5 English sentences	8	16	32	28	16
Writing speech or draft for a presentation	40	36	16	8	0
Writing a paragraph	56	28	8	4	4
Writing an essay	60	32	0	0	8
Summarizing what you have read	36	24	20	8	12
Writing review or critics for reading in English	48	32	12	8	0
Brainstorming or planning what to write before writing	20	28	20	28	4
Reading materials in order to write paragraph or an essay	76	20	0	0	0
Revising what you wrote	36	24	12	12	16
Have had peer review or discussion on what you wrote	44	20	24	4	8

The survey also explored students' experiences and attitudes toward writing by assessing their level of agreement with a given statement at five levels: "Do not agree at all", "Do not agree", "I am not sure", "Agree" and "Strongly agree". Due to space constraints, reports here are limited to the responses that may inform the module planning for this study. The first two levels are combined as "Do not agree" and the last two levels are combined as "Agree."

These findings include: 58% of students indicated that they do not understand the basic structure of a paragraph; 76% expressed that it is difficult to write because they “do not have good vocabulary to use in writing English”; 76% of them agreed with the idea that intensive reading of supplemental materials is effective for better writing; 68% agreed that it is difficult to revise their writing by themselves; and at the same time, about half (52%) indicated that they have not received feedback on what they have written. It seemed that students like to receive detail feedback from teachers and peers.

Pre-test

Of the 27 students in the Freshman English class, 25 wrote a paragraph of 150-200 words by taking a position of agree or disagree with the following statement: Advancement of technology makes our lives better. Students wrote their responses within 25 minutes by hand on a piece of paper. As four out of 25 students submitted the task blank, a total of 21 writing samples were collected.

For analysis, the hand-written writing samples were typed up and rated by two independent raters. To assign holistic writing scores, an independent writing rating standard for TOEFL was used. The other six rating indicators were developed based on prior research (Kamimura & Oi, 2006). These indicators are: 1) Holistic score of a writing piece; 2) Logical consistency of the writing; 3) Level of organization including the presence of a clear claim and a conclusion; 4) Degree of elaboration on supportive arguments; 5) Type of elaboration; and 6) Total word count.

1) TOEFL Score

Based on the score guidelines of TOEFL Independent writing, six levels, with 5 as the highest, 21 writing samples were evaluated. All students received scores of 2 or below, with no student receiving a 3, 4 or 5. The distribution of the rating was score 0 (19%), 1 (48%) and 2 (33%). There were two students whose work was considered somewhere between 2 and 3, but did not quite reach a point of 3.

2) Logical consistency

The logical consistency score measured the directionality of an argument. A piece of writing was evaluated as to whether it was uni-directional or bi-directional, namely when two opposite stances are taken in one piece of writing. The data revealed that the majority of the students' writing had unidirectional logic; there were two writing samples (10%) that showed bi-directional viewpoints.

3) Organization

The organization rating measured the students' efforts to make a clear organizational structure in their writing, including a claim, a conclusion, and supportive sentences. Students' writing was rated with one of three levels of clarity of organization: score 0-Ramble-on, 1- Some structure observed but not well organized, and 2-Well structured.

The data revealed that about 80% of students wrote a clear claim at the beginning of the paragraph, and 52% of them wrote a clear concluding statement. With respect to the overall structure of writing, 29% of students did not show any organization in writing, 57% showed some organizational structure, and 20% showed well-structured organization.

4) Degree of Support

This indicator measured the presence or absence of supporting sentences to back up an opinion. The data showed that the 29% of the students did not write any supporting sentences. 57% showed insufficient elaboration to support a claim; meaning that they did include some follow-up sentences, but did not provide enough support for their reasoning; and three (14%) among 21 pieces of writing showed at least one sufficient elaboration to support one claim.

5) Nature of support

This indicator evaluated the nature of support in three types: 1-Objective account including the demonstration of objective data or statistics or citing of experts' quotations or ideas; 2-Personal anecdote/opinions; 3-Combination. The nature of students' elaboration was analyzed from the 15 writing samples that indicated some attempt to elaborate. Of these, 57% provided only personal opinions or anecdotes as support for their claims. Only 10% attempted to provide an objective account, while one student used both objective and personal anecdote/opinions.

6) Total word count

The number of words in the writings ranged from 38 to 151, with an average of 77.5 words.

Discussion

From the results of the textbook analysis above, it was revealed that most of the tasks in English Expression II textbooks focused on how to construct an English sentence or to translate Japanese into English. Less than a tenth of the textbook pages were on paragraph writing, and there was not a task of paragraph writing where students had to think what to write and how to express their ideas from scratch by themselves.

The findings from the pre-teaching survey and the pre-test suggest that the participants have not yet acquired the adequate skill and knowledge necessary to write a persuasive paragraph on a given topic. By examining the students' writing closely along with their past learning experience in English paragraph writing, this study also demonstrated that the students' learning experiences ranged from sentence-level writing to paragraph-level writing, as the data show widespread differences in response to the item "Express own thoughts and feelings in a chunk of three to five English sentences."

In order to write a sequence of sentences cohesively and logically, students first need to understand what an "English" paragraph is: a set of written ideas which expresses clearly the speaker's thoughts on a particular point. This definition, however, is

somewhat different from *Danraku*, which describes the function of a paragraph in Japanese writing. In this form, while a new paragraph starts with an indent, serving to focus the reader on a particular point of writing, the restriction of discussion in one paragraph is different. In English writing, the paragraph is limited to expressing one idea more strictly and requires a higher level of clarity and logical flow to make a point compared to Japanese's *Danraku*. In other words, English paragraph writing does not allow as much mixing of thoughts and ideas, a restriction that is therefore unfamiliar to many Japanese students.

As found during the pre-test, the majority of students in this study were able to write a topic sentence for a paragraph. However, the supporting sentences that followed these topic sentences did not effectively support the posited claim, and many of them did not express an idea with logical flow. This tendency can be ascribed to the way the students were taught English writing in their secondary schools. They likely learned paragraph writing by focusing on the construction of form, rather than constructing a logical sequence or expression of their own ideas.

Conclusions

The findings from the present study indicates that the current textbooks might need to be improved in order to meet the objectives of a Course of Study which emphasizes the importance of productive skills in English; high school textbooks should present writing tasks and perhaps more writing samples which would guide the students to learn how to organize their ideas and express them effectively and logically.

As Matsuda (2010) suggests, “the teacher’s role should shift to that of a coach who facilitates the development of productive literacy as students move toward achieving their rhetorical goals through the development of the text” (p.17). This study reports the very beginning of a pilot study concerning a writing curriculum for university students in Japan. It is hoped that the students develop not only in writing skills but also in their awareness of how to monitor their progress throughout the duration of intervention.

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Appendix

Questionnaire for English Learning and English Writing

1. We would like to know how frequently you have practiced each English learning or English writing activity. Please mark a cell that best matches your choice.

		Never	Once a year	Once a semest er	Once a month	Almost every week
1	Translating Japanese sentences into English					
2	Constructing English sentences using given words, phrases or expressions					
3	Writing informational English sentences to introduce something					
4	Expressing your own thoughts or opinions in a chunk of 3-5 English sentences					
5	Writing a speech or draft for a presentation					
6	Writing a paragraph					
7	Writing an essay (Here, an essay is defined as a component of multiple paragraphs to express one's thoughts)					
8	Summarizing what you have read					
9	Writing a review or a critique of what you have read					
10	Writing a journal in English					
11	Writing an e-mail in English					
12	Writing a letter in English					
13	Brainstorming or planning what to write before writing					
14	Reading materials in order to help you write paragraphs or an essay					
15	Revising what you have written					
16	Have had peer review or discussion on what you have written					

2. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement

		Do not agree at all	Do not agree	I am not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
1	It is difficult to come up with a good topic for writing.					
2	When I write English, I write a draft in Japanese first.					
3	I understand what a topic sentence is.					
4	I understand the basic structure of a paragraph.					
5	I understand how to write an essay.					
6	It is difficult to write English using correct grammar.					
7	Compared to Japanese, writing in English is an easier tool to express your ideas and thoughts.					
8	Writing is enjoyable. (Regardless of what language I use)					
9	I find it difficult to write English because I do not have good vocabulary to use in writing English.					
10	It is difficult to construct my opinion. (Regardless of what language I use)					
11	Reading magazines or books in English is an enjoyable activity.					
12	Writing English can be an important communication tool.					
13	I find it difficult to write because of a lack of information about the topic.					
14	I try to collect information written outside of classes by means of the Internet or reading materials.					
15	I use a paper dictionary when I run into a word I do not know.					
16	Writing English takes a lot of time.					

17	Reading supplemental materials is effective for better writing.					
18	Giving myself time to read related materials helps me to write something.					
19	Discussing the topic with someone helps me organize what to write.					
20	Discussing the topic in class gives me a better understanding of what to write.					
21	It is difficult to revise and arrange what I have written by myself.					
22	Sharing what we have written in class develops my intellect. My thinking becomes deeper when we share writing in class.					
23	I want to be good at writing e-mails in English.					
24	I study English writing because of the necessity to take tests such as TOEFL and EIKEN.					
25	I have had scarcely any experience of writing about what I think. Mostly I have had translating experiences.					
26	I have received feedback on what I have written.					
27	I have my own strategy for putting my thoughts together (regardless of language).					
28	Being able to write an essay in English will be beneficial for the future.					
29	I can provide strong arguments for supporting my claim.					

***Promoting Cross-Cultural Communication and Student Reflection through
Speaking Logs***

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The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

Many Japanese students enter university having had little to no interaction with native or foreign speakers of English outside of their classroom. In a university with international students there lies an opportunity for students to come into contact with people around their age from all over the world, creating the chance for intercultural exchange. However, outside of sharing a class together, it can be difficult for these two groups to interact. One way of changing this is through a weekly assignment called the Speaking Log. This assignment has students interacting with their international counterparts on a weekly basis in a loosely structured environment, discussing topics covered in class or of their own interest, and documenting and reflecting on the experience.

This paper will explain the assignment, discuss difficulties in implementation (as well as how to overcome them), but mainly show, through log entries of first year students, how students gain broader perspectives on topics both academic and personal, develop background knowledge and cultural awareness, and through repetition, reflection, and teacher feedback, students can come to change as language learners.

Also, as this is an ongoing assignment, the paper will look at limitations and ways in which the assignment can better implemented.

Keywords: cross-cultural communication, international students, speaking logs

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Introduction

One of the goals of Japan's Ministry of Education (MEXT) (2012) is to graduate more globally minded citizens. One means of doing this is through the New Growth Strategy, the goal of which is to send 300,000 students and workers abroad and accept 300,000 students from abroad into their universities. With this in mind "both Japanese students and international students study hard in diverse environments so that they will be expected to play an important role in the world. (p. 1)" Much media attention and research focuses on the number of Japanese students studying abroad; however, there is considerably less attention given to the impact international students have on domestic students. According to a recent report by JASSO (2017), there were 171,122 international students studying at Japanese universities in 2016, which is an increase of 12.5% from the previous year. While there have been countless studies and reports over the years on the impact of studying abroad on Japanese students, there is a noticeable lack of literature on the impact of how interacting with international students impacts domestic Japanese students.

There is, however, a growing body of research from places like the US and New Zealand that suggests that regular interaction with international students has numerous positive effects on domestic students. Wilson (1993) found that regular interaction through a school-sponsored conversation partner program between domestic students enrolled in a teacher training course and international students lead to gains in both substantive knowledge and of a global perspective as well as the opportunity to develop interpersonal friendships (p. 26). To summarize a recent study from Duke University done by Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2013), domestic students that had regular interaction with international students showed significantly higher levels of skill development in a number of areas including reading or speaking a foreign language, relating to people of different races, nations, or religions, learner autonomy, and problem solving. Likewise, Yefanova, Baird, and Montgomery's (2015) study done at the University of Minnesota highlights such gains as "an interest in studying abroad, world events, and foreign language learning...learning overt and subtle aspects of other cultures...developing multiple perspectives on course content, ...and learning to avoid tokenizing foreign "others." to name a few (p. 14). Another study done at the University of Kentucky by Jourdini (2012) had similar findings, and found that these benefits extended to not only the students but also the faculty. Additionally, one study done by Pascarella, Palmer, Moye, & Pierson (2001 as referenced in Luo & Jamieson-Drake 2013, p.87), showed that regular discussions with international students lead to positive gains in critical thinking with Caucasian female students. Cheney (2001 as referenced in Luo and Jamieson-Drake 2013, p. 87) also found that regular interaction with international students created increased awareness of language usage in both English and the foreign language, and mentions that the increased cultural awareness gained from regular interaction with international students could benefit these US students when they entered the workforce.

Having international students on-campus provides domestic students with an opportunity to have an on-campus international experience. However, in order for this experience to have any significance, it must be regular. That is to say, if the domestic and international students cannot share a class together, other structured activities must be put into place. Ward (2001) suggests that these interactions will not

occur “spontaneously,” so it is up to the institution to facilitate these interactions. One method available is a weekly assignment called the Speaking Log.

The Speaking Log

The Speaking Log assignment is a weekly or biweekly homework assignment which asks the students to spend a minimum of 15~30 minutes conversing in English with international students outside of class. This can be done anywhere and by any means (i.e. via Skype, FaceTime, LINE Video Chat, etc.); however, most students tend to visit the student lounge where many of the international students gather between classes. The students are encouraged to go in groups at first until they build the confidence to go by themselves. They are given a sheet of paper, the Speaking Log, which explains the assignment, gives them a number of questions to discuss, and a set of questions to fill out after the conversation (see Appendix). While Questions 1~3 ask the students to summarize the conversation, Question 4 (Q4) asks them to reflect on the conversation (*How do you feel about the conversation? How was your speaking/listening?*) and Question 5 (Q5) allows the students to ask the instructor a question. Sometimes students ask for clarification (“What’s the difference between *impressed with* and *impressed by*?”), other times they might ask instructor for his thoughts on what they talked about (“What do you think makes a person successful?”), and very often at the beginning of the semester, it is used to ask for advice (“How can I keep a conversation going?”). Q5 is often used to personalize instruction, communicate directly with the students, and diagnose any problems students might have while doing the assignment. Often if many students ask the same kind of question, I can address it in class.

The questions for discussion are based on what is being covered in class, and is in effect, designed to give students an international perspective about the topics and, hopefully, deepen their interest in it. Additionally, at the beginning of the semester, there are also questions about studying language (“*How long have you been studying Japanese?*” “*What do you think is the best way to improve your Japanese?*”), studying abroad (“*What do you hope to learn while studying abroad?*” “*What made you decide to study abroad?*”), and the students’ lives abroad (“*What is something interesting you have done so far in Japan?*” “*What do you miss from home?*”). The aim is to give the students easier, more relatable content to discuss, and to find commonalities with their international counterparts in order to make future conversations more relaxed. These questions, especially the ones about language learning, are also designed to expose the students to different methods and attitudes towards language learning.

The comments in the following sections come from three classes of Japanese students enrolled at a private university in Western Japan in the second half of their first year. There were a total of 69 students (M=25, F=44). Based on an informal questionnaire given at the beginning of the semester, none of the students had any interaction with international students in the previous semester.

Cross-Cultural Communication and International Friendships

The most obvious benefit of this assignment is that it gives students an opportunity to speak English with people their own age from other countries. This gives students an opportunity to learn firsthand about different countries and their cultural practices. Because of the aforementioned questions about studying language and studying abroad, the most common topics the students wrote about seemed to be about school life and studying English and Japanese. These discussions tended to be about the difficulty of studying Japanese (“I helped him study for his Japanese test. He says Kanji is hard.” “He asked, why do you have to know Keigo?”) and their interest in different varieties of English. Several students enjoyed talking to a young man from New Zealand who taught them “Kiwi slang” while others wrote with interest about the differences between British and American English. Another popular topic was hometowns. While some learned about new places like Minnesota (“It has over 10 thousand lakes. It sounds very beautiful. I want to go there.”), others got first hand insights into places they already knew: “Before this conversation, I want to know London, now I want to know more and more. Now I want to go.”) They also picked up on things that might otherwise be taken for granted. For example, one student was very surprised that “brothers and sisters in America call each other by name”, rather than using a hierarchical naming system like Japan. Also, students enjoyed learning about the differences in holidays. This assignment was given during the Fall Semester, so many domestic students were excited to spend Halloween with the international students and to learn that not all countries celebrate the holiday. Many also learned about the differences in how people in different countries celebrate Christmas (or why they do not).

Through this assignment, it seemed that a number of the students developed actual friendships with international students and spent time off-campus with them. One student wrote about how she invited an international student to her house to have dinner with her family after showing him around her hometown of Nara. She wrote very proudly of her ability to guide someone around her hometown and explain things to him in English. Some students were able to learn about things in more hands-on/direct way. For example, one student befriended a student from Finland, who also happened to be a chef back home. He invited the student and several of her classmates over to cook a gourmet meal together. In another similar example, a student had dinner with a couple of students from Mexico, and they taught him how to make Mexican food and how to do a traditional dance, which the student seemed very much to enjoy. While the types of insights they are getting into these new cultures aren’t as overarching as they might get in a classroom, they are personal and the students show a greater affinity for and desire to learn about these new cultures.

As for the questions on the Speaking Log that related to the course content, in general, the responses to these did not reveal much in terms of an obvious shift in understanding, nor did their write ups show any noticeable surprise at an international student’s perspective. This is perhaps one way the assignment could be improved upon. The four chapters we covered in class focused on risk, altruism, charity, and measurements of success. Most students asked the topical questions during the assignment, but the students did not seem to find much interest in the international students’ responses, and instead focused on personal information. Perhaps this is

because in a lot of ways the students had similar views or avoided some of the more direct questions (i.e.: “Would you give money to a homeless person on the street”).

Change as a Language Learner

Another major change that students made through this assignment was that there seemed to be a general attitudinal shift in terms of how the students perceived themselves as language learners. Many students tended to follow an arc of development through this assignment.

- At first, students seemed very nervous and critical of their speaking and listening skills: “It was fun, but I got nervous. So I could only one question. I am not satisfied with my speaking and listening.”
- “It was very difficult. I couldn’t hear him, and I couldn’t think of ideas to speak with him.”
- Q: “What topics do foreigners like?”

These comments were taken from the first assignment and were quite typical in their content. The students seem discouraged by their interaction, and in some cases see the international students as a sort of nebulous entity. This makes sense when considering that this was likely their first interaction with a person their own age in a foreign language, and although they have spent 6 years studying English in Junior and Senior High School, to quote Ikegashira, Morita, and Matsumoto (2009), “they mainly study grammatical points to prepare for the university entrance examinations. It is very rare for high school students to have oral communication classes. (p. 4)” In essence, they have gone from having never spoken with a person their own age in English, to starting a conversation with a stranger. This is why it is critical that the students do this assignment repeatedly. After repeated visits, and plenty of positive reinforcement and feedback via written comments on their logs and during class, they start to change their attitude.

- “I could make my ideas understood. It’s easier to hear.”
- “I listened to him carefully because he answered seriously.”
- “It is easy to talk for a long time when we have the common topic.”

Through my comments, I tried to emphasize that they were speaking to fellow language learners. This intimidated some students at first (“She said that she has only studied Japanese for four years, and she’s fluent. I’ve studied English for 6 years and I can’t speak. Why?”). In this case, the term “fluent” is likely relative, and it probably meant the international student was confident in the way she spoke. In my response to these comments, I encouraged the student to ask the students how they came to be “fluent,” and to remember that this international student most likely had a time when she was having trouble communicating in Japanese. The goal is that they come to realize that it’s common practice to be misunderstood, and that everyone seems to have trouble expressing themselves in a second or third language at some point.

Also because of the nature of this assignment, students must become more independent. The classroom situation is usually teacher lead and has a one-size fit all approach. This model offers structure, but it also affords the option to be passive by

letting others speak for them or dominate the conversation. At the beginning of the semester, these students went in groups at first, and several reported on feeling inadequate in the face of more confident and seemingly proficient classmates: “This time Nagisa talked a lot. She is very strong, so I want to be strong. I must study hard!”

Because these students are encountering confident and seemingly proficient international students and classmates, they develop an intrinsic motivation to study. This usually manifested itself in pointed questions asked in Q5 (whereas, in the past it was left blank). They then take this advice much more seriously as there is an immediate use for it.

Towards the end of the semester, many of the students had made friends, or have gone and made themselves understood enough that their responses to Q4 seem to be much more positive as illustrated in the following comments:

- “I felt my listening skills improving.”
- “I often talk to him, so I feel comfortable.”
- “I think my communication skill in English is making progress.”

Also, many students have stopped using Q5 to ask for topics to discuss, and instead have more natural conversations about common interests:

- “We talked about backpacking in South America. We both like to travel, and he thinks South America is so different than his home Denmark.”

Problems and Possible Solutions

Some students tended to have trouble with this assignment. One of the aforementioned benefits of interaction with the international students was the possibility of learning about different cultures and becoming less ethnocentric, however, some students failed to learn about the other students’ country and culture. This almost always happened because of a combination of a few things. First of all, the student ignored some of the more pointed questions that were designed to get information about the international students’ country or their opinion on a topic, and instead asked questions about what the international student thought about Japan. Also, the student talked to a new international student every time (ignoring my advice against this) and so, in effect, they treated the assignment like an interview rather than a discussion/conversation. Informal interviews with these students revealed that they basically asked their questions about the student’s opinion of Japan and listened to their answers without commenting or adding anything to the discussion. When asked why they did not use the questions I provided, one student mentioned that they felt it difficult to initiate a conversation and talk about a topic like altruism. In other words, they felt more comfortable asking the international students about their impressions of Japan.

Some ways that I tried to get around this was to include questions on the worksheet that directly asked the student to find information about the international students’ country. (“*Recommend me something from your country: a book, a band, or a movie*”) I also addressed this issue directly in class. I even talked to some of the

international students to see how they viewed this assignment, and they told me things to tell my students. (“Don’t tell us you want foreigner friends.” and “Yes, we like Japan.”) They mentioned that they do like talking about things like Manga and Anime, but not about whether or not they can eat Japanese food. Overall this seemed effective, but there were still students that continued to ask the same questions up to the end.

Another issue was that some students had trouble understanding the international students because of things like speed and accents. To address this, I eventually paired the speaking log with an extensive listening activity and recommended sites like ELLLO.org as a means of listening to various accents. I also used this opportunity to reinforce the idea that English is spoken by people all over the world, and that it is important to hear it spoken by speakers from a variety of L1 backgrounds.

Limitations and Future Plans

Perhaps the biggest limitation of this assignment, as it was reported in this paper, is that it is done over a 15 week period, which if it is not carried over into the next semester, limits the students’ gains in cultural and communicative competency. Also, in terms of data collection, this article attempts to generalize the experience and development of three classes, and naturally, as a result, many voices are underrepresented. Also, the amount students wrote in the log was rather short, which surely contributed to the relative superficiality of some of the data. In the future, I would like to focus on a smaller group of students and analyze individual student growth over the semester. And, I would like to attach separate writing assignments where the students can go into greater detail about what they have learned. Finally, it would be worthwhile to replicate a number of the studies done in the United States and in New Zealand to measure more of the specific gains mentioned.

Conclusion

In an EFL context, it can be very difficult to get students speaking English outside of class, especially with native or non-Japanese speakers, however this assignment provides a meaningful way to do so. The Speaking Log gives them a chance to engage in cross cultural communication, reflect on their growth and identity as language learners, and get an idea what young people outside of Japan think about various topics.

At the beginning of each semester, I give my students a questionnaire to fill out that introduces themselves and gives me an idea of what they want to learn and why they decided to study at this particular university. A number of them mentioned that they want to study abroad and to make friends with people from other countries. Also, at the time of writing this paper, I am trying a version of the Speaking Log where the students speak with each other in English outside of class. This is because during the Spring Semester, the international students leave at the end of May, which is a little less than halfway through the domestic students’ semester. At least three students have mentioned that they like talking with their friends, but they think the assignment would be better if they got to do it with the international students. Others have written that the senior members of their clubs, my former students, told them that I used to make them talk to the international students on a weekly basis, and that they,

my current students, want to do the same. The takeaway here is that many of the students want to interact with the international students, but they cannot seem to do it on their own. They expect the instructor or the university to facilitate the interactions.

Wards (2001) extensive work on the interaction between international students and domestic students in New Zealand came to a similar conclusion:

Research has shown that the presence of international students, even in large numbers, is insufficient in itself to promote intercultural interactions, to develop intercultural friendships and to result in international understanding. Rather, situations must be structured to foster these processes (“Strategies”).

While this assignment is one step towards fostering these interactions, as stated, 15 weeks is really a rather short amount of time. Due to the nature of this assignment, any measurement of how much impact regular interaction has on things like cultural competence is going to be fairly shallow. Rather, the institutions themselves should do more to foster regular interaction with international and domestic students on an ongoing basis. It is worth noting that several students do continue to visit the international students lounge after the semester has finished and others have made efforts to continue the friendships that they have made. So, in this sense the Speaking Log may be seen as a good stepping-stone.

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Appendix

Speaking Log – Take A Risk!

The purpose of this assignment is to practice speaking outside of class. For this assignment, I would like you to talk with a native speaker. There are many in the CIE lounge! Please try to speak with one of them for at least 15 ~30 minutes. You can have a general discussion or find out what they think about one of the topics we are discussing in class. When you are finished, complete the following questions:

Some topics to help get things started:

- Why do you think people help each other?
- Is there any situation where you wouldn't help someone?
- Recommend me something good to watch/read/listen to from your country or hometown.

1.) Who did you speak with?(name, where are they from?) _____

2.) What did you talk about?

3.) What new words or phrases did you learn from this conversation?

4.) How do you feel about the conversation? How was your speaking/listening?

5.) Questions for the teacher:

***Scaffolding L2 Readers:
How Can We Help Them Develop into Autonomous Lifelong Learners?***

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Abstract

A critical component of L2 reading ability is reading fluency. One natural approach to L2 fluency development is to approximate the process of L1 acquisition through exposure to large amounts of comprehensible input, by means of extensive reading (ER), whereby readers are provided with a wide selection of materials in different genres and topics graded in grammar structure and vocabulary. L2 readers are allowed to choose what they read based on their interest and reading proficiency level. Given sufficient comprehensible input, learners will automatize their word recognition skills, and foster their comprehension and ability to use a repertoire of strategies, consequently promoting their L2 acquisition. Many L2 readers, however, still struggle to obtain a sufficient level of input during a typical school language course, and moreover, lack motivation to continue L2 reading and learning after their courses end. One factor is a lack of support in helping readers develop understanding of the process and therefore develop autonomy. Poorer L2 extensive reading performance often indicates that the learner does not know why reading speed is important, what level of books they should read, or how to deal with unknown words in text, causing them often to stop reading and use a dictionary rather than attempting to guess meaning from context. Accordingly, this paper proposes some scaffolding to help struggling L2 readers enjoy their reading, and hopefully to become life-long readers in L2. It includes using an auditory model, repetition in reading, and teaching learners to be responsible for their own learning.

Keywords: Reading Fluency, L2 reading, Scaffolding, e-Learning, Repeated Reading

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1. Introduction

Reading can be a fun and enjoyable activity in a first language (L1). However, for those who read in L2, reading is often more effortful and demanding. The greater ease of reading in L1 ultimately results from a vast amount of language exposure. Extensive reading (ER) offers a way of simulating the L1 reading experience, and providing sufficient exposure to boost L2 readers' fluency and promote their language acquisition; see, for example, the reviews of extensive reading studies by Day (2015) and Nakanishi (2015). Nevertheless, many L2 readers will require some support, or "scaffolding," to derive full benefit from ER. The present paper summarizes the methodology of ER; describes some limitations observed with L2 learners using ER; delimits the types of scaffolding required; and introduces an online resource aiming to help provide some of the necessary scaffolding.

2. Requirements for successful ER implementation

The main requirements for features of successful implementation of ER (e.g. Day and Bamford 1998, pp. 7-8) may be summarized as follows. Firstly, the purpose of reading is explicitly for comprehension and for enjoyment. Secondly, by contrast, the purpose is not to study the language used in the text. Readers may notice new vocabulary and grammar items, but this is a byproduct rather than a primary goal. When unknown words are met, readers are encouraged to guess their meanings, or else to skip them and keep reading with the aim of understanding the main ideas of the text. Thirdly, readers need to be able to choose what they want to read, according to their reading proficiency level and their interest. If the reader finds a text is too hard to understand, or does not interest them very much, they can drop it and choose another one to read. Finally, readers should read as much as possible. Consequently, ER libraries should have a wide variety of reading texts in different genres and topics, and presented in varying levels of vocabulary and grammar structure.

However, in practice, some students do not enjoy ER because of their limited reading fluency. Even if they have chosen an easy text, they do not read much, and when they actually read, their reading is very slow, thus preventing them from achieving an adequate level of comprehension of the text. Thus their reading in L2 is quite laborious and effortful. This lack of reading fluency often traps such students in a so-called "vicious circle" (Nuttall, 1996, p. 127) in which they remain underdeveloped in their reading skills, unmotivated to read, and unable to develop by themselves into capable and independent readers in L2.

Even for some advanced-level readers in L2, low reading fluency still persists as a critical issue preventing such readers from developing an enjoyment of reading independently for fun and for information. It is rare indeed to see L2 readers actually enjoy reading for leisure, e.g. at a café, or on a train. Clearly, L2 reading is still an activity they do not feel as effortless as reading in L1. Ultimately, the difference in ease results from the fact that these readers have experienced vastly more language exposure in their L1 learning compared to L2 learning; and the amount of language exposure determines the degree of automaticity with which they can recognize (or, even better, predict) words in text. Automaticity Theory (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Samuels, 1994) posits that the more attention needed to recognize words in text, the more comprehension will suffer, on the basis that overall processing capacity is

limited, and so attention to word recognition limits attention available for text comprehension.

Oller and Tullius (1973) compared the eye movement patterns of 12,000 English native speakers (in data taken from Taylor 1966) with those of English L2 readers (13 English as a second language (ESL) learners and 18 English as a foreign language (EFL) learners). Their results reveal large differences in eye movement fixation patterns, word span, and reading rate between L1 and L2 readers, all indicating more efficient processing among L1 readers. For example, L2 readers fixate longer than L1 readers. The mean duration time of fixations is significantly longer for English L2 learners (0.28s for both ESL learners and EFL learners) than for native English speakers (0.24s). L2 learners also attend to both content and function words equally, while L1 readers attend more selectively to content words (implying use of prediction or general shape recognition, rather than individual letter recognition, for grammatically-predictable elements and/or for more frequently-experienced word forms). The eye movements involved in reading are too rapid to be a result of conscious control, strongly suggesting that the difference in processing derives from L1 readers' much larger amount of language exposure compared to L2 readers. These differences in processing lead to differences in overall reading speed: mean reading rates are slower for English L2 learners (ESL learners = 239.77 wpm, EFL learners = 182.22 wpm) than for native speakers (280.00 wpm).

So how much exposure do learners need to achieve native-like effortlessness in their language use? Ericsson and Charness (1994) suggest that learners need 10,000 hours of regular, focused practice in some domain to achieve a recognized level of expertise. Native speakers of English will have had this amount of exposure before the age of 4 or 5 (Segalowitz, 2003). By contrast, the amount of exposure which is provided by a 6-year English study at junior and senior high school and 4-year university English classes approximates 736 hours (Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute, 2008). The total amount of time Japanese students invest on their English study varies depending on how many hours they study at home, yet the gap still seems remarkable.

This huge gap in amount of language exposure makes it difficult even for advanced-level L2 readers to enjoy reading after completing their course of study. The process by which L1 readers identify words in text has already become almost automatic. This means they are able to identify words in text without paying much attention to them, thus liberating their attentional resources from that process and enabling them to expend almost all of their attention on comprehending the text. By contrast, L2 readers' word recognition process is often laborious and effortful, reducing the amount of attentional resources available for comprehending the text. This difference in processing ease is a crucial factor explaining why many readers feel much more comfortable when they read in L1 than in L2, and thus why they are more reluctant to read in L2 and, in particular, less likely to find enjoyment in such an activity, or to seek out information through it. Hence many L2 readers are trapped in a vicious circle, in which they do not read fast, and they do not read very much, and thus they do not enjoy themselves reading in L2. For such readers, some form of additional support or scaffolding is needed to help them grow to be able to enjoy extensive reading. Similar assistance may benefit even advanced-level readers in L2 to find enjoyment in reading texts prepared for L2 readers, and also authentic texts

aimed at native speakers.

3. Proposed forms of scaffolding to support L2 reading

Previous research (Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004; Taguchi et al., 2012) has identified two forms of scaffolding as potentially beneficial for L2 reading: the use of repetition, and the use of an auditory reading model.

One very promising approach to build reading fluency in L2 is a method called repeated reading (RR) (Samuels, 1979). Studies on the effect of RR have shown that reading the same text multiple times helps readers accelerate their reading and facilitates their comprehension (Chung, 2012; Chung & Millett, 2013; Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2008; Taguchi & Gorsuch, 2002; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004; Taguchi, Gorsuch, Takayasu-Maass, & Snipp, 2012). In addition, multiple readings help readers become able to distinguish what they have understood in a text from what they have not. Multiple readings further help them become able to deal with the unfamiliar words they encounter in the text. They often guess their meanings from context, judge how important those words are to comprehend the text, and sometimes choose to skip those words, placing more emphasis on comprehending the main ideas (Taguchi et al, 2012).

A second form of scaffolding is to provide readers with an auditory reading model as they read. The auditory reading model is an audio version of text approximating to natural speech rate and provided to the readers while they read the text. Past research findings show that an auditory reading model paces L2 readers' reading. It also facilitates their comprehension. This is especially helpful when the reading passage contains embedded dialogs. The auditory model helps readers comprehend that part of the text (Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004; Taguchi et al, 2012).

4. Our web-based repeated reading program

Over the past few years, my colleagues and I have been developing a web-based repeated reading program with a grant from the Education Ministry of Japan and a special research grant from Daito Bunka University, Japan. In this reading program, specially designed for L2 language teachers, students can do repeated reading online. The platform is simple, yet flexible. Specifically, teachers can decide how many times their students read the text. They can also decide whether to use an auditory model; and, if the auditory model is selected, they can also determine how many readings their students get with the auditory model. In addition, students are provided with some vocabulary and grammar support if they want it, addressing comments from some students in our past studies, who told us (for example) that they would have liked feedback on whether their guessing of unknown words was correct. Although these features are included in the program, teachers can decide whether or not to allow their students to use them. When they do not want it, this support can be switched off, and will then not appear on the menu for students.

This online reading program is a simple platform which is especially designed for L2 teachers and can be used for any language learners. The only resources needed for the program are the text and its accompanying auditory reading model. The content in this program will hopefully be expanded in future to suit different needs of L2 learners,

and to allow L2 learners of any language to use this system free of charge for their reading fluency growth and the target language learning. It is hoped that they will be able to achieve an adequate level of reading fluency, and enjoy reading in L2 through utilizing this system, and thus they will get into a “virtuous circle” in which their reading becomes faster, they read a lot more, and they enjoy reading in L2 more. Once they get into this circle, they will gradually become able to read progressively more difficult texts specially designed for L2 readers, and then can still go further to enjoy authentic texts written for native speakers of the language.

5. How the program works

When students access the project webpage, they will be requested to type in their ID and password to start their RR lessons, as in Figure 1.

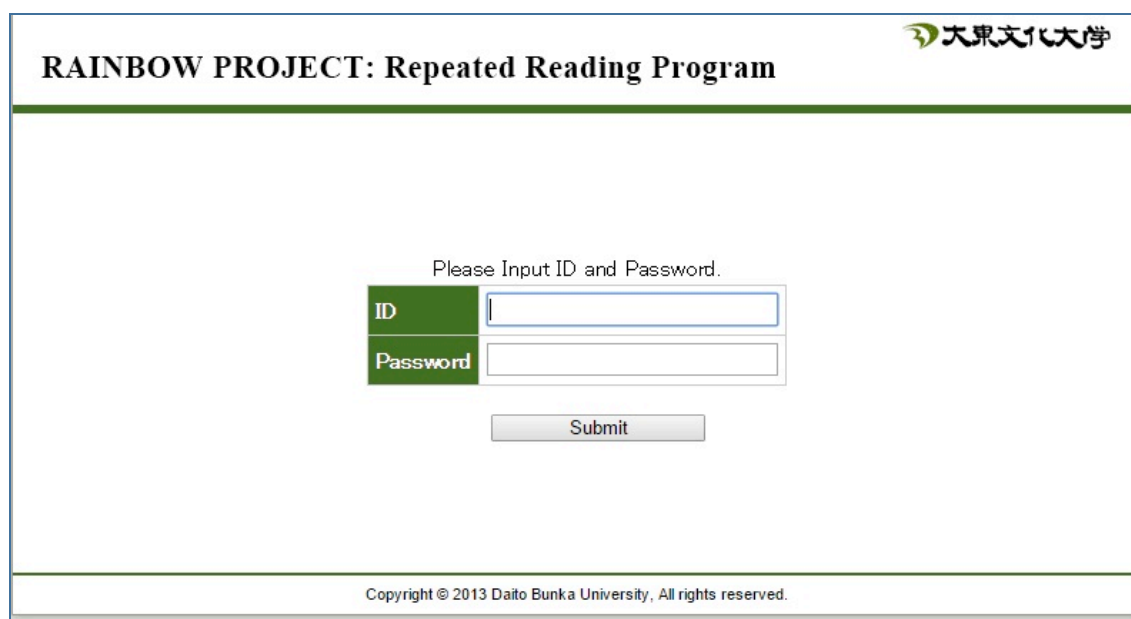



Figure 1: The login screen

After they have typed in their ID and password, the screen in Figure 2 comes up. Below is the typical procedure in which the students follow every step of RR in a session, proceeding in sequence from top to bottom:

A typical procedure of a RR session

1. Students silently read the previous passage (if it is a portion of a story).
2. Students timed their first reading of the passage with a PC timer.
3. Students answer some easy questions about what they have read.
4. Students read the passage while listening to a reading model.
5. Students read the passage silently a few more times while timing their readings.
6. Students write about their reflections on the RR session freely.

RAINBOW PROJECT: Repeated Reading Program



Current session : AN ART LESSON (Session 1)

1. [Read Silently\(1st Timed Reading\)](#)
2. How Well Did You Understand?(1st Check)
3. Read with a Model(1st Untimed reading)
4. Read Silently(2nd Timed Reading)
5. Read Silently(3rd Untimed reading)
6. How Well Did You Understand?(2nd Check)
7. We Support You! (Learn about the Vocabulary, the Grammar, and the Background Information)
8. Summary of Your Test Results
9. Write Your Comments
10. Go on to the Next Session

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Figure 2: A sample RR session menu

At the beginning they read a session passage silently while timing their reading. After that they are required to answer some easy questions about what they have read. This is intended to let them know how well they have read the passage for their initial reading. Then they read the text along with an auditory model. Then they are requested to read a few more times to silently read the passage, while timing their reading. The number of repeated reading iterations with and without an auditory reading model should be determined by teachers, taking account of their students' reading proficiency level and text difficulty.

Teachers are administrators of this system and can customize its features. They can choose whether to use an auditory model and also whether to make vocabulary and grammar support available for their students. They can also decide the number of reading repetitions with and without a reading model. This system can be used for educational and research purposes. For example, it would be interesting to study how an auditory model affects L2 readers' reading behaviors and comprehension. The optimal number of repetitions for different proficiency levels would be another interesting issue to be explored.

We hope that many teachers and students will use this system for building fluency among L2 readers.

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Expressing Jamaican Culture in the foreign language classroom

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

The Japanese course at The University of the West Indies Mona campus started in 1996. In 2014, the students are able to declare Japanese as their minor by completing all six Japanese language courses which are offered by The Department of Modern Languages and Literatures and a history course which is offered by the Department of History and Archaeology. In this paper, I will introduce how we incorporate Jamaican culture in the Japanese language classes and discuss how it affects the students' language proficiency.

Keywords: Course design, Culture, Japanese for specific purposes, Japanese language education in Caribbean countries

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Introduction

The Japanese programme at the Mona campus of The University of the West Indies (UWI) now has about 120 students per semester. This programme is composed of six Japanese language courses within the three-year degree programme of the university delivered annually across two semesters. At present there are three instructors: two native speakers, one of whom is a Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) volunteer, the other of whom is the author of this article, and one non-native speaker. During each semester, three writing examinations, two oral examinations and one listening examination are held. The students must pass each course to continue to the following course.

After attending American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Conference 2007, I realized how important it is to use culture in the language classroom. Before that, the content of our classroom delivery was based upon textbook contents only.

At that time, language proficiency levels for students were set as follows. Upon completion of all six courses (468 hours):

- Writing / Reading : Novice-High to Intermediate-Low
- Speaking/Listening: Intermediate-Low to Intermediate-High

These levels are consistent with those laid out in the *ACTFL PROFICENCY GUIDELINES 2012*.

In Jamaica, most students start learning Japanese language at university as there are no secondary schools that offer Japanese language courses as part of their normal curriculum. This places a natural limit on the time available for Jamaican students to achieve higher-level reading and writing skills. However, Jamaican students have excellent speaking and listening skills. This is possibly connected to the use of Jamaican Creole, called Patois, which is used in various unofficial situation, despite the fact that the official language of Jamaica is (standard) English. For instance, students speak standard English in the class room, but switch to Patois as they chat with their friends upon leaving the classroom. Indeed many of the sounds of Jamaican Patois are similar to sounds in the Japanese language. As a result, speaking and listening targets may be set higher than writing and reading targets.

In Jamaica, the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT) is not available, and students must travel abroad to take it, typically to the USA. The coursework is designed to cover the necessary content for JLPT, however because of the cost of travel it is difficult for the students to take the examination. As there are very few Japanese companies here, it is not realistic for the students to get a job which provides an opportunity to use Japanese language. However, tourism is a large industry in Jamaica, and this opens up potential opportunities for graduates to use their acquired skills. After completing Japanese language courses at UWI, more and more students go to Japan as assistant language teacher (ATL) through the Japan and Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET) or other private English teacher companies. In fact, for

many students, their motivation for studying the Japanese language is to go to Japan to teach English through JET.

Under these circumstances, how we should set goals for the UWI Japanese students? After teaching in Jamaica for long time it is clear that students have a wide ranging passion for and knowledge of Japanese culture, particularly such aspects as anime, manga, music, fashion, history and martial arts. In fact, in the view of the author often students have a greater explicit interest in Japanese culture than in Jamaican culture. This is not specific to either Jamaica or to Japan. It can be argued that local people, regardless of their country of origin, tend to take a less explicit interest in, for example, local tourist attractions than visitors. Moreover, Japanese people often have a fascination for Jamaican culture and Jamaican people in Japan have a lot of opportunity to talk about their home country.

Therefore we set the goals of the Japanese language courses at UWI as follows. *When a student goes to Japan, or sees Japanese people in Jamaica, they will be able to talk about Jamaica in Japanese.* This “CAN-DO” approach was motivated by the JF Standard for Japanese language education by the Japan Foundation.

Course outlines have been rewritten appropriately, to incorporate class activities and tasks focused on Jamaican culture. We now consider several examples.

Second year students

● Activity: explain the meaning of a Patois word in Japanese

Students are asked to choose one word in Patois that is an adjective, and which may not have a direct equivalent in standard English. In the oral exam, they explain the meaning of the word, and construct a short dialogue illustrating how the word is used. Our experience has been that, although the same word is often selected by several students, the oral presentations vary considerably, and very different dialogues result. The native Japanese instructors have learned from the Jamaican instructor that the same word can have different meanings in different parts of Jamaica, and must account for this in the examination. We have found that students select their word carefully and make a special effort to entertain the instructors during the dialogue section.

● Activity: introduce Jamaican Parishes in Japanese

This activity provides students with the opportunity to use the “potential form”. To provide an audience several JICA volunteers, recently arrived in Jamaica, are invited to attend the lesson, where students make a presentation on their assigned parish. Subsequently, in the writing task and oral examination, students must answer the question “If your Japanese friend visits Jamaica, where will you take them?”. The students must consider the destination according to the preference of their Japanese friend.

Third year students

● Activity: introduce Jamaican superstitions in Japanese

The students use the “To conditional form” to introduce Jamaican superstitions in Japanese. For example, it was traditionally believed in Jamaica that if you wash your face in the water used for washing rice you will see a ghost (“duppy” in Patois). Before the courses were revised, students were required to give directions in order to

demonstrate the use of the “To conditional form “. However this is less practical in recent times with the wide availability of GPS smartphones, which allow students to search for directions online. Therefore the task is considered out-dated and has been replaced with this activity.

● *Activity: presentation about selected objects in Jamaica and Japan*

For the final semester of the third year project, the students pick one object they like and research it. They have to research about their selected object both in Jamaica and Japan and make a final oral presentation. The presentation is limited to 15 minutes, though in practice its length depends on the speaker’s proficiency, fast speakers may finish in as little as 7 minutes and slow speakers may require the full 15 minutes to complete the presentation. Students may visual aids. Presentations are followed by a question and answer session, where students answer questions from two instructors.

To develop their presentation, students choose their object in consultation with the instructor, research its history and its present situation both in Jamaica and in Japan, compare and provide a conclusion. Preparation takes place in parallel with the full semester over 13 weeks as normal classes are proceeding. Selected objects tend to be broad categories initially, for example, food or music. The instructor encourages the students to narrow the theme from there.

The following are examples of selections from the past several years.

Beer; Banana; Bus system; Defence forces; Education system; Funeral;
 National flag; River; Tea; Wedding;
 Anansi/ Kappa; Blue mountains/ Mt. Fuji; Cricket / Sumo; Dub / Haiku;
 Gal fashion / Ganguro fashion; Gangsters / Yakuza;
 *Jamaican Chinese New Year / Japanese New Year;
 Pantomime / Kabuki; Reggae / Enka; Rastafarianism / Shinto;
 Scotch bonnet pepper / Wasabi;
 Jamaican Chinese New Year was selected by a Jamaican student of Chinese descent.

If an object exists only in one country but not the other, students are asked to compare two similar objects. For example, Scotch bonnet pepper and Wasabi.

Area for possible future development

In the first semester of the third year, students carry out a project to plan a tour of Japanese city. They pick a Japanese city and plan a three day (two nights) trip which must then be presented to a client. To achieve this, they must research the climate of the city and select the best season for Jamaican tourists, and advice on what to wear. They also must identify famous tourist attractions in the city, and famous local dishes. They research actual transportation fees, accommodation costs, and set the tour price. After the presentation, the students have learned new aspects of Japan, but will have connected those aspects to the needs of the Jamaican client.

In future this project way be adapted so that it is applied to Jamaica, where the students plan a tour of Jamaica for a Japanese client.

The author teaches primarily second and third year students. The cultural tools described in this article are limited to those groups. However there is possibility to spread these activities to first year students.

Finally, those activities are not limited to Japanese language courses, and can be adapted to other foreign languages.

Conclusion

For the past 10 years approximately, Jamaican culture has been used as a pedagogical tool in Japanese language classes targeting second and third year UWI students. Through various projects and activities outlined in this article, the students' oral proficiency is developed. The experience of the instructor is that students enjoy this aspect of the courses. Although this aspect of each course was designed specifically to improve the students' oral and listening skills, it has been our experience that the development of reading and writing proficiency can also benefit through the inclusion of writing tasks that ask the student to summarise the oral presentations, and the need for students to read the Japanese language in order to research their topics.

These activities have had the additional benefit of ensuring that students develop an improved understanding of and perspective on, their own culture. The author has received informal feedback from graduates who went to Japan as ALT indicating that these experiences were very useful to them in that context. We have presented several possible ways that these techniques could be developed further.

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***A Comparative Corpus Study on the Use of
Academic Hedges and Boosters in Applied Linguistics***

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Abstract

Hedges and boosters are two types of linguistically important strategies employed in academic writing. While hedges and boosters have been widely explored, previous studies focus on targeting the use of hedges and boosters in journal articles and conference papers in linguistics, computer engineering, second or foreign language teaching and learning. The investigation of Taiwanese students' academic use of hedges and boosters in Master's theses in applied linguistics has not been fully researched. The purpose of this paper aims to compare how the use of hedges and boosters in Taiwanese graduate students' theses are different from those in native writers' thesis writing. Two corpora were established. The English Native Speaker (NS) corpus was composed of 46 theses written by native graduates in the United States. The English as a Second Language Learner (L2) corpus was built with a collection of Taiwanese graduate students' 46 theses from 10 different universities.

The theoretical framework developed by Hyland (1998a) and Varttala (1998) was adopted. A list of 164 commonly-used hedges and boosters was compiled based on Varttala's (1998) classification of hedges and Hyland's (1998a; 2005) examples of hedges and boosters. The compiled list could be entered into AntConc (Windows 2014), and the major grammatical categories of hedges and boosters employed by L2 writers and native writers in applied linguistics could be derived. The findings are summarized as follows. First, L2 writers use lesser hedges and more boosters than native writers. Second, L2 writers tend to rely heavily on using certain hedges and boosters.

Keywords: academic writing, hedges, boosters

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Introduction

Hedges (i.e., expressions of tentativeness) and boosters (i.e., expressions of certainty) are two types of linguistic resources which have been proved rhetorically important strategies in persuading the readers and have a significance influence on readers (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Durik, Britt, Reynolds, and Storey, 2007). Hedges and boosters have also been perceived as two interactional features used widely by scientific writers to indicate the opposite viewpoints on an issue they address (Hyland, 2005a). Hedges and boosters are employed to signal an author's subjective stance over entire propositions.

Hedges and boosters are prevalent features in academic writing (Hyland, 1998a, 1998b); therefore, it is necessary for the second language learners (L2) to have a better understanding of hedges and boosters. However, mastering the rhetorical strategy is challenging for L2 learners as indicated by many previous studies (e.g. Hyland, 1998a; Chen, 2010). Past research has been conducted to investigate the use of hedges and boosters in abstracts of academic journal articles in applied linguistics (Hu and Cao, 2011), research articles in computer engineering (Zarei and Mansoori, 2011b), and experts' research articles in linguistics (Sultan, 2011). The investigation of Taiwanese graduate students' academic use of hedges and boosters in master's theses in applied linguistics has not been fully explored. In previous studies in applied linguistics, research focus was placed on journal articles and conference papers (e.g., Chen, 2005).

The purpose of the present study aims to gain a deeper understanding of how Taiwanese graduate students employ hedges and boosters in academic writing, and compare how the use of hedges and boosters in Taiwanese graduate students' theses are different from those in native writers' writing.

Conclusion

Previous research indicated that adverbs occurred more often than verbs in students' academic writing when they expressed doubt and certainty (Holmes, 1983; Hyland, 1996a). However, concerning the distribution of hedges by categories, the primary categories of hedges in the native corpus and L2 learner corpus in the present study were the same grammatical category, modal auxiliary, and followed by verbs, rather than adverbs. A possible explanation may be that there were more verbs as hedges included in the compiled list. The least frequent category of hedges appeared to be nouns in the two compiled corpora. Regarding the distribution of boosters by categories, the primary categories of boosters in the native corpus and L2 learner corpus were the same category, verbs, but the second categories in the native and L2 learner corpus were different: the former was adjectives, and the latter was adverbs. In terms of usages of hedges and boosters in L2 graduates' own academic theses, they employed hedges more frequently than boosters from intra-group analysis. However, from inter-group analysis (Figure 1), the L2 graduates tended to use boosters more often compared with the native graduates (Figure 1).

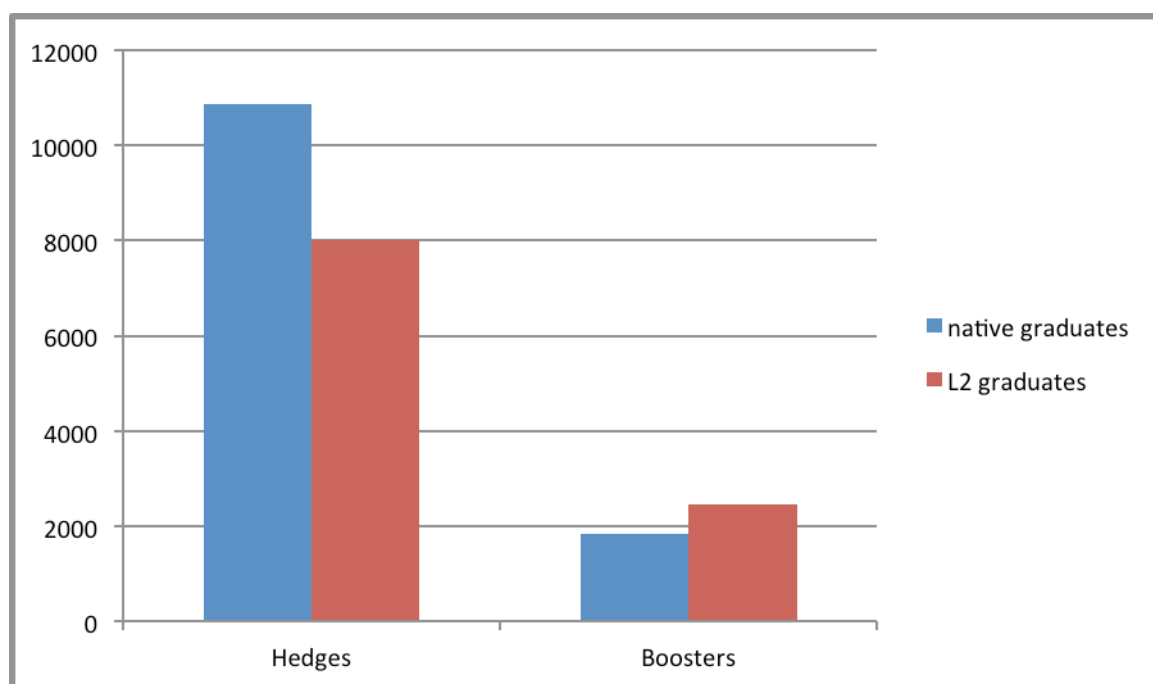


Figure 1. Total numbers of hedges and boosters in both corpora

Previous research indicated that English native authors employed hedges more frequently than Chinese authors. Furthermore, there was significant difference of booster usage between English native writers and Chinese writers. The results of the present study confirm those of Hu and Cao (2011). Past research proposed that Chinese writers appeared to adopt a more indirect writing style when presenting perspectives (Bloch and Chi, 1995). Our findings are consistent with those of the empirical study discussed above. However, there are important differences regarding other aspects of the current study. The current study indicates that Taiwanese L2 graduates employ more boosters than English native writers in academic writing. One possible explanation may be that non-native English graduates are still not familiar with the writing conventions belong to a specific discipline. Another possible reason might be that individual writing style plays a role on L2 graduates' performance of academic writing.

There were considerable similarities of usage such as *would* and *may* among the top six most frequently used hedges or boosters in both native and L2 learner corpora, although with strikingly different frequencies. Both native graduates and L2 graduates made substantial use of modal verbs, particularly *would* and *may* to express uncertainty and tentativeness; the findings are compatible with those of Martin (2008). The past research (Holmes, 1983; Hyland, 1996a) indicated that student writers preferred to use adverbs over verbs as hedges more frequently in their academic writing. In the present study, native writers tended to employ adverbs as hedges in their theses writing, which confirmed Holmes' (1983) and Hyland's (1996a) findings. Nevertheless, the result of present study indicated that L2 writers preferred to use verbs as hedges or boosters in addition to adverbs in their academic writing, which was revealed in Table 4. One possible reason may be that there were more verbs as hedges and boosters included in the compiled list. Past research even demonstrated that native English writers used the strategy of subjectivization (e.g., *I/we think*) very infrequently (Martin, 2008). Nonetheless, the result of the current study exhibited that

both native graduates and L2 graduates preferred to use the colloquial verbs, such as think and know, to express certainty and uncertainty. One possible explanation may be that students tend to adopt an overly spoken style in their English for Academic Purpose (EAP) writing. However, the colloquial verbs appeared more frequently in L2 graduates' academic writings than natives' theses writing, which suggests that L2 graduates still do not differentiate between writing style (formal) and spoken style (informal) clearly.

The results indicated that L2 graduates were less familiar with the academic writing conventions than their native counterparts, which may result from their culture, L1 influence, and the complex nature of modal expression usage. Therefore, teachers should employ explicit teaching to facilitate students to learn how to apply modal verbs as hedges and boosters correctly and appropriately. Teachers should also take students' proficiency level into consideration when teaching students to achieve the rigorous standards of academic writing. The proficiency level of native writers is higher than that of L2 writers. That is, the vocabulary knowledge between native writers and L2 learners is different. English native writers will have more word choices than L2 writers. When native writers attempt to make their assertions, they will choose more appropriate words to correspond to the contexts. Additionally, since hedging and boosters are contextual phenomena, teachers should provide examples with contexts to inform students of the correct usage of a specific word. Furthermore, an overemphasis on the instruction of using only modal verbs as hedges and boosters in textbooks should be noticed, because presenting only certain parts of information to students may lead to misunderstanding as they might think only those limited linguistic devices in the textbooks could be used to express their perspectives.

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***Analyses of Non-Native Preservice English Teachers'
Verbal Interactions on COLT Part B Scheme***

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Abstract

This exploratory case study aimed to identify the characteristics of instruction by non-native preservice English teachers seeking to obtain an English teacher certificate in Japan. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has mandated that the teaching of English should take place principally in English from 2020. This requirement will place greater emphasis on the communicative competence of English teachers. To achieve this goal, considerable empowerment of preservice teachers, who are mostly non-native, and enhancement of their communication abilities in the target language will be required. In the present study, 14 non-native preservice teachers were videotaped over three years while teaching practice lessons (6 with Year 7 students, 8 with Year 8 students). Their classroom utterances were transcribed and analyzed using the categories in Part B of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme, proposed by Spada and Fröhlich (1995). Chi-square tests found significant differences between the two grade levels regarding eight of the 18 features in the COLT Part B scheme. In contrast, there were no significant differences regarding important features such as percentage of target language use and requesting genuine information from students. Analysis of the overall results and grade-level differences indicates the features on which preservice teachers should focus so as to develop their capacity to deliver more interactional and effective English lessons.

Keywords: Preservice teachers, English language instruction, COLT

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Thirty years ago, Japan's Ministry of Education, Sport, Culture, Science and Technology (MEXT) declared that communicative English language teaching would be implemented in public secondary schools (MEXT, 1989). However, after the widespread failure of this effort, MEXT made drastic changes in its 2003 English language education reform plan (MEXT, 2003). The current course of study mandates that English classes should be taught principally in English in the upper secondary grades (MEXT, 2013). This mandate will also be implemented in lower secondary grades (i.e., junior high school) in the next course of study, to be implemented in 2021.

The latest available statistics on junior high school English classes indicate that the following percentage of classrooms in each grade uses L2 (i.e., English) for more than half of the class period: Year 7, 72.3%; Year 8, 70.1%; and Year 9, 66.8% (MEXT, 2014). The most recent progress report stated that only 32% of junior high school English teachers claimed to have English language proficiency at level B2 (upper intermediate) or higher as measured by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (MEXT, 2017). This situation appears far from the proficiency goal stipulated in the 2003 reform plan that required English language teachers to achieve at least 730 of 990 points on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) (MEXT, 2003). MEXT seems to be aware of these issues since it has acknowledged the need to enhance the abilities of secondary school teachers (MEXT, 2014). However, in one study (Katagiri, 2016), the use of L2 among junior high school in-service English teachers was as low as 63.6% of the class in terms of utterances. Thus, efforts to reform English teaching in Japan are still in progress.

1.2 Literature review

In-class observations are a conventional method of enhancing teacher performance. They are intended to facilitate teachers' professional development through the "reflective cycle" (Wallace, 2001, p. 15), in which teachers' reflection on their teaching practices leads to "increased professional knowledge" (Wallace, 2001, p. 48).

Several frameworks have been developed to guide classroom analysis and subsequent reflection. These include the hierarchical classroom discourse structure (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), Flanders's (1970) Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC), the Foreign Language Interaction System or FLint (Wragg, 1971), the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme created by Spada and Fröhlich (1995), and the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk framework proposed by Walsh (2006), to name a few. Most of these classroom analysis schemes involve video-recording and coding of teacher-student interactions, and some of them also require transcriptions of interactions between the teachers and the students.

In the past decade, some researchers in Japan have used the COLT scheme for classroom analysis and have found it to be reliable (Aoki, Ishizuka, Yokoyama, Sakai, & Kawai, 2008). COLT has been further developed since its initial creation to enable coding to be manipulated more easily (Katagiri & Kawai, 2015) and effectively

(Ishizuka & Ohnishi, 2016). Aoki et al. (2008) examined English classes taught by university teachers using the COLT Part B scheme; Katagiri and Kawai (2015) proposed an application of this scheme that uses numerical coding on tabulated forms to analyze teacher–student interactions; and Ishizuka and Ohnishi (2016) synthesized video-recording of the classes with COLT Part A coding on a web-based interface. However, these studies were limited to in-service teachers. Classroom analyses of preservice teachers have rarely been conducted.

1.3 Research questions

The preceding two sections have described the need for further empowerment of English teachers in Japan and the use of an existing classroom analytical framework. As noted, very little work in this regard has involved preservice teachers. Therefore, we posed the following research questions to guide the present study:

1. What classroom verbal interactions do preservice teachers have with their students?
2. How much do preservice teachers use the target language (L2) when teaching English?

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Participants

Fourteen juniors at a national university of education in Japan participated in our study between 2014 and 2016. They attended a five-week teaching practicum between their first and second semesters. As the final phase of this practicum, they completed a teaching demonstration before the mentor English teacher, principal, head teacher, and other preservice teachers attending the practicum. Six of the 14 participants (two males and four females) taught Year 7 students (the first year in junior high school), and the other eight (two males and six females) taught Year 8 students.

2.2 Analysis scheme

We used COLT Part B (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) to analyze the preservice teachers' demonstration classes. COLT Part B requires full transcriptions of teacher and student utterances, which were transcribed on a numerical coding spreadsheet (Katagiri & Kawai, 2015) so that we could quantify the preservice teachers' interactions for the purposes of analysis. Table 1 shows the numerical codings of the teachers' verbal interactions, categorized in accordance with COLT Part B features. COLT Part B consists of six categories, with several features contained in each category. The only category that we did not use, since we considered it to be outside the scope of the present study, was off-task activities, which Spada and Fröhlich (1995, p. 67) defined as “verbal interaction which is unrelated to the activity, episode, or overall lesson.”

According to Spada and Fröhlich (1995), transcriptions should be coded literally. For example, if we are coding a routine teacher interaction such as “Good morning, everyone,” wherein English is the target language (L2), COLT Part B coding would be “L2/minimal.” In the numerical coding, L2 would be coded as 2 and “minimal” as 1. This numerical method enables us to quantify the coding for our statistical analyses, the results of which will be presented later.

Table 1
Numerical Coding of COLT Part B

TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION						
Coding number	Off task	Target language use	Information gap	Sustained speech	Reaction to form/message	Incorporation of student utterances
1	Off task	L1	Giving Info. Predict.	Minimal	Form	Correction
2	---	L2	Giving Info. Unpredict.	Sustained	Message	Repetition
3	---	Mix	Request Info. Pseudo requ.	---	---	Paraphrase
4	---	---	Request Info. Genuine requ.	---	---	Comment
5	---	---	---	---	---	Expansion
6	---	---	---	---	---	Clarif. request
7	---	---	---	---	---	Elab. request

Note. Adapted from Katagiri & Kawai, 2015. Info. = Information; Predict. = Predictable; Requ. = Request; Clarif. = Clarification; Elab. = Elaboration.

2.3 Procedure

Table 2 describes our six-step research procedure.

Table 2
Research Procedure

Step	Description
1	Ask preservice teachers to contribute to the study
2	Videotape English lessons
3	Transcribe verbal interactions
4	Tabulate speech utterances on COLT Part B scheme for numerical coding
5	Conduct chi-square tests
6	Generalize the classroom's interactional characteristics

Note. COLT = Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching observation scheme.

3 Results

3.1 Overview

The results were generated primarily at Step 4. Figure 1 shows a sample transcription of one preservice teacher's utterances and their tabulation on the spreadsheet. In this figure, the teacher's utterances appear in the cells in the first (left) column. Each utterance is numerically coded in the cells that correspond to the COLT Part B

categories. The numerical coding represents features in each category. For example, the first utterance (in the top cell of the first column) has 2 (representing L2, in this case English) under the language use category and 1 (representing “minimal”) in the sustained speech category. These numbers are concatenated as 20100, which means that the preservice teacher utterance “Good morning, everyone” is coded “L2/minimal.”

For ease of quantification of each category, the features in each category were numerically coded as explained in Section 2 above. The numerical coding results were then sorted into two groups by student grade (i.e., Year 7 and Year 8). We conducted chi-square tests to examine the differences between the Year 7 and Year 8 groups regarding the 18 features in the five categories used from the COLT Part B scheme. Eight features in three categories were found to exhibit statistically significant differences, as described below.

			TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION								
			Coding number	Off task	Target language use	Information gap	Sustained speech	Reaction to form/ message	Incorporation of student utterances		
				1	Off task	L1	Giving Info. Predict.	Minimal	Form	Correction	
T (Instructor) / S	Utterances (Teacher and student speech)	Teacher coding representation	2	---	L2	Giving Info.	Sustained	Message	Repetition		
			3	---	Mix	Request	---	---	Paraphrase		
			4	---	---	Request	---	---	Comment		
			5	---	---	---	---	---	Expansion		
			6	---	---	---	---	---	Clarif. request		
			7	---	---	---	---	---	Elab. request		
			<t>	Good morning, everyone.</t>	201000		2		1		
			<sts>	Good morning, Ms.Sato.</sts>	0						
			<t>	How are you today?</t>	241000		2	4	1		
			<sts overlap="yes">	I'm fine.</sts>	0						
			<sts overlap="yes">	I'm sleepy.</sts>	0						
			<t>	How are you today?</t>	241000		2	4	1		
			<sts>	I'm fine.</sts>	0						
<sts>	I'm sleepy.</sts>	0									
<t>	Fine, sleepy...</t>	201202		2		1	2	2			
<t>	So, did you enjoy yesterday?</t>	1211200		1	2	1	1	2			
<t>	Did you enjoy?</t>	1211200		1	2	1	1	2			
<t>	So, this is first period.</t>	201000			2		1				
<t>	So, let's enjoy English class, okay?</t>	201000			2		1				
<t>	So, first, what's the date today?</t>	211000			2	1	1				
<t>	What's the date today?</t>	211000			2	1	1				
<sts overlap="yes">	It's September 23rd.</sts>	0									
<t overlap="yes">	It's September 23rd.</t>	211102			2	1	1	1	2		
<t>	Yes, September 23rd.</t>	211102			2	1	1	1	2		
<t>	Okay, what's...what day is it today?</t>	211000			2	1	1				
<t>	What day is it today?</t>	211000			2	1	1				
<sts overlap="yes">	It's Friday.</sts>	0									
<t overlap="yes">	It's Friday.</t>	211102			2	1	1	1	2		
<t>	Yes, it's Friday.</t>	211102			2	1	1	1	2		
<t>	Okay, Friday.</t>	211000			2	1	1				
<t>	And look outside.</t>	201000			2		1				
<t>	How is the weather now?</t>	211000			2	1	1				
<sts overlap="yes">	It's rainy.</sts>	0									
<t overlap="yes">	It's...</t>	201102			2		1	1	2		
<t>	Yes, it's rainy.</t>	211102			2	1	1	1	2		
<t>	Do you remember the last class?</t>	201000			2		1				
<t>	We learned about weather.</t>	211000			2	1	1				

Figure 1. Tabulated transcription sample (sorted) with numerical COLT Part B coding. Only the teacher utterances were extracted from the transcription. See the Appendix for a full sample with the students' utterances included.

3.2 Target language use

The first category examined was *target language use*. This category contains three features: L1 (Japanese language in this study), L2 (English language), and Mix (mixture of both L1 and L2 observed in an utterance). We compared the number of utterances for the 14 preservice teachers (six for Year 7 students, eight for Year 8 students). Table 3 shows the results of the utterance summary and of the chi-square tests based on these utterances.

Preservice teachers' use of the target language seemed to be equally distributed between the Year 7 and Year 8 groups. The uses of L1, L2, and Mix ranged from 43.2% to 44.2%, 41.9% to 46.9%, and 9.9% to 13.8%, respectively. The chi-square tests yielded no significant results.

Table 3

Summary of Target Language Use and Chi-square Test Results

Feature	Target language occurrences (%)			
	Year 7 (<i>n</i> = 6)	Year 8 (<i>n</i> = 8)	<i>p</i> value	<i>M</i>
L1	1,395 (43.2)	1,215 (44.2)	.5000	1,305 (43.7)
L2	1,513 (46.9)	1,151 (41.9)	.3341	1,332 (44.6)
Mix	319 (9.9)	380 (13.8)	.2617	349.5 (11.7)

Notes. Year 7 and Year 8 represent the first and second years in junior high school, respectively. L1 = Japanese; L2 = English.

3.3 Information gap

The second COLT Part B category examined was *information gap*. Table 4 shows the results. As the first column shows, this category consists of two parts: *giving information* (utterances such as lecturing and answering questions) and *requesting information* (utterances that ask questions to check the students' understanding and elicit responses from them). Furthermore, each of these two subcategories is classified into two features on the basis of whether the information given is predictable and whether the information requested is "pseudo" (i.e., meant to elicit already-known answers from the students) or genuinely pertinent to the discussion. Thus, the information gap category has four features.

Table 4

Summary of Information Gap and Chi-square Test Results

Category	Feature	Information gap occurrences (%)			
		Year 7 (<i>n</i> = 6)	Year 8 (<i>n</i> = 8)	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>
Give info.	Predictable	1,038 (44.4)	1,131 (54.9)	.1817	1,084.5(49.3)
	Unpredictable	941 (40.3)	526 (25.5)	.0408	733.5 (33.4)
Request info.	Pseudo	198 (8.5)	228 (11.1)	.0800	213.0 (9.7)
	Genuine	160 (6.8)	176 (8.5)	.2066	168.0 (7.6)

Notes. Year 7 and Year 8 represent the first and second years in junior high school, respectively. Info. = information.

Of the four features, *unpredictable* in the *giving information* category revealed a statistically significant difference on the chi-square test ($p = .0408$), with Year 7 teachers giving a greater amount of unpredictable information. The other three features did not have statistically significant differences.

3.4 Sustained speech

The third category examined, *sustained speech*, contains two features depending on the length of each utterance. *Minimal* speech ranges from one word up to two main clauses of sentences, whereas *sustained* speech refers to longer utterances consisting of at least three clauses or sentences. Table 5 summarizes the utterance count and the chi-square test results.

Most of the preservice teachers' utterances were coded as minimal (92.7% of Year 7 utterances and 83.0% of the Year 8 utterances). The chi-square test identified no significant difference between age groups regarding this statistic, but there was significantly more sustained speech in the Year 8 classes ($p = .0320$). These results imply that preservice teachers are likely to adjust their speech in accordance with the higher student proficiency levels in Year 8 classes relative to Year 7 classes.

Table 5

Summary of Sustained Speech and Chi-square Test Results

Feature	Sustained speech occurrences (%)		p	M
	Year 7 ($n = 6$)	Year 8 ($n = 8$)		
Minimal	2,877 (92.7)	2,277 (83.0)	.2727	2,577 (88.2)
Sustained	227 (7.3)	465 (17.0)	.0320	346 (11.8)

Note. Year 7 and Year 8 represent the first and second years in junior high school, respectively.

3.5 Reaction to form/message

The next category examined was *reaction to form or message*. This category distinguishes two features that signify whether language teachers are focusing on the form of the language they are teaching or the message that the language conveys in communication. Form refers to “the linguistic form (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)” and *message* to “the meaning/content of the preceding utterances” (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 23). Table 6 summarizes the occurrences of the two features and the chi-square test results.

Table 6

Summary of Reaction to Form/Message and Chi-square Test Results

Feature	Reaction to form/message occurrences (%)		p	M
	Year 7 ($n = 6$)	Year 8 ($n = 8$)		
Form	1,026 (66.6)	1,011 (73.2)	.4648	1,018.5 (69.7)
Message	515 (33.4)	371 (26.8)	.2175	443 (30.3)

Note. Year 7 and Year 8 represent the first and second years in junior high school, respectively.

The chi-square tests showed no significant difference between Year 7 and Year 8 teachers regarding either form or message. The mean usage percentages were 69.7% for form and 30.3% for message. The preservice teachers focused twice as much on form as on message when teaching Year 7 students, and this ratio became even more imbalanced in Year 8.

3.6 Incorporation of student utterances

The final category examined was *incorporation of student utterances*. This category contains seven features that describe how teachers react to the preceding student utterances. Table 7 shows the utterance count for each feature and the chi-square results, which reveal significant differences for all seven features except *correction* ($p = .1124$). The six features with significant differences were *repetition* ($p = .0000$), *paraphrase* ($p = .0261$), *comment* ($p = .0280$), *expansion* ($p = .0000$), *clarification request* ($p = .0059$), and *elaboration request* ($p = .0000$). Among these six features, only clarification requests decreased from Year 7 to Year 8; the other five features had significant increases.

Table 7

Summary of Incorporation of Student Utterances and Chi-square Test Results

Feature	Occurrences of incorporation of student utterances (%)		p	M
	Year 7 ($n = 6$)	Year 8 ($n = 8$)		
Correction	790 (64.1)	840 (57.1)	.1124	815.0 (60.3)
Repetition	95 (7.7)	162 (11.0)	.0000	128.5 (9.5)
Paraphrase	8 (0.6)	19 (1.3)	.0261	13.5 (1.0)
Comment	291 (23.6)	340 (23.1)	.0280	315.5 (23.4)
Expansion	13 (1.1)	45 (3.1)	.0000	29.0 (2.1)
Clarification request	16 (1.3)	4 (0.3)	.0059	10.0 (0.7)
Elaboration request	6 (0.5)	47 (3.2)	.0000	26.5 (2.0)

Note. Year 7 and Year 8 represent the first and second years in junior high school, respectively.

4. Discussion

The present study was guided by two research questions. Using the COLT Part B coding scheme, we quantified the utterances of preservice teachers as they taught demonstration lessons at a teaching practicum. We analyzed the preservice teachers' performance by student level (Year 7 or Year 8) and conducted chi-square tests. Where statistical differences are found between the two groups, we can conclude that these aspects of preservice teachers' verbal interactions with their students tend to change as students progress from Year 7 to Year 8. Where no statistical differences exist between student years, we can generalize interaction characteristics of the preservice teachers by drawing conclusions from the combined data for all 14 participants.

Therefore, the following sections address the research questions while remaining attentive to the existence (in eight features) or nonexistence (in 10 features) of

statistical differences between student levels. Research question 1 is answered by the results in the last four categories of the COLT Part B scheme (Figure 1), which elucidate overall interactional characteristics of the preservice teachers; research question 2 is answered by the results in the first category, *target language use*.

RQ1. What classroom verbal interactions do preservice teachers have with their students?

For the features with non-significant differences, mean ratios derived from the utterances of all 14 teachers provide an overview of their verbal interactions. Seven features in four categories will be used to answer RQ1. Figures 2 through 5 depict the generalizations.

In the information gap category, only the feature on giving unpredictable information had significant differences between student years. Overall, half of the utterances were categorized as giving predictable information (Figure 2), meaning that the preservice teachers' utterances frequently consisted of lecturing, answering questions, and giving feedback. Asking questions totaled 17.3% of utterances.

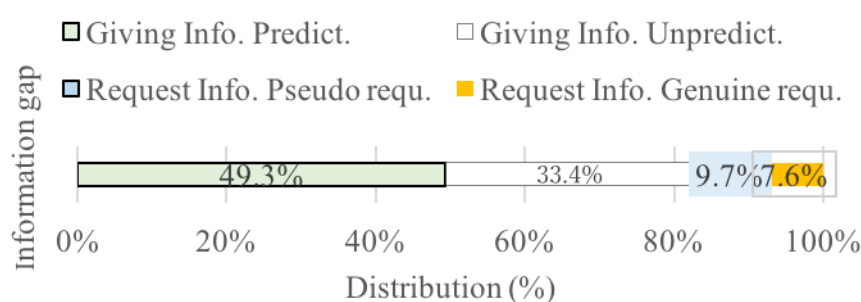


Figure 2. Information gap interaction patterns of preservice teachers (Years 7 and 8 combined).

The preservice teachers were much more likely to provide information than to ask questions when speaking. However, they used significantly fewer unpredictable informational utterances when teaching Year 8 students, implying that the range of communication topics with that grade level was less wide.

Figure 3 shows the sustained speech characteristics of the preservice teachers. Minimal speech (i.e., utterances containing fewer than three main clauses or sentences) represented nearly 90% of all speech instances. However, the teachers incorporated sustained utterances more often with Year 8 students (Table 5), suggesting that they considered the development of longer discourses more achievable with this grade level.

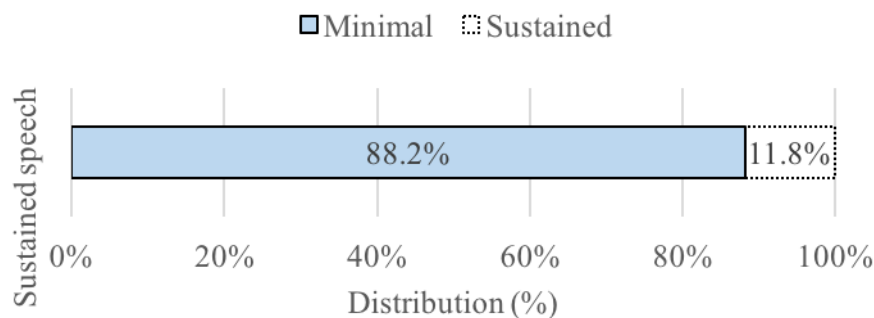


Figure 3. Sustained speech patterns of preservice teachers (Years 7 and 8 combined).

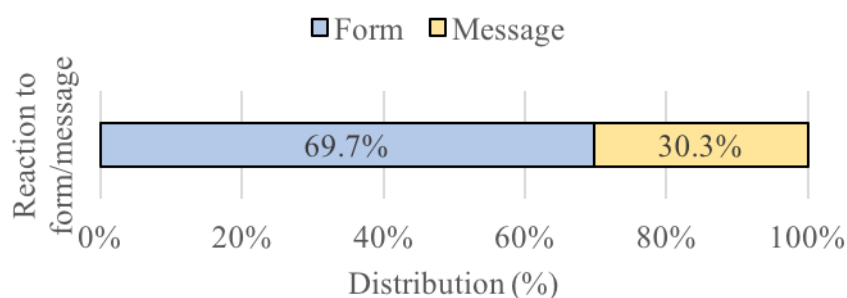


Figure 4. Reaction to form/message interaction patterns of preservice teachers (Years 7 and 8 combined).

Figure 4 shows the speech characteristics of the preservice teachers in the COLT scheme category of reaction to form or message. The two features in this category did not reveal statistically significant differences by grade level. Overall, the preservice teachers spent approximately 70% of their utterances teaching the form of the English language.

The final COLT category used to answer the first research question was the preservice teachers' *incorporation of student utterances* (Figure 5). This category stands out from the others because there were statistically significant differences between grade levels on six of the seven features.

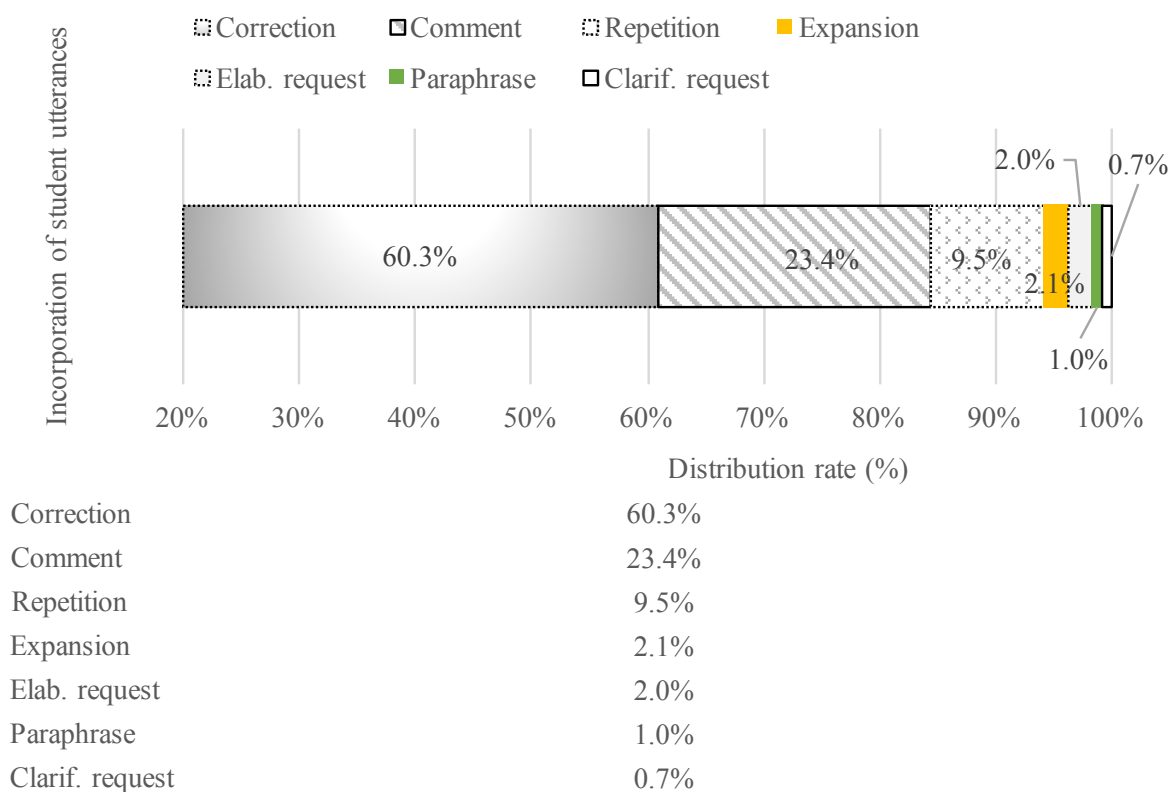


Figure 5. Patterns of incorporation of student utterances among preservice teachers (Years 7 and 8 combined).

Although occurrences of correction (60.3%) dominate this category, the other features present evidence of an increase in pedagogically beneficial interactions with Year 8 students. When teaching Year 8 students, preservice teachers (relative to those teaching Year 7 students) provided the following:

- (1) less unpredictable information,
- (2) more sustained speech,
- (3) more repetition in incorporation of student utterances,
- (4) more paraphrase,
- (5) more comment,
- (6) more expansion, and
- (7) more elaboration request.

All of these contribute to developing longer discourse, which reflects “increased development of learners’ utterances in classroom conversation” (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 24).

When teaching Year 8 students, preservice teachers also communicated significantly fewer clarification requests, indicating that the clarity of students’ utterances had improved beyond that of Year 7 students.

In summary, we can answer the first research question by concluding that the preservice teachers adjusted their interactional patterns with the students to develop longer classroom discourse, partly by incorporating student utterances that preceded the preservice teachers' utterances. However, the preservice teachers are prone to focusing more on form and on predictable features so that their students can acquire aspects of the English language, rather than trying to engage in more realistic communicative interactions typified by genuine questions and the delivery of unpredictable information. They tend to rely more heavily on stylized exchanges than on original discussion of real-life topics.

RQ2. How much do preservice teachers use the target language (L2) when teaching English?

Table 3 did not show any significant differences in language use patterns between the Year 7 and Year 8 preservice teachers. Thus, we can answer this research question by examining the overall percentages, presented in Figure 6.

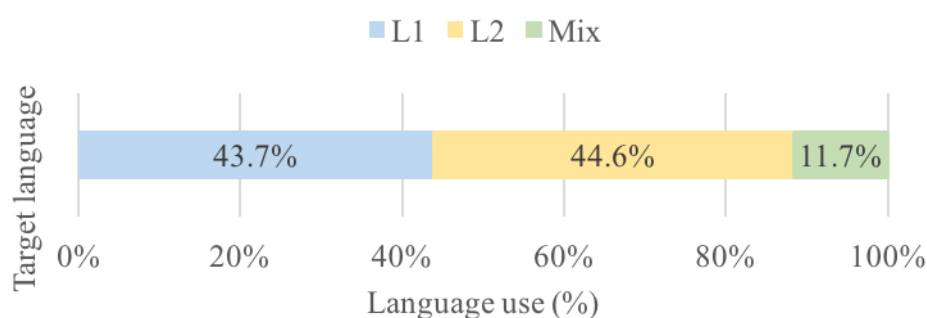


Figure 6. Ratios of language use of the preservice teachers.

The two languages were used almost equally: 43.7% for Japanese and 44.6% for English. This proportion of L2 use is less than the 63.6% ratio reported in the literature (Katagiri, 2016). Even if all the mixed utterances could be developed into the entire use of L2, the L2 use percentage would be only 56.3%, still well below the typical practice of in-service teachers.

4. Conclusion

4.1 Implications for pedagogy

On the basis of the study findings, we propose that to empower non-native preservice teachers of English, particularly those planning to teach students in Years 7 and 8, it is important to encourage them to take the following steps:

- (1) increase the number of utterances providing unpredictable information,
- (2) adjust utterances to more sustained ones,
- (3) focus more on the message rather than on form, and
- (4) incorporate student utterances such as paraphrase, expansion, clarification requests, and elaboration.

Preservice teachers should also be encouraged to use L2 more heavily to generate more student responses in the target language. The steps above will be beneficial to non-preservice teachers of English in enhancing the potential to teach principally in English when we envisage that the next course of study will mandate the use of L2 (English) as a means of instruction even in junior high schools.

4.2 Limitations

The present research has at least three limitations. First, the study covered only the first two years of junior high school. It would have been helpful to collect data from participants teaching Year 9, the final year of junior high school, as well. The lack of Year 9 data limits our ability to generalize from the preservice teachers' English classroom utterances.

The second limitation relates to the reliability of the data. We assumed that all the participants taught virtually the same portion of the English language textbooks because they attended their teaching practicum at roughly the same time during the school year, that is, between late August and the end of September. However, since the preservice teachers completed their practicum at various junior high schools, the materials might not have been identical, and this variation may possibly have affected their choice of language and other aspects of their interaction with students.

Third, the participants' teaching styles may have varied. We can safely assume that all the junior high schools where they performed their practice teaching were subject to the government-mandated course of study. However, since preservice teachers are usually supervised by in-service mentors, each mentor may have influenced the specific ways in which the preservice teachers taught—for example, with regard to target language use or the application of teaching styles such as task-based, grammar-based, and communication-based styles. It was not possible for us to control for these variables.

4.3 Further research

In the future, we intend to continue collecting classroom data from preservice teachers, especially those working with Year 9 students. Our ongoing accumulation of English classroom discourse data will enable us to generalize more broadly with regard to preservice teachers' classroom speech characteristics.

Second, since analyzing classroom speech involves transcribing both teacher and student utterances, the transcribed data could be compiled into a preservice English teacher classroom corpus. Creating a spoken corpus consisting of classroom data from non-native preservice teachers of English in Japan would provide useful information for researchers, teacher trainers, and policymakers in this country. This would be a time-consuming effort, but we consider it justifiable because of its potential value.

Finally, although the RQ2 did not focus on the L1 use, it could be useful to analyze the L1 speech of the preservice teachers. One possible procedure to conduct such research has been inspired by Katagiri (2016), who argued for the feasibility of increasing L2 use in foreign language classes by making broader use of L1 translated into L2. If we examine the preservice teachers' L1 by translating it into L2, we might

find results similar to Katagiri's, which could also contribute to empowering preservice teachers and enhancing their ability to speak more extensively in L2 while teaching.

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Appendix.

Tabulated transcription sample of teacher and student interactions with numerical COLT Part B coding

			TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION						
			Coding number	Off task	Target language use	Information gap	Sustained speech	Reaction to form/ message	Incorporation of student utterances
				1	Off task	L1	Giving Info. Predict.	Minimal	Form
T (Instructor) / S	Utterances (Teacher and student speech)	Teacher coding representation	2	---	L2	Giving Info.	Sustained	Message	Repetition
			3	---	Mix	Request	---	---	Paraphrase
			4	---	---	Request	---	---	Comment
			5	---	---	---	---	---	Expansion
			6	---	---	---	---	---	Clarif. request
			7	---	---	---	---	---	Elab. request
			<t>	Good morning, everyone.</t>	201000		2		1
<sts>	Good morning, Ms.Sato.</sts>	0							
<t>	How are you today?</t>	241000		2	4	1			
<sts overlap="yes">	I'm fine.</sts>	0							
<sts overlap="yes">	I'm sleepy.</sts>	0							
<t>	How are you today?</t>	241000		2	4	1			
<sts>	I'm fine.</sts>	0							
<sts>	I'm sleepy.</sts>	0							
<t>	Fine, sleepy...</t>	201202		2		1	2	2	
<t>	So, did you enjoy yesterday?</t>	1211200	1	2	1	1	2		
<t>	Did you enjoy?</t>	1211200	1	2	1	1	2		
<t>	So, this is first period.</t>	201000		2		1			
<t>	So, let's enjoy English class, okay?</t>	201000		2		1			
<t>	So, first, what's the date today?</t>	211000		2	1	1			
<t>	What's the date today?</t>	211000		2	1	1			
<sts overlap="yes">	It's September 23rd.</sts>	0							
<t overlap="yes">	It's September 23rd.</t>	211102		2	1	1	1	2	
<t>	Yes, September 23rd.</t>	211102		2	1	1	1	2	
<t>	Okay, what's...what day is it today?</t>	211000		2	1	1			
<t>	What day is it today?</t>	211000		2	1	1			
<sts overlap="yes">	It's Friday.</sts>	0							
<t overlap="yes">	It's Friday.</t>	211102		2	1	1	1	2	
<t>	Yes, it's Friday.</t>	211102		2	1	1	1	2	
<t>	Okay, Friday.</t>	211000		2	1	1			
<t>	And look outside.</t>	201000		2		1			
<t>	How is the weather now?</t>	211000		2	1	1			
<sts overlap="yes">	It's rainy.</sts>	0							
<t overlap="yes">	It's...</t>	201102		2		1	1	2	
<t>	Yes, it's rainy.</t>	211102		2	1	1	1	2	
<t>	Do you remember the last class?</t>	201000		2		1			
<t>	We learned about weather </t>	211000		2	1	1			

This figure shows a sample tabulated transcription of teacher and student interactions with numerical COLT Part B coding. The lines shaded in gray are identical to those in Figure 1. The first and second columns signify a speaker's combinations (either <t> for a teacher or <sts> for students) and utterances.



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