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Table of Contents

A Move Analysis of the "About Us" Page on University Engineering Websites

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Abstract

This study investigated the rhetorical structure of the "About Us" page on North American universities' engineering website based on move analysis developed by Swales (1990). Promotional genres tend to promote products for potential audiences as communicative purposes. The university "About Us" page is considered as one type of promotional genres (Bhatia, 2004). It aims at attracting future students who are interested in studying engineering by providing a variety of information and therefore promotes its professional image. The samples of the "About Us" page were collected from the top 20 engineering websites in North American universities listed on the QS Top University's World University Ranking 2013 by Engineering and Technology. Two coders, the researcher and a graduate student, hand-coded the "About Us" pages and identified a seven-move structure. They are Self-promotion, Mission statement, Status quo of college, Vision statement, Source of consultation, Invitation, and Giving extra details of college.

Keywords: (move analysis, North America, "About Us", promotional genres, engineering Website)

Introduction

Globalization and internationalization have led higher educational institutions (HEIs) to strengthen their marketing and recruiting strategies in order to stay internationally competitive for potential students (Yang, 2013). In countries such as Canada, the USA, Australia and the UK where English is the major language, the higher education (HE) market is already instituted as a global phenomenon (Yang, 2013). A common way for HEIs to promote themselves is by marketization strategies in hopes to reach a larger international HE market (Hemsley-Brown, 2006). Therefore, HE is now seen as a product – tailor-made, commercially publicized and sold to students, their prospective customers (Fairclough, 1993). This transition has transformed the way language is used in both public and academic settings (Yang, 2013). Additionally, it means that language researchers must also be concerned about how marketization and promotional culture can impact HE discourse(Xiong, 2012).

'Promotional' or 'consumer' culture, as pointed out by (Wernick, 1991) and (Featherstone, 1991), is the primary trait of contemporary culture. This culture could be realized in discursive practices as sticky with an obvious communicative function, i.e. to promote (Yang, 2013). This is because of the salience of promotion increasingly as a communicative function (Yang, 2013). Moreover, multi-functioned genre-mixing, for example, combining the purposes of information, persuasion and promotion can occur appropriately without misinterpreting the communication role (Yang, 2013). Therefore, it is now common to see advertising elements in academic settings. An area of discourse that has become the most versatile and rapidly developing among promotional genres is promotional language (Bhatia, 2005).

This study investigated the rhetorical structure of the "About Us" page on North American universities' engineering website based on move analysis developed by Swales (1990) They usually use this page to give briefly introduction to the future students to promote their own college. They offer their advantages and outstanding performances to capture future students' attention.

Literature review

Move analysis

Swales (1990) defined move analysis as a functional unit in a content for an identifiable purpose, and it is commonly used to find the textual regularities in particular genres of writing and also to explain the functions that certain parts of the content realizes in the relationship to the whole task (Connor, Davis, & De Rycker, 1995). Move types that occur more frequently than others in a genre can be classified as conventional, while moves that occur not as frequently can be classified as optional. Moves may include various elements, and are realized when these elements come together in some combination. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), a ‘move’ is a unit that connects the writer’s purpose and the extent that the writer desires to communicate; a ‘step’ is a text unit that is lower in level than the move that gives an elaborate view on the choices the writer has to start the moves in the introduction . In short, moves serve as semantic and functional units of texts, and they have their own specific communicative purposes.

Promotional genre

The university prospectus is a corporate genre in academic institutions (Fairclough, 1993). Respectively, apart from offering information on the heart of the business of the educational institution, (i.e. the academic programs), the prospectus contains information on other features of the EI. Through critical discourse analysis of prospectuses from a collection of British EIs, Fairclough states that these EIs began publicizing their programs due to an increase in pressure to function similar to other businesses that are competing to sell their merchandise to consumers. The university prospectus is becoming a ‘genre of client advertising colonizing professional and social service structure of discourse on a large scope, producing many hybrid promotional genre partially ’ (Fairclough, 1993).

Promotional leaflets (Osman, 2005) are published and circulated in academic institutions in Malaysia, especially before a new academic year starts, to advertise their academic programs to potential students. These leaflets are colorful and interesting, and no longer plain or boring information sheets. This research agrees with Askehave and Swales (2001) that corporate brochures operate as promotional brochures beyond projecting the image of the corporate and offering information. Therefore, the purpose of this article attempted to examine and explain the strategies that understand the promotional functions in this kind of brochure in EIs.
Additionally, Osman (2008) investigated the rhetorical structure of university brochures. Osman used Bhatia’s (1993) genre analytical framework lead by sociolinguistic perspectives to study the communication strategies in university brochures. She also agrees with Askehave and Swales (2001) point that a more communicative function of the brochure is to promote the self aside from the axiomatic functions of offering information and projecting pictures. Furthermore,

Osman (2008) stated that there is a lack of research examining the promotional genres of EIs and requests for more of such studies. She identified ten moves in university brochures, 1) Identifying the service; 2) Attracting reader attention; 3) Targeting the market; 4) Establishing credentials; 5) Location the service; 6) Describing the service; 7) Justifying the service; 8) Indicating the value of service; 9) Endorsing the value of service; 10) Soliciting response. Between brochures and "About Us" page has overlapping communicative purpose. The function of these moves makes it as a promotional genre; however, in "About Us" page as well.

In this study, "About Us" section of college of Engineering belongs to promotional genre. The goal for "About Us" section promoted by colleges themselves, and they used text in "About Us" to attract future students to choose their university in the future. However, in promotional genres, few researchers investigate "About Us" section in website of college of Engineering and Technology in North America. The research questions in this study are:

1) What is the rhetorical structure of the "About Us" page of college of Engineering website?
2) How is the rhetorical structure of the "About Us" page of college of Engineering website patterned in terms of move types?

Methodology

Date collection

The data collected 20 "About Us" pages in College of Engineering websites in North America Universities. The 20 pages were selected from QS World University Rankings by Faculty 2013 - Engineering and Technology. Colleges use different ways to display their "About Us" page using prose, lists (e.g., Harvard University: *http://www.seas.harvard.edu/about-seas*), links (e.g., University of Florida: *http://www.eng.ufl.edu/about*), or the Dean's message (e.g., Princeton University: *http://www.princeton.edu/engineering/about/deans-note/*). But we only selected prose as the form – all details in one web page – to analyze "About Us". However, the other forms (i.e., lists, links and Dean's message) did not offer enough descriptions; hence, we excluded them. Furthermore, each college may chose a different name for their "About Us" page, such as "Introduction", "Overview", "About" or "About Us". These page names are all recognized as "About Us" in this paper.

Data Analysis Procedure

This study was examined by move analysis, and used functional approach to analyze calls for cognitive judgment. In addition, it identified the rhetorical structures and investigated communicative purpose of each move.

In this study, a structural move analysis was coded by two coders, including the author. The other coder was a graduate student in the same department with the author. Before coding, the author trained the other coder to understand the coding definition; therefore, allowing two coders to be able to obtain better agreement. Two coders hand-coded twenty “About Us” pages separately, and identified the moves and steps. The two coders had three meetings to negotiate to get higher agreement. We used percent agreement to calculate the inter-rater reliability. The result of the inter-rater reliability is 82.3%.

Rasmeenin (2006) divided the frequency of moves into three parts, obligatory, conventional, or optional. He also classified the percentage for each move type: *Obligatory move, 100%; Conventional move, 66-99%; and Optional move, below 66 %*. Nodoushan (2012) also used Rasmeenin’s rational to identify the frequency of move in the book review genre. Furthermore, Kanoksilapatham (2005) identified the rhetorical move in biochemistry research articles, and he also determined the frequencies of each move. However, he only applied two classifications, *conventional move, 60%* and *optional, below 60%.*

In these studies I reviewed, I did not find any particular standard rational built in the past. In addition, in their rational, the range of each move frequency seemed a little broad; therefore, we made an adjustment to specify the frequency of move percentage and use more appropriate frequency to investigate our data in this study. Hence, I adjusted the frequency range based on the normal distribution curve. It may avoid human bias and the result will be more reliable.

The definition of these three classifications were used

- *Obligatory move:* 97.8% to 100%
- *Higher-Conventional move*: 84.2% to 97.7%
- *Lower-Conventional move:* 50% to 84.1%
- *Optional move:* less than 50%

Table 1 displays that Framework for the analysis of move of the "About Us" page in the College of Engineering website in North America Universities.

Move/ Step	Definition
Move 1: Self-promotion	Using impressive advantages to catch future student's attention
Step 1. Short background/ history of college	Giving brief introduction of college
Step 2. Show distinctive feature of college	Showing extraordinary features of the college to future students to impress them to choose their college.
Move 2: Mission statement	Giving purpose of the college and gives specific goals
Step 1. Show the purpose of college	Understanding what exactly the college does and offers
Step 2. Illustrate the ability they will train to the future student	Assuring future students the education and skills they will acquire at college
Step 3. Give specific goals	Providing clear details about what future students will learn.
Move 3: Status quo of college	Understanding the situation of the college
Step1. Fact & Figure (E.g. Members, ranking, equipment and programs)	Providing more detailed information about the college
Move 4: Vision statement	Showing the attitude and skills of the college
Step 1. Show the professional skills of college	Showing the college is qualified to train their students
Step 2. Show the contribution of college to industry	Showing cooperation with other industries
Step 3. Give more testimony	Identifying the college as competent
Move 5: Source of consultation	Showing strong human resources of the college
Move 6: Giving extra details of college	Giving links to link information about the college
Move 7: Invitation	Inviting students to join their college

Results and Discussion

This study serves to bridge the gap discussed above by examining the contexts and the rhetorical features of the genre of “About Us”. “About Us” shares something in common with other promotional genres such as brochures (Hu & Soong, 2007), corporate advertising (Osman, 2008) and academic posts(Xiong, 2012).

This study identified a seven move structure. Move 1 is high-conventional. Move 2 to Move 4 are low-conventional. Move 5 to Move 7 are optional. To facilitate understanding and discussion of the results in the subsequent sections, the following examples and frequency of occurrence (Table 2) for each move and step are described:

Table 2 The Frequency of Move & Step

Move/ Step	Frequency of occurrence (%)	Numbers of occurrence
Move 1. Self-promotion	**90%**	**N=18**
Step 1. Short background/ history of college	58%	
Step 2. Show distinctive feature of college	42%	
Move 2. Mission statement	**70%**	**N=14**
Step 1. Show the purpose of college	38%	
Step 2. Illustrate the abilities they will train to future students	38%	
Step 3. Give specific goals	25%	
Move 3. Status quo of college	**60%**	**N=12**
Move 4. Vision statement	**50%**	**N=10**
Step 1. Show the professional skills of college	43%	
Step 2. Show the contribution of college to Industry	38%	
Step 3. Give more testimony	19%	
Move 5. Source of consultation	**20%**	**N=4**
Move 6. Give extra details of college	**30%**	**N=6**
Move 7. Invitation	**20%**	**N=4**

Note: N=20

Move 1: Self-promotion shows their advantages and impressive history to attract the attention of future students. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 1is 90%. Move Classification identified is higher-conventional.

Step 1 Short background/ history of college gives brief introduction of college.

Move 1, Step 1: Short background/ history of college

> *"Berkeley Engineering is a community that is dedicated to creating tomorrow's leaders and supporting today's pioneers. Students and researchers from around the world are drawn to Berkeley by its outstanding reputation, its internationally recognized faculty and its strong tradition of impact in research and teaching."*

Step 2 Show distinctive feature of college shows extraordinary features of the college to future students to impress them to choose their college.

Move 1, Step 2: Show distinctive feature of college

> *"The faculty, students and alumni of Stanford Engineering have established thousands of companies and laid the technological and business foundations for Silicon Valley."*

> *"Earlier Berkeley engineers brought water to California's great agricultural lands, pioneered the microelectronics that seeded Silicon Valley and helped build the unbuildable in structures like Hoover Dam and the Golden Gate Bridge. Today, Berkeley engineers in every field remain at the center of technological innovation worldwide."*

The results indicated that the frequency of occurrence in Move 1 is 90% which is the highest frequency in "About Us"; hence, the move classification identified is higher-conventional. As mentioned before, Bhatia (1993) pointed out the communicative purpose of promoting a product or service to a potential customer. The texts in Move 1*Self-promotion* aims to promote the college as a product to persuade future students to join them, and to be part of them. In this move, two important features were found. Colleges provide 1) a short background/history of college and 2) distinctive features of college. The frequency of Step 1 (58%) seems a little higher than Step 2 (42%). Colleges usually give a short background to readers to introduce themselves, and allow readers to know who they are in advance. Therefore, colleges will add more distinctive features to attract future students to notice their other achievements. In this way, colleges are given an opportunity to promote themselves and impress their readers. In Move 1, they use a lot of self-promotion skills to show how outstanding they are. Move 1 mostly appears in the first paragraph to capture the readers' attentions. Therefore, Move 1 *Self-promotion* is a key move in this study to make "About Us" as a genre.

Move 2: Mission Statement shows the purpose of the college and gives specific goals. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 2 is 70%. Move Classification identified is low-conventional.

Move 2, Step1 Show the purpose of college gives their purpose to allow future students to understand what exactly the college does and offers.

> *"Our mission is to seek solutions to important global problems and educate leaders who will make the world a better place by using the power of engineering principles, techniques and systems"*
>
> *"Our students have dozens of opportunities for hands-on, interdisciplinary technological research that give them an opportunity to work alongside renowned faculty on meaningful projects with real human benefits."*

Move 2, Step 2 Illustrate the abilities they will train to future students assures future students the education and skills they will acquire at college.

> *"We believe it is essential to educate engineers who possess not only deep technical excellence, but the creativity, cultural awareness and entrepreneurial skills that come from exposure to the liberal arts, business, medicine and other disciplines that are an integral part of the Stanford experience."*
>
> *"Our engineering students, immersed in this atmosphere of discovery, learn from and work with faculty members who are pioneering new knowledge at the forefront of engineering sciences."*

Move 2, Step 3 Give specific goals provide clear details about what future students will learn.

> *"Our key goals are to: Conduct curiosity-driven and problem-driven research that generates new knowledge and produces discoveries that provide the foundations for future engineered systems"*

Move 2 *Mission statement* aims to draw the purpose and specific goal of the college. A mission statement provides information about what type of organization it is and what it does (Falsey, 1989). Most colleges have a mission statement on their website to allow future students or other guests to know more about the institution and the atmosphere it holds. There are three features in Move 2: Step 1 shows the purpose of college; Step 2 illustrates the abilities they will train to future students and; Step 3 gives specific goals. Step 1 and Step 2 happened equally (38%) in "About Us" page. The reason might be because these two are the major factors in the mission statement, so most colleges mentioned them quite often. On the contrary, Step 3 occurred less frequently (25%) in Move 2. It may be because colleges think that Step 1 and Step 2 are sufficient in providing the information they want to convey. Therefore, they might think giving more specific goals is unnecessary. The frequency of occurrence in Move 2 is 70% and the classification identified is low-conventional. Even though the frequency percentage was not as high as obligatory, the mission statement still occurs quite frequently. Therefore, Move 2 still has an important position in "About Us" page.

Move 3: Status quo of college allows future students to understand the situation of the college.

Move 3, Step 1 Facts & Figures provides more detailed information about the college to future students, such as student numbers, ranking, equipment, programs and other relative information. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 3 is 60%. Move Classification identified is conventional.

Move 3, Step 1 Facts & Figures

- *"About 5,000 students"*
- *"More than 250 faculty members"*
- *"Three No. 1 department rankings, and all departments in the top 6"*
- *"More than 80 labs, centers and affiliate programs involving students in research"*

Move 4: Vision statement shows the attitude and skills of the college to allow future students to realize the future goals that the college plans to achieve. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 4 is 50%. Move Classification identified is conventional.

Move 4, Step 1 Show the professional skills of college shows that the college is qualified to train their students.

"Adding to the capabilities of specialized laboratory and research facilities across the Engineering Quad, the College of Engineering has recently opened Duffield Hall, one of the country's most sophisticated research and teaching facilities for nanoscience and nano"

Move 4, Step 2 Show the contribution of college to industry shows cooperation with other industries, and the college provides more resources to students that are outside of the school.

> *"Our close collaboration with other schools on campus and with industry strengthens our academic programs. Our successes in education and research have not only trained generations of leaders and created new knowledge but also have helped revolutionize technology, medicine, business and many other fields."*

Move 4, Step 3 Give more testimony identifies their college as competent.

> *"The school's history is one of pioneering innovations in research, transferring discoveries to the broader community, and educating tomorrow's leaders and entrepreneurs."*

Both Move 3 and Move 4 are identified as low-conventional. Move 3 *Status quo of college* allows future students to understand the situation of the college. There is one important feature in this move, fact & figure, and it includes student numbers, ranking, equipment, programs, faculty and other information related to the college. This is one of the ways to promote the colleges as well. Colleges provide real facts about the college, and it allows people to know how big the scope of the college is. Future students or people outside of the school will consider whether this is the college they will choose in the future. Move 3 happens quite frequently in "About Us", and the frequency of occurrence in Move 3 is 60% and the classification identified is low-conventional.

Move 4 *Vision statement* shows the attitude and skills of the college to allow future students to realize the future goals that the college plans to achieve. There are three features that allow colleges to connect with future students. 1) Show the professional skills of the college 2) Show the contribution of the college to industries 3) Give more testimony to identify the college is competent. Step 1 in Move 4 occurred quite often (43%). Colleges usually show readers what professional skills they have, allowing readers to understand what skill they will learn, and if these skills are what they want. Step 2 might not happen often (38%), but this is also a factor to make Move 4 as a move. Last, Step 3 occurred less frequently (19%) in Move 4. The reason being that Step 3 might be unnecessary; it might just be like a supplement to show more performances in their college. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 4 is 50% which happens quite frequently as well, and the classification identified is low-conventional.

Move 5: Source of consultation shows strong human resources of the college allowing future students to have access to more faculty sources to help in the future or if they have any questions before entering college. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 5 is 20%. Move Classification identified is optional.

> *"Meet the leadership: Dean Shankar Sastry and the College's associate deans, department chairs and organized research unit directors."*
> *Current and Past Department Chairs*

- *Professor Frank Chang (2010-present)*
- *Professor Ali H. Sayed (2005-2010)*
- *Professor Yahya Rahmat-Samii (2000-2005)*

Move 6: Giving extra details of college gives links to link information about the college, and allow future students to have a deeper understanding of the college. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 6 is 30%. Move Classification identified is optional. The realization of Move 6 is illustrated in examples .

"To find out more about Purdue Engineering, check out the rest of this Web site. You can also contact us, or please come for a visit to see what Purdue and you can do together."

"The pages of this website will allow you to explore several aspects of our Faculty, from our achievements and news headlines, to some of our groundbreaking research"

Move 7: Invitation is to invite students to join their college. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 7 is 20%. Move Classification identified is optional. The realization of Move 7 is illustrated in examples.

"We invite you to explore Cornell Engineering, both online and in person."

"Welcome to the Faculty of Applied Science & Engineering."

The classifications of Move 5 to Move 7 identified are optional. Move 5 *Source of consultation* aims to show strong human resources of the college, allowing future students to have more faculty sources to seek help in the future or before entering the college. However, not every college offers their source of consultation on the website. If future students want to gain more information, they might need to link to other links to find what they need. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 5 is 20%. Move 6 *Giving extra details of college* provides links to link information about the college, and allows future students have a deeper understanding. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 6 is 30%. Move 7 *Invitation* is to invite students to join their college. In this study the frequency of occurrence in Move 7 is 20%.

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to examine the rhetorical structure of "About Us" page and the author treated move as obligatory, high-conventional, low-conventional and optional based on normal distribution. It was found that the seven moves have their own communicative purpose, especially Move 1 *Self-promotion*, which is high-conventional, and *Mission statement*, *Status quo of college and Vision statement* are low-conventional. Move 1 to Move 4 play an important role in "About Us" page. The rest of the Moves: *Source of consultation, Invitation, and Giving extra details of college* are optional in the "About Us" page.

The limitation in this present study is that the sample could be more equal. The topic was decided in North America; however, the samples from Canada only included three samples, so we could add more samples from Canada and expand our samples in the future. Furthermore, this study is small scale, so it cannot represent the whole sample. Further research is needed to expand the sample size and also to compare the differences in rhetorical structures of "About Us" page in different countries. Lastly, this study can analyze lexico-grammaticality to investigate the kind of syntactical functions that often appear in "About Us" page. The limitations offered above can be improved in future studies.

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The Study of the First Year Students' Multiple Intelligences in Learning English, Faculty of Liberal Arts, RMUTSV

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Abstract
The purposes of the study were to examine the first year students' multiple intelligences preference in studying English, explore the difference in students' multiple intelligences preference in learning English of each gender and investigate the difference in students' multiple intelligences preference in learning English of each major. The sample of this study was 100 first year students, the Faculty of Liberal Arts, RMUTSV selected by purposive sampling. The instrument of this study was a multiple intelligences ability questionnaire. The statistics used were mean and S.D. The result showed that the first year students demonstrated strong preference in learning English through musical intelligence and spatial intelligence, $\bar{x}$ = 3.49, S.D. = 0.92 followed by naturalist intelligence, $\bar{x}$= 3.40, S.D. = 0.96. The highest mean score of multiple intelligences in learning English for male students was musical intelligence, $\bar{x}$= 4.07, S.D. = 0.93 while the highest mean score of multiple intelligence in learning English for female students was spatial intelligence, $\bar{x}$= 3.48, S.D. = 0.91. For English for International Communication major, the highest mean score of students' multiple intelligences in learning English was naturalist intelligence, $\bar{x}$ = 3.97, S.D. = 0.81. For Home Economics major, the highest mean score of students' multiple intelligences in learning English was interpersonal intelligence, $\bar{x}$= 3.50, S.D. = 0.93. For Tourism major, the highest score of students' multiple intelligences was musical intelligence, $\bar{x}$= 3.67, S.D. = 0.89, for Hospitality major, the highest mean score of students' multiple intelligences in learning English was spatial intelligence, $\bar{x}$= 3.50, S.D. = 0.94.

Keyword: Multiple Intelligences, Multiple Intelligence preference, learning English

Introduction

English is the main language that people used around the world. It is the vehicle for communication for people in many areas involving education, business, trade, science, technology and tourism. Therefore, in order to develop the country, it is necessary to improve our people' English proficiency. In Thailand, students are supported to study English from childhood and they have studied English as a second language for many decades; however, they still have a low level of English proficiency. The problems come from many causes including teaching and learning style. Teachers did not adjust their teaching to students' ability and intelligence.

According to Gardner, we can improve education by emphasizing on students' multiple intelligence. Students have their own intelligence which can be different from others. Howard Gardner states that human beings have nine different kinds of intelligence reflecting different ways of interacting with others in the society. For Gardner, intelligence is the ability that people can do to create an excellent product or provide the valued service in a culture; the ability that people can solve problems in life; the potential involving using new knowledge for finding or creating solutions for problems (Gardner, 1983). At first, Gardner classifies the multiple intelligences in to seven main intelligences; Linguistic, Logical Mathematic, Spatial, Bodily-Kinesthetic, Musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal and later he added Naturalistic intelligence into the multiple intelligences (Solmundardottir, 2008 as cited in Fasko , 2001).

Some people understand some things more than others. Our intelligence to understand the world is complex and different. Gardner's multiple intelligences theory can be employed for curriculum development, planning instruction, selection of course activities, and related assessment strategies. Instructions that are designed to improve students' strength and confidence can help them develop their weak point. (Faculty Development and Instructional Design Center, n. d.). Teele (as cited in Göğebakan (2003) stated that students should be encouraged to find out principles by themselves and it is the teacher who should try and do this. The duty of the teacher is to provide information to be learned in appropriate format, considering the learner's understanding and curriculum should be organized in order to help student build upon what they have already studied. When using multiple intelligences the teacher should focus on encouraging student to access to learning not assessing on how smart they are. Multiple intelligences affect the students' learning styles. Integrating learning styles and multiple intelligences can enhance communicative abilities, motivation and students' attitude (Brunia, 2007). Wood (as cited in Brunia, 2007) stated one study found that people with different learning styles collect information in different ways.

From the reason above, it is important for those who involve in education not to overlook students' multiple intelligence and study this issue seriously in order to adjust their teaching to students' abilities. It is necessary to have a variety of activities and approaches, and the curriculum should meet the need of each student.

Therefore, the purposes of the study were to examine the first year students' multiple intelligences preference in studying English, explore the difference in students' multiple intelligences preference in learning English of each gender and investigate the difference in students' multiple intelligences preference in learning English of each major

English Language Teaching and Learning in Thailand

English is very important in Thailand like many other countries. Many areas include business, education, and science and technology demand high proficiency in English. English is used as a mean for communication in 2015 when Asean Economic community occurs. Thailand is a country with using Thai as an official language due to the fact that Thailand has never been colonized and one language can make the unity in the nation. However, English is the most first foreign language that students have to study. Even thought, Thai students have studies English for many decades, Thai students have a low level of English proficiency when compare with many countries in Asia like Malaysia, Philippines and Singapore. According to the speech of the Minister of the Ministry of University Affairs on March, 6th 2000, the average TOEFL scores of Thais was similar to Mongolians but higher than Japanese and North Korean. According to Dr. Rom Hiranyapruek, director of Thai Software Park mentions that English is as necessary as other infrastructures and technology. Thailand cannot be developed much because our worker have a low English competence. Besides, Arunsi Sastramitri, director of the Academic Training Section of the Tourist Authority of Thailand stated that Thai students who graduated in the tourism industry have a poor command of English which affect to tourists' attitude toward Thailand and it affects the tourism which is the main income of Thailand.

According to Biyame (1997, cited in Wiriyachitra 2002.), there are many reasons that obstruct Thai students' English proficiency. For teacher, they have heavy teaching loads and they have to teach 45-60 students in the class. Moreover, they have insufficient English language skill and western cultural knowledge and lack of the technology knowledge and educational technology. For student, their difficulties are their hindrance from Thai especially in syntax, idiomatic usage and pronunciation, few opportunities to use English in everyday life, unattractive lesson, being passive and too shy to speak English.

Thailand's new constitution established the National Education Act in 1997. This education reform includes four main areas: school, curriculum, teacher and administrative reform. The main focus of this reform is students' ability to learn and develop. It encourages students' lifelong learning. Thai students will be provided a twelve- year basic education. In 2005, every level and aspect of Thais education will be controlled by an Office of Quality Assurance since 2015. A learner-centered approach is the main concern for Thai education. Families and local communities involve the school policy and administration. Teachers have to do the research and also develop their teaching skill.

Multiple Intelligence Theory

The traditional theory of intelligence can be concluded that human cognition is unitary and each person can have only a single intelligence. It uses the score from standardized intelligence test to evaluate student for many special programs. The test is assumed that it can be assessed intelligence correctly. However, current research indicates that intelligence is not a static structure which can be assessed but it is an open, dynamic system which can be improved throughout life (Hine, n.d.).

In 1983, Howard Gardner discovered the theory of Multiple Intelligence. He stated that intelligence was more than solving problems and fashioning products. He lastly stated the principle of The Multiple Intelligence Theory. First, students should be encouraged to use their intelligences that they prefer learning. Second, Teacher should apply all instructional activities which need different forms of intelligence. Last, the learning evaluation should evaluate multiple forms of intelligences. The traditional Intelligence and the contemporary intelligence can be compared as follows.

The Traditional Intelligence Understanding	The contemporary Intelligence Understanding
• Intelligence is constant. • Intelligence can be measured in quantity. • There is 'one' intelligence in general. • Intelligence is measured by isolating it from real life. • Intelligence is used to classify students and predict their possible success.	• Intelligence can be developed. • Intelligence is not estimated with numerical values displayed in any performance or problem-solving process. • Intelligence can be exhibited in many ways. • Intelligence is measured in real-life situations. • Intelligence is used to understand the potential strengths of individuals and the areas that they will be successful

Figure 1: Comparing the Traditional Intelligence Understanding and the contemporary Intelligence Understanding.

According to Howard Gardner, multiple intelligences can be classified into eight intelligences.

1.1 Linguistic Intelligence includes people ability to speak, write and learn languages. It is also the ability to use language to achieve the goal which involves the ability to use language to express oneself effectively and the ability to use language for remembering information. People who have this intelligence are good at reading, writing, playing word accurately and fluently. These people always work as writers, poets, speakers and lawyers. (Gardner, 1999 and Teele, 2000).

1.2 Logical-Mathematical Intelligence includes the ability to analyze problems logically and look into the issue scientifically. Gardner (1999) stated that the intelligence is often relative with scientific and mathematical thinking including the ability to inspect patterns, reason deductively and think logically. Students with logical mathematical ability are fond of a mathematical problems, problem solution and experiment. They learn best when getting systematic and logical information (Teele, 2000).

1.3 Spatial Intelligence consists of the ability to recognize pictures. Students with spatial intelligence are good at Art activities and reading chart and maps and thinking in image and pictures (Gardner, 1999 and Teele,2000). They also are good at visual memory and have a good sense of direction (Lines, n.d.).

1.4 Musical Intelligence includes the ability in understanding pitch, rhythm and timbre. The students with musical intelligence enjoy singing songs and create music. While reading or studying, they like listening to music. Clapping hands and snapping fingers can motivate the musical part of their brain (Gardner, 1999 and Teele, 2000). They can also play a musical intelligence. They can get new information effectively by listening to music.

1.5 Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence involves the ability to solve the problem by using their bodies in a talented and particular way. It is the coordination between metal ability and bodily movement. They achieve success in the class if they have a chance to use physical movement and hands (Gardner, 1999 and Teele,2000).

1.6 Intrapersonal Intelligence consists of the ability to understand oneself and one' feeling, emotion and motivation. It also involves using a good working model of oneself to manage one's life. The students with intrapersonal intelligence enjoy being along because they can appreciate their strength and weakness and their inner feeling. They prefer writing a journal and study in a quiet place. (Gardner, 1999 and Teele,2000) Philosophers have this intelligences (Lines,n.d.).

1.7 Interpersonal Intelligence entails the ability to understand other intention, motivation and need. It helps people to work with others effectively. Interpersonal intelligence is important for salespeople, educators, religious leader and politician. The students with interpersonal intelligence like to be with people. They can get along with other and they are friendly. They learn best when they live in cooperative and collaborative surroundings. They can understand others and show their empathy and react to their mood. They like to work and study in groups and exchange idea with others. (Gardner, 1999 and Teele,2000)

1.8 Naturalist Intelligence has the skills for notice, group and classify nature. They can hear and listen to environment sounds. They can live with nature peacefully. They can discover the relationship between nature and people. People with this intelligence mostly are farming, gardening, and biologist. (Gardner, 1999 and Teele,2000) They are good at growing plants and interacting with animals (Lines,n.d.)

Multiple intelligence theory is very useful model which can use for developing a systematic approach to teach students and honor their ability within a classroom. It includes the concept that each person is smart to different degrees of expertise in each intelligent. Some might have stronger intelligence in some way whereas less developed in other intelligences.

The purposes of the study

1. To examine the first year students' multiple intelligences preference in studying English.
2. To explore the difference in students' multiple intelligences preference in learning English of each gender.
3. To investigate the difference in students' multiple intelligences preference in learning English of each major

Methods

Variables The independent variables were students' majors and students' genders. The dependent variable were the first year students' preferable multiple intelligence in students and students' multiple intelligence preference in each gender and major.

Population and Sample

Population. The population of this study was the first year students from Faculty of Liberal Arts from Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya.

Sample. The participants included 100 first year students from four majors which were English for International Communication, Hospitality, Tourism, and Home Economics.

Research Instrument

There was a questionnaire about multiple intelligences for studying English. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part was about general information and the second part was about multiple intelligences for studying English.

Data Analysis

The data obtained were analyzed as follows:

1. Students' self-rating score from the questionnaire was analyzed and calculated for the mean and standard deviation and interpreted into five levels
   4.21-5.00 = strongly agree	1.81-2.60 = strongly disagree
   3.41- 4.20= agree	1.00-1.80 = disagree
   2.61-3.40 = neutral

Result

Multiple intelligence in learning English	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Level
1. Linguistic Intelligence	2.99	0.91	Moderate
2. Logical-Mathematical Intelligence	3.29	0.91	Moderate
3. Spatial Intelligence	3.49	0.92	High
4. Naturalist Intelligence	3.40	0.96	Moderate
5. Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence	3.37	0.93	Moderate
6. Musical Intelligence	3.49	0.92	High
7. Inter personal Intelligence	3.33	0.95	Moderate
8. Intrapersonal Intelligence	3.33	1.05	Moderate
Total	**3.33**	**0.96**	**Moderate**

Figure 2: The first year students' multiple intelligence

According to the figure 2, the first year students demonstrated strong preference for musical intelligence and spatial intelligence with the highest mean score, $\bar{x}$ = 3.49, S.D =0.92 at the high level followed by naturalist intelligence, $\bar{x}$= 3.40, S.D. = 0.96 at the moderate level. The lowest mean score was linguistic intelligence at the low level, $\bar{x}$= 2.99, S.D= 0.91 at the moderate level.

Multiple intelligence in studying English	Male			Female		
	x̄	S.D.	Level	x̄	S.D.	Level
1. Linguistic Intelligence	3.30	0.98	moderate	2.95	0.89	Moderate
2. Logical-Mathematical Intelligence	3.70	0.88	High	3.23	0.90	Moderate
3. Spatial Intelligence	3.57	1.04	High	3.48	0.91	High
4. Naturalist Intelligence	3.65	1.22	High	3.37	0.90	High
5. Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence	3.48	1.13	High	3.36	0.92	Moderate
6. Musical Intelligence	4.07	0.93	High	3.44	0.90	High
7. Interpersonal Intelligence	3.55	0.98	High	3.30	0.88	Moderate
8. Intrapersonal Intelligence	3.80	1.06	High	3.27	1.0	High
Total	**3.64**	**1.05**	**High**	**3.30**	**0.94**	**Moderate**

Figure 3: Multiple Intelligence preference in Studying English of male and female students

As indicated in the figure 3, there are different ways of learning English between men and women. For men, the highest mean score of multiple intelligence in learning English was Musical Intelligence at the high level, x̄ = 4.07, S.D=0.93 followed by intrapersonal intelligence at the high level, x̄=3.80, S.D.= 1.06 and logical-Mathematical at the high level, x̄ =3.70, S.D= 0.88. The lowest mean score was Linguistic intelligence at the moderate level, x̄= 3.30, S.D. =0.98. However, for women, the highest mean score of multiple intelligences in learning English was spatial Intelligence at the high level x̄ = 3.48, S.D. =0.91 followed by musical intelligence at the high level, x̄ =3.44, S.D. = 0.90 and naturalist Intelligence at the high level, x̄ =3.37, S.D= 0.90. The lowest mean score was linguistic intelligence at the moderate level, x̄ = 2.95, S.D= 0.89.

Program		Multiple intelligence in learning English								Total
		Linguistic	Logical-Mathematical	Spatial	Naturalist	Bodily-Kinesthetic	Musical	Interpersonal	Intrapersonal	
EIC	$\bar{x}$	3.48	3.75	3.49	3.97	3.75	3.95	3.78	3.85	**3.75**
	S.D.	0.78	0.82	0.77	0.81	0.91	0.78	0.92	0.90	**0.06**
	Level	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	**High**
Hospitality	$\bar{x}$	3.08	3.28	3.50	3.39	3.39	3.43	3.26	3.27	**3.33**
	S.D.	0.90	0.94	0.94	0.80	0.93	0.88	0.98	1.10	**0.09**
	Level	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	High	**Moderate**
Tourism	$\bar{x}$	2.88	3.35	3.53	3.33	3.46	3.67	3.42	3.35	**3.37**
	S.D.	0.79	0.69	0.91	0.92	0.90	0.89	0.71	1.02	**0.11**
	Level	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	High	High	High	High	**Moderate**
Home Economics	$\bar{x}$	2.52	2.76	2.97	2.89	2.88	2.97	3.50	2.84	**2.92**
	S.D.	0.89	0.87	0.83	0.97	0.83	0.86	0.93	0.93	**0.05**
	Level	Low	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	**Moderate**

Figure 4: the mean score of the first year students' multiple intelligence preference in each major

As can be seen from figure 4, English for International Communication major, had the highest mean score in multiple intelligences in learning English , $\bar{x}$=3.75 followed by Tourism, $\bar{x}$= 3.37,Hospitality, = 3.33 and Home economics , $\bar{x}$= 2.92 respectively.
For English for international Communication major, the highest mean scores were naturalist Intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$= 3.97, S.D =0.81 followed by musical intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$= 3.95, S.D.= 0.78, intrapersonal Intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$ =3.85, S.D.= 0.90. For Tourism major, the highest mean score was musical intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$ = 3.67, S.D. =0.89, followed by spatial intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$ = 3.53, S. D.= 0.91 and bodily-kinesthetic Intelligence, $\bar{x}$ = 3.46, S.D.= 0.90. For Hospitality major, the highest man score was spatial intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$ = 3.50, S.D. = 0.94, followed by musical intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$ =3.43, S.D. = 0.88. For Home Economics major, the highest mean score was interpersonal intelligence at the high level, $\bar{x}$ = 3.50, S.D. = 0.93 followed by spatial Intelligence at the moderate level, $\bar{x}$ =2.97, S.D.= 0.83 and musical Intelligence at the moderate level, $\bar{x}$= 2.97 , S.D.= 0.86.

Discussion

The result of the study can be discussed as followed.

1.The first year students' multiple intelligence preference in studying English of the first year students.
The first year students' multiple intelligence preference was musical intelligence and spatial intelligence followed by naturalist intelligence. It found that in general the first year students prefer using music, picture, graph, and chart in studying English. Now, teenagers' hobby mostly includes listening to music especially the music of their favorite artist and their favorite kind of music. Listening to music can help them relax and at the same time they can learn the vocabulary and how to pronounce the words.

Moreover, learning English through picture, chart, and video can help students see the picture or understand the situation more clearly than listening to the explanation only. Therefore, students prefer studying through both pictures and music. According to Brunia (2005), teacher also can help students to practice writing a story or eliciting their idea by using pictures and using music, rap or chants to improve students' speaking and listening abilities.

2.The difference in students' multiple intelligence preference in each gender

Results showed that students' multiple intelligences illustrated a variety according to their gender. The male demonstrated strong preference for musical intelligence, followed by intrapersonal intelligence and logical- mathematical intelligence whereas the female showed strong preference for spatial intelligence, followed by musical intelligence and naturalist intelligence.

According to Gurian (2001), the study on brain sex found that males and females think and develop differently based on the parts of the brain which are active when the processing of information and the reception, the structure of their brain, the chemicals and hormones within their brain take place.

The result found that for males, they prefer to study English through music and rhythm. Men love singing song and play musical instrument; for example guitar and drum. They feel relieve when learning something with the relax atmosphere. They remember the new vocabularies quickly through English song. Besides, men are likely to tap the table while remembering the new words in order to recognize the words better. Besides, males love logic and find the solution to solve the problem and play puzzle. According to Gurian (2002), men use logic but women depend on emotional reasoning.

On the other hand, women prefer studying English through spatial intelligence. They like to learn English through pictures and video clips. They also love nature and prefer to study English among the nature; for example, studying English in the garden and study vocabulary about plant and animal. They study English more effectively when they do the activities outdoor among the nature.

3. The difference in students' multiple intelligence preference in each major.

First of all, students multiple intelligences showed variety according to their majors. Students majoring in English as International Communication showed strong preference for naturalist Intelligence, followed by musical Intelligence and intrapersonal Intelligence. For students majoring in Home Economics' dominant preference were interpersonal intelligence, spatial intelligence and musical intelligence. For students majoring in Tourism's dominant preference were Musical Intelligence, spatial intelligence and bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. For students majoring in Hospitality's dominant preference were spatial Intelligence, and musical intelligence.

According to GÖĞEBAKAN 2003, the different dominant preference may be caused by many factors including the curricula using in class, their maturity and cognitive development. It might be the result of the programs implemented in each major.
Multiple intelligences activities are important for English teaching in various situations. The reason for using multiple intelligence activities in class is that the teacher will be giving support to learners who may find the usual activities in class difficult. The basic idea behind multiple intelligence activities is that both teacher and students learn using different types of intelligences (Beare, n.d.). The types of intelligence that people have represent their capabilities and their manner or method in which they prefer to learn and way to improve their strengths and weaknesses (Businessballs, 2009).

For English for International Communication, students have to register in several English courses; for example, Grammar 1, English 1 and 2, listening and speaking 1 and reading 1; therefore, they might get bored studying English in the classroom. Students prefer studying outside the class especially among the nature such as reading in the garden or doing the activities outside the classroom. According to Beare (n.d.) Naturalist intelligence relates to an understanding of the world around us.

As can be seen from the table 3, the students also like to study English through music. They self-study English via international song and learn the new vocabularies from their favorite song. Learning via song and lyric learn not only the new words but also the correct pronunciation. According to Alan (2014), music can help second language learners acquire grammar and vocabulary and improve spelling and mental tasks including learning can be boosted by listening to classical music. Lyrics always have several useful vocabulary, up-to-date language, expressions and phrases which are useful for the students. Students can practice their pronunciation by singing. Many of words within a song are repetitive which is easier to remember so students can memorize a lot of vocabulary. Students can learn English through songs anywhere; for example, in the car, in the bathroom or the kitchen. It is not only the effective way to learn English but also the effective way to learn western culture. According to businessball (2009), students who are strong musically but weak in other intelligence will be more likely to develop their weakness through music.

For Home Economics students, they showed dominant preference for interpersonal intelligence, the two intelligence followed by spatial intelligence and musical intelligence. According to my teaching experience teaching students in this major, the students have a low level of English proficiency. Therefore, they prefer learning

English with others. They are not confident to speak English. They are always worried when being asked to answer in the class. They like to work as a team which makes them relieve. They also like to do the group activities and do not want to do the assignment alone. Interpersonal skills which related to the ability in communicating effectively are necessary in language learning. (Beare,n.d.)

However, Tourism students also demonstrated dominant preference for musical intelligence. Apart from this intelligence, the two followed intelligence were spatial intelligence and bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. Because of the nature of the student of this major, the students have to be active and they have been trained to service and provide information to the other people. They do not like to only listen to the lecture in classroom. They like to move and play games. They are alert so they prefer to do the movement activities; for example, roleplay, game, communicative activities.

Last, Hospitality students also showed dominant preference for spatial intelligence. Students who study in this major have to see the whole picture of the hotel. They will understand thing better through the picture of the real places or things or video clips. In the class, if the teacher shows them the video clip of the conversation, they will learn better than listening to the conversation only because they can see how to pronounce the word and the gesture and body language of the characters. According to Guigon, 1998, spatial intelligence is referred to the ability to think in pictures, to perceive the visual world correctly, and recreate it on paper on in their mind.

Comparing all four majors, Students majoring in English as International Communication had almost of the highest mean score. It can be explained that the students are interested in English and they self-study outside the class by several ways and they have their own way to learn language based on their intelligence.

Improving English through Multiple Intelligence

According to Gardner (as cited in Faculty Development and Instructional Design Center,n.d). In order to improve students' ability in learning the teacher should adjust their teaching style to suit with students. The teacher should design the instruction to help students develop their strengths which can trigger their confidence to develop their weak point. When instruction includes a range of meaningful and appropriate methods, activities, and assessments, students' multiple learning preferences should be addressed. All students do not think the same and at times it may be best practice to let students choose their assignments based on their intelligences needs. If students are force to study English in the way that they are not interested or motivated to do, they sometime show poor conduct. This easily affect to other students who might typically show good behavior.

Developing people through their strengths can stimulate their development and can also make them happy because when everyone enjoys working in their strength areas, they grow their confidence and lift their belief. They are proud of themselves when achieving their work, and they get the compliment from others. Intelligences are not in themselves good or bad but they are divided to the good or bad purposes to which people apply whatever intelligences they possess and use. It not the indication or reflection to judge if the person is good or bad, right or wrong or their feeling such as happy or sad. (Businessballs,2009).

Linda Campbell (as cited in Guignon , 2011) states five approaches to curriculum change based on Multiple Intelligence

- **Lesson design.** This includes focusing on lesson design. Using all or many types of intelligences in their lessons or the teacher might ask students' opinions on their interesting way to learn in any lessons.
- **Interdisciplinary units.** The school might include interdisciplinary units.
- **Student projects.** Students can learn to create the project that uses multiple intelligences.
- **Assessments.** Allowing students to think of the way they will be assessed their work which meeting the teacher's criteria for quality.
- **Apprenticeships.** Apprenticeships can allow students to develop a valued skill gradually, with their effort and discipline over time.

Conclusion

With an understanding of Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, Students have a chance to explore safely and learn in many ways. Everyone including teachers, school administrators, and parents can understand the students better and help them design their own learning which help students understand and appreciate their strengths, and indicate their real-world activities which support more learning.
When both students and their parents realize about their students' intelligence, it can guide them on a career path and make important decisions for their future. Students can complete their assignment better when they are aware of their intelligence. They can support their children by finding source of motivation to help their children accomplish their difficulties. Everyone can benefit from learning the influence of their intelligence in learning. (Gupton, 2011).

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Effectiveness in Using the Learning Package on "How to Make Questions in English" for Improving Speaking Skills of Degree Students

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Abstract
The objectives of this study were (1) to study the effectiveness of using a learning package on how to make questions in English of degree students; (2) to study the achievement before and after using the learning package of Engineering and Business Administration students; (3) to compare the achievement between the two groups of degree students: the first, 4 year full time students and the second, 2 year transferred program students and (4) to compare the difference between means of the students in both faculties. Samples were 124 degree students selected by using purposive sampling. Instruments were the learning package on how to make questions in English and pre and post-test composed of 3 parts: (1) 20 of multiple choice items; (2) 20 word completion items and (3) 20 items on making questions. The samples did a pretest, studied the learning package and did a posttest. Data was analyzed for mean, minimum and maximum scores, standard deviation, paired t-test and independent t-test. The findings indicated as follows: 1. The effectiveness in using the package on how to make questions in English improved degree students' achievement positively. 2. The mean, minimum and maximum scores of both groups were higher than before using the package. 3. The students from Electrical Engineering 2 year transferred program part time got the highest mean scores while those from Information Technology System in Business 4-year students got the lowest means scores. And 4. There was a significant difference between means before using the package of both groups, but there was no significant difference between means after using the package.

Keywords: Effectiveness, Learning Package, Making questions in English, Degree students

Introduction

In Thailand which English is a foreign language and the Thai language is the mother tongue, and people don't have an opportunity to use English in daily life, English is taught at all levels of the educational system from primary school to university. However, most Thai students even studying a bachelor's degree still their English ability is quite poor, especially in speaking skills. Like the degree students at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, a university in the southern part of Thailand, they have problems in speaking English as well. The main problem is that they don't know what and how to start the conversation with foreigners because they don't know how to make questions in English. As Nunan (1991) mentioned that "Success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the (target) language." Hence, this study was conducted so that students can study by themselves on how to make questions in English from the learning package which will motivate them to be brave enough to communicate and speak English with confidence. Moreover, Gardner and Miller (1999) stated that learners need to become more aware of their central role in the decision-making process. They have to learn to take responsibility for their learning and learn about the importance of reflection on their learning to reach the goals which are relevant to their wants or needs. Therefore, the self-access learning on 'How to make questions in English' was constructed to find out whether the package would have positive effects in improving speaking skills of degree students at this university or not.

Purposes of the Study

1. To study the effectiveness of using the learning package on how to make questions in English of degree students.
2. To study the achievement before and after using the learning package of Engineering and Business Administration students.
3. To compare the achievement between the two groups of degree students: the first, 4 year full time students and the second, 2 year transferred program students.
4. To compare the difference between the means of the students in the Faculty of Engineering and Business Administration.

Research Questions

The research was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. Is the achievement after using the learning package on how to make questions in English higher than before using it in both 4 year weekdays and 2 year transferred weekend program students?
2. Is there a statistical difference between the means of the students in the Faculty of Engineering and Business Administration?
3. Which program and department got the highest or lowest mean after self-study with the learning package?

Context of the Study

This study was conducted during the first semester of the academic year 2011 and focused only on how to make questions in English of Yes-No questions and Wh-questions. Faculty, Program, and Department are the independent variables for this study.

Literature Review

Speaking skill as a fundamental skill in communication

Just think of all the different conversations a person has in one day and compare that with how much written communication is done in one day. Which do you do more of? In our daily lives most of us speak more than we write, yet many English teachers still spend the majority of class time on reading and writing practice almost ignoring speaking and listening skills. Do you think this is a good balance? If the goal of your language course is truly to enable your students to communicate in English, then speaking skills should be taught and practised in the language classroom.
(http://www.englishonline.org.en/teachers/workshops/teaching-speaking/teaching-tips/...)

Concept of Speaking Skills

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In terms of interaction skills, both speakers and listeners, besides being good at processing spoken words should be 'good communicators', which means 'good at saying what they want to say in a way which the listener finds understandable'. This means being able to possess interaction skills. Interaction skills involve routines and negotiation skills. Routines present the typical patterns of conversation including interaction and information routines. Negotiation skills serve as a means for enabling the speaker and listener to make themselves clearly understood. This is achieved by two aspects: management of interaction and turn-taking (Vilimec, 2006).

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

Teaching Speaking

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

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

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

Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies:

1. Using minimal responses

One way to encourage language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction is to build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges since minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.

2. Recognizing scripts

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges—a scrip. Greeting, apologies, compliments, invitations and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow pattern of script. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

3. Using language to talk about language

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

Kinds of questions in English

In the English language there are several types of questions.

1. General questions
Also known as "Yes/No questions" because a short answer (yes or no) is expected. This kind of question is formed by putting an auxiliary verb before the subject (=inversion). Closed questions includes Yes-No, True-False, Right or Wrong General questions most often start with:

Do? Did? Have? Has? Is? Are? Was? Were? Can? Could? etc.

Examples**:**

- Are you from Brazil? **Answer:** Yes, I am / No, I am not
- Did you meet Andy? **Answer:** Yes, I did / No, I didn't
- Was she at home yesterday? **Answer:** Yes, she was / No, she wasn't

2. Special Questions or Open questions

Special questions are those questions that ask for details. Special questions are also called **Wh-questions** as most of them start with **"wh"**.

For example:
What? Which? When? Where? Why? Whose?
Other special questions include: How? How many? How much?

Special questions require inversion, like general questions.

- Where are you from? **Answer:** I am from India
- What are you wearing on your head? **Answer:** I'm wearing a hat or It's a hat!
- How much money do you have? **Answer:** I only have $10.
- How old are you? **Answer:** I'm 16.
-

These kind of questions include Object questions and Subject questions and questions with 'How'

Attention:

If the subject of a special question is the question word itself, then this kind of question is called *subject question*.

Subject questions have the word order of an affirmative sentence.

- Who will buy milk?
- Who's in charge here?
- What makes you think so?
- Who wants some coffee?
- ~~Will who buy milk?~~
- ~~Is who in charge here?~~
- ~~What does make you think so?~~

3. Disjunctive questions or Tag questions

Disjunctive questions are also called **question tags**. They are mini-questions that appear at the end of sentence:

4. Embedded questions or Indirect questions

Embedded questions are also called **indirect questions**.

Such questions have affirmative word order, and are used in two situations:

a) **polite questions** ("question within questions")
- Could you tell me where the bus station is?
- ~~Could you tell me where is the bus station?~~

b) **reported speech**
- He asked me if I could help him.
- ~~He asked me could I help him.~~

(http://www.eslmonster.com/article/kinds-of-questions)

The Learning Package

Anchalee Thammawitheekul (2010) mentioned that a learning package is lessons constructed by the instructor as a tool in learning activities by the students themselves. In each learning outcome, lessons will start from the easiest to more difficult and most difficult ones respectively. The learning package includes identifying objectives, contents, teaching methods and instructional media in advance. Students or learners can learn and evaluate learning outcome by themselves following each step in the learning package. The learning package can be used by individual, or by group. The name of learning package varies according to patterns of application such as learning lessons, programmed lessons, instructional program, teaching program, self-learning lesson, etc. Anyway, they are a kind of learning process.

Objectives of a Learning Package

1. Learners can do learning activities by themselves at their capacity's levels.

The role of teachers is to be of assistance when students face problems.

2. Learners can learn in steps from the easiest one to the most difficult one.
3. Learners can evaluate themselves and know about their development in their learning by themselves.
4. Students will be proud of their success in learning.

Principles of Learning with a Learning Package

1. Learners can do activities and participate in certain activities.
2. Learners can evaluate themselves and know answers immediately.
3. Having stimulus for learners to be proud when they can do activities or exercises correctly and they try to correct their mistakes.
4. Learners have learnt step by step from easy to difficult according to individual's potential and ability.

Characteristics of a Learning Package

Important characteristics of a learning package include designing of content and learning outcome into 'Frame' and those contents will be constructed to learning unit and sub-unit. Each unit should be related and ordered from easy to difficult.

Each frame will consist of

1. Explanation of contents
2. Pre-test
3. Content and learning activities
4. Questions
5. Keys or answers
6. Post-test

Kinds of Frame in a Learning Package

There are 4 kinds of frames in a learning package as follows:

1. Set Frame is the frame like an introduction to the lesson. This frame will include information about rationale, theory and simple questions so learners or students can answer questions correctly. This frame will give moral support and stimulate students to be happy in learning.

2. Practice Frame is the frame which gives opportunity for learners to practice in doing activities related to the set frame. The practice frame is constructed for practicing skills such as reading, thinking , Analysis and writing skills. So more content is added in this frame.

3. Sub-Terminal Frame is a learning frame coming before summary or terminal frame. After the learners have done many activities respectively, they have to learn and practice more in order that they gain enough knowledge to summarize or make a complete and correct conclusion after learning from frames in a learning package.

4. Terminal Frame is the last frame, or a summary, so this frame will have intensive content and be more difficult than previous frames.

Types of learning Packages

At present, a learning package used in learning activities are divided into 3 kinds:

1. Linear Programme
2. Branchine Programme
3. Learning package without frames

(http://panchalee.wordpress.com/2009/04/17/programinstructional1/)

Methods

This study was designed as a quasi-experimental research to study the effectiveness in using the learning package on ‘How to make questions in English for improving speaking skills of degree students in the faculty of Engineering and Business Administration at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, Songkhla. This study was conducted during the first semester of academic year 2011.

Population and Samples

The population was students studying at the Faculty of Engineering and Business Administration who enrolled in the English Conversation Course in the first semester of academic year 2011 both from 4th year- full time student program studying during weekdays and from 2 year transferred weekend program studying during the weekend.

Samples were 124 students studying the English Conversation Course of the researchers’ team were purposely selected as samples for this study. 76 students were from the Faculty of Engineering and 48 from the Faculty of Business Administration. The detail of students is shown in table 1.

Table 1 General Information of Samples

Faculty/Program	Department	Frequency	Percent
Engineering			
4 year- full time weekdays	Garment Engineering	17	13.71
	Electrical Engineering	23	18.55
2 year transferred weekend	Electrical Engineering	36	29.03
Business Administration			
4 year- full time weekdays	IT Business System	27	21.77
2 year transferred weekend	IT Business System	21	16.94
Total		**124**	**100**

Variables

Independent variables are the learning Package on How to make questions of Yes-No and Wh-questions, program, department and faculty in which the students are studying.

Dependent variables are achievement and mean scores before and after learning with the learning package.

Research Design

This research is Experimental Research with One – Group Pretest – Posttest Design

Pre-test	Independent variable & treatment	Post-test
y1	**x**	**y2**

x = independent variables operated by researchers and treatment
y1 = mean score of dependent variables before treatment with x variable
y2 = mean scores after treatment with x variable

Instrument

Instruments used in this study are:

1. The Learning Package on "How to make questions in English" which consisted of objectives, instructions, and content in the package are on Yes-No questions and Wh-Questions described using both English and Thai (Students' Mother Tongue)and at the end of each content includes exercises and keys with explanation for students to be able to study by themselves.

2. A test of 60 items constructed by the researchers and approved by

specialists. The test which was divided into 3 parts: Part 1: 20 test items of 4 multiple choices; Part 2: 20 test items on filling in gaps; and Part 3: 20 test items of written tests. This test is used for both pre-test and post-test.

Procedure and Data Collection

The study was done in the following stages:

1. Study and review related literature and research about achievement and English speaking and learning packages and types of questions in English.

2. Construct self- learning package on “How to make questions in English” according to the following stages.

2.1 Identify content of the learning package concerning how to make questions in English.

2.2 Construct and write exercises and answer keys with explanations.

2.2 Try out the package for the first time with 3 samples in order to survey problems in using the package.

2.3 Improve the package after the first try out, then try out a second time with the same 3 samples in order to find the efficiency of the learning package. The efficiency of the learning package was obtained by the value analysis of E_1/E_2 and the learning package constructed by the researchers reached an efficiency of 82.2/83.1 which is higher than the standard criteria (80/80).

2.4 Construct the test concerning how to make questions in yes-no and wh-questions which consisted of three parts according to the objectives of the research. Overall the test comprised of 60 items, 20 items for each part. The test was approved and edited by three specialists including a native speaker. This test was applied for pre and post test.

3. Select subjects for this research using purposive sampling. Total number was 124 from the Faculty of Engineering and Business Administration.

4. Apply the test to the samples as a pre-test before they study the learning package by themselves. The test lasted 40 minutes.

5. Samples were allowed 1.50 hours to self-study the learning package.

6. Administer the same test a second time as the post-test after samples had studied the learning package by themselves. And the test lasted 40 minutes.

7. Analyze the data for minimum, maximum, mean, standard deviation, percentage, Paired t- test and independent t-test.

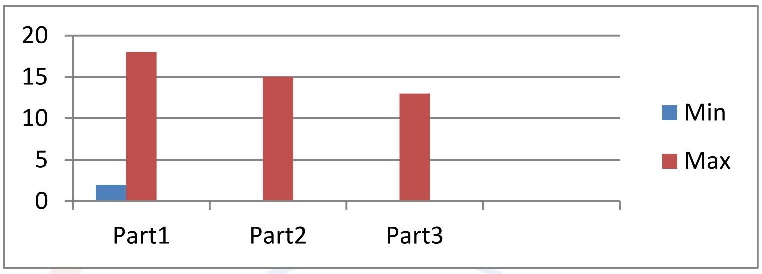
Data Analysis

Data was analyzed for frequency, percentage, minimum and maximum scores, mean, standard deviation, Paired t- test and independent t-test.

Results

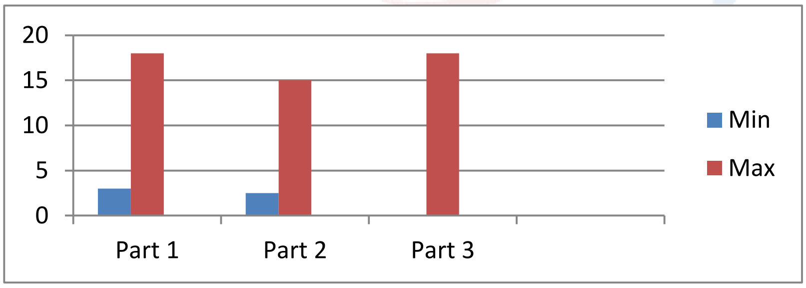
The results are shown in the following graphs and tables.

Graph 1 Minimum and Maximum Score of each part before using the learning Package of all Samples (Pre-test)



Graph 1 shows in pre-test of part 1: 20 items of multiple choices. The total score of this part was 20. The minimum score was 2.00, while highest score at 18.00. Part 2: 20-item gap fill emphasizing on Yes-No questions. The minimum score was 0.00 and the maximum score was 15.00. And part 3: 20 item making questions by writing, the minimum score was 0.00 and the maximum score was 13.00.

Graph 2 Minimum and Maximum Score of each part after using the learning Package of all Samples (Post-test)



Graph 2 shows in post-test of part 1: 20 items of multiple choices. The total score of this part was 20. The minimum score was 3.00, while highest score at 18.00. Part 2: 20-item gap fill emphasizing on Yes-No questions. The minimum score was 2.00 and the maximum score was 15.00. And part 3: 20 item making questions by writing, the minimum score was 0.00 and the maximum score was 18.00.

Table 2 Minimum, Maximum, Mean and Standard Deviation of Total Scores before and after using the learning Package of all programs

Department/ Program		N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Garment Engineering 4 year weekdays	Before After	17 17	5.00 9.00	31.00 36.00	13.35* 17.82	6.53 7.08
Electrical Engineering 4 year weekdays	Before After	23 23	5.00 12.00	44.00** 48.00*	16.96 25.26	8.60 9.89
Electrical Engineering 2year weekend	Before After	36 36	5.00 15.00**	41.00 45.00	19.17** 25.92**	8.25 7.38
IT Business System 4 year weekdays	Before After	27 27	5.00 10.00	35.00 38.00	18.22 22.07	7.34 6.74
IT Business System 2 year transferred weekend	Before After **Total scores**	21 21 **= 60**	5.00 6.00*	21.00 32.00	14.23 17.52*	3.79 5.29

Table 2 shows that from the total scores which is 60 and in pre-test before samples learn with the learning package, the minimum scores of all departments and programs were 5.00. And the department of electrical engineering of 4 year weekdays program got the highest or maximum scores in pre-test which was 44 and the Department of Information Business system, 2 year transferred weekend program got 21 scores which was the lowest among other departments and programs. Concerning the mean in pre-test, the Department of Electrical Engineering of 2 year weekend program got the highest mean, while the Department of Garment Engineering got the lowest mean which was 13.35. Pertaining to the post-test, the Department of Electrical Engineering of 2 year weekend program got the highest minimum score which was 15.00 while the Department of Information Business system, 2 year transferred weekend program got the lowest score which was 6.00 out of 60. Regarding the highest or maximum scores of samples after learning with the learning package, it was found that the Department of Electrical Engineering of 4 year weekdays program got the highest scores which was 48.00. Concerning the mean of post-test, the Department of Electrical Engineering of 2 year weekend program got the highest mean which was 25.92, while the Department of Information Business system, 4 year weekdays program got 17.52 scores which was the lowest mean among all departments and programs.

Table 3 Comparison mean before and after using the learning Package of Business Administration and Engineering Faculties

Faculty	N	$\bar{x}$ before	$\bar{x}$ after	t	df	P
Business Administration	48	16.48	20.08	-5.71	47	.oo*
Engineering	76	17.09	23.78	-8.84	74	.oo*

*p<.05

Table 3 shows that mean of total scores (60) before and after learning with the learning package of Business Administration and Engineering Faculties has a statistically significant difference at level .05.

Table 4 Comparison of pre-test mean scores between Faculty of Business Administration and Engineering

Faculty	N	$\bar{x}$	t	df	P
Business Administration	48	16.48	-2.71	117.95	.008*
Engineering	76	17.09			

*p<.05

Table 4 shows that the mean for pre-test of Business Administration students was 16.48 while that of engineering students was 17.09, and that there is a statistically significant difference at .05 level in the achievement in doing the pre-test before self-study of the learning package between the two Faculties.

Table 5 Comparison of post-test mean scores between Faculty of Business Administration and Engineering

Faculty	N	$\bar{x}$	t	df	P
Business Administration	48	20.08	-.45	122	.66
Engineering	76	23.78			

Table 5 shows that the mean for post-test of Business Administration students was 20.08 while that of engineering students was 23.78, and that there is no statistically significant difference in the achievement in doing the post-test after self-study of the learning package between both Faculties.

Conclusion

The results of this study can be summarized as follows:

1. The learning package on "How to Make Questions in English", constructed by the researchers had positive effect since the scores of post-test were higher than those of the pre-test.

2. The achievement of students studying in the program of 4 year weekdays program, and 2 year weekend program after using the learning package was higher when compared between pre-test and post-test.

3. Concerning scores in pre-test from the test which was divided into 3 parts, it can be concluded as follows:

Part 1: 20 items of multiple choice on Wh-question and questions with 'How'. The total score of this part was 20. The results indicated that the minimum scores of pre-test, students of Information Technology Business System department, 4 year weekdays program got only 2, while the students from the Department of Electrical Engineering in 2 year weekend program got the highest score at 18.00. And this department also got the highest mean with 11.17, whereas the students from the Department of Garment Engineering in 4 year- full time weekdays program got the lowest mean with 7.65.

Part 2: 20-item gap fill emphasizing on Yes-No questions. The results are as follows:

In pre-test, the students from the Department of Garment Engineering in 4 year weekdays program got a minimum score of 0.00 and the maximum score fell on the Department of Electrical Engineering in 4 year weekdays program with the score of 15.00 and the highest mean of part 2 was 6.96 which came from the students in the Department of Information Technology Business System in 4 year weekdays program.

Part 3: 20 item making questions by writing, the results are as follows:

In pre-test, the students from every Department got the minimum score of 0.00 and the maximum score fell on the Department of Electrical Engineering in 4 year weekdays program with a score of 13.00 and the highest mean of part 3 was 2.11 which came from the students in the Department of Electrical Engineering in 4 year weekdays program.

4. Concerning scores in post-test from the test which was divided into 3 parts, it can be concluded as follows:

Part 1: 20 item multiple choice on Wh-question and questions with 'How'. The total scores of this part was 20. The results indicated that the minimum scores of post-test, students of Information Technology Business System department, 4 year weekdays program scored 3, while the students from the Department of Electrical Engineering in 4 year weekdays program got the highest scores of 18.00 which was the same score as students from the Department of Information Technology Business System in 4 year weekdays program. And the Department of Electrical Engineering in 4 year full time weekdays program got the highest mean of 13.22 scores, whereas the students from the Department of Information Technology Business System in 4 year weekdays program got the lowest mean of 10.43.

Part 2: 20-item of gap fill emphasizing on Yes-No questions. The results are as follows:

In post-test, the students from the Department of Garment Engineering in 4 year weekdays program got a minimum score of 2.00 and the maximum score fell on the Department of Electrical Engineering in 2 year transferred weekend program with the score of 15.00 and the highest mean of part 2 was 9.17 which came from the students in the Department of Electrical Engineering in 2 year transferred weekend program as well, whereas the students from the Department of Garment Engineering in 4 year full time weekdays program got the lowest mean of 5.30.

Part 3: 20- item making questions by writing. The results are as follows:

In post-test, the students from all Departments and all programs got a minimum score of 0.00 and the maximum scores fell on the Department of Electrical Engineering in 4 year weekdays program with the score of 18.00 and the highest mean of part 3 was 4.06 which came from the students in the Department of Electrical Engineering in 4 year full time weekdays program.

5. The total score is 60 and in pre-test before samples learn with the learning package, the minimum scores of all departments and programs were 5.00. And the Department of Electrical Engineering of 4 year weekdays program got the highest or maximum score in pre-test which was 44 and the Department of Information Business system, 4 year transferred weekdays program got 21 which was the lowest among other departments and programs. Concerning the mean in pre-test, the Department of Electrical Engineering of 2 year weekend program got the highest mean, while the Department of Garment Engineering got the lowest mean which was 13.35. Pertaining to the post-test, the Department of Electrical Engineering of 2 year weekend program got the highest minimum score which was 15.00 while the Department of Information Business system, 2 year transferred weekend program got the lowest score which was 6.00 out of 60. Regarding the highest or maximum scores of samples after learning with the learning package, it was found that the Department of Electrical Engineering of 4 year weekdays program got the highest score which was 48.00. Concerning the mean of post-test, the Department of Electrical Engineering of 2 year transferred weekend program got the highest mean which was 25.92, while the Department of Information Business system, 4 year transferred weekdays program got 17.52 scores which was the lowest mean among all departments and program.

6. The mean of total scores (60) before and after learning with the learning package of Business Administration and Engineering Faculties has a statistically significant difference at level .05.

7. When comparing means of the two faculties, the mean for pre-test of Business Administration students was 16.48 while that of engineering students was 17.09, and that there is a statistically significant difference at .05 level in the achievement in doing the pre-test before self-study of the learning package between the two Faculties.

8. When comparing means of the two faculties, the mean for post-test of Business Administration students is 20.08 while that of engineering students is 23.78, and that there is no statistically significant difference in the achievement in doing the post-test after self-study of the learning package between the two Faculties.

Discussion

1. From the results, it was found that the learning package on "How to Make questions in English" constructed by the researchers can enable students' higher achievement in post-test than in pre-test after learning from the package in all programs: 4 year full time weekdays and 2 year transferred part time weekend. Hence the results are respondent with the results of academics who conducted research and found that a learning package or CAI or other instructional media helped more or less in improving learning achievement of students. However the mean of post-test is still not satisfactory since the score was 25.92 which is equivalent to 43.20 % and the lowest mean was only 17.52 which is equivalent to only 29.2 % was less than 50.

2. The learning achievement between before and after using the learning package of degree students in the Faculty of Engineering and Business Administration was different since that of Engineering was higher and it was found that the department of Electrical Engineering in 2 year transferred part time weekend program had more ability in making questions in English than the students in the Faculty of Business Administration. This may be caused by the maturity and attention. Since students studying at the weekend already have jobs and their responsibility level is higher than those studying on the weekdays who still just study not work.

3. From the results, they indicted that making questions in English is still a problem for Thai students even if they have studied English for many years since they were at school. Hence the problems in making and asking questions can make them lose confidence and avoid communicating with native speakers or foreigners.

4. In part 3 which was a written test is the most difficult part for degree students and secondly is part 2 which is filling in the gap emphasizing on Yes-No questions. The problems was students don't understand how to use verb to " be" and verb to "do".

5. The results showed that achievement is still less than 50% not only is this caused by students not understand how to make questions in English, but some samples didn't answer the test in some parts and others didn't learn and study carefully including not doing the exercises in every part in the learning package. Anyway, students who followed all parts in the package and paid much attention still had higher scores in post-test than in pre-test.

Pedagogical Implications

1. An Intensive training program for preparing the students for improving speaking in English should be done urgently for not only engineering and business administration but for all degree students before they go into the workplace in the near future.

2. The results of this study should be reported to the administrators of the University and the Faculty of Engineering and the Faculty of Business Administration in order that an urgent policy is implemented to solve the problem of English speaking of students.

3. As the research results indicated that the learning package can improve knowledge of making questions in English and will lead to improving students' speaking skills, hence this kind of instruction media should be constructed for other skills in English as well, such as for reading, listening and writing.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. Research on factors influencing the problems in English speaking of Thai students should be conducted in order to use correspondent solutions for the purpose that Thai students will be ready to be efficient ASEAN citizens in the year 2015.

2. A survey of reasons why degree students still have a low achievement in English speaking skill should be done.

3. This learning package should be applied again to study with other groups of students in other faculties and departments in order to know similarities and differences and to find the effectiveness of the learning package.

4. Research on verb "Be" and "Do" should be conducted.

5. Research using amount and period of time and motivation as independent variables should be done to investigate whether these variables affect students' achievement in learning by a learning package.

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Investigating Students' Learning Styles in Studying Chinese, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya

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Abstract

The purposes of the study were to study Chinese learning styles of students and to compare the students' Chinese learning style classified by gender, year, and major. The sample of the study was 45 first and second year students from English for International Communication program and 45 first and second year students from Hospitality program from the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya who enrolled in a Chinese course in the 2013 academic year and were selected by purposive sampling. The instrument used in this study was a learning style questionnaire adapted from the Reid theory. The result showed that 1) the highest mean score of students' learning style in studying Chinese was group learning style, followed by individual learning style, auditory learning style, and visual learning style. The lowest mean score of students' learning style in studying Chinese was tactile learning style, 2) there were no significant differences in learning styles according to gender 3) there were significant differences in learning styles in studying Chinese according to year at .05, 4) students from different majors had significantly different learning styles in studying Chinese at .05. English for International Communication students' Chinese learning style preference was individual learning style whereas Hospitality students' Chinese learning style preference was group learning style.

Keyword: Learning styles, Chinese, learning style preference

Introduction

Higher education aims to promote learners' cognitive and affective domains and especially focuses on learner differences. The best learning process is from the learners themselves whereas teachers' duties are to provide the learning process and the environment for them. In terms of individual difference, teachers must realize the different needs of the learners especially individual learning style. Bogue (1974:150) mentioned that each particular learner has his/her own learning style; for example, some learners can learn best by reading, self- studying under the teacher's recommendation while others can learn best by discussion and sharing with peers. This is also agreed by Pitoon Sillarat (1982) who claimed that learning styles are strongly involved with individual differences; learners have differences among themselves: interests, abilities, thinking, feeling, needs, and their preferred learning styles and these influences the learning styles of the learners.

Only one teaching approach may be effective and successful with some learners whereas some may not succeed with that particular teaching style, so teachers should have a variety of teaching styles to serve the learners' needs. Teachers, in fact, lack the survey process to explore learning styles of learners and this could finally affect the learning process of learners in the classroom. Dum, Dunn & Perrin (1994:10) cited that the consistence the learning styles and teaching styles greatly affect the learners' achievement than those with an inconsistence style. Based on previous studies both in Thailand and abroad, they indicate that the teaching and learning process should be consistent with the learning styles of learners.

Teaching Chinese is one mission of the teaching and learning process administered by the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya, but the learning styles of learners studying Chinese have not been explored and surveyed yet. Hence, the researcher, as the Chinese lecture was interested to survey the learning styles of learners in studying Chinese. The significance of this study could benefit the Chinese teaching and learning process in adjusting them to meet the learners' variety in the classroom, enhance their achievements, and to produce qualified graduates for society.

The purposes of the study

1. To explore the learning styles of Chinese learners at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya.

2. To compare the learning styles of Chinese learners divided by gender, year of study and the program of study.

Hypothesis of the study

Chinese learners at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya have different learning styles divided by gender, year of study and the program of study.

Conceptual framework of the study

The learning styles in this study is based on Reid (1987) which are visual learning style, auditory learning style, kinesthetic learning style, tactile learning style, individual learning style, and group learning style.

Learning styles

Definition of learning styles

Kolb (1981:375) stated that genes, past experience, and environmental need form individual differences and four types of learning in an Experiential Learning Theory: concrete experience, reflective observation, and abstract conceptualization.

Dunn et all. (1981:374) defined learning styles as the integration of learners' thought in which way they prefer to study and an environmental, emotional, sociological, and physical aspect have an impact of learning styles.

Types of learning styles

The learning theory of Reid (1987) has been used in this study that divided into 6 learning styles based on perception and function.

1. Visual learning style. This type of learner can learn best by seeing pictures and language; for instance, reading books, reading maps, diagrams, pictures, video, announcement board, and movies etc.
2. Auditory learning style. This type of learner can learn best by hearing or listening; for example, listening to the lecture, conversation, audiotape, and discussion.
3. Kinesthetic learning style. This type of learner can learn best by moving in the simulation or the assigned scenarios: for instance, role play activity, drama, interview, experiential learning, and collaborative learning.
4. Tactile learning style. This type of learner can learn best by doing: for example, creating a model, experimenting in the laboratory, and learning by touching: notebook and word cards.
5. Individual learning style. This type of learner can learn best by oneself both in the classroom and outside the classroom to achieve one's learning goal.
6. Group learning style. This type of learner can learn best work cooperatively with others in both a pair and group work.

Research Methodology

The scope of the study

1. Population and sample

The population was the 1st and 2nd year undergraduate students of Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya who enrolled in Chinese courses in 2013 academic year.

Purposive sampling was used in this study. The sample groups were the 1st and 2nd year undergraduate students of the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of

Technology Srivijaya majoring in English for International Communication, 45 students, and those majoring in Hotel Management, 45 students. Those enrolled in Chinese courses in the 2013 academic year.

2. Variables in this study

The independent variables were gender, year of study, and the program of the study. The dependent variable was the Chinese learning styles.

3. Duration of the study

The duration of the study took two semesters: 1st and 2nd semester of 2013 academic year.

4. Research instruments

The research instrument was a questionnaire surveying the students' learning styles in studying Chinese at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya. The questionnaire consisted of three parts as follows;

1st part of the questionnaire surveyed the general information of the students is the check list items.

2nd part of the questionnaire surveyed the students' learning styles in studying Chinese with a five- rating scale defined as follows;

5	strongly agree
4	agree
3	Neutral
2	disagree
1	strongly disagree

3rd part of the questionnaire was open- ended questions asking students to express their opinions and suggestion in learning Chinese

Research instrument construction and quality

1. To set the objectives in constructing the questionnaire.
2. To review and study literature and related studies of learning styles based on Reid (1987).
3. To plan constructing the questionnaire.
4. To construct the students' learning styles in studying Chinese.
5. To find valid content by asking experts to evaluate the items in the questionnaire.
6. To revise the items according to the experts' recommendations. To try out the questionnaire with the 3rd year undergraduate students majoring in English for International Communication, 30 students.
7. To again revise and qualify the items of the questionnaire.
8. To prepare the completed questionnaire for data collection.

5. Data collection

The researcher collected the data by following the steps below.

1. Contact the target sample group.
2. Set the date, time, and venue.
3. Prepare the questionnaire.
4. Inform the sample group about the purpose and benefit of the study.
5. Explain to the sample group of how to complete the questionnaire.
6. Collect data in the second semester, academic year 2013.
7. Check the questionnaire after the completion and bring the data from the questionnaire to analyze.

6. Data Analysis

The SPSS program is used to analyze the data for descriptive statistics- percentages, mean, and standard deviation.

7. Findings

General information

There were 90 respondents to the questionnaire which comprised of 76 female respondents (84.4%) and 26 male respondents (15.6).

In terms of their year of study, the respondents comprised of 45 1st year undergraduate students (50%) and 45 2nd year undergraduate students (50%).

In terms of their program of the study, the respondents comprised of 47 undergraduates majoring in English for International Communication (52.2%) and 43 undergraduates majoring in Hotel Management (47.8).

The data analysis of learning styles

The learning styles in this study consisted of 6 types.

Learning style	Level of learning styles		
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Result
visual learning style	3.59	.39	Agreed
auditory learning style	3.61	.40	Agreed
kinesthetic learning style	3.58	.44	Agreed
tactile learning style	3.58	.44	Agreed
individual learning style	3.70	.42	Agreed
group learning style	3.78	.33	Agreed
Total	3.64	.25	Agreed

Figure 1: The Learning styles of all students.

According to the table shown above, the respondents all agree to their learning styles in each type. Considering each style, group learning style has the highest mean followed by individual learning style, auditory learning style, and visual learning style whereas kinesthetic learning style and tactile learning style have the lowest mean.

Data analysis of learning styles divided by gender, year and program of study

Opinion	Gender				T	P-value
	Male		Female			
	x̄	S.D.	x̄	S.D.		
visual learning style	3.62	.33	3.59	.40	.318	.751
auditory learning style	3.48	.30	3.63	.41	1.298	.198
kinesthetic learning style	3.54	.38	3.58	.46	-.355	.723
tactile learning style	3.57	.41	3.58	.45	-.078	.938
individual learning style	3.77	.32	3.69	.43	.642	.522
group learning style	3.72	.26	3.79	.34	-.659	.512
Total	3.62	.19	3.64	.26	-.349	.728

Figure2: Learning styles of each gender

For the male students, the highest mean score was individual learning style, followed by group learning style. For the female students, the highest mean score was group learning style, followed by individual learning style.

Opinion	Year of study				T	P-value
	1st year		year2nd			
	x̄	S.D.	x̄	S.D.		
visual learning style	3.60	.37	3.59	.41	.160	.873
auditory learning style	3.49	.36	3.73	.40	-2.952	.004*
kinesthetic learning style	3.55	.44	3.61	.45	-.655	.514
tactile learning style	3.53	.41	3.62	.47	-.989	.326
individual learning style	3.65	.41	3.75	.43	1.148	.254
group learning style	3.76	.34	3.80	.31	-.635	.527
Total	3.59	.27	3.68	.22	-1.658	.101

Figure3: Learning styles of each year of study

For the first year students, the highest mean score was group learning style, followed by individual learning style. For the second year students, the highest mean score was group learning style followed by individual learning style.

Opinion	Program of study				T	P-value
	English for International Communication		Hotel Management			
	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$	S.D.		
visual learning style	3.73	.36	3.44	.36	3.743	.000*
auditory learning style	3.62	.37	3.60	.43	.195	.846
kinesthetic learning style	3.68	.40	3.47	.47	2.225	.029*
tactile learning style	3.61	.39	3.53	.50	.819	.415
individual learning style	3.82	.39	3.57	.41	2.845	.006*
group learning style	3.80	.33	3.76	.32	.531	.597
Total	3.71	.22	3.56	.27	2.807	.006*

Figure4: Learning styles of students in each program

For English majors, the highest mean score was individual style, then group learning style. For Hotel Management, the highest mean score was group learning style followed by auditory learning style.

8. Discussion

The Chinese learning styles of students at Rajamangala University of Technology Srivijaya

The findings indicate that the undergraduate students have the greatest mean on a group learning style. This type of learner can learn best by working in pairs and a group. This is consistent with the findings of Rungfha Kitiyanuson (2006:57-58) which she found that the majority of the sample tend to have a group learning style. Teachers should facilitate this type of learning style by providing them group work or team work. Teachers can use the Problem Base Learning and the Project Base Learning to promote their learning style. A student- centered approach is suitable with students having a group learning style. Teachers should adapt their role from being a teacher into a facilitator who promote and encourage the students to learn (Office for Educational Reform, 2002: 5-12).

The second greatest mean ranking on the learning styles is an individual learning style. This type of learner can learn the best by themselves both in the classroom and outside the classroom to achieve their learning goal. This finding is consistent with the findings of Kanokporn Sriyanaluck (2008:15-16) who found have an independent learning style. She claimed that students having an independent learning style are able to acquire and learn best by themselves, hear and accept others' opinion, be attentive and confident in their study. They prefer learning by themselves rather than group work.

Next comes auditory learning style, students with this style are able to learn best by listening; for example, listening to the lecture, conversation, videotape recording, and discussion. In addition, this type of learner can learn best by listening and working in groups simultaneously through the conversation and discussion. Learning Chinese, students also need to use listening skills to acquire the target language, so that is why some of the Chinese language learners have an auditory learning style. This concept is consistent with the Chinese learning promotion policy that aims to realize and promote collaboration in learning Chinese. The main targets are groups of students and working people to be able to effectively use Chinese for communication (Uthaiwan Chalermchai, 2005: 7-11). Moreover, it is obviously seen that communicative skills are essential for language learners.

Fourth, visual learning style, was found that the undergraduate students have the fourth greatest mean ranking in this style. They prefer learning best by seeing and reading: reading books, maps, diagrams, pictures, visual aids, announcement board, and movies. The finding is consistent with the findings of Yanisa Booranachaithawee (2004: 81) who surveyed the learning styles of students majoring in Linguistics, Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University. The majority of students use visual, verbal and nonverbal whereas they seem to have less visual learning style because they might learn linguistics through acting and moving rather than learning from theory.

Lastly, some undergraduate students have an equal mean of learning styles: kinesthetic and tactile learning style. Learners having a kinesthetic learning can learn best by moving in simulations or assigned scenarios: for instance, role play activity, drama, interview, experiential learning, and collaborative learning whereas learners having a tactile learning style are able to learn best by doing: for example, creating a model, experimenting in the laboratory, and learning by touching: notebook and word cards. These two types of learning style are quite similar as they required learners to act and do in the learning process, but these learning types were the last ones that students have. This could be the reason that they are so worried in doing and expressing when learning the Chinese language.

Chinese learning styles of undergraduate students divided by gender, year and program of study

Comparing the learning styles of students divided by gender, there is significantly no difference of learning styles between male and female undergraduate students. It can be assumed that the learning behavior of male and female undergraduate students are quite comparable. This finding is consistent with the findings of Jongkol Poonsawat (2003: abstract) who surveyed the learning styles of students from the Faculty of Education, Kasertsart University. The result revealed that there was no different learning styles of male and female students so teachers may pay less attention to the gender factor in the teaching and learning process.

Comparing the learning styles of students divided by year of study, there is a significant difference in learning styles between the 1st and 2nd year students. 2nd year undergraduate students have a greater mean in auditory learning style. This could be explained by the 2nd year students have much more Chinese language skill than the 1st year students, so they could listen well through conversation and discussion activities whereas the 1st year students have less Chinese competence, so they not able to listen and express the language well and this might influence their learning aptitudes. Other reasons affecting the difference of learning style between the years of study are personality traits, psychological and environmental aspect. This claim is consistent with the findings of Rattanaporn Pinkaew et all. (2013: 162) who surveyed the learning styles of undergraduate students and found that there was no difference in learning styles between years of study of the learners.

Comparing the learning styles of students divided by the program of the study, there is a significant difference of learning styles between students majoring in English for International Communication and those majoring in Hotel Management. Students majoring in English for International Communication have the greatest mean in an individual learning style as students need to search and study by themselves in the Chinese courses whereas those majoring in Hotel Management have the greatest mean in a group learning style as the they need group participation and group work. This could imply that the characteristic of the subject indirectly affects the learning styles of learners and it is consistent with the findings of Kanokporn Sriyanrat (2008: 16-22) who surveyed the Chinese learning styles of students and found that there was a difference between avoidance and cooperative learning styles. This could be caused by the Chinese content in an elective courses and a minor course are more intensive than an elective course. This is consistent with the findings of Chirawan Panputtharat (2008: 1) who surveyed the learning styles of undergraduate students in the Faculty of Science and Technology. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between the program of study of the learners.

9. Conclusion

The results from this study indicate that there is a variety of learning styles of students, so teachers should provide suitable teaching and a learning process for them. Overall, the majority of the sample group have a group learning style that they can learn best by grouping or learn by team work. As a result, teachers should provide them language learning through group work or pair work activities, but teachers need to be aware of the other factors, year and the program of study, when conducting the teaching in order to meet the learning effectiveness of the learners.

10. Suggestions for further studies

1. A survey of other learning styles based on other theories is recommended in order that teachers are able to know other aspects of students' learning styles.
2. Surveys on the learning styles of students who learn other languages are suggested, and to compare the similarity and differences between them.
3. A correlational study should be conducted between the teaching styles of teachers and learning styles of students.
4. Surveys on the learning styles of students in another majors should be conducted in order to find suitable ways and methods to promote their Chinese learning.
5. Surveys on the learning styles of students who learn the Chinese language in another universities is recommended, and the benefit of the study could enlighten teachers in administering and providing learning to students effectively.

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A Preliminary Investigation of the Effects of Visual Cues on Sentence Stress Production of EFL Elementary Students

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Abstract
Teaching English phonics is a common practice in pronunciation instruction in Taiwan's elementary English language classes. However, elementary students in Taiwan often perform poorly on suprasegmentals like intonation and sentence stress, and the suprasegmental aspects of English are not emphasized in class and in textbooks. Nevertheless, research findings support the teaching of suprasegmentals as it brings benefits to students' communicative competence. Therefore, this study attempted to explore the effect of visual cues used in a written text on Taiwan elementary students' sentence stress production. The participants (11 elementary students) were given a reading aloud task where the experimental group used a written text with visual cues on sentence stress and the control group did not use such a text. The relatively low scores on the three rating items (sentence stress, fluency and pronunciation) for most students in both groups reflected that the text might be too difficult for the students' level or the students lacked practice time. The results indicated that in order for EFL elementary students, who are beginners of English, to apply sentence stress, teachers should make sure that they are familiar with the words and have confidence in word production first. Also, explicit teaching of sentence stress might be needed.

Keywords: second language learning, elementary education, pronunciation, suprasegmental

Introduction

In Taiwanese elementary education, students start to learn English in grade three. Phonics has been integrated in some elementary English textbooks and classroom instructions to help students pronounce English words. Although Taiwan's grade one to nine curriculum guidelines have listed recognition of sentence intonation, word and sentences stress and sentence rhythm as part of the listening competence indicators and the use of appropriate intonation in sentences as part of the speaking competence indicators, such aspects are not emphasized in textbooks and in classes in Taiwan. Derwing and Rossitter (2003) also reported that many ESL materials in the West focus mainly on segmentals and very little on prosodic factors. It is understandable that phonics is more focused on in elementary classrooms in Taiwan because it is fundamental to speaking. A sentence is built from words. If a person cannot even pronounce words in English, they definitely will have difficulties saying sentences or communicating in English.

Nevertheless, it is common to find that elementary students in Taiwan speak English in chant with a flat tone. Juffs (1990) found that Chinese learners of English tended to stress every word in speech. Native speakers of Chinese seem to have a problem in the primary stress (sentence stress) system in English. Studies found that students' first language can be an influential factor regarding this problem (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Gillette, 1994; Graham, 1994; Pennington, 1994). Mandarin, Taiwanese elementary students' first language, is tonal and is very different from English, which is "stress-timed and syllable-timed (for example, WHAT's his addRESS?)" (Gilakjani, 2012b, p. 121). Suprasegmental features such as linking and stress will be foreign to them. This means that it will be a challenging task for them to master these aspects of English. Unfortunately, English lessons in elementary classrooms in Taiwan seem to be focused on correct pronunciation of words, and suprasegmental practices are not much emphasized.

Gilakjani (2012b, p. 120) illustrated the features of English pronunciation very clearly as shown in Figure 1. Phonics teaching, focusing on sounds, is on the segmental side. It provides students with a foundation in English pronunciation. Nonetheless, research found that teaching suprasegmentals (such as intonation, phrasing, stress, timing, rhythm) brought positive effects on communication competence (e.g. Anderson-Hsieh, Johnson, & Koehler, 1992; Anderson-Hsieh & Keohler, 1998; Derwing, Munro, & Wiebe, 1998; Derwing & Rossiter, 2003; Fraser, 2001; Hahn, 2004; Jenkins, 2002; Tanner & Landon, 2009). A study investigating 46 adult ESL/EFL learners' pronunciation needs and strategies found that learners perceived the suprasegmental aspect of pronunciation as more important than the segmental aspect (Kolokdaragh, 2010). Learning English is not just to be able to pronounce individual English words correctly. It is important to carry a message across and to be able to communicate with others.

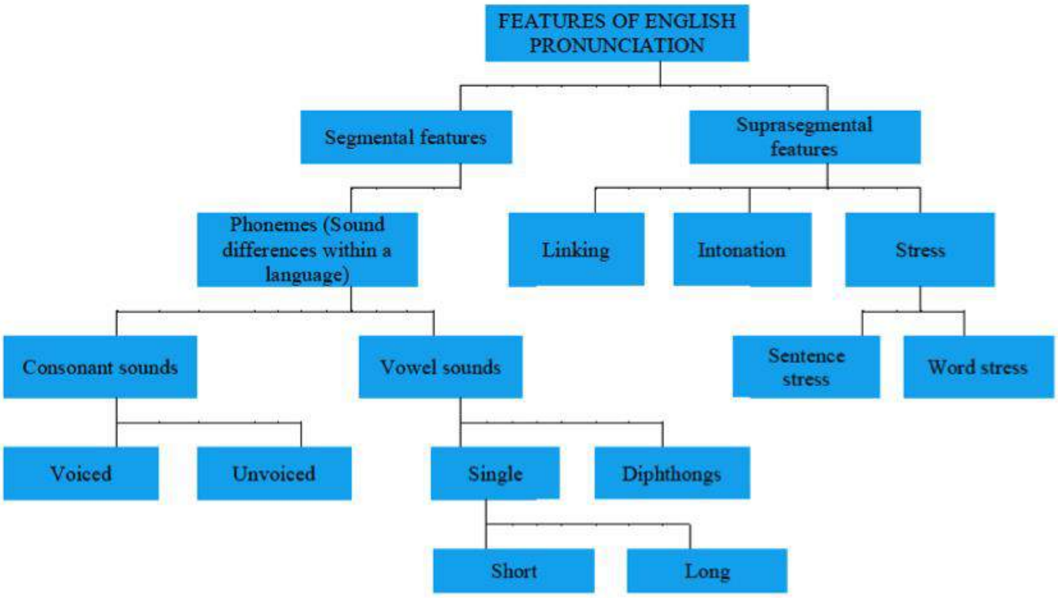

Fig. 1. Features of English pronunciation from Gilakjani (2012b, p. 120)

Suprasegmentals are found to be important to effective communication in English. Tanner and Landon (2009) found that rhythm, stress and intonation of speech were important to learners' overall intelligibility and perceived comprehensibility. Derwing, Munro and Wiebe (1997) reported that when prosodic features were emphasized in class, ESL learners with fossilized pronunciation showed significant improvement in intelligibility, comprehensibility and accent. In Derwing, Munro and Wiebe's other study (1998), the results suggest that global instruction focusing on suprasegmental features such as stress, intonation and rhythm could benefit learners in extemporaneous speech production. Derwing and Rossiter (2003) also found that the students in the global group showed significant improvement over time in comprehensibility and fluency for a narrative task and an 8% decrease in negative prosodic comments, whereas the students in the segmental group showed no improvement and an 8% increase in negative prosodic comments. In a study of 60 nonnative speakers, Anderson-Hsieh, Johnson and Koehler (1992) found that ratings of pronunciation comprehensibility and acceptability were highly correlated with overall prosody score.

To improve elementary students' communicative competence, English lessons should put more weight on suprasegmental practice (Derwing & Rossiter, 2003). In recent years, research has been advocating the instruction of suprasegmentals in ESL classes (e.g., Gauthier, Shi, & Yi, 2009; Morley, 1991; Seferoglu, 2005). Morley (1991) proposed a change of emphasis in teaching methodologies from segmental to suprasegmental with more focus on communicative competence than on linguistic competence. McNerney and Mendelsohn (1992) suggested that suprasegmentals were essential to the comprehensibility of students' English and, therefore, the teaching of suprasegmentals should be prioritized in short-term pronunciation courses.

It is important to note that while more emphasis should be put on suprasegmentals, this does not mean that the teaching of segmentals should be ignored. Burns (2003) reminded that pronunciation teaching should include both. In short, putting emphasis on suprasegmentals in English language instruction would benefit learners' speaking skills.

Purpose of this study

Most research done in the area of pronunciation has focused on ESL/EFL adults. Therefore, more attention should be drawn to investigating ESL/EFL young children's learning of pronunciation. As mentioned above, elementary students in Taiwan often have a problem in English stress. This study attempted to make elementary students aware of stress in English, which is one of the suprasegmental features essential to effective English communication (Burns, 2003). When lexical stress is used incorrectly in speech, listeners have difficulties locating words (Field, 2005). Hahn (2004) maintained that sentence stress is crucial in effective communication. If sentence stress is used correctly in speech, it helps listeners understand and remember the content. Therefore, Hahn (2004) proposed to include sentence stress in ESL classes. Furthermore, stress was selected because it can be expressed in a more concrete way in texts by making the stressed parts bigger and bold, which is manageable for children in the concrete operational stage (Piaget, 1970). Gilakjani (2012a) also suggested that "[t]eachers can help students by highlighting elements such as sounds, syllables, stress and intonation" (p. 103). The highlight effect provides visual assistance to elementary students to know when to stress when reading texts aloud.

In this study, the visual aids for reading aloud (VARA) system developed by the author was used. The VARA system is used in reading texts, differentiating the syllables and highlighting word stress and sentence stress to give students visual cues for pronunciation.

In a pilot test, students found that the visual cues were too overwhelming. Therefore, this study focused on just one of the suprasegmentals, sentence stress.

The aim of this study was to explore the effect of the use of the VARA system on sentence stress production in reading aloud tasks for Taiwanese elementary students.

The context of the study

In this study, nine junior university students designed a five-day English summer camp for an elementary school in Taiwan. They were pursuing a bachelor's degree in foreign language instruction at a university in southern Taiwan. This degree program aims to prepare students to be EFL teachers. These nine student teachers did this five-day English summer camp in July as part of their graduation project. They started preparing four months before the English camp took place under the guidance of their advisor. They needed to organize all the camp activities, design English lessons, produce learning materials and teaching aids and teach in the camp.

The target elementary school is located in a remote area in central Taiwan. It is a small school with only 43 students from grade one to grade six. Formal English classes are provided starting from grade three onwards. Before the English summer camp took place, the target elementary school recruited 19 of their students between grade three and grade six to join this summer camp. They were divided into two classes – Class A (10 students) and Class B (9 students). Each class contained mixed grade students ranging from grade three to grade six (see Table 1). The student teachers designed six 40-minute English lessons to teach three stories – two simplified Greek stories, Pandora's box and Perseus and Medusa, and one adapted short story about Snow White and seven dwarfs. Both classes had the same lessons. On the fifth day of the camp, each class had to participate in an English performance event in the form of a readers' theater. Class A performed on Pandora's box and Class B performed on Perseus and Medusa. To prepare for the event, three lessons distributed on the second, third and fourth days of the camp were assigned for students to practice their readers' theater performances. Students in lower grades were responsible for easier lines, and students in higher grades were responsible for more difficult lines in their readers' theater. The aim of the camp was to cultivate students' confidence in speaking English.

Table 1. Distribution of students in Class A and Class B

Grade	Number of students in Class A	Number of students in Class B
Grade 3	3	2
Grade 4	5	5
Grade 5	2	1
Grade 6	0	1
	Total = 10	Total = 9

Research Method

The 11 participants of this study were grade four to grade six students participating in the five-day English summer camp mentioned above (there should be 14 students, but 3 were absent on that day). Students in grade three were excluded as they just started learning English. The participants were randomly divided into the experimental group (6 students) and the control group (5 students) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Distribution of students in experimental group and control group

Grade	Experimental Group	Control Group
Grade 4	3	3
Grade 5	2	2
Grade 6	1	0
	Total = 6	Total = 5

After their story-telling lesson, the experimental group was given the story script of Pandora's box where the VARA system was used to practice reading aloud the first half of the script for 15 minutes, whereas the control group was given the original story script. After the practice time, both the experimental and control groups were given time to read the story script aloud individually, and each was audio recorded. An excerpt of the story script with the VARA system is shown below:

"**Here** is a gift for you, Pan**do**ra!"
"It's a **beau**tiful box. **Thank** you **very** much!"
"But you **must** not open this **box**."

The blinded recordings were graded on a scale of zero to ten on sentence stress as well as pronunciation and fluency by three independent English teachers, who were experienced EFL teachers in a university in Taiwan. Pronunciation refers to correct pronunciation of individual words, and fluency refers to overall flow of speaking. The story script with the VARA system and a native speaker's recording of the script were provided to the teachers as a reference. The scores of the experimental and control groups were analyzed using independent t-tests on the Students' T-Test website (http://studentsttest.com) and a Pearson correlation coefficient on the Social Science Statistics website (http://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/pearson/Default2.aspx).

Results

Inter-rater reliability Pearson coefficients (r) for the three teachers on the reading aloud task ratings were as follows: fluency, 0.79; sentence stress, 0.78 and pronunciation, 0.61.

In order to compare the sentence stress, pronunciation and fluency scores between the experimental (with the VARA system in text) and control (without the VARA system in text) groups, three separate independent sample t-tests were conducted. The means and standard deviations are reported in Table 3. The results of all three tests (sentence stress, pronunciation and fluency) did not show statistical significance ($p>0.10$) (See Table 4). This indicated that the performance of sentence stress, pronunciation and fluency in the reading aloud task between the experimental group and control group was similar, and the scores (with a maximum of 10) on these three areas were relatively low.

Table 3. The means and standard deviations of sentence stress, pronunciation and fluency scores of the experimental and control groups

Scoring Items	Experimental Group n=6		Control Group n=5	
	Means	SD	Means	SD
Sentence stress	5.89	0.58	6.60	0.93
Pronunciation	6.50	0.81	7.13	0.90
Fluency	5.94	1.14	6.07	1.55

Table 4. Significance of sentence stress, pronunciation and fluency scores between the experimental and control groups

Scoring Items	Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)
Sentence stress Exp. – Con.	-0.71	0.155
Pronunciation Exp. – Con.	-0.63	0.250
Fluency Exp. – Con.	-0.13	0.883

As there were no significant differences found on sentence stress, pronunciation and fluency scores between the experimental group and the control group, follow up correlation coefficient analyses between sentence stress and pronunciation, between sentence stress and fluency and between pronunciation and fluency were conducted to find out their relationships. The Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*) was used. In the experimental group, the correlation coefficient between the sentence stress and pronunciation scores was found to be positively and strongly related ($r=0.894$, $p<0.05$). The correlation coefficient between the sentence stress and fluency scores and between the pronunciation and fluency scores were also positively and strongly related ($r=0.954$, $p<0.01$; $r=0.9005$, $p<0.05$ respectively). The correlation coefficient in the control group was similar. The scores between sentence stress and pronunciation, between sentence stress and fluency and between pronunciation and fluency were positively and strongly related ($r=0.812$, $p<0.10$; $r=0.971$, $p<0.01$; $r=0.925$, $p<0.05$ respectively). This means that when the pronunciation score or the fluency score goes up, the sentences stress score also goes up and vice versa.

Discussion and conclusion

This study investigated whether the use of the VARA system in a written text improves elementary students' sentence stress production in a reading aloud task. Although the aim of this study was to look at the effect on sentence stress production, two other scores, pronunciation (correct pronunciation of words) and fluency (the overall flow of speech) were also collected. The results showed that sentence stress, pronunciation and fluency scores were positively correlated, but showed no significant differences between the experimental and control groups. The relatively low scores on all three scoring items from both the control and experimental groups (see Table 3) revealed that the students did not perform well in the reading aloud task in general. It seemed that the text was difficult for the students.

In the students' audio recordings, the students seemed to struggle with word production. They quite often took a long time to utter a word. It could be speculated that sentence stress and fluency were, hence, negatively affected. When the students had to struggle with words, the VARA system seemed to pose no benefit on the reading aloud task. Some research (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Lennon, 1990; Skehan & Foster, 1997; VanPatten, 1990) suggested that, in second language production, people cannot process too much information at the same time. For example, Skehan and Foster (1997) found that second language learners could not focus on fluency, accuracy and syntactic complexity equally. Lennon (1990) pointed out that, when syntactic complexity increases, fluency will be compromised. When the elementary students tried to figure out how to say the words (spending their cognitive resources on the segmental), they would have difficulty drawing attention to the suprasegmental aspect (i.e. sentence stress in this study) even though there were visual cues.

Besides the fact that the text could have been too difficult for the students, it could be that the experimental group did not receive explicit instruction on sentence stress. The students were just provided with the reading aloud text with the VARA system and a brief description of the VARA system (i.e. the bigger and bold parts should be stressed). The students might not have realized what it was really about. Research found that when teachers explicitly taught suprasegmentals (Derwing, Munro & Wiebe, 1998) or sentence stress (Pennington & Ellis, 2000), this brought improvement to students. Therefore, to help students relate sentence stress with the VARA system in written text, teachers can explicitly demonstrate in class and have students practice using the system to guide them to read aloud. Teachers can give corrective feedback when necessary. When students are more aware of and more familiar with sentence stress, it is more likely for them to make this skill automatic. As a result, students will need less effort when using the system (McLaughlin, Rossman & McLeod, 1983). After students understand how the VARA system works, they may be able to work on their own to practice sentence stress.

The fact that this study did not show significant differences between the experimental and control groups could be due to some limitations in this study. This present research can be improved in some ways:

- increase sample size;
- adjust the reading aloud task to match students' level;
- provide sufficient segmental practices before the task;
- expose the experimental group to the suprasegmental aspect, i.e. sentence stress, using the VARA system in the reading aloud text for a longer period of time and
- change the experimental design to between group and within group designs.

This study implied that, in order for EFL elementary students, who are beginners of English, to apply sentence stress, teachers should make sure that they are familiar with the words and have confidence in word production first. Teachers can use both the bottom-up and top-down approaches to teach pronunciation. In this way, when the students are learning about English sounds, they can also get a broader sense of what English is like. Furthermore, more research should be done to investigate the effect of the VARA system on learning English pronunciation, and the potential to use it in the ESL/EFL classroom as a self-study aid.

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A Cognitive Approach on Bidirectional Language Transfer: How to Figure Out the Ground?

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to examine bi-directional language transfer between Mandarin Chinese and English from a cognitive approach. While previous studies mostly focused on "transfer" from habit of L1 (Kleinmann, 1977) or avoid to use the form of L1-L2 difference (Laufer and Eliasson, 1993), our research questions are: Does bidirectional language transfer exist? And how is it correlated with L1 and L2 proficiency. We conducted a cognition-based experiment with 33 participants using picture description task (Isurin, 2005) to test the 'figure-ground' relationship in L1 Mandarin and L2 English.

The results interestingly showed that transfer occurred especially in learners of higher L2 proficiency level. We provided explanation through cognition and Krashen (1982)'s Monitor Model. As an example: advanced L2 English learners displayed much higher tendency of cognition pattern shift from L1 Mandarin since they had sufficient knowledge to create an English sentence reflecting the Mandarin pattern but at the same time grammatical according to their L2 interlanguage.

As conclusion, language habits are strong. That is why L1 transfer to L2. However, with the increased L2 experience, the L2 pattern will also influence one's cognitive system, resulting in bi-directional transfer.

Keywords: Bidirectional language transfer, Cognition, Chinese, English

Introduction

This study is motivated by the interaction between Mandarin and the worldwide lingua franca English. Along with the increased usage of English, learners may go through transfer effect. It is traditionally expected that L2 will be influenced by L1 but recent research also studied the opposite direction that L1 is influenced by L2. In our study, we examine bi-directional language transfer between Mandarin Chinese and English through a cognitive approach to avoid the influence of experimental factors such as syntax complexity.

Our research questions are: 1) Does bidirectional language transfer exist? 2) Is the language transfer from L1 negatively correlated with L2 language proficiency (L1->L2, the lower the proficiency of L2, the higher possibility of influence from L1 to L2)? 3) Is the language transfer from L2 positively correlated with the L2 language proficiency (L2->L1, the higher the proficiency of L2, the higher possibility of influence from L2 to L1)? The content is divided as follow: Section 2 includes the literature review and section 3 represents the method of our study, while section 4 provides our results followed by discussion and limitations in Section 5 and 6. Finally, the conclusion is drawn in section 7.

Literature review

Since behaviorism, the notion of "transfer" (Lado, 1957) or "cross linguistic influence" (Kellerman & Sharwood Smith, 1986) has been widely discussed in the linguistic field. Generally, it states that "the learning of task A will influence the learning of task B" (Gass and Selinker, 2008), therefore leading to positive or negative results in Second language acquisition (SLA). Within this direction, it has been a subject of controversy since it is hard to determine if the error or unusual usage produced is being transferred from L1, citing as an example Fries (1957) and Postman (1971) highlighting the role of L1. However, George (1972), Dulay and Burt (1975) or Richard and Sampson (1974) among others had more skeptical opinion. They argued that fewer than 5% of errors were due to native language interferences while most of errors were developmental. This divergence was mainly caused by different interpretation of experimental results. This is also why we propose in our study a novel method to exclude this issue.

On the side where transfer is supported, previous studies first relied on the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), such as Hakuta (1974b) and Larsen-Freeman (1975a, 1975b) who focused on the different learning result process of Japanese. Also, Schachter (1974) and Sjoholm (1976) demonstrated that Finnish speakers learning English made errors traced back to their L2 (Swedish) rather than to their L1 because it was more similar to English, which supported that transfer did occur. Another approach among others was Avoidance: Kleinmann (1977) showed that participants chose to use certain structures over others depending on their habit of L1. And as Laufer and Eliasson (1993) concluded also, the best predictor of avoidance is the L1-L2 difference: in their experiment Hebrew speakers avoided phrasal verbs (ex: back up, come down) and used single-verb synonyms since their own language did not have the first category. These results being in concordance with semantics studies of Slobin (2004) toward expression of motion events, which proved that indeed: language habits are strong. As a summary, the traditional approaches did have their advantages but also weaknesses in explaining transfer. Due to this reason, within recent studies, two novel perspectives have been appearing: L2 to L1 transfer and cognitive approach.

The first is investigating the influence of L2 on L1. This is quite new since previous studies were mainly assuming that only L1 could be strong enough to affect L2. From syntactic point of view, Hsu (1994) and Gao (2005) demonstrated that "Englishization" of Mandarin Chinese was occurring in offline and online context, symbolizing the impact from English on Chinese in computer-mediated communication. As an example in (1), on the syntactic level part of speech or word order can be affected, in a), the noun (電話, telephone) is used as a verb. In b), the adverbial time phrase (明年, next year) is moved from before the verb phrases (去美國, to America) to after it.

(1) L2 English affecting L1 Mandarin

a.有空電話我。 (Mandarin)
You kong dian hua wo
Have time telephone me
'Call me if you have time.'

b.我去美國明年。 (Mandarin)
Wo qu mei guo ming nian
I go America next year
'I am going to the US the next year.'

In the field of phonology, similar results were obtained by Jiang (2008), who demonstrated that English learning lead to Mandarin-English bilinguals carrying some English characteristics in their L1 Mandarin vowel production.

The second new subject is the cognitive approach, where researchers assume that human cognition is driving our language, and provides new methodologies in experiment. This direction mainly focuses on the speech style related to cognition. Larrañaga, Treffers-Daller, Tidball, Ortega (2011) studied the longitudinal influence of L1 on L2 within English speakers learning Spanish. The important point is that they realized that path was acquired easily for its presence in both languages but the encoding manner did pose difficulties to learners due to its much lower frequency in Spanish. Garcia-Mayo (2012) also provided an analysis of L3 acquisition study through a cognitive point of view. And Snape et al. (2013) demonstrated through an analysis of generic noun phrases (NPs) in four different languages including English, Spanish, Turkish and Japanese, that L2 speech style was influenced by L1.

Finally, some linguists combined the two novel approaches, Isurin (2005) studied the effect of L2 English on L1 Russian through an analysis of speech style, demonstrating that L2 learners tend to adapt the syntactic structure of a new language to that of their native language and/or avoid redundancies by generalizing the rule where irregularities are minimized. As a summary, novel approaches including transfer from L2 to L1 and cognitive-based methodology provided a new insight for second language acquisition studies. Nevertheless since it emerged recently, we still have some space to conduct a more detailed analysis. This will be the main direction of our research.

Method

We followed the research of Schachter and Rutherford (1979). They analyzed written output of Chinese and Japanese speakers learning English, observing a high appearance of topic related forms, such as a high presence of “there is” or “there are” sentence pattern, e.g “there is a small restaurant near my house in my country”. This was supposed to come from a particular discourse function from L1. Also, based on Isurin’s (2005) research containing three tasks, semi-spontaneous speech, picture description, and story-telling to test the possible syntactic changes (e.g. word order) between Russian and English, we adopted the picture description task, to test where the cognitive “focus” is in a sentence.

Our study differed in the way that: First we chose speech form rather than written form. Second, we included the two directions of possible influence combinations (English to Mandarin & Mandarin to English). Third, according to Dagut and Laufer (1985), certain forms of L2 may be dispreferred by learners due to the complexity. Thus we adopted a cognitive approach and did not target structure details but “focus ordering” within it. We were then able to narrow down the influence of other factors such as context or grammar complexity since they were unified on a basis of cognition. In our research we made identical the parameters other than L1, as an example: we involved a picture description task representing a book on a table. From semantics point of view, the cognitive image schema composed of figure and ground is identical between different languages, only their ordering could vary, as explained by the principle of Gestalt and Pragnanz.

The main scope for determining language transfer was by where the Figure would be positioned in the sentence. Nevertheless, to avoid the expression difficulty on learner’s side and at the same time the weak point of previous studies, complex or detailed syntactic forms would not be considered in our analysis. According to Li and Thompson (1981), Mandarin was termed as a topic-prominent language since in addition to the grammatical relations of “subject” and “direct object” the description of Mandarin also included the element “topic”. That is why we chose to examine the focus of topic in a speaker’s language behavior. It may however be arguable that this would cause a problem to this experiment since we rely on word ordering but thanks to Slobin (2003), we avoided this issue. He proposed the concept of “thinking for speaking” in which cognition plays a dynamic role within the framework of linguistic expression. In other words, when constructing utterances in discourse, one would fit his thoughts into available linguistic forms. As a result, in our study, we simply examined what our subjects first chose in their speech as the proof of one’s cognitive preference and excluded the influence of context.

We did not investigate the detailed variation of phonological transfer processes and results because it would be too difficult to measure the interaction between various factors. And it did not influence our data since we only focused on topic position in sentence. Morphology was not intervening either, due to the fact that there was no obvious morphological transfer between L1 and L2. On the pragmatic side, Odlin & Alson-Vazquez (2006) and Odlin (2008) demonstrated that conceptual transfer may occur between L1 and L2, this is why we chose the cognitive level of figure and ground as the parameter to avoid too complicated factors in the equation. Interlanguage transfer (L2 influencing L3) has also been the target of previous studies such as de Groot and Hoeks (1995), where different proficiency resulted in various lexical-semantic organizations in our mind (e.g. mind-L1-L2 or mind-L1&L2). We did not examine this dimension here to prevent from discussing too many issues at once; moreover, this kind of interference could be easily excluded by filtering participant background. Young (1991) and Hyltenstam (1977) also demonstrated the importance of systematic variation within the learning process and the influence of L2 proficiency in their studies. This is why we had different proficiency groups in our experiment.

Participants

In total, 33 people who learned English in formal educational system were chosen and divided into three experimental groups conforming to different levels of English proficiency. The proficiency level was decided in terms of most common English standard test in Taiwan, such as GEPT, TOEIC, and TOFEL, in agreement with CEF (Common European Framework) announced by Ministry of Education. For basic level, participants are beyond intermediate level in GEPT, under 550 points in TOEIC, or beyond 57 in TOFEL. For intermediate level, participants are between intermediate and advanced in GEPT, from 551 to 780 points in TOEIC, or from 58 to 87 in TOFEL. For advanced level, participants are over advanced level in GEPT, more than 781 points in TOEIC, or higher than 87 in TOFEL. We assumed that the production of these 33 people could represent the interference of L1 and L2 from two directions. Groups were shown respectively in Table 1:

Speaking Mandarin (L1)	Speaking English (L2)	English Proficiency (L2)
	10	Basic
	10	Intermediate
	12	Advanced
10		Basic
11		Intermediate
12		Advanced

Table1. Source of data for participants

An important point needing explanation is that we did not gather control groups, since previous studies such as Chan (2004) already proved the prominent pattern of existential functions within English and Mandarin. As shown in (2).

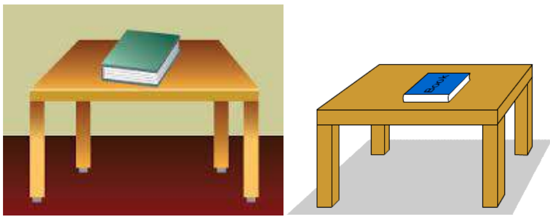
(2) Existential clause prominent pattern

a.There is a book on the table (English)
b.桌上有一本書 (Mandarin)
zhuō shàng yǒu yì běn shū
Table on have one CL book
‘On the table is a book’

Experiment

Participants were asked to describe what they observed in the picture (a book on a table) as in (3a) during 1 minute in L1 (Mandarin) and three days later, participants were asked to describe another picture (also a book on a table) in L2 (English), as shown in (3b).

(3)a. b.



We used different pictures to avoid direct translation from our participants. Participants would be hinted before they described. The clues were consisted of filters such as the color of items, the number of items, and the target topic: the position of items to make sure that the target topic could be extracted without being penetrated by participants. All the production was recorded and the figure-ground sentences were identified and transcribed into Pinyin and English translation respectively. The data were separated into two categories: L1 transferring to L2 and L2 transferring to L1, then analyzed.

Results

As a reminder, our research is composed of three questions: 1) Does bidirectional language transfer exist? 2) Is the language transfer from L1 negatively correlated with L2 language proficiency? 3) Is the language transfer from L2 positively correlated with the L2 language proficiency? Through one on one interview, our experiment gathered a total of 65 tokens instead of 66 (1 token in English spoken data was damaged), each one representing a spoken description in English or Mandarin of the “book on the table” and lasting 1 minute in average. Within these results, we first analyzed the positioning of the figure (the book) and ground (the table) inside the utterance to verify the existence of transfer.

For the first research question, we refer to Figure 1 and 2. In Figure 1 we can see that in Mandarin speech, the occurrence of shifting between figure and ground is increasing along with the English proficiency. In other words, the more evolved the English ability, the higher amount of participants who changed from preferred mandarin pattern of “first table then book” (ground-figure) to transferred English pattern of “first book then table” (figure-ground). Basic level of L2 learners did have half less appearance of the phenomenon, only 30%, but increasing to 50% in their intermediate or advanced level counterparts. A sample of Mandarin speech with English pattern is also provided in (4).

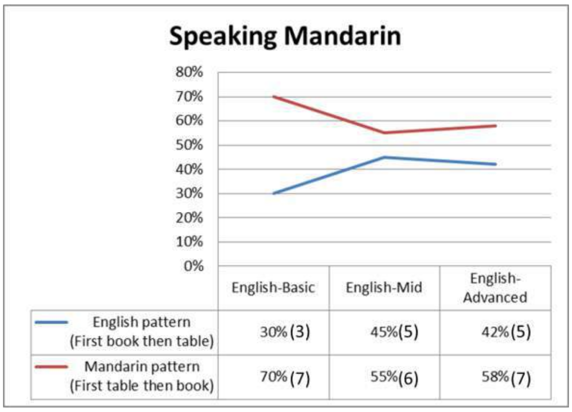


Figure1. Participants speaking Mandarin

(4) Transfer from L2 English to L1 Mandarin
這裡有一本書放在桌子上 (Mandarin)
zhè lǐ yǒu yì běn shū fàng zài zhuō zi shàng
Here have a CL book put table on
'There is a book on the table'

A similar effect is observed in Figure 2, but in a different direction. We can see that in English speech, beginners and mid-level learners did not show a strong tendency of figure-ground shifting, only 20% and 0%. However, high-proficiency English learners displayed 50% of shifting. Showing that before reaching a high level of proficiency, the learners respected the preferred pattern of English with "first book then table" (figure-ground), but at a higher level, they came back to the prominent manner of their mother tongue, reflected by "first table then book" (ground-figure). The levels of representation were however different between both directions. This part will be explained by our two other research questions. A sample is displayed in (5).

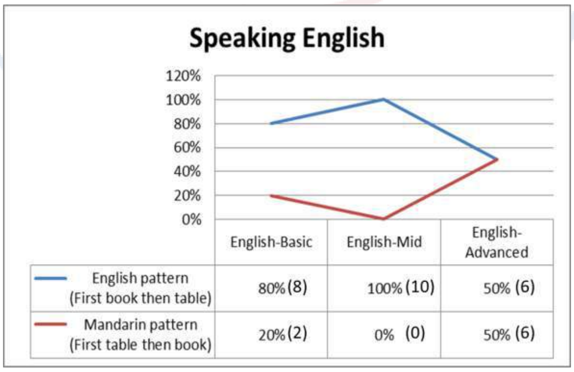


Figure2. Participants speaking English

(5) Transfer from L1 Mandarin to L2 English
There is a green table with a green book on it. (English)

For our second research question, we supposed that the language transfer from L1 would be negatively correlated with L2 language proficiency. Through Figure2 we analyzed the transfer frequency from Mandarin to English. Results displayed that the phenomenon of pattern switching from Mandarin increased along with the English level of participants. As an example: lower than 20% of learners displayed transfer within English basic level and intermediate level groups. However, the ratio augmented to 50% in the participants of advanced-level English proficiency. This result turned out to be in contradiction with our expectations. Nevertheless, it is still supporting our main hypothesis. More details will be explained in the discussion section.

For our third research question, we expected that the stronger the L2, the higher the possibility that it invades L1. The result of Figure1 shows that in basic level of English, the L1 cognitive pattern is still strong, keeping a 70% of the frequency. However, when reaching intermediate and advanced levels of English, our second language has higher tendency (50%) to influence speech. This seems to be in accordance with our suppositions but still requires further explanations, which will be provided in the next section. Moreover, another step was made to increase the significance of our analysis. After comparing the priority ranking between figure and ground (book and table) within learners' cognition, we extended the scope to the speech pattern of our subjects to check if this figure-ground relation was also applied within the entire description manner. The analysis showed that in 85% (55/65) of the time, the describing manner between figure and ground was similar to the speech pattern of the participant, whether in English or Mandarin. As an example, if the speaker described first the ground then the figure (first table then book) in his main utterance, the entire speech followed the same "from big to small" logic of pattern. The speaker described first the ground (the big things) then narrowed its sight to smaller elements, as demonstrated in (6). The speaker started from the entire room, went through the description of wall and floor, reached the table and finally arrived at the book and its cover.

(6) Pattern from ground to figure (English)
In a room with yellow and green wall and a dark red floor, there is a table. On the table you can find a book which has a green cover.

The similar pattern was observed in Mandarin also, as demonstrated through (7). Where the speaker started by describing the book then extended his view to bigger elements, such as table, and finally reached the entire room.

(7) Pattern from ground to figure (Mandarin)
有本很厚湖水綠的書放在四隻腳的桌子上,這張四隻腳　的桌子感覺就是放在房間的中央…
yǒu běn hěn hòu hú shuǐ lǜ de shū fàng zài sì zhī jiǎo de zhuō zi shàng, zhè zhāng sì zhī jiǎo de zhuō zi gǎn jué jiù shì fàng zài fáng jiān de zhōng (Pinyin)
have CL very thick lake water green book put at four leg of table on, this CL four leg of table seem is put at room of middle
'There is a very thick, lake-green colored book on a four-legged table, this four-legged table seems to be in the middle of the room.

By narrowing down the scope to speech in Mandarin, we can see in Table 3 and Figure 4 that the majority displayed the mandarin pattern (55%) of big to small (table to book). The English pattern is taking more shares according to the proficiency of learners in intermediate-level (45%), but at advanced level, they also tended to use both approaches for description.

	English-basic	English-intermediate	English-advanced	Total
Big to small	60%(6)	55%(6)	50%(6)	55%(18)
Small to big	30%(3)	45%(5)	33%(4)	36%(12)
Both	10%(1)	0%(0)	17%(2)	9%(3)
Total	100%(10)	100%(11)	100%(12)	100%(33)

Table3. Cognitive Direction Pattern When Speaking Mandarin

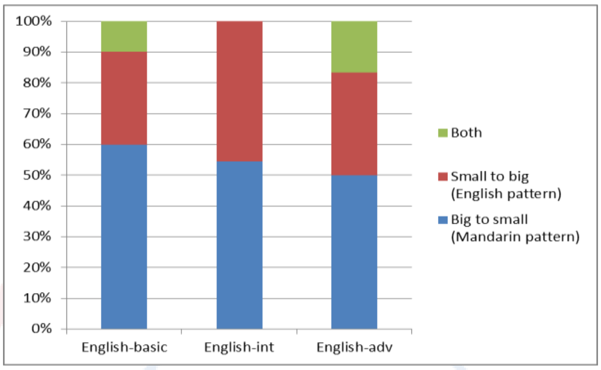


Figure4. Ratio of Cognitive Direction Pattern When Speaking Mandarin

On the other hand in Table 4 and Figure 5, English speech also had higher rate from its own pattern of small to big (50%). However we can see that along with the increase of English proficiency: first, the number of speakers using Mandarin pattern increased steadily from 0%, 10% to 25%. Second, more learners used both Mandarin and English pattern at the same time during their description, growing from 20% to 70% between basic and intermediate-level.

	English-basic	English-intermediate	English-advanced	Total
Big to small	0%(0)	10%(1)	25%(3)	13%(4)
Small to big	80%(8)	20%(2)	50%(6)	50%(16)
Both	20%(2)	70%(7)	25%(3)	37%(12)
Total	100%(10)	100%(10)	100%(12)	100%(32)

Table4. Cognitive Direction Pattern When Speaking English

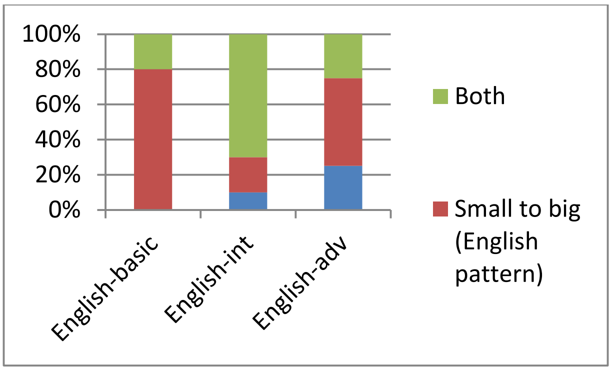


Figure5. Ratio of Cognitive Direction Pattern When Speaking English

As a conclusion for the result part, our predictions toward the existence of bi-directional language transfer turned out to be correct, but an interesting unexpected point was the fact that higher proficiency L2 English speakers underwent more transfer from their L1 Mandarin. Detailed explanations are provided in the following section.

Discussion

In this part, we will discuss our three research questions with ~~use~~ the obtained data. As previously mentioned in our method, each explanation will be divided into two steps: the first one being discussion through the scope of figure and ground, the second being extended to the range of speech pattern (from small to big or the opposite way.)

Research question 1

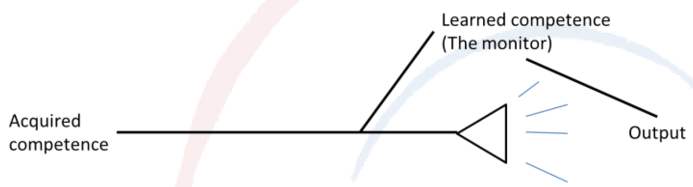
Following the results displayed in Figure 1 & 2, we realized that language transfer did occur in both directions. In Figure 1, native speakers of mandarin applied the cognition pattern of English when speaking Mandarin. In other words, the preferred concept in mandarin existential clause should be ground first then figure (table first then book); however speakers with higher proficiency of English as L2 showed an increasing usage of English existential clause pattern, composed of figure first then ground (book first then table). We could see from the statistics that 50% of mid and advanced level learners displayed the English pattern, in contrast with only 30% in basic level. On the other hand, transfer was also noted in Figure 2 by the opposite direction. Mandarin native speakers used their mother tongue pattern of ground first then figure (table first then book) when speaking English.

When enlarging our scope to the entire speech level, we analyzed the data in Table 3 & 4. The output supported our result on the figure-ground level: bidirectional transfer did occur. In Table 3, 40% of the speakers adopted English pattern (from small to big) in Mandarin speech. This ratio is nearly identical with the ground-figure percentage. Similar case is observed in Table 4, where 50% of English learners used Mandarin pattern (from big to small) in their English speech. As a resume, we can assume that the evidence is strong enough to support our expectations toward language transfer. However, further details need investigation through our two other research questions.

Research question 2

Our second research question was: Is the language transfer from L1 negatively correlated with L2 language proficiency (L1->L2, the lower the proficiency of L2, the higher possibility of influence from L1 to L2)? Through the analysis of Figure 1 & 2 we found that our prediction turned out to be incorrect: Basic and mid-level learners only had 20% and 0% of transfer, but advanced level learners used Mandarin pattern (table first then book) during English speech 50% of the time. Our explanation toward this anomaly is based on the Monitor Model of Krashen (1982), as displayed in (8). In this view, the learned system of L2 will serve as a controller and alter the output of the acquired system. In other words, the Monitor filters out the ungrammatical sentences and disallows them to surface out in speech output. This model has been the subject of controversy during previous studies, especially toward the definition of appliance and acquisition VS. learning differences. However, since it is not the main theme of our analysis, it does not affect our research.

(8) Krashen's Monitor Model



Explaining our data in Figure 2 based on Krashen's approach, we assume that in basic and mid-level, learners did not have sufficient knowledge as the monitor to excluded the output with mandarin pattern (table first then book) and could not create a sentence reflecting the Mandarin cognition pattern but at the same time grammatical according to their interlanguage. However, when learners reached advanced level, they found a way to fulfill these two criteria as demonstrated in (9). It resulted in a high tendency of Mandarin pattern in English speech.

(9) Advanced English learner L1 transfer (English)
It is a table and there is a green book on it.

This explanation is also supported when we enlarge the scope of analysis to the entire speech in Table 4. The ratio of speakers using the mandarin pattern of big to small in English speech is increasing from 0% to 25% along with the English proficiency. As demonstrated in (10). The more capacity they had, the easier English learners could reflect the pattern of their native language in speech.

(10) Advanced English learner L1 pattern (English)
I can see a room with red floor and green wall and I see a table… and a green book.

Our hypothesis is further supported by previous study of Pienemann and Johnston (1987), where they supposed that the learning process of a new language is constrained by specific steps, which cannot be bypassed. It mainly starts with a canonical order such as SVO: 'You are student?'. Only few stages later will it evolve into the capacity of complex movement within the sentence, such as 'You are not a student, are you?'. In our point of view, this is exactly what is limiting the production of basic and mid-level learners in their English speech. They did not reach the advanced stages of development yet, therefore they don't acknowledge the possibilities of movement to express the Mandarin cognition pattern through English. Due to this reason they are left with only one option: following the English pattern. This situation is changed when they arrived at advanced level where their interlanguages allow complex movement within the clause. As a resume, for our second research question, even if our prediction turned out to be wrong, the result still supports our main hypothesis. Moreover, the observed phenomenon can be explained though the monitor and word order development constraint. However, did the same situation occur in both directions? This is explained through our third research question.

Research question 3

Our third research question was: Is the language transfer from L2 positively correlated with the L2 language proficiency? Based on the results in Figure 1 we can acknowledge that our prediction was correct: The higher L2 proficiency, the stronger transfer from L2 when speaking L1. In learners of Basic English level, only 30% displayed the usage of English pattern (figure first then ground), but this ratio augmented to 50% in mid and advanced level. Similar variation is obtained by enlarging the scope of analysis to the speech level, where more speakers tend to use the English pattern (Small to Big) when having higher English level.

Nevertheless, one question may arise: if by research question 2 we acknowledged that language transfer was stronger from L1 Mandarin to L2 English with advanced learners, how come similar situation is encountered in the other direction? This implicates that when learners have a high proficiency of L2, both L1 and L2 have a strong transfer influence on the other language. This result could be viewed as contradiction but can be explained through our cognitive approach. From the cognitive view, it is proposed that the distance between grammar and cognition may vary between languages (Langacker, 1987 & 2008). In our case, English is a language with deeper grammar, meaning that the grammar is more formalize, therefore constraints on syntax will also be stronger. On the other hand, Mandarin has more connection with cognition, meaning that it will directly reflect the cognitive experience of the speaker rather than being dependent on fixed grammar. As a summary, the common ground between languages is the universal cognition of their speakers. This could explain why the pattern seems stronger when transferring from L2 English to L1 Mandarin: it is due to the fact that English is deeper in grammatical domain. English has a stronger influence compared to Mandarin, which is based on cognition.

Limitations

Since only 33 subjects participated in our study and 65 tokens was not enough to show an obvious tendency, more subjects for each proficiency levels and for the two control groups are needed in order to increase both reliability and validity. However, in this study we only examine the bi-directional transfer in Mandarin learners of English. As a result, we recommend further studies to examine the parallel questions of L1 English speakers learning L2 Mandarin. If the results show the same pattern, it can support that cognitive transfer effect is a universal phenomenon.

Conclusion

First, 50% of advanced level learners used the Mandarin focus pattern (ground first then figure) of existential clause during their English speech and 50% of mid and advanced level learners applied the cognition pattern of English (figure first then ground) when speaking Mandarin. This pattern was supported when analyzing the speech pattern as a whole. As a result, bi-directional transfer did exist in different context.

Second, the higher L2 proficiency, the stronger transfer from L2 when speaking L1, but L1 transfer to L2 occurred in higher frequency within advanced level learners of L2. It could be explained by Krashen’s theory. Advanced level learners displayed a much higher tendency of cognition pattern shift since their proficiency provided sufficient knowledge to create a sentence not only reflecting the Mandarin cognition pattern but also grammatical according to their interlanguage. On the other hand, the output of basic and mid-levels learners was filtered by the Monitor. Last but not least, the contradiction when learners have a high proficiency of L2, both L1 and L2 transfer on the other language can be explained through cognitive approach. Langacker (1987 & 2008) proposed that the distance between grammar and cognition might vary between languages. In our cases, English grammar has stronger constraints on Syntax while Mandarin directly reflects the cognitive experience of the speaker rather than being dependent on grammar.

In conclusion, language habits are strong. That is why L1 transfer to L2. However, from cognitive view, language is based on cognition and cognition itself is based on one’s experience. Along with the increasing L2 experience, the L2 pattern will also influence one’s cognitive system, resulting in bi-directional transfer.

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Empowering and Engaging the ESL Learners in the Task-Based ESL Curriculum Evaluation

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Abstract
The research delved into evaluation as central to curriculum planning, designing, and implementation in the teacher-initiated negotiated curriculum. What seemed to be a reverse approach in the process was explored in a quantitative-qualitative approach in data collection. Three (3) ESL classes in the tertiary level participated in the study utilizing a survey questionnaire and focus groups for analysis and interpretation of obtained results. Given the empowered learners' weekly evaluation of class activities and tasks, significant results produced an enhanced ESL curriculum open to ongoing assessment and evaluation.

Keywords: negotiated curriculum, learner empowerment, task-based curriculum evaluation

Introduction

Where relevant, meaningful, and productive instruction is facilitated, there is learning. Old school of thought had the teacher solely credited for this. Paradigm shifts in education, however, debunk the misconception, acknowledging that a learner-centred yields far better and more viable results than the teacher-dominated instruction.

In today's outcomes-based education for the 21st century learners, the same philosophy is advocated with the teacher and students' co-production in the setting of learning objectives, tasks, activities, and socially-constructed events inside the classroom. The global-oriented teacher adheres to the belief that getting the learners engaged in the collaborative process creates genuine and enhanced learning. Learner empowerment allows that 'voice' to get involved in all the activities that take place in and outside the classroom that pertain to delving into uncharted paths of discovering and learning and mastering one's way through it. Each and every learner is consulted from lesson planning to lesson evaluation. In concrete macroscopic pedagogical terms, that would be from curriculum planning, curriculum designing, curriculum implementation, curriculum assessment to curriculum evaluation.

In this negotiated curriculum, too, while a teacher has a certain amount of power in the classroom, learners clearly influence the pace and direction of the on-going interaction (Allwright, 1984). Teacher-leadership does not diminish for teacher support is still one of the scaffolds (Vygostky, 1983) needed to assist the learners in the process. The learners, on the other hand, reciprocate through peripheral participation in everything set in the educational programme, the most crucial of which is evaluation.

It is in evaluation that collaborative-inquiry reaches its penultimate, when the participants, teacher and students, realistically reflect on what may have transpired in a learning session that culminated in real learning. Rooted in first-hand experiences, students' reflections empower them to be insightful on their own learning process (Greene, 1978). An interactive decision-making initiated by the teacher once feedback is taken then becomes the core of possible revisions in the previous or existing or the basis before adopting a new programme.

Since the heart of an implemented curriculum is the conduct of series of tasks and activities in learning sessions, a task-based curriculum evaluation is certain to reveal significant feedback crucial to the evaluators. In second language learning (LL_2), results would indeed be vital to the ESL teacher aware that first language interference has for years been a struggle to the equally-challenged ESL learners.

Veered to this direction, the research focused on the active collaboration between the teacher and students empowered and engaged in a teacher-designed task-based curriculum evaluation. Meant to serve as a guide to maximize second language learning in successive sessions, it lends itself likewise to a serious quantitative-qualitative approach to continuously finding ways to improve the effectiveness of a second language programme. With teacher-leadership and learner empowerment in full active force, the expected main participants are the teacher and the learners.

Objectives of the Study

The study is aimed to answer the following:

General Problem:

What are the perceptions and preferences of ESL learners on tasks given in language learning sessions?

Sub-Problems:

How do ESL leaners rate teacher-given tasks in a language class?
How do ESL learners rank teacher-given tasks in a language class?

Significance of the Study

The research undertaking, in pursuit of optimizing the results of ESL (English as a Second Language) teaching-learning in a typical classroom, recognizes that learner interaction with the teacher through the years has been limited to class discussions and participation in teacher-designed students' tasks and activities. The concept of the learner-centred instruction already in practice, with the teacher as the facilitator, it seems, is short yet of the ideal which the study attempted to prove.

The negotiated curriculum which transcends the familiar understanding of learner-centeredness is a step further to eliciting simply the involvement of the learners in curriculum implementation of said classroom events. The study, therefore, engaged the selected research participants in an after-session evaluation of the tasks asked of them to perform. In an interactive decision-making, through feedback forms (pen and paper), validated by focussed-group discussions, each participant had the equal chance to share his perceptions about the subject, and to rate and rank every task he was asked to do. In part, this is learner empowerment.

In such collaborative sharing, all learners are treated as individually unique; thus explains the dynamic and unpredictable the nature of the typical classroom. Needs, desires, and wants vary which are to be accounted for in the holistic view of curriculum management. In addition, the realization that the ESL millennium learners are digital learners, quite advanced in access to information with their sophisticated gadgets and technological knowhow, somehow makes it more compelling to truly determine their personal views on learning. With different personal experiences or "baggage" which they bring to the classroom (Gabbrielli, 2012), to create a stimulating learning environment may be overwhelming to an ESL teacher schooled in a different period. To empower and engage them as learners will foster trust in mutual concern to guarantee tangible and intangible fruits of education.

Literature Review

Anchored on Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1978), stressing the psychological and social planes as bases for a child's cultural development, the research correlated second language learning to the social activity in which knowledge is constructed by the learner, together with his constant exposure to it.

With a humanistic view of students (Roger, 1974), and aware that language learning is a social process and personalized to be able to find meaning in it (Poplin & Sato, Henison, 2006), a committed ESL teacher builds a positive, mutual learning relationship, engaging the learners in interactive classes. Students and teachers are partners then in the teaching-learning relationship. Eventually, the teacher just serves as a scaffold (Vygotsky, 1983) with the learners owning and managing their own learning (Krashen, 1981, 1985).

In an ESL curriculum, the framework for its communicative feature is a set of learning opportunities set in tasks (Crabbe, 2007). Skehan (1998) contended that what matters in task-based approaches is the way meaning is brought into prominence by the emphasis on goals and activities. The tasks need outcomes to motivate learners into participation. Learning opportunities are the means available to learners at all times, self-directed and managed to be considered as products of learning. While tasks are procedural, learning opportunities are potential.

A task-based evaluation must have one for its intentions the greater probability that the potential have become real learning opportunities. The evaluators' responses to questions are an invaluable feedback for reflection, further inquiry, decision-making, and action. Identified phenomena in the here-and-now (Maley, 1994) while lessons are in progress must be considered in the formulation of items in the evaluation. Richards & Lockhart (1994) included in their own list questions on clarity of instructions in the accomplishment of tasks, relevance and level of difficulty of the tasks, time constraints, suitability of materials used, getting and sustaining the students' attention, acquisition of information, acquired language to perform the tasks, use and mastery of the language in order, and fun and enjoyment in doing the tasks.

The gap between the teacher and the learners narrows in the equal dialogue as teacher and learners evaluate the course together (Stewart, 2007). Teacher-students and students-students interactions are negotiated (Morgan & Wendy, 1997). With solidarity in place of teacher's full authority, equality in place of hierarchy, intimacy in place of social distance between teacher and students (Wood & Kroger, 2000), the language of power relations is in its rightful place. As teacher-student talk progresses, there is interaction with teacher's guidance on students' learning (Barnes et al., 1969, 1976; Christie et al., 1991). This discourse on interaction is jointly constructed by the teacher and students as contributors (Alderson & Beretta, ed., 1992).

Methodology

The quantitative-qualitative method was employed to achieve the objectives of the study. The researcher wanted to be certain that statistical results be supported by forming focus groups after ratings and rankings had come in.

Three (3) ESL classes in the tertiary level from three (3) colleges participated in the study. ENGN 11A (Study and Thinking Skills), a reading class, comprising Bachelor of Arts in Multimedia Arts major students from the College of Arts and Sciences; ENGN 12A (Writing in the Discipline), a writing class, comprising Hotel and Restaurant Administration major students from the College of International Travel and Hotel Management; and ENGL 13A (Speech Communication), a speech class, comprising International Trade and Diplomacy students from the College of International Relations.

Session dates for evaluation for each class were based on assigned schedules with a varied number of student evaluators dependent on the attendance on the said days. Evaluation came in the Feedback Form using the Likert Scale of Rating in two parts. Part I concentrated on Perceptions of Students on English as a Subject. Part II covered the Assessment and Evaluation of Given Tasks in Class, with ratings and rankings for data interpretation. In the three classes, questions were standardized for Part I. In Part II, slight deviations were made to conform to the tasks given in each class, unique in the sense that these were based on the content or coverage of the lessons in each class.

Copies of the Feedback Form were distributed immediately after each session by class monitors to the respondents for completion within a ten-minute period, and collected by the same class beadles. Instructions as to honesty in filling out the form and guarantee of confidentiality of answers were stated beforehand to ensure a high degree of validity. Demographic profile requested was limited to course, year and section of the respondent, English subject taken, and date of evaluation.

ENGN 11A turned to be the only class among the three (3) classes available for the focus group session with the researcher as the facilitator. Validation of the statistical results and answers to open-ended questions missed in the Feedback Form were discussed. Tackled, in particular, were tasks that could have increased and enhanced learning and motivated students to participate more.

Presentation and Analysis of Results and Findings

Getting the grand mean scores and using the standard deviation for statistical interpretations of results, Part I of the study showed the following:

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Engl11	4.37	0684
Engl 12A	4.06	0.814
Engl 13A	4.89	0.315
Grand Mean	4.44	

Table 1: Perception of the ESL Learners of English

Problem 1: What is the perception of the ESL learners on English as a subject?

Likert Scale

4.20 – 5.00 Very Highly Perceived
3.40 – 4.19 Highly
2.60 – 3.39 Moderately
1.80 – 2.59 Fairly
1.00 – 1.79 Not

The overall perception of the ESL learners on English as a subject is described as very highly perceived by the three (3) groups of learners as evident by the grand mean of 4.44. The English 13A group's perception on English as a subject is the most diverse compared to the other two (2) groups of learners as indicated in the group's standard deviation and mean: 0.315 and 4.89 respectively.

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Engl11	4.00	0.577
Engl 12A	3.84	0.688
Engl 13A	4.54	0.508
Grand Mean	4.25	

Table 2. Classroom as a Venue for Language Learning

Likert Scale

4.20 – 5.00 Very Highly Conducive
3.40 – 4.19 Highly
2.60 – 3.39 Moderately
1.80 – 2.59 Fairly
1.00 – 1.79 Not

With a grand mean of 4.25, the classroom is very highly conducive to learning, with the ENGL 13A group giving the highest rating among the three.

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Engl11	4.37	0.597
Engl 12A	3.97	0.547
Engl 13A	4.54	0.576
Grand Mean	4.29	

Table 3

Problem 3: How is the content viewed for the topics covered during the period?

Likert Scale

4.20 – 5.00 Very Highly Suitable
3.40 – 4.19 Highly
2.60 – 3.39 Moderately
1.80 – 2.59 Fairly
1.00 – 1.79 Not

The content is viewed very highly suitable and appropriate for the topics covered during the period as indicated with the grand mean of 4.29. English 13A learners gave the highest scale of 4.54 while the English 12A learners gave the lowest scale of 3.97.

	ENGN 11A	ENGN 12A	ENGL 13A
LCD	1	2	1
WHITE BOARD	2	3	2
TEXTBOOK	3	1	3

Table 4

Problem 4: In what order of preference do the learning materials used in the sessions come?

Significant differences were evident in the use of textbook by the three groups as described in the p – value (0.000 < 0.05). This indicates that the use of textbook may or may not improve the insights, and comprehension of the three groups about the topics covered. The use of the white board and LCD do not show significant differences between the groups.

	ENGN 11A	ENGN 12A	ENGL13A
DYAD		2	
ROLE-PLAYING	1	1	2
INDIVIDUAL SHARING	2	3	
GAMES			1
PPT	3		3

Table 5

Problem 5: In what order of preference do students' tasks in the session come?

	ENGN 11A	ENGN 12A	ENGL 13A
PERSONAL SHARING	1	1	2
PROCESSING CLASS TASKS	2		
LECTURE	3	3	1
INTERACTIVE DISCUSSION		2	3

Table 6

Problem 6: In what order of preference do the teacher's tasks come?

Among the four teachers' tasks, the interactive class discussions (p – value: 0.002) and personal sharing of experiences (p – value: 0.000) confirmed significant differences in the median achievements of the learners.

Problem 7: How do the students evaluate their learning in and out of the classroom?

Evaluation of the learning inside and outside the classroom was outstanding with a grand mean score of 4.30 – inside the classroom and 4.26 - learning outside the classroom. Learners truly understood the topics covered during the sessions which they properly applied outside the classroom.

Part II of the study covered the rating and ranking of the tasks by the evaluators in the three classes, the results of which are the following:

Problem 1: How agreeable to the students were the tasks and activities given in class? For English 11A, with an average scale of 4.27 and a highly agreeable rating, the tasks and activities were appropriate to assess the learning facilitated to the ESL learners. Tasks and activities found significant in the evaluation for Session l were 'The Paradox' for the springboard before the lesson proper, paired sharing with visual interpretation for an output, class discussion of "Bangkok"; Session 2 with group analysis of the reading selection; and for Session 3, drills and class processing of the group activity. Tasks and activities matched the learners' styles in acquiring knowledge and skills in English.

For the English 12A, Session 2 registered the highest scale of 4.05 and Session 1 the least scale with 3.55 with an average scale of 3.87 for the three sessions. Tasks and activities governed were therefore suitable to measure what is learned in the classroom. Session 1 had a review of past lesson, powerpoint presentation, and group contest for the tasks. Session 2 had processing results of the group contest, thesis statement formulation for agroup output and a review of past lesson as tasks in the order of ranking. Session 3 had review of past lesson, powerpoint presentation, class discussion, video clip of an interview and a quiz for the students to attend to.

The English 13A class rated Session 2 as very highly agreeable with 4.78 for the mean; Session 3 as very highly agreeable with 4.5 as the mean; and Session 1 as highly agreeable with 4.10 as a mean.The overall average of 4.46 with a descriptive equivalent of very highly agreeable was registered. Session 1 had the Alphabet Song for the springboard for the main lesson, review of vowel sounds, lecture discussion, drills, and oral interpretation of a poem for the tasks. Session 2 was spent for review of vowel sounds, tongue twisters for the group activity, and processing of the group activity. Session 3 had the students' review of consonant sounds, and composing of riddles for the group activity.

Conclusion

What obviously surfaced in the analyses of results appeared in every class evaluation of tasks given is the significance of the class composition taking the three English subjects. Perceptions, ratings, and rankings varied, dependent on the class profile of the student evaluators. Reflections and insights shared during the focus group discussion with the ENGL 11A volunteer members justified the statistical results.

ENGL 11A, the reading class whose members are multimedia major students appreciated and suggested more drawings with posters for an output, comics-making, games, film watching, and role-playing to be incorporated in the planned tasks for future sessions.

ENGN 12A, the writing class, comprising hotel and restaurant administration major students expressed the desire for PREZI in addition to powerpoint presentations, and teacher's guidance in questions addressed to the class for their recommendations.

ENGL 13A, the speech class, consisting of international trade and diplomacy major students wanted more of group activities for application of acquired knowledge and a longer period for the conduct of sessions.

In retrospection, empowering and engaging the ESL learners in the task-based curriculum evaluation did play a major role in actualizing the negotiated curriculum which calls for interactive and collaborative relations between the teacher and the students. The teacher-researcher realized which tasks and activities led to subject appreciation and task appreciation of the students. Perceptions, ratings, and rankings of tasks and activities produced significant results for the teacher and students to continuously keep the communication lines open for enhanced, meaningful, relevant, and productive learning.

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Innovative Learning Activities with the Use of Modern Educational Technology

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This paper demonstrated how E-learning has been effectively incorporated at two universities in Japan: St. Marianna University School of Medicine and Aoyama Gakuin Women's Junior College. It includes discussion of (1) computer resources to set up an E-learning platform, (2) useful software to develop E-learning materials, (3) effective use of online forums to exchange messages and ideas, (4) types of learning activities which can be developed with the use of computer technology, (5) students' online participation, (5) evaluation methods, and (6) future goals to improve learning activities.

Keywords: E-learning, vocabulary, learner & teacher autonomy

Introduction

There is a growing trend in the use of e-learning technology for the support of learning and teaching in universities worldwide. At St. Marianna University School of Medicine, E-learning was incorporated into ESL courses for first- and second-year students in 2013. E-learning materials are mainly used to supplement in-class activities and to build academic vocabulary as well as to learn medical vocabulary.

At Aoyama Gakuin Women's Junior College, the author of this paper started to use E-learning at two linguistics courses for third-year students in 2014. In one of the courses (Introduction to Language Acquisition), E-learning is used to supplement in-class lecture and discussion. In the other course (Lecture on Teaching Vocabulary), students learned how to use software *Hot Potatoes* and developed exercises for learning English vocabulary while discussing ESL materials.

St. Marianna University School of Medicine

St. Marianna University School of Medicine is located in Kawasaki, Kanagawa, Japan. It is a private university offering an undergraduate program in Medicine. The program lasts for six years. English courses at the university are given in the curriculum of General Education as an integral part of the overall educational experience. English is a required course for students from the first- to fourth-year. The first- and second-year students attend two English classes each week, one on Wednesday, the other on Friday. Each class is instructed by different native Japanese instructors. The third- and fourth-year students attend one English class per week. The class size is between 25 and 30 students in each of the classes. Since E-learning is incorporated into the fist- and second-year, the discussion will henceforth be limited to these courses.

The major objective of the first- and second-year English program is to serve the needs of medical students, that is developing academic English, in this case, English for Medicine and Bioscience. In the Wednesday class, the primary focuses are to develop general reading skills, grammar, and academic vocabulary. Reading materials include excerpts from newspapers, magazines and journal articles. The students are required to submit assignments, such as outlines and summaries on about a bi-weekly basis. In the Friday class, the content is more about the students' specialty - Medicine. With the use of an illustrated guide as a textbook, students learn medical terminology in the major fields of medicine, such as the digestive system, the respiratory system, the cardiovascular system, blood and immunity, and so on. Most of the reading texts used in class are clinical case studies, such as short stories from 'Vital Signs,' a popular column featured in Discover Magazine.

St. Marianna's English program adopted *Moodle*, a free software platform and a learning management system. As of October 2013, 406 universities (68 national or public universities and 338 private universities) are using Moodle (Shirai and Harada, 2014). The URL for the St. Marianna University E-learning page is http://moodle.marianna-u.ac.jp/moodle/ .

Most of the exercises are made with the use of the software *Hot Potatoes* which is a suite of programs published by Victoria University and Half-Baked Software. It includes six applications which enable users to create interactive multiple-choice, short-answer, jumbled-sentence, crossword, matching/ordering and gap-fill exercises for the World Wide Web. Online exercises of the English course include exercises which deal with in-class content, exercises to build vocabulary, mainly words from Academic Word lists (AWL) (Coxhead 2000), medical vocabulary and combining forms. Below are samples of the online exercises for the first year students learning imaging techniques (Figure 1), the blood system (Figure 2), and immunity (Figure 3). See Miyakoshi (2015) for more details about exercises made with *Hot Potatoes*.

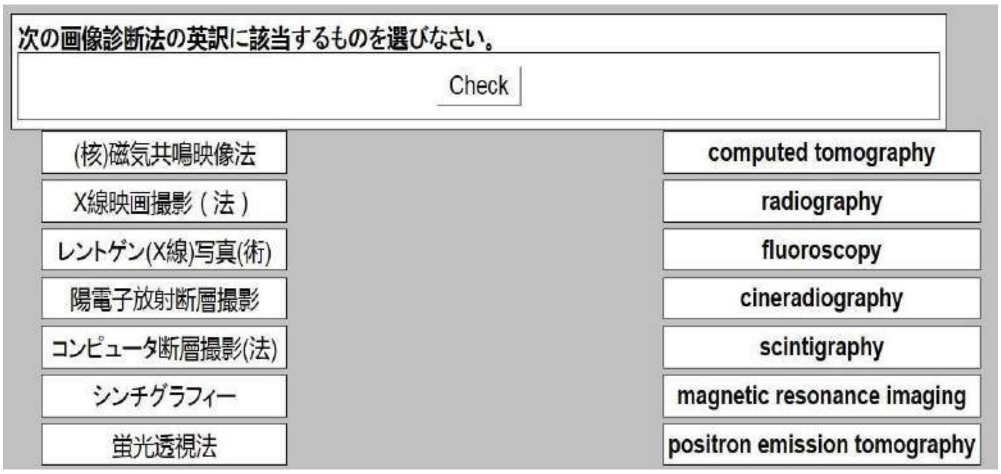

Figure 1: Translation matching exercises for learning imaging techniques.

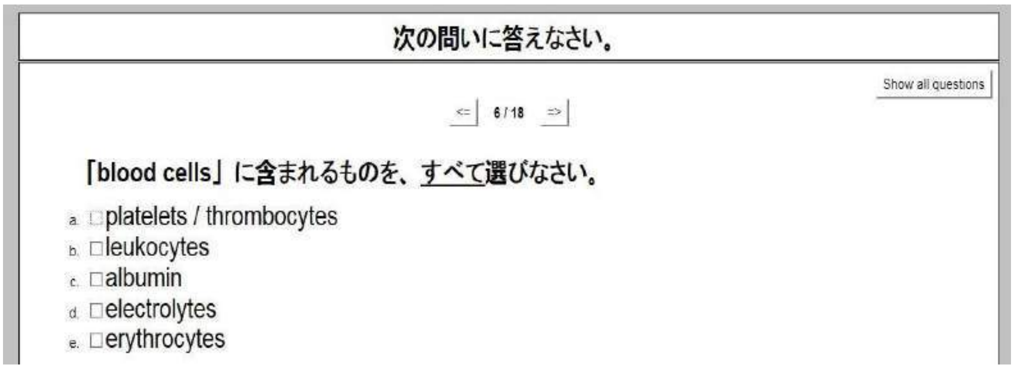

Figure 2: Multiple-choice exercises for learning the blood system.

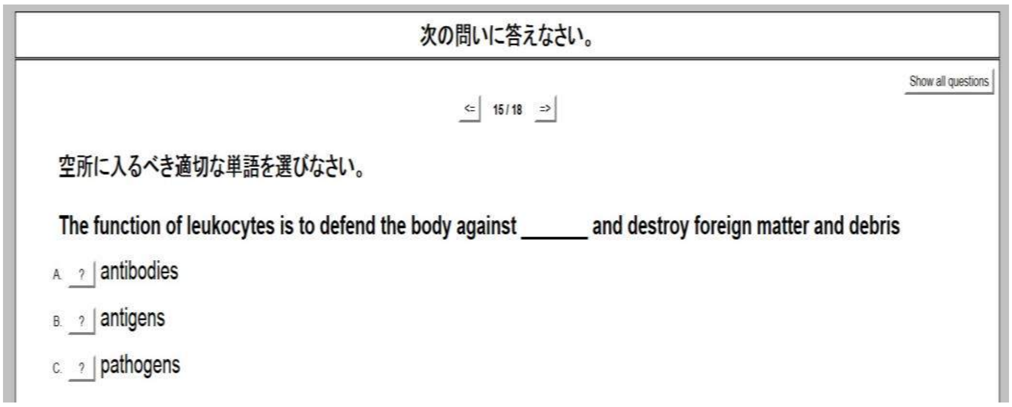

Figure 3: Fill-in-the-blank exercises for learning immunity.

Exercises are not the only tools in *Moodle*. From the course page, such resources as course syllabi, class schedules, study guides, and in-class worksheets are available for downloading. There is also a 'news forum' section where instructors can make a class announcement, or students can initiate discussion forums. When a user creates a 'news forum', the posted message is automatically sent to all the registered users of the course by email. The forum was initiated several times by instructors, such as, when there was a change in the quiz schedule. In addition, students can send a message to instructors through the forum site to ask questions regarding class or online exercises.

The grading methods employed for online exercises are weekly quizzes, midterm and final examinations. The students are instructed to study not only the words in questions but the entire sentences used in the exercises. Thus, the format of questions of quizzes, midterms and final examinations is not always the same as online exercises. For example, a sentence from a multiple-choice question of an online exercise may appear as a scrambled-sentence question on a quiz as shown in Figure 4.

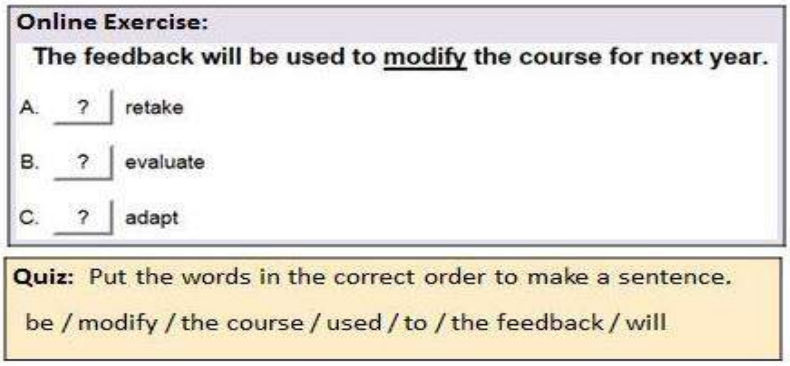

Figure 4: An online exercise and a question on a quiz.

The students' access rate to the *Moodle* page is reasonably high. 94.74% of the second year students accessed the *Moodle* page at least once. However, their average completion rate of online exercises was relatively low, being only 47.68%. It is probable that many students prefer to print out the exercises and do them manually with pencil and paper rather than do them online. They may then check the answers with other students.

The students' performance improved as they practiced exercises over and over. Table 1 shows the numbers of times second year students completed one of the exercises, and Figure 5 shows the improved performance in relation to their repeated practice. When they completed the exercise for the first time, their average score was 71.9%, their score reaches 100% at their fifth completion. When students practice exercises online, the order of questions and the answers are shuffled each time the page loads. This result suggests the positive effects of the repetitive practice of exercises.

# of completion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	**total**
# of students	42	14	18	5	2	0	0	1	**82**

Table 1: Numbers of trials attempted by students.

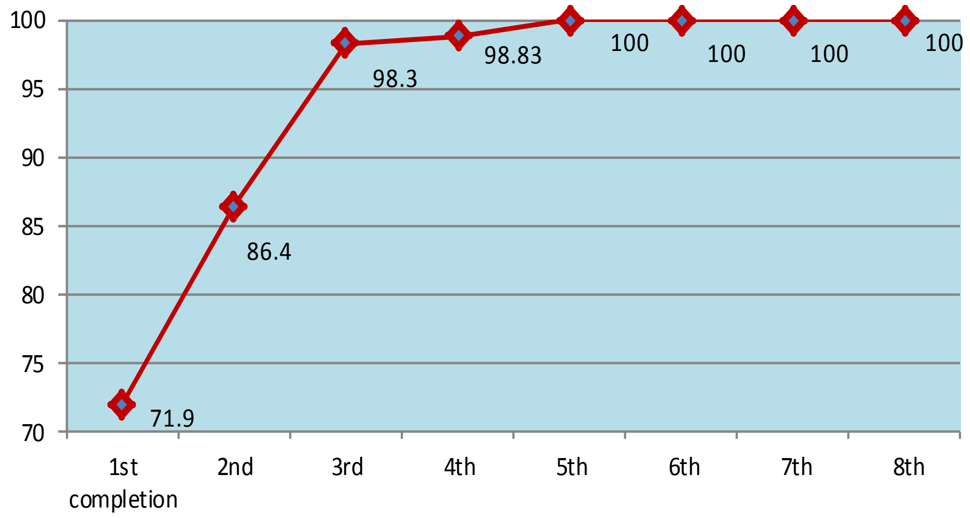

Figure 5: Average scores of the exercise.

Aoyama Gakuin Women's Junior College

Aoyama Gakuin Women's Junior College is located in Tokyo, Japan. The college offers two-year associate degree programs to female students to develop their positive human qualities under a system of two departments consisting of the Department of Contemporary Liberal Arts and Department of Childhood Studies. After completing the program, the students may enter a third-year program (which just started in 2014) to continue their study one or two more years. Upon completion of the third-year program, they may be able to earn a degree equivalent to a bachelor's degree.

The author of this paper is teaching linguistics courses at the third-year program as a part-time instructor. E-learning was incorporated in two of the courses: (1) Introduction to Language Acquisition, and (2) Lecture on Teaching Vocabulary in 2014-2015.

The software platform used at Aoyama Gakuin is *Course Power*. *Course Power* is another popular learning management system which was developed by Fujitsu, a Japanese leading electronics company. The Aoyama Gakuin *Course Power* portal page can be found at https://cp.aim.aoyama.ac.jp/lms/lginLgir/. Figure 6 is a course page for Introduction to Language Acquisition.

Figure 6: A course page for Introduction to Language Acquisition.

"Introduction to Language Acquisition" is a lecture-based course designed to provide an introduction to basic theories in child language development and adult second language learning, and to explore relevant research in the field of language acquisition and language pedagogy.

Supplementary reading materials are uploaded in PDF format from the course page. Much of the reading material consists of journal articles dealing with empirical research on Japanese language acquisition, and studies on Japanese students' acquisition of English as a second language. The textbook for the course (Patsy and Spada's "How languages are learned" the fourth edition) mainly discusses research on children acquiring English as a first language, or adults learning English as a second language. Since all the students registered for the course are Japanese, they are curious to know if the results found in the research on the acquisition of English can also be found in the acquisition of Japanese. So, when students learn about the developmental sequence of negation acquisition by English children in the textbook, for example, they are instructed to download and look though at home part of an article of Clancy (1986) to learn about the developmental sequence of negation acquisition by Japanese children. During the class, I briefly explain Clancy's study and encourage the students to find out similarities and differences in developmental patterns between Japanese and English children. When students learn about developmental sequence of *wh*-words in English, they also read Miyata (1991), one of the supplementary articles, to learn about developmental sequence of *wh*-words in Japanese. This way, online material helps the students deepen their knowledge and cultivate their interest in the field of language acquisition.

"Lecture on Teaching Vocabulary" is a lecture and practicum-based course that introduces the basic concepts of teaching and learning vocabulary in another language, and fosters skills to develop effective ESL materials for learning and teaching vocabulary.

In this course, students learn how to use the software *Hot Potatoes* as part of the practicum of developing ESL materials. First, the students are given the tutorial manual (http://www.marshalladulteducation.org/pdf/Hot_Potatoes_Tutorial.pdf) and I briefly explain about the software in class. Then creating six types of exercises (multiple-choice, short-answer, jumbled-sentence, crossword, matching/ordering and gap-fill exercises) is demonstrated on a laptop computer. After that, the students are given excerpts of exercises from vocabulary books, TOEIC preparation workbooks, high school textbooks, and so forth, and then are asked to make up *Hot Potatoes* versions of these exercises.

The students quickly become familiarized with the software and have little difficulty creating exercises, except that they typically need some assistance with the use of monolingual dictionaries, dictionaries of synonyms and antonyms, and other resources useful for creating exercises. After this, the students are asked to make up their own exercises of vocabulary of their choice. They often bring a small laptop to class when they would like to ask questions or when in-class discussion requires the use of the computer program. Around the end of the semester, the students give a presentation on their vocabulary exercises and submit a short paper on their project. As a course instructor, I have been very pleased with the students' work. Figures 7-10 are some of the exercises made by the students.

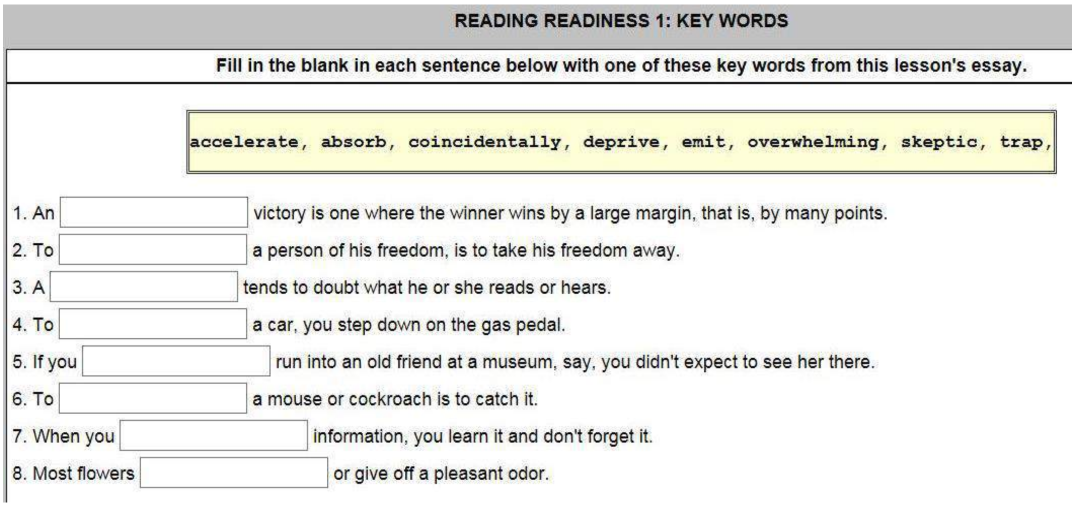

Figure 7: Fill-in-the-blank exercises created by a student.

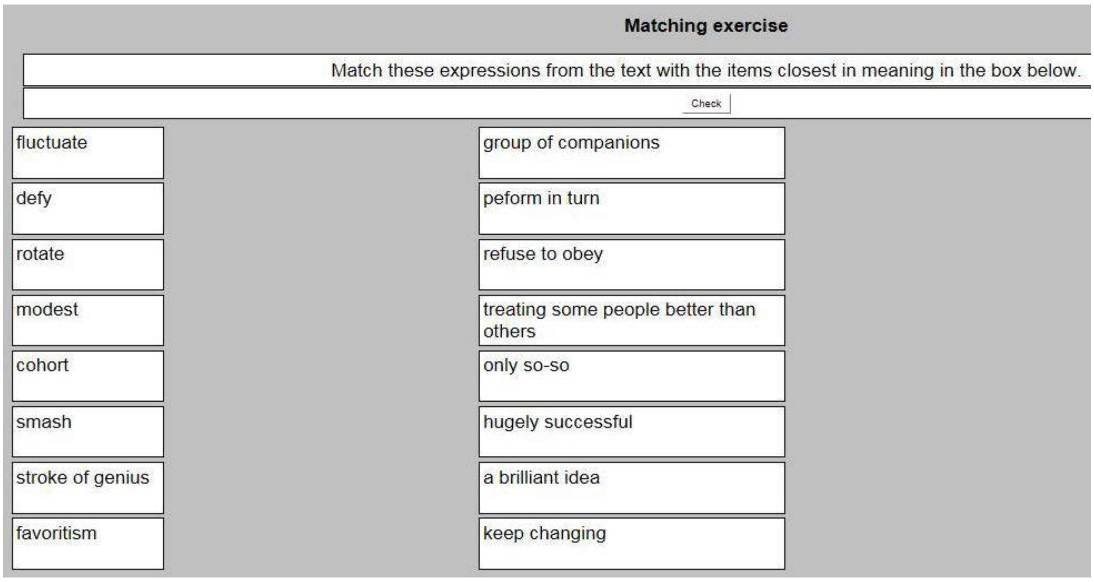

Figure 8: Definition-matching exercises created by a student.

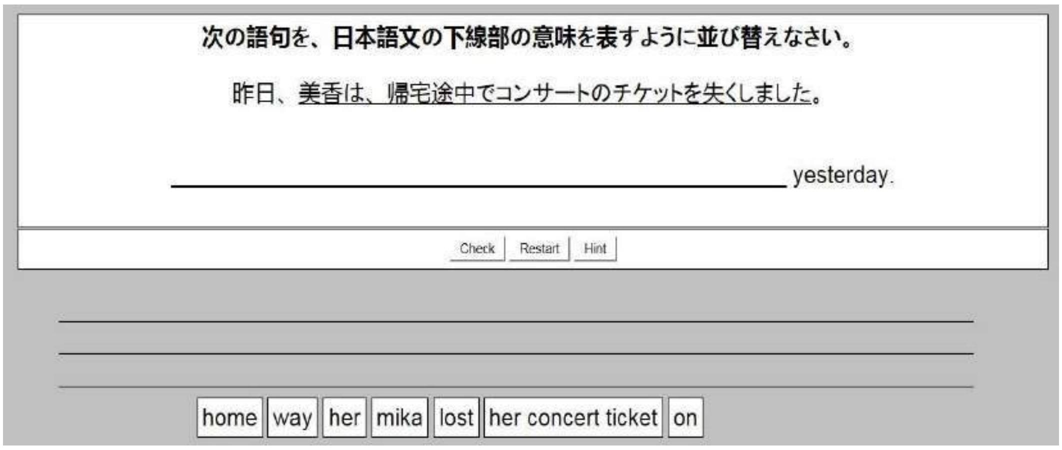

Figure 9: A jumbled-sentence exercise created by a student.

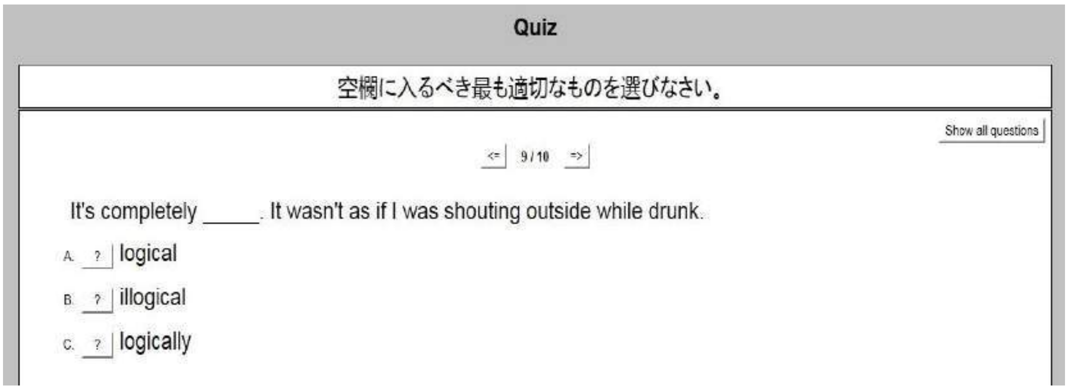

Figure 10: A fill-in-the blank question for learning word families created by a student.

After creating the exercises, the students comment on their experience with the *Hot Potatoes* software. Overall, they provide positive remarks on their experience. They also give comments on how the *Hot Potatoes* software can be improved to facilitate vocabulary learning. Excerpts of the students' comments are as follows:

Creating exercises gave me a great opportunity to learn about word families which were not very familiar to me.

I learned that there are many words derived from a single word.

By creating exercises, I learned more words and understand them more deeply. I don't think I could study vocabulary as deeply as I did if I was simply solving exercises on workbooks.

I think learning adjective forms and negative adjective forms is challenging for Japanese learners of English because there are often more than one adjective and negative adjective forms on English, and there are differences in meaning.

Some of the sentences which I used in my exercises seem a little difficult. I wish the Hot Potatoes had a translation tool where Japanese translation would be given when learners mouse over a sentence. This would help learners answer the question.

I think that one of the possible improvements the Hot Potatoes can make is that when learners make a mistake while doing exercises online, the same question should come up over and over so they can work on the questions they couldn't answer correctly. This way, the learners would learn the words better.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have discussed how E-learning has been incorporated into the first and second year ESL courses at St. Marianna University, and the linguistics courses of the third-year program at Aoyama Gakuin Women's Junior College. E-learning has brought about a positive change in both universities. Since E-learning is student centered, content can be created to meet the learners' needs and interests. In addition, E-learning is flexible. Learning can take place anytime and anywhere, as long as the necessary equipment is available. E-leaning also provides consistent and effective training. All the students may receive the same information, and their learning experience is positively reinforced.

The future goals for St. Marianna University are to improve the quality of the exercises in a way that would be more attractive to the students. It would be possible to include such materials as video scripts and audio-visual aids. It would also be possible to improve the feedback systems so that students can get appropriate feedback while doing the exercises. Another point which can be worked on is to make the system more interactive between students and instructors. The students should receive more encouragement to make use of the program's 'forum' to discuss any topic related to the course with other students and instructors. Increasing student involvement would lead to reinforcement of their learning experience.

At Aoyama Gakuin Women's Junior College, teaching how to use the *Hot Potatoes* software as part of a course is an innovative approach to train students to integrate their theoretical knowledge and practical skills. One of my immediate goals is to provide students with opportunities to present their work more easily and openly. It would be possible to start a course homepage where students can freely upload exercises they have created. Other students in the class can browse the exercises and give comments on them. This method would lead to an increase in students' awareness of the subject matters. It would also cultivate critical thinking skills in a supportive academic environment.

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A Step-By-Step Approach to Learning English Vocabulary for Beginners as a Second Language

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Abstract
This study presents a step-by-step approach to an effective way to acquire English vocabulary for students (including those with special needs). Directed focus on vocabulary learning was conducted using pictures displaying the target word without English spelling or Japanese meaning assistance. Four days of experimental lessons were conducted on 87 seventh graders at a Japanese public junior high school. Their pronunciation skills were assessed by a native English speaker. The students in the experimental lessons using pictures achieved higher scores than those who no picture lessons. It was also found that even students without special needs have difficulty learning word pronunciation, spelling and meaning simultaneously. The results clearly indicate the important need for a step-by-step approach to effectively teach English vocabulary to students in the public school classroom.

Keywords: language teaching, vocabulary learning, English education

Introduction

In spring 2007, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) special needs education into Japan's education program. The percentage of students with learning disabilities (LD) and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is 6.3%. According to this, number is expected to increase. Schools must create an environment where all the students have the opportunity to receive the same education. This includes students with special learning disabilities. These students experience great difficulty in learning when using standard teaching approaches. It should be noted that the pedagogy in Japan has remained mostly unchanged for decades, especially in English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Background of the study

Elementary school 5th and 6th graders have started to acquire 35 credits (about 26 hours) throughout the school year since 2011 in Japan. Prior to 2011, students only received formal English classes beginning in grade seven. MEXT recommended that elementary school students become familiar with English. Students are not required to learn English alphabet, phonics, and words (MEXT 2008): they begin learning the alphabet as 7th graders (junior high school). Normally, this is called the 7th graders' gap (shock) in English learning. Pronunciation of the alphabet leads to the first major stumble for beginner Japanese EFL students. Furthermore, the pedagogy for pronunciation instruction has remained basically unchanged since 1970 (Tejima 2011). There are differences between Japanese and English pronunciation. Each character has one sound in Japanese making it easier to recognize sounds and to master pronunciations. On the other hand, English has a variety of sounds per letter. It is therefore more difficult to learn how to read and write. Japanese students are greatly affected by how individual English letters are pronounced. However, many of the spellings and pronunciation of basic English words do not match the way they are read when spelling out individual letters.

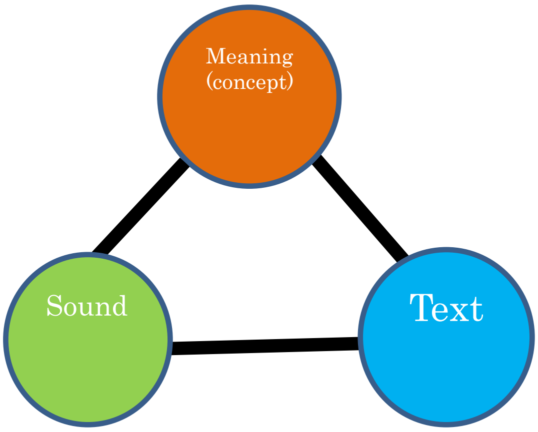
The first language acquisition and the second language learning

What does it mean when "we know a word"? A language has a sound and the sound has a meaning. In written languages, individual letters or characters can symbolize the sound and meaning. When we say we know a word, the connection of the word to its sound and meaning is an essential part of the word acquisition. When we learn the word "chair" for example, a mother is pointing to the chair, she says /tʃέər/ to her child. First, the child connects sound with meaning. The child later pronounces word, and then learns the word's spelling.

The first language (mother language)
1. Connect - sound with meaning
2. Pronounce the word
3. Spell the word

The second language (foreign language).
1. Connect three actions at the same time (sound, meaning, and text).
2. Able to write the spelling

The ordinary approach for learning new English words in Japan is as follows:



1. The teacher shows flashcards to students.
(one side displays English word, while the other side displays Japanese translation).
2. Students repeats after the teacher's pronunciation.
3. Students have a spelling test in the next lesson.

The problem with learning words using the ordinary approach is that students have to learn an English word's sound, spelling, and meaning at the same time.

Purpose of this study

EFL teachers in Japan try to teach new vocabulary without using Japanese. Validity assessment without using Japanese translations in English lessons has not been previously studied. The purpose of this study is to verify the effectiveness of learning English words step by step with three connective actions (sound, meaning, and text) without using Japanese translations.

1. Connect the meaning to the sound.
2. Connect the meaning to the spelling.
3. Connecting the three actions.
4. Acquiring the ability - to spell a word

Method of research

The target students in the experimental lessons are used 87 seventh grade students at a public junior high school in Tokyo. The students were divided into two levels based on their mid-term test scores, with 43 advanced students and 44 average students. There were six classes (three advanced classes and three average classes). Of the six classes, two advanced and two average level classes underwent four experimental lessons with picture patterns and no-picture patterns."

1. Goals of experimental lessons

A: Goals of the picture pattern without Japanese translations

The first goal: Pronounce a English word correctly by looking at its image picture
The second goal: Spell an English word correctly by looking at its image picture

B: Goals of the no-picture pattern with Japanese translations

The first goal: Pronounce each word correctly by looking at its Japanese translations
The second goal: Spell each word correctly by looking at its Japanese translations

2. Procedure of the step-by-step approach

Table 1: The target words

Lesson 1	pictures	sad	angry	excited	tired	sleepy	sleepy
Lesson 2	no-pictures	bad	happy	nervous	bored	scared	scared
Lesson 3	pictures	oil	radio	judge	stone	patient	patient
Lesson 4	no-pictures	sea	hotel	blood	river	parent	parent

Step 1
A: Picture pattern without Japanese translations
Students repeat after a teacher while looking at a picture .The teacher pronounces a target word twice, including it in seven rounds. Students pronounce each word 14 times all together.

B: No-picture pattern with Japanese translations
Students repeat after a teacher while looking at the flash cards, which contain English words and their Japanese translation. The teacher pronounces a connecting word twice including it in seven rounds. Students pronounce each word 14 times all together.

Step 2
A: Picture pattern without Japanese translations
Students pronounce each word while looking at the picture.

B: No-picture pattern with Japanese translations
Students pronounce each word while looking at a flashcard.

A native English speaker then assesses their pronunciation one on one. The assessment criterion is as follows:

A. （3 points） Very good
B. （2 points） Good
C. （1 point） Need more practice

Step 3
A: Picture pattern without Japanese translations
Remembering the spelling of the target words is homework. The teacher gives students a worksheet with pictures and their associated spellings.

B: No-picture pattern with Japanese translations
Remembering the spelling of the target words is homework. The teacher gives students a worksheet with the English words and their associated spellings.

Step 4
A: Picture pattern without Japanese translations
Students have the spelling test. They spell the word while looking at the picture.

B: No-picture pattern with Japanese translation
Students have the spelling test. They spell the word while looking at the Japanese translations.

Results of pronunciation assessment

The test results for the Shapiro-Wilk showed that both the picture pattern and the no-picture pattern did not conform to normal distribution (P<.01).
Therefore, the median scores in both groups were compared via a Mann-Whitney U test. The result showed that the scores of the pictures group were significantly higher than no-picture pattern (P<.05).

Table 2: The size, median, standard deviation and Mann-Whitney U test result of each group.

	n	M	SD	2 score
pictures	87	13,21	1,449	-2,566*
no-pictures	87	13,97	1,476	

Results of spelling test

Table 3 shows the percentage of target words spelled correctly. We see from Table 3 that there is little difference between the pictures pattern and the no-pictures pattern tasks.

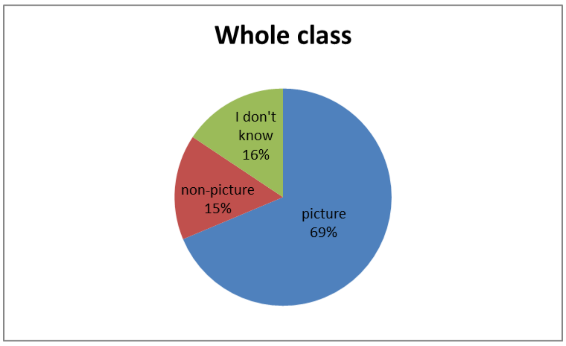
Table3: The percentage of target words spelled correctly

	All students	Advanced students	Average students
pictures	72.16%	89.77%	54.62%
no-picutres	72.08%	90%	54.15%

Results of questionnaire

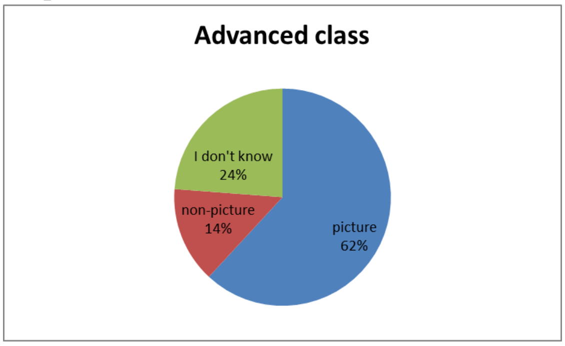
1. Which approach do you think is better —, the pictures patterns or the no-pictures patterns approach?

Graph 1

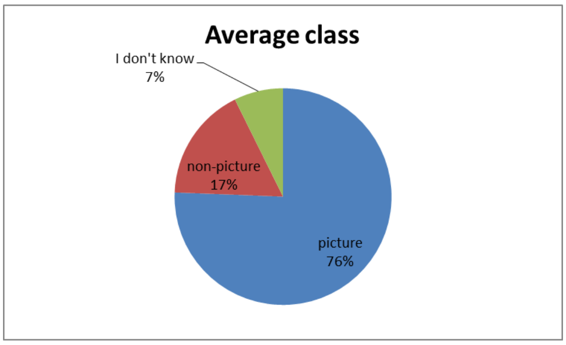


We see from the graph 1 that 69% of the students prefer the picture pattern. If we look at graphs 2 and 3, we will see that the average level students prefer the picture pattern more than the advanced students.

Graph 2



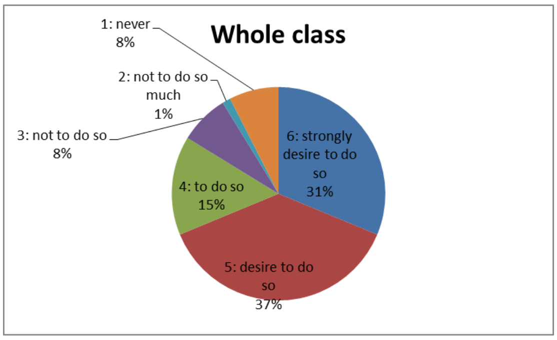
Graph 3



2. Would you like to continue studying English using this approach？

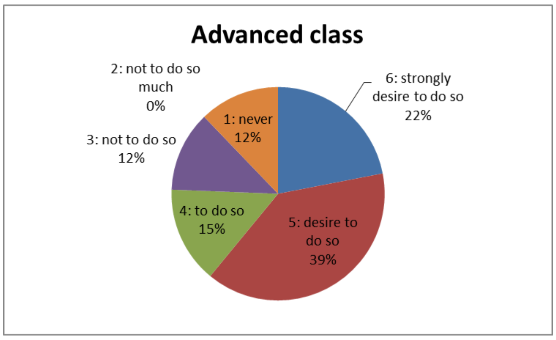
6: Strongly desire to do so
5: Desire to do so
4: Would like to do so
3: Not to do so
2: Would prefer not to do so
1: Never

Graph 4

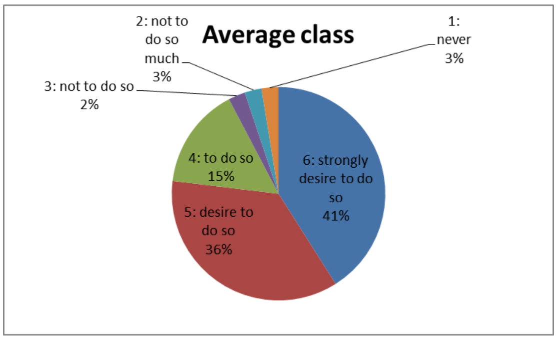


By studying graph 4, 83% of students have positive feedback to the picture pattern approach. We can see the difference between the advanced and average level students in the graph 5 and graph 6. More specifically 92% of average level students are in favor of this approach as compared with the advanced level students.

Graph 5



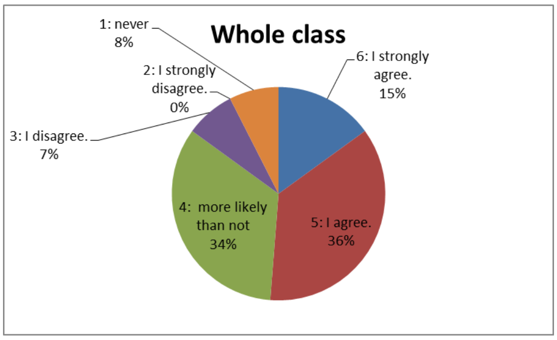
Graph 6



3. Is it easier to remember the spelling when you can pronounce the word?

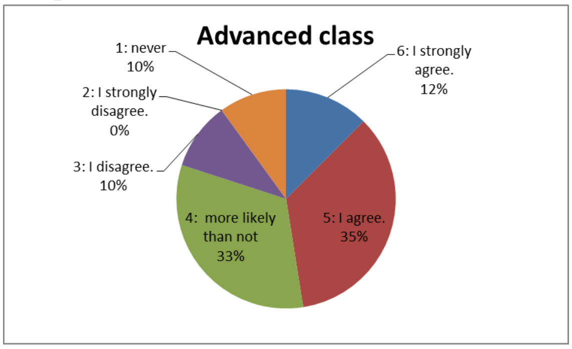
6: I strongly agree.
5: I agree.
4: More likely than not
3: I disagree.
2: I strongly disagree.
1: Never

Graph 7

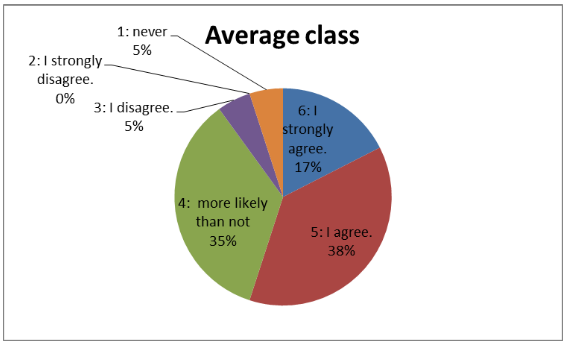


The graph 7 shows that 85% students in all feel that it is easier to remember the spelling when they can pronounce the word. When we look at each class (graph 8 & 9), 80% of the students in the advanced class and 90% of the students in average class stated that pronunciation leads to better spelling recall.

Graph 8



Graph 9



Conclusion

Lessons using images could achieve the same vocabulary learning results as using Japanese translations. Students can guess a word's meaning without using Japanese by using the picture. We could say the target words used in the experimental lessons were easy to show pictorially. A future study can be conducted on the efficacy of this pictorial approach with the use of abstract words. However, using pictures to learn words in a second language is useful for beginners. Students can focus on pronunciation when using a picture and are not influenced by the pronunciation of individual alphabet letters. Pronunciation practice before the spelling tests could soften the resistance to learning English words. There was little difference between both patterns but most of the students agree that it is easier to remember the spelling when they can pronounce the word. Furthermore, students can be more proactive in learning English word spellings this step by step technique. This approach is seen to be effective for students with and without special needs. The results indicate the importance of a step-by-step approach to effectively teach English vocabulary to students in the Japanese public school system. My future work is to develop a computer system that will allow students to acquire pronunciation through self-study.

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Meta-Level Intervention in Case-Based Teaching Method Implemented in Esp Course

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Abstract
This paper discusses the fundamental principles involved in case-based teaching method applied in an ESP course; the implementation of meta-level intervention (metadiscourse) for developing technical writing skills and fostering learner autonomy among students at the university level. Most students were reluctant and were not interested in taking supplementary but compulsory English language courses. However, through the implementation of meta-level approach in case-based teaching, improvement has been observed to be evident in the student's performance and motivation in learning. Detailed findings and implications shall be elaborated further throughout the remainder of this paper.

Keywords: Case-based teaching; meta-level intervention; ESP writing class; learner's autonomy.

1. A Complex Proficiency: Learning How to Write Technical Text in Esp Course

While writing is an act of discovery – one of learning by doing – it is also a thinking process. This is no-new concept and Craik (1943) stated that thinking involves translation of some aspect of the world into a schema, which can be called as ‘mental model’ (cited in Oatley and Djikic 2008). Thinking is as manipulation of such model where a new state of the world is produced into a schema. Then retranslation can occur of the derived state of the model back into terms of the world, for instance into words as in writing (Oatley and Djikic 2008). However, in an ESP course, the writing tasks set for students who are second language speaker of English involved many different dimensions than most educators would let on. For example, it entails the process of retranslating the model into words (1) within a specific frame – a format for technical text – and (2) channelling second language faculty for English in the mind with a high possibility of interference from the mother tongue’s. Silva and Matsuda (2001) dubbed it as a complex web of relationships, which involves constant interaction between writers, reader, the text and reality. Hence, it is imperative to create ‘learning medium’ that would make it possible for students to transform all of these differing-components of mental-processes into one proficient capacity – a ‘skill’ in writing good technical text.

Additionally, according to Rose (1985:7), skill is a ‘complex interweaving of sophisticated activity and rich knowledge’. In order to write a technical text, it involves a lot of other factors in its decision-makings such as the purpose of the text, the academic and cultural context of the text, the extent to which the writer is given advice on the positioning and organization of the text (Prior 1995). In addition, for learners who are second language speaker of English (ESL), research into English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has shown that they need to be competent as well, in certain language areas and skills, let alone to produce good technical text, but to be able to cope with academic demands that come with it (Cumming, 1994; Ferris & Tagg, 1996). Thus, it seems for ESL speakers particularly, technical writing tasks can be more demanding than it is for students who are native speaker.

Despite the complex skills and processes it entails, not to mention cognitively taxing, learning of skills such as technical English writing skills is usually separated from subject content and knowledge. This separation suggests ‘that there is a difference between studying successfully and learning, and that if certain techniques are required, students can study successfully without deep engagement with the subject’ (Wingate, 2006: 459). Later, it will foster a surface approach to learning among students due to higher education predominant method of assessment (Wingate, 2006) which should be avoided at all cost. Consequently, by teaching the students the skills without linking them to subject content encourages the undesirable epistemological belief that knowledge is an ‘external, objective body of facts’ which can be acquired with certain tricks and techniques (Gamache, 2002: 277), whereas writing is, following Rose (1997: 348), “...intimately involved in the nature of their inquiry. Writing is not just a skill with which one can present or analyze knowledge. It is essential to the very existence of certain kinds of knowledge”.

Furthermore, with reference to the concept of metadiscourse, means of conceptualizing communication is seen as social engagement. It illuminates some aspect of how individuals project themselves into their discourses by signalling their own attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text (Hyland and Tse, 2004). Therefore, writers do not simply produce texts that plausibly represent an external reality, but use language to offer a credible representation of themselves and their work, and to acknowledge and negotiate social relations with readers. Therefore, it should not have come as a shock when Pecorari (2008) found that Asian ESL students begin their academic writing from 'copying' which implies a lack of training in academic writing, when tertiary institutions hardly organize a solid platform for the students to acquire and learn such skills in the first place. Not only do the students struggle to familiarize themselves with the conventions and expectations of technical writing in English medium universities (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997) and to develop the linguistic competency it demands, they have to have the necessary subject mastery, critical thinking skills as well as know how to transfer or form a link between what they know into an acceptable technical text.

Hence, if this topic was to be pushed to its extreme logical point – discarding all dimensions to its most basic components – then, cognition and metacognition are at its centre, linking writing to thinking in an almost interchangeable state of relationship. With that said, while the name of the course portrays a limiting linguistic scope of possible teaching content, the teaching instructions or approaches however, should not be as limited and separated from thinking skills it requires.

1.1 Writing/ Thinking in ESP

Furthermore according to Bean (2011; 4), writing is "both a process of doing critical thinking and a product that communicates the results of critical thinking". He asserts that students are able to learn more of the subject content if more of critical thinking components and writing are integrated into a particular course (Bean, 2011). The ESP course offered by the local engineering university in questioned is in fact, an English Language course combined with a surface introduction into research methodology course. Students are required to write a proposal report as an assignment in order to be granted a passing grade. Thus, it is irrelevant to detach thinking skill components from the writing components in the course. The key is in improving student's performance through the adaptation and manipulation of teaching methodology and pedagogy. The teaching approaches apply in class should complies with the necessary skills students need in order to acquire and apply new knowledge, as expected of them to learn at the end of every semester. Therefore, it is more of an urgent matter to re-address the teaching method applied and focus emphasized by the educators in class.

Therefore, considering the complexity as well as the intricacy of variety of aspects involved when learning and applying ESP writing skills, students should be nurtured to become independent thinkers in their own learning process and that they be taught that writing is only one of the ways to retranslate their thinking products into the world. Moreover, they should be made aware of their own thinking processes and strategies used when learning and writing English academic text as a way, not only to improve academic writing skills but also their overall linguistic capacities as well as thinking and applying it to other possible situations.

2. The context: Learner diversity

Additionally, the obstacles do not lie in just the complexity of the skills involved nor in the effort in improving the student's basic English language and technical writing skills; their low motivation in learning the subject is also a cause for worry. Hence, it is vital to consider the aspect of learner diversity in this discussion. Not only do the students have different level of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, they also have differing level of English proficiency and they come from a diverse socio-economic background.

Therefore, in order to cater to each student's needs as well as to address identified factors that might contribute to student's improved performance, meta-level intervention integrated in case-based teaching method has been observed to be effective in such context. Not only does it improved the students' overall performance and motivation to learn, it has also created an atmosphere in the learning environment that fosters and nurtures the development of their learner's autonomy.

3. Key Principles: Meta-Level Approach in Case-Based Teaching

3.1 Understanding the Intelligence System behind the Learning Process

Zull (2002) explains how learners build new knowledge on existing neuronal networks, "these existing networks must be partially dismantled if the learners are to create new networks that embrace fuller, more detailed knowledge", in other word or in the context of language learning, a specified-domain intelligence for that particular language. Most of the time, effective learning process failed to take place due to discrepancies between what is being teach in class, what students are expected to learn and how the students process new information during learning. It is important to recognize the process before appropriate planning should take place to reach the learning outcomes.

In the context of cognition and metacognition as the main operatives behind intelligence, it is advisable to take into account, their nature, functions and characteristics, and that this understanding should be well incorporated and applied in devising the appropriate instructional design for an ESP course. Furthermore, in a documented study involving selected gifted students in Malaysia; it has been found that they have the tendency to tap into their general intelligence in the absence of a specified-domain intelligence in situations where they need to cope with new lessons and unfamiliar territory of information (Wan Safuraa Wan Oman et. al., 2011). On the contrary, in reality, the course is presented in such a way that it gives an impression that to be able to channel into specified-domain intelligence (in this case, a linguistic domain for English language) is all that matters. Due to the demands made by future employers, most educators hasten to design a curriculum to cater to this special request, believing on the basis that it is to achieve a specific goal using a specific branch of English language. However, this notion runs opposite to the actual and natural process of learning that takes place in the student's intelligence system.

3.3 General Intelligence, Specified-domain Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence Roles in Student's Learning

Functional neuro-imaging findings support the hypothesis that intelligent brain process information efficiently (use fewer brain resources when performing cognitive tasks) than less intelligent brain (Deary et. al. 2010). This evidence marks the existence of a network of higher cognitive operations (thinking about thinking – metacognitive) that oversees and supervises other cognitive ability, that is – general intelligence (henceforth, as GI). However, upon encountering new information and unfamiliar concepts and problems, while general intelligence is responsible for all learning processes – input and output – but after the brain has stored sufficient information, in a sense reached its threshold and is ready to establish a specialized department (specified-domain intelligence, henceforth as, SDI), then, the responsible will be handed over to the department so that the situation can be handle more effectively and efficiently. Emotional intelligence (henceforth, as EI) on the other hand, concerns the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions, and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thoughts (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade 2007).

All three components – GI, SDI and EI – forms the intelligence system behind student's learning process. Internalization of new information falls under the jurisdiction of GI before it is ready to be passed down to SDI, a much specialized department or faculty. EI, in most circumstances and context involves emotion and emotional knowledge to enhance thoughts and facilitate thinking. The process of learning makes it possible for an individual to become an expert in a certain field. The cognitive ability that facilitates that process seems to be of higher intelligence – since it is able to cope up with any situation provided there is new information to be internalized. Once enough information and experience is gained, an individual is able to make better judgment and is able to come up with better product as the outcome. This is where he or she has crossed the threshold – a point of conversion – where most of the cognitive processes are now being transferred to specified-domain intelligence from general intelligence system.

3.3 Building SDI through Writing and Thinking Integrated Lessons

In meta-level approach in case-based teaching, the development of SDI following GI through writing and thinking integrated lessons, not only improves student's proficiency and motivation to learn the English language but also encourage the development of their learner autonomy. Critical thinking skills incorporated in ESP writing tasks, for instance, requires students to use their expanding knowledge of a subject matter to address disciplinary problems will "motivate better study habits by helping students see their learning as purposeful and interesting" (Bean 2011: 11).

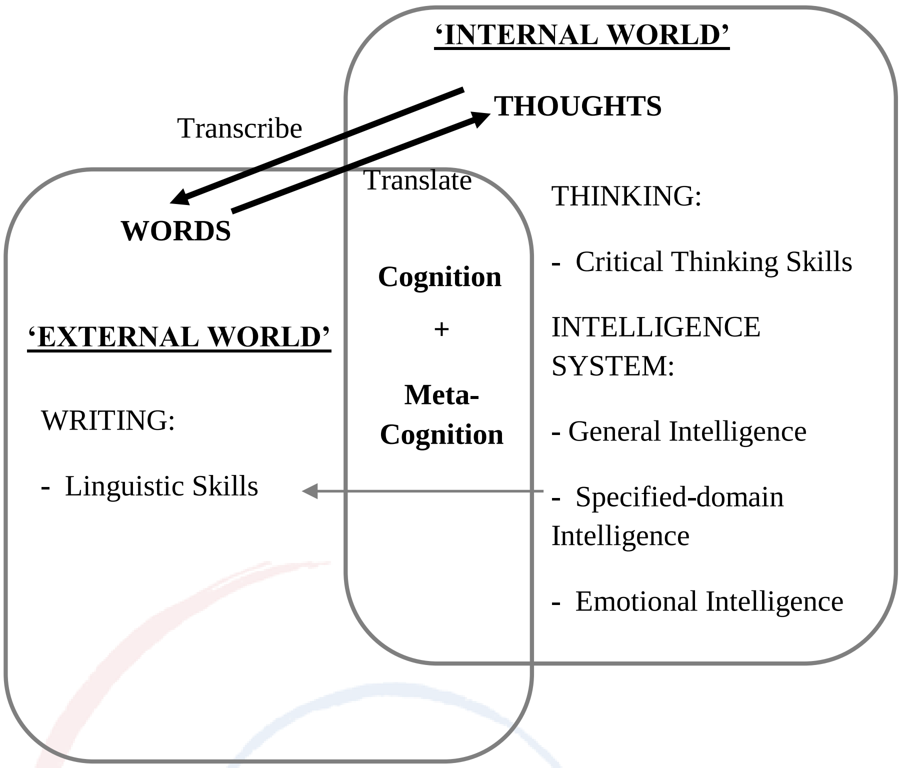

Diagram 2: Writing and thinking integrated process

It is imperative that students are able to internalize the skills needed, not only in knowing what to write about but also how to go about knowing what and how to write. In other words, writing is leaning towards cultivating the mental processes involved when a person writes. This entails to the concept of metacognition and cognition processes involved in thinking skills. While composing, students seem to exhibit a variety of behaviours, all of which indicated the non-linear nature of writing but teachers tend to under-conceptualize and oversimplify the process of writing to students (Zamel 2007). As Shaughnessy (1977 as cited in Zamel 2007) has put it, rather than being the development of some pre-conceived or well-formed idea, writing is the "record of an idea developing". Thus, writing is a task that evokes such necessity for mental processes to transpire in the mind, making it a suitable medium for meta-level intervention in case-based teaching to improve student's performance.

Metacognition acts as an agent for monitoring as well as agent for learning and re-learning. The student perceives some stimuli from environment and acts rationally to achieve its goals by selecting some action from its set of competencies. An important dimension of writing involves the period before the actual writing begins, that is how writers get and form ideas before putting pen to paper. Given that everybody is granted with a form of intelligence, it is a basic tendency for the human minds when confronted with problems; they will first try to remember a case in which they faced a similar situation (Schank 1999). They will reuse information they have in their repertoire and if it is inadequate, they are conditioned to be receptive towards other solution through listening or reading stories that have shown how experienced people have dealt with similar problems (Edelson 1993). In a way, case-based teaching has provided an excellent platform where students are not only improving their ESP writing skills but also their metacognitive skills and learner autonomy development.

4. Components in Meta-Level Approach in Case-Based Curriculum

A. Preparation (Before entering class)

[A1] Student's Profile

It is a normal practise to use the first class as a platform to collect data on the student's profile, such as their English language proficiency level, their opinions with regard to English language in general, what do they expect to learn from the course, their behaviours and attitudes, intrinsic/ extrinsic motivation, interests, etc. In other words, it is in order to get a 'sense' on what kind of students they are and what are the possible ways to plan the lectures/ lessons in order to cater to their needs. Having such information proves to be an advantage when deciding the best 'x-factor' to be used in class in order to attract their attention. In addition, their profile data facilitates the marking process of their progress and development throughout the semester.

[A2] Topic

Based on the discussion about general and specified-domain intelligence, topics/ syllabus are arranged accordingly from general to more specific ones. With each completed topic covered in class, the students will acquire the skills and knowledge they need in order to finish their main assignment at the end of the semester.

[A3] Theme: Theme for a particular lecture/ class.

It helps to have a particular theme for a particular lecture/ topic. It brings the topic into focus and it also helps eliminate distraction or irrelevant details that might interfere with the students learning process. In addition, theme proves to be beneficial in aiding students with low English proficiency level. It serves by providing a coherent flow as the topic unfolds itself during discussion. It also functions as an 'analogy'; supplying the connection to better internalized the information presented.

[A4] 'X-factor': It can be a teaching aid, educational game or video, etc.

The 'X-factor' is the bridge that connects the course content and the student's world together. It could be a current, hit music video or excerpts of famous adverts or even snippets from hit movies; all of them can be used as an effective 'x-factor'. The main purposes are to attract the students' attention and arouse their curiosity, stimulate retention and formation of long-term memory, inspire motivation and to show the students that the lesson is connected to them in many ways. Additionally, as mentioned earlier, it is important that the lesson is designed to help ease the transition from general intelligence to specified-domain intelligence.

[A5] Activities

Apart from lecture/ class, having hands-on activities encourage students to be better engaged in their own learning process. Such activities attract their attention more effectively when compared to a monotone lecture. It is very important for them to see and acknowledge their learning process as a meaningful, purposeful and interesting development in order to encourage the growth of improved study and thinking habits. It helps to get them thinking and to be involved in class. It encourages them to be independent learners and it also ensures effective learning process.

B. EXECUTION (In class)

[B6] Introduction
Similar to the concept of having a theme for a particular class, introduction section enables the teacher/ lecturer to bring into focus the topic at hand as well as feel free to appreciate and discuss the topic in it general form.

[B7] Content: Conducting the class/ delivering the lecture.

[B8] 'X-factor'/ Extra activities
Depending on the situation, if it calls for a further discussion or explanation, it is advisable to have an open slot for any extra activity. It could be another 'x-factor' or just simply, another activity.

[B9] Discussion
It is better to arrange to have several phases in a discussion. It might started off with a big group discussion and then, shift to smaller groups and finally, if appropriate, a discussion between individual students. Moreover, it is also good to provide opportunities at the end of every discussion, for the students to share their ideas/ answers gained from the discussion, with the rest of the class.

Such activities can be used as a method to facilitate and monitor their thinking/ learning process by continuously assessing their depths of understanding, progress, etc. It also creates a good platform for the students to see how different individuals have different ideas and perspectives. It helps nurture empathetic values and awareness towards different people which is highly valued in a writer in order to negotiate meanings with the readers. Through interaction with other people, it helps create a chance for them to see themselves; to be aware of their own learning tendencies, thinking habits, attitudes, perspectives, etc.

[B10] Conclusion

C. RE-ASSESSMENT (After leaving class)

It includes evaluation on the effectiveness of the lesson plan, student's progress, etc. Either directly or indirectly conducted, these assessments influence the kind of plans and changes to be applied in the next class.

[C11] Feedbacks

[C12] Cataloguing Student's Works (Progress)
In order to keep track of each student's progress, it is advisable to have all of their works along with their profiles in a single file.

[C13] Next action plan & [C14] Important 'points'
As mentioned above, depending on the results of the re-assessment, the next class will be planned and arranged accordingly.

4. EXAMPLE: CASE 1 (1ST WEEK OF LECTURE)

During the first week of lecture, the content was planned to include some basic concepts and ideas about the course. It is always good to include as many ‘x-factor’ as possible in order to attract the students’ attention.

Below is the activity sequence for Week 1:

i. Introduction (first 15 minutes): Course description and requirements (assignments and assessments), class rules, etc.
ii. A short ice-breaking session where students introduced themselves to the rest of the class (e.g. name, age, program, hometown, etc). All these information serves as the general data for their profiles too.
iii. Activity 1: ‘Technical Communication’.
    - A picture was used to elicit the student’s understanding of the concept of communication in general.
    - Relation to the communication model.
iv. The ‘X-factors’: several videos were used to introduce the students to some important key points in technical communication and technical writing.
    - There were three sets of videos; students were asked to make comparison between them.
    - Each video serves as an example of the application of the communication principles.
v. Activity 2: ‘Why’ section.
    - With reference to the videos, questions were asked and answers were elicited from the students on why it is important to communicate.
    - This section was elaborated further to include a topic on different types of communication.
vi. Activity 3: again, the usage of videos to show the impact of different communication presentation can have on the audience/ readers.
    - After they have made the comparison between the two videos, the students were asked to choose one with a stronger impact and they were also asked to explain the reason why.
vii. Activity 4: A short introduction for the following week’s class, through a short activity; an overview of the topic on ‘Technical Writing’ was presented.
viii. Conclusion

4.1.1 Narative Observation: Key Points in Case 1

There are several important key points that I would like to highlight in detailed explanation concerning activity 1 (in Case 1); introduction of the concept of ‘Technical Communication’. For this particular activity, the picture of a red heart stowed away in a corner was used. The picture was shown on slides following a discussion on the general concept of communication. Students were asked the question; “What do you ‘see’? The picture serves as an analogy – an outlet to introduce and explain the components in a communication model. Rather than presenting the model directly to the students, by using the picture and eliciting answers from them, I was able to build or add in information based on what they know. My intention was to state and convey very clearly that this course is everything but boring, foreign and difficult – it is something that they do every day and it is everywhere around us.

Based on the variety of answers that I received from the students on what the picture might mean; I was able to highlight how each individual have different interpretation, background or even other factors that might influence how people perceives their environments. These factors might act as barriers in communication and most importantly, to consider how vital it is to weigh in all of these differing aspects in communication. Then, I explained using the communication model to further enhance their understanding and to provide a concrete platform for their initial idea on what the concept of communication is.

In addition to the picture and the communication model, I showed them several more videos to strengthen and further facilitate their understanding. These videos were my main 'X-factors' for the day. The first set was downloaded from Youtube.com; popular independent singers (Sam Tsui, Christina Grimmie, Jake Bruene and Kirk) singing their version of other artist's hit song.

Students were asked to make comparison between Video 1 and 2, and later, choose one that they prefer and explain why they are different. From these two videos, I was able to highlight and made references to the communication model; giving them hard-evidence how it is applied in the real world. They learned how different people have different interpretation of a certain thing, how it will affect the end product and its importance when communicating and writing to ensure our intended meaning was conveyed successfully.

The next set of videos is Japanese music videos. None of the students could converse and understand Japanese; to them, it is a foreign language. Without divulging the title of the song or the artists' names, I asked them to try and make sense of the stories presented in the music videos. Later, we had a short discussion in which they confessed that Video 3 was much harder to understand compared to Video 4.

Then, I guided the discussion by posing another question, 'What makes Video 4 easier to understand?' By having this Q & A session with the students, I was able to highlight the importance of taking into consideration the kind of readers/ audience involved in one particular communication process. They found Video 3 particularly hard to understand because they lack the linguistic ability as well as the knowledge of Japanese culture in order to be able to make sense of the symbols and context presented in the video (e.g. Rain Gods, etc). For Video 4, it was easier for them to understand since the topic of wedding is common in all culture and the video did not require prior knowledge on certain topics to be understood. In addition, the arrangement of scenes and facial expressions has made it easier for the students to guess the meaning behind the Japanese lyrics. All of these points were successfully concluded by my students on their own – all I did was prodded them with question into the right direction.

Moreover, another reason as to why I chose Japanese music videos instead of English is because I want my students to see the possibility to learn something from everything there is in our surrounding. It is one of my main goals to foster this learning habit in my students – to encourage them to see the endless possibilities in learning opportunities. I hope this in time will inspire lifelong learning process in many years to come, post-university. In addition, by stripping or eliminating the 'language barrier' so often the reason behind students' feeling unconfident and inferior as well as their reluctance in expressing their opinions, we were able to conduct the discussion at its earnest in a safe learning environment. Creating such atmosphere is very important in a classroom involving ESL speaker students.

Video 5 and 6 (downloaded from Youtube.com) serves as support to give concrete evidences to what the students had already understood from watching Video 3 and 4; how a clear storyline helps readers/ audiences to understand better. Video 5 has no storyline whatsoever when compared to Video 6; only the singer's face can be seen throughout the whole music video.

Last but not least, the last two videos (Video 7 and 8) – are an advert and a video-letter addressed to 'Mom and Dad' (downloaded from Youtube.com). Prior showing the videos to the students, I asked them to decide on which they think will have more impact. Will it be the advert or a video-letter with just words? As expected, they chose the advert and they were more convinced that they have made the right choice after watching it. However, they started crying only seconds into the video-letter. My 'X-factors had served its purpose and my students learned never 'to judge a book by its cover', ever again.

As usual, we discussed and compared the two videos together. Through the videos (Video 7 and 8), I wanted to instil within my students that as the writer or the sender in a particular communication process, they hold all the key to ensure its success – to create impact and to make sure that the intended meaning is being conveyed successfully to the receiver/ reader. I wanted them to remember that 'a great calligrapher does not blame his brush'.

4.1.2 Conceptual Framework for CASE 1

As shown in Figure 1, there are three important aspects that need to be considered when deciding the content, process and product of a lesson as well as the learning environment suitable for the growth and learning of students; the 'Heart', the 'Mind' and the 'Soul'.

It is important to 'tackle' all three simultaneously in order to create strong and lasting impact on the students to ensure effective teaching and learning processes are taking place. Frank (2006, as cited in Tomlinson, 2003) said that intelligence is about the ability to solve problems, but over-excitability is about the passion for solving them. When the emotional and mental energies meet, the mind supplies the energy of sustained concentration while emotional energy drives interest (passion). Interest is one of the basic emotions (Izard 1971).

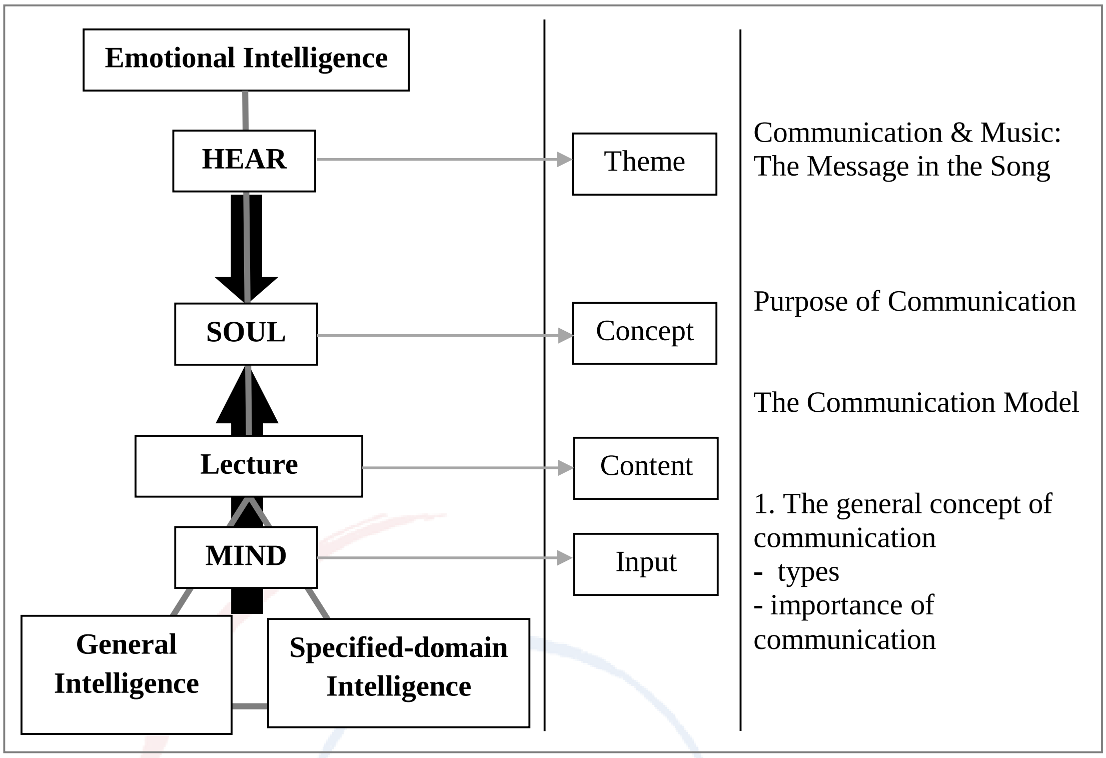

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of CASE 1

i. The 'Heart'

Emotions can have a powerful impact on memory. Past research has shown that most vivid autobiographical memories tend to be of emotional events, which are likely to be recalled more often and with more clarity and detail than neutral events. In addition, it helps students who are more prone to absorb lesson through experiences and relations to real-life events to understand the lesson better – nothing works best, apart from comprehensive understanding of the lesson content, than to create a meaningful lesson by tackling the students' hearts.

It is at the 'Heart', that educators could stage the 'x-factor' in a lesson to attract the students' attention and interests. While it is important to develop their creative and critical thinking skills, it is vital too, to help them develop their emotional maturity to rival their cognitive as well as to develop emotional intelligence. Therefore, it is wise to start a lesson by first, 'touching' their 'Hearts'.

ii. The 'Mind'

Intellectual energy has certain consequences: relentless questioning, critical thinking, and evaluation (Piechowsky 2009). While keeping in mind of their thinking 'habits' and tendencies, the lesson should be designed to cater to the needs of their general and specified-domain intelligence as well. In another word, follows closely after the 'Heart' is the 'Mind'.

When deciding the content of a particular lesson, it is easier to separate it into two sections; one that would be internalized as sets of generative skills and knowledge (ones that the students have accepted as part of their own thinking repertoire) and the other one is information related to the topic being taught ('raw materials' or facts which have yet become knowledge for the students, pending learning and internalization of the content). According to Wan Safuraa et. al. (2011), there is three most important components of intelligences that form the basis of a person's universal thinking repertoire as well as his or her higher-order thinking skills and that is general intelligence, specified-domain intelligence and emotional intelligence.

The findings have shown that general intelligence functions as a substitute in the absence of specified-domain intelligence, when a person is undergoing a learning process. Therefore, while the content of the process is rich with new information and introduction to new sets of perspectives and skills, it is important to include as well, 'spaces' or guidance where a more general sets of skills and realization are made available for the students. Therefore, the teacher needs to always be several steps ahead when dealing with students – to a point that she or he is 'omniscient' when it comes to the students' needs. Hence, it is learning inside of a learning process. While the lesson provide the information which later becomes knowledge to be stored as part of the specified-domain intelligence for a particular faculty or field of specialty, the lesson (or rather the teacher) needs to bridge the 'link' as well in order for internalization process to occur (to form parts of the general intelligence). For examples, to form a general overview of the topic and the process that it took to come to that conclusion and to be able to be critical in deciding the real meaning, self-opinions regarding the topic and lastly, to come to a consensus where does it stand in the student's personal and world-view (how does that piece of knowledge affect the students).

iii. The 'Soul'

The last 'pit-stop' is the 'Soul'. It can be deemed as the highest level of internalization where it no longer just influence your thoughts and your world-view, it colours your personality, habits and preferences. Life-long learning is a good example of goal-achieved when an educator has successfully tackled the 'Soul'. If at the 'Mind' stage, the 'fuel' is made out of 'information', but at the level of the 'Soul', the fuel is made of insight and inspiration. This could as well be one of the toughest hurdles in educating the students for educators in general.

At this stage, there is no immediate results to see whether the objectives were successfully achieved or not – it will only become apparent several years later. It takes the sincerity and honesty on the teacher's part to be able to inspire a student to do or to become somebody in the future. Hence, the combination between the 'Heart' and the 'Mind' will inspire the 'Soul' to have ever-lasting effect on the student.

4.1.3 Ever-evolving Conceptual Framework

It is high time that a spiritual and emotional element is considered as an important part in creating the best possible teaching approach for the students. Tomlison (2005) stated that curriculum (what students learn) and instruction (how students learn it) should work in tandem to ensure that each student is consistently engaged with high-quality ideas and processes and that "curriculum and instruction should also be responsive to a student's affective needs as well as to his or her cognitive needs" (2005: 161). After they have completed the course, majority of the students claimed to have changed their perceptions towards learning technical English.

> "I have really enjoyed the classes especially the video sessions; added more understanding".
>
> Student 1A

> "The classes were interesting; no stress and I was able to learn in a relax way. I think it is the best approach for me to learn the subject. The part that I like the best is during the video-watching. There were many motivational aspects to it besides content related to the subject".
>
> Student 1B

> "The lecturer's way of teaching is different compared to the others".
>
> Student 1C

> "It helps to have other activities when we are learning – like games and videos – because it makes it easier to understand than when the lecturer uses only slides".
>
> Student 1D

> "The classes have given me the motivation to learn English. I used to hate attending English classes but after I met my current lecturer, I have been enjoying it since. I have enjoyed the games, videos and songs used in class!"
>
> Student 2A

> "I like the part when she explained details in the lecture using technical aids such as posters, advertisements etc., related to the topics."
>
> Student 2B

> "My personal opinion is to please ask the other lecturers to use the same teaching approach because boring teaching style only makes boring subjects worse!"
>
> Student 2C

The key is in it being flexible, not rigid as what we all are accustomed too in the Malaysian mainstream education system. Like in one fluid movement, teachers need to be able to imagine the syllabuses/ curriculum framework as something of a stacked multi-dimensional, multifaceted, intricately woven on every level and of evolving/ metamorphic in nature. They have to form this mental framework in mind in order to be able to make sudden modifications when needs be – when a time came that a student does not or no longer respond to the original framework.

5. Meta-Level Approach in Case-Based Teaching Fosters Learner Autonomy

Based on experiential learning theory, teaching strategies should encourage students to reflect upon and evaluate their own experiences, to develop and articulate appropriate generalizations. In case-based teaching on the other hand, Schank stated that "when confronted with problems, people first try to remember a case in which they faced similar situation (1990: 1999).

Therefore, it appears that the concept of case-based teaching compliments meta-level approach in so many ways. Particularly in this context where ESP writing and thinking skills are combined to serve as the medium for students to learn effectively and thus, helps improved their performance as well as foster learner's autonomy. The idea of adding on information to already existing prior knowledge is similar to the concept of general intelligence while assimilation and adaptation of new information resembles the formation of specified-domain intelligence. While emotional intelligence is a new added factor presented in this chapter to be incorporated as part of case-based teaching method, its effects nonetheless, in enhancing and facilitating students' thought proved to be valuable in increasing the students' motivation to learn.

Thus, it can be concluded that a curriculum comprising case-based teaching should be built on the basis of promoting thinking skills and this paper has only highlighted one of the ways on how it can be done; through ESP writing class. By incorporating thinking skills (metacognitive and cognitive) into presentation of case examples – where students can be made aware of their own tendencies and learning styles compared to those of professionals – not only will it improves student's performance and thinking skills, it will also foster learner's autonomy within the students.

Apart from the integration of meta-level intervention in case-based teaching method, there are several key principles that have been incorporated into the overall methodology as well and they are;

i. Writing equals thinking.
ii. The need to tap into the use of general intelligence in the absence of specified-domain intelligence for English.
iii. Emotional intelligence functions in facilitating thoughts.
iv. Tackling the 'heart', 'mind' and 'soul' of students ensures effective learning in diversified classroom.
v. Case-base teaching with meta-level intervention fosters learner's autonomy.

6. The Importance Of Nurturing Learner Autonomy

University students should be nurtured to be the pilot of their own thinking. They should be groomed to pursue life-long learning with a clear understanding of their own learning tendencies, nature and the process it entails, certainly not just to pass a grade and to be to graduate. In the case of the course in questioned, upon completion, the students should be able to write a good proposal report, conduct survey, apply technical communication skills, and improve their soft skills. However, as had been discussed throughout this paper, with meta-level intervention in case-based teaching, teaching and learning can be taken up to a whole new level and that is, in fostering learner autonomy within the students.

This is made possible through case-based teaching. It provides the learning environment/ medium that caters to the needs of the students. Through the combination of writing and thinking medium in case-based teaching, it is possible to tackle all three components of intelligence system behind the student's learning process; the general intelligence, specified-domain intelligence and emotional intelligence. The presentation of different models or problems allows the students to contemplate on their own thinking nature/ habits. Such teaching not only provides the necessary information to increase their knowledge, but it also helps build tools for students to use in order to learn and function well in the society.

7. Conclusion

Three components – thinking skills and writing skills as well as English language as the medium of communication; all three has become an integral part of today's education scene; one cannot survive mainly on 'memorizing' in today's classroom, one cannot complain of disliking writing since it is now one of the main assessment tools used at the university level and one cannot dispense of the advantages of acquiring English language with its status as the language of knowledge. By bridging all three components as highlighted in this paper, I believe that it will improve students' learning process and experience altogether for a better prospect in the future as a whole. Thus, even when its medium is a second language, through case-based teaching, a meta-level intervention in both of the individual's process of learning writing and when writing brings about the cohesion needed between something personal and impersonal, to make learning fun and meaningful.

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Using Drama-Based Projects in EFL Classroom: A Whole-Language Approach to Learning Language

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Abstract
Drama activities in foreign language classrooms provide great opportunities for students to activate all language skills in a contextualized situation. By meaningfully integrating all language skills in a socially interactive context, a whole language approach was thus adopted in the current study. Specifically, this paper explores the process of implementing drama-based projects in an EFL classroom and examines its effectiveness in language learning from learners' perspective. Thirty-six EFL learners, aged from 22 to 50, with mixed English proficiency enrolled in this class. In groups, activities such as watching films, reading movie critics, writing feedbacks in reaction to the critics, giving oral presentation for the selected movies, choosing movie plots, adapting and editing the script, and finally performing the plots were enacted in their group projects throughout the class for a semester. Reflection and evaluation sheets were provided for each group to observe and evaluate their peers' group work. Finally, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore, from students' perspective, on what they perceived as the most gains from the drama-based language projects. The results revealed students' positive feedback not only on the part of their improved linguistic ability, but on their enhanced awareness of the pragmatic aspect of the target language use. In addition, positive responses such as boosted confidence, enhanced motivation and learner autonomy, and gains from cooperative learning were also reported. Other findings, suggestions, and pedagogical implications will be discussed in the paper.

Key words: drama-based activities, a whole language approach

Introduction

The concept of communicative competence, according to Hymes (1972), should be viewed as "the overall underlying knowledge and ability for language which the speaker-listener possesses" (p.13). It entails the language user not only can produce the grammatically correct utterance but he/she needs to use it in an appropriate context. A whole language approach, which aims at integrating and applying students' language skills in an authentic context can be effective and should be at the heart of the language classroom. In an EFL environment, where the opportunities for authentic language use is limited for learners, creating an authentic context for language use is thus essential for EFL language teachers. Applying drama activities in EFL classroom, where students are learning language structures in concrete situations and through integrated tasks, can help students fully contexulize the language use, consolidate what they've learned, and thus help acquire communicative competence. In addition, drama can be fun and motivating since it is creative, collaborative, interactive, and expressive, while students assume other identities and thus were able to free themselves from the inhibition of speaking a foreign language.

In Taiwan, as most of the English classrooms are teacher-centered and lecture-based, language is often broken down into pieces and taught in discrete manners. Much effort is still placed on explaining the structure of language and the memorization of word usages and phrases. As for the language skills, they are not treated as a whole but often are taught discretely and placed with different degree of emphases. Reading and writing are still the main skills to be tested in the exams, resulting in the lack of training in oral abilities in language classrooms. With the newly added English listening comprehension test in the university entrance exams, the training of listening skills is beginning to receive attention in the classroom, yet its effectiveness is diluted due to limited authentic input in the EFL context. As each language skill is taught separately, is test-driven and is learned in a decontextualized manner, the effectiveness of students' English learning is often undermined and students are frustrated by their limited competence in actually communicating with the language after years of English learning.

In realizing the whole language approach via drama activities, this paper aims to explore the process of implementing drama-based group projects in an EFL classroom and examine its effectiveness in language learning from learners' perspective. Project-based learning has been advocated for its effectiveness in promoting content knowledge and enhancing language proficiency. According to Stoller (2007), its many advantages also arise from increased motivation, improved learner autonomy to enhanced learners' confidence. In continuing the success of implementing the project-based learning in an ESP setting, and in raising pragmatic awareness (Tseng, 2007, 2013), this study further taps into the area of using drama-based projects to enhance students' overall English learning. Specifically, from students' perspective, it intends to find answers to the following questions:

1) Does the project help promote students' general English language abilities? If so, which aspect(s) of English language skills do students perceive to have improved?
2) Do students perceive the activities designed in the project engage them in the natural use of English language and promote their awareness in the pragmatic aspect of language use (proper use of language)?
3) Do students perceive themselves as less inhibited in communicating with English? If so, how have they been benefited from the project?

Theoretical Background

A Whole Language Approach (WLA)

A Whole Language Approach (WLA) believes that the communication of meaning is essential for any successful language activity (Goodman,1986). For WLA, learning happens best when there is authentic use of language where all skills are used in an integrated manner, rather than in a decontexulized context where only individual skills are separately trained. Thus, in the whole language classroom, language learning should encompass all four language skills in an integrated manner (Goodman, 1986). The principles of the WLA, when applied in ESL/EFL setting, can be summarized by Freeman and Freeman (1992) as follows:

(1) Lessons should proceed from whole to part.
(2) Lessons should be learner-centered.
(3) Lessons should have authentic meaning and purpose for learners.
(4) Learning should take place in social interactions.
(5) Both oral and written language should be developed simultaneously
(6) Lessons should include all four modes of language skills. Learning should involve he whole person, embracing learners' first and second language and identity.

To summarize, the WLA is a holistic approach. It treats language as a whole, and stresses that language is meaningless when teaching only the isolated parts (pronunciation, spelling, grammar, etc.). Language learning begins with the whole which all skills are simultaneously activated in contextually meaningful, purposeful, and collaborative activities. Language teaching in WLA takes students as the core. It emphasizes the importance that activities should take care of students' needs and interests, which allows students to be less inhibited and more confident to bring out their full potentials in language learning. Thus, WLA is whole and holistic in the sense that it involves the whole person, the whole language, and the whole context for authentic learning (Goodman, Goodman, & Hood, 1989).

Drama in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Holden (1981) defines drama as any activity which asks the student to portray him/herself in an imaginary situation, or to portray another person in an imaginary situation. In accordance with this definition, drama can be applied to any format of "let's pretend" situation in the language classroom, including role-play, and provides an opportunity for students to express him/herself through verbal and non-verbal expressions.

A number of articles outline the benefits of incorporating drama in the language learning classroom. Its many advantages include contextulizing language by letting students experience the language in concrete situations, making learning holistic and memorable (Giebert, 2014). Drama can also be fun and motivating, and the fictional persona is often felt as an protection where learners are less afraid in making mistakes (Giebert, 2014). In addition, it is reported that while drama activities involved learners physically and emotionally, it helped improve retention of language structures and vocabularies (O'Gara, 2008; Kao& O'Neill, 1998). Other advantages such as increasing students' self-confidence (Chauhan,2004; Culham,2002) and social competence as a result of collaborative learning were also reported. Drama activities also contribute to improving students' integrated linguistic competence, when students are required to read and write scripts, and to enact on the scripts in an actual performance. In other words, drama activities develop students' communicative ability naturally, which all language skills are activated to communicate real meaning (Hamrmer, 2007).

Features and Benefits of Project-based Learning

A great deal of literature work has proven the usefulness and efficacy of project-based learning in promoting both language and content learning in the EFL classrooms (Becket, 2005; Beckett &Miller, 2006; Haines, 1989; Hedge, 2000; Tseng, 2007, 2013). The project-based learning proposed by Stoller (2007, p.143) included features such as having a process and product orientation, encouraging students' ownership of the project, extending over a period of time, encouraging the natural integration of skills, maintaining a commitment to both language and content learning, encouraging both collaboration and individual work, assigning work which results in a final product, and concluding the project with students' reflection on the process and product of their project.

As for the benefits of project-based learning, Stoller reported that the most widely espoused advantages included "improved language abilities, content knowledge, authenticity of experience, motivation and creativity, ability to work collaboratively and independently, improved decision making and critical thinking abilities and enhanced self-confidence" (2002, pp.143-145). In addition, project-based learning is student-centered. The teacher acts as a facilitator and advisor rather than dominates the class. Students are encouraged to take on their own learning responsibilities to work with their team members. At the same time, each student also needs to independently accomplish their won negotiated tasks. In other words, both "cooperative learning" (Crandall, 1999) and "autonomous learning" (Benson, 2001) are involved in students' progress towards the concrete outcome, and by nature, this process leads to enhanced motivation, and encourages the ownership of the project among students.

The Study

The context

The study was carried out in an English drama course in a technological University in Northern Taiwan. Thirty-five students enrolled in this class were from School of Continuing Education and were all majored in AFL (Applied Foreign Languages). The class met once a week for 18 weeks, and each class lasted for two hours.

Participants

Thirty-six participants were all adult Taiwanese learners aged from 22 to 50 years old. Sixteen were males and twenty were females. Some of the students never took any proficiency test, and for those who did, the scores indicate students' proficiency level varied from low-intermediate (i.e., TOEIC410) to high-intermediate (i.e., TOEIC 880). Students have had at least 8-10 years of experience studying English when participated in this study.

The Course/Project Design

Following the principle of WLA, this course aims to enhance students' overall English language proficiency, particularly in the area of communicative abilities. In order to have students integrate and apply all language skills, including speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the meaningful context, a drama-based project is actualized in this course. Inheriting the advantages of project-based work, the specific aims of the drama-based project designed for this course are:

(1) To develop a context in which students can acquire useful expressions and use them in meaningful communication.
(2) To help students improve listening, speaking, reading, writing skills
(3) To enhance collaboration among group members.
(4) To develop evaluation skills which foster critical thinking abilities.
(5) To enhance pragmatic awareness which students learn proper use of expressions in context
(6) To help students be less anxious and more confident language learners and users.

Methods and Procedures:

The methods and procedures followed in the project take on the framework of sequence of activities for project work proposed by Stoller (1997, pp.112-117). The steps and the responding themes are specified as follows:

Steps	Agenda	Objectives
1	Agree on the theme for the project	Students were free to choose the type of films (either classic or contemporary) to work with. After discussion as a class and in groups, students all preferred the contemporary films as the main themes to be explored.
2	Determine the final outcome of the project	(1). **The midterm presentation** for two selected films encompasses reporting on the casts, movie plots, movie reviews, and their own feedbacks. Students chose the preferred film for the adaptation of their own final drama play. (2). **The final drama-play** includes adapting the original film scripts into a 20-25 minute drama play. Thus, deciding on the plots, modifying and editing the script, choosing the cast, working on the background scenes were all inclusive for the final performance.
3	Structure the project	(1) For **midterm presentation**, students work in groups to: A.) Discuss on the selection of two films, and closely watch the films. B.) Read the movie critics from authentic material (i.e., rotten tomatoes). C.) Prepare for the oral presentation for the selected films, including reporting on the cast, plots, critics, feedback, and finally decide on the preferred film for the adaptation of their final drama play. (2) For **final drama performance**, students were instructed and advised on how to: A.) Decide on the plots and modify and adapt the original script. B.) Decide on the cast, and edit the adapted script. C.) Work on the accuracy, fluency, and intonation of their verbal expressions. D.)Work on the non-verbal parts of the play such as gestures and facial expressions. E.) Prepare for the costumes, props, and background music, and etc., F.) Rehearsal, self-evaluation and final performance
4	Prepare	(1). Give clear instruction on how to read authentic movie

	students for the language demands on the ***process*** of the project	reviews such as rotten tomatoes. (2). Provide clear guidelines and examples for midterm presentation. (3). Conduct group discussion on the selected films, monitor their understanding for the movie reviews and, and check on students' language problems in their written work. (4). Give clear instruction on the criteria being evaluated for the final drama play. (5). Help students edit original script, and work on the language problems. (6). Supervise students' drama play practice, including their language accuracy, intonation, fluency, and nonverbal expressions.
5	Prepare students for the language demands on the ***final product*** of the project	(1). Give instruction on how to conduct a formal oral presentation, including outlining and preparing slides, proofreading, and performing with proper eye-contact and right tone of voice. (2). The adapted scripts were monitored for repeated editing and adjustment for final play. (3). Conduct and videotape rehearsals. Have students watch their own performance and reflect on their strength and problematic areas.
6	Evaluate the project	(1). Both midterm and final project were evaluated by the teacher and their peers via evaluation forms. (2). Students and instructor evaluated their learning process and effectiveness via a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

Final Drama Performances

In total, there were six final drama performances acting on the adapted script from the original films “English Vinglish”, “Click”, “How to lose a guy in 10 days”, “Terminal, Hair Spray”, and “Three Idiots”. The final drama plays were all filmed, recorded, and made into discs.

Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were employed to help students reflect upon their own learning process and outcome, and also help the researcher tap into the effectiveness of applying drama-based project in helping students' with their overall communicative abilities. Specifically, it aims to understand if the project work helps improve students' linguistic and critical thinking skills, provide students with meaningful context for actual language use and pragmatic awareness, and decrease their anxiety and enhance their confidence as language learners and users. Through the 5-point likert scale questions (1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree. 5. Strongly agree), and the follow-up semi-structured interviews, the results are analyzed and discussed in the next session.

Results and Discussion

Enhancing Students' Linguistic and Critical Thinking Skills

Students' perspectives on if and how they have improved in their English and critical thinking skills through the project were examined. The frequency statistics on mean and standard deviation were illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Mean distribution on students' perspectives regarding their improvement in English and critical thinking skills.

Item	Mean	S.D.
(1) My English listening ability has improved because of watching films.	4.47	.696
(2). My English speaking ability has improved because of oral presentation and acting on the drama play.	4.50	.737
(3). My English reading ability has improved because of reading the movie reviews from rotten tomatoes and other related sources.	4.00	.828
(4). My English writing ability has improved as I need to write feedback for midterm presentation, adapt and edit the scripts for the final play.	3.83	.845
(5). Overall, I think I have improved in all four skills of English from this group project.	4.39	.728
(6). Evaluating other group's presentation and performance helps me think of my own advantages and weaknesses.	4.75	.439

As displayed in Table 1, positive responses can be found on most items. In general, students perceived their ability in all four skills have improved (M=4.39). Specifically, speaking ability was perceived to have improved the most (M=4.50), followed by listening (M=4.47), reading (M=4.00), and finally writing (M=3.83).As for the part of critical thinking ability, the mean score on item six (M=4.75) reveals that students strongly believe the evaluation of others' performance help them reflect upon their own strength and problems, which helps with their performances.

In the follow-up semi-structured interviews, some students indicated that from watching films repeatedly, their listening ability has been enhanced. Other students pointed out that practicing their lines in the play, and giving oral presentations helped greatly with their speaking skills. In addition, students reported that by reading authentic movie critics, writing feedback for the selected films, and also editing the original scripts, their reading and writing skills have improved. Overall, aural abilities perceived to receive most gains; whereas reading and writing abilities were also reported to be enhanced.

Regarding critical thinking abilities, students pointed out that from watching their own taped rehearsals, they became aware of their own problems in word pronunciation, intonation, and the fluency of their utterances. They were then able to work on these problems with the help from either more linguistic advanced peers in the group or from their instructor. In addition, students reported while given the opportunities to evaluate their peers' work through provided evaluation forms, they were more focused in evaluating their peers' work and in giving constructive comments. And in turn, these observations would work as guidelines when they work on their own project in the final drama play.

It is obvious that by integrating all language skills needed for different holistic tasks, students perceived that all aspects of their language skills were improved. While being given the opportunities for evaluation, students were able reflect upon their own work and then take necessary action to work individually (i.e., working on their own pronunciations in their lines) and collaboratively with their group members (i.e., discuss on the plots, help or get help with the language problems). Echoed from the benefits of project-based learning proposed by Stoller (2002), this project has allowed students to integrate all language skills to accomplish a purposeful final product which resulted in improving students' language skills as well as developing their critical thinking abilities. When students are given opportunities to simultaneous use all language skills in contextually meaningful, purposeful, intriguing, and collaborative activities, their whole performance would outweigh the sum of its separate linguistic parts and thus enhance the overall language learning success. (Carrasquillo, 1993; Freeman and Freeman, 1992; Goodman,1986).

Learning English in a Meaningful Context

Students' perspectives on contextualized learning through the drama project were also examined via questionnaire. The frequency statistics on mean and standard deviation were illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2: Mean distribution on students' perspectives regarding contextualized language learning

Item	Mean	S.D.
(1). I have learned some useful English expressions from watching the Films.	4.31	.668
(2). Learning English from films allows me to learn how different English expressions are used in real communication.	4.33	.676
(3).Performing the drama allows me to use what I've learned from the movie in actual practice.	4.25	.649
(4). Learning English from films help me understand different cultures.	4.53	.654
(5). Learning English from films make me aware of different usages in English and Chinese.	4.39	.645
(6). I think I know better about how to speak English in a more proper manner.	3.56	1.297

From Table 2, students believed that they have picked up some useful English expressions from the films (M=4.31), and have learned how to use them in real context (M=4.33). They were also able to actually use these expressions in the designated role in the drama performance (M=4.25), which helped enhance their understanding of these usages. In addition, since students chose different kinds of movies varied from Hollywood to Bollywood, they were not only learning language but also learning different culture (M=4.53). Besides, students responded positively in becoming aware of the different usages in English and in Chinese (M=4.39). It's worth noting that students' written feedback for movies contained direct translation from Chinese (L1) which syntactically and semantically failed to address their intended meaning. This part of the problem was worked on while the instructor preparing students for their project. Thus, students became more aware of the different usages between their mother tongue and the target language.

Finally, in the part of pragmatics (proper usages in context), students' responses for item six (M=3.56) seemed to be less positive in relation to other aspects of contextual learning. From the semi-structured interviews, some students revealed that when it came to different speech acts such as the proper ways to make request or refusals, they were still not very certain in performing these acts properly in English. It is thus suggested more work can be done in directing students' attention to different speech acts displayed in the films to enhance their awareness of different pragmatics used across languages and to allow better production of proper language use.

Apparently, results from the questionnaire and interviews confirmed the effectiveness of meaningful use of language in real context. The drama-based project in this study thus created the context from which language was not just mechanically practiced but was activated to communicate real meaning (Harmer, 2007). This has developed students' communicative ability in a natural and dynamic manner, using gestures, pauses, different intonation of voice, showing emotions, and through which these practical hands-on skills can all be applied in the real-life situation (Banerjee, 2014).

Enhancing Motivation, Lowering anxiety, and Boosting confidence

Students' perspectives on the psychological aspects such as the effect on their anxiety, self-esteem, and learning motivation via doing this project were also examined. The frequency statistics on mean and standard deviation of the survey were illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Mean distribution on students' perspectives regarding effects on learning anxiety, self-esteem and motivation

Item	Mean	S.D.
(1). I think learning English from watching films and performing drama is fun.	4.69	.467
(2). After doing this project, I am now not afraid to speak English in general.	4.44	.652
(3). I do not feel as anxious when I have to present publicly with English in class.	4.17	.775
(4). I start to speak English without thinking too much in Chinese.	3.72	1.003
(5). I am now more confident to speak English in general.	4.50	.561

From Table 3, the result indicated that students believed learning English via this project is motivating (M=4.69). It was also found that this project has helped them be less afraid to speak English in general (M=4.44), and less anxious in doing oral presentations (M=4.17). Overall, students became more confident in speaking English (M=4.50) after doing the project. However, it is obvious that students still perceive their first language overrides the target language from time to time and thus, the relative lower mean score (M=3.72) is shown, indicating students still experience strong L1 transfer while partaking activities in this project.

In fact, from students' production of written and spoken tasks, students' interlanguage displayed a great deal of literal translation from their first language. This often leads to problematic language which linguistically and/or pragmatically fails to address students' intended meaning. In this regard, some "focus-on-form", rather than "focus-on-forms" activities can be conducted to "draw students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (Long, pp.45-46). That is, teachers' feedback on linguistic elements will mainly focus on the problematic elements which interfere with meaning. In addition, differences in pragmatics such as varied ways to address different speech acts can also be introduced, particularly in students' edited drama script. This will help solve students' linguistic problems as well as make aware of the differences in the pragmatic aspects between the two languages.

Many learners experience anxiety and distress when learning a new language (Price, 1991; Hewitt & Stepheson, 2012). Studies have revealed that students experience higher levels of anxiety as a result of speaking a foreign language. (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Young, 1991). By incorporating creative drama to alleviate foreign language anxiety, Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu (2013) found positive feedback from learners in gaining confidence, overcoming stage fright, and fear in speaking English. In line with Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu's study, this study further confirmed the usefulness of employing a drama-based project to help learners overcome anxiety and enhance confidence. As nearly all students found this drama project fun, motivating, and self and group empowering, a non-threatening situation for language production has been created. The enacting of play, according to Banerjee (2014, p.82), allows "a healthy release of emotions of the learners in a safe setting which can work to relieve the tension of learning in a second language". Thus, this project work has allowed students involved in "a total physical, mental, and emotional activity" (Banerjee, 2014, p.82) which help them come out of their inhibition, overcome their fear, and boost their confidence in foreign language learning.

Conclusion and Suggestions

This study examines the effectiveness of drama-based group projects in a whole language EFL classroom. Specifically, it aims to develop students' language skills and communicative abilities through a series of integrated drama-based activities. It is evident that by providing a meaningful and authentic context for students to work on a collaborative final project-drama play, the engaging learning process allows students to be motivated in taking initiatives to work independently and cooperative in groups. This enhances learner autonomy (Skehan, 1998), and promotes collaborative learning (Crandall, 1999). In building a safe and creative environment for students to freely express themselves physically and emotionally through drama activities, students demonstrated increased self-esteem, self-confidence (Stoller, 2006) and lowered anxiety and inhibition in language learning. With the components of "comprehensible input, meaningful output, and negotiation of meaning" via project work (Stoller, 2007, p.143), students have perceived (and demonstrated) all aspects of their linguistic skills are improved, their critical thinking ability is developed and their overall communicative competence is enhanced.

More drama-based projects should be incorporated in EFL classroom. As this study demonstrates, the project work activates students' interest and naturally integrate all language skills and thus develop students' communicative competence. Since this study is examined from the learners' perspective, it is suggested that future studies which include some pre- and post assessment on measuring students' actual language enhancement can be included. The methods and procedures employed in this study can be further tested in larger samples, and in different EFL context to further validate the findings in this study.

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Role of First Culture Knowledge in Foreign Language: Socialization in Japanese English Classroom Discourses

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Abstract
This study examines, from the perspective of language socialization, how EFL learners' first culture knowledge plays a role in Japanese EFL classrooms. Research on language socialization has focused on the integrated acquisition of first culture knowledge and first language (Schieffelin and Ochs, 1986). However, as the theory of second language socialization (Duff, 2007) suggests, acquisition of additional language and the associated cultural knowledge, can also be the target of language socialization. The present study sheds light on a third possibility: one where the first culture interacts with a foreign language in the classroom. The data for this research were recorded in a Japanese public junior high school and a private junior high school. Additionally, data from Anderson (1995) is used for contexting. As a result of the analysis, it was found that first culture knowledge supported and encouraged learners' foreign language acquisition and use. In addition, learners' first culture competence was reinforced through foreign language learning. Finally, I suggest a new framework to explain this process, foreign language socialization.

Keywords: Language socialization, Culture knowledge, Classroom Discourse, English education

Introduction

This article examines the role of students' first culture knowledge in the context of foreign language socialization, and how it helps them study and acquire the foreign language. In addition, the present study shows how a target language can conversely contribute to the reinforcement of their first-culture knowledge in a classroom. According to Schieffelin & Ochs (1986), the paradigm of language socialization is defined as having two aspects: "socialization through the use of language" and "socialization to use language" (p.163). During both types of socialization, first-culture knowledge is generally the target material transmitted though socialization and language use, in the course of enacting culturally relevant events. Following this, a more recent theory of "second language socialization" (e.g. Duff, 2007, 2010, 2012) has emphasized how second language learners are socialized into the cultural context of a second language through learning the second or foreign language. As a point of difference from the original definition of language socialization, in second language socialization, participants including both adults and children have already had experience with the culture and discourse of their native language. It is this aspect of language socialization that the present study will focus on: specifically how participants' original cultural knowledge, particularly the use of routines in the classroom, complements and contributes to the foreign language learning process.

The data used in this article are mainly from the author's database. One set is from a junior high English classroom managed by a Japanese teacher of English. The other is from another junior high school English classroom taught mainly by an Australian teacher of English together with two Japanese teachers. In addition to these, to contextualize these extracted data in a wider context, I shall refer to data excerpted from Anderson's ethnographic study (1995) of an elementary school classroom in Japan.

The analysis of the data, I will argue, throws light on the dynamic relationship between the role of culture knowledge, language acquisition and socialization in discursive practice[1]. In the discussion section, I propose "foreign language socialization" as a new approach in language socialization studies, following from the general theory of "language socialization" (e.g. Schieffelin and Ochs, 1986; Ochs and Schieffelin, 2008, 2012) and "second language socialization" (e.g. Duff, 2007, 2010, 2012) as mentioned above.

Language Socialization

Language socialization is defined as the process of how participants such as children, students, novices, newcomers or others acquire cultural knowledge, including how, when, and where to act in culturally expected ways, and become matured members of community through language acquisition and language use. Through this process they acquire cultural habits, values, thoughts, rituals and so on at deeper and deeper levels. The interpretation can be particularly seen in the early studies, which focused on how children are socialized through the interaction with caregivers, or with other older members in their community (e.g. Schieffelin, 1990; Ochs, 1988). Following this early definition and orientation, language socialization study concentrates on not only child's cultural and linguistic development but also on "the ways in which culture influences all aspects of human development as a lifelong process" (Garrett and Baquedano-López, 2002, p. 340). Here it is noted that if we recognize the language socialization process as a development across the lifespan, participants experience socialization not only as first-language learners.

In language socialization studies, culture is seen as the major factor defining what is transmitted through the process of language socialization. Participants are seen as acting according to cultural knowledge and being enculturalated through language. Anthropologists such as Mead (e.g. 1930, 1954), cited in Kulick & Schieffelin (2004), did not consider language as a factor when children were growing up and acquiring knowledge. Such anthropologists are interested in how children acquire cultural knowledge and become community members, similar to researchers in language socialization. However, most of these anthropologists focus only on "enculturation", ignoring any role that language may have in the acquisition of cultural knowledge; it "is disregarded as an aspect of social life" (Kulick & Schieffelin, 2004). In contrast, language socialization regards language as having an influence and a facilitating role in cultural events and knowledge development in children and other language learners.

Second language socialization focuses on many points similar to first-language socialization in its framework and objectives (Duff, 1995, 2007, 2010). However, participants generally differ from first-language socialization participants in that the L2 learners entering a L2 context have already experienced and had some "… repertoire of linguistic, discursive, and cultural traditions and community affiliations when encountering new ones" (Duff, 2007, p. 310). Added to this, however, participants keep being socialized in their first culture and through their first language, in parallel with the additional language and its culture, during this second phase of socialization (Duff, 2012).

There are two main approaches to language socialization for all types of language socialization studies. One is from psychology, and the other is the perspective from anthropology and sociology (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2008; Garrett, 2008). The former approach can be seen in earlier studies which focus on language acquisition. This research approach focuses on explicit socialization, which is one of the goals of language acquisition. The latter is based on anthropological and sociological perspectives. This approach sheds light on how participants acquire cultural values more generally through implicit or explicit language socialization.[2] This process through which participants are socialized aims for them to acquire culturally expected norms of language use and behavioral competence; in other words, what Dell Hymes would call "communicative competence" (Hymes, 1972).

Communicative Competence

In the study of language socialization, in addition to acquisition of language, cultural factors and cultural knowledge related to verbal and non-verbal communication are considered. In the 1960s and 1970s, Hymes (e.g. 1968, 1972, 1974) proposed the notion of "communicative competence". As opposed to Chomsky's (1965) "linguistic competence" which focuses on a speaker's grammatical development and the innate system behind it, Hymes emphasized that we acquire and use language in particular contexts which have an influence on our ways of using the language, and moreover, we are required to act according to the context. Then, we need to know and understand "what to say to whom and how to say it appropriately in any given situation" (Saville-Troike, 2003, p.18). Linguistic activity is thus framed as a part of cultural and social knowledge in situations which have an effect on communicative language use.

Language and Culture

As one part of the framework, I would like to discuss theoretical views of the relationship between language and culture. In language socialization studies, culture knowledge and cultural behavior generally tend to be targets of socialization together with language. These targets also create contexts within which socialization occurs. However, it is not necessarily the case that the second culture plays a significant role in second language learning. There is flexibility in how cultural factors contribute to various types of language acquisition in different contexts.

The connection between language and culture has been taken as one of interrelatedness, which suggests that features of each influence the other. However, as suggested by Risager (2006), culture and language can exist and function even as separated from particular linguistic and cultural contexts. As a general principle, Risager (2006) notes "…that languages spread across cultures, and cultures spread across languages. Linguistic and cultural practices change and spread through social networks along partially different routes…" (p.2). This relates to my assertion in this paper that first culture knowledge can be learnt through a foreign language, and can contribute to foreign language learning.

Blommaert (2010) similarly challenges researchers to "rethink" sociolinguistics in terms of "trans-contextual networks, flows, and movements" (p.1). In this way of thinking, the relation between language, culture and context in globalization is mobile and diverse, that is, they are not in a fixed structure together. According to Blommaert, traditional views displace language from the language context which has been seen as its corresponding context in time and space (*ibid*.).

In other words, the structure of language, culture and context is not necessarily bound together but rather the components function independently. Duff (2007) notes that the definition of additional-language socialization, "does not necessarily lead to the reproduction of existing L2 cultural and discursive practice, but may lead to other outcomes such as hybrid practices, identities, and values…" (p.311). From the language socialization perspective, it is highly possible that each component —target language of socialization, culture knowledge, and the context— is mobile and free from "the language and culture bind". In other words, the combination of these is fluid and can only be seen in relation to individual cases. As a short summary, the relation of language and culture in foreign language socialization depends on participants' cultural experience or knowledge over time, rather than a wider socially fixed structure of language and culture.

Previous Studies on Japanese Language Socialization

Previous studies on Japanese language socialization have been concerned with interactional routines in Japanese as first, second and foreign language (e.g. Anderson, 1995; Clancy, 1986, 1999; Cook, 1999, 2012: Kanagy, 1999; Ohta, 1999). In the early socializing process of children, conventionalized routines play an important role and help to organize the learning context (Anderson, 2008).

Although it is not a study of Japanese language, a seminal study on the role of interactional routines in language socialization was done by Peters and Boggs (1986). Socializing contexts consisting of “time, place, participants, and desired outcomes” (Peters and Boggs, 1986, p.80) facilitate the success of language learning. In interactional routines and language learning, children can learn how to take part in activities in early practice, and later acquire social and cultural knowledge. Peters and Boggs (*ibid*.) note, 1) from the language learning and acquisition view, in the interactional sequence, children have ample opportunities to use language skills, and are connected in their language use as they learn how to adjust their speech according to situation and participants; 2) related to these rules, children acquire the ways of culturally communicating, what Peters and Boggs call “modes of speaking” (p.94).

Within the framework of Peters and Boggs (1986), some studies on language socialization in Japanese schools have been carried out. During interactional routines children and learners are expected to be good listeners in a classroom as well as at home. Cook (1999) proposed that in contrast to the idea that good participants in the western context are actively participating, Japanese children are forced to listen to others talking until they finish. She examined how students in Japanese elementary school are implicitly and explicitly socialized to be good listeners in classroom interaction. Through the interactional routine, particularly when it is focused on student turns rather than teacher talk, they are given explict instructions to listen carefully and attend to the class.

In an ethnographic study of a Japanese elementary school over a year research, Anderson (1995) focused on routines for greeting (*Aisatsu*, in Japanese) and presentation (*Happyo*, in Japanese) from the perspective of the participants’ roles in the discourse. He showed that in the Japanese classroom, participants are in a multi-party patterned interactional structure, which he referred as, “interactional umbrella”. This interactional routine is formulated as “Initiation-Presentation- Reaction-Evaluation (I-P-Rx-E)”, which differs from the western classroom interactional pattern, IRF (Initiation- Response- Feedback) as described by, for example, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

Interactional routines have also played a role in classroom studies of Japanese as a foreign or second language (Kanagy, 1999; Ohta, 1999). Kanagy focused on children who were socialized in second language interaction in a kindergarten in the US. This work shows how children learn initiation and response moves in the process of immersion into Japanese language. During classroom activities, she found that the role of repetition and scaffolding by the teacher are important not to question-answer interaction between teacher and student but to socialization for interactional and communicative competence in L2 learning. Ohta has applied the framework of language socialization to foreign language discourse in a first-year university-level classroom in the US. She researched the “alignment” which is necessary for learners in interactional routines. Learners do not need only to listen to what others are saying, but have to react to teacher-fronted and learner-learner interactions in the context of Japanese-as-foreign-language acquisition. In this work, she examines how the routines based on first language socialization of childhood affect and impact their foreign language learning. These two studies were not conducted in Japan, but they do help to shed light on the relations among language, culture, and context more generally.

Data

The data for the present study are from two sets of the author’s data and one from Anderson (1995). The first set of the author’s data was recorded with an IC recorder over 50 minutes, in an English classroom at a public junior high school in the fall of 2010. Students were fixed in the same class over one school year and taught by the same teacher. Almost all of the students were in the third year and final junior high (14 and 15 years old) and would be taking an entrance examination for high school a few months later.

The second data set is from the author’s observations in 2010 at a private junior high school in Osaka. This data was recorded with an IC recorder by the author over 50 minutes, toward the end of the school year. Students were in the first year (12 or 13 years old). This class was shared by three English teachers: two Japanese teachers, and one Australian teacher. The present excerpted data include one of the Japanese teachers and the Australian teacher. As contexting data, I use an excerpt from Anderson’s (1995) longitudinal study from a year of fieldwork. Anderson’s class is a social studies lesson managed by a Japanese teacher in Japanese. Students in this class were in the first grade and the second grade of elementary school (6 to 9 years old).

Data Analysis

Japanese English teacher in a junior high school English classroom

Extract 1 (T=Teacher; Sts= Students) shows a Japanese teacher and students’ interaction at the beginning of a class. After the school bell rings, students are starting to get back to their seats for the class as the teacher is positioned at the front of the classroom. However, students keep chatting, and appear not to have calmed down or be ready for the class opening greeting, which is a conventionalized activity used to manage the class opening. The traditional order of the opening is: students standing up or sitting up, bowing and greeting, and then sitting back down. During this event, the teacher uses English as a target language to carry out this conventional routine. This is in keeping with the idea that English class is ideally managed in the English language to the extent that participants can follow it.

Talk in Japanese is shown in italics. English translations are in square brackets.
Extract 1

01. T: Stand up, please.
02. Sts: (chatting…)
03. T: *Hai.* [O.K.] Stand.
04. S1: *Nani surun? Kyo?* [What are we going to do today?]
05. T: *Naisyo.* [I don't want to tell you yet.] O.K., Good afternoon everyone.
06. Sts: Good afternoon, Ms.Y.
07. T: Take a seat, down.
08. Sts: (chatting…)
09. T: *Dewa,* [O.K.] Clean your desk and close your textbook. All you can use is your pen.

This routine absolutely requires that students stand up. The teacher urges them to do this through the greeting (01-03). Even if students ask about what they are going to do in class while the teacher is managing this activity, what students are asking is rejected by the teacher (04-05). From this point, one can see that the greeting routine must be the priority in the class, as it works as a symbolic activity switching a normal room into a classroom. As the opening utterance of the lesson, she uses the English "*O.K., Good afternoon everyone*" (05), and after that turn, students are subject to the teacher's rules. The English utterances (05, 07) emphasize the teacher's status. Through these English phrases, students get to know what is expected at that moment, which is the activity beginning the class. In this sequence, it is shown that participants share common cultural knowledge—a greeting activity and its order at the beginning of the class—with each other and the teacher. In this situation, students are able to understand English phrases, while drawing on their previous cultural knowledge for the greeting turn-taking, and for knowing how they should act at this stage of the lesson.

Considering this type of historical and cultural knowledge of participants which is acquired through first language acquisition and socialization, the next thing to examine is how students act in a classroom which is managed by a non-Japanese teacher of English whose original cultural knowledge might be different from that of the students.

The class by English native speaking teacher and two Japanese English teachers

Extract 2 (NEt=Native English speaking teacher; St=student; JT=Japanese teacher; Sts= students) is the spoken data extracted from a team-teaching lesson (one Australian teacher and two Japanese teachers). The context is the beginning of a class supervised by a native English speaking teacher, who has the main right to control this class. In Japan, it is rare that a native English speaking teacher is in the leading position, rather than in a supporting position. By placing him in this position in the English class, the aim would seem to be to make this class operate in an immersion style and urge students to use the target language. Supporting him, there are two Japanese English teachers who assist with the classroom management and help students understand what they are requested to do in the classroom. The following extract shows these roles in the context of a greeting event.

"["shows that two phrases are spoken at almost the same time.

Extract 2

(Students are chatting while the class is beginning)

10. NEt: O::K: Everybody::: Let's be:::gin, [face forward
11. ST: Be:::gin. *(Imitating Native English speaking teacher's voice)*
12. NEt: Tu tu tu tu… everybody::: stand up!
(Students are standing up)
13. JT: *Hai, hanashi yamete.* [OK. Stop talking.]
14. NEt: Ah::: Good morning everybody.
15. Sts: Good morning teacher.
16. NEt: O.K. sit down.

This spoken data from the beginning of class is almost the same as that in Extract 1. A native English speaking teacher (NEt) is trying to begin the class with the greeting activity (standing up, bowing and greeting, and sitting down). He is trying to get the attention of the students and inform them the class is beginning. However, because they do not follow the teacher's will, and keep chatting, one Japanese teacher helps the native English teacher start class by saying to students, *Hai, hanashi yamete*. "*Stop talking*" (13-14). This phrase implies that the students must face the native English speaking teacher and get ready to perform the opening greeting. After this, students stop talking, and the greeting is accomplished through interaction in English (14-16); students have already been socialized into this activity before they entered junior-high school, and experienced it in an elementary school (see Extract 3). In the example of language socialization in Extract 2, Japanese (13) and English (10, 12, 14, and 16) are used. Students are naturally socialized to use the target language, but this is done through their first language as well (13). This situation shows implicit socialization through English (the target and foreign language) use, and explicit socialization with Japanese (the first language) to make students concentrate on the greeting event (first culture knowledge).

The roles of first and foreign language use and speakers' understanding of the languages in socialization seem to depend on students' historical experiences. These two junior-high classroom cases show how the original cultural knowledge has an influence on the present socialization and language learning in the classroom, even in foreign language acquisition. We will now examine an elementary-school classroom interaction to see how it serves as a basis for later foreign language learning.

Contexting data: Elementary school classroom discourse

Extract 3 is from Anderson's (1995) ethnographic study in a Japanese elementary school. This is a case of first language socialization, and the interaction is from a Social Studies lesson which is managed by a Japanese teacher in Japanese language. This shows the classroom activity, "*Aisatsu*" (greeting) in the opening. The lesson starts with the teacher, in (17), saying, "Okay, let's begin." Two student monitors then take the role of performing the class-opening activity (18).

Extract 3

17. T: *Hai, hajimemasu*. [Okay, let's begin.]
18. Student monitors: *Shisei! Ima kara shakai no obenkyoo o hajimemasu. Rei!* [Sit up straight! We now begin the social studies lesson. Bow!]
19. Sts: [Students bow.]
20. T: *Hai.* [Okay]

(Anderson, 1995, pp. 124-125; lines are numbered by the present author. Transcription notation has been modified to fit the present paper.)

As in Extracts 1 and 2, this interaction is started by the teacher's calling for attention; however, in this class there are also two class monitors. At the beginning of this sequence, the teacher turns over the responsibility for managing the conventional greeting event to the monitor students (17-18). The monitors assume the teacher's role of managing the activity and have temporary power to control the event, as the teacher did in Extracts 1 and 2. Except for this, the discourse is similar to the former two interactions where a teacher calls the beginning, students rectify their attitudes, then enact a greeting and sit back down. This extract shows not only an example of Japanese language socialization related to greeting behavior in early education, but the acquisition of original cultural knowledge which will be needed for students later in life, when they learn a foreign language and are socialized into a new community.

Discussion

The present study examines how first culture knowledge and foreign language learning complement each other in classroom language socialization. Results from the examination of the author's two original excerpts and the reference excerpt from Anderson's data (1995) illustrate two points: 1) first culture knowledge, particularly of the interactional routine for the greeting is a frame which facilitates the learning and use of a target language, and 2) through the opportunity to use a foreign language, learners are socialized, or rather, re-socialized into the greeting as an aspect of first culture knowledge which is taken as an important event in the Japanese classroom. These kinds of situations, common to second language learning in schools, suggest that "foreign language socialization" could form a new paradigm within the area of language socialization studies.

The role of first culture knowledge in foreign language socialization

First culture knowledge concerned with the greeting routine promotes learners' use and understanding of a target language through communicative action. For example, in Extracts 1 and 2, whether the class is managed by a native or non-native English speaker, learners are socialized to use the target language in the greeting context with the support of first culture knowledge. This support comes from learners' past experiences. In these two events each teacher urges students to be ready for the greeting event by using their first culture knowledge.
The important role of first culture knowledge in the class beginning is shown by the fact that teachers expect students' experience to have included this knowledge. In

Extract 1, the teacher aims to complete the greeting even if a student is asking a question about a class topic. In Extract 2, one Japanese teacher, using a Japanese phrase, helped an Australian teacher control students and carry out the greeting. From these two events, it appears that teachers use students' first language to make them concentrate on the greeting routine, but while also using English as the target code for the event.

As a new paradigm, in contrast to the earlier frameworks, foreign language socialization is proposed as a perspective which sheds light on cross-contextual development. It includes two elements which belong to different contexts.

Foreign language socialization for re-construction of first culture knowledge

From the perspective of the mobile connection between language and culture, foreign language socialization shows how a target (foreign) language may be instrumental in re-socializing learners into contexts similar to the first culture. This type of language socialization reinforces participants' first culture knowledge (in the present study, knowledge of a greeting event).

Excerpt 3 from Anderson's (1995) data shows the general and basic cultural knowledge for the greeting event in a Japanese classroom. This interactional routine is implemented in first language socialization in first culture contexts. Here, the framework can be interpreted as "first culture socialization through a first language" and "first culture socialization to first language use". In Extracts 1 and 2, it takes some time to start the greeting event because of some students' behavior. In both cases, teachers keep using the target language to carry out the greeting, except in two turns. One involves a switch the Japanese phrase, "*Naisyo*" (I don't want to tell you yet.), and the other phrase, "*Hai, hanashi yamete*" (OK. Stop talking.). Even if these diversions occur, the target language is kept as the main language through the interactions. Through this target language usage and the interactional routine overall, first culture knowledge is reinforced through the target language. Thus, foreign language socialization can be understood as having the distinctive feature that it can re-build and re-foster students' first culture knowledge in a foreign language learning context.

Conclusion

As a case study in foreign language socialization in Japan's English education discourses, the present study shows how students are socialized in a classroom through their first culture knowledge and target language. One predictable case is that students are socialized into classroom patterns via a target language, although the practice might be similar to what students have previously been socialized into in their first language experience. This situation is characteristic in Japan where students learn a target language through the same cultural continuum. In previous research, language socialization had been seen as a process of how participants are socialized through and into their first language with their first culture knowledge. The paradigm of foreign language socialization provides researchers not only with an approach to foreign language learning, but also with cross-linguistic and cross-cultural contexts for the study of language socialization.

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Notes

1. Discursive practice is generally a close synonym to discourse practice. However in this paper, to focus on participants' development, it is defined as a practice in the process of constructing a discourse such as classroom communication.

2. Implicit language socialization is defined as language socialization mainly toward the acquisition of culture knowledge through language use. Explicit language socialization aims at the conscious acquisition of appropriate language use.

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The Colour and the Shape of Translation in the Foreign Language Classroom: The Dis/Integration of an Interdisciplinary Field?

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Abstract
This paper reflects on the integration of translation in the foreign language classroom. Underneath the increasing acceptance of translation in foreign language teaching and learning there is a lack of unison in the field as well as an uncertain and rather vague approach to it. For this reason, it seems that translation may be condemned to remain a fragmented area. In order to analyse the status of this practice, I will first consider its background, its progress both in theoretical and applied research contexts and the effect of both.

The definite expansion but cautious establishment of translation in the foreign language classroom is largely due to a substantial amount of research from and within various disciplines. As an interdisciplinary field it has been rebuilt upon linguistics, translation studies, pragmatics, psycholinguistics, cultural studies, etc.

However, significant efforts in revisiting and rebuilding this area have not led to a unified discipline. Is it therefore possible to promote a common territory between all these fields? Does translation in the foreign language classroom represent a kaleidoscope that illustrates the complexity of the areas involved within? Or does translation in the foreign language classroom represent a fragmented area as a result of the number of disciplines involved? It is necessary to explore how translation in the language classroom can successfully integrate various streams of thoughts in the academic discourse that discard disintegration.

Keywords: integration, fragmentation, interdisciplinary, pedagogical translation, translation in the language classroom.

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Introduction

Teaching and learning methodologies work differently on each of us depending on many factors: the resources or strategies that the teacher uses, the age and the interlingual stage of the learner, etc. In my case, for instance, while the highly criticised audiolingual method allowed me to first access English as a modern foreign language (FL) as a six year old child, years later as a teenager the equally criticised grammar translation method (GTM) blocked any hint of interest in a classical language such as Latin. We all know that personal experience of learning a FL varies greatly from one individual to another. However, a global analysis of the pedagogical basis of the different approaches, principles and guidelines will lead to reflecting on the validity of teaching methodologies more accurately. In the case of FL teaching and learning, it is essential to understand the impact that the communicative approach had in language teaching and learning in the 1970s and afterwards. This approach allowed for the reassessment of a number of methods and issues in FL teaching, choosing eclecticism as a stand point and reintroducing the discussion of translation in the classroom. This needs to be acknowledged to date, as a fundamental turning point that allowed translation to be part of language teaching more formally.

This article discusses the status of translation in the FL classroom. It examines whether the study of this area, known as pedagogical translation (PT), presents concepts and interests of the disciplines involved in an integrated manner, or if instead the study of this area explores the fields involved separately, reflecting a disintegrated field and the deconstruction of PT. In other words, are we talking about PT as a fragmented discipline, or is PT an inter-, multi- or cross-disciplinary field?

It is not easy to explain the position of translation in terms of a cross-disciplinary work. While linguistics seem to be responsible for contributing towards the integration of translation in the FL classroom as a discipline, translation studies would have led to its deconstruction to an extent by largely ignoring this area, except in cases such as that of Hurtado Albir (1999). These facts, which will be discussed later in this paper, would make PT emerge as the architect ultimately responsible for reconstructing the area of translation in the FL classroom.

Revisiting Translation in the Foreign Language Classroom

Classifying knowledge in any given discipline is a natural way of allowing scholars to reflect, analyse and clarify concepts, notions and thoughts that are at the core of a particular discipline and to adjacent fields. However, these classifications are sometimes seen as divisions that act as prisons and limit reality or research possibilities. This well may be the case of translation. As a concept, *translation* can be associated with various fields of knowledge. But beyond this, historically, it has worked as a cultural tool and perceptions around it may vary according to the civilisation translation is ascribed to as well as the social, economic or cultural tradition between specific pairs of languages and countries involved and their relationship throughout history. In this regard it is normal to question whether different categorizations around the concept of translation are reliable and representative. This is also true in the case of translation in the foreign language classroom: the use, understanding and development of this element will differ depending on the cultural and educational traditions of certain institutions or countries.

The use of translation in the FL classroom, once a valued method, was later ostracised from the classroom as it dealt with grammar in a rather ineffective and poisonous way. This methodology, commonly known as the grammar-translation method (GTM), is used to refer to the introduction of translation in the FL learning in its broadest sense. But let us consider the GTM as a tag alone: does it convey a single approach? It is often discussed as if the very same (toxic) practice is repeated in all cases: grammar is at the centre of this practice and pragmatics are absent in a classroom where the teacher presents the students with a translation model that students need to attain. But in reality it does not represent a single practice. Using translation in the foreign language classroom may not correspond to the GTM I just described. The GTM may involve a set of practices that do not match exactly with the same concept, approach or principles. Following this idea, Japanese distinguishes around twenty different meanings of the word *translation*, according to Bellos (2013, pp.21-25) where *zen'yaku* is a complete translation, *shoyaku* is a first translation, *kaiyaku* is a retranslation, etc. Just as translation may be regarded under a different light in different languages and cultures, not every approach that considers using translation in the language classroom actually corresponds to the implementation of the universally criticised GTM.

An interesting exception is that of Saito (2012, p.27), who claims that the Western GTM, which focuses mainly on the use of translation to consolidate rules or grammatical aspects, differs from *yakudoku*, a teaching method in Japan that is based on working on a text through a number of processes: understanding, parsing, interpreting and finally translating.

In any case, translation in the FL classroom is still very much in the eye of the storm: whether educational policies exclude the use of translation or the student’s L1 in the classroom (as happened recently in Japan, as indicated by Saiko) or whether there is a commitment to the integration of translation or the student’s L1 in the FL classroom (as happens in parts of Europe and Canada), teachers need to assess how the integration of the L1 or translation activities can be done. Macro-level policies are not always transferred adequately to the classroom, due to a lack of resources or because appropriate guidelines are not available or followed by educational institutions.

These policies, in any case, do not seem to account for what learning a language entails and the nature of working with translation skills. Language is the basic tool for translation in the FL classroom, and explicit grammar and the student’s L1 will not disappear from the classroom as they are instrumental components. The communicative approach, so useful in advancing in the study of teaching and learning a foreign language seems to have turned against its own principles as it has not developed principles that guide a successful integration of translation in the classroom. In the case of PT one may wonder whether sacrificing accuracy in favour of fluency and communication prevented a more coherent development of this practice, or whether on the contrary, it had the reverse effect.

Translation, globally understood, involves working with several layers that convey meaning and that entail dealing with translating skills, pragmatics, and translation as a socio-cultural object. In this sense, translation should be understood as a holistic activity in the FL classroom that must necessarily be conceived as an element of social interaction that contributes, enables and channels learning through to the socio-constructivism approach promulgated by Kiraly (1995).

Integration and Disintegration of Translation in the Language Classroom

The analysis of translation from various angles can help to revise and clarify the nature of translation, but at the same time, it can also be frustrating and impede cohesion in this area. Having said this, we cannot forget that translation is at the heart of multidisciplinarity and that it serves the interests of linguistics and translation studies, but also those of language, culture, society, and translation as a skill and as a strategy.

There are many myths that contribute to the perception of translation in the FL classroom as a contaminating element: it is used to work only with grammar and vocabulary, translation generates useless lists of vocabulary which is out of context, language students do not have the skills needed to work with translation, students can only translate into their L1, etc. But this record of negative aspects does not reveal the pedagogical side of translation in the FL classroom. For this reason alone, teachers and scholars should examine whether it is reasonable to assume dogmas and adopt a direct opposition to PT on the basis that the *blind acceptance* of translation as a poisonous practice may be the result of the interests of certain sectors and the lack of understanding of this area. Weschler points this out by asking: "Where did we get this notion that “only English” should be spoken in the English classroom? Is it based on any cohesive theory or substantiated research? Or more likely, is it the result of blind acceptance of certain dogma which conveniently serves the best interests of native speaker teachers?" (1997, p.2). As in other fields, the lack of experience seems to make us believe in almost every claim in areas that are unknown to us, like that of translation as an invalid exercise or that of forbidding the student's native language in the FL classroom.

Translation in the FL classroom emerges as an underrated element, whether it is understood as an activity, as a skill, as a resource or as a teaching and learning strategy. The pedagogical possibilities that the implementation of this element in the language classroom offers both to the teacher and the student are not reflected in its *status quo* at present. That is, the value of translation in the language classroom does not reach its potential and it is hence not integrated or developed adequately in the curriculum.

Imposing the use of the FL as a more modern trend of the communicative approach (Weschler 1997, p.1) and the defence of “false communication” rather than a negotiation of meaning are two misdiagnoses that can lead to wrong assumptions such as the need to exclude translation from the FL classroom: it imitates L1 acquisition, it forces students to work at word level, it steals space and prominence of the FL, it is a method for controlling, it values the native teachers over non-native teachers and it is a tool for contrastive analysis (Weschler 1997, pp.5-6). These false assumptions that prevail in time prevent translation from becoming a real channel of communication, a tool for multilingual class and a transaction between ideas of a pragmatic nature where both the native and a non-native teacher have a relevant role.

Therefore, it is time to move away from compartmentalised positions that perceive the language as a modular element based on the traditional four skills (listening and reading comprehension, oral and written production) or that works on different lexical and grammar levels (words, clause(s), sentence(s) and text). Weschler, in the meantime, offers a new solution that supersedes the much criticized GTM and that focuses on the negotiation of meaning and function of language in order to work on the process that entails the construction and scaffolding, trial, error and negotiation of meaning. The functional-translation method that the author suggests, combines the positive attributes of the GTM with the best aspects of the communicative methodology. This sort of hybrid concentrates in negotiating the meaning of the message rather than concentrating in much more sterile formulas (1997, pp.1-3).

Weschler's contribution is very interesting: the author questions whether the negative assumptions of the GTM are fair and advocates reconsidering the value of this method in FL teaching. This proposal does not seem to have developed much further, but it is a positive (re)starting point for PT in that it does not demonise translation. Perhaps it is time to leave denominations such as GTM behind since this concept seems to terrify FL scholars and teachers: translation has the potential of being successfully integrated in the FL classroom in a variety of ways.

A Real (istic) Integration of Translation in the Language Classroom

Previous sections of this article have explored the fact that the integration of translation in the FL classroom is neither realistic nor real. It is necessary to walk towards a coherent (and feasible) approach that integrates translation in the language classroom as a positive element. However, there is a disparity in the power and interests of those disciplines involved. Furthermore, the teaching traditions of translation in the language classroom and its counterproductive implementation impede that this field progresses.

A revision of the basis of PT will reveal that the nature of translation in the FL classroom can be depicted as a type of funnel in which new contributions from different disciplines form a solid basis to work with. Applied linguistics, at the bottom of the funnel, played a fundamental role by distinguishing between second language acquisition and the acquisition of the mother tongue. The description of how L1 and FL learning are learned, allowed for the development of methodologies focusing on FL teaching that took into account *interlanguage*, a transitional dialect that every FL learner undergoes and which entails constant change through the acquisition of new structures (Selinker 1972). Part of this framework also undertook theories from contrastive analysis and error analysis, which contributed towards the description of the L1 and the FL systems and the prediction of potential problems.

Linguistics has also worked towards the development of another fundamental element of the funnel: *communication*. Communication has brought in a discussion of the use of language and different skills that distinguishes communication as a general notion from *real communication* and optimal exposure (as a way of maximizing the use of language). The meaning of communication in the classroom as a dynamic attribute has ensured that communicative procedures are nowadays permeable in the FL classroom in an efficient manner. Looking into this guarantees that the student works as a mediator that interacts with language through his/her intersubjectivity. However, Allwright's question formulated almost four decades ago, "Are we teaching language (for communication)? Or are we teaching communication (via language)?" (1977, p. 2) in fact remains relevant to date.

The pedagogy of a FL, closely related to applied linguistics and to communication, understands the teacher, the student and the classroom as part of a continuum. The teacher is a guide who moderates the learning process (acting as mentor who assesses whether the translation options offered by the students are valid or not). The classroom is a space open for discussion, creativity, criticism and intuition in which learning is built by all the players involved: typically the teacher(s) and the students. The student is an actor that mediates between messages and who has the ability to work with meaning while developing translating skills through individual and collaborative learning.

The last component of the funnel after applied linguistics, communication and pedagogy is translation studies. This discipline should have a central role in the development of translation in language teaching, but its relevance is still shy. Translation studies have focused mostly on looking at the nature of translation and more recently to the development of translation across different disciplines. Despite the fact that translation studies are currently seen as an interdiscipline, they have not really taken on translation in the FL classroom. On the other hand, FL teaching did not integrate the developments that were taking place in TS, at least from an academic perspective. Further collaborations between these two disciplines need to take place as both will help to redefine translation in FL teaching.

Reassessing Translation in the Language Classroom

It is clear that there is a need to reassess translation within FL teaching. But it would not be effective to seek the value of pedagogical translation only by continuously discussing the negative impact of the GTM. Translation in language teaching needs to be reconsidered as part of as an interdisciplinary umbrella that provides space for reconciliation of neighbouring areas according to specific objectives.

Myths surrounding the image of translation in FL as a toxic element have been questioned over the past few decades as a result of new approaches in this area and adjacent disciplines. However, a dialogue between PT and closely related disciplines remains a challenge. This is the case of translation studies. Probably influenced by the scepticism of authors such as Nida, who failed to believe that translation would become a science in the 1960s, translation studies has in many ways remained hermetic and excluded applied areas such as foreign language teaching (as they were beyond the real interests of translation).

However, the progressive perception of translation as a necessary hub that brings in the interests of various disciplines has added much more flexibility to this field. In the case of PT, communication has been revealed as a necessary paradigm by which language teaching and translation share a common network of interests (Colina 2002). So, what has changed? Why should PT develop now? The shift of paradigms in language teaching and the evolution of pedagogy both in translation studies and FL teaching leads towards reconciliation, although somewhat limited.

The magnitude and scope of translation studies in areas such as history, sociology, anthropology and literature hinder its foray into other less purist areas. Moreover, metatheoretical studies such as those of Holmes (1972) show that translation can be represented as a rather rigid area. Holmes' map, an essential turning point in translation studies, distinguished different branches in this field. His was the first classification of pure and applied areas in translation studies and it represents an important step towards the consolidation of this discipline. But it is Hurtado Albir who depicts pedagogical translation as part of a *continuum* in a map of translation studies. In Hurtado Albir's map, the three main divisions (theoretical, descriptive and applied studies) are necessarily in dialogue with each other. The difference between the two maps is obvious as a result of the nature of both works and the time lapse between both publications. I would like to point out both the inclusion of pedagogical translation in Hurtado Albir's work within the area of applied studies and that of language teaching for translators. This shows that there is indeed potential for a close dialogue between FL teaching and learning and translation studies, which reflect the developments attained in this research field.

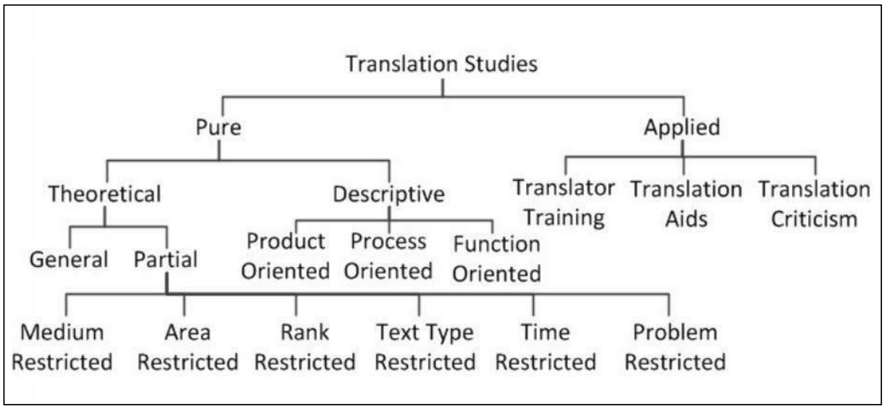

Figure 1: Map of Translation Studies (Holmes, 1972)

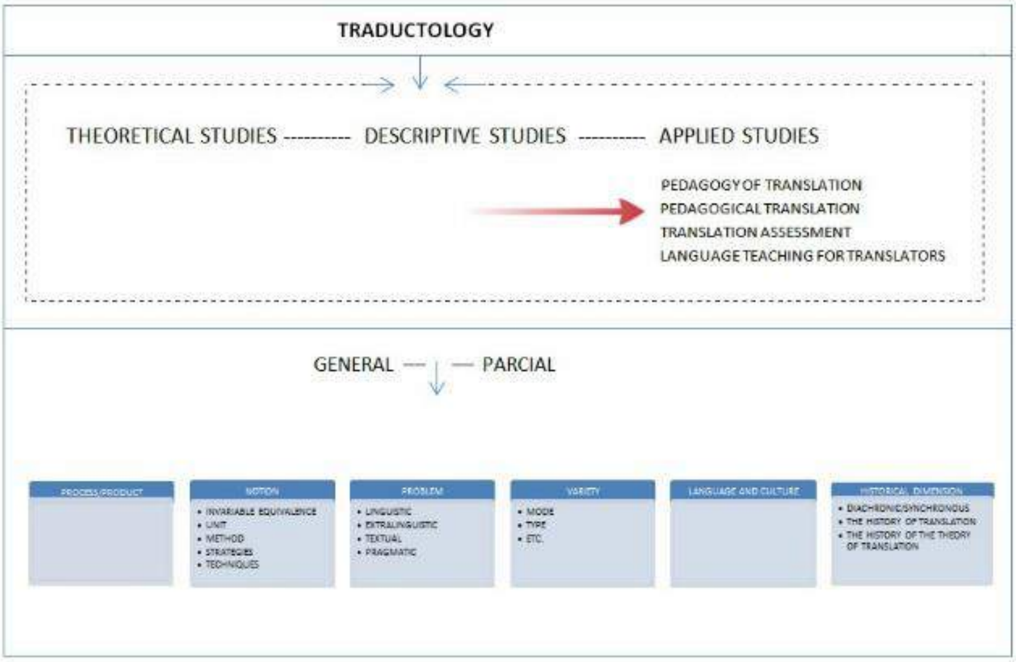

Figure 2: Map of Traductology (Hurtado Albir, 1999)

The partial picture of Albir’s map illustrates pedagogical translation as a landmark where research, pedagogy in translation studies and the acquisition of foreign languages converge. Translation in the FL classroom is also connected to the bottom of Hurtado Albir’s map, that is, with aspects related to translation as a process or a product, the translation unit, etc. This promotes the integration of the language and culture in the classroom. It also fosters an analysis, anticipates problems, contributes to the decision making, etc. The student becomes a receiver-transmitter-interlinguistic and intercultural mediator. This calls into question the existence of a perfect translation model and destroys the myths surrounding the notion of a *communicative ideal* (Hernández Sacristán, 1999). It also emphasises the importance of looking at the intention of the writer in a source text in a given context, particular register(s), language variations, etc. This is in turn interconnected with the Common European Framework of Reference (2001) where the skills discussed involve output, input, interaction and mediation.

Development of Translation in the Language Classroom and Academic Thought

It would be unfair to say that PT has been completely dismissed from scholarly discussions. In the last decade relevant contributions on this field have flourished.

Guy Cook's work on translation in the foreign language classroom is one of the contributions that has given new visibility to this type of translation. Although the reassessment of this field is not new and the contribution of authors like Hurtado Albir (1999), Lavault (1985), Malmkjaer (1998) and other scholars is key, Cook’s influence represents a rebirth of translation within applied linguistics and language teaching which has reached into various fields and which the author has identified as TILT (translation in language teaching).
In any case, there is still work to be done. This area, its principles and its objectives need to be redefined in order to talk about an integrated discipline that is not

compartmentalised in different modules, areas of knowledge or skills but which is an approach that constructs meaning. Grammar and pragmatics necessarily build communication, and we need to acknowledge and introduce these items in the classroom. Students convene meaning through language; language empowers the student by providing them with different ways of thinking and expressing ideas. The student's interaction in a social, political and cultural context through translation can provide translation in the FL classroom with a new perspective, a new scope that goes beyond language formulae.

The introduction of translation in the language classroom is still limited and this seems to be part of a long standing tradition. However, pedagogical translation has found new ways to overcome this resistance and be more flexible: PT interacts with new areas of knowledge which are typically compartmentalised into different (and traditionally peripheral) areas. PT is necessarily interdisciplinary due to innovative approaches, new needs and to a shift in the academic thought that forces us to rethink how knowledge has been organised and institutionalised (McCarty 1999). As Munday states: "An interdiscipline challenges the current conventional way of thinking by promoting and responding to new links between different types of knowledge and translation." (2012, p.24). Chesterman (2009, p.13) also indicates, in reference to Holmes' discussion on *"The Name and Nature of Translation Studies"* in 1972, that "when science discovers a new area of ignorance, one of two things tend to happen. The new set of research questions may be incorporated into an existing domain (…). Or the new questions may lead to the establishment of a new research field, a new interdiscipline". In the case of PT, we can say that it is an interdiscipline. And while it is not entirely new, it does need to go back to its basics and reassess its foundations in order to expand.

The association between translation and modern languages is a primary relationship (Munday 2012, p.24) and this needs to be developed further. Of course there are external forces that have a powerful effect on how these areas interact and how they progress. We cannot ignore the fact that the relationship between these areas is complicated: translation has colonized many departments of modern languages, and that modern languages have conquered, on the other hand, departments of translation. Simply by looking at this enables us to have an idea of the complex rapport between these areas at many levels, from those purely theoretical to those related to practice.

Final Remarks and Conclusion

In order to integrate PT in the FL classroom we need to identify, analyse and build different linguistic and cultural needs and realities depending on the scope of each course. Being able to transmit meaning has a strong effect on language students and empowers and motivates them. Translation entails a mediating process by which the students discover in language a powerful tool that can represent blame, responsibility, etc. For that reason, the scholarly discourse and the perception of translation in the language classroom will determine the evolution and the assessment of this practice.

Translation in the foreign language classroom, in this sense, has a strong linguistic, cultural and social relevance. It goes beyond grammar rules or writing skills. It acts as a catalyst to convey messages and intentions. It is therefore necessary to develop academic thinking and conduct an analysis of what happens in the PT classroom in order to take steps forward. A proper reassessment of PT as an interdisciplinary field needs to be put in place. This will determine its particular role in curriculum development, its methodological approach and its adequate progression in the future as an interdisciplinary field.

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Examining a Teacher Education Course in English for the Medium of Instruction Using 5Is

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Abstract
Policies requiring English as the Medium of Instruction (EMI) are sprouting at many universities in Asia and Europe. In many cases, challenges arise for students because they are using English as a Second Language (ESL), rather than their primary language, for learning. Furthermore, faculty members need to use English to teach even though for many of them English is also not their primary language. Intensive English Language Centers which exist at many universities help students to bridge the language gap through ESL instruction or by offering adjunct courses. Far less attention and far fewer resources, however, have been given to faculty members who need to teach in their second language, English. Hence, policies requiring EMI have created a growing but largely unsatisfied need to prepare such faculty members to use English in their teaching. *English for the Medium of Instruction* (EFMI) has been proposed as a term to describe such teaching while "5Is" is proposed as a way of looking at the course development cycle. At a university with an EMI policy in Hong Kong, a course in EFMI was recently launched; in this presentation, the "5Is" will be discussed in relation to that course. Audience members will learn about the EFMI course in Hong Kong as the presenter stencils the 5Is - Identify, Invent, Implement, Investigate, and Improve - over the course development cycle, providing explanations and samples of different "Is" along the way. Participants will also be invited to discuss EMI and EFMI at their universities.

Keywords: English as the Medium for Instruction; University pedagogy; University policy

1. Globalization, Demographics, and English in Higher Education

Globalization, demographics, and English are simultaneously shrinking and enlarging higher education. In the process they are creating new sets of challenges which will require universities to develop and introduce innovations, especially for classroom instruction. Globalization is about "trade, finance, people, and ideas in one global marketplace" (Soubbotina & Sheram, 2000, p. 66), including higher education; demographics is about the study of changes in population. In OECD countries fertility rates are decreasing, leading to a change in demographic profiles (Vincent-Lancrin, S., 2008) expressed most visibly in the overall graying of their populations. As a result of those demographics changes, universities in OECD countries are likely to hedge their bets on how to sustain university enrollment. With the aging of populations in many economically mature countries, and with demand exceeding quality supply in many developing countries, universities in the former have turned to the global marketplace in education as part of their hedging strategy to sustain enrollment. When this strategy is presented as internationalization rather than global commodification of higher education, it is able to "stand for humanistic ideas against the world of pure economic benefits allegedly represented by the term globalization" (Brandenburg and de Wit, 2011, p. 16). In Europe the process is also pulled along by the Bologna process (Klaassen, 2008) which is "meant to ensure more comparable, compatible, and coherent systems of higher education in Europe" (European Higher Education Area, 2015).

Whether universities frame the issue as responding to / exploiting global economic forces, or standing up for internationalism / humanism, one enabling policy they pursue in relation to the issue is in the area of English as the Medium of Instruction (EMI). The shift by an institution to English for instruction is often in concert with their faculty members' publication of research in English. Rostan (2011) found that most of the 25,000 academics in her global survey used English for research purposes and about a third did so for teaching purposes, although most of them used English as a Second Language (ESL). Globalization, internationalization, and shifting demographics are occasioning the movement of many international students into EMI programs and an increase in EMI courses as the global higher education market resolves supply and demand. In Europe, for example, Colemann (2006) has remarked that higher education is undergoing "Englishization" while Bolton and Kuteeva (2012, p. 430) have noted that "Across contemporary Europe, English is generally regarded as an *academic lingua franca*" (italics added). In East Asia as well, more courses are being offered in English at universities in recent years (in Corrigan, 2013). Many universities offer their students who use ESL a variety of courses in intensive English language, English for Academic Purposes, or English for Specific Purposes in areas such as science, business, and the humanities in order to facilitate their study in EMI in their chosen majors or programs. EMI, however, is rarely bifurcated into policy and pedagogy – the domain of faculty - and at universities where a policy of EMI has been adopted it does not mean that effective EMI in the classroom has inevitably followed.

Effectiveness of a policy depends on the relationships of several factors. These factors and their relationships can be labelled and fathomed within a policy studies framework. According to Sin (2014, p. 437), a "policy object" comprises "ontology" and is "a socially and contextually-determined construct in the minds of policy actors (more precisely, what they believe it is)" Applying Sin's explanation to the issue of emerging EMI, we can say that in the case of institutional EMI, the policy actors include, for example, institutional administrators, faculty, and students. They probably have relatively different perspectives about what EMI as 'policy object' may mean. Sin contrasts the policy object, or ontology, with "enacted ontology"; this means "what the policy object becomes when transposed into practice" (2014, p. 438). For EMI, the transposition of EMI as policy object occurs when it is put into practice by policy actors at the institution, e.g., faculty. In simple terms, this means that there is EMI as policy and EMI as pedagogy. Distinguishing between EMI policy and EMI pedagogy would enable universities to have a better prospect of succeeding in their drive to establish EMI as part of an internationalizing policy to help address the realities of globalization and changing demographics. A list of essential givens about EMI pedagogy should include the following:

1. Teachers are one of the sets of policy actors in institutional EMI;
2. Teachers are teaching discipline knowledge/skills/cognitive-affective mindsets in (often) a second language to students who are learning (often) in a second language;
3. The language and skills to enact it EMI policy can be called EMI pedagogy must therefore include the English language skills and teaching skills of the teacher

EMI pedagogy as pre- or in-service teacher education can be developed, for example, through faculty development workshops, coaching, and credit-bearing courses which go through institutional academic quality assurance (Corrigan, 2015). As a second language is involved, EMI pedagogy must consider English for teaching purposes. At a university on Hong Kong, a credit-bearing course in English for the Medium of Instruction (EFMI) was offered in the 2014-15 academic year.

2. 5 Is & a Course in EFMI

To examine the course in EFMI retrospectively, a list of topics was generated for such an examination process and questions under each topic were created. These questions served as a kind of reflective stencil: they can be placed over different parts of the examination process to focus on and examine each part of the process. The five topics are: Identification, Invention, Implementation, Investigation, and Improvement. Each topic can be thought of as a separate frame or stencil in the examination process, allowing focus on that particular part. The 5I framework can understood in comparison and contrast to the AIDDE (Davidson-Shivers, Salazar, and Hamilton, 2005) model, which seems inspired by Tyler[1] (1949), as seen in the table below.

[1] Tyler's 1949 classic identifies four stages in the curriculum design process: setting objectives, choosing materials and activities, organizing them, and evaluating the outcomes

	AIDDE Curriculum Planning Model	5 Is
Characteristics	Linear (1D); Rational (logical-cognitive); Mainly planning - future action	Framing (2D); Reflective (cognitive-affective); Retrospective – mainly past action
5 stages / areas	Analysis Design Development Implementation Review	Identification Invention Implementation Investigation Improvement
Purpose	Planning & Evaluating	Examining

Within each of the five topics is a set of questions. In the following paragraphs, each topic and its questions are provided, followed by a reflection on the questions for that topic. The list of questions under each topic may not be exhaustive; however, questions with the greatest priority have been included.

2.1 Identification

1. Who took the course?
2. What need did it serve?
3. Have any new needs arisen which this course could address?

New PhD students, primarily in Science and Engineering, were required to take the course due to their low scores on a spoken English diagnostic interview. In the interviews, they demonstrated low fluency, low accuracy, and limited word families, as well as often unintelligible pronunciation /poor stress and rhythm. The course was a pre-requisite for a required pre-service teacher education course and helped students develop their EFMI.

No new needs and no change are expected in student profile.

2.2 Invention

1. Based on the original need and audience, what learning outcomes, teaching and learning activities, and assessment activities were invented?
2. Based on any rearticulated need and audience, should the course outcomes, teaching and learning activities, and assessment tasks be revised?

In terms of learning outcomes, students would be able to provide various types of comprehensible oral instruction: with adequate fluency in English; with adequate grammatical precision and register appropriateness; with adequate command of prosodic features of English with appropriate command of lexis and communicative functions necessary for teaching in their general discipline area. They would also be able to hold coherent, sustained academic discussion with their students on matters within their general discipline area.

Teaching and learning activities included teacher-fronted presentation of material; pair work and small group discussions; impromptu speaking; simulated teaching practice; guided listening and speaking activities; guided language corpora activities; and guided strategies training.

Assessments activities included an Oral Proficiency and EMI Teaching Demonstration. These took about five minutes and were considered to be able to provide a ratable sample of the students' oral English for instructional purposes.

With no changes in the new student profile expected, no new needs or modified needs are expected.

2.3 Implementation

1. Based on the original need and audience, how was the course implemented in terms of class size, delivery mode, contact hours, etc.?
2. Based on any rearticulated need and audience, should the class size, delivery mode, contact hours, etc. be revised?

The size of the five course sections ranged from 6-26 students with one teacher. The contact hours ranged from 12-14, depending on the size of the class. An average smaller class size and more contact hours are preferred for future implementation in order to give more individualized attention to students.

2.4 Investigation

1. What were the assessment results for the course and what do they say about the course?
2. How has the course been received by the intended audience? Based on survey data or other reliable means, what areas did the students find helpful and which areas did the students not find helpful?

The 'bar' was set at a minimum and 94% of students passed while 6% failed. The high pass rates suggests that the course outcomes were achievable my almost all students and that the assessment activity – designed to determine if students possessed an 'adequate' command of English for the Medium of Instruction in their respective subject areas – was appropriate..

On a 10 item survey looking at achievement of learning outcomes, about 80% reported the course was helpful; about 17% were neutral; about 2%-3% did not think the course was helpful; about 90% expressed the need for additional sessions.

2.5 Improvement

1. Based on the assessment reports, what the students reported, and professional reflection, how can the course be improved in terms of learning outcomes, teaching and learning activities, assessment tasks, or in other ways?

Increasing the number of sessions to include additional learning outcomes and teaching & learning activities on making spoken English more intelligible, fluent, and accurate is considered desirable.

3. Summary and Conclusion

In summary, globalization, demographics, and humanistic aims are driving the internationalization of higher education. Many institutions see EMI as a pillar of such internationalization and have added so-called content courses taught in English to their curriculum. Offering students ESL, EAP, and ESP courses to support such a policy is essential but insufficient when students are not learning in English as their primary language. As many teachers will also need to teach in ESL, EMI needs to be developed as pedagogy by faculty and this encompasses their own command of EFMI. To support an EMI policy, EFMI can be developed among faculty through pre-service or in-service teacher education credit-bearing, high-stakes, EFMI courses, or through EFMI workshops or EFMI coaching.

In this paper, a credit-bearing, required course in EFMI for pre-service teachers and teaching assistants has been retrospectively examined, using five topics with associated sets of questions: Identification, Invention, Implementation, Investigation, and Improvement. While the course discussed in this paper has met with good initial success, areas of improvement have been identified. However, as these areas require additional university resources in terms of time and finance, and as the course is institutionally perceived as fulfilling its mission adequately, it is not expected that changes in the course will take place at this time.

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English Translation of Thai Food Names and Description

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Abstract
The study aims to investigate English translation of Thai food names and English translation patterns of Thai food description. Five websites of Thai restaurants in English speaking countries were selected. The total food menu items are 318. Thai food names are found in the forms of English transliteration, English translation, and both English transliteration and translation. According to the types of Thai food culture, food menus fall into two main categories: food names with noun words and food names with cooking terms. Food names with noun words are analyzed by noun head words while food names with cooking terms are analyzed by past participle head words. Food names in noun word category are salads, soup, curries, rice/noodles, and desserts. Food names in cooking method category are fried/ stir-fried/ sautéed, deep fried, grilled, steamed, braised, and simmered. Food description with noun head words are 122 while food description with past participle head words are 137. There are 59 food menu items with no head words in food description. Thai words and loan words are occasionally found in food description. Noun head words of 86.89% are described with both pre modifiers and post modifiers. On the contrary, 59.85% of past participle head words are described with only post modifiers indicating main ingredients of the dish. The use of both pre modifiers and post modifiers with past participle head words are of 39.42%. Main ingredients and additional ingredients are prominently used in food description with no head words.

Keywords: English translation; Food menus; Translation patterns

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Introduction

Food description in a menu is a guide for customers, especially foreigners to choose their dishes. Translation takes an important role in this case as Dabbaghian (2014) said that translation is 'a way of cross cultural communication' and 'One of the most important reasons for translating a menu is to increase the chance of clients' choosing the restaurant'. Improper translation may lead people to wrong direction and make them misunderstand the item. For Dabbaghian (2014), a key decision- maker for customers is how comfortable a customer feels about ordering food. With this reason, he pointed out three parts of a solution to the problem: first, a photo of the dish; second, a translation of the name; and third, translation of the description. Translation of food name, therefore, should be proper and provide adequate information on main interests of the dish: ingredients and cooking method. Additional information such as taste or color can also be added to give clearer picture of the dish. With these concerns, the study aims to investigate the English translation of Thai food names and to identify the English translation patterns of Thai food description.

Translation and Cultural Translation

Language is considered as part of a culture. However, it may be more accurate to say that “culture is embedded in language. Language both facilitates and limits our knowledge of the world in which we live; and the specific view we have of our world is in part the result of the particular language or languages we use.” (Esau, ed., 1980: 231).

Foreign names suggest different languages and cultures. They also arouse expectation and differences. (Esau, ed., 1980) In order to understand different languages and also the cultures, translation is needed.

Translation for J.C. Catford (1974) is defined as "... the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)." (p.20). Translation is to find 'equivalents' in the TL(Target Language) to 'replace' the text in SL(Source Language). Here, some aspects of meaning are related while the form can be changed. According to Newmark (1981), translation is described as "a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language." A significant aspect of Newmark’s translation is that he emphasizes the author’s intention – what the author expects in the SL text remains in the TL.

Baker (1992) investigates translation problems arising from non-equivalence at word level. She identifies eight translation strategies used by professional translators of nonequivalence at word level: translation by a more general word, by a more neutral or less expressive word, by a cultural substitution, by a loan word or by a loan word plus an explanation, by a paraphrase using related words, by a paraphrase using unrelated words, by omission, and by illustration.

Khongbumpen (2007) gave some examples of translating a Thai food name '□□□□□□ (Sangkaya)' which is a kind of Thai dessert into English with two different methods concerning translation strategies.

Strategy 1:
By using a cultural substitution when the source culture is too complicated to understand, the dish should be translated into the target culture that is more familiar. Therefore, '□□□□□□ (Sangkaya)' can be translated as custard.

Strategy 2:
By using a loan word with some explanation in the target language. In this case, '□□□□□□ (Sangkaya)' can be translated as ' a kind of Thai dessert made from egg yolk, coconut milk and sugar.' The translator translated '□□□□□□ (Sangkaya)' by using a loan word 'dessert' with other ingredients to give clearer meaning

Zhu (2012) stated five principles employed by experts on translating Chinese menus into English. The principles are the wordings on the ingredients, reference on the cooking method, a feel of how the dish looks or tastes, and reference on the person who invented the dish or where it originated.

From these principles, certain strategies in cultural translation can be summarized as using a more general word, a cultural substitution, a loan word, or a loan word plus an explanation. The explanation added to translated version are ingredients, cooking method, taste, appearance, and the originated place of the dish.

Comparison of Grammatical Constructions between Thai and English Language

All names are noun words. Any additional information of a noun is called modifier. However, the positions of noun modifiers in Thai and English are different. In Thai language, a modifier is always placed after a noun: noun + modifier. On the other hand, a noun modifier in English is placed in front of a noun: modifier + noun.

Another significant difference is the use of past participle form of verb. Past participles can function as adjectives to modify nouns, and placed before nouns.

Nathong (2006) explained about these differences in terms of word or pre modifiers and phrase or post modifiers as illustrated in table 1.

Table 1: Noun head word and noun modifier patterns in Thai language and English language

Thai : Head word + modifier	English : Modifier + Head word
1. No articles (a, an, the)	1. Article + Noun the boy
2. Noun + adjective	2. Adjective + noun a black CAT
3. Noun + noun	3. Noun + noun a banana TREE
4. No possessive form	4. N- poss. + noun farmer's HOUSE
5. No	5. Pres. Part. + noun boiling WATER
6. No	6. Past. Part. + noun a broken GLASS

English adjectives explain and give more information of a noun, and they can be added in order. English adjective order can be as follows: quantity, opinion, taste, texture or touch, size, speed, temperature, shape, color, origin or location, material, and purpose (http://www.enchantedlearning.com/grammar/partsofspeech/adjectives/ retrieved on 14 November 2014).

While adjectives in English placed in front of a noun, adjectives in Thai language will be placed after a noun. Kohtbantau (2001, p.79) gave an example showing the different patterns of Thai and English adjective positions as below:

German books
black German books
big black German books
good big black German books
several good big black German books
my several good big black German books

In term of phrase modifier, similar structures seem to exist in Thai and English. Phrase modifiers are placed after the modified words in both languages. However, if adjectives are added to modify any noun words in phrase modifiers, the positions of word modifiers again are different.

Table 2: Phrase modifiers patterns in Thai language and English language

Phrases in Thai	Phrases in English
1. Prepositional phrase	1. Prepositional phrase PLAYs of Shakespeare LIFE in the country
2. Infinitive phrase	2. Infinitive phrase HOUSE to let BOOK to read
3. No	3. Participial phrase the MAN leading the dog LIFE spent in the country
4. Noun in apposition	4. Noun in apposition SHAKESPEARE, a well-known writer, …

Table 2 shows that participial phrase does not exist in Thai grammatical pattern. Participial phrase functions as an adjective phrase modified a noun in reduction form.

In conclusion, the two head words in Thai menus, noun head words and verb-past participle head words, arrange differently in Thai language and English language. The positions of pre modifiers and post modifiers of the two head words are significant to the proposed patterns in translating Thai menus into English in the study.

Related studies on English translation of ethnic food names

For English translation of Thai food names, Aruntat (1999) conducted a study to analyze translation errors in Thai menus in English at the semantic and cultural levels. The menus were drawn from thirty Thai restaurants in provinces designated as tourist attractions. The analysis revealed that the translation errors occurred because of cultural differences. Use of transliteration with explanation was found as one of translation techniques. The technique was confirmed by Wattanapirom (2001) as she explored and identified types of translation methods and translation procedures in translation of the culinary terms from Thai to English. She found that ingredients mentioned in the term have an impact on the translation method employed. She, therefore, concluded that ingredients and cooking methods need to be added or mentioned in description of the English version. Grammatical constructions are aimed at filling the gap in language differences. Equivalent terms in English can be used to replace the term in the original language. The procedure of translation should start with translating the term plus its transcription.

Similar findings appear in translating Chinese dish names into English. Mu (2010) conducted a case study to explore the English translation of Chinese dish names. The data were collected from a range of different Chinese restaurants: three-star restaurants, four-star restaurants, and five-star restaurants. The results express the importance of English translation of ingredients of the food; cooking method; the elements of color, aroma, and flavor. Interview data show the need of the food image to show what is in the dish and how the food is cooked. The proposed order of the raw materials of the food should start with the cooking method, then the meat, and the vegetable. Adequate information of the dish names should be provided in English translation.

Explanation added to translated version was also suggested by Pouget (1999) in a research on translations of restaurant menus from Catalan or Spanish into English. The results show cases in which the translators did not know how to render certain words or group of words and left them in Catalan or Spanish, mainly happened with culture-specific terms. The suggested solution is a translation with a loan word plus explanation, not just simply omit them.

Dabbaghian (2014) found that in translation the Iranian dish names, most of them belong to the self-description which are named with cooking methods, materials, flavorings, colors, aromas, tastes or names of places. He also suggested that if dishes or foods are not very familiar to newcomer eaters, relevant notes can be added to the translation version of food name.

Though the English translation of food names are from different ethnic cuisines: Thai, Chinese, Catalan or Spanish, and Iranian; results indicate certain similarities in translation techniques. Explanation or description should be added to the English translation of food names. The required explanation are ingredients, cooking methods, color, and taste.

Samples of the study

Sources of Thai food menus with English names and description to be studied are selected from five websites of Thai restaurants in English speaking countries: Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom, and the United States. The five restaurants with the numbers of menu items are as follows: I Thai Restaurant (45), Australia; Young Thailand (82), Canada; Pimarn Thai Restaurant (53), New Zealand; Tien Thai Restaurant (62), United Kingdom; and Thai Thai Restaurant (76), the United States. The total food menu items are 318.

Data collection and analysis

Food menu items were classified into two main groups according to the types of Thai food culture based on the Thai Junior Encyclopedia Project by Royal Command of H.M. the King (http://kanchanapisek.or.th/kp6/New/sub/book/book.php?page=main &book=13 accessed on 24 June 2013),The food menus, therefore, fall into two main categories: food names with noun words (122) and food names with cooking terms (137). However, there are 59 menu items with no head words. Food names in noun word category are salads, soup, curries, rice/noodles, and desserts. Food names in cooking method category are fried/ stir-fried/ sautéed, deep fried, grilled, steamed, braised, and simmered. Food names with noun words are analyzed by noun head words (NHW) while food names with cooking terms are analyzed by past participle head words (V_3HW).

Data were analyzed in percentage and described in term of English transliteration and English translation on food names and description. Patterns of pre modifiers and post modifiers of the two different head words are identified. Information added as pre modifiers and post modifiers are also indicated respectively in patterns.

Results on food names

From the selected Thai restaurants, only one restaurant provides English transliteration for all menu items. Other restaurants provide English transliteration in some popular food menu items for example TOM YUM KUNG and PAD THAI. Food names with English transliteration, therefore, are found in 135 items (42.45%). Brief food description is more often used to name the menu items at 57.55%.

Example 1: English transliteration as food names

GAENG KEOW WAHN
Green curry with bamboo shoots, peas and capsicum
(Pimarn Thai Restaurant, New Zealand)

PHAD KEE MAO
Fried rice noodles with chillies, tomatoes, onions, and basil leaves
(Tiien Thai Restaurant, UK)

Example 2: Brief food description as food names

STEAMED MUSSELS
Steamed fresh mussels with lemon grass, basil leaves, shallots, kaffir lime leaves served with Thai spicy sauce
(Thai Thai Restaurant, USA)

STIR FRIED VERMICELLI NOODLE
Thai style vermicelli noodle stir fried with egg, bean sprouts and yellow curry powder
(Young Thailand, Canada)

Fancy food names and translated version from Thai names are alternative methods found in naming food.
Example 3: Fancy food names

GOLDEN TRIANGLE, GULF OF SIAM, A LITTLE MERMAID
(Thai Thai Restaurant, USA)

Example 4: Translated versions from Thai names

CRYING TIGER (a spicy salad dish)
(I Thai Restaurant, Australia)

DRUNKEN NOODLES (a spicy stir fried noodle dish)
(Thai Thai Restaurant, USA)

Results on food description

Pre modifiers and post modifiers are found with both noun head words and past participle head words. Noun head words are mostly found with both pre modifiers and post modifiers at 86.89%. For past participle head words, both pre modifiers and post modifiers are found at 39.42% while only post modifiers are more often found at 59.85%. Table 1 shows percentages of pre modifiers and post modifiers of both noun head words and past participle head words.

Table 1: Percentages of modifiers of noun head words and past participle head words

	Pre modifiers (%)	Post modifiers (%)	Pre and post modifiers (%)	Other (%)	Total (%)
Noun head words	6.56	5.74	86.89	0.81 (only head word)	100
Past participle head words	0.73	59.85	39.42	-	100

Food description with noun head words

Pre modifiers and post modifiers are mostly found in food names with noun head words in the five restaurant menus. The modifiers will be explained separately as pre modifiers and post modifiers of noun head words.

Noun head words and pre modifiers

Pre modifiers to noun head words show characteristic, taste, texture, cooking method, shape, color, and ingredients of the dish. Pattern of pre modifiers of noun head words can be added and placed according to the order of English adjectives as shown in pattern 1.

Pattern 1:
characteristic, taste, texture, cooking method, shape, color, and ingredients + NHW

Examples:
Traditional spicy and sour soup ...
(*characteristic, taste* + NHW)

Famous Thai green or red curry ...
(*characteristic, color* + NHW)

Spicy minced chicken salad ...
(*taste, cooking method, ingredient* + NHW)

Thick red curry ...
(*texture, color* + NHW)

Stir fried flat rice noodles ...
(*cooking method, shape, ingredient* + NHW)

As pattern 1 is a proposed pattern for all food names in noun word category, patterns of food names in each noun word category will be shown separately.

Salad category

Taste, cooking method, and main ingredients are mostly found as pre modifiers with noun head words as shown in pattern 2.

Pattern 2: *taste, cooking method, main ingredient* + NHW

Examples:
Grilled beef salad ...
(*cooking method, main ingredient* + NHW)

Spicy minced chicken salad ...
(*taste, cooking method, main ingredient* + NHW)

Soup category

Pattern 3 shows pre modifiers for food names in soup category. Characteristic, taste, texture, and ingredient are often found as pre modifiers.

Pattern 3: *characteristic, taste, texture, ingredient* + NHW

Examples:
Traditional spicy soup ...
(*characteristic, taste* + NHW)

Spicy coconut soup ...
(*taste, ingredient* + NHW)

Curry category

Characteristic, color, and main ingredient are found as pre modifiers in curry category as shown in pattern 4.

Pattern 4: *characteristic, color, main ingredient* + NHW

Examples:
Thai yellow curry ...
(characteristic, color + NHW)
Green chicken curry ...
(*color, main ingredient* + NHW)

Rice / noodle category

Characteristic, taste, cooking method, shape, and ingredient are found as pre modifiers shown in pattern 5.

Pattern 5: *characteristic, taste, cooking method, shape, ingredient* +NHW

Examples:
Stir fried steamed flat rice noodles ...
(*cooking method, shape, ingredient* + NHW)

Traditional stir fried rice noodles ...
(*characteristic, cooking method, ingredient* + NHW)

Dessert category

The word ‘dessert’ which is a noun head word is not found in this category. Main ingredients of the dessert are mentioned instead. The popular dessert found in Thai restaurant overseas is ข้าวเหนียวมะม่วง. The dessert consists of two main ingredients: sticky rice and mango, and shown by the name. The dish, therefore, is translated as 'Mango Sticky Rice' as ข้าวเหนียว is sticky rice and มะม่วง is mango.

Noun head words and post modifiers

Post modifiers of noun head words always start with a preposition or a cooking method in past participle form and a preposition followed by information on additional ingredients, condiment, or sauce. However, additional information such as taste, color, cooking method can be added as well as the past participle phrase to indicate additional ingredient or sauce. The most used past participle phrase is ‘served with’.

Pattern 6:
NHW + *(cooking method in past participle form)* + *prep* + *additional ingredients, condiment, sauce*

Examples:
Papaya salad *with ground peanuts, lime juice, palm sugar, fish sauce*
(*main ingredient* + NHW + *with* + *additional ingredients*)

Clear soup with minced pork, baby squid, black fungus, and celery
(texture+ NHW*+ with + ingredients)*

Thai rice noodle *with tiger prawn, chicken, tamarind, coconut milk wrapped with fried eggs*
(*characteristic* + *ingredient* + NHW + *with* + *additional ingredients* + *wrapped with + ingredient)*

Steamed rice *mixed with coconut milk served with peanut sauce*
(*cooking method* + NHW + *cooking method* + *with* + *additional ingredient* + *served with + sauce)*

Food description with past participle head words

There are six cooking terms in past participle forms found from the selected menus: stir fried/ sautéed/ fried, deep fried/ crispy fried/ golden fried, grilled/ char grilled, steamed, braised, and simmered. Both pre modifier and post modifier of past participle head words are found at 39.42% , but the mostly found modifier of past participle head words is described with only post modifier at 59.85%.

Past participle head words and pre modifiers

Only 0.73% described with pre modifier to past participle head word is found. However, both pre modifier and post modifier of past participle head words are more found. The pre modifiers of past participle head words indicate characteristic, taste, texture, cooking method and ingredient. Past participle head word with pre modifier mostly found with the preposition. Pattern of pre modifier of past participle head word is shown as pattern 7.

Pattern 7: *characteristic, taste, texture, main ingredient* + V3HW + prep.

Examples:
Thai style grilled ...
(*characteristic* + V_3HW ...)

Spicy crispy Barramundi fillet golden fried ...
(*taste, texture, main ingredient* + V_3HW ...)

Marinated chicken breast in garlic and special Thai spices gently grilled ...
(*cooking method, main ingredient, additional ingredient* + V3HW...)

Tender pork sautéed *in* ...
(*texture, main ingredient* + V_3HW + *prep* ...)

Sea bass fillet simmered *with* ...
(*main ingredient* + V_3HW + *with* ...)

Skewered marinated chicken grilled *with* ...
(*cooking method, main ingredient* + V_3HW + *with* ...)

Past participle head words and post modifiers

Past participle head words are mostly followed by post modifiers (59.85%) and are the first words of the descriptive phrases. The past participle verbs actually function as adjectives showing the cooking methods of the following nouns or main ingredients of the dishes. Past participle verbs, therefore, are placed before nouns and mostly at the beginning of the menu descriptions. The descriptive phrase, then, starts with past participle head word before a noun which is the main ingredient followed by a prepositional phrase. Moreover, past participle phrase is mostly added at the end to give more information on condiments, sauce, and container of the dish.

Pattern 8:
V3HW + *taste, age, main ingredient* + *prep.* + *additional ingredients* + *served with* + *condiment, sauce, container*

Examples:
Stir fried *spicy tofu with black mushroom and Thai basil leaves*
(V_3HW + *taste, main ingredient, prep., additional ingredients*)

Steamed *fresh mussels with lemon grass, basil leaves, shallots, kaffir lime leaves served with Thai spicy sauce*
(V_3HW + *age, main ingredient, additional ingredients, served with sauce)*

Fried *pork with garlic, soya sauce, black peppers served with crispy noodle and house salad*
(V_3HW + *main ingredient* + *additional ingredients* + *served with* + *condiments*)

Steamed *jumbo shrimp, squid, scallop, mussel, napa cabbage, lemon grass, kaffir lime leaves, scallion chili, basil leaves and lime juice served in a basket*
(V_3HW + *main ingredients* + *additional ingredients* + *served in* + *container*

Past participle phrases added at the end of the description found in the selected menus are shown in table 2.

Table 2: List of the beginning of past participle phrases

I Thai Restaurant	Tien Thai Restaurant	Pimarn Thai Restaurant	Thai Thai Restaurant	Young Thailand
served with finished with made with topped with tossed with	served with wrapped in / with flavoured with served on	topped with marinated in	served with stuffed with mixed with marinated in wrapped in	served with marinated in filled with wrapped in/with

The examples of past participle phrases from the five Thai restaurants are shown as follows:

Examples:
… *served with sweet chilli sauce* (Tien Thai restaurant, UK)
… *marinated in Thai sauce* (Pimarn Thai Restaurant, New Zealand)
… *topped with scallop served with I Thai sauce* (I Thai Restaurant, Australia)
… *sprinkled with roasted ground peanuts garnished with fresh bean sprouts and lime* (Young Thailand, Canada)
… *stuffed with cabbage* (Thai Thai Restaurant, USA)

Conclusion

Pre modifiers of noun head words give information on taste, texture, cooking method, color and main ingredients while post modifiers of noun head words give information of additional ingredients and sauces. Color is significantly added as pre modifier of noun head word in curry category while taste is mostly used to describe in salad category. On the contrary, past participle head words are described with only post modifiers indicating main ingredients of the dish. The mostly used pattern of past participle head word, therefore, is V_3HW + main ingredient. Additional ingredients, sauces and condiments are also added as post modifiers to past participle head words. The use of both pre modifiers and post modifiers with past participle head words are of 39.42%.

Main ingredients and additional ingredients are prominently used in food description with no head words.

English translation of the dish names should provide the clear pictures and facilitate foreigners to understand Thai cuisine. Good and proper English translations of the dish names help to promote Thailand's tourism industry. On the other hand, poor English translations of the dish names usually give bad impressions (Mu, 2010). Foreigners still do not have clear ideas of what the menus say even with the English translations. Therefore, English translation patterns of Thai dish names should have been set up. It is important for restaurant industry and for tourism in general since good quality of English translation may lead to higher standards of service and better socio-cultural exchanges (Pouget, 1999). When taking the joining of ASEAN Community in the end of 2015 and the development of inter-cultural communication into account, it is of great significant to research into the English translation of Thai menus to promote the interaction among people of different nations when cultural exchanges will be increasingly taking place. Thailand and Thai food has gradually played a more and more important role on the international stage.

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Engaging Students with Integrated Language Skills through Tailor Made Summer Camp Activities: A Case Study

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Abstract

In Taiwan, the four skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) in English are usually taught separately with the focus on reading, vocabulary building and grammar practice. The present study aims to integrate the four skills through various tasks or activities using teaching materials that are designed specifically for the participants during the summer of 2014. The camp lasted for two weeks from July 21 to August 1. Lessons included food, tourist sites and historical background of three districts in Kaohsiung.

The participants were 55 students from eighth grade in a local middle school. Throughout the two weeks camp, various activities have been used in the lessons during teaching, such as the use of worksheets with questions for students to find the answers from the reading on their own to train their reading skills, a one-day field trip to one of the districts taught was planned to let students explore and experience what they have learned from the lesson in real life, and drama performance to let students apply what they have learned into the drama they have created.

At the end of the camp, 78% of the participants stated that they enjoyed learning English through activities, 67% of the participants indicated their English have improved and 90% of the participants would like to participate in similar English camp in the future.

Keywords: integrated language skills, engage, motivation, tailor made

Introduction

Background of the Study

Prior to 2005, language teaching was seen as helping learners develop linguistic competence—that is, helping students master the sounds, words, and grammar patterns of English. The idea was that by studying the bits and pieces of a language, students could eventually put them all together and communicate.

However, along with the concept of global village, English has become an important tool for international communication. Thus, in order to conform to government's internationalization policy and raise international competence of Taiwan, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan has forwarded English course learning from seventh grade to third grade in 2005.

The objective of the English curriculum for the nine year compulsory education in Taiwan is set to: (1) cultivate students' basic English communication ability, so students are able to apply them in real situation; (2) cultivate students' interest and strategy use in learning English, so students are able to learn English effectively on their own; (3) gain knowledge about the customs and cultures of Taiwan and other countries, so students could compare and respect the culture differences.

Although the objective set by the Ministry of Education was to integrate the four skills into English course, the lack of teacher training, limited class hour (2-3 class-hours per week for third to sixth graders and 3-5 class-hours per week for seventh to ninth graders) and instructional impact (the fact that listening and speaking are not part of the high school joint entrance exam), the four skills were not fully integrated into English lessons in schools. For this reason, it is essential to provide students opportunity to integrate the four skills beyond school setting and strengthen their listening and speaking skills.

Purpose of the Study

The present study aims to integrate the four skills through various tasks or activities using teaching materials that are designed specifically for the participants during the summer of 2014. In addition, this study sought to show how integrating the four language skills through activities and topics that are closely related to students' daily life could cultivate students' interest in learning English.

The research questions of this study are:

1. What are students' learning preferences for the two weeks of English summer camp?
2. Have students four skills improved through summer camp activities?
3. How students feel about the activities and topics designed for integrating the four skills?

Literature Review

For more than six decades, research and practice in English language teaching has identified the "four skills"—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—as of paramount practice. However, ESL curricula and textbooks around the world tend to focus on just one of the four skills, sometimes to the exclusion of the others.

Skill segregation is reflected in traditional ESL/EFL program that offer classes focusing on segregated language skills. One extreme example is the grammar-translation method, which teaches students to analyze grammar and to translate from one language to another. This method restricts language learning to a very narrow, non-communicative range that does not prepare students to use the language in everyday life.

When a teacher makes use of activities that have been specially designed to incorporate several language skills simultaneously (such as reading, writing, speaking and listening), they provide their students with situations that allow for well-rounded development and progress in all areas of language learning. The teacher is trying to implement the integrated-skill approach in his/her class. Oxford (2001) has indicated that "the integrated-skill approach exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language." This approach allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time and promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms.

How can the four skills be used together effectively? Four approaches in particular are structured so that the four skills can be used simultaneously. They are: content-based instruction, task-based instruction, theme-based instruction and the project-based approach.

Content-based Instruction (CBI)

In content-based instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative fashion. The overall structure of a content-based curriculum is dictated more by the nature of the subject matter than by language form and sequences (Oxford, 2001). Examples of content based curricula include immersion programs for elementary school children, sheltered English program (mostly found at elementary and secondary school levels), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (e.g. for engineering, agriculture, or medicine, etc.). In content-based instruction, learners are focused on useful, practical objectives as the subject matter is perceived to be relevant to long-term goals.

Task-based Instruction (TBI)

According to Nunan (1989), tasks are defined as activities that can stand alone as fundamental units and that require comprehending, producing, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language while attention is principally paid to meaning rather than form.

In task-based instruction, the priority is not the forms of language, but rather the functional purposes for which language must be used. Course goals in TBI are not linguistic in the traditional sense of just focusing on grammar or phonology but centered on learners' pragmatic language competence, such as exchanging opinions, reading newspapers and menus, writing letters and emails, etc.

Theme-based Instruction

Scarcella & Oxford (1992) have included theme-based instruction as one of the model in content-based instruction, but it is not the same as content-based. Theme-based instruction provides an alternative to what would otherwise be traditional language classes by structuring a course around themes or topics. It can serve the multiple interests of students in a classroom and can offer a focus on content while still adhering to institutional needs for offering a language course per se. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in a university is an appropriated instance of theme-based instruction.

Project-based approach

This approach integrates not only the four skills but also language, culture, experience and learning strategies (Turnbull, 1999). With careful selection of a final project, learners would be able to demonstrate what they have learned through both oral and written production. Throughout the process, the teacher plans backwards to identify what aspects of language, culture, experience and learning strategies are required to complete the end project.

Methodology

The study was conducted at a middle school in southern Taiwan. The participants were 55 eighth grade students who attended the camp as part of their summer school program. The camp lasted for two weeks from July 21 to August 1. Lessons included food, tourist sites and historical background of three districts in Kaohsiung. Throughout the two weeks camp, various activities have been used in the lessons during teaching, such as the use of worksheets with questions for students to find the answers from the reading on their own to train their reading skills, a one-day field trip to one of the districts taught was planned to let students explore and experience what they have learned from the lesson in real life, and drama performance to let students apply what they have learned into the drama they have created.

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used during the data collecting process. Quantitative data include learning preference questionnaire, pre and post test on the topic selected, and satisfaction survey. Qualitative data include field notes from the lesson and interview with students during the break.

Procedure

10 student teachers from researcher's institute were recruited and trained prior to the camp. Learning preference questionnaires were distributed at the beginning of March. Questionnaires were analyzed to identify topics that were most interest to students. Then the researcher worked with the 10 student teachers to design and plan syllabus for the camp. By the end of May, the syllabus for the summer camp was completed and was sent to the curriculum section leader of the research site for approval (See Appendix 1). During the camp, 55 participants were divided into four groups and each group has 2-3 student teachers who were in charge of leading activities, class discussion, and filming the lessons. The four groups use the same lesson plan

throughout the summer camp. On the last day of the summer camp, satisfaction survey was distributed to the participants and collected for analysis.

Result, Discussion and Conclusion

Research Question One

What are students' learning preferences for the two weeks of English summer camp?

In terms of what participants expected to learn from the summer camp, 25% stated they would like to learn conversation skill, 13% would like to learn grammar and another 13% stated that they would like to learn grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and conversation in the camp (See Table 1). This indicated that students are seeking opportunities to practice their conversation skills, but they also feel that in order to communicate well, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation are equally important.

Table 1: What participants expected to learn from the camp?

	Frequency	Percentage
Grammar	7	13
Pronunciation	3	5
Vocabulary	1	2
Conversation	14	25
Grammar + Vocabulary	4	7
Grammar + Conversation	4	7
Pronunciation + Vocabulary	2	4
Pronunciation + Conversation	1	2
Vocabulary + Conversation	5	9
Grammar + Pronunciation + Vocabulary	1	2
Grammar + Pronunciation + Conversation	3	5
Grammar + Vocabulary + Conversation	4	7
All four	7	13
Total	56	100

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Table 2 discussed teaching approach that participants preferred during the summer camp, 36% of the participants indicated that they would like to participate in activities and group discussion and 20% of the participants claimed that they would like to participate in activities such as monopoly, guessing game, role play, etc. This result indicated that participants are interested in learning English through communication with peers and in a more relaxed atmosphere.

Table 2: Which teaching approaches participants prefer?

Teaching Approach	Frequency	Percentage
Activities	11	20
Group Discussion	5	9
Activities + Drama	2	4
Activities + Singing	3	5
Activities + Broadcast	1	2
Activities + Group Discussion	20	36
Activities + Traditional Teaching	1	2
Drama + Group Discussion	2	4
Activities + Drama+Group Discussion	3	5
Activities + Singing+Broadcast	1	2
Activities + Singing+Group Discussion	3	5
Activities + Group Discussion + Traditional Teaching	1	2
Activities + Discussion + Broadcast + Group Discussion	2	4
Activities +Drama + Singing + Broadcast + Group Discussion	1	2
Total	56	100.0

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

When students are asked to indicated what topics they prefer to learn during the summer camp, 43% of the participants stated that they would like to learn about local food (see Table 3). Based on the result from Table 2 and Table 3, it showed that participants will be more interested in learning English with topics that are related to their daily life and the teaching approach used are fun and relaxing.

Table 3: What topics would you like to include in the camp?

Topics	Frequency	Percentage
Tourist sites	10	18
Local food	24	43
Historical and cultural events	7	13
Festivals and customs	2	4
All four	6	11
Sites + Food	6	11
Sites +food + culture	1	2
Total	56	100.0

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

As participants are asked which language skill they would like to focus on during the summer camp, 50% of participants stated that they would like to focus on speaking (See Table 4). This result is consistent with their expectation from the camp from Table 1 which indicates that participants are eager to apply and use English through oral communication in their daily life.

Table 4: Which language skill would you like to focus on?

Language Skill	Frequency	Percentage
Listening	10	18
Speaking	28	50.0
Reading	3	5
Writing	9	16
Listening + Speaking	3	5
Speaking + Writing	1	2
Reading + Writing	1	2
All four	1	2
Total	56	100.0

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

When it comes to assessment, 52% of the participants prefer to create and display actual product, such as story books, maps, posters related to the topics, followed by 29% of participants prefer written test. This result indicates while students would like to increase opportunities in speaking English during the camp, they do not like to be tested on their oral performance in English.

Table 5: How would you like to be assessed for your final performance?

Assessment	Frequency	Percentage
Perform on stage	9	16
Written test	16	29
Create and display actual product	29	52
Perform on stage + Product display	2	4
Total	56	100.0

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Research Question Two

Have students four skills improved through summer camp activities?

As Table 6 shown, over 50% of participants indicated that their four skills and overall English have improved after the summer camp. Approximately 66% of participants indicated that their listening skills has improved, this is probably because throughout the two weeks of summer camp, all activities and instructions were conducted in English, so they have more opportunities to practice their listening skills during the camp. However, 39% of participants feel indifferent about improvement in their speaking, reading and writing skills. This is probably because most of speaking, reading and writing skills were blended into activities such as monopoly, creating drama script or group discussion such as finding answers to questions from the topics, if the participants did not actively participate in the activities or discussion or they could not keep up with the discussion, they may feel they did not have enough chance to practice their speaking, reading and writing skill. Hence, they had neutral feelings toward to the improvement of three language skills.

Table 6: I think my four skills in English have improved over the summer camp.

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Overall
Strongly Disagree	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Disagree	3 (6%)	4 (7%)	4 (7%)	4 (7%)	3 (6%)
So so	14 (26%)	21 (39%)	21 (39%)	21 (39%)	19 (35%)
Agree	24 (44%)	18 (33%)	16 (30%)	16 (30%)	23 (43%)
Strongly Agree	12 (22%)	11 (20%)	12 (22%)	12 (22%)	8 (15%)
Total	54 (100%)	54 (100%)	54 (100%)	54 (100%)	54 (100%)

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Research Question Three

How students feel about the activities and topics designed for integrating the four skills?

At the end of the summer camp, participants were asked to complete a satisfaction survey (See Appendix 2). Survey questions include whether participants are satisfied with the topics designed, teaching approaches used, and their willingness to participate in a similar camp in the future. In order to find out whether the participants have become more familiar with the topics taught through activities during the summer camp, two questions related to the topics were also included in the survey. In addition, pre and post test were also used to see the actual result on participants learning in the summer camp.

Table 7 shows participants' feeling toward the topics and teaching approach used throughout the camp and also indicates participants willingness to attend similar camp in the future. 65% of participants indicated that they are satisfied with the topics designed for the summer camp, 59% of the participants enjoyed the activities used in the camp, and 75% are willing to participate in similar summer camp in the future. Although majority participants are satisfied with the summer camp topics, activities and are willing to participate in the future, 32% of participants feel neutral about the topics designed, 24% indicated neither agree nor disagree to the activities used, and 17% undecided whether they would like to participate in similar camp in the future. This is probably because the topics selected and activities used during the camp did not match their learning preference stated in the questionnaire prior to the camp.

Table 7: I think the topics and activities designed for the summer camp are interesting and I am willing to participate in similar English camp in the future.

	Topics	Activities	Future Participation
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Disagree	2 (4%)	1 (2%)	4 (7%)
So so	17 (32%)	13 (24%)	9 (17%)
Agree	27 (50%)	24 (44%)	17 (32%)
Strongly Agree	8 (15%)	15 (15%)	23 (43%)
Total	54 (100%)	54 (100%)	54 (100%)

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Based on the result from the preference questionnaire, the topics designed for the summer camp focused on the local food and tourist sites in three districts in Kaohsiung. The results of the learning outcome are shown in Table 8 and Table 9.

In Table 8, 76% of the participants stated that they were more familiar with the local food and tourist sites introduced in the camp. The result from pre and post test in Table 9 also showed 20% increase on the test score. This result showed learning through activities with four skills integrated into the lesson is as effective as through the traditional class setting.

Table 8: I am more familiar with the local food and tourist sites in the three districts in Kaohsiung.

	Local Food	Tourist Sites
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Disagree	2 (4%)	2 (4%)
So so	11 (20%)	11 (20%)
Agree	19 (35%)	21 (39%)
Strongly Agree	22 (41%)	20 (37%)
Total	54 (100%)	54 (100%)

Note: The percentages calculated are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Pre and post test Result

There are 40 questions on the test, which include 22 true and false questions and 18 multiple choice questions (See Appendix 3). Questions are related to the topics and some grammatical knowledge is also included. As Table 9 shown, participants' average score have increased from 24.72 to 29.81, which indicate that participants' have gained some knowledge on topics taught throughout the two-week summer camp.

Table 9: Pre and Post test Result

	Pretest	Posttest
N	54	54
Missing	0	0
Mean	24.72	29.81
Standard Error	.605	.558
Standard Deviation	4.444	4.103
Minimum	14	19
Maximum	36	37

Conclusion

The participants in this study generally expressed positive attitude toward learning English through activities. They expressed how learning through activities could provide them more opportunities to use the language and more fun. Their attitude toward future participation of similar camp relies on whether the topics designed and teaching approaches used meet their learning preference. Therefore, to become a global citizen and to comply with the English teaching objective set by the Ministry of Education, teachers should make efforts to structure the English class to meet students' needs-that is to be able to use the language in their daily life rather than prepare them for the test. The results from the study have showed with careful planning, integrating four skills in language class can be beneficial for both teachers and students.

Limitation of the Study

This study has its limitations. First, it is possible that some information was not covered in the interview. Second, the role of the interviewer may have affected the results and how the students expressed their attitudes and feelings during the interviews. Although this study concerned only one middle school in southern Taiwan, the results may shed lights on the effect of integrating language skills through activities in students' learning.

Acknowledgments

The completion of the study is dedicated to the help and support of Fushan Junior High School in recruiting the students to participate in the camp, providing teaching facilities and resources, and collecting the data. Additional thanks to the Department of Foreign Language Instruction for providing the opportunity to conduct the research.

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Appendix 1
Course Syllabus for English Summer Camp
Week 1: 7/21-7/25

Time	7/28	7/29	7/30	7/31	8/1
9:00-9:50	Ice breaker	Review	Review	Review	Field Trip 8:30-15:00
10:00-10:50	Overview of camp syllabus	Yenchen	Gushann	Cijin	
11:00-11:50	Overview of Kaohsiung	Yenchen	Gushan	Cijin	

Week 2: 7/28-8/1

Time	7/28	7/29	7/30	7/31	8/1
9:00-10:00	Field Trip reflection	Monopoly	Guessing Game	Group Activities	Final Drama rehearsal
10:00-12:00	Final Drama Instruction	Final Drama Preparation	Final Drama Preparation	Final Drama Preparation	Final Drama

Appendix 2
Satisfaction Survey

	Strongly Agree **5**	Agree **4**	So so **3**	Disagree **2**	Strongly Disagree **1**
1. I am satisfied with the topics designed for the summer camp.					
2. I am satisfied with the teaching approaches used in the summer camp.					
3. I think my English listening skill has improved.					
4. I think my English listening skill has improved.					
5. I think my English speaking skill has improved.					
6. I think my English reading skill has improved.					
7. I think my English writing skill has improved.					
8. I think my overall skills in English have improved.					
9. I am more familiar with the local food in Kaohsiung.					
10. I am more familiar with the tourist site in Kaohsiung.					
11. I like the group activities in the summer camp.					
12. I like the field trip in the summer camp					
13. I like the arrangement of final performance.					
14. I would like to participate in similar camp in the future.					

Appendix 3
Pre and Post Test

I. T and F. According to the information provided, write T for True and F for false for each statement.

(F) 1. You can take the MRT by using credit card.
(T) 2. When you take a MRT, you need to insert your money into the coin slot to buy the single journey ticket.
(T) 3. You can rent the Cbike by using credit card.
(F) 4. When you rent the Cbike, you can remove the card while it is processing.
(F) 5. When you want to get off the bus, you need to press the emergency button.
(T) 6.Maketao people chose a kind of bamboo with thorns to set around their house as a fence in order to prevent attack from enemy.
(F) 7. Kaohsiung MRT, the orange line goes from Siaogang to Gangshan South.
(T) 8. Kaohsiung was forced to open to other country for trade, preach and medical practice during Ching Dynasty.
(F) 9. Yan-Cheng still has salt business now.
(T) 10. The Museum of the History was built by Japanese.
(F) 11. Yan–Cheng district is located in east of Kaohsiung.
(F) 12. Yan-Cheng is the biggest district of Kaohsiung.
(F) 13. Resident in Yan–Cheng district makes living by making sugar.
(T) 14. Siziwan was called "Yanlu Bay" or ''Skewed Bay.''
(F) 15. Tunnel of Siziwan was designed and built by a Chinese in 1927.
(T) 16. Show Shan Zoo is the only zoo in Kaohsiung.
(F) 17. Taipei Zoo receives animals from the Show Shan Zoo.
(T) 18. Gushan Ferry Station was also called Siziwan Ferry Station.
(F) 19. The northernmost of Kaohsiung District is Cijin.
(F) 20. Pepper Handmade Fish Noodle is made from flour.
(T) 21. Qihou Church was the first medical center in Taiwan.
(T) 22. The Qihou Lighthouse was rebuilt in 1916.

II. Multiple choice. Select the best answer for each statement.

(B) 1. When you rent the Cbike, you have _____ to take your bike.
A. 60 seconds B. 90 seconds C. 120 seconds

(A) 2. When you rent the Cbike, you need to press the ____ button to retrieve your bike.
A. red B. green C. yellow

(C) 3. You can find ____ on the ferry.
A. swimsuit B. helmet C. life jacket

(A) 4. Hold the ____ when you are standing on the bus.
A. lug B. seat belt C. button

(B) 5. Fasten the _____ when you are sitting on the bus.
A. lug B. seat belt C. button

(B) 6. Kaohsiung's old name was ______.
A. Formosa B. Takao C. Maketao

(A) 7. There are ____ lines in Kaohsiung MRT.
A. two B. three C. four

(B) 8. The Kaohsiung MRT was built in ______.
A. May, 2008 B. March, 2008 C. May, 2012

(B) 9.Which is NOT a local food in Yan–Cheng district?
A. Da- Co- Pan Sandwiches B. Ice of the Ocean C. Kumquat Tofu

(A) 10. Which is the most famous ice in Ice of the Ocean?
A. Fruit Ice B. Chocolate Ice C. Milk Ice

(C) 11. Which of the following is NOT a name for Siziwan in the past?
A. Yanlu Bay B. Skewed Bay C. Yamay Mala Bay

(A) 12. Which district is Siziwan in?
A. the Gushan District B. the Cijin District C. the Yanchang District

(A) 13. What was the original name of Takao Railway Museum?
A. Kaohsiung Port Station
B. Kaohsiung Station
C. Kaohsiung Museum of History

(B) 14. Which building was Kaohsiung Martyrs' Shrine(忠烈祠) remodeled from?
A. Kaohsiung Museum of History
B. Kaohsiung Temple
C. Kaohsiung Film Archive

(C) 15. Which historical site didn't have more than 100 years of history?
A. Qihou Church B. Tianhou Temple D. Cijin Windmill Park

(A　) 16. Which year was Qihou Fort rebuilt?

A. 1991　B. 1995　C. 1945

(A　) 17. The cake _______ by Grace.

A. was eaten　B. was eat　C. eating

(C　) 18. He _______ English for 10 years.

A. learning　B. learned　C. has learned

The Role of Vocabulary in Reading Comprehension

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Abstract
It is generally agreed that many factors contribute to one's reading comprehension, and there is consensus that vocabulary size is one of the main factors. This study explores the relationship between second language learners' vocabulary size and their reading comprehension scores. A total of 129 Malay pre-university students of a public university in Malaysia participated in this study. They were students of an intensive English language programme doing preparatory English courses to pursue bachelor's degree in English. The findings of the study indicate that the students were able to achieve the vocabulary mastery level at the 2000 and 3000 Word Levels. A correlational analysis was employed to ascertain the relationship between scores in the reading comprehension of the in-house English Proficiency Test (EPT) and Vocabulary Levels tests (Nation, 1990). Based on Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, there was a moderate correlation ($r=0.641$) between scores in the EPT's reading comprehension and Vocabulary Levels tests. The relationship was statistically significant at $p<0.01$ level. The findings provide beneficial implications for the prediction of reading comprehension performance. It also has implications for the teaching of vocabulary in the ESL context. A better understanding of the relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension scores will enhance teachers' and students' awareness of the importance of vocabulary acquisition in the L2 classroom.

Keywords: Vocabulary size, vocabulary learning, reading comprehension, ESL

Introduction

The relationship between reading comprehension ability and vocabulary size has been well established. Curtis (1987) asserts that a low vocabulary knowledge can affect comprehension thus affecting students in their ability to acquire new knowledge. Thus it is essential that we understand what it takes for a learner to be able to comprehend what he/she is reading. There are two aspects that have to be considered here.

One aspect is the number of vocabulary that a learner needs. Schmitt (2000) in his study indicated that for learner to be able to read fluently and with complete understanding, a mastery of the 2,000 words is essential. The first 2,000 words taken from a corpus of 5,000,000 written corpus is the foundation upon which leaners need in order to acquire more vocabulary; without which, the acquisition of higher level vocabulary would be difficult.

The other aspect that has to be taken into consideration is the number of unknown words that a reader can tolerate. Hu and Nation (2000) claim that for comprehension to take place a learner needs to understand 86% of the running words. Without this learners would also find it difficult to make sense of the text read.

Research questions

This study was undertaken to investigate the relationship between reading comprehension and vocabulary size of pre-sessional students of the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM). Specifically, this study was carried out to address the following research questions:

1. What is the reading score of the IIUM pre-sessional students?
2. What is the vocabulary size of IIUM pre-sessional students?
3. Is there a relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension performance of IIUM pre-sessional students?

Methodology

i. Participants

The participants in this study were 129 students studying English in the pre-university intensive English language programme at the Centre for Languages and Pre-University Academic Programme, International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM).

Gender		No. of Students	Percentage	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	54	41.9	41.9
	Female	75	58.1	100.0
	Total	129	100.0	

Table 1: Profile of students according to gender

Of the 129 students, 75 (58.1%) were females and 54 (41.9%) were males (Table 1). The statistics reflect the female-male ratio of students at the IIUM.

ii. Setting

The International Islamic University Malaysia is an English medium university which requires all new intake students to fulfil a minimum English language proficiency of EPT band 6, IELTS band 6 or TOEFL 550 before they can be admitted to their respective faculties to pursue their tertiary education. If they fail to meet the minimum language requirement, they would be placed in one of the six levels (for direct intake students) or four levels (for post-secondary students) of the pre-university intensive English language programme based on their scores in the EPT, TOEFL or IELTS.

iii. Instrument

The Vocabulary Levels Tests (VLT) Version 2 (Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham 2001) were used in this study to assess students' vocabulary levels. The Vocabulary Levels Tests (VLT) Version 2 were initially developed by Paul Nation, and later revised by Norbert Schmitt and associates. The Vocabulary Levels Tests have been widely used as measures of L2 students' vocabulary sizes and have been tested for reliability for the 2,000 Word Level Test (Cronbach Alpha of 0.922), 3,000 Word Level Test (Cronbach Alpha 0.927), and 0.927 for the 5,000 Word Level Test (0.927) (Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham 2001). The second instrument used was the Reading Comprehension Test of the IIUM's English Proficiency Test (EPT). It consists of 40 multiple choice questions based on four passages. The scores are distributed according to Bands. The lowest is Band 1, while the highest is Band 9.

The Vocabulary Levels Tests were administered to 129 pre-sessional students. The students were informed that the purpose of the vocabulary test was to find out the extent of their vocabulary knowledge. They were told to complete every item, and not to leave any blanks. All 129 students were present to complete the VLT tests. A week later, all 129 students sat for the EPT's reading comprehension test. Consent was earlier sought and tokens of appreciation were given to them after the completion of the VLT, as well as the reading comprehension test.

Findings and discussion

A total of 129 post-secondary students from four levels of the intensive English language programme participated in the study. The distribution of 129 post-secondary students is presented in Table 2. A total of 28 students were from Level 1 (LEM 0320), 28 from Level 2 (LEM0420), 40 from Level 3 (LEM0520), and 33 from Level 4 (LEM 0620).

Course Code	No. of Students	Percentage
LEM 0320	28	21.7
LEM 0420	28	21.7
LEM 0520	40	31.0
LEM 0620	33	25.6
Total	129	100.0

Table 2: Profile of students according to levels of proficiency

Three research questions were formulated for the purpose of the study.

Research question 1:

What is the reading score of the IIUM pre-sessional students?

Table 3 shows the students' scores in the reading comprehension test of the EPT. Of the 129 students who sat for the reading comprehension test, 2 (1.6%) achieved Band 5.5, while 7 (5.4%) of the students managed to get Band 9 (the highest Band).

Band	No. of Students	Percentage
5.5	2	1.6
6.0	20	15.5
7.0	36	27.9
8.0	64	49.6
9.0	7	5.4
Total	129	100.0

Table 3: Reading comprehension test scores of pre-sessional IIUM students

Band 5.5 is the minimum English language admission requirement for reading. Thus, all 129 students were able to fulfil the minimum admission requirements of Band 5.5 in reading comprehension. It is interesting to note that almost half of the students (49.6%) were able to achieve Band 8.

Research question 2:

What is the vocabulary size of IIUM pre-sessional students?

The results of the Vocabulary Levels Test scores of the pre-sessional students are presented in Table 4. The highest mean score for the vocabulary test was for 2,000 word level (M=26.82; SD=3.886), while the lowest mean score was for 10,000 word level (M=6.90; SD=5.55).

Word Level	No. of Students	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
2000 Word Level	129	26.82 (89.17%)	3.886	.342
3000 Word Level	129	24.03 (79.87%)	4.484	.395
5000 Word Level	129	16.46 (54.30%)	6.512	.573
10000 Word Level	129	6.97 (23.0%)	5.615	.494

Table 4: Vocabulary Levels Test scores of pre-sessional IIUM students

The mean scores for the 3000 word level and 5,000 word level were M=24.03 (SD=4.484) and M=16.46 (SD=6.512), respectively. Laufer and Nation (1999) recommend a mastery level of 75% or 22.5 correct items of the 30 total items. Based on the mastery level of 75%, the students in this study managed to achieve vocabulary mastery level of 89.17% for 2000 word level and 79.87% for 3000 word level. In contrast, students' achievement for 5,000 and 10,000 word levels were 54.30% and 23% respectively, which did not meet the mastery level performance. The findings of the study suggest that these students managed to achieve vocabulary mastery at 2,000 and 3,000 word levels, but there is a need to enhance their vocabulary knowledge at the 5,000 and 10,000 word levels.

Research question 3:

Is there a relationship between students' vocabulary size and their reading comprehension performance?

A correlational analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between students' scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary levels tests. Table 5 reports the findings of the relationships among students' scores of reading comprehension and vocabulary levels tests for 2000, 3000, 5000, and 10000 word levels.

		Reading score	2000 word level	3000 word level	5000 word level	10000 word level
Reading score	Pearson Correlation	1	.637(**)	.496(**)	.414(**)	.291(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	129	129	129	129	129
2000 word level	Pearson Correlation	.637(**)	1	.744(**)	.571(**)	.367(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129
3000 word level	Pearson Correlation	.496(**)	.744(**)	1	.678(**)	.486(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129
5000 word level	Pearson Correlation	.414(**)	.571(**)	.678(**)	1	.641(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129
10000 word level	Pearson Correlation	.291(**)	.367(**)	.486(**)	.641(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	
	N	129	129	129	129	129

Table 5: Correlations among reading comprehension, 2000, 3000, 5000, and 10000 vocabulary word levels

The findings indicate positive relationships between reading test scores and all vocabulary word levels. There was a moderate correlation between reading comprehension scores and 2000 vocabulary word level with a correlation coefficient of 0.637. Reading comprehension scores had also a moderate relationship with the

3000 word level (r=0.496) and 5000 word level (r=0.414). The 10,000 word level, however, had a weak relationship with the reading test performance. The correlation coefficient was 0.291. The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient reveals that all vocabulary word levels (2000, 3000, 5000, and 10000) had statistically significant relationship ($P<0.01$) with the reading comprehension scores. The findings suggest that vocabulary 2000 word level has the highest predictor value (r=0.619) for the reading comprehension scores.

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension of ESL students in an intensive English language programme. In general, the findings of the present study revealed that there is a positive and moderate relationship between the students' reading comprehension scores and their vocabulary size. In addition, the majority of the students managed to achieve the mastery level at the 2000 word level (89.17%) and 3000 word level (79.87%).

Although the nature of the research sample and the use of correlation statistics restrict the generalizability of the findings in terms of cause and effect analysis, some pedagogical implications could be drawn tentatively for colleges that share similar demographic features. Specifically, it is essential to highlight the role of teachers to make available words at the 5,000 level and 10,000 to students so that students can be exposed to these words in their daily reading or entertainment literacy encounters. Given these students' low vocabulary size, it is recommended that they continue to develop their knowledge of high-frequency words and at the same time expand their knowledge of low-frequency words.

Teachers should also encourage students to engage in extracurricular extensive reading activities (e.g. Zhang 2001b, 2003), as there is some cumulative evidence indicating the benefit of extensive reading in helping learners to enhance vocabulary size and reading abilities at the same time (see, e.g., Day and Bamford 1998; Krashen 2004; Nation 2001). Hunt and Beglar (2005) propose a systematic framework for lexical development in order to speed up lexical development; an aspect that is particularly true for the context of this research as learners have very limited time. Needless to mention, learners also need to realise that vocabulary acquisition is an important life-long skill as they need to be able to acquire more vocabulary independently throughout their academic life and beyond.

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Explaining ESL Chinese Students' In-Class Participation Using the Theory of Planned Behavior: An Exploratory Study

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Abstract
The Chinese demand for American-style education is on the rise as many Chinese students seek opportunities to gain a true global education in China. However, importing US education style in China has been shown to be challenging. American education emphasizes the importance of students' in-class participation; however, Chinese students' reluctance to communicate in class is notoriously strong.

To explain such reluctance, scholars have traditionally focused their attention on constructs such as "willingness to communicate" and "communication anxiety" (Ellis, 2012). In our study we have followed a different approach. We propose a theoretical model to explain Chinese students' in-class participation inspired by the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). TPB applies to any human behavior under volitional control and has been successfully applied in several fields, such as health psychology, sports, and marketing.

Our theoretical model was tested by administering a questionnaire to 133 Chinese university students enrolled in a Sino-American university located in South-East China. Data were analyzed using partial least squares (PLS) path modeling method (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). Overall, our findings provided some initial support to our proposed model. The model accounted 36% of explained variance in intention to participate in class. The stronger predictors for students' participation were attitudes toward participation and self-efficacy. In our future research we plan to further test our model and expand it by considering the contribution of additional constructs, such as face-saving and communication anxiety.

Keywords: Theory of Planned Behavior; SEM; Partial Least Squares; In-class Participation; Willingness to Communicate; Chinese ESL Students.

Introduction

Chinese demand for English-based and in particular American-style education is on the rise. According to the Institute of International Education (2014), China is the leading place of origin of international students in the US. In the academic year 2013/2014, 274,439 Chinese students made up 31% of the total of international students in the United States, up by 16.5% from the previous academic year and by roughly 500% from 2000. Travelling to the United States is not the only option for Chinese students who seek opportunities to gain an American-style education: China is in fact the second largest importer of branch campuses (IBCs[1]) after the United Arab Emirates. Out of the 29 ICBs currently active in China, 11 result from partnerships with US educational institutions, making the United States the largest exporter of branch campuses in China.

Importing American-style education style in China has been shown to be challenging. On a macro level, Sino-American partnerships require several factors - such as sustained leadership, aligned organizational infrastructures, faculty support – to be in place in order to allow meaningful, long-term relations between Chinese and US institutional partners (Julius & Leventhal, 2014). On a micro level, we can also observe major challenges in the instructor-students interactions. American education emphasizes the importance of “conversational style lectures”, where students’ participation and interactions with the instructor are regarded as crucial component of the learning process (Bain, 2004; Morell, 2007). For instance, interactivity is considered particularly important in English-as-second-language (ESL) classrooms because it facilitates learners’ communicative competence in the target language, supports the active use of English, increases learning quality, and promotes an overall better student performance (Hsu, 2015; Weaver & Qi 2005). Executive education is another area where in-class participation is relevant. To be better prepared for their future managerial roles, business students need in fact to “think through problems, organize concepts, analyze information, formulate arguments, synthesize and evaluate evidence, and respond to diverse points of view” (Dallimore *et al.*, 2010, p. 615). These are a set of core skills that are supported and developed by interactive-style classrooms.

Despite the recognized importance of in-class participation, non-native English Asian and in particular Chinese students are notoriously unwilling to communicate orally and tend to be passive in class (Hsu, 2015; Peng, 2012). This reticence leads to challenging in-class interactions. On one hand, US-trained instructors promote and expect a high-degree of students’ in-class participatory behaviors, such as asking questions or clarifications, engaging in group work, presenting opinions in class, and volunteering to participate in class activities. On the other hand, Chinese students often consider these participatory behaviors demanding. They find themselves uncomfortable with American-style classroom norms, not only because of their lack of confidence in their English skills, but also because such norms are not deemed relevant or even appropriate in traditional Chinese education (Hsu, 2015).

[1] An International Branch Campus is “an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; engages in at least some face-to-face teaching; and provides access to an entire academic program that leads to a credential awarded by the foreign education provider” (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2015, March 6).

To explain such reluctance, scholars have focused their attention on constructs such as "willingness to communicate" and "communication anxiety," producing an extensive literature (Ellis, 2012). The present study extends the existing literature by applying the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) to explain Chinese ESL's university student in-class participation. TPB is one the most frequently cited and employed theoretical approaches used to predict human social behavior (Ajzen, 2011a). TPB also provided the theoretical rationale to develop and evaluate behavioral change interventions in different fields such as weight-loss, exercise, use of public transportations, and AIDS/HIV preventions.

In a recent article, Zhong (2013) first used TPB to explain Chinese students' in-class participation, providing some evidence of the viability of applying TPB in this novel area. However, Zhong's (2013) study used a qualitative method on a small sample, whereas TPB-based studies call for a large scale, survey-based approach. In the present paper, we are attempting a more traditional, quantitative approach to test whether TPB can explain ESL Chinese students' in class participation. Our TPB-based theoretical model was tested by administering a questionnaire to 133 Chinese university students enrolled in a recently established Sino-American university located in South-East China. Data were analyzed using partial least squares (PLS) path modeling method (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

An Overview of the Theory of Planned Behavior

Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) Theory of Planned Behavior (see figure 1) was developed to explain any specific human behavior under volitional control. TPB is one of the most influential theories in Social Psychology and has underpinned more than one thousand empirical papers (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). TPB has been successfully applied in several fields, such as health psychology, politics, sports, marketing, education and organizational behavior. The theory has been used to predict a wide range of behaviors, such as pro-environmental behaviors (de Leeuw, Valois, Ajzen, Schmidt, 2015), consumers' intention to visit green hotels (Chen & Tung, 2014) and suggestion making behaviors in large organizations (Girardelli, 2014).

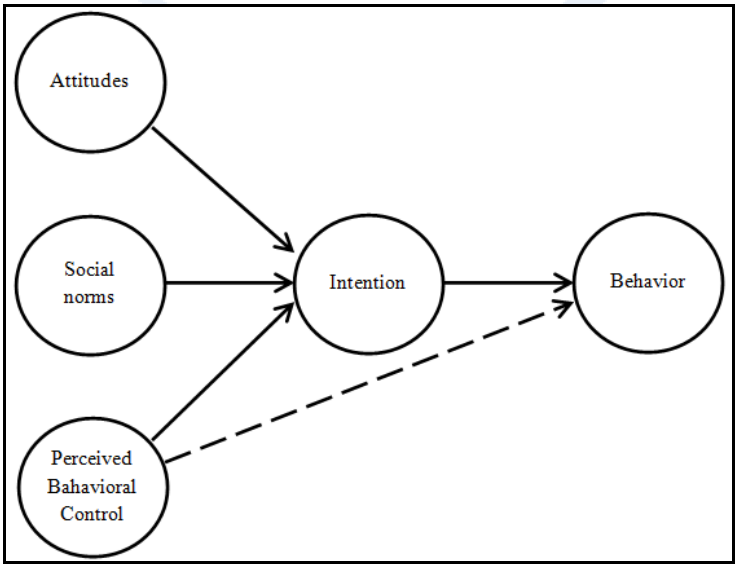

Figure 1: The Theory of Planned Behavior.

In its basic form, TPB assumes that any behavior can be predicted by an individual's intentions to perform such a behavior. In turn, behavioral intentions are in a function of: a) attitudes towards the behavior; b) subjective norms; c) behavioral control/self-efficacy.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), a behavior is best predicted by TPB when the following four components are clearly defined: *action, target, context,* and *time*. For instance, if we consider as the target behavior of our investigation "attending a yoga class at the University of Kentucky Fitness Center on Thursday night," this behavior can be parsed into: "attending" (actual performed *action*); "a yoga class" (*target* of the action); "at the University of Kentucky Fitness Center" (*context* where the desired action should take place); "on Thursday night" (*time* when the desired action should take place). According to the goal of the research, target behaviors can be defined at different *levels of generality*. *Generality* can go from a *narrower* level of individual discrete actions (for instance, "attending yoga classes") to a *broader* level of *behavioral categories* that encompass several discrete actions (for instance, "exercising," which includes "attending yoga classes" as well as other behaviors, such as "practicing body building"). Broader *behavioral categories* tend to be more significant from a theoretical level than specific discrete behaviors; at the same time, *behavioral categories* are more challenging to measure and they need to be clearly defined to the study participants. For instance, "exercise" can be defined as "participating in active sports or vigorous physical activities long enough to get sweaty at least twice per week" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010, p. 36).

Behaviors are predicted by *behavioral intentions*. Behavioral intentions are defined as "indications of a person's readiness to perform a behavior" (p. 39) or "the subjective probability of performing a behavior" (p. 40). The higher the subjective probability of performing a behavior is, the more likely the behavior under consideration will be in fact performed. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), TPB's behavioral intentions include both "behavioral expectations" (self-prediction of performing a behavior despite possible obstacles or impediments) and "willingness to perform a behavior" (a more reactive component associated with a lack of planning or premeditation in performing a behavior).

Behavioral intentions are in turn in a function of three constructs: Attitudes toward the target behavior, perceived norms and perceived behavioral control/self-efficacy. *Attitudes toward the target behavior* are defined as a "latent disposition or tendency to respond with some degree of favorableness or unfavorableness to a psychological object" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010, p. 76). Attitudes are a "bipolar evaluative dimension" (p. 76), namely they can range from positive to negative, with a neutral intermediate point. Attitudes include two major facets: An *instrumental* aspect that refers to the behavior's perceived usefulness in terms of anticipated positive or negative consequences (beneficial vs. harmful or useful vs. useless); and an *experiential* aspect that covers the anticipated positive or negative feelings expected by performing such a behavior (boring vs. interesting or pleasant vs. un pleasant).

Perceived norms refer to what is considered an acceptable or permissible behavior in a group or society. *Perceived norms* capture the total social pressure that the environment exerts on an individual to perform (or not perform) a given behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). This second antecedent of behavioral intentions also encompasses two sub-components, namely *injunctive* norms and *descriptive* norms. The former refers to perceptions concerning what ought or should be done. The latter describes instead perceptions that significant others, such as family members, peers, friends and classmates, are actually performing (or not) the behavior under consideration.

Perceived behavioral control (PBC) is the third and last antecedent of behavioral intentions. PBC are defined as “the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behavior, that they have control over its performance” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010, p. 154-155). This construct is conceptually similar to Bandura’s (1991) *perceived self-efficacy*, defined as “people’s beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affects their lives” (p. 257). PBC includes the following two aspects: *Capacity*, namely an individual’s perception of having adequate external or internal sources to perform a given behavior; and *autonomy*, namely perceptions that possible obstacles that may be encountered in performing such behavior can be overcome. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), PBC is independent from the fact that skills, sources or obstacles are internal (for instance, willpower) or external (for instance money or time). Finally, it should be noted that according to TPB (see figure 1) PBC can also provide a small yet significant contribution in predicting behavior together with intentions when an individual’s perceptions of control accurately reflect his or her skills or resources. Similarly, self-efficacy has been found to be positively related with actual behavior (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

The most important prerequisite for improving the prediction of behaviors from intentions is the *principle of compatibility*. Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) state that “an intention is compatible with a behavior if both are measured at the same level of generality or specificity” (pp. 44-45). In other words, intentions must be assessed using the same components (action, target, context, and time) and the same *level of generality* used in defining the target behavior. In the same manner, to improve the prediction of behavioral intentions, attitudes, perceived norms and PBC must be measured with the same level of generality used in defining behavioral intentions.

TPB’s meta-analytic reviews covering a wide range of different target behaviors reported an overall correlation between behavior and intentions ranging from .45 to .62 (equivalent to R^2 .20-.38). The role of PBC is in this sense limited, explaining only an additional 2% of variance in behaviors (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Multiple correlation between attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control with behavioral intentions was in the .59-.66 range (equivalent to R^2 .35-.44; Ajzen, 2011a, Armitage & Conner, 2001, Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).The relationship among TPB’s constructs is therefore quite substantial with the strength of the overall correlation in the moderate area (Taylor, 1990).

On top of the strong theoretical rationale that contributed in TPB “having the highest scientific impact score among US and Canadian social psychologists” (Ajzen, 2011a, p. 113), TPB has also been successfully used to design and evaluate several interventions intended to promote behavioral change among a target population. Example of behaviors include among others: promoting fruit and vegetable consumption (Kothe, Mullan, & Butow, 2012); reducing overweight and obesity (Knowlden & Sharma, 2012); preventing binge drinking (French & Cooke, 2012);

and reducing sexually transmitted infections (Tyson, Covey, & Rosenthal, 2014). Such interventions usually involve the development of persuasive messages that target critical TPB components and the measurement of the effects of the intervention on a cognitive as well as a behavioral level (Ajzen, 2011b; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Hardeman *et al.*, 2002).

In sum, Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) Theory of Planned Behavior provides a solid theoretical framework not only to explain and predict a variety of behaviors under volitional control, but also to design and evaluate targeted interventions in a systematic manner. The use of TPB to understand communicative volitional behaviors, such as in-class participation, has been very limited so far. The only exception is Zhong's (2013) qualitative study, which did not however include any statistical evidence.

As we have seen, previous research highlighted a list of key constructs such as "willingness to communicate" and "communication anxiety" (Ellis, 2012) to explain Chinese students' in-class participation. Recently, researchers such as Peng (2012) proposed comprehensive models intended to understand willingness to communicate in EFL classrooms by integrating many of these constructs in a unified framework. Despite the interesting findings, scholars argue for a more "theory-driven" approach in Social Science instead of creating "ad-hoc" models from an eclectic collection of constructs (Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). More importantly, such "ad-hoc" models do not have a proven record that demonstrates their ability to provide effective insights in designing and evaluating in-class interventions.

Expanding Zhong's (2013) findings, in the present study we use TPB to explain ESL Chinese students' in-class participatory behaviors, providing some preliminary statistical evidence based on a sample of Chinese students from a Sino-American institution.

Explaining ESL Chinese Students' In-Class Participation Using TPB: Theory Development

The goal of the present exploratory study is to explain Chinese students' in-class participation by applying TPB. Following Zhong (2013), the target behavior under consideration is *in-class participation*, namely *in-class communicative voluntary behaviors* such as volunteering an answer to a question (including raising a hand), asking the professor a question or a clarification, presenting opinions in class, and taking the initiative to participate in class activities. Using TPB's terminology, our target behavior is therefore a broader *behavioral category* that encompasses several different specific behaviors.

As we have seen, TPB includes five major constructs: target behavior, behavioral intentions, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control/self-efficacy (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). In our study (see figure 2), we focused our attention on the last four core constructs. In particular, we studied the immediate predictors of intentions, namely attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control/self-efficacy.

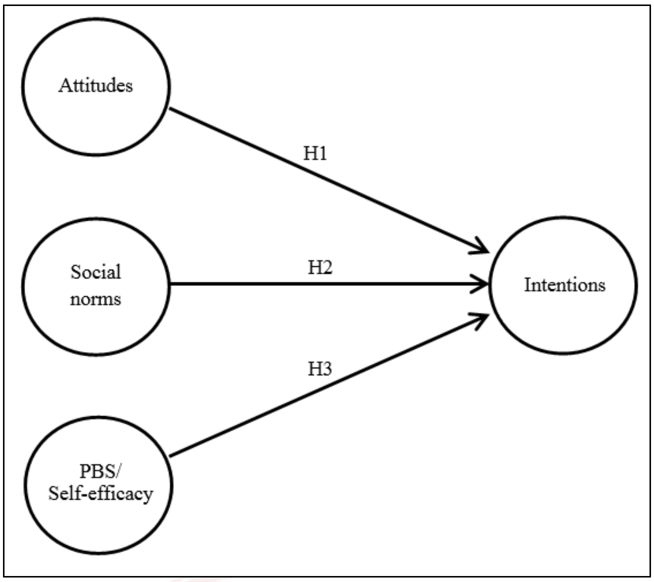

Figure 2: Research hypothesis.

As we have seen in the previous section, *attitudes* are defined as an individual's overall evaluation regarding a given behavior. In our specific case, we hypothesize that the more a student feels that in-class participation is important, useful and rewarding, the more likely he or she will actually participate in class.

Hypothesis 1: The strength of a student's intention to participate in class is a function of the student's attitudes toward in-class participation.

Subjective norms refer to an individual's perceived pressure to perform the target behavior. If a student perceives that his or her peers (e.g., classmates) support his or her in-class participation, we expect that the student will more likely participate in class.

Hypothesis 2: The strength of a student's intention to participate in class is a function of the student's subjective norms regarding in-class participation.

Perceived behavioral control (PBC)*/self-efficacy* is the third antecedent of intention and refers to an individual's perceived control over a given behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). As we have seen earlier, PBC overlaps with Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy. We hypothesize that a student will more likely participate in class if he or she perceives to have adequate skills and resources to do so.

Hypothesis 3: The strength of a student's intention to participate in class is a function of the student's self-efficacy in in-class participation.

Research Design and Methodology

Conceptual Design

The extant literature supports a conceptual design that integrates the constructs of attitude, norms, and self-efficacy as related to intention to participate in class. As previously noted, there is however limited empirical work directly relating the constructs under study to intention to participate. The data collection and analysis was aimed at providing empirical insights into drivers of intention to participate.

Independent variables

Attitudes towards participation are central to the intention to participate. Anecdotal observation and empirical research both point to the importance of attitudes to the intention to participate. Where the attitudes are open and comfortable, students display a higher intention to participate and ultimately actual level of participation. The same viewpoint holds for norms – whether cultural or institutional – as potential enablers or barriers of in-class participation. Finally, where the level of self-efficacy and confidence in participating is high, a self-reinforcing and virtuous cycle of participation and experience is engaged.

Outcome variable

TPB applies across a wide range of behavioral contexts. Following Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), we posit that in the classroom context intention to participate is most likely the ultimate driver of the level of participation displayed by students. Simply put, where the intention is formed, the consequent participatory behavior will align with the intention.

Research site and design

Wenzhou-Kean University in Wenzhou, Zhejiang Province (China), was selected as a research site. The university is a Sino-American ICB between Wenzhou University and Kean University, Union, New Jersey (USA). It is accredited by the Middle States Commission on Higher Education. All core classes at WKU are taught in English. The study followed a single-time-point observational research design, which involved the administration of a questionnaire to a sample of Chinese sophomores.

Research procedure, respondents, scale items and final sample

In order to create an authentic context for responses, we administered the survey within a classroom context in courses undertaken by Chinese students for whom English is a second language. Participants received a consent form containing basic information regarding the study on the first day of class. Five extra credits (equivalent to .5% of the final grade) were used as an incentive. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary. All enrolled students agreed to participate in the study. After having signed the consent form, participants received the study questionnaire. The surveys were administered manually and results were compiled and cross-checked to create a data file in Excel for further analysis.

A total of 133 students completed the questionnaire. Chinese Mandarin was the first language for the entire sample. 74.4% of the respondents were female, 25.6% were males. The average age of the respondents was 20 year-old (SD=.52). Participants have been studying English for an average of 10 years (SD=1.87). They were undergraduate sophomores majoring in accounting (77.4%), English (14.3%), and International Business (8.3%).

Study variables were measured with the following scales. The *intention to participate in class* three-item scale was based on Ajzen (2002). The scale included the following items: “1) I intend to regularly participate in English in class during the coming semester”; “2) I will regularly participate in English in class during the coming semester”; and “3) I plan to regularly participate in English in class during the coming semester.” The items were intended to evaluate participants’ general readiness to engage in the target behavior.

Attitudes toward in-class participation was operationalized with a five-item scale based on Ajzen (2002) and included the following items: “1) In my opinion, regularly participating in English in class during the coming semester is useless” (reverse scored); “2) In my opinion, regularly participating in English in class during the coming semester is important”; “3) In my opinion, regularly participating in English in class during the coming semester is rewarding”; “4) In my opinion, regularly participating in English in class during the coming semester is boring” (reverse score), and “5) In my opinion, regularly participating in English in class during the coming semester is good.” Following Ajzen’s (2002) guidelines, items 1 and 2 cover the instrumental aspect of attitudes, items 3 and 4 refer to the experiential aspect, whereas item 5 was used as an overall evaluation of the target behavior.

Subjective norms regarding in-class participation were measured with a four-item scale developed by Armitage and Conner (1999), which included the following statements: “1) The large majority of my classmates thinks that I should regularly participate in English in class during the coming semester”; “2) The large majority of my classmates would approve of my participating regularly in English in class during the coming semester”; “3) The large majority of my classmates expect that I participate regularly in English in class during the coming semester”, “4) The large majority of my classmates will regularly participate in English in class during the coming semester”. Items 1, 2, and 3 cover the *injunctive* aspect of subjective norms, whereas item 4 the *descriptive* aspect.

A four-item scale adapted from Midgley *et al.* (2000) was used to measure *self-efficacy in in-class participation*. The items included in the scale were the following “1) I am sure I have mastered the skills required to regularly participate in English in class”; “2) I am certain I have a good grasp on how to regularly participate in English in class”; “3) I find regularly participating in English in class very difficult” (revere scored); “4) I have not been prepared enough to regularly participate in English in class” (reverse scored). The four items mainly focused on the *capacity* aspect of *perceived behavioral control/self-efficacy*.

Respondents were instructed that the term “participation” in the items of the questionnaire referred to “in-class behaviors such as volunteering an answer to the professor’s question (including raising a hand), asking the professor a question or a clarification, presenting your opinion in class, and volunteering to participate in class activities". Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with the items on a six-point Likert-type scale anchored by "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (6). A composite score was obtained by averaging the values of the items of each scale, with listwise deletion of entries with one or more missing responses, resulting in a final N = 130 respondents. Following Mak's (2011) recommendation for similar samples of Chinese ESL students, a neutral point was not included in the scales to force respondents to commit themselves; in this manner we tried to avoid having most responses clustered in the neutral mid-point. Before the administration of the questionnaire, the full research instrument was reviewed by a Chinese member of the University's Writing Center to assure that the items were understandable for the research participants. A full correlation table including all study variables is reported in Table 1. Visual inspection of the correlations among the constructs suggests that multicollinearity is not at issue in the dataset.

Variables	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Age	20.37	.52						
2. Gender[a]	1.26	.44	.23**					
3. Years of English	10.65	1.87	-.08	.14				
4. Intentions	4.75	.79	.01	-.18*	-.03			
5. Attitudes	4.99	.63	-.03	-.05	.11	.42**		
6. Norms	4.33	.75	.10	-.06	.08	.43**	.43**	
7. Self-efficacy	3.67	.87	.06	.02	-.07	.46**	.29**	.38**

[a] 1= male 2 = female

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$. Two-tailed Pearson's correlations. Listwise N = 130

Table 1: Correlation table.

Analysis and Results

Structured Equation Modeling and Theory Development

Early theory development is demanding. The relationships are unconfirmed and under investigation. The constructs are subject to scale items that are adapted from previous scales, which have been developed in other contexts as is the case here. Increasingly researchers are using structured equation modeling (SEM) for theory development (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). A study completed by Babin and Boles (1996) showed not only an increase in the use of SEM, but also that SEM-based research tended to be highly regarded by academics. SEM techniques represent an advance on existing multiple linear regression methods. In general, SEM has evolved into two major approaches: Covariance based (CB-SEM) and partial least squares based (PLS-SEM). CB-SEM optimizes path relationships among all constructs simultaneously, while minimizing model error.

PLS-SEM is directed more towards maximizing the R^2, namely the level of variance explained in the model, while minimizing the overall error term (Astrachan, Patel & Wanzenried, 2014; Hair *et al.*, 2014). The two approaches are complementary in general; however, for early theory development PLS-SEM is recommended (Astrachan *et al.*, 2014; Hair *et al.*, 2014). The advantage offered by PLS-SEM is that it enables retention of direct observable measures in contrast with the CB-SEM approach, which in the process of maximizing path relationships globally can result in elimination of measures that may still have meaningful face and/or content validity (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). Consequently, we have chosen PLS-SEM for our analysis of the empirical data collected. Figure 3 provides the initial model and path coefficients using the software SmartPLS 3.0 (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2014).

Evaluation of the PLS-SEM Model

Both the outer model and the inner model as shown in Figure 3 need to be evaluated. The outer model consists of the indicators (measures) and corresponding latent constructs. The inner model consists of the outcome variable and the path coefficients and the extracted R^2 or variance explained among other key parameters that need to be checked for acceptable and significant results. A series of steps are undertaken to validate the structural model as shown in Figure 3. The indicator loadings and average variance extracted from the indicator items are examined as well as the composite reliability and its analog to Cronbach's alpha.

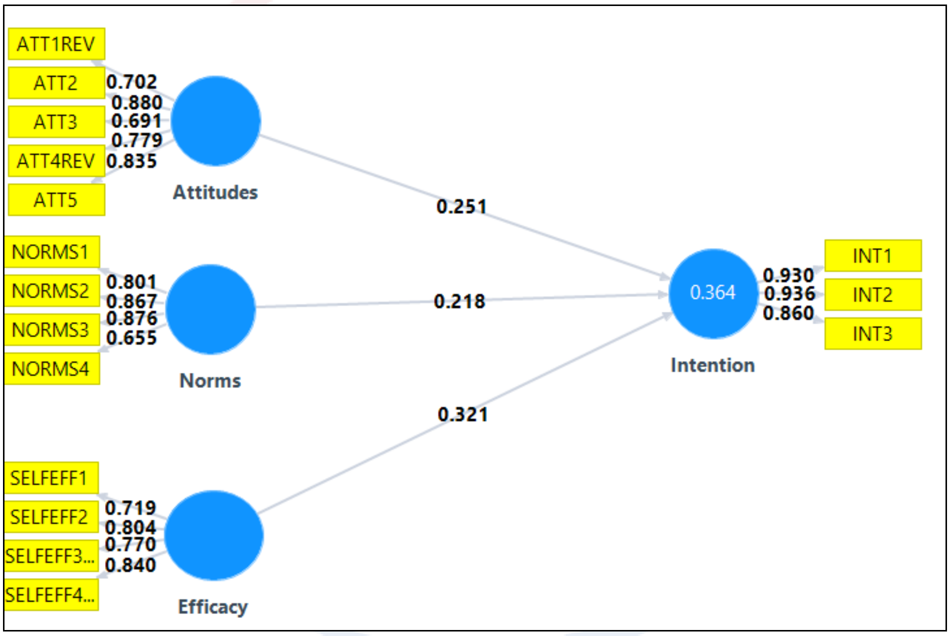

Figure 3: PLS-SEM based model.

Figure 3 illustrates that all indicator loadings exceeded the 0.7 criterion as suggested by Hair *et al.* (2014), except for one of the items related to norms, which was nonetheless retained since it was a borderline 0.655. Table 2 shows the composite reliabilities, Cronbach's alphas and average variance extracted (AVE) for each of the constructs.

	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	AVE
Attitudes	0.886	0.840	0.610
Norms	0.879	0.816	0.647
Efficacy	0.865	0.793	0.616
Intention	0.935	0.895	0.827

Table 2: Composite reliability, Cronbach's alpha, and AVEs.

Both composite reliability and the more conservative Cronbach's alpha are indices of internal consistency of the measures, i.e. all items are interrelated and measuring a similar latent construct. Indices between 0.6 and 0.7 are considered reliable (Hair *et al.*, 2014). In this case, all items range between 0.793 and 0.935 exceeding the benchmark of 0.7. The AVEs measure the convergent validity of the items and relevance to the latent construct. AVEs must exceed 0.5 to be meaningful (Hair *et al.*, 2014). The range of AVEs for the constructs is 0.61 to 0.827, hence they satisfy the requirement.

An important aspect of any model is to ensure that the constructs display discriminant validity. This ensures that the correlation between constructs (interconstruct correlations) does not exceed the AVE for each construct and is generally measured by the Fornell-Larcker criterion as shown in Table 3. Discriminant validity is satisfactory as the square root of AVEs is larger than the interconstruct correlations in each case (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair *et al.*, 2014).

	Attitudes	Norms	Efficacy	Intention
Attitudes	0.781			
Norms	0.451	0.805		
Efficacy	0.293	0.382	0.785	
Intention	0.444	0.478	0.478	0.909

Note: The square root of AVEs is shown on the diagonal. The interconstruct correlations are shown off-diagonal

Table 3: Fornell-Larcker Criterion for discriminant validity.

The next step is to examine the path coefficients and significance between the independent and the proposed outcome variable. Table 4 shows the path coefficients, relevant t-statistics and corresponding significance for each hypothesized relationship in the conceptual model.
As can be seen, each of the proposed hypotheses is accepted at comfortable levels of significance. The overall R^2 0.364 is moderate-low suggesting the model is meaningful in providing an explanation of the intention to participate concept.

One advantage of PLS-SEM based analysis is the ability to measure predictive relevance by a blindfolding procedure. Predictive relevance or Q^2 measures the ability of the model to predict the outcome variable indicators reliably, thus suggesting a degree of robustness. Values of Q^2 above zero suggest acceptable predictive relevance. In this case the Q^2 is a moderate 0.274.

	Path Coefficients	T Statistics (|O/STERR|)	P Values	Hypotheses - accept/reject
Att. -> Int.	0.251	3.022	0.003	Accept
Norms -> Int.	0.218	2.696	0.007	Accept
Eff. -> Int.	0.321	4.56	0	Accept
Overall R^2	0.364			

Table 4: Hypotheses and significance.

Discussion, Limitations and Future Directions

The results are significant and meaningful. The empirical data, albeit in a limited context, provided empirical support to the Theory of Planned Behavior as applied to intention to participate in a Chinese ESL context. All of the hypothesized drivers of intention to participate, namely attitudes, norms, and self-efficacy, have been shown to have meaningful path coefficients to intentions. As an additional significant aspect, our results validated the scales used for the present study and adapted from Aizen (2002), Armitage and Conner (1999), and Midgley *et al.* (2000). Such validation in a Chinese context speaks well for the robustness of the scales and their potential wider applicability.

The R^2 at 0.364, while satisfactory, suggests that further constructs may add to the explanatory power of the proposed model. In our future research, we intend to extend our TPB-based model by including additional relevant constructs, in particular "willingness to communicate" (MacIntyre *et al.*, 1998) and "communication anxiety" (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), which are two of the most studied constructs in the ESL literature (Ellis, 2012), as mentioned earlier. We are also interested in considering the role of "face-saving," an indigenous Chinese personality construct that has also been found to contribute to Chinese students' in-class participation (Zhong, 2013).

The most important limitation in the present study regards the relationship between intentions to participate and actual in-class participation (see figure 1). Intentions have been found to predict behavior quite well across many studies (Armitage & Connor, 2001; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Therefore, we assume a positive, causal relationship based on the premises of TPB. However, we did not provide any empirical evidence to support that fundamental hypothesis. In future research we need to address this limitation by including either direct observations or self-reports.

Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

Overall, our study encourages further TPB-based investigations in ESL courses and related contexts. Our model shows that attitudes, norms and perceived behavioral control/self-efficacy jointly influence Chinese students' intentions to participate in class. In particular, self-efficacy turned out to have the stronger correlation to intentions. This result highlights the importance of building students' confidence as an effective way to boost participation. Instructors, who wish to re-create the "conversational style lectures" typical of American education with their ESL Chinese students, should therefore continuously reinforce their students' perceived ability to participate. In other words, both instructors and students should be committed in not giving up.

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A Comparison of the Pedagogical Applicability of Two Approaches to Teaching English Word Stress Patterns

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Abstract
The present study has compared the pedagogical applicability of Dickerson's (1989) four word stress rules with Yamini's (1997) three word stress rules in the Iranian EFL context. The two different sets of rules were taught to 64 freshmen in an Iranian university, who were assigned to two homogenized groups of 32 students. At the end of fourteen-week instructions and after administering the post-test, it was confirmed, through an independent-samples t-test, that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. In other words, both approaches yielded similar results in predicting and detecting lexical stress in the Iranian EFL situation. Meanwhile, a paired t-test indicated that learning the rules of word stress and vowel quality patterns had improved the students' pronunciation to a great extent, in comparison with the results of the pre-test.

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Introduction

Lexical stress is an area of the sound system where the learner needs careful guidance from the teacher (Dickerson, 1989). It indicates the placement of stress on a specific syllable within a word. Correct word stress patterns are essential for the learner's production and perception of English. If a non-native speaker produces a word with the wrong stress pattern, an English listener may have difficulty understanding the word, even if most of the individual sounds have been well pronounced (Kenworthy, 1990).

"For many reasons, the centrality of word stress has not been appreciated by pronunciation teachers or materials developers" (Dickerson, 1981, p. 57). The researcher knows teachers who believe that there is no need for EFL students to get, even reasonable, mastery over correct stress patterns. They continue to believe that the goal is communication, and the important point is that a speaker be understood by a listener. But it should be borne in mind that students are good imitators. Whether a teacher pronounces the word adoLEscent, for example, with the correct stress on **é** or aDOlescent with a wrong stress on **ó,** students try their best to imitate him/her while they are not aware which pattern is right. It is the teacher's responsibility to provide students with accurate models.

Generally, in English, stress is variable, but this does not mean that we are allowed to put stress on whatever syllable we choose. The place of stress is predictable and rule-governed (Kreidler, 1993). If learners are taught how to accent a syllable or word on the basis of stress rules and how to pronounce it according to vowel quality patterns, provided that the rules are internalized, they will get equipped with a mobile dictionary of pronunciation in the mind and they need not look up the stress patterns of most English words in a dictionary. This necessitates the explicit teaching of lexical stress patterns as the correct placement of stress can affect the perception of comprehensibility, as well, "the degree to which a speaker's utterance is understood by a listener" (Tarone, 2005, p. 493). In the same line, Sardegna (2009) indicated that intensive instruction in the use of pronunciation learning strategies was effective for improving students' reading of English word stress. Also, Hismanoglu (2012) found that teaching word stress patterns to Turkish EFL learners had profound effects on their correct detection and utterance of stressed syllables.

Dickerson (1989) and Yamini (1997) are two researchers who have worked on lexical stress patterns in the English language. They have innovated two sets of different, but related rules by means of which they predict and detect stressed words or syllables. The purpose of this study is to compare and evaluate the applicability of these rules to the teaching of stress to Iranian EFL students. The two sets of stress rules are compared and investigated to see which one lends itself more readily, satisfactorily and effectively to language pedagogy. In addition to their stress rules, Dickerson and Yamini have originated different approaches to teaching vowel quality patterns. It is believed that learning stress rules by themselves without taking account of how individual elements of words, that is vowel and consonant letters, are pronounced does not guarantee adequate improvements in pronunciation and ultimately leads nowhere. Therefore, the researcher decided to provide a course in which vowel quality patterns were taught along with the rules of stress. Unfortunately, time limitations prohibited the treatment of equally important consonant rules.

This study was limited to a practical comparison of the predictive accuracy and pedagogical applicability of Dickerson's (1989) rules of primary stress and vowel quality patterns with those of Yamini's (1997). Other degrees of stress than the main do not concern us here, nor do the sounds of consonants. I will not attack the rhythm or intonation of the English sentences, either.

The linguists who first suggested applying rules for detecting stressed syllables were Yarmohammadi and Pouretedal, 1996, p. 8).They devised rules utilizing spelling as a guide to spot word stress. They showed that spelling patterns include enough information as to which syllables should be stressed. But their rules are only a theory and do not have any instructional value. "These rules, as they are, are not pedagogically applicable to EFL situations" (Yarmohammadi and Pouretedal, 1996, p. 8). Wayne Dickerson (1989) is an expert who translated Chomsky and Hallé's (1968) stress rules into a framework to be applicable to language pedagogy. He modified the previous rules for the learners to help them predict stress and vowel quality patterns through orthography, and devised his four word stress rules. For more pedagogical applicability, Dickerson's (1989) rules have been simplified and consolidated by Yarmohammadi (1996), whose work this author mostly benefits from in this study.

On the other hand, Yamini (1997) innovated a set of three word stress rules utilizing a numerical system in order to predict and detect word stress and vowel quality patterns. In his study, each vowel receives a number according to its position in the word. Although his work is different from Dickerson's in methodology, one could say that the two approaches are, to some extent, related because both of the scholars take spelling into consideration as a point of departure. In the following sections, Dickerson's and Yamini's approaches to teaching lexical stress and vowel quality patterns will be briefly discussed, respectively.

Dickerson's Four Word Stress Rules (Yarmohammadi, 1996)

To understand Dickerson's rules, the most requisite information is distinguishing two expressions basic in the application of the rules, namely the Key Syllable and the Left Syllable. "The Key Syllable is the last vowel spelling pattern and all extra letters at the end of a word or before an ending" (Dickerson, 1981, p. 63). Examples:

relev/ANT (V stands for a vowel letter and C for a consonant.)
VCC = the Key Syllable

forg/ET tomat/O bes/IDE
VC Key (K) V K VCe K
(In this system, a word-final **e** after a consonant letter is not considered a vowel.)

"The Left Syllable is the vowel spelling pattern and all extra letters immediately to the left of the Key" (Dickerson, 1981, p. 64). Examples:

un/EV/en pr/AGM/atism c/IRC/ul/ar/ly
Left/K K / Ending (E) L /K/ E/ E

It should be noticed that both the Key and the Left syllables begin with a vowel letter.

As for endings, they are of two types, neutral and stress-governing (Dickerson, 1981 and Yamini, 1997). Neutral endings, such as **-s**, **-'s**, **-ly**, **-ful**, and **-ness**, have no effects on the placement of stress or on vowel quality patterns. By contrast, stress-governing endings, such as **-al**, and **-ion (-on)**, have deep effects on both stress and vowel quality. It is therefore important to distinguish the two types of endings. The relevant criteria are simple. All neutral endings start with a consonant letter, whereas all stress-governing endings begin with a vowel letter. With regard to stress assignment, neutral endings are treated as 'invisible'. Neither Yamini nor Dickerson takes neutral endings into account when assigning stress to words. In other words, whenever they talk of endings, they mean stress-governing endings.

1. Prefix Weak Accent Rule (PWAR)

> ***From the Key: Accent Left but not a prefix. If you can't accent Left, accent Key.***

In all the four rules, stress is assigned on the basis of endings, and different endings belong to different rules. In other words, it is only after recognizing the nature of endings that it will be possible to decide on which rule to operate. In the domain of rule number one are the following endings: (In the examples, **P** stands for a prefix or part of a prefix and **N** for a neutral ending.)

No	Category	Parts of Speech	Examples
1	Short Verbs	verbs	l/IM/it, def/INE L /K P/ K
2	-ible Keys	noun, adj, adv	v/IS/ible/ness, dig/EST/ible L/ K / N P/ L /K
3	-able	noun, adj, adv	m/EM/or/able, appr/OV/able L /K/ E P / K / E
4	-age	noun, adj	c/OV/er/age, adv/ANT/age L /K/ E P / K / E
5	-al	noun	cANNibal, commITTal
6	-ar	noun, adj, adv	pOPular, subsOLar
7	-ary	noun, adj, adv	sECRetary, prelIMinary
8	-atism	noun	prAGMatism,consERVatism
9	-atist	noun	dOGMatists
10	-ative	noun, adj, adv	tALKatively
11	-atize	verb	AUTomatizes
12	-atory	noun, adj, adv	mIGRatory
13	-ature	noun	lITerature
14	-en	all words	cITizens
15	-er	noun, adj, adv	thermOMeter
16	-ery	noun, adj	wATeriness
17	-ive	noun, adj, adv	sENsitive
18	-or	noun, adj	profESSor
19	-ory	noun, adj, adv	cATegory
20	-ure	noun	advENTure

Table 1: PWAR

As an example, in the word AVerage, ***-age*** is the ending, ***-er-*** the Key, and ***-av-*** is the Left. According to the rule we stress –**av-** because the Left is not part of a prefix. But in the word refORMatory, **re-** is a prefix and cannot, as the rule says, carry stress, so the Key is accented.

2. V/VC Weak Accent Rule (VWAR)

From a V or VC Key: Accent Left. If you can't accent Left, accent Key.

In the word domains of the VWAR are some endings other than the ones mentioned in the previous rule domain.

No	Category	Parts of Speech	Examples
1	-ic Keys	all words	acad/EM/ic, hist/OR/ic L /K L /K
2	-al	verb, adj, adv	t/OT/al/ly, ext/ERN/al L /K/N L/ K / E
3	-an	noun, adj, adv	AFR/ic/an, h/UM/an/ly L /K/ E K / E/ N
4	-ance	noun	tOLerance, abUNDance
5	-ancy	noun	ELegancy, relUCTancy
6	-ant	noun, adj, adv	cONSonant, IGNorantly
7	-ence	noun	exISTence, indepENDence
8	-ency	noun	AGencies, inconsISTency
9	-ent	noun, adj, adv	prESident, absORBent
10	-is	noun	EMphasis, megAPolis
11	-oid	noun	dELToid, trAPezoid
12	-ous	adj, adv	gENerous, nERVousness
13	-um	noun	OPTimum, referENDum

Table 2: VWAR

For instance, in the word prESident, the Key Syllable ***-id-*** is a VC, so stress moves to the Left. However, in referENDum, the Key Syllable ***-end-*** is not a V or VC but a VCC, and according to the rule, the Left cannot be stressed, so accent must stay on the Key.

3. Key Strong Accent Rule (KSAR)

For strong sequences: Accent the Key Syllable.

Strong sequences are of two groups:

1) ia, iate, iable, ience, ion, etc., which begin with **i** and are called **iV** sequences; and
2) ea, eal, ean, eum, eous, etc., which start with **e** and are termed as **eV** sequences.

The reason why they are called sequences and not endings is that endings, obviously, occur at the final positions of words, but these strings appear both word finally and medially. The domain of this rule is as follows. (In the examples, S stands for a strong sequence.)

No	**Category**	**Examples**
1	Strong iV sequences	m/ED/iate, adv/ERB/ial, ass/OC/iate K / S K / S K / S VirgINia, CanADian, sEriously OPium, evolUTion, disobEDience intERior, automATion, promOTion
2	Strong eV sequences	OC/ean, petr/OL/eum, simult/AN/eous/ly K / S K / S K/ S / N lINear, AReas, stEReo, NapOLeon

Table 3: KSAR

4. Left Strong Accent Rule (LSAR)

For terminals and short nouns: Accent the Left Syllable.

In short, terminals are the last spelling patterns of long words of three or more syllables in their uninflected forms. Because the last spelling patterns of long words which have not been treated by the previous rules are neither an ending nor a sequence, the expression terminal is used. In words with terminals, the Key is the vowel spelling pattern and all extra letters immediately to the left of the terminal. Furthermore, short nouns are nouns with only two syllables in their uninflected forms. Here, the Key is the last spelling pattern and all extra letters at the end of the word. The following are the word domains of the LSAR. (T stands for a terminal.)

No	Category	Parts of Speech	Examples
1	-acy (a unit)	long noun	c/OMP/lic/acy, ULT/im/acy L / K/ T L / K/ T
2	-ate	long words	cert/IF/ic/ate, ass/IM/il/ate L/ K/ T L /K/ T
3	-ish	long adj	dr/AG/on/ish, cl/EV/er/ish/ly L / K/ T L /K/ T / N
4	-ism	long noun	met/AB/ol/ism, cr/IT/ic/ism L /K/ T L/K/ T
5	-ist	long noun	cOMMunist, ecONomist
6	-ize (-ise)	long verb	rECognizing, fOSSilize
7	-y	long noun	electrICity, photOGRaphy
8	-y	long -fy words	clARifying, sATisfy
9	Other Terminals	long noun, verb, adj	bOOMerang, cONSTitute tELegram, phOTograph
10	Short Nouns	short noun	stOMach, mODern EXPert, lIZard

Table 4: LSAR

Yamini's Three Word Stress Rules (Yamini, 1997)

In Yamini's system a numerical approach is used. From the end of the word toward the beginning each vowel is assigned a number according to the place it is in. That is, the last vowel on the right gets number 1, the second number 2 and so on and so forth. The consonants are numbered 0. Consonant clusters of two or more are assigned 00, but no more 0s because clusters of more consonants will not affect the stress and vowel quality pattern of the word.

Examples: d I f f e r e n t , g l O b a l
300 20 1 2 0 1

Yamini's rules are briefly explained in the following.

1. The 2001 Stress Rule

1) N= 2001 / 2X*1 → 2´ (N stands for number)
2) N= <u>32</u>01 → 4´
3) N< 2001 → 3´
4) 3∅ → ´2

If the number is 2001, or if 2 is followed by 001 or X, the number 2 vowel receives the main stress.
Examples:

```
depEndent ,  cOmmonly ,  avOidance
  2001         20 0 1        2X01
```

In assigning numbers to vowels, one may come across combinations of vowels. Care should be taken not to go wrong. It should be asserted that the combinations of two vowels which begin with **a**, **e**, or **o** are numbered differently from those beginning with **u** or **i**. When numbering, in the former case the rightmost vowel is marked as an 'X' and the left vowel is given a suitable number in accordance with its position in the word. Examples:

```
accOuntant ,  convEyance
  2X001          2X1
```

In the latter, the combinations starting with **u** or **i** are assigned two consecutive numbers in accordance with their positions in the word. Examples:

```
convEntional ,  profEssion
   4003201        30021
```

In cases where two consecutive numbers form 32, the stress may be shifted to 4. Examples:

```
educAtional ,  substitUtional
   403201          403201
```

This is true provided that stress does not stay on 2. In the word oriEntal, for example, the 2001 is made, thus the stress falls on the penultimate syllable although there is a 32 in the word. If the number thus made is less than 2001, the left of the number, that is 3, is stressed. Examples:

```
cOnsonant ,  temptAtion
 300201        3021
```

In case there is no 3, 2 will carry the main stress. Examples:

```
tOtal ,  prIvate
 201      201
```

The following endings are in the domain of the 2001 Stress Rule.

No	Endings	Examples
1	-al (not in nouns)	a b d O m i n al, f A t a l l y 3 0 2 0 1 2 01
2	-an	A l A s k a n, C A s p i a n 2 0 0 1 3 00 21
3	-ance	a b U n d a n c e, d I s t a n c e s 2 0 0 1 200 1
4	-ancy	expEctancy
5	-ant	impOrtant
6	-ence	Evidence
7	-ency	consIstency
8	-ent (not in verbs)	absOrbent
9	-ic	d i p l o m A t i c, p h o t o g r A p h i c 3 02 3 0 0 2
10	-id (in adjectives)	t I m i d, f r I g i d n e ss 3 0 2 3 0 2
11	-is	megApolis
12	-(it)y	c o m p l E x i t y, a b I l i t y 3 0 201 302 01
13	-oid	dEltoid, trApezoid
14	-on	irritAtion, o b s e r v A t i o n a l 4 0 23 01
15	-ous	nErvously, cUriousness
16	-um	cAlcium, Opium

Table 5: The 2001 stress rule domain

In Yamini's terms, endings and combinations of endings equal 1. But there are endings that equal 2, -ic and -id in the 2001 Stress Rule and -ible in the 3/2 Stress Rule (to be discussed in the next part). Then E (+E)= 1 but ‹-ic›, ‹-id› and ‹-ible›= 2 (E stands for a stress-governing ending. As was stated earlier, neutral endings are not accounted for in both of the approaches.

2. The 3/2 Stress Rule

To apply this rule, certain practice with prefixes is necessary in addition to the information about the endings that fall under the domain of this rule.

1) 3-p → 3′ (p = prefix)
2) 3+p → 2′
3) 3∅ → 2′

In this rule 3-p is a vowel that carries number 3 and is not part of a prefix whereas 3+p is a number 3 vowel that constitutes part of a prefix. The rule says: In stressing words with certain endings (listed below), stress vowel number 3 if it is not part of a prefix. If it is, return to the previous vowel, that is, number 2, and put the stress mark on it.
Examples:

h E r i t a g e, c U s t o m a r y, a d j U s t a b l e, p r o p O s a l
3 02 01 3 0 02 0 1 3002 00 1 3 0 2 0 1

In the domain of the 3/2 Stress Rule are the endings below.

No	Endings	Examples
1	-ible	v I s i b l e n e s s, d i g E s t i b l e 3 0 2 3 0 02
2	-able	m E m o r a b l e, d i s p r O v a b l e 3 0 201 3 00 2 0 1
3	-age	c ó v e r a g e, a d v á n t a g e 3 02 0 1 3 0 0 2 00 1
4	-al (in nouns)	cAnnibal
5	-ar	pOpularly
6	-ary	sEcondary
7	-atism	dOgmatism
8	-atist	prAgmatist
9	-ative	nEgatively
10	-atize	cInematizing
11	-atory	lAboratory
12	-ature	lIterature, mIniature
13	-e (in verbs)	p r o m O t e, d e f I n e 3 0 2 01 30 20 1
14	-en	frOzen
15	-er	bAárbers
16	-ery	sUrgeries
17	-ive	sEnsitiveness
No	**Endings**	**Examples**
18	-or	dirEctor
19	-ory	tErritory
20	-ure	advEnture

Table 6: The 3/2 stress rule domain

In both of the approaches verbs are treated in a different way. In Yamini's approach, short verbs are categorized under the domain of the 3/2 Stress Rule. Short verbs are verbs of less than three syllables. In both approaches, verbs of three or more syllables ending in -ate, -(f)y and -ize(-ise) are excluded. They are treated, in Yamini's and Dickerson's, in the 3-1 rule (to be discussed in the next part) and LSAR respectively.

According to the 3/2 Stress Rule, verbs' last vowels on the right get number 2 and not number 1 if they do not have an ending or **e** at the end. Examples:

f o r g E t , s u p p l Y , p r o v I d e d , d e v O t e
3 00 2 3 0 0 2 3 02 0 1 3 0 2 01

3. The 3-1 Stress Rule

The remaining words that are not accented through the two previous rules are accounted for in the 3-1 Stress Rule. This rule is so called because if there is a 3 in words of this rule, it will be stressed. Vowel number 1 receives a degree of stress which is not, of course, the primary stress. Degrees of stress other than the main do not concern us here. The following are the word domains of the 3-1 Stress Rule.

No	Endings	Examples
1	-acy	c A n d i d a c y, i l l I t e r a c y 3 0 0 2 01 3 02 01
2	-ate	c e r t I f i c a t e, c O n c e n t r a t e d 30 201 3 0 0 2 00 E+E=1
3	-ish (adj)	drAgonish, clEverish
4	-ism	c A p i t a l i s m, eclEcticism 3 0 20 E+E=1
5	-ist	ecOnomist, graphOlogist
6	-ize (-ise)	fOssilize, rEcognizing
7	-y	technOlogy, psychothErapy
8	-(f)y	idEntify, dissAtisfies
9	Long words with other endings	pAragraph, bOOmerang, tElegram Opposite, rIdicule, sUbstitute
10	Short nouns	Expert, hAzard, pAnel

Table 7: The 3-1 stress rule domain

The rule 3-1 goes well with Dickerson's LSAR although both have the same shortcoming. The problem with the rules is that nouns and verbs of the same spelling cannot be accented with certainty. Consider the following examples:

Verbs (3/2 & PWAR)	**Nouns** (3-1 & LSAR)
condUct	cOnduct
incrEase	Increase
rebEl	rEbel
suspEct	sUspect

In the words above, the verbs carry the main stress on the last syllable and the nouns on the first. However, there are many bisyllabic nouns that are stressed on the final syllable.

Examples: **Verbs & Nouns**
advAnce, concErn, repOrt, surprise, contrOl

The verbs in this list are correctly stressed by the 3/2 Stress Rule and PWAR; but the nouns which should follow the 3-1 and LSAR act as exceptional cases. Therefore, it can be claimed that the rules for short nouns in both approaches are not as accurate as the other rules.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of the study were 64 EFL students, both male and female, of an Iranian university. The reason why these students were selected was that they had insufficient background about stress patterns, and their only knowledge of stress originated from the previous instruction they had received in high school.

Instruments

In order to determine the subjects' entry level of competence in recognizing stressed vowels, a test of a hundred and fifty items, devised by the researcher, was administered to the subjects. This test comprised three parts. Part A intended to evaluate the participants' capability in attending to and marking stressed vowels of English words in isolation. In part B, they listened to fifty words which they had on their papers and were expected to detect and mark the stressed vowels. Part C required the testees to produce words orally with careful concentration on correct stress patterns. In this part, the spoken data were audio-taped for further evaluation.

To design the test, the researcher included words in all the domains of both Dickerson's and Yamini's rules with great care. In other words, different words governed by different rules were almost of equal frequency in the distribution to ascertain the subjects' acquaintance with stress patterns in different given situations.

Moreover, through the administration of the Oxford Quick Placement Test (2004), the subjects' proficiency was evaluated. This test, together with the test of stress, was the tool by means of which the participants were homogenized. According to the scores they made in the two tests, they were paired and then assigned randomly to two groups.

Procedure

The test of stress served two functions, as a pre-test and a post-test. As a pre-test it sought to figure out the subjects' entry performance. The participants had to be divided into two groups so that they could be instructed according to the two different approaches. An independent-samples t-test was used to ensure that no significant difference existed between the two groups.

The participants took part in stress classes as part of their regular course work and during their scheduled class time. This course was part of their conversation course and was instructed once a week for 90 minutes. The students knew that they were going to be evaluated and get grades on the subject matter at the end of the semester, so they closely followed the course. The words selected to work on in class, the exercises assigned for homework, the way materials were presented, and even the way the instructor treated the students were the same for both classes. The only difference was that each group worked on a different set of rules.

The period of instruction was confined to fourteen sessions for each group during which the demonstration of the rules was accompanied by various examples to help the participants internalize the rules. In the process of teaching, examples were adapted from Dickerson (1989), Yarmohammadi (1996), Yarmohammadi and Pouretedal (1996), Yamini (1997), and *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary* (2005). But the best source that the researcher took advantage of was a great software dictionary which, in fact, facilitated the task of finding words with certain endings: *Random house Webster's unabridged dictionary on CD-ROM* (1999).

As a post-test, the test of stress patterns attempted to determine the subjects' achievement at the end of the semester as their terminal behavior. The nature of the post-test, the stages of evaluation and the way the exam papers were marked were the same as those of the pre-test. The only difference therein was the administration of a new part consisting of 10 nonsense words which carried the endings practiced in class, which could be pronounced correctly according to the rules. Some examples are **imborate**, **pantalimary** and **napitorion.** The researcher's intention was to observe how the subjects would react to, or pronounce, these nonsense words. In other words, the participants were supposed to apply the rules of stress and vowel quality patterns to words not existing in English, hence the degree of the applicability of the approaches. This was a reasonable strategy to ascertain the subjects' internalization of the rules. It should be mentioned that the participants were unaware that the 10 words were man-made.

Results

In order to compare the mean scores of both groups of the participants, an independent-samples t-test was utilized twice, once after the pre-test to prove the homogeneity of the two groups, and another time after the post-test to compare the applicability of the two approaches to teaching stress patterns. Furthermore, through a paired t-test, the degree of achievement the subjects had made toward the end of the semester was measured.

Based on the data collected through the pre-test, the subjects were homogenized, paired and then assigned to two groups. It was necessary to ensure that there was no statistically significant difference between the means of the two sets of scores made by the two groups. To fulfill this requirement, the researcher had to conduct a t-test the results of which are given in the following table.

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Var. assumed Var. not assumed	.621	.444	-.07 -.07	52.16 52.34	.944 .944	-.08375 -.08375	-.5555 -.5555

Table 8: T-test results of the pre-test

As can be seen, the level of significance is .944; therefore, the mean scores of the two groups were not significantly different in the initial stage of the research. In other words, the participants' proficiency and their knowledge of stress were almost equal in both classes.

After the instruction period, when the subjects were tested in the post-test, the collected data were analyzed to make certain whether or not the two approaches created any difference. It was confirmed that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. That is to say, the two approaches, Dickerson's and Yamini's, were equally applicable in language pedagogy.

As was discussed earlier, 10 nonsense words not existing in the English language were made, which the students were asked to produce orally as part of the post-test. The logic behind was to judge whether the rules could be applied to completely new words. Table 9 demonstrates the results of the post-test of stress plus nonsense words disregarding the participants' scores of the placement test. It illustrates that the significance value is .727, which means the two sets of scores are not significantly different.

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Var. assumed Var. not assumed	.572	.222	-.35 -.35	52.21 52.42	.727 .727	-2.4815 -2.4815	-.3333 -.3333

Table 9: Results of the post-test of stress plus nonsense words

At the beginning of the semester the course started based on the assumption that the two approaches to teaching patterns of stress did not have any superiority over one another, so in the initial stage a so-called null hypothesis was formed. At the end of the research the collected data supported the stated idea, and therefore the null hypothesis was not rejected. But there still remains a word that is worth mentioning.

As a personal experience, the researcher noticed that the students who were taught with Yamini's rules showed great interest, and managed to learn the rules much more easily than those instructed with Dickerson's rules. As the course progressed the instructor got more aware that detecting stressed vowels and practicing vowel quality patterns were much stimulating for the students working with numbers, utilizing Yamini's approach. They could remember numbers and practice the internalization of the related rules much readily. But for the students applying Dickerson's approach, working with the Key and Left syllables brought about some difficulty. They needed a lot of practice to distinguish syllables, and therefore much class time was spent on that requisite skill. Therefore, after the instruction period and before administering the post-test, the researcher did not expect the two approaches to be equally effective, but to his surprise, the results did not yield any significant difference between the two.

Having observed no significant difference between the approaches, the re-searcher operated a paired t-test in order to find out how much, or how little, each group had progressed in comparison to its entry performance of the pre-test. After all, he wanted to answer the question of whether teaching stress and vowel quality rules were beneficial per se. The paired t-test yielded the following results.

Pairs	Tests	Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
1	1 - 2	-4.632	5.711	.926	15.47	26	.001

Table 10: Paired t-test results (Group 1)

Pairs	Tests	Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
1	1 - 2	-5.237	6.153	.998	22.20	26	.000

Table 11: Paired t-test results (Group 2)

The variables in Table 14 are the post-test of stress for group 1, regardless of the test of nonsense words and the pre-test of stress. In Table 15 the variables are the same as above but for group 2. Table 14 shows that the result is significant at .001 level while in Table 15 the significant level is .000. So, it is quite apparent that the participants have gained throughout the course. That is, learning the rules of stress and vowel quality patterns has been very fruitful and the students have bettered their pronunciation a good deal.

Discussion and conclusion

Based on the assumption that the pronunciation of English words is predictable and rule-governed, the present study attempted to compare two sets of pedagogically-applicable stress rules innovated by two phoneticians, Yamini and Dickerson. The goal has been to help university students predict the pronunciation of the new words they come across.

When the course started, the assumption was that both approaches were going to generate similar results and there was no superiority of one over the other. As the course progressed, the researcher observed that learning the rules of stress and vowel quality patterns created much interest and enthusiasm among the participants because that was something new and the university had not provided any course of the kind before. This eagerness was considerably greater among the students taught with Yamini’s rules in comparison with their counterparts in the other group.

It was observed that for the students working with numbers learning the rules was simpler and more straightforward than for those students working with the Key and Left syllables. That is why the researcher did not really expect the two approaches to produce comparable outcomes. The only rules which can be said to cause almost the same degree of difficulty and confusion for the subjects were Dickerson’s PWAR and Yamini’s 3/2 Stress Rule. Both of these rules require detailed knowledge of the nature of the English prefixes, and much time and energy had to be devoted to the recognition of prefixes in the English words. Most of the exceptions the students could find were related to the domains of these two rules.

However, it deserves to be noticed that whether or not the rules are easy to learn and understand, they cannot be helpful unless they are internalized. In other words, stopping to think about the rules will detract from the accuracy, fluency and natural flow of speech. One does not become an expert in the pronunciation of the English words immediately after learning the rules. It is only through practice and rehearsal that the knowledge becomes automatic. Therefore, the author suggests that more time be spent on teaching and practicing pronunciation rules.

As stated earlier, the author anticipated that Yamini’s approach would be more applicable. Nevertheless, when the post-test was administered, statistics did not support his belief. Although a paired t-test confirmed that the students’ pronunciation had improved a lot, an independent samples t-test supported that there existed no significant difference between the two approaches. It is concluded from the study that teaching pronunciation rules to EFL students yields fruitful results no matter which one of the approaches is adopted.

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Multiple Assessment Strategies and Rubrics for the 4Cs of 21st Century Skills

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Abstract

Project-based learning (PBL) is an active learner-centered pedagogy that focuses on collaborating with classmates through deep discussions to create a solution or solve a problem on a real-world issue. PBL is an effective and enjoyable way to develop deeper learner competencies that are required for 21st century success in college, career, and civic life (Buck Institute for Education [BIE], n.d.). PBL is especially fitting for English as foreign language (EFL) classrooms because it provides the learner with a clear and meaningful exchange of communication through the combined skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. At the same time, PBL promotes the development for the 4Cs of 21st century skill competencies- critical thinking, creativity, communication, and collaboration. This article is divided into two parts. First, the literature review will look at the background and research on PBL and 21st century skills which leads to the research question of students' perception on PBL and its effectiveness in enhancing students' understanding of the importance of the 4 Cs of 21st century skills in language learning in English classes at a Japanese university. The second part will connect these findings to address the need for alternative ways to assess PBL and propose multiple assessment strategies and rubrics based on the 4Cs of 21st century skills. By customizing Greenstein's (2012) rubrics to fit EFL needs, these new alternative assessments can help teachers to easily implement PBL and the 21st century skills, as they are both an imperative part of the English language awareness process.

Keywords: project-based learning, 21st Century Skills, assessments

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Introduction

Project-based learning (PBL) pedagogy is gaining more recognition in Japanese universities, however, many classes are still taught in a traditional teacher-centered style which limits verbal exchange among students and the teacher. In English language programs, group work and pair work activities are highly favored, however PBL has not yet planted its roots into English language programs at most Japanese universities. One reason lies on the assumptions around the difficulties in assessing individual students' learning. English language assessments have generally focused on native-English speaker attainment looking at grammatical accuracy or native speaker norms by separating each of the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. However, the world is changing as English as a lingua franca (ELF) is used among non-native speakers. In accordance, this research takes place at a Japanese university that approaches the study of English by Japanese students with a focus on what Canagarajah (2006) states as the developing of new norms as they use English for lingua franca communication rather than English as a homogeneous language characterized by a uniform norm or grammatical system (p.231-232). Under the literature review, the research finds positive implications for implementing PBL into an EFL class because of its focus on proficiency in terms of performance and pragmatics, rather than, linguistic competence, grammatical accuracy, and memorized information. PBL especially develops certain 21st century skills, known as the 4Cs: critical thinking, creativity, communication, and collaboration as necessary tools that lead to successful and competent students and employees.

Literature Review

Project-based learning (PBL) has been introduced into many classrooms across disciplines for its support of 21st century learning skills also known as success skills essential for college and career readiness. Partnership for 21st Century Skills (n.d.) is a coalition of top businesses and education policy makers and they developed the multi-dimensional Framework for 21st Century Learning to help students visualize that learning does not take place only by studying core subjects. There are four main components of the 21st century skills are: core subjects; learning and innovation skills; information, media and technology skills such as ICT literacy; and life and career skills (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, n.d). Learning and innovation skills are those possessed by students who are prepared for the 21st century and include the 4Cs: Critical thinking and problem solving, Creativity and innovation, Communication, and Collaboration.

PBL is an effective method for building these 4Cs through engaging students with meaningful real-life challenges and creative problem-solving tasks. However, due to the two-fold rise in PBL users especially in the United States, it also means that many teachers are not adhering to the original principles that differentiates a PBL from regular projects. In response, Larmer (2015) revised the previous PBL model by launching a three-part comprehensive *Gold Standard PBL* in early 2015. First, PBL must focus on the students' learning goals of key knowledge, understanding and 21st century skills. Second, the PBL must have the essential product design elements: 1) a driving questions or challenging problem; 2) sustained inquiry; 3) authenticity; 4) student voice and choice; 5) reflection; 6) critique and revision; 7) public product.

Third, the *Gold Standard PBL* provides guidelines for teachers to adhere to when doing the PBL.

Bender reviews primary research findings on the positive research-based outcomes of PBL and its increased engagement with the learning content. In one meta-analysis research by Gijbels and his team, findings showed that "students may improve as much as 30 percent in their understanding of concepts as a result for project-based learning (2012, p.34)". PBL also helps students to become critical thinkers through well-thought out decisions, and reasoned judgement because PBL provides students with authentic, to-date material through on-line research by scanning, evaluating, and synthesizing the information to make a further discovery in the thought processes. Many researchers have also linked evidence of motivation through PBL and students have demonstrated improved attitudes toward learning. Students exhibit more engagement, are more self-reliant, and have better attendance than in more traditional settings (Walker and Leary, 2009) and "enhanced retention of information because students are processing information in a distinctly different manner than is typically involved in rote learning (Bender, 2012, p.34)".

In terms of the importance of collaboration, according to Vygotsky (1978), the Zone of Proximal Development is the area of developmental processes that function only when a child is interacting with the people in his environment and in cooperation with his or her peers (p.90) and reflects closely to the reasons behind the needs to collaborate in order to learn and grow from their peers. There are many positive implications for implementing PBL, it may be best summarized by Bender (2012) who states that the use of modern technology tools are also changing the very fabric of schooling by reformulating the teaching/learning process in a fundamental way and students are no longer passive consumers of knowledge, but students are now producers of knowledge (p.37) and it is the 21st century skills and PBL that leads students to "build their own thinking toolkit- the tools that helps students to become confident, productive thinkers and project doers (Kraus and Boss, 2013, p.43)".

Part I: Research

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to find out student perceptions of 21st century skills as an important part of PBL. If the findings showed a strong correlation of the two, then further studies would continue in creating EFL criterion that can be used to assess 21st century skills in PBL through rubrics adapted from Greenstein (2012).

i. To find out the students' perception of project-based learning and its effectiveness in enhancing students' understanding of the importance of the 4 Cs of 21st century skills in language learning.
ii. To develop new criterion for EFL rubrics on the 4Cs of 21st century skills and competencies as a formative assessment

The Subjects

The first part of the research goal was carried out to 59 participants at a Japanese university. The students ranges from 19-20 years old, and are beginner level students.

The English program at the university is based on an English as a lingua franca curriculum which places the goal on successful communication through use of strategies rather than grammatical accuracy and native-like pronunciation.

Procedure

The class used a PBL methodology to approach the topics of three chapters of an EFL textbook. Each chapter had a key topic which became the underlying subject of the driving question of the PBL. Each chapter followed the essential product design elements and followed the same procedure. First, sustained inquiry, the students read materials in the course textbook for schematic reading and critical understanding of the subject and vocabulary. Second, authenticity was reinforced by introducing photos, news clips, documentaries, interviews, speeches, and other internet sites that invited discussion on the subject. Whenever possible, other authentic sources are introduced to support linkage of the subject matter to an issue that is closer to home including local, regional, or national situations in order to provide more relevance and increased interest. Students were divided into groups of six students or less.

The students worked on the driving question giving them ample voice and choice to navigate the direction of the project. Throughout the process, each student automatically used the 4Cs because the collaboration was the key component to increase critical thinking through deep discussions and communication. This in turn led to the creation of their creative product or creative problem solving steps. Students were given support by the instructor through formative assessments through checklists, reflection journals, interviews and teacher scaffolding. Next, the students entered the critique and revision process where the students needed to synthesize their ideas to complete the final design of their product and final presentation. The final presentation of their product or solution was presented by their team. At the end of the three projects, the survey was given to each student to see if their 4Cs of 21st century skills had improved through the PBL and if it was important to their English learning.

Research Instrument

A survey of seven questions focused on the 21st century skills and was administered to the participants at the end of the semester. The survey used a 5-point Likert scale measurement for each item: (1) Strongly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Neither Disagree nor Agree; (4) Agree; (5) Strongly Agree.

The survey questions

1. I learned the importance of collaboration with peers on projects and I think this is helpful for me to learn English.
2. I learned to critically think about a problem in comparison to before this class.
3. I gained creative thinking skills through the projects.
4. I learned presentation structure and communicating through group presentations.
5. I learned to study independently/autonomy.
6. I think PBL is helpful for me to learn English.
7. I think PBL motivated me to learn English.

Results and Data Analysis

From this research, the analysis yielded statically strong findings (Table 1) in questions on each of the 4Cs. The first question on the importance of collaboration, yielded 67% strongly agreed and 27% agreed with 0% neither, disagreed, or strongly disagreed. The second question asked if students' critical thinking improved since prior to starting the PBLs yielded that 59% strongly agreed and 30% agreed. Although, explicit teaching of critical thinking was not taught in the classroom, the methodology of the PBL gave the students the life-time skills of discussing, interpreting, evaluating and synthesizing various viewpoints as a form of reasoning. The third question, 55% of the respondents strongly agreed and 41% agreed in gaining creative thinking through the project as the PBL gave complete control to the students to be creative and innovative. The respondents for increased communication through group presentation showed the strongest approval with 75% strongly agreed and 22% agreed as the collaborative nature of the presentation was a motivating factor.

Table 1: Responses to student's perception on PBL and 4Cs

Questions n=59	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neither (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	Median
1. I learned the importance of <u>collaboration</u> with peer on projects and I think this is helpful for me to learn English.	0	0	5.1	27.1	67.8	4.63
2. I learned to <u>critically think</u> about a problem in comparison to before this class.	0	0	10.2	30.5	59.3	4.49
3. I gained <u>creative thinking</u> skills through the projects	0	0	2.8	41.6	55.6	4.53
4. I learned presentation structure and c<u>ommunicating</u> through group presentations	0	0	1.7	22.4	75.9	4.74
5. I learned to study independently/<u>Autonomy</u>	0	0	8.3	47.2	44.5	4.36
6. I think PBL is helpful for me to <u>learn</u> English	0	0	0	33.3	66.7	4.67
7. I think PBL <u>motivated</u> me to learn English.	0	0	13.6	18.6	67.8	4.54

PBL helped students to be independent but students responses were slightly low as 44% strongly agreed, 47% agreed, and 8% said neither disagree or agree. This is possibly because the group aspect of the project did not give the students a feeling of independence, yet, it was not teacher-centered therefore, the learner-centered area is a form of autonomous learning. As predicted, over 65% strongly agreed and responded that PBL is helpful for them to learn English. PBL motivated them to learn English also showed strong approval at 67% strongly agree and 18% agreed. However, 13% responded neither calling for the motivation factor as not as high as the 4Cs.

Part II. Future assessment directions

From the above survey results, a strong correlation between PBL for language learners and the development of the 4Cs of 21st Century Skills can be concluded. As the next step, focus on the development of criterion for multiple assessments and rubrics need to be developed in order to better gauge the learning of the PBL through the 21st century skills.

There are a variety of assessment methods to carryout formative assessments. For example, use self-reflection sheets, peer/group reflection, collaborative assessments (Teacher-student), open-ended and closed surveys, checklists and journals. PBL can be a difficult experience for new teachers and many use a formative assessment placing a large weight of the grade on the final presentation. But a study by Van den Bergh et al. (2006) found that many of their instructors were using different ways to assess a PBL program and differed greatly from one teacher to the other causing a discomfort in reliability. Students disliked that in some groups all students were given the same grade while in other groups grades differed and were individualized. PBL have been evaluated by a wide range of assessment methods that are in line with the educational goals, and instructional principles of new learner environment and toward relevant and authentic measures of learning (Greenstein, 2012, p.16). This is further supported with Mergendoller who stated “there is one more element, however, that needs to be added to this mix – formative assessment and feedback (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, n.d., p.1)”.

The holistic rubrics (Table 2) are one type of formative assessments. Greenstein outlines the criterion for rubrics based on the 21st Century Skills and the sub-skills that can be used for PBL. The rubrics can be broken down into a scale of four levels of proficiency from (1) novice; (2)basic; (3) proficient; (4) advanced level of attainment. They are aligned with outcomes and explicit indicators of achievement at multiple levels based on each of the 4Cs (2012, p. 176-200).

Table 2: Holistic Rubric sample for the 4Cs (adapted from Greenstein, 2012)

	4 Advanced	3 Proficient	2 Basic	1 Novice
Critical Thinking (p.200)	Purposefully seeks and uses information and data from multiple sources and prior experience in relation to real-world situations	Finds and uses a few selected facts, sources, and evidence to understand and make a plan	Uses selected data and pieces of information that are provided in relation to learning	Misunderstands facts, data, and principles and needs help to meaningfully utilize them
Creativity (p.176)	Consistently shows flexibility and originality multiple ideas	Generally able to demonstrate and apply components of creativity in the course of the work	Tries to think creatively but sometimes needs help coming up with new ideas	With support, can generate some creative ideas
Collaboration (p.176)	Worked well with others; efficient use of time and equality of participation	Generally stayed on task and participated; used time well	Tried to work with others but did not consistently do their part	Had difficulty working with others respectfully
Communication (p.204)	Clarity, pace, volume, and articulation are all strong and enhance communication	Clarity, pace, volume, and articulation are acceptable for the purpose of the communication	One significant part of oral communication may be compromised	Difficult to hear and follow the communication

Greenstein (2012) further states that "each of the 4Cs can be broken down for more specific and detailed assessment known as *analytic rubrics* (Table 3,4,5,6) which define levels of performance for each criterion as opposed to *holistic rubrics* (as in Table 2) which describe broader levels of performance (p.53)".

Analytic rubric sample for the 4Cs

Tables 3 through 6 are samples of analytic rubric samples with further breakdown of each 4C called sub-skills. For example, the sub-skills for critical thinking (Table 3) are: evaluate, analyze, and synthesis of multiple views (p.68 & p.200). All of these rubrics have been adapted and customized to the needs of the EFL students on their PBL projects. They have also been adapted and simplified for assessing EFL students in PBL projects and customized in accordance to the class proficiency level and program goals. These rubrics are easy to use as a formative assessment throughout any point in the PBL process. First, the student could do a self-assessment of their current level and notice the starting level. Throughout several class periods, the student will be motivated in increasing their proficiency level and try to move up in that area. Again, the teacher can also work with the student and evaluate the current square in the rubric and encourage them to move up in the rubric. This self-awareness reflection is important for language learners because they can acknowledge the necessity of the 4Cs and recognize it as separate from linguistic skills of listening, writing, speaking, and listening. They will become aware of the importance of the 4Cs in every step of language study.

Table 3: Analytic rubric for critical thinking adapted for EFL learners

		4 Advanced	3 Proficient	2 Basic	1 Novice
Critical Thinking		Throughout the PBL, student consistently demonstrates multiple skills in evaluation, analysis and synthesis	Throughout the PBL, student routinely applies two components of critical thinking	Throughout the PBL, student is developing multiple types of CT skills	Throughout the PBL, student is able to understand basic content but struggles to evaluate and analyze
SUB-SKILL	Evaluate	Student was able to make a reasoned judgement by evaluating all choices before selecting one idea	Student was able to make some reasoned judgement to evaluate and pick one idea	Student was able to compare more than one option and pick one idea	Student was able to pick one idea but was not confident in it
	Analyze	Student identified main issues, and can explain or share each multiple view with reasoned judgement	Student understood main issue and made some conclusions	Student was able to grasp issue and draw simple conclusions	Student was not able to grasp issue and needed help to find and draw conclusions
	Synthesis of Multiple Views	Student identified and compared more than three different views and can make a reasoned explanation on their changed view	Student was able to grasp the main issue and make some reasoned judgement	Student was able to identify more than one view but could not summarize or explain them.	Student was not able to identify more than one view.

The analytic rubric for creativity (p.201) have been adapted for EFL learners. These sub-skills look at the quality of creativity in terms of curiosity, flexibility, and originality of the product development or solution in the PBL. Creativity is sometimes not a required assessment point in English classes. Every project does not need to be assessed on creativity, but if several projects within a semester or school year are assigned, then, it would be beneficial for at least two of the projects to assess certain areas of creativity.

Table 4: Analytic rubric for creativity adapted for EFL learners

		4 Advanced	3 Proficient	2 Basic	1 Novice
Creativity (self-reflection)		I show flexibility and originality in developing many new ideas	I can create new things if I have some help or suggestions by my EFL teammates	I like be creative but sometimes I need help from others	I cannot come up with creative ideas by myself and need help
SUB-SKILL	Curiosity	I am curious about creating new ideas and seek them out	I am curious about some things and usually will try to explore	I sometimes am curious about new ways of thinking and doing	I try to avoid new ideas and things because I am not comfortable
	Flexibility	I adopted new ideas and replace old ones to better the outcome	I adopted many new ideas and listened to feedback	I was willing to change direction by listening to feedback	I was unable to listen and respond to feedback effectively
	Originality	I can come up with original ideas	I can come up with some new ideas	I can come up with new ideas with some guidelines or help	I need help thinking of new things

The analytic rubric for collaboration (p.110) include the sub-skills: shared responsibility, productivity, and teamwork. The PBL is a collaborative experience throughout each process. This rubric looks at different areas of collaboration and gives the students several criterion related to collaboration so they can work together toward their final product with equal contribution and shared responsibility. This is a rubric that can be given as a self-evaluation or as a peer-evaluation on their own group. This type of evaluation is helpful especially at several points of the project in order for the student to repair any problems of productivity by slacking students. It also gives each student an awareness that they will be assessed by their peers so it is a motivating way to keep the students on track.

Table 5: Analytic Rubric for collaboration adapted for EFL learners

		4 Advanced	3 Proficient	2 Basic	1 Novice
Collaboration (Self-Reflection, Peer-Evaluation)		We used all our time efficiently to stay focused on the task and contributed equally	We worked well and for the most part stayed on task and contributed equally	We worked well together but everyone did not equally contribute	We didn't work well together and did not contribute enough
SUB-SKILL	**Shared responsibility**	Everyone did their best work and followed through on task	Most people followed through on their parts	Some people did not follow through on their part.	Most people did not follow through on their part and could not be depended on
	Productivity	I/ We used high quality time management	I/ We appropriately used resources	I/ We had some problems with pacing	I/ We needed support to stay on task
	Teamwork	I / We contributed to all group discussion and task through valuable input	I /We contributed to group discussion and tasks	I /We contributed some knowledge and information to the group	I /We needed support from teacher to discuss information

Finally, the analytic rubric for communication (p.204-205) includes the sub-skills of receptive communication, informal and formal written communication and the skills associated with giving presentations. Non-verbal communication is also a criterion for communication because receptive communication is equally important in the PBL which requires extensive listening skills in order to think critically and synthesize several students' ideas. Written communication can be in form of individual writing, group writing, or journals and blogs to record their reflections. The presentation is the final part of the PBL. It is a large part in that all of their work leads up to this final presentation. However, the assessment should only be a portion of the overall grade and assesses presentation skills, preparation, and stage presence rather than accuracy, memory, or pronunciation.

Table 6: Analytic rubric for communication adapted for EFL learners

		4 Advanced	3 Proficient	2 Basic	1 Novice
Communication		Student produces communication using EFL or ELF strategies for understanding	Student produces communication that is comprehensible and uses some EFL or ELF strategies	Student is able to use one EFL or ELF strategy to produce basic communication	Student is unable to produce basic communication or use any of the EFL or ELF strategies
SUB-SKILL	**Receptive Communication**	Student listened to other student's viewpoints and responded respectively	Student usually listened to other students' viewpoints with respect	Student sometimes listened to other viewpoints but with only a little respect	Student did not listen to other viewpoints
	Written Communication	Student wrote logically with clear and logical process using descriptive details	Student wrote logically with topic and complete details	Student wrote somewhat logically with topic and some details.	Student wrote without complete sentences or details
	Presentation	Student was well prepared and displayed good stage presence to attract the audience	Student was somewhat prepared and displayed good stage presence	Student was somewhat prepared and sometimes relied on notes, support, and at times uncomfortable	Student was not comfortable and was not prepared. Needed extensive notes and support

Conclusion

In conclusion, fifteen years into the 21st century, assessing these success skills and competencies are no longer a dilemma. From the teacher's perspective, the rubrics help them to easily identify and assess individual efforts and abilities. Also, they can now assess critical thinking skills and creativity that were once labeled as hard to do. Also, from the student's perspective, rubrics are helpful for them to notice and become aware of their language learning process. Language learning is not just about the grammar and the vocabulary, but it is the way language is used in communicating the needs and ideas of one person to another. This research continues to test more university English classes with hopes that teachers will shift to multiple assessment strategies and rubrics based on the 4Cs to produce globally competent 21st century skill users through PBL projects.

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Enhance Teachers' Composition Teaching Literacy and Autonomy through Online Interactive Writing Course - "Learning by Doing": An Effective Way of Teacher Training

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Abstract
Composition writing is an important yet difficult component of Chinese language teaching. In the MOE 2011 Syllabus, composition writing is allocated a higher percentage than in previous years. However, both students and teachers were reported to have difficulties in writing and teaching compositions, respectively.
This paper discusses the effects of an online interactive process-writing course. Writing-assessment, which is to make comments on and give suggestions about the draft writings, is the key part of the course design. Hence, knowledge on how to guide the students to give proper feedback becomes a crucial part of a teacher's composition teaching literacy. The teachers are no longer just the knowledge providers but activity facilitators and supervisors. Designed under the idea of "learning by doing", the course helped the teachers to improve their assessment skills in writing as well as their confidence and autonomy in teaching writing.
Collaborative research is an effective way of teacher training. Guided by the researchers, the teachers managed to understand better the theoretical framework and research design of the project. Being the main personnel to fulfill the implementation of the classroom practices and the assessment of students' formative portfolios, the teachers get a rapid professional enhancement in composition teaching literacy and collaborative research skills. The experience of writing-assessment not only helps the students with their writing but also enhances the teachers' teaching skills as well.
This paper shares the course design of this writing project as well as effective ways to promote teachers' composition teaching literacy.

Keywords: composition teaching literacy, collaborative research, professional enhancement, teacher training

Introduction

In the MOE 2011 Syllabus of Chinese Curriculum Standards, composition writing is allocated a higher percentage in exams now than in previous years. Except for Foundation Chinese and CLB which are considered courses for low achievers, the percentage for writing in other Chinese courses is either 30% or even 45%(Higher Chinese). In this sense, we can say that writing is not only a compulsory language skill that has to be taught in school, but also very important.

For many students, composition writing is a headache. It is especially difficult for many Singaporean students in Singapore’s Chinese as a second language (CSL) scenarios since Chinese is neither the medium of instruction in schools nor the medium of communication at home. When they were required to write a Chinese composition, they always complained that they had no idea on what to write and how to write. What's more, the students are always trained to write timed essays in class so that they can finish writing in real exams. As a result, the students do not have enough chances to improve writing skills by learning how improve their writings according to peer and teacher review.

The teachers, however, were also reported to have difficulties in teaching compositions. The teachers we interviewed showed concerns on how to teach writing confidently in a systematic way. Compared to other language skills, the teaching of writing is somewhat random. The teachers don't have a systematic master plan on how to teach writing, instead, they only mentioned about some writing skills in the reading classes when they encounter some. Teaching of writing skills seems to be a byproduct of reading class. When the teachers assess the students' compositions, they could mainly focus on the language use rather than the content, let alone the writing process itself. The feedback from the teachers is either too general or not feasible for the students. Even if the teachers spent much time on giving feedbacks to the students, most of the suggestions turned out to be unread or not being paid enough attention to because the same kinds of mistakes keep appearing repeatedly in the students' writings.

In order to solve this problem, we developed an online interactive process-writing course. This course combines in-class and out-of-class learning, focusing more on students' peer review, teacher review and the self-editing of the first draft with the reviews. Writing-assessment, which is to make comments on and give suggestions about the draft writings, is the key part of the course design. Hence, knowledge on how to guide the students to give proper feedbacks becomes a crucial part of a teacher's composition teaching literacy. The teachers are no longer just the knowledge providers but activity facilitators and supervisors. Designed under the idea of "learning by doing", the course helped the teachers to improve their assessment skills in writing as well as their confidence and autonomy in teaching writing.

Literature Review

1. The literacy of teaching writing

Today, people communicate using a multitude of methods such as messages and emails other than conversing in person or via telephones. This requires more written communicative skills of our students, and better literacy of teaching writing of our teachers. However, in many places writing is usually taught by inexperienced and under-prepared teachers (Johns, 2009, cited in Lee, 2013). Although the skill of writing has always been emphasized with great importance, the teaching of writing has received little attention in most teacher education programs (Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011). Regardless of the big amount of second language writing literature that geared towards helping the students to write in a second or foreign language, however, there is a paucity of research on the issue of the professional preparation and development of second language writing teachers. In the many studies of second language writing, more attention has been paid to the needs of the students on how to write rather than the teachers on how to teach (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007).

Since teachers are the ones who teach the students, how the teachers teach will have a great impact on how the students learn. Hence, the imbalance between the students' needs and the teachers' preparation on the literacy of teaching writing has to be addressed.

But how? Teacher knowledge is socially constructed and heavily influenced by the contexts in which they first learn as students and then later work as teachers (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). If the knowledge-base of how to write has not been taught enough when they were students, how can we expect them to teach their students well when they become writing teachers?

2. Effective professional development

The purpose of professional development is for the teachers to enhance and facilitate student learning in a most productive way. However, with the focus on students outcomes, too few professional development activities focus on the teacher as more than just a purveyor of knowledge to students (Gallo & Herrmann, 2014). While older literature tended to examine professional development as one-time programs or workshops with a purpose to change the teachers, more recent literature views teachers as active learners and participants in professional development activities (Borko, 2004; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Wayne et al, 2008). Lave and Wenger (1991) claimed that learning is indeed situated in practice by examining how people were engaged in legitimate peripheral participation to increase their knowledge of new practices. As learning occurs everywhere in a teacher's profession (Borko, 2004), teacher professional development must be uniquely tailored to each teacher's unique teaching situation and needs in order to be optimally valuable for the teacher's learning.

Traditional professional development that focuses only on the acquisition of new teaching strategies is not sufficient. Instead, opportunities that are built upon teacher's unique teaching contexts and needs will provide deeper and more valuable experiences to enhance teacher's practice (Gallo & Herrmann, 2014). Towards the researchers, the most common complaint leveled at them is the lack of connection between their research and teachers' practice (Kaestle, 1993). Researchers who studied educational phenomena rarely did manage to control for all the extraneous variables (Kennedy, 1997). Even if they succeeded at that, the findings would "decay" because the social contexts were constantly changing (Cronbach, 1975). Although we will never be able to generate stable findings that can provide the basis for theories about social phenomena, including the phenomenon of teaching and learning, we still need to ask about the research design and to worry about how to know if our designs are yielding reliable knowledge and catering for the practitioners' needs. Ann Brown (1992) argued that, if research is to produce important knowledge, it has to occur within the natural constraints of real classrooms and must accommodate the multiple confounding influences that are there.

Shulman (1970) claimed that research needed to move out of the laboratory and into the classroom because laboratory studies of learning focused mainly on learning nonsense syllabus, while teachers were concerned about teaching subject matter. In recent decades, educational research has indeed moved to the field, yet it is still common for teachers to dismiss research because the classrooms involved in the research differ from their own classrooms (Kennedy, 1997). As suggested by Kaestle (1993), the researchers could collaborate with knowledgeable people from research constituencies scholarly groups and practitioners. To be more specific, Kaestle also suggested that they should collaborate in first-rate in-service training, as well as increase innovative efforts to link research and practice, such as involving practitioners in designing and conducting research, or incorporating training about research into the initial preparation of teachers and administrators. Collaborative research involves upstream engagement of practitioners, introducing diverse knowledges and expertise in ways that can generate new knowledge that is socially robust and publicly accountable (Hincliffe et al, 2014).

In this manner, collaborative research is an effective way of teacher's professional development. This kind of partnership builds bridges between the knower (the researcher) and the seeker (the teacher), the expert (the researcher) and the practitioner (the teacher). Guided by the researchers' knowledge and expertise, the teachers managed to understand better the theoretical framework and research design of the project and improve their effectiveness. Being the main personnel to fulfill the implementation of the classroom practices and the assessment of students' formative portfolios, the teachers get a rapid professional enhancement in composition teaching literacy and collaborative research skills. The researchers, on the other hand, also benefited from this co-learning process (Wagner, 1997). As described by Delgado-Gaitan (1993, p409) how a field research project led her to understand her own role as a researcher in a new way, "to counter our own ignorance and biases as researchers, we must integrate into our research rigorous and systematic joint analysis with our participants." Many projects characterized it as "collaborative action research" (Argyris et al., 1985; Whyte, 1991; Winter, 1989).

3. Teacher review and peer review in the process writing

Writing is a complex process which involves a lot of cognitive and meta-cognitive activities (Murray,1972). Unlike traditional product-oriented writing, process-oriented writing focuses on the writing process, not just the final product. For process writing, writing is believed to be a process of discovery in which ideas are generated and not just transcribed as writers think through and organize their ideas before writing and revising their drafts (Lee, 2006). Process writing is reasonable in the sense of cognition because it emphasizes on the revision of the draft as writers need to stop many times during the process of composing as well as to revise many times after the composing. The process approach to writing teaching emphasizes the writers as independent producers of texts, thus requiring the teachers to address how to help the learners to perform a writing task which is a cognitive process to plan, draft, revise and edit in a recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous way (Hyland, 2003). Providing productive feedback is one useful way (Hyland, 1990) and group work is frequently a key element in generating ideas, collecting information, focusing priorities, and structuring the way to organize texts as well as providing practical genuine communications at the same time (Hyland, 2003).

The collaborative writing activities provide the learners with the opportunities to engage with the language at a conscious level and to test out their hypotheses as well as receive feedback on their hypotheses (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012). When the learners work on their own, they usually transcribe into written forms what they have on mind or what is verbalized in whispers. As the students need to decide on how to revise their writings, they not only learn to use writing as a way to express themselves, but also learn the content knowledge as well as knowledge about the language (Hirvela, 2011; Swain,2001; Williams, 2012).When the learners are collaborating together with their peers and teachers, they always construct their meaning making by discussing and negotiating with each other. Swain (2006, 2010) called this involvement and deliberation "languaging". This kind of "languaging" experiences make the learners attend to the problems arising during the writing process, and by doing that, get a deeper understanding of the language use. Because they have the pressure of the output, this process gives the learners the opportunity to not only focus on forms (meaning), but also Focus on Form (Long, 1996). In this regard, writing should not be considered as a solitary activity, but rather as a site for language learning.

Both teacher review and peer review are proved helpful for the learners in the process writing (Connor & Asenavage, 1994; Hu,2005; Kollar & Fischer, 2010; Paulus, 1999; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Villamil & De Guerrero, 1998; Zhang, 1995). It is not only a way of collaborative learning but also a way of assessment for learning because the students need to give each other opinions, suggestions, questions and ideas. At the same time they have to understand all the suggestions and questions from their teachers and peers and to decide which suggestions to take and which ones not to by using their judgments of what makes a good writing. Peer and teacher review have a significant effect on the quality of writing and led to more learner autonomy (Villamil & De Guerrero, 1998), as well as aid writing development and encourages critical thinking (Berg,1999). Students were reported to benefit from reading other students’ work as they have the tasks to give feedback (Tsui & Ng, 2000).

Teachers suffer from the tedious and unrewarding chore of correcting students' essays (Hyland, 1990). Although teacher review is valued highly by students, the mistakes in the students' essays keep on repeating themselves. If we can manage the provision of feedback in process-writing approach, i.e., the students receive feedback on drafts before they submit the final writing, it will liberate a lot of time and effort in the teachers. Teachers, at the same time, will also benefit in their literacy of teaching writing by providing the students the rubrics and scaffoldings on how to give feedbacks and how to revise the writings according to the writing rubrics and the feedbacks received rather than doing some unrewarding chores such as correcting the students' reappearing mistakes.

The literature provides useful insights on the effectiveness of peer and teacher feedbacks, and collaborative research as an effective way for professional development. However, how to apply peer and teacher review in the writing process to help the students and at the same time focus on in-service teacher's professional development training is not that much reported.

This paper intends to share the implementation model of peer review and teacher review in this writing project as well as effective ways to promote teachers’ composition teaching literacy.

For this study, we have formulated the following two research questions:

> Question 1: How effective is the wiki-based process writing on Chinese narrative essay for lower CSL students?
> Question 2: How effective is the wiki-based process writing for the professional development of the teachers?

In this study students improved their writing literacy through rounds of process writings, being provided with more chances to get exposure to input and output in the target language as well as more chances to apply the writing rubrics to both their own writings and their peers’. The experience of writing-assessment not only helps the students with their writing but also enhances the teachers' teaching skills as well.

Online interactive writing course: an effective way of professional enhancement

1. The course design

The course design consists of two parts: the orientation and the main writing activities.

Before the orientation, the teachers should get involved in the designing of the research and understand the whole research framework. Before they start to conduct the research, they need to understand fully how the research is working in each phase and the rationales behind. If they don't understand some part, the researchers can explain to them and even involve them to develop the rubrics and learning materials. Only in this way can the teachers have more autonomy and ownership of the project. For those teachers who have little knowledge in research, it is not an easy process. However, after they made effort to digest how the research is working, they understood and learned a lot more.

During the orientation, the teacher provided a model by demonstrating how students should assess their peer's work and give feedback, using the structure of peer assessment rubrics and guiding questions, covering writing organization, content, and language. The orientation also covered 10 items of writing, such as theme, choice of materials, plot, emotions, consistency, cohesion, deployment, vocabulary, grammar, and rhetoric techniques. The purpose of this orientation training is to prepare the students on how to assess writings. In order to do this, the teachers need to first familiarize and internalize the writing rubrics so as to model on how to use the rubrics to assess others' writing.

There were five recursive writing activities in the two years' study. In every writing activity there appears three major steps: pre-writing, writing and post-writing. In each writing activity, the students wrote the first draft and then did revision and editing, with the feedbacks from their teachers and peers.

In order to strengthen the impact of peer assessment, besides the guiding questions, activities such as 'Tell me why this is a piece of good writing' and 'Come, let Dr. Woodpecker treat you' were blended in. In each of these activities, we provided several steps to guide the students in forming standards on how to appreciate good writing, how to break down/deconstruct texts and how to transform bad writing into good writing. All the activities were arranged for students to carry out in groups so as to facilitate discussion and collaborative learning. After some preparations, the students did class presentations using the guiding tasks and questions. With this kind of 'comprehensible output' activity, the students learned to judge texts critically and to refine and consolidate vague ideas into principles to assess writing by doing oral presentations.

2. The subjects

The participants were 60 Secondary One students from a neighbourhood school, forming an experimental class (N=32) and a comparison class (N=28). The whole study lasted for two years. The experimental class was involved in five rounds of recursive writing activities, during which they were given parallel writing instructions and were asked to give group presentations. In the control class, the teacher went about her normal practice but arranged for her students to take the pre-, mid- and post-tests that the experimental class took. Artifacts produced by students from both classes were also analyzed.

3. The teachers' role

In this project, the teachers teach quite little, giving more ownership to the students to study by themselves. The learning materials are on the wiki platform, the students do group presentations and teach each other, they assess their peers' writing and give feedbacks, they revise their writings on their own…… Then what did the teachers do? Each writing activity consists of 11 steps. Together with the training orientation, 12 steps are shown in the table below. The teachers' role at each step is shown in each step.

Table 1. Steps for the writing activities

Steps	Teacher's role during each step
1.training	Get involved and understand in the designing of the research before orient the students about the purpose of the project and learn how to use the rubrics.
2. learn writing techniques	Help the researchers develop the teaching materials on writing techniques for students' self-directed learning via wiki platform.
3.check learning outcomes	Arrange the students to take quiz in groups. Mark the quiz papers and analyze the results.
4.in-class teaching	Lecture about the writing materials, but not all of them. Focusing on the important points and some weak points that the students fail in the quiz.
5. out-of-class study	Arrange the students to study together on the good writing and bad writing activities, prepare enough scaffolding materials, predict and prepare for the common mistakes that the students might make negligently.
6.group presentation	Arrange the students to do group presentation. Guide them to do cross-group feedbacks by using the writing rubrics provided. Encourage on their good performance and emphasize on the weak points.
7.first writing	Read through students' draft writing and analyze them to find out the common mistakes and the good points. Prepare materials to give teacher remarks in class.
8.peer review	While students do peer revision in a given time, prepare some remarks to be given to some students, if not all, after they have done the peer review.
9.second writing	Observe whether the students have done their revision according to the feedbacks given by their peers and teachers. Take note of those who have done well and calculate their personal and group scores.
10.comments	Announce group scores and comment on the common mistakes that the whole class made during the writing activity. Encourage those who have done well during peer review session and analyze the aspects that they have done well.
11.final writing	Arrange the students to finalize their writing after class. Encourage more revisions.
12.reflection	Arrange the students to do reflection on their performance during this writing activity. Preparing the reflection rubrics and guide them through.

From the above table, we can see that, the teachers are no longer sole knowledge providers, but activity supervisors and monitors. As the world is changing and knowledge is multiplying itself every minute, the teachers cannot teach ALL that the students need in class. What our students need is the ability for self-directed learning and the desire and ownership for life-long learning. When the teachers step back from the teaching platform, they give more authorities to the students who are supposed to be the real owner of their learning. When the teachers teach LESS, effective learning activities makes the students learn MORE. It requires more in the teachers, to have more profound literacy in teaching writing and better control in classroom and activity management. In order to teach LESS, the teachers need to internalize all the teaching materials and chose wisely what to teach. During the group presentation steps, the teachers need to improvise prompt assessment and remarks on the spot, which also requires a lot of teaching skills. This gives the teachers many opportunities and space for their professional development.

Findings

1. t-test and effect sizes for the writing scoring

Before answering the first research question of the effectiveness of intervention on process writing, we verified that the experimental and comparison classes were equivalent. This was done by running the independent t-test on the writing scores of the two classes. As shown in Table 1, for the pre-test, there is a mean difference of -2.58 ($t = -1.30$, d.f. 58, $p > 0$ .05) indicating that the two classes were equivalent but the experimental class scored lower than the comparison class. The Cohen's d = -0.34 indicates a small effect size which is not trivial to be dismissed.

On the post-test, however, the experimental class scored higher than did the comparison class, with a mean difference of 3.06 ($t=1.67$, d.f. 58. $p<0.05$). The corresponding Cohen's d=0.44 indicates a small but nearly medium effect size.

Table 2. Mean Comparisons on Writing Scores

	Experimental group (N=32)		Comparison group (N=28)		Mean differences	t-value	Cohen's *d*
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Pretest	57.44	8.89	60.02	5.96	-2.58	-1.30	-0.34
Posttest	61.17	8.27	58.11	5.40	3.06	1.67	0.44
Gain	3.73	7.69	-1.91	5.10	5.64	3.29	0.86

Notes: (1) Effect size Cohen's *d* was calculated using the web-based Effect Size Calculator of the University of Colorado (http://www.uccs.edu/~lbecker/) which uses the pooled standard deviation as the denominator. For gain-scores, SD = $\sqrt{(S1^2 + S2^2 - 2*S1*S2*.6)}$, assuming a r = .6 between the pretest and post-test scores.

As noted previously, the initial difference favouring the comparison class is not so small that it can be totally dismissed. To offset this disadvantage to the experimental class, a gain-score analysis was attempted. As can be seen in Table 1, the experimental class has gained by 3.73 from the pretest to the post-test whereas the comparison class has in fact deteriorated by -1.91. This suggests that, by comparison, the experimental group has gained by 5.64 ($t=3.29$, d.f. 58, $p<0.05$) through the intervention. The corresponding Cohen's $d=0.86$ indicates a large effect size. This leads to an affirmative answer to the first research question: the wiki-based process writing on Chinese Narrative Essay was effective for lower secondary school CSL students in enhancing students' performance.

Effect size is typically used at the conclusion of a research project to ascertain its success or lack thereof (Soh, 2010). The obtained Cohen's $d=.86$ for the gain scores indicates a large effect size. This compares very favourably with the average effect size of Cohen's $d=.40$ recommended by John Hattie (1999, 2009, cited in Soh, 2010) as a benchmark. Hattie's (2009) study, with a large number of more than 800 meta-analysis covering 165,258 studies, helps us look at the average effect size of similar experiments in the same field. This helps us to examine the value of the effect size of our own project in a more objective and comparative perspective without focusing solely on the value itself.

According to Hattie's (2009) research, the average effect size of 566 computer-assisted instruction experiments is 0.31 and the average effect size of 122 studies on peer influence is 0.38. The obtained gain score effect size (.86) demonstrates that the combination of both computer use and peer review can greatly improve the effect of mere computer use and mere peer assistance in language teaching.

2. Teachers' feedback on their improvements

Based on the interviews, self-evaluation surveys and classroom observation, we found out that there has been a lot improvements in the teachers.

They reported that this collaborative research tailors to their teaching needs and is optimally valuable for their learning as a writing teacher. With the project, they not only knew more about the new pedagogy, but also had more understanding of the theoretical background knowledge behind the pedagogy. Being provided with sufficient professional development opportunities that are built upon their teaching contexts and needs, the teachers had deeper and more valuable experiences to improve not only their professional practice, but also the quality of their professional lives. Familiarity with education technology indeed plays a crucial role in implementing ICT-mediated teaching and learning (Alexakis et al., 2014).They have also reported that they have learned more about pedagogies as collaborative learning, self-directed learning and ICT-assisted learning, which gave them more confidence in teaching writing in different ways. Previously, without knowing how to teach writing in a systematic way, they only taught some writing skills when they encountered some in the comprehension passages. Now, they have bigger and clearer plans on how writing should be taught in a more gradual and systematic way. In order to manage well the group work and collaborative learning, they also had more hands-on experience of differentiated instructions (DI).

The teachers' growth has also been witnessed through the lesser dependence on the researchers and more ownership on the choice and preparation of teaching materials. After digesting the research design framework and getting involved into the project as joint participants, the teachers are observed to be more capable of handling the project with ease. Responding to students' writing is extremely challenging as it takes considerable time, reflection and experience. In order to transform a typical bad writing into a good one, an effective responder need to be equipped with solid principles, useful techniques and thoughtful evaluation and reflections. The teachers reported that they are now more used to deconstruct/ break down the students' writings and give feedbacks. After teaching and using the writing rubrics and scaffolding questions for so long, they are now very fast and effective in assessing students' writings which used to be an unrewarding and frustrating tasks for them. We think it very significant because you can only do well the things that you can really fathom and take pleasure to do in confidence, not the things you are afraid to do.

Conclusion and implications

The study is successful in helping students improve in their overall performance for Chinese writing and the teachers in their teaching of writing. We attribute the improvement to the skills and abilities acquired during the five recursive collaborative process writing activities, especially the peer and teacher review where they mutually engaged with each other in a coordinated effort to raise questions and solve problems together. Peer and teacher feedback does not only help students to improve in overall performance in writing, it also encourages critical reasoning as the students need to consider the validity of the suggestions and make decisions on whether to use them or how to use them.

When their critical reasoning has been enhanced, it will again help students with their writing because writing is an act of discovering meaning. A willingness to engage with students' assertions is crucial, and response is a central means to initiate and guide ideas (Straub, 2000). Hence, teachers could focus more on the ideas that our students produce, rather than dwell on the formal errors (Hyland, 1990; Murray, 1985). This transformation will liberate the writing teachers from endless time and frustration in responding students' writing papers, while returning back a life outside of work and making them feel that they are really helping the students.

Teachers, together with their students, "construct" their knowledge during the process of the project. Teachers who conduct the writing classes not only need to teach specific writing techniques, but more importantly, need to teach students to stand at a higher point to plan and assess writing as well to give them more ownership towards, confidence in and enjoyment from writing. Only when the teachers have thorough and solid understandings of writing assessment can they transmit that kind of knowledge to their students. As the adage goes, *give a man a fish and you feed him for a day; teach a man to fish and you feed him for a lifetime*. In order to teach them to fish, the teachers must first become an expert fisherman and a proficient trainer as well. Collaborative research is an effective way for teachers' professional enhancement because the teachers learned how to do research with a lot real hands-on experience. Collaborative research is also a positive way to bring researchers and teachers a step closer to each other where cooperation can serve both sides.

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Reinterpreting School Vandalism: A Textual Analysis

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Abstract
This study unravel the meaning conveyed from vandalism through textual analysis. Specifically, it determined the profile of the respondents, the reasons for performing vandalism, characteristics of the school vandalism in terms of language choice, placement, types and stylistic features. Moreover, it also determined the denotative and connotative meaning of the vandalism, its social messages, and the vandal's personal, academic and social lived experiences. The result of the study was the basis for developing a proposed anti-vandalism program for the different secondary schools in Tuguegarao City, Cagayan, Philippines.

The study being qualitative in nature has three assumptions. First, vandalism used specific and stylistic features of language. Second, vandalism is used to communicate messages personal and social issues. Third, vandalism is an alternative medium of communication to convey messages on real life issues affecting students.

Three public schools and three private high schools were used in the study. The three public schools were Cagayan National High School, Linao National High School, and Cataggamman National High School. On the other hand, the private schools were University of Saint Louis, University of Cagayan Valley and John Wesley College. A total of 125 respondents were used in the study obtained through purposive sampling and snow ball sampling. A total of 263 pictures of vandalism were collected in the study and they were analysed through thematic and textual analysis.

After subjecting the collected vandalism to textual and thematic analysis, the following are the findings of the study:

The profile of the respondents reveals that most of the respondents are males (47 or 60.26%); they are 15 years old (50 or 40%); third year level (50 or 40%); belonging to lower section (92 or 73.60%); middle born (78 or 30.76%) and have parents who are high school graduate (30 or 38.46%) .

The three (3) most dominant reasons for performing of vandalism are *to express one's emotion or self-expression* (34 or 27.2%); *to communicate a message* (29 or 23.4%); and *to get revenge or to rebel* (20 or 16%).

The language choice used in vandalism reveals that the most dominant choice is the Filipino language (63 or 46.32%) followed by English with 43 or 31.61. As for the placement of vandalism, majority (56 or 40.57) are found on the walls and the most common type of vandalism are individualized/popular (53 or 41.73%) and tags (45 or 35.43%). Moreover, the visible stylistic features of the vandalism fall under taboo language (27 or 34.09%), numbers (26 or 30.22%) and symbolism (25 or 29.07%).

A textual analysis of the denotative and connotative meaning of gang vandalism reveals that they are produced solely as a means of gang communication and partly as a claim of territoriality. Political vandalism is used to discredit the New People's Army and to Impeach the President. These are political cry to register political dissidence and express social alienation from them. Finally, the vindictive vandalism reveals vulgar and obscene words illustrating the personal insult and rage of the vandals.

The recurrent themes expressed in the collected vandalism are centered on love (42 or 39.25%) and sex (26 or 24.29%) which are expressive of the concerns of the adolescents.

The personal lived experience of the respondents regarding the phenomenon of vandalism reveals that vandalism is an avenue of expression and of claiming their identity and territoriality. On the other hand, the academic lived experience shows that vandalism did not help them in their schooling or improve their academic performance rather the bad label or image of a vandal remained in the collective memory of school administrators and teachers causing them to be suspicious and distrustful in all things they do.

Finally, vandalism is perceived as a way of connection or establishing a sense of belongingness and group identity.

The heart of the proposed Anti-Vandalism Program for Secondary Schools in Tuguegarao City addresses the issues and concerns regarding schools' physical environment; changing the vandal writer; organizing student, faculty, support staff and parents task force; troubleshooting the vandalism; and improving schools' climate.

Conclusions

Based on the foregoing findings, it can be concluded that indeed vandalism is pervasive in the different secondary schools in Tuguegarao City and the students are into this this kind of act because of the need for self-expression. Writing on the wall is a way of saying that they are ‘being there” even if they are not physically there. Their vandal writings are manifestations of their aggressive assertion that they are persons who speak, fight, love and long to be recognized. It is through vandalism that they are able to release their state of mind: their madness, sexuality, happiness, anger, rebellion or affection. As a form of connection, vandalism also provides them a link with their friends, classmates, schoolmates and gangsters who are the target readers or audience of their craft. In a sense, their vandalism writing is their way of claiming their identity and belongingness. This reality is a vivid manifestation of the desire of the youth to put ‘personal stamp’ of their school which is part of the youth culture wherein there is desire for recognition, search for identity and autonomy.

Interestingly, the study concludes that vandalism is a show of declaring the students’ concept of territoriality or a claim of ownership of a public place. They see the school as a public place and their mind set is that they also own the place. Writing something on the wall, bench, fence and the like makes them proclaim their ownership of the place as there are many others who claim ownership of the same. Thus, vandalism is conceived as a youthful high spirit or as an unconscious attempt on the part of the teenagers to exercise control over their environment by leaving some sign of their presence.

Although the students know that vandalism is an unacceptable behaviour, they persist to do this because they are in the company of their friends who allow them to do anything and who support them in such kind of endeavour. This happens because they value expressivity much when they are with friends who become primary drivers in this act. A significant facilitating factor for nurturing vandalism in this regard is the culture of silence (apathy of students not to report vandals) among students which allow vandalism to reside in schools.

Finally, the pervasiveness of vandalism culture and its underlying reasons reveals that it the youth’s coping strategy to communicate because of the lack of less restrictive avenues for them to express themselves, to be recognized and to convey the messages on real life issues and concerns affecting them. Thus, the need to provide avenues to develop culture of self-expression and social environment is much desired.

Recommendations

On the basis of the foregoing findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are presented:

Vandalism issue must be given preferential and immediate concern by school administrators and teachers. It must be an issue to be discussed on the table with students, teachers, parents and other stakeholders as this is a symptom of the issues, problems and concerns of the youth;

School administrators must improve culture of self-expression and social environment of their schools. They must direct adolescents to more reasonable avenues of expression and also improve their creativities through less restrictive, controlled and artificial means;

The Proposed Anti-Vandalism Program must be implemented in the different secondary schools in Tuguegarao City;

A similar study must be conducted focusing on the jejemon language used in vandalism as well as the homosexual themes reflected in the vandalism.

Shared Adventures: How International Students from Four Continents Learn English Together

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Abstract
This paper will introduce the feature of the Intensive English Program (IEP) at Indiana Institute of Technology (Indiana Tech) at Fort Wayne, Indiana, USA. Two government-sponsored special programs, BSMP and SACM, which send most language learners to the program are introduced first. The paper then lays out the teaching methods and learning strategies that the author and her colleagues developed to help the students from four continents learn English, followed by explanation of the theories applied in the program and evaluation of the effectiveness of the theories and the methods. This paper ends with a video clip produced by students of IEP at Indiana Tech, along with more research questions for interested language teachers, students, and administrators.

Key words: Intensive English Program, intercultural, multilingual

Introduction

This study is conducted in the context of Intensive English Program (IEP) at Indiana Institute of Technology (Indiana Tech), Fort Wayne, Indiana, USA, with a total of 166 international/intercultural students over the time between January 2012 and May 2015. The students are from four continents (North and South America, Africa, and Asia) and are studying English as a new language at Indiana Tech. The Intensive English Program serves full-time post-secondary students ranging in proficiency from elementary to advanced levels. Students receive 20 hours of face-to-face instruction per week addressing a complete range of language skills, including reading and vocabulary development, writing and grammar, listening and speaking, and college skills, along with language labs and a weekly comprehensive test.

Classes are offered with three levels: Elementary, Intermediate, and Advanced. Each level is 16 weeks long, following the academic schedule of Indiana Tech. The program aims to create opportunities for engagement between international and domestic students, students who graduate from high schools in the US and are currently attending Indiana Tech as undergraduate or graduate students, to promote both language and cultural development. In addition to the classes, the students are offered opportunities for conversations with native English speakers, including domestic students, Indiana tech faculty and staff, and host families, and are encouraged to participate in events on campus and in the city of Fort Wayne. They also prepare to enroll or are already enrolled in the college courses.

Purpose and Research Questions

The main purpose of this paper is to practice, observe, analyze, and evaluate the situations in English learning in the intercultural and multilingual learning environment. This study aims to find answers to the following questions:

1. How does English learning among multicultural students take place in and outside of the classrooms?
2. How do language and cultural differences and similarities among teachers and students influence the teaching and learning of English?
3. What strategies can be used to effectively and efficiently facilitate the teaching and learning of English?

Practices and Observations

The time of data collecting is between January 2012 and May 2015. The international students who have learned English in Indiana Tech are from the following countries: China (18 students), Brazil (107 students), Venezuela (1 student), Peru (1 student), Morocco (1 student), Yemen (2 students), and Saudi Arabia (36 students). Two large groups of students from Brazil and Saudi Arabia are sponsored by their own governments: The Brazil Scientific Mobility Program (BSMP) is a one-year, non-degree program for Brazilian students to study in colleges in the United States and many other countries. The Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission (SACM) supports students academically and financially and also disseminate information that reflects Saudi culture, tradition, and heritage in the institutes in the US. Based on their English levels, the students may participate in an Intensive English Program for one to three semesters before enrolling in the academic studies, or directly enroll in full-time academic studies.

The IEP at Indiana Tech has used a combination of methods, including lecturing, discussion, interviews, formative and summative assessments, and video recordings to enhance the teaching and learning. The following activities are the highlight of the program:

1. Lecturing: According to Barbara Gross Davis (2009), "lecturing is not simply a matter of standing in front of a class and reciting what you know. The classroom lecture is a special form of communication in which voice, gesture, movement, facial expression, and eye contact can either complement or detract from the content. No matter what your topic, your delivery and manner of speaking immeasurably influence your students' attentiveness and learning." The lectures are preceded by students' preparation and followed by quizzes or Q&A sessions so students can have a comprehensive understanding of the materials they learn.

2. Writing Workshop: According to Lucy Calkins (2006), this method of instruction is based upon four principles: students will write about their own lives, they will use a consistent writing process, they will work in authentic ways, and it will foster independence. Writing workshop can take place in any classes, not limited to the Writing class, and is a good method to check students understanding of the learning materials and to build working relationships. If possible, the instructors write with the students, which is a good opportunity to model the learning and participation.

3. Video Production: the instructors help the student make mini documents, short films, and roleplaying practice. Students are divided to groups of four to five. After reading a story together, they are each assigned a role, e.g., script writer, director, videographer, etc. each also plays a role in the video/film. The following is a link of one of the videos the students have produced, Catch Me if You Can: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BA35TH_Rjhc.

4. Games: By playing fun educational games, students learn English vocabulary, sentence structures, grammar, listening, pronunciation and phonics. The games can be board games, video/computer games, or physical activities.

5. Host Families: Local families provide conversation and activities opportunities to the international students. Indiana Tech is fortunate to be able to recruit a good number of host families from the community. The families voluntarily and unselfishly take the international students to their homes for weekends or holidays, and take them to places for cultural exploration. Many students have built close bound with these families.

6. Peer Mentor system: We encourage domestic students to volunteer as peer mentors to frequently meet for conversations. Either the mentors or the language learners can initiate topics for discussion. The mentors can feel free to correct the learners' errors in pronunciation, grammar, word usage, or cultural awareness. The learners can also contribute to their working

relationship by sharing their cultural, language, and even their understanding of certain content areas, such as mathematics or sciences, to their mentors (many international students have better grasp of math and science than domestic students, even though they have limited English). To encourage these interactions, the instructors agree to grant both mentors and mentees, extra points for each documented meeting hour as an incentive.

7. Conversation Table: Students, including native English speakers and language learners, take turns leading the conversations during lunch time at the campus cafeteria. This activity is on voluntary basis. No credits will be granted, so students feel relaxed and free to make conversations and learn both formal and informal expressions. The interactive mode is similar to the Peer Mentor mode, which means no strict forms or corrections are required. Although the topics vary, English is the only language the students use. Students feel included in the "inner circle" because they are speaking the "everyday English," including slangs and even non-standard English, rather than the "academic English." Students will discuss the differences between "everyday English" and "academic English" and learn to use them in different settings with instructors and their mentors.

8. Multicultural Club: The IEP students, along with many domestic students and other international students who are studying the college courses, for a Multicultural Club to promote inclusiveness, diversity, and equitability among students in Indiana Tech. The club members holds a formal "Culture Night" and give cultural presentation, such as music, dances, martial arts, special ceremonies, etc., every year, and offers occasional non-credit language classes to interested students, staff and faculty members.

Theories Applicable to the Program

Learning the same language, English in this program, with different first language and different cultural background is different from learning the same language with the same first language and culture. The IEP students in Indiana Tech come from four continents with sometimes extremely different cultures. In order to create a positive, harmonious, and productive learning environment, several theories have been practiced and proved applicable. The following are some theories that are particularly applicable to the program:

1. Michael Byram, Bella Gribkova, and Hugh Starkey (2002) point out that learners need not just knowledge and skill in the grammar of a language, also the ability to use the language in social and culturally appropriate way.
   The learners in the program are in their late teen and early twenties and are getting ready to college in the US. They are eager to know the society as well as their peers. Knowing the correct form and grammar of English might help them to gain high scores in the TOEFL or IELTS tests, but they need and are more interested in using the language to serve their social needs. We use Conversation Tables during lunch hours and Host Families during weekends to help students use the language in social and cultural setting. During the socially interactive time, we do not emphasize on correcting students errors,

unless they ask to be corrected. Instead, we treat the learners as equal conversation partners. By being treated as a valuable social and cultural partner, the learners take the ownership of the language they have learned and used.

2. Aleidine J. Moeller and Kristen Nugent (2014) claim that language learners who become intercultural speakers will be successful not only in communicating information but also in developing a human relationship with people of other languages and cultures.

   The language learners should not be treated as receivers only. Instead of addressing the IEP students as visitors or even minorities, we encourage students to introduce what they know to the entire Indiana Tech community. With other international students as well as many interested domestic students, they founded a Multicultural Club, which offers cultural presentation and language classes every semester. By introducing their own cultures and languages, the English learners not only are better able to use English properly, they have developed good relationship with fellow students as well as faculty on campus. They have truly become "part of the tapestry" of the campus life, as stated in the Introduction, and many stereotypes and misunderstanding/misperception about the cultures other than typical American cultures have been reduced.

3. Correction of errors in learner language: Since the IEP students come from four continents, with extremely different language backgrounds, such as Spanish, Portuguese, Chinese, and Arabic, their approaches to the target language, English, are also by far different. When students use their "learner languages," or 'interlanguage," to communicate with one another, they produce some patterns that are non-standard but work in the learners' group. They use these patterns to negotiate for meaning and arrive at mutual understanding; meanwhile they also learn to request for clarification or confirmation and seek to acquire the standard forms and get their ideas crossed. When students are using "learner languages," errors or awkward sentence patterns are inevitable; however, students need these for real-life communication. Teachers are often challenged to discern which errors should be corrected, when and how to correct the errors in order to prevent persistent errors while maintaining the pride of the learners and the function of the learners' interlanguages. Usually we wait till the learners' interlanguage has served their purposes before making corrections, as James A. Oladejo (1993) suggests, the correction must be flexible enough to incorporate the preferences and needs of the language learners. Eventually, they make adjustments in pronunciation and sentence structures to nearly native in order to be understood. The negotiation process also makes the students patient enough to try to understand the language they hear.

4. Combining levels: Although we divide the IEP students into three levels, and each level has certain learning materials, learning objectives, and learning methods, we sometimes combine two or three levels to create real-life learning and communicative situations. In these situations, "think-pair-share" serves as an effective technique that allows learners time to process their thoughts and

skills. As Naomi Kurata (2007) suggests, when pair work functions collaboratively and learners are in an expert-novice relationship, they can successfully engage in the co-construction of knowledge. We do not overstretch the roles of “experts” and “novices”; however, the elementary level students are excited that they are able to work with more advanced level students, and the more advanced level students find they learn more by offering help or mentoring the lower level students, and are reminded that there is much more for them to learn in terms of the new language. To apply George Yule and Doris Macdonald’s theory (1990)--when teachers place more advanced students in less dominant roles in paired activities with lower-level learners, both sides learn well. we often give students projects to create and perform skits and dramas. By doing so, students can choose the work and roles to fit their individual level and preference, as mentioned in the third section of this paper: “Video Production.”

Conclusion

Students from four continents learn English together has developed an intercultural and multilingual dimension in the Intensive English Program at Indiana Tech, as well as in many other U.S. institutions. We as language teachers and learners find that hosting students from all over the world in the Intensive English Program enriches diversity on campus and enhances international exposure and broadens cultural perspectives. The following link is a video made by one of the students who voluntarily expresses his positive response to our practices: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NOtO16jnFh4. This paper will end with some questions for those who are interested in develop programs for multicultural and multilingual English learning:

1. How do students evaluate the theories and practices laid out in this paper?

2. How to enrich a language class with instant information students retrieve from their smartphones and strike a balance?

3. How to develop accurate assessment tools to make sure learners’ are well served to meet their individual need?

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A Study of Theme and Information Structure in Postgraduate Business Students' Multimodal Written Texts: A SF-MDA of Management Accounting Texts

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Abstract
THEME and INFORMATION structure facilitate the development of well-structured text, thereby providing cohesion within language. Systemic functional linguistics' (SFL) research in multimodal business communication and representation has been confined to workplace and school contexts. Similarly, empirical research studies of finance have investigated students' performance in finance courses and the effect of class attendance on students' performance. However, no published study has explored and analysed the textual features in tertiary finance texts. The importance of examining THEME and INFORMATION structure in tertiary settings becomes pertinent since it plays a vital role in maximising accounting students' learning experiences. The study aims to explore the multimodal literacy and numeracy social practices of five first-year Master of Commerce Accounting international students enrolled at an Australian university. It is of interest as most international ESL/EFL students in Australia and elsewhere are enrolled in business programs (Alyousef & Picard, 2011).

This study reports on a case study designed to investigate and analyse the use of THEME and INFORMATION structure in a key topic in the *Management Accounting* course, namely budgeting schedules. It employed the multidimensional approach proposed by Alyousef (2013) to describe the participants' learning experiences and to investigate and explore the organisation of the multimodal texts. The Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) revealed the frequency of two patterns: Theme reiteration and the linear pattern. Theme reiteration in accounting is used to define the accounting numerical values. Thematic choices in the budgeting tables are constrained by the authoritative source of knowledge for the presentation of information structure in accounting statements. A number of other interesting findings related to the flow of information structure in the multimodal tables are presented and discussed. The study concludes with the pedagogical implications of the findings.

Keywords: literacy practice; Management Accounting literacy; thematic progression; Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL); Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA); business discourse

1.Introduction

THEME and INFORMATION structure provide cohesion within language since they organise the flow of information in a text. Michael Halliday (1985, p. 38) defines Theme as the constituent which serves as “the point of departure for the message”. It is the element which comes in first position in the clause. Students need to assign and interpret a Theme appropriately. They also need to be aware of the structuring of information in terms of Given (or known) and New. Informational choices typically determine contextual known/given information in a clause. Research on business studies’ literacy and numeracy practices, however, has been mostly directed through the empirical studies of student’s performance in Principles of Finance courses (Sen, Joyce, Farrell, & Toutant, 1997) and the effect of class attendance on students’ performance (Chan, Shum, & Wright, 1997). Similarly, research studies in accounting have investigated the readability of accounting narratives in financial accounting textbooks over the past years, as measured by the length of words and sentences (Davidson, 2005) and lexical choices as measured by word choice and frequency of use (Conaway & Wardrope, 2010; Hyland, 1998; Rutherford, 2005). It is therefore pertinent to investigate the development of THEME and INFORMATION structure in international postgraduate Business students’ multimodal management accounting texts that encompass tables.

The study employed the multidimensional approach proposed by Alyousef (2013) to describe the participants’ academic literacies and to investigate and explore the organisation of the multimodal texts. Academic literacies are construed in the present research as set of socially situated multimodal literacy and numeracy social practices. Halliday’s (1994) systemic functional linguistics (hereafter SFL) provides powerful analytical tools for foregrounding the processes through which students construct disciplinary specific knowledge in a community through academic literacies. This approach to language focuses on language, context, and text. The scope of SFL is very broad; it sets out the explanation of how humans create meaning of language and various semiotic resources.

The meaning-making functions in Halliday’s (1994) social semiotic are grouped into three language metafunctions for construing (or organising) meaning *ideationally*, by representing and ordering our experience, perceptions, consciousness, and the basic logical relations (oriented towards the field of discourse), *interpersonally*, by enacting certain social relationships (oriented towards the tenor of discourse), and *textually*, by weaving ideational and interpersonal meanings into a textual whole (oriented towards the mode of discourse). The three language metafunctions provide useful linguistic tools for a Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (henceforth SF-MDA) of discourse: TRANSITIVITY (types of processes or verbs), MOOD (speech function) and modality (obligation and degree of certainty or usuality), and THEME and INFORMATION structure. They correlate respectively with three register variables of FIELD (what is talked about?), TENOR (how social roles and identities are constructed?), and MODE (How are the meanings organised). Due to space constraints, the study explores and analyses the representation of MODE, which is construed by THEME and INFORMATION structure systems.

The two systems play a major role in the unfolding of a text since it weaves the ideational and interpersonal meanings into a textual whole. Garzone (2009, p. 156) points out that "so far, contributions from linguists specifically dealing with multimodality in business discourse have been relatively few." As the present study is concerned with investigating business discourse, as well as heeding Garzone's advice, this Master of Commerce Accounting program course suits the aim of my study. As Lea and Street (2006) point out, multimodal analysis reveals the range of meanings expressed in learners' activities and genres. As they put it, multimodal analysis aids in theorising "the multimodal nature of literacy, and thus of different genres, that students need to master in order to represent different types of curriculum content for different purposes, and therefore to participate in different activities" (ibid, p. 373).

Data was composed of two group assignments on constructing budgeting schedules, a key topic in the course. The texts were written by 5 international students enrolled at a South Australian university. This study is pertinent as most international ESL/EFL students in Australia and elsewhere are enrolled in business and commerce programs (Alyousef & Picard, 2011). The present qualitative study aims: 1) toinvestigate the textual meaning (or the dominant Theme type) in the participants' texts, 2) to describe the participants' learning experiences, and 3) to investigate whether Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) approach to the analysis of visual artefacts is applicable to the semiotics of management accounting tables. The participants' learning experiencesenrich the analysesas the students attempt to provide explanations of their textsand talk about their perceptions of the relevance and significance of the academic practices in the assignment task to those in workplace and in private life situations.

The reminder of this paper is structured as follows. I first present a review of key theorists relevant to this study and the literature related to Thematic progression patterning and Information structure, in particular SFL-based research studies. Then, I present an overview of THEME and INFORMATION structure systems. This is followed by a description of data and methods of analysis. Results and discussion of the findings are then presented, followed by a conclusion and pedagogical and theoretical implications.

2.Literature review

As the present study construes academic literacies as set of socially situated multimodal literacy and numeracy social practices, I present a review of the literature which takes SFL and multimodal academic literacies approaches into account. Mustaffa and Aman's (2007) SFL study revealed that the thematic progression competence of the selected limited English proficiency (LEP) first year undergraduate learners was average. The researchers analysed the first paragraph of each essay and the longest paragraph consisted of only 12 sentences. Although the findings may contribute towards language learning, they are not generalisable since the data cannot be claimed to be a representative sample.Michael O'Toole (1994) was the first to utilize SFL in multimodal discourse analysis; in his book *The Language of Displayed Art*. As Martinec and Salway (2005, p. 339) state, systemic functional semiotics is "the one theoretical framework whose followers have concerned themselves with [intersemiotic] relations between images and texts".

It was Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) who first outlined methods for the SFL analysis of the textual layout (or organization) in images and texts through the systems of composition, framing and salience. The first system is achieved through information value (Given-New, Ideal-Real, important or less compositions), whereas the latter two are expressed through framing (lines) and salience (size/colour/tone) features.

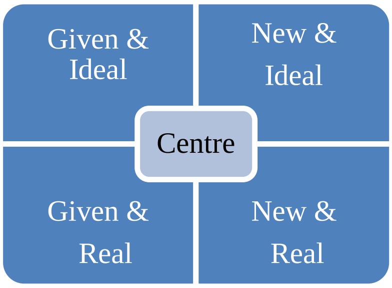

Figure 1: The grammar of visual artefacts in terms of compositional zones (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006)

Their 'information value' compositional zone layout is shown above in terms of zones: Centred, Circular, mediator composition, horizontal (or left-right) Given-New compositions, and vertical (or up-down) Ideal-Real compositions. As the present SF-MDA of management accounting texts employs Halliday's THEME and INFORMATION structure systems, it is pertinent to investigate if Kress and van Leeuwen's information value composition is applicable to the budgeting tables. Bateman (2011, p. 52) presses the need for "more empirically grounded analysis of a broader range of multimodal documents" in order to verify or disprove Kress and van Leeuwen's functional interpretations in particular contexts of use, i.e. Given-New and Ideal-Real.

SFL-based research in multimodal communication and representation has been confined to school and workplace contexts. In her book *The Handbook of Business Discourse*, Bargiela-Chiappini (2009) reviews a range of business discourse studies in workplace settings. Thomas (1997), for example, investigated the linguistic structures in a series of management messages in the annual reports of a company, employing Halliday's (1985) systems of TRANSITIVITY, thematic structure, cohesion and condensations. Camiciottoli (2010) found that discourse conjunctive devices in financial disclosure texts were more frequent in the earnings presentations than in the earnings releases, suggesting their pragmatic use influences the interpretation of the message. Although some studies have explored the linguistic (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2009; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2010; Perren & Grant, 2000; Thomas, 1997) and the technical (Craig & Moores, 2005) characteristics of management accounting discourse produced by corporate writers or speakers, the academic literacy practices of tertiary students in this business course have been overlooked.

Whereas multimodal communication research has been conducted across the fields of mathematics (O'Halloran, 1996, 2000, 2005, 2008), science and computing (Drury, O' Carroll, & Langrish, 2006; Jones, 2006; O'Halloran, 2000), and nursing (Okawa, 2008), tertiary business discourse has not been fully explored (Alyousef, 2013).

Okawa (2008) investigated the process of constituting academic literacy practices of a Japanese first year nursing student. Data were collected through classroom observations, interviews and document analysis. Okawa employed SFL in the analysis of texts to investigate, respectively, discourse at the epistemological level and texts at the lexico-grammatical level. This in turn enabled the researcher to trace the close relationship between assignments and literacy practices in nursing. The findings showed that discipline-specific knowledge is acquired through socialisation into a particular discipline. Wake (2006) also investigated the effectiveness of dialogic negotiations in economics tutorial talk of five Chinese-Malaysian students of Engineering and Business Communication majors during the course of a semester. The findings showed that any linguistic transformations in understanding were “not at all neatly incremental as described in the literature” (ibid, p. 317) since the semiotic mediation process was largely ‘devolutionary’. This different view of semiotic mediation, Wake argues, is a process of semiotic remediation. Analysis of interactions showed significant deconstruals toward more congruent representations of economic activity before students could progress in their learning.

Alyousef (2013) investigated only the experiential meaning in financial tables and graphs in management reports utilising capital budgeting techniques, employing Halliday’s (1994) system of TRANSITIVITY and O’Halloran’s (1999, 2000) multisemiotic framework for the analysis of mathematical symbolism. Although these reports are one of the most commonly used genres in the finance course, there is a lack of a text-based investigation that explores and analyses the flow of THEME and INFORMATION structure systems in international students’ reports.

As the paper aims to investigate the way international postgraduate business students construct cohesive texts, it is pertinent to provide an overview the major systems that realise the textual metafunction, namely THEME and INFORMATION structure systems.

2.1 THEME and INFORMATION structure systems

THEME and INFORMATION structure are the major structural systems within the textual metafunctionin Halliday’s (1994) SFL approach since they facilitate the development of well-structured message, thereby providing cohesion within language. As Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 94) state, “thematic and information structure carries the rhetorical gist of the clause”. Both the choice of INFORMATION and THEME systems facilitates the development of a text as a whole.

Thematic progression analysis aims to explore the development of information in a text. The notion of thematic progression was first introduced by Daneš (1974) and later developed by Fries (1981) and Halliday (1985). The system of INFORMATION consists of two functional elements, Given and New. Theme involves three major systems: choice of type of Theme, choice of marked or unmarked Theme, and choice of predicated or unpredicated Theme. There are three different Theme types: textual, interpersonal and topical. Unmarked Theme means “most typical/usual (Eggins, 2007, p. 318), while Marked Theme refers to “atypical, unusual” choice. The latter is a variation of the *unmarked whereby focused information is foregrounded.* The unmarked Theme conflates with the Mood structure constituent- i.e. Subject (in a declarative clause), Finite (in an interrogative), Predicator (in an imperative), or WH (in a WH-interrogative); the marked Theme conflates with other constituents. For example, the Circumstantial element *In Switzerland* in the sentence ‘*In Switzerland* they give you chocolate’ moved to thematic position.

Table 1: Theme types

Textual Theme	Continuatives (e.g., *umm, yeah,* ...) Conjunctions (e.g., *and, or, but*) Conjunctive adjuncts (e.g., *however, therefore, because, although,* ...) Wh-relatives (e.g., *which, who,* ...)
Interpersonal Theme	Vocatives (e.g., *Henry!, Sir!,* ...) Modal adjuncts , including mood and comment adjuncts (e.g., *probably, usually, frankly,* ...) Finite elements (e.g., *modal auxiliaries, 'be' auxiliary,* ...) Wh-question words (e.g., *who, what, where, how, why*)
Topical Theme	Participant Circumstance Process

Another unusual case of marked Theme that occurs in conversations is when the Theme conflates with the Complement which more usually follows the verb, as in ‘*some of the comments* I’ve scrubbed out’. The clause initial Subject ‘I’ is unmarked Theme. Eggins (ibid, p. 320) states that “skilful writers and speakers choose marked themes to add coherence and emphasis to their text” through the use of Theme Predication.

The most obvious thematic progression pattern in a text is the linear (or ‘sequential’/‘zig-zag’) pattern by which information placed in Rheme position is packaged in a subsequent Theme. This pattern makes a text cohesive through the cumulative development which is based on newly introduced information. Another thematic pattern which is drawn on to manage information flow is referred to as the fan pattern or multiple-Theme pattern. This pattern involves a clause (typically at the beginning of a paragraph or a text section) introducing a number of different pieces of information each of which are then picked up and used as Themes in subsequent clauses. A third form of thematic progression is one which re-iterates or maintains the Theme focus rather than developing it. It is referred to as Theme re-iteration (or the parallel) pattern. In this pattern, the repetition of a particular element typically gives a clear focus to the text. Martinec (1998, p. 162) argues that feature selections and structures of the textual meaning “enable the ideational and interpersonal ones to form the cohesive wholes called phases”. Thus, any stretch of text can be said to be cohesive when it is consistent in the experiential, interpersonal, and textual meaning.

Having reviewed the literature relevant to the present study, and presented an overview of the major systems of the textual metafunction, next I describe the data and method of analysis.

3. Data and method of analysis

The corpus was composed of two group assignments in a *Management Accounting* course that were written in English (6,263 words) by 5 students: Group 1 (2,024 words) and Group 2 (4,239 words). This course is one of the foundation courses in the Master of Commerce Accounting coursework program. Each group encompassed 2-3 students. The participants were given the pseudonyms: Abdulrahman, Abdullah and Steve (Group 1) and Omar and Peter (Group 2).

The study employed the multidimensional approach proposed by Alyousef (2013) to describe the participants' learning experiences and to investigate and explore the organisation of these texts. Drawing on the study of situated literacies (Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Barton, Hamilton, & Ivanič, 2000; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Lea, 2004; Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Street, 1984, 1998, 2003, 2012) and the New London Group multiliteracies model (Cazden et al., 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, 2013; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012) I investigated the participants' learning experiences and their explanations of their texts.

Three structured interviews were conducted with Abdulrahman, Abdullah and Omar in order to elicit their perceptions and experiences in the *Management Accounting* course. Being a member of the participants' culture facilitated my understanding of their Discourses (with a capital 'D', following Gee, 1996, 2008, 2012), which refer to forms of life which integrate words, gestures, glances, attitudes, values, beliefs, insights, experiences, and social identities. Since this qualitative study is underpinned by the interpretive 'worldview' it seeks to explore how participants describe and understand learning tasks rather than merely explain what they do (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 2002).

Two analytical tools were used for the Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) of the multimodal data, Halliday's (1994) THEME and INFORMATION structure systems and Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) principle of information value. Following Halliday (1985), independent clauses in tables were numbered and annotated in order to calculate the frequency of occurrence of each Theme type across the two texts. The use of numerical/quantitative data in this qualitative research aims to make statements such as "some," "usually," and "most" more precise. Information structure analysis of the tables was conducted in terms of given/new and ideal/real in order to find out whether Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) approach to the analysis of visual artefacts in terms of compositional zones is applicable to the semiotics of budgeting schedules, and it was conducted in terms of information value composition, Given-New and Ideal-Real.

In the next section I present and discuss the findings of the interviews, and conduct an SF-MDA of budgeting schedules.

4. Results and discussion

As stated earlier, the two texts were written by two groups: Group 1, Abdulrahman, Abdullah and Steve, and Group 2, Omar and Peter. The social purpose of the task was to produce 9 supporting schedules that were needed to compile a 'Budgeted Balance Sheet'. As Abdullah (Personal Communication, March 19, 2011) states, "inmanagement we prepare next year's budgeted balance sheets to meet expected obligations". For examples, cash receipts compare income against expenses and as to whether a company will need to resort to funding or not. This task did not constrain students for space. Each group received a distinction mark: 45 and 45.50 out of 50 respectively.

The following table compares numeracy representations in the two groups' texts:

Table 2: A pivot table of numeracy representations in the participants' texts

Group	Words			Tables	Footnotes
	Tables	Text	Total		
1. Abdulrahman , Abdullah & Steve	1416	608	2024	14	26
2. Omar and Peter	1495	2744	4239	12	0

Group 1 concisely presented its findings in 14 tables, in addition to a 206-word memo and 402-word footnotes.Although the participants in this study cannot be claimed to be a representative sample, the findings of the SF-MDA and the interviews may offer educational insights for students and tutors. Tables comprised 69.96% of the discourse in Group 1's text, in contrast to only 35.26% for Group 2, which preferred to further elucidate and provide explanations for the highly condensed accounting numeracy calculations provided in the tables.

4.1 The interviews

The interview data showed that the participants made use of their previous literacy and numeracy experiences, for example in IELTS, MS Excel spreadsheets, and the lecturer's PowerPoint presentation on 'budgeting'. Abdulrahman (Personal Communication, March 17, 2011) argues that while doing this assignment he was influenced by his previous literacy and numeracy practices when he worked in a bank after completing undergraduate studies. Also Abdullah practiced Excel Spreadsheets when he used to work in a company after he finished his undergraduate study. Both Abdulrahman and Omar agree that the lecture's PowerPoint® Presentation on 'Budgeting' was very helpful for them as it included examples similar to the requirement of the given task. This indicates that writing is a social negotiation process of meaning-making between context, students' understanding of the text and their prior knowledge and experiences. Louhiala-Salminen (2009, p. 307) argues that the business environment change at the turn of the new millennium "resulted in a wider view of Business Communication as a discipline". These changes were caused by leaps in technology, business structures, and globalisation. As a result, the participants needed a sound knowledge of Information Literacy (IL) in order for them to succeed in their learning.

The first literacy practice the two groups engaged with was to analyse language data in the Task Sheet. They then decided to meet in order to discuss and plan the literacy practices each one will contribute. Abdulrahman attended three 2-hour meetings with his group members. Group 2 organised three 3-hour meetings with Peter in order to accomplish the assignment together. Group 2 divided the text writing job between them, though Peter helped Omar by proofreading his comments and providing feedback where applicable. Influenced by their previous workplace experiences, the two groups resisted the requirement of the assignment. This was exemplified by the inclusion of footnotes and the attachment of a memo by Group 1 and the use of explanatory notes by Group 2. Group 1 (Abdullah, personal communication, March 19, 2011) states, "imagine you are in a company and your manager asks you to do budgeting calculations, will you give him the schedules without at least writing an introduction mentioning what you have done?" Although not required in the task sheet, Omar (personal communication, March 13, 2011) states that

*My group decided to use text to accompany the tables in order to elucidate and provide further explanations of the highly condensed accounting numeracy calculations. This shows the tutor that we fully understand the content of the tables and that it relates to real life professional situations since, in addition to tables, we would be required to present textual explanations to our manager. (*Group 2)

Unfortunately, the tutor did not mark the memo or the footnotes in each schedule as they were not requested in the task sheet.

Group 2 presented explanatory text along with each schedule although it was not required by the task. As the text was redundant the lecturer marked only the tabulated schedules, as shown in the sample below:

Summary Cash budget					
	Q1	Cash	Q3	Q4	Total
Beginning cash balance	$95,000	$53,000	$57,250	$107,750	$95,000
Add: cash collections	1,210,000	1,335,000	1,460,000	1,585,000	5,590,000
Total cash available	1,305,000	1,388,000	1,517,250	1,692,750	5,903,000
Less: disbursements					
Materials	(541,000)	(596,000)	(651,000)	(706,000)	(2,494,000)
Direct labour	(204,000)	(224,000)	(244,000)	(264,000)	(936,000)
Mfg.Overhed					
Indirect material	(10,200)	(11,200)	(12,200)	(13,200)	(46,800)
Indirect labor	(40,800)	(44,800)	(48,800)	(52,800)	(187,200)
Other overheads	(31,000)	(36,000)	(41,000)	(46,000)	(154,000)
Selling and admin	(100,000)	(100,000)	(100,000)	(100,000)	(400,000)
Equipment purchase	1/2 (1,000,000)	0	0	0	(1,000,000)
Dividends	1/2 (50,000)	(50,000)	(50,000)	(50,000)	(200,000)
Total disbursements	(1,977,000)	(1,062,000)	(1,147,000)	(1,232,000)	(5,418,000)
Excess(deficiency) of Cash available over disbursements	(672,000)	326,000	370,250	460,750	485,000
Financing:					
Borrowing	1,000,000	0	0	0	1,000,000
Repayments	(250,000)	(250,000)	(250,000)	(250,000)	(1,000,000)
Interest	1/2 (25,000)	1/2 (18,750)	1/2 (12,500)	1/2 (6,250)	(62,500)
Total financing	725,000	(268,750)	(262,500)	(256,250)	(62,500)
Ending cash balance	$53,000	$57,250	$107,750	$204,500	$204,500
	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2	

6/6

7

Figure 2: A sample from Group's 2 assignment

Similarly, Group 1 added a MEMO which was considered redundant as well. Abdullah (personal communication, March 19, 2011) argues that although the task sheet did not require them to write a memo, they strongly believed that in workplace settings they would normally attach a memo along with the 10 budgeting schedules when presenting the findings to a manager.

Although the inclusion of text by the two groups may correspond with workplace practices, it did not add new information. Mckenna (2004, p. 117) notes that "becoming fully literate in the higher education institution means coming to terms with its rituals, norms, values, language and behaviours". This finding may be attributed to the students' desire to 'show-off' their learning. Or, perhaps, it is caused by the lack of confidence on the part of the students in the meaning-making they feel they can achieve using only tables. The second reason for the inclusion of the extra information may be more plausible as some Saudi students believe that they will be rewarded when they show their calculations in case the final total is not right. Contrary to what Picard (2006, pp. 112-113) argues, students' unrewarded literacy and numeracy practices were not caused by the "mismatch between their individual primary discourses, especially Islamic and Arab Discourses and Western academia", but rather from their resistance to the academic expectations set up for them which contradicted with their professional experiences and expectations.

Past experiences-'micro-disciplinary' knowledge (Chandrasoma, 2007) or 'interim literacies' (Paxton, 2007, 2011)– play a crucial role in influencing students' interpretation and production of texts. Abdullah (Group 1) worked on MS Excel spreadsheets when he was employed in a company after completing his undergraduate study. Similarly, Abdulrahman (personal communication, March 17, 2011) states that while doing this assignment, he was influenced by his previous accounting literacy and numeracy practices in a bank. One of the Group 2 members, Omar (personal communication, March 13, 2011), was asked if his previous literacy and numeracy practices influenced him while doing this assignment, and he noted that part of the IELTS helped him write explanations to the tables. He is here referring to the first task in the IELTS academic writing module, in which students are required to write a 150-words report to describe the information or the process exemplified in the illustrative line graph, bar graph, pie chart, table or diagram. Both Abdulrahman and Omar agreed that the lecture's PowerPoint Presentation on 'Budgeting' was helpful for them as it included examples similar to the requirements in this task sheet. As Abdulrahman states, the module's *Course Profile* contained examples on budgeting that resembled this task. The re-contextualisation of generalised and abstracted financial schedules of discourse provided the group with significant input and assistance in their compilation of the 'Budgeted Balance Sheet'. Interim literacies (Paxton, 2007)and social connections were re-contextualised in students' current discursive setting.

One of the Group 1 members, Abdulrahman, faced some difficulties related to compounding the interest rate and using the MS Excel spreadsheets. As he puts it, "my experience [in Excel] is rudimentary". Abdullah and Steve had to revise Abdulrahman's Excel calculations and to input the required finance formulas. With the exception of Abdulrahman, the familiarity of all the other students with Excel impacted upon their ability to successfully complete the task. Abdullah (personal communication, March 19, 2011) argues that

My group faced only one difficulty. Upon receiving the tutor's feedback, we realised that we had to add back the depreciation amount to our calculations. The tutor informed us that we should not include this category in the schedules since it was stated in the fourth page of the task

He sent an e-mail to the lecturer to make sure if they had to add depreciation to their calculations or not and, unfortunately, he did not receive a reply. He then decided to post his enquiry in the module's discussion forum and the tutor sent a general message to all the students. Similarly, Group 2 (personal communication, March 13, 2011) sent an e-mail to the lecturer to make sure if they had to add depreciation to the calculations, and he replied negatively, though it did not have any difficulties in undertaking the task.

In response to the question 'what is the role of this kind of task in real life?' Omar (Group 2) argues "this task was helpful both in real life and in the workplace, for example, we can predict sales based on past quarters' performance". Similarly, Abdulrahman (Group 1) states that everyone had to frequently assess his expenses against the financial plans, though in the workplace more detailed criteria is used such as labor cost and material. While Omar agree that this task would relate to their future workplace practices, Abdulrahman and Abdullah (Group 1) argue that this was not always the case, as new issues and situations may not match what they encountered in the academic context. Abdullah contends that this practice does not resemble workplace practices and, as postgraduates, "we have to follow workplace management accounting practices".

4.2 The SF-MDA

The findings of the SF-MDA revealed the extensive use of Theme reiteration (or parallel Theme) pattern in the budgeting tables, compared to the orthographic texts (only 8 instances in Text 1 and 3 in Text 2). Linear (or 'zig-zag') pattern (the Theme follows that of the rheme element of the preceding sentence) rarely occurred in the two texts, as shown below.

Table 3. The frequency of thematic progression patterns in the two texts

Text	Reiteration				Linear		Multiple-Theme		Total Instances	
	Freq			%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
	Text	Tables	Total							
One	8	666	674	99.41	4	.59	0	0.00%	678	100.00
Two	3	1540	1543	100.00	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1543	100.00

Generally speaking, the excessive Reiteration of a Theme reduces the communicative dynamism of the message since it doesn't contribute to the development of the message. This seems to be a characteristic feature of beginning ESL/EFL learners. The pragmatic function, however, for the high frequency of Theme reiteration in the budgeting tables is that the topical Themes adhere to the conventions of information structure in financial statements. As a result, these Themes increase the communicative dynamism of the message and contribute to a well developed message. The SF-MDA of Group 2's balance sheet, for example, showed the frequency of Theme reiteration of "assets", "liabilities", "total", and "current", as shown below.

Table 4. SF-MDA of Group 2's balance sheet

Theme	Rheme
Current assets	
Cash	204,500
Accounts receivable	192,000
Inventory	
Raw materials inventory	83,200
Finished goods inventory	235,000
	318,200
Total	**714,700**
Non-current assets	
Plant & equipment	9,000,000
(Accumulated depreciation)	80,000
Total	**8,920,000**
Total assets	**9,634,700**
Liabilities	
Accounts payable	143,400
Total	**143,400**
Net assets	**9,491,300**
Equity	
Ordinary shares	5,000,000
Retained earnings	4,491,300
Total	**9,491,300**

Theme reiteration in a balance sheet typically aims to provide detailed information related to the sub-categories. THEME and INFORMATION structure choices in financial statements are constrained by the generally accepted principles (or ideologies) of accounting for the presentation of financial statements, i.e. agreements acting as invariant guides, adopting Chambers' term (1995: 249). For example, the categories of the balance sheet are classified according to the principle of liquidity that contributes to the cohesion and coherence of the text. Assets and liabilities are classified according to their general characteristics: CURRENT or NON-CURRENT. Each category is listed in the order of liquidity, under its relevant classification. Chambers (1995, pp. 248-249) also points out that these categories are influenced by "mathematics, economics, law, judgment and choice, language and communication, metrology, and politics and ethics". These seven enquiry fields bear on the processes and products of accounting.

The topical Themes in the two texts were often preceded by elements derived from the textual system, the conjunctions 'then' and 'in addition', that linked paratactic clause complexes. Linear thematic progression is expected in expository accounting genre as each sentence logically relates to what has preceded. Conjunctions though did not fill the Theme position by themselves since their main function is relating the message to the immediate context of the preceding clause. Examples of thematic progression in the two texts are shown below.

Table 5.Examples of thematic progression in the two groups' texts

	THEME (T)			RHEME (R)	Theme Type
Text	Textual	Interpersonal	Topical		
One			For the S line,	*Q1 2011 sales*were calculated at 55,000, based on	
			For the L line,	*Q1 2011 sales*were calculated at 45,000, based on	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern
			These calculations	resulted in total projected sales revenue ...	Linear (or 'sequential' or 'zig-zag') progression pattern
			The results	Linear (or 'sequential' or 'zig-zag') progression pattern	are shown below in Table 1:
			40% of Q1 sales	were paid in cash, resulting in a sum of $220,000.	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern
	In addition,		20% of the credit sales from the previous quarter	were included,	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern
			which	amounted to $60,000.	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern
			We then	deduct interest expense,	
			which	is taken from the summary cash budget in Table 7.	Linear (or 'sequential' or 'zig-zag') progressio

					n pattern
			Deducting *these expenses* from gross profit	gives a quarterly net income figure	Linear (or 'sequential' or 'zig-zag') progression pattern
			We then	allow for $200,000 of dividends to be paid, ...	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern
	while		the remaining 20%	are paid in the next quarter.	
			The figure of $717,000	is taken from the direct materials budget ...	Linear (or 'sequential' or 'zig-zag') progression pattern
Two			Financing for the proposal	is assumed over a one year period, at a 10% per annum interest rate.	
			Repayment of the *financing* amount	is expected to occur within the year, and ….	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern
			Sales in the fourth quarter of 2010	are expected to be 50,000 S frames and 40,000 L frames.	
			Sales in each product line over the next two years	are predicted to grow by 5,000 units each quarter over the previous quarter.	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern
			f) Sales for each product	will grow by 5000 units each quarter.	
			g) *Product sales* price	will remain constant over 2011.	Reiteration or parallel progression pattern

The Theme in the first two examples in text 1 is marked as it is announced explicitly by means of the expression *for*. The deictic element *which* in text 1 is thematic as it serves two functions: as a marker of some special status of the clause (i.e. textual) and as an element in the experiential structure (i.e. topical).

Halliday (2005, pp. 270-271) states that New is realised by “tonic prominence” and by “what is made prominent (by the speaker) to the listener”; however, Rheme is not always associated with New in the budgeting tables. It can be argued when the numerical value in the table is elicited from the task sheet both the Theme and the Rheme are associated with Given information, whereas when the Value is not mentioned in the task sheet the Rheme is associated with New.

This finding contradicts with Kress and van Leeuwen’s (2006) ‘information value’ compositional zone layout. Kress and van Leeuwen’s left-hand and right-hand spatial dimensions do not always correspond to the linguistic concept of ‘the given' and 'the new'. The positions ‘ideal’ and ‘real’ are determined according to the ‘material value’ of each category in the budgeting tables. The topical given Themes along the tables’ horizontal axes are presented to the left side by the categories and the sub-categories, whereas the new key information is represented by the numerical values to the right side. The numerical values in the budgeting tables do not always correspond with ‘New’ information. As a result, left-hand and right-hand spatial dimensions do not always correspond to the linguistic concept of ‘Given' and 'New'.

Clauses in budgeting tables have *thematic equative* structures (Halliday, 1967) as each takes the form *x* equals. As Group 1’s text comprised tables only, it had more instances of this structure type than Group 2. This structure type is called pseudo-cleft in formal grammar since it is reversible. It is linked by a relationship of identity, expressed by some form of the verb *be* that links the Rheme with the Theme, and has two identification functions: “a 'thing to be identified' and an 'identifier', that with which it is to be identified” (ibid, p. 224).So, for example, the meaning of the clause “Sales units for S Q1 55,000” in the table below is realised semantically as “Sales units [Token, Identified] for the S Line in Quarter 1 is [Pr: Implicit Relational Identifying]55,000 [Value, Identifier]”.

Table 6: Group 2’s Sales Budget for S and L Line

	Sales budget S				
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Total
Sales units	55,000	60,000	65,000	70,000	250,000.00
Selling price per unit ($)	10	10	10	10	10
Total revenue ($)	550,000.00	600,000.00	650,000.00	700,000.00	**2,500,000.00**
	Sales budget L				
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Total
Sales units	45,000	50,000	55,000	60,000	210,000.00
Selling price per unit ($)	15	15	15	15	15
Total revenue ($)	675,000.00	750,000.00	825,000.00	900,000.00	**3,150,000.00**
Total Sales ($)	1,225,000.00	1,350,000.00	1,475,000.00	1,600,000.00	**5,650,000.00**

A tutor may also elaborate by saying “the number of units sold for the S Line in the first Quarter is 55,000” since this interpretation is congruent with the spoken mode of accounting budgets. Unlike the spoken mode, messages are condensed in the Sales

Budget through the deletion of action processes, human actors, and the sequences of clauses. The total number of *thematic equative* structures in the Group 2's Sales Budget above is 35.The discourse of the multimodal budgeting schedules genre is highly metaphorical since their components use the implicit relationship that links the Rheme with the Theme.

Having presented and discussed the findings related to the SF-MDA of the budgeting tables, what follow is the conclusion and the implications.

5. Conclusion and implications

Employing the multidimensional approach proposed by Alyousef (2013), I have described the participants' academic literacies in a *Management Accounting* course and investigated the organisation of THEME and INFORMATION structures in the multimodal texts.

Drawing on the study of situated literacies (Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Barton et al., 2000; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Lea, 2004; Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Street, 1984, 1998, 2003, 2012) and the New London Group multiliteracies model (Cazden et al., 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, 2013; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012) I have investigated the participants' actual practices and their explanations of their texts. The participants simulated workplace practices by adopting the role of management accountants in order to provide nine supporting schedules that were needed to compile a "Budgeted Balance Sheet".

The research case study revealed that accounting discourse is not only represented by quantitative technical calculations but also by qualitative material. Students were expected to engage in interdiscursive multimodal literacy and numeracy practices resulting not only from their engagement in non-technocentric tasks (the use of accounting discourse) but also in technocentric tasks (the use of word processors, spreadsheets). The participants' transfer of previously constructed meaning-making practices into this learning context showed that the social stocks of tacit knowledge are "being built up, maintained, transmitted and also modified in communicative processes" (Günthner & Knoblauch, 1995, p. 5). The transfer of previously constructed meaning-making practices into learning contexts forms what the New London Group called 'Transformed Practice'(or the 'redesigned').

Influenced by their previous workplace experiences, the participants resisted the requirement of the assignment. This was exemplified by the inclusion of footnotes and the attachment of a memo by Group 1 and the use of explanatory notes by Group 2. Although these practices may correspond with workplace practices, the tutor disregarded them when assessing the texts because they were not part of the academic task. This resistance may have either positive or negative impact upon the development of students' literacy and numeracy practices.

Drawing on Halliday's SFL and Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) inter-semiotic principle of information value, I have conducted an SF-MDA of *Management Accounting* texts for the systems of THEME and INFORMATION structures. The findings indicated the high frequency of Theme reiteration in financial tables and the rare occurrence of Linear thematic pattern. The overuse of Theme reiteration in the budgeting tables provides a strong topical focus by presenting additional information that is constrained by the generally accepted principles (or ideologies) for the presentation of information structure in accounting statements. The participants successfully managed to construct the ten budgeting schedules.

The analysis of informational choices in budgeting tables extends Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) approach to the analysis of visual artefacts in terms of compositional zones. Kress and van Leeuwen's criteria for recognizing spatial configurations were disconfirmed in the analysis of the budgeting tables. Both the thematic and the rhematic statuses are combined with either Given or New. Regardless of its position in the table, a numerical value in *Management Accounting* tables can be either given or new information, depending on whether it is known before calculations or not, i.e. elicited from the task sheet (Given) or calculated (New). It is therefore argued that, unlike orthographic texts, the Rheme in the budgeting tables can be either Given or New. This finding is in line with Jones' (2006) argument that an image or text occurring on the right side does not necessarily present new visual or verbal information.

This research paper contributes to our understanding of thematic progression in a key topic in the *Management Accounting* discourse, budgeting tables. A number of pedagogical and theoretical implications can be suggested as an outcome of this research study. The SF-MDA of the budgeting tables showed that SFL is a powerful resource for analysing meanings inscribed in them. As thematic progression patterning plays a vital role in organizing the flow of THEME and INFORMATION structure in a text, it can be emphasized in teacher training and in the teaching and learning of writing, particularly in the teaching of English for Business Purposes (EBP). Students' learning experiences and their understanding of the meaning making resources may be greatly enhanced and, in turn, affect them in and beyond university. For a text to be coherent, Business students of *Management Accounting* need to be aware of the generally accepted principles of accounting that govern thematic and informational structure choices in the budgeting tables through the overuse of Theme reiteration.

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Development of English Reading Comprehension Ability, Problem Solving Skills and Ethics by Integrating Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy for Undergraduates

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Abstract

Phranakhon Rajabhat University, Thailand has been the leading institute for teaching for more than 123 years. Moving the university into 21st century, the president of the university emphasizes that the undergraduates in College of Teacher Education achieve competence in English and meet the standard of Thai Qualifications Framework for Higher Education. However, the second-year Elementary Education Program students' average English score tested by the university is lower than the criteria. Their average pre-test scores in English reading comprehension ability and problem solving skills of English for Elementary Teachers course don't meet the criteria. Moreover, they have the ideas that some wrong conduct can be done. The researcher decides to integrate His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej's Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy into English for Elementary Teachers course. The purposes of this research are to 1) compare their English reading comprehension ability before and after the experiment, 2) compare their problem solving skills before and after the experiment, 3) explore their ethics after the experiment, and 4) investigate their satisfaction of the instruction integrated by Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy. The subject is a class of the second year undergraduates taking English for Elementary Teachers course in the first semester of the academic year 2014. The results show that the integration of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy improves their English reading comprehension ability and problem solving skills, enhances their ethics, and promotes their satisfaction. This finding will be useful for instructing English reading comprehension for students in Basic Education and Higher Education.

1. Introduction

The undergraduates studying in Elementary Education Program, the new curriculum developed in 2013, at Phranakhon Rajabhat University got a teacher license from the Teachers Council of Thailand after they graduated. Then they were able to teach elementary students, the most important age of all. They had high responsibility for teaching them to possess core knowledge and necessary skills, especially English skills. This was because English played the important role in communication with people around the world, especially people in ASEAN countries included Thailand, Myanmar, Laos, Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, Cambodia, and Brunei. All the countries in the ASEAN community agreed to use English as the medium of communication. So English became the second language of the countries in the ASEAN community (ASEAN Department 2014). English preparation for the undergraduates was essential since it was a policy of Phranakhon Rajabhat University to develop their English to communicate in the real world and to meet the learning domains of Thai Qualifications Framework for Higher Education, including Ethical and Moral Development, Knowledge, Cognitive Skills, Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility, and Analytical and Communication Skills.

Communication skills meant that undergraduates could communicate effectively in Thai language and in English. Development of the English communicative competence for the students was one of the university strategies. After the researcher took responsibility to teach the English for Elementary Teachers course to the undergraduates in the Elementary Education Program in the first semester of the academic year 2014, it was found that their English reading comprehension, problem solving and ethics needed to be improved. Their average English score evaluated by the university was quite lower than the criteria. Moreover, their average pre-test scores in English reading comprehension ability and intellectual ability focused on the problem solving skills did not meet the criteria. According to the details obtained by the interview, their ethics also needed to be improved because of their pessimism.

This research was focused on English reading skill because the undergraduates in the Elementary Education Program gave information while interviewing with the researcher that they had obstacles to reading. That was the reason why they did not gain high English achievement. Reading was essential for the undergraduates to use inside and outside the classroom. According to a research result conducted by Prathuangsook (2006), it was found that all the four skills, reading was the most used in the higher education level since undergraduates needed to read academic articles, textbooks, assignments, researches, and PowerPoint presentations as parts of their study. They also read outside the classroom which was the element of reading in the future. Ditzhazy and Maylone (2004) cited that reading helped youngsters relax, developed a richer authentic intellectual capacity and enhanced honesty when readers said that reading was fun and enrichment.

To develop their English reading comprehension, problem solving skills and ethics together, the integration of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy into the instruction was used. The integration method of the instruction with Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy helped people of all levels have guidelines to solve their problems (Ratthapong 2011), develop undergraduates' English reading comprehension (Parichart 2011), contribute the students' desirable characteristics such as virtue and ethics (Saranya, Komwat and Chatira 2009), and support learners' higher level of living behavior (Kannika 2010). Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy was the theory developed by His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej of Thailand. It emphasized that people followed the middle path included moderation, reasonableness, and self-immunity which were needed two conditions to make good decision and to do any activities for happiness in their daily lives. The first condition was knowledge, including prudent and appropriate knowledge, and the second one was integrity, including honesty, diligence, wisdom, sharing, and perseverance. The middle path was a way of thorough thinking, appropriate conducting themselves in the world full of luxurious temptations by using and consuming products without extravagance, stinginess, and impact on the expense of oneself or others, careful considering of outcomes that might happen after such action, and preparing to cope with various influence situations changing in the future (King Bhumibol Adulyadej cited from The Chaipattana Foundation 2007).

2. Research Objectives

The purposes of the research were to 1) compare the undergraduates' English reading comprehension ability before and after the experiment, 2) compare their problem solving skills before and after the experiment, 3) explore their ethics after the experiment, and 4) investigate their satisfaction of the instruction integrated Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy.

3. The sample

The sample, selected by purposive sampling method, was 36 second year undergraduates in the Elementary Education Program who studied the English for Elementary Teachers course in the first semester of the academic year 2014 at Phranakhon Rajabhat University, Thailand.

4. Data Analysis

The research statistics were mean, standard deviation, and dependent t-test. A software package, SPSS statistics, was used for data analysis.

5. Research instruments

The instruments, based on the integration of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, were 1) lesson plans, 2) The pretest and posttest of English reading comprehension ability, 3) The pretest and posttest of problem solving skills, 4) the ethical evaluation form, and 5) the undergraduate satisfaction questionnaire of the instruction.

6. The Research Results and Discussions

6.1. English Reading Comprehension Ability

After the undergraduates learned English reading through the instruction integrated Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy**,** their English reading comprehension ability was higher than before learning through it. The details were shown in the table 1.

Table 1: The comparison between pretest of reading comprehension ability and posttest of English reading comprehension ability

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Posttest - Pretest	5.61	1.49	.25	5.10	6.12	22.47	35	.000

Table 1 above showed that there was a significant difference between the pretest of English reading comprehension ability and posttest of English reading comprehension ability. This indicated that the undergraduates' English reading comprehension ability after learning through the integration of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy was significantly higher than before learning through it at the statistical level of .05.

6.2. Problem Solving Skills

When the students learned the short story, entitled "The Necklace", based on Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, they were enhanced conveying their own ideas about ways of solving problems in the characters' situations and in their own situations. The research result revealed that their problem solving skills after the experiment was higher than before learning through it. The details were shown in the table 2.

Table 2: The comparison between the pretest of the problem solving skills and the posttest of the problem solving skills

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Posttest - Pretest	6.00	1.54	.25	5.48	6.52	23.23	35	.000

Table 2 above showed that there was a significant difference between the pretest of the problem solving skills and the posttest of the problem solving skills. This revealed that the students' problem solving skills after learning through the integration of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy was higher than before learning through it at the significantly statistical level of .05.

6.3. Ethics

The ethics of the undergraduates were observed while they were doing activities in the classroom. They were evaluated when they expressed their ideas, discussed with their friends, worked in groups and did the assignments. Their ethics were found at a good level after the experiment. The details were shown in the table 3.

Table 3: The results of the ethic level after the undergraduates learned through the integration of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy.

Evaluation List	Mean	S.D.	Result of Ethic Level
1. The Aspect of Reasonableness			
1.1 Solving problems based on the principles	4.19	0.92	Good
1.2 Describing the causes of the problems	4.25	0.55	Good
1.3 Predicting some effects of the problems	4.33	0.76	Good
1.4 Solving all problems reasonably	4.08	0.55	Good
Total of the Reasonableness Aspect	**4.21**	**0.70**	**Good**
2. The Aspect of the Self-Immunity			
2.1 Solving problems based on help and cooperation	4.14	0.83	Good
2.2 Solving problems based on generosity	4.36	0.64	Good
2.3 Solving problems based on honesty	4.28	0.51	Good
2.4 Solving problems based on goodness	4.42	0.69	Good
Total of the Self-Immunity Aspect	**4.30**	**0.66**	**Good**
3. The Aspect of the Moderation			
3.1 Solving problems based on sufficiency	4.39	0.55	Good
3.2 Solving problems based on public consideration	4.55	0.56	Very Good
3.3 Solving problems by using sources and environment economically	4.30	0.86	Good
3.4 Applying the technology to support their problem solving effectively	4.44	0.69	Good
Total of the Moderation Aspect	**4.42**	**0.67**	**Good**
4. The Aspect of Morality			
4.1 Doing their assignments honestly	4.25	0.81	Good
4.2 Doing their assignments patiently	4.61	0.55	Very Good
4.3 Endeavoring to achieve their assignments	4.42	0.73	Good
4.4 Doing the assignments through perseverance	4.47	0.65	Good
Total of the Morality aspect	**4.44**	**0.68**	**Good**
5. The Aspect of Knowledge			
5.1 Identifying appropriate ways to solve problems	4.22	0.83	Good
5.2 Describing steps of problem solving thoroughly	4.11	0.75	Good
5.3 Solving problems thoroughly	4.05	0.79	Good
5.4 Solving problems based on morality	4.66	0.48	Very Good
Total of the Knowledge aspect	**4.26**	**0.71**	**Good**
Total of all aspects	**4.35**	**0.68**	**Good**

Table 3 indicated that the undergraduates' ethics after learning through the instruction integrated Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy was at a good level with the mean of 4.35. Considering the evaluation list in each aspect, they performed their most ethic in the aspect of morality at a good level with the mean of 4.44. When all of the items under each aspect were considered, they showed their most ethic in the item of solving problems based on morality under the aspect of the Knowledge at a very good level with the mean of 4.66.

6.4. Student Satisfaction

The undergraduates expressed their satisfaction of the instruction integrated Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy as the details shown in the table 4.

Table 4: The results of Student Satisfaction of the instruction integrated Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy

Evaluation List	Mean	S.D.	Result of Satisfaction Level
1. The Aspect of the Contents			
1.1 Vocabularies and expressions learned from the instruction	4.86	0.35	Highest
1.2 Grammar obtained from the instruction	4.19	0.62	High
1.3 The story used for the instruction	4.67	0.54	Highest
1.4 The contents based on the Philosophy	4.61	0.49	Highest
Total of the Content Aspect	**4.58**	**0.50**	Highest
2. The Aspect of the Instruction			
2.1 Developing English reading comprehension.	4.25	0.55	High
2.2 Enhancing problem solving skills.	4.72	0.45	Highest
2.3 Promoting morality	4.92	0.28	Highest
2.4 Using the Instruction to integrate the Philosophy	4.58	0.50	Highest
2.5 Having the opportunity to express opinions	4.69	0.47	Highest
2.6 Answering questions to the students	4.39	0.49	High
2.7 Allocated time used for the instruction	4.17	0.74	High
Total of the Instruction Aspect	**4.53**	**0.50**	**Highest**
3. The Aspect of the Teaching Materials			
3.1 Appropriateness with the contents	4.50	0.66	Highest
3.2 Relation to the contents	4.47	0.61	High
3.3 Modernity of the teaching materials	4.06	0.63	High
3.4 Interest of the teaching materials	4.33	0.59	High
Total of the Teaching Material Aspect	**4.34**	**0.62**	**High**
4. The Aspect of the Evaluation			
4.1 Ethic evaluation method	4.22	0.64	High
4.2 Feedback to the students	4.67	0.48	Highest
4.3 Reading evaluation	4.19	0.58	High
4.4 Problem solving evaluation	4.31	0.53	High
4.5 Allocated time for doing the tests	4.28	0.66	High
Total of the Evaluation Aspect	**4.33**	**0.58**	**High**
Total of all Aspects	**4.45**	**0.55**	**High**

Table 4 showed that the student satisfaction of the instruction integrated Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy was at a high level with the mean of 4.45. When the evaluation list was considered in each aspect, it was found that they had the most satisfaction of the Contents at a highest level with the mean of 4.58. The item of Promoting Morality under the aspect of the Instruction was found the most satisfaction at a highest level with the mean of 4.92.

7. Discussion of findings:

There were some interesting findings obtained from the undergraduates while the researcher conducted the research in the classroom. The research results could be discussed about the reasons why the instruction integrated Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy developed English reading comprehension, problem solving skills and ethics as follow:

7.1. The undergraduates had the highest level of satisfaction of the Promoting Morality because the story chosen to teach them contained many moralities such as the effects of lies, extravagance, dissatisfaction with the situation in life and greed. They gave information in the questionnaire that the story was excellent because it contained a lot of ethics found in the real world. They really enjoyed reading it because they wanted to know what was going to happen to the woman who borrowed the diamond necklace from her friend. Furthermore, it taught them to accept their mistakes, to be satisfied with the situation in life despite being poor, and to have sufficiency.

7.2. The undergraduates had a good level of ethics because they had to carry out all the activities based on the principles of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy which focused on three pillars and two conditions. The three pillars included moderation, reasonableness, and self-immunity. The two conditions were knowledge condition, including prudent and appropriate knowledge, and integrity condition, including honesty, diligence, wisdom, sharing and perseverance.

7.3. Their English reading ability and problem solving skills were higher after they learned through the integration of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy because it contained cause and effect that enhanced their reading comprehension ability and problem solving skills.

8. Suggestions

This research had beneficial suggestions as follows:

8.1. Teachers of English who want to integrate Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy into the English for Elementary Teachers course should select short stories containing Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy in order to encourage students to analyze problems or situations with the Philosophy. They should include reasonableness, moderation, and self-immunity for sufficient protection based on knowledge condition (prudent and appropriate condition) and integrity condition (honesty, diligence, wisdom, sharing, and perseverance)

8.2. The length of the short story should be appropriate for allocated time for the instruction in the classroom. Teachers should divide the story into parts as a scaffold to help students who have low learning achievement in English.

8.3. Teachers should ask undergraduates to explain which concepts of Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy they use to solve problems. That is the crucial activity because they express their own opinions with principles instead of with their opinions.

8.4. Teachers should not say which solutions are wrong or bad, but they should encourage the students to give more solutions and accept the positive ones.

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Learning from English Lecturers' Voices in Teaching Oral Communication in EFL Classrooms in Indonesia

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Abstract
Research in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings indicates that teaching oral communication continues to pose many challenges for various reasons. Teachers' limited competence, students' low proficiency level, and the use of inappropriate teaching methods are some of the most commonly perceived reasons that can compromise effective English teaching to improve students' oral communication skills. Yet, little is known about English language teacher educators' (ELTEs) pedagogical practices in the context of English language teacher education programs (ELT-EP) in Indonesia. The purpose of the study reported in this article was to investigate ELTEs' voices regarding teaching oral communication to pre-service English language teachers (PELTs). Using semi-structured interviews, data from eleven ELTEs, who were teaching speaking and listening at a university in the Province of Gorontalo in Indonesia, were collected. Using a thematic analysis approach, the findings showed one major theme, viz. "challenges", which incorporated three sub-themes: "ineffective classroom management"; "time spent for other roles"; and "inadequate teaching facilities". It is suggested that listening more closely to the ELTEs' voices might help tailor teacher education programs to Indonesian contexts. A number of possible solutions generated from the analysis of data are provided in order to assist teacher educators in similar contexts in their pedagogical practices.

Keywords: English language teaching, Oral communication, Pre-service teacher education

Introduction

The purpose of the study reported in this article was to investigate ELTEs' voices in teaching oral communication classes in the context of ELT-EP in a university in Indonesia. The reasons why this investigation took place were twofold. First, through such investigation, it was expected that continual improvement with regard to developing students' oral proficiency level through teacher education might be facilitated. Second, the investigation focused on examining to what extent the practices of teaching English in the program had satisfied the requirements stipulated in the Government Law of Republic of Indonesia No. 19/2005 on Standard of National Education.

This article initially looks at the need to listen to teachers' voices, current practice of teaching English and the standard of national education in Indonesia, before outlining the research objectives, methodology and findings, and finally closing with a discussion, conclusion and some recommendations.

Why listen to English language teacher educators?

Teachers' cognition, along with their teaching methodology and resources, plays a significant role in language teaching and learning. Bedir (2010) suggests that what teachers know and believe influences their instructional practices and classroom behaviours. One determinant factor that is crucial to the improvement of these teaching practices and classroom behaviours is the teachers' professional preparation program (Borg, 2003).

Research about teacher education programs has been extensive, especially in the context of Indonesia (e.g. Luciana, 2006; Zein, 2014). The results point out the inadequacy of much pre-service teacher education in English language teaching in Indonesia. Zein (2014), for example, who examined lecturers' voices at some pre-service teacher training institutions in Indonesia, suggests a reformulation of the English language curriculum to tackle issues about teaching young learners at secondary schools. At the same time, investigations about ELTEs' voices regarding teaching oral communication in a ELT-EP in Indonesia remain scarce. Accordingly, it is useful to listen to ELTEs' voices, situated within the current position of ELT in Indonesia and in light of relevant official standards.

Current position of English Language Teaching in Indonesia

English language learning occupies a significant space in the Indonesian educational system. At the secondary school level, English serves as a compulsory subject from Year 7 to 12, and is tested in the national examination. At the tertiary level, mainly in the first and second year of an undergraduate study, English is learnt as a compulsory coursework unit (Yulia, 2013). The inclusion of English as a Foreign Language into the Indonesian curriculum at these levels of education is mandated in Chapter 33 and 37 of The Law of Republic of Indonesia No. 20/2003 on the System of National Education, and Chapter 3 Section 9 of The Decree of Government of Republic of Indonesia No. 19/2005 on the National Standards of Education.

The Eight National Standards of Education

To ensure the effectiveness of educational practices in all levels of education in Indonesia, the Indonesian government issued a law No. 19/2005, which regulates the eight national standards of education. These standards are:

1. Standard of the graduates' competence, which relates to attitude, knowledge, and skills
2. Standard of content, which relates to the scope of lessons and level of competence
3. Standard of process, which relates to the implementation of education
4. Standard of educators and educational practitioners, which relates to criteria of pre-service and in-service training, and the physical and the mental feasibility
5. Standard of facilities, which relates to the minimum criteria of learning facilities
6. Standard of management, which relates to the planning, implementation and supervision of educational activities
7. Standard of budgeting, which relates to the budgeting of annual costs of an educational institution.
8. Standard of educational evaluation, which relates to the mechanism, procedures and assessment instruments

By meeting these standards, Indonesian educational institutions are expected to provide the best services of education to their students and ensure that graduates are able to compete in the growing labour market. The key objectives and related research questions for the study reported here grew out of this context.

Objectives and the key research question

The study sought to examine ELTEs experiences when teaching oral communication at an English teacher training university in Indonesia. The aim of the study was to facilitate improvements in these teacher educators' language classroom practices. The key question asked was "What challenges do you encounter in teaching oral communication?"

Data collection and analysis

The study used a constructivist paradigm, seeking to describe and reconstruct what the participants perceived about their pedagogical practices. Data was gathered using a purposive sampling method. All English lecturers who taught oral communication, that is speaking and listening, were invited to participate in an individual semi-structured interview that lasted for approximately 30-45 minutes for each interviewee. To establish trustworthiness, the participants were provided with accounts of what they said during the interviews for member checking purposes (Erlandson et al., 1993).

To analyse the data, a thematic approach was used. Transcripts of interviews with the participants were read several times in order to select which unit of data to analyse. The analysis commenced by picking up themes related to the key research question. The unit of data was examined twice in different periods in order to anticipate bias.

Feedback from a colleague who had expertise in using a thematic approach as a tool to analyse research data was used for cross-checking purposes.

Findings

The data revealed that the three major challenges that the ELTEs experienced were ineffective classroom management, time spent for other roles, and inadequate teaching facilities. The subsequent paragraphs describe each of these challenges.

(a) Ineffective classroom management

Several ELTEs, namely ELTE5, ELTE6, ELTE8, and ELTE11 reported that they had difficulties when managing their classes for two reasons, namely, large classes and time constraints. ELTE6, for example, said she found it difficult to manage her class because of the class size:

> So it's really hard for me to accommodate all the things because we have…we are… in… ya that's one of my challenges. Well, because we have big classes. We have thirty students in the class. So, sometimes I can't explore all students' capability because of the big class. ..." (ELTE6:67)

Similarly, ELTE11 said that unless there were fewer students in the classroom, it would be difficult for the ELTEs to teach effectively:

> But sometimes we don't have to arrange the class because the class is big class ya. One class is many person like thirty four person one class. So it's very big class, I think. So it's very difficult for us to arrange the class, to manage the class. It's very difficult for us to teach them. If we have just twenty person in this class it easy for us to arrange, to manage the class, how to prepare the students. Like this. (ELTE11:40)

On the other hand, ELTE5 perceived that the ineffectiveness was also due to the limited teaching hours at the department, which discouraged the PELTs to use English effectively when communicating orally:

> It's only about a hundred minutes and then there are twenty or even more students in the class. So if we calculate, so dealing with a hundred minutes and thirty students or let just say twenty. It means that students only speak five minutes. So in one week they only have a chance to speak English five minutes and I think it less than enough for them to be better in English." (ELTE5:28)

In support of ELTE's views, ELTE8 indicated as follows:

> Ya, if we based on the schedule of the sixteen may be fifteen meeting based on the course, I think it's not enough because the student needs more time so they should practice by themselves. (ELTE8:59)

In brief, the challenge of "ineffective classroom management" was categorized into three sub-types, as shown in the following table. The next section describes the second type of challenges, namely "time spent for other roles".

Codes	Frequency of references
Large classes	2
Teaching hour is limited	1
Students only speak five minutes	1

Figure 1: Codes relating to "ineffective classroom management"

(b) Time spent for other roles

"Time spent for other roles" was seen by ELTE3, ELTE4, ELTE10, and ELTE11 as a type of challenge that they experienced outside the classroom context. One example of the type, according to ELTE3, was frequent lecturers' meetings:

> So if you are asking about what's my problem, so far no. But now, what I feel now, is my time. Sometimes I'm not, I cannot concentrate, full concentrate, a hundred percent, because I have to think about other things, like there will be a meeting at two o'clock or something else or I have to do this. But now everything we have to do at the same time." (ELTE3:58)

Another ELTE, ELTE 11, for instance, contended that her colleagues and she were often required to get involved in administrative tasks and to become part of a committee of some events. As she put it,

> *Mereka harus mempersiapkan, harus ada kepanitiaan, terlibat langsung dalam panitia-panitia. Semua administrasi harus dikerjakan oleh dosen. Padahal sebenarnya adalah tugas kita mengajar. Jadi kita fokusnya hanya mengajar. Terkadang kita mempersiapkan untuk pengajaran, untuk mengajar, tapi terbentur dengan tugas-tugas lain yang memang harus dibebankan kepada kita administrasinya" (ELTE11:42, in Bahasa Indonesia)*

> They [teachers] have to prepare, there has to be a committee, been involved in that committees. All administrative tasks have to be done by the lecturers even though our duty is to teach. So we focus only on teaching. Sometimes we prepare for teaching, to teach, but we are ... with other duties which are imposed on us. (Researcher's translation, ELTE11:42)

The ELTEs reported two sub-types with respect to the "time spent for other roles" challenge. The subsequent table presents the sub-types, followed by the section "limited teaching facilities".

Codes	Frequency of references
Doing administrative tasks	2
Frequent lecturers meeting	3

Figure 2: Codes relating to “time spent for other roles”

(c) Limited teaching facilities

Many of the ELTEs (ELTE1, ELTE2, ELTE5, ELTE6, ELTE 10 and ELTE11) mentioned “limited teaching facilities” as another type of challenges that they faced in the classrooms. For instance, ELTE1 said:

> We don’t have LCD. If I have a slide but then, you know, ma’am it’s broken. (ELTE1:49)

In support of this view, ELTE10 stated:

> *Kalau dari segi operasionalnya, ininya, alat-alatnya, ya biasanya kami itu di atas panas. Terus biasanya berapa kali saya turun ke bawah untuk mengajar karena di atas speaker-nya tidak jalan. Semuanya tidak ada yang jalan. … Kalau mau speaker keluar dan perlu mau pakai LCD, tidak ada LCD. Informasi LCD di jurusan rusak semua. Termasuk yang di lab rusak semua (laughing). (ELTE10:30, in Bahasa Indonesia)*
>
> With regards to the operational reason, it’s, the devices, ya it’s usually hot up there. Also, I usually go downstairs many times to teach because the speakers up there [in the classroom on the 2nd floor] does not work. All of them do not work. … When we want speakers and need to use LCD, we can’t get an LCD. They said that all the LCD belong to this department are broken. And so are those in the laboratory (laughing). (Researcher’s translation, ELTE10:30)

ELTE2, on the other hand, pointed out that the limited teaching facilities challenges also related to the inadequacy of textbooks. She said:

> “…kalau (In) Speaking actually we don’t have any specific textbook. Because ya, I mean there are many supporting books but it depends on them. They can explore theirselves by their own …” (ELTE2:50)

The table below categorizes different sub-types of this “limited teaching facilities” challenge. Discussion on all of the types of challenges in teaching oral communication described earlier is presented in the subsequent section.

Codes	Frequency of references
Faulty LCD	2
No specific textbook used	3
Faulty audio speakers	1

Figure 3: Codes relating to “inadequate teaching facilities”

Discussion

The findings revealed that the types of challenges that the ELTEs experienced in teaching oral communication were ineffective classroom management, time spent for other roles, and limited teaching facilities. Many scholars perceive that large classes and time constraints, especially with limited teaching hours, often prevent language learners from making use of all the linguistic resources they have in EFL communication. This is particularly the case of EFL learning in Indonesia. Due to the restricted amount of exposure to English users, and despite the long period of English learning at the school level, many high school and university graduates in Indonesia are generally seen as low competence speakers of English (Lie, 2007). In fact, Lamb and Coleman (2008) added that the problem with this low competence is also caused by a poor teaching quality, which results from the teachers' low salary, low level of English literacy, and limited opportunities for in-service training.

Researchers from other EFL settings have also raised similar voices. Abu Alyan (2013), for example, who investigated the kind of problems that were faced by the students and the teachers in an English Department program at a Palestinian university, suggests that both the students and the teachers consider large classes and limited teaching hours as problems that compromise effective oral communication instruction. Another researcher, Li (1998), indicated that one of the challenges that teachers in South Korea encountered in their English classrooms was a lack of time. Due to their heavy workload, the teachers found it difficult to write materials and to design classroom activities on their own if they wanted to apply a communicative approach in their classrooms.

Because expectations over effective and qualified English language teachers in the Indonesian context remains exceptionally high, it is crucial to find ways to address all the challenges. Rectifying problems that grow out of the classroom context, including the shortage of teaching and learning resources, should also include that from outside the classroom context, notably the time that the ELTEs spent on performing additional roles. By so doing, as suggested by Lamb and Coleman (2008), English learners' motivation in improving their learning can be maintained. Accordingly, it is the responsibility of the *Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan (LPTK)* / Institute of Teacher Education to meet the expectations. *LPTK* bears the responsibility of ensuring that its graduates have the required teaching skills and language skills required in their future workplaces as school-teachers. In fact, it is obligatory for all these LPTK to abide by the standards as stipulated in the Law No. 19/2005.

Conclusion

It is concluded that in the context of the study, the ELT-EP may need to reconsider all pertinent factors that support effective teaching of English oral language in light of the fact that complex challenges in and outside the classroom context with regard to oral communication instruction were identified in the study. To address these challenges, there are a number of possible solutions that may be helpful. First, more funding could be invested in enhancing the quality and quantity of learning resources for the students if fostering independent learning is one of the goals of the program. Second, the lecturers need to be given ample time to invest time in teaching. This means their involvement in other additional tasks should be re-evaluated for the sake of effective teaching preparation. Also, smaller classes might help to more effectively facilitate the development of the students' oral proficiency level.

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An Analysis of the ESP for Economics: Approaches to Determine the Feasibility of a Reading Program at Secondary Level as

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Abstract
This case study is examining the overarching approaches to second language (L2) reading instruction reflected in the Libyan ESP secondary three curriculum and how well this curriculum prepares students for tertiary reading in the ESP field. The Libyan context was chosen because it highly values ESP instruction and has many similarities with other English for specific purposes (ESP) countries, in terms of ESP reading issues at the tertiary level. The research questions for this study are divided into two parts as follow: the first part is to examine the alignment of Communicative Approach with the Libyan ESP Secondary 3 Reading Curriculum; the second part is to examine the extent to which the Libyan ESP Secondary 3 Reading Curriculum prepares secondary school students for Reading in English for Economics Academic Programs at the university level. This explorative study is using document reviews as the primary data collection and analysis method. The Libyan ESP Secondary three Curriculum and the ESP secondary textbook is analyzed using Sidek's (2010) revised model of Richards and Rodgers's (2001) framework for analyzing EFL teaching.

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Introduction

In the 21st century, English language has successfully outnumbered the competition to be known as the universal language for trade and knowledge transfer. Around the world, numerous examples can be taken about the growing adoption of English as a medium of education, communication and instruction (Schneider, 2007). This research paper is a reflection of concentrated efforts made to explore suitable association between reading instructions and curriculum in English for Specific purposes (ESP) countries, in general and Libya, in particular. The research paper chooses manifest content analysis to determine theories and instructional approaches to the acquisition and reading of second language in Libyan secondary education programs. The research paper also provides assessment of cognitive demand of reading skills reflected in secondary ESP for economics reading curriculum and instructional practices.

Question 1 - Theories and Instructional Approaches to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Second Language Reading

In a broader context, teaching of language for general and specific purposes is clearly distinguished; the former emphasizes on the teaching of language that a student is normally exposed to in his/her school while the latter signifies the teaching of language for specific people, for example, economics students. In the discipline of instructing/teaching second language, Richards & Rogers (1986) aver that the theories of learning as well as language have repeatedly highlighted pedagogy as an important element. In Libya, language pedagogy can be illustrated by the key approaches that are task-based, oral-situational or notional-functional. In this research paper, assessment of second language acquisition and second language reading is conducted by taking into consideration three important instructional approaches of second language acquisition theories. These instructional approaches include socio-cultural, behaviourism and cognitive information processing.

According to Wang (2009), use of behaviourism or structuralism theory may help to identify certain approaches such as the method of grammar translation (GT) to help understand grammar rules or improve vocabulary through reading. In line with the third year text book and curriculum specification document of ESL for economics, structuralism theory may be reflected in Libyan ESL secondary reading curriculum if it promotes reading comprehension through dictionary, and pictures and TV programs. According to classroom observations, structuralism theory is reflected in Libyan ESL secondary reading curriculums when an instructor intends to engage students in read and fill the blank, read and solve the problem and similar passage reading activities. In L2 reading, Koda (2005) avers that the application of SLA theory of cognitive processing-information can be measured through the processing of textual, linguistic and text synthesized information. Classroom examples of SLA under such approach can be taken from the instructions that require students to read and process information from a/an article, skimmed text, conversation or paragraph to provide answers or solution to a particular question or problem.

The research paper also assesses Libyan third year ESL for economics reading curriculum in the light of socio-cognitive theory of SLA; in this theory, approach for communicative instructions characterizes language learning nature as social and cognitive. Since the research paper intends to explore the reflection of SLA theories and instructional approaches in Libyan third year ESL for reading curriculum of economics, socio-cultural theory of SLA is highly significant as it determines language as an essential tool for the intercession of cognitive development of a student. Under this theory, second language acquisition and second language reading can be effective if it takes into consideration the combined effect of social and cognitive interaction, and perfunctory aspects of teaching and learning a language (Atkinson, 2002). In the context of L2 reading, examples of socio-cognitive and socio-cultural based communicative instructions can be taken from statements that require a student to read and respond to a list of questions related to a paragraph. Moreover, examination indicates that the exemplary statements of ESL reading curriculum under socio-cultural theory can be identified as chart reading and answering related questions and rephrasing a piece of information deducted from a text.

With specific context of Libya, this research paper is inclined towards the exploration of only specific-purpose; therefore, the earlier stated research question is analyzed through a combination of selective theories and instructional approaches. The research paper examines SLA and second language reading in Libyan secondary level by applying structuralism, socio-cultural, cognitive information processing and socio-cognitive instructional approaches and the above identified SLA theories to the text book and secondary curriculum for third year ESL students. Research evaluation indicates that 68.33% of ESL textbook reading tasks seem to be based on the theory of cognitive information processing while 59.74% of the curriculum specification document of ESL provides evidence for the inclusion or reflection of the theory of cognitive information. At third year secondary reading curriculum of ESL students, observations provide evidence for the prevalence of grammar translation under structuralism theory of SLA in the reading-related statements of ESL curriculum.

Opposing to these statistics, assessment of socio-cultural and socio-cognitive theories suggests that almost 5.11% of ESL textbook statements related to reading comprehension reflect the approaches and theories of communicative instructions. On the other hand, similar evaluation of specification document of ESL curriculum indicates that 8.90% of reading statements are in compliance with the communicative instructional approaches and theories of SLA. However, classroom observations determine that the specification document of ESL curriculum pays no significant attention of incorporating the underpinning approach of communicative language teaching i.e. the socio-cultural theory. Therefore, observations provide as low as 6.15% depiction or reflection of earlier stated communicative approaches in the third year secondary reading curriculum of ESL students.

In line with the above evaluation, research statistics show that 63.5% of ESL curriculum statements related to reading surely reflect the SLA theory of cognitive information processing. In other words, it can be stated that ESL reading curriculum for third year secondary level students is developed in accord with the SLA theory that requires students to individually process information. Therefore, research evaluations provide little evidence in support of the claim that reading statements of ESL curriculum for third year secondary level students reflect communicative curriculum. As a result, research brings an important issue onto the surface i.e. Is the

initially developed ESL reading curriculum for third year secondary level in aligned with the communicative instructional approach to reading/learning language?
Moreover, the research evaluation also indicates that the above stated research outcomes are not in line with the actual instructional practice of classroom reading in ESL. According to statistics, socio-cultural theories rank first with the highest relative percentage of 65.8% while structuralism theories rank second with a percentage of 29.7%. In addition, 2.61% of research results also put emphasis on the significance of incorporating socio-cognitive theories. In ESL textbook and specification document of curriculum, theory of cognitive information processes is found to be certainly focused; however, in the actual practice, only 1.82% of instructional emphasis has been given to this approach. Consequently, research outcomes can be interpreted in support of the fact that ESL instructors/teachers practice few aspects of communicative theories of language learning in the classroom environment.

Consonant with the above quoted statistics, the research evaluates and infers that the lack of reading skills among the ESL students of third year secondary level is due to the observed misalignment of SLA theories. Research evaluation to the notion that SLA theories are misaligned at the third year secondary level is made through a combination of sources including classroom instructions for ESL language reading, ESL textbooks and the curriculum specification document of ESL. The research explored that ESL teachers adhere to few aspects of communicative language teaching to prepare classroom reading instructions in accord with the socio-cultural theory. Contrarily, the two key documents i.e. the ESL textbook and the specification document of ESL curriculum provide mere implementation of socio-cultural and socio-cognitive theories relative to cognitive information processing and structural theories of SLA.

In addition to instructional approaches, the research also examines theories related to second language reading by analyzing the reading tasks designed and incorporated in the curriculum. According to research, third year ESL for reading curriculum of economics is evaluated through three main theories including interactive, top-down and bottom-up. In the absence of communicative components, instructional approach of the whole language is categorized as non-interactive instructional approach of the whole language. The top-down reading theory illustrates a process in which meaning is derived through a whole reading process. According to research, top-down theory of reading mainly concentrates on the higher order text processing skills. In addition, top-down reading theory is also found to use the interactive instructions of whole language as a case in point. Conversely, being an L2 reading communicative approach, the top-down reading theory partially reflects the whole language instruction. Since reading task definitively emphasizes on the substantial interaction with the activity of reading; therefore, only a part of the whole language instruction is reflected in the top-down reading theory. Under bottom-up theory, a process of second language learning is driven by text; hence, it requires the related exercises of reading comprehension to implement instructional approaches such as grammar translation for reading second language. In accord with this theory, Libyan third year ESL for economics reading curriculum need to incorporate learning exercises of word recognition and phonological processing to reflect the L2 reading's bottom-up theory.

In the Libyan context, emphasis is put on the reading tasks that prefer high order text processing, for example, printed articles and reports. In this manner, reading text coding is observed as a reflection of non-interactive whole language instructions and the top-down theory of L2 reading to determine classroom activities or instructions that emphasize on individual reading in a non-interactive manner. Opposing to this, reading tasks with lower order text processing requirements, for example, tasks that require reading and acquiring word meanings through the understanding of word formation are selected as the reflection of instructional approach of grammar translation and the bottom-up theory. Nonetheless, the last L2 reading theory of interaction reflected in the reading statements that provide an example of process interaction of context-driven reading, reader-driven and text-driven processes is in-evident in the specification document of ESL curriculum.

According to research evaluation, 89.05% and 64.19% of reading statements in the ESL textbook and specification document of ESL curriculum respectively, reflect repeated emphasis on the top-down theory as an eminent theory of second language reading. In accord with Goodman, Smith, Meredith and Goodman (1993) such reading theory of L2 relates with the instructional approaches such as the instructional approach of whole language. Research examination suggests that the ESL reading curriculum for third year secondary level reflects top-down theory by principally incorporating tasks for individual reading. Since individual reading tasks emphasize on individual learning/reading without any interaction with the environment or the peers; hence, examples of such tasks may be quoted as the requirement of locating details and main ideas.

Reading instructions under interactive theory of reading and the top-down theory of second language reading can be differentiated with the use of reading instructions that imitate the top-down theory of reading. According to statistics, 29% of reading-related statements in the specification document of ESL curriculum are constructed under the bottom-up theory of reading the English language. Results on the same measure of assessment provide contrary evidence obtained through the ESL textbook, which indicates interactive theory as an important theory of reading the English language with the weightage of 13.41% consideration. Unlike, the specification document of ESL curriculum, bottom-up theory of reading is only weighted 7.88% as a simple theory of second language reading. Corresponding to these findings, the research provides evidence to the notion that the instructions of second language reading, as a base of measure identify misalignment between the textbook of ESL and the specification document of ESL curriculum. On a general level, 21.77% of the whole ESL reading curriculums for third year secondary level rarely reflect the theory of interactive reading. On a comparative basis, 40.12% of ESL curriculum for third year secondary level reflects the incorporation of grammar translation approach and the bottom-up theory while 138.6% of the ESL curriculum for third year secondary level mirrors the use of non-interactive reading instructions of whole language and the top-down theories.

In line with the above findings, classroom observations of reading comprehensions for the English language illustrate top-down and bottom-up instructional approaches as the favourable theories of teaching/instructing English language reading. To support the notion, evidence can be collected from the quantified values that indicate 43.5% preferences of second language teachers given to top-down theories relative to 46.8% of bottom-up theories of reading second language. Opposing to these two theories, the research identifies that only 16.68% of teachers prefer to use interactive theories for teaching second language reading in a classroom setting. Based on these evaluations, the research infers that the pattern of instructional approaches preferred in the ESL reading curriculum of third year secondary level is irregular. Therefore, research ascertains that the second language reading approaches are misaligning with the instructional approaches of teaching communicative language.

In support, research outcomes provide no evidence for the replication of socio-cultural and socio-cognitive theories in combination with the respective instructional approaches. Contrarily, the research illustrates frequent reflection of cognitive theories of information processing in the reading tasks of ESL curriculum for secondary level students. For that reason, the research paper infers that the instructional approaches and reading theories of L2 and SLA are misaligned with the communicative approach of Libyan reading curriculum for third year secondary level.

Question 2 - Level of Cognitive Demand of Reading Tasks Reflected in the Secondary ESP for Economics Reading Curriculum and the Teachers' Reading Comprehension Instructional Practice

In the recent years, technological developments have congregated the technological knowledge into a written format; thus, McGill-Franzen (2009) avers that reading is one of the key ways to acquire knowledge and language skills at the tertiary level. For a university student, one of the quickest and effective ways to acquire a secondary language such as English is through the development of sound vocabulary which is only possible if, that student intends to develop and enhance his/her reading skills. At global scale, foreign language students are increasingly facing issues in the acquisition of second language such as English mainly due to the lack of reading and comprehension skills. With digitalization and audio-visual practices, students have reduced the tendency to develop reading experience; as a consequence, students lack the ability to understand technical language which is the key to specialize in a respective knowledge area (Lyons, 2006). In agreement with Gear (2008), reading is an elementary tool to improve the language and communication skills of a person.

In the discipline of education, secondary school is considered as the building block for a student's progression to the tertiary/university stage. At secondary level, a student develops reading, writing and speaking skills so as to be prepared for the next education level; lack of attention and consideration at this stage, impedes the intended development of a student's second language development for higher level education. According to Suleiman (1983), Arab students face issues in acquiring second language due to inadequate training and mastery of the key language skills; the problem is also magnified with the difficulties faced by Arab students in the use of target language for the purpose of communication. Thus, secondary level teaching and learning process needs to be improved as a whole because it has profound impact on the preparedness of a student for studying courses such as economics at the tertiary level.

Consonant with the above assessment, cognitive development is recognized to rank among the key attributes required to master a particular language. At the secondary level, students are provided with opportunities to develop their reading, writing, speaking and cognitive development skills that facilitate their smooth progress through tertiary level. Since prior research studies suggest difficulties faced by Libyan students in acquiring English as second language; hence, it is highly important to examine their psychological/mental development at secondary level. In reading comprehension, Chamot (1983) states that cognitive demand determines the process of internal mental development of a student; thus, understanding such process may help to examine the level of reading comprehension set at Libyan secondary level to develop ESP reading tasks. In accordance with Marzano's taxonomy of Cognitive System (2000) and Marzano et al's taxonomy of Core Thinking Skills (1988), cognitive demand of reading tasks for Libyan secondary level students is measured on two combined levels including lower and higher level. The lower cognitive level comprises of three skills including focus, recall and information collection while the higher cognitive level encompasses eight skills that include representation, organization, application, analysis, synthesis, generation, integration, and evaluation.

Correspondingly, is a student possesses these thinking skills; he/she is expected to be able to successfully process the information provided at different cognitive demand levels. At secondary level, ESP curriculum prepares a student for tertiary education; thus, it needs to develop reading coursework and program with specific target to help students develop enriched thinking skills as stated in the above taxonomies. Unlike Bloom's taxonomy, the combined taxonomy is expected to provide great assistance to teachers in fostering the cognitive skills of students at secondary level (Marzano, 2000). Nonetheless, the research paper examines cognitive demand of reading tasks via determining the lower and higher order thinking skills that students are required to be equipped with in order to master ESP reading for the next level of education. In ESP secondary three for economics reading curriculum, if only few of the cognitive demands of reading tasks are falling in the higher order; it may indicate that a student is not ready for the next level's exigent tasks of reading.

As can be seen in the table below, cognitive demand of reading in ESP secondary three for economics emphasizes on a combination of lower and higher order cognitive skills. At secondary level, students are encouraged to develop their lower order thinking skills through recalling and information gathering while for higher order thinking skills, the curriculum provides examples of synthesizing, focusing, organizing, analysing and generating skills.

READING-RELATED STATEMENTS IN THE ESP SECONDARY THREE FOR ECONOMICS CURRICULUM SPECIFICATIONS DOCUMENT	MARZANO'S TAXONOMY
1. Scan read for detailed information	Information gathering
2. Deduce and rephrase information from a text	Information gathering
3. Reading to re-tell information	Recalling / Remembering
4. Reading for specific information	Recalling / Remembering
5. Transfer information from a text onto a diagram	Organising
6. read and interpret a text	Synthesizing
8. Predicting content through reading	Generating
9. Reading to identify topic sentence	Focusing
11. analyse and express opinions (agree/disagree)	Analysing

Figure 1: Reading related statements in the ESP secondary three for economics curriculum specification document

In order to develop in-sights into the extent to which ESP secondary level curriculum reflects cognitive demand for reading, class room observations are carried out to identify the aspects that actual class-based reading exercises cover in Libyan secondary level education. In line with the combined taxonomy of thinking skills proposed by Marzano et al (1988) and Marzano (2000); evaluation suggests that ESP secondary three for economics reading curriculum is inclusive of lower, as well as higher order cognitive demand for reading. According to classroom observations, majority of the secondary level reading curriculums are designed in a manner to emphasize on the development of analysis skill. At the same time, most of the ESP curriculum tasks focuses on nurturing higher order cognitive skills among students to help them prepare for the next level of education. In support, Whalley et al (2006) emphasize on the need for training and developing higher order cognitive demand to help students improve their reading skills for academic purposes. Likewise, the research paper evaluates that ESP secondary reading curriculum for economies trains students to tackle challenging tasks at tertiary level.

In response to the research question, research paper examines that the ESP secondary reading curriculum for economics does reflect equal consideration of lower and higher cognitive skills to help students prepare for university academics and reading task challenges. The research evaluation indicates that selected curriculum is in synchronization with the higher education demands to prepare students with enhanced thinking/cognitive skills to depict better second language such as English reading comprehension.

As identified by the classroom findings, low cognitive demand for ESP in Libya focuses on tasks that are based on focusing, recalling or information gathering as these are the generic activities that are important for every student to consider while learning economics ESP. On the other hand, high cognitive demand is required for organizing of information collected; organizing is when variety of information is presented in a haphazard manner and the information is to be well organized in a comprehending manner where the reader will easily understand the information. Organizing requires reading and then recognizing the important information that can be used for organizing; thus high cognitive demand is needed as higher attention and processing skills are required.

Furthermore, the classroom findings also present that more than organizing, analyzing activity of reading ESP materials demand high cognitive ability as analyzing is not only about reading, but understanding it along with answering the questions and identification of cause and effect. Analyzing is also based on gaining knowledge for explaining it to someone else along with applying it in real situations effectively. This is well supported by the findings of Marzano (2000) who is of the opinion that more than 45% of the ESP reading tasks focus on analyzing and present it as an integral reading skill for gaining success and to learn effectively for university students. Furthermore, Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw, and Rycik (2002) mentioned in their research that in order to succeed in academic life of higher education in economic ESP, low as well as high cognitive skills are essentially required to help in reading and understanding tasks.

According to the classroom observation conducted, it is observed that the reading material that the teachers are developing in Libya in order to ensure that their students are proficient in high level education of ESP, are mostly based on analyzing the reading content given, that require high cognitive skills. However, Pranckeviciute and Zajankauskaite (2012) stated that in the initial stages of secondary education of ESP, low cognitive skills are required where reading tasks designed by the teachers are based on recalling, focusing and information collecting. But once the students are proficient as these task that demand lower cognitive skills, teachers develop reading tasks that are based on organizing, analyzing, applying, synthesizing, generating, evaluating and integrating in order to make their students a master of ESP as it is not about reading or understand but also about converting it into useful knowledge and information that is appropriate for the occupation.

Moreover, it was identified from the classroom learning that interpersonal and readings skills are also essential as the main mode of learning higher level of ESP; the economic ESP programs in Libya lack behind due to the inability to collaborate ESP as well as economic perspective in a typical ESP economics reading curriculum. Furthermore, as explained by Innajih (2007), students in Libya are low on reading skills even at the university level where their readings skills are to be strong enough and are essential for further learning. Additionally, their reading skills are at the initial level and not on the expert level as they score average marks on reading courses as compare to other courses taught at the university level of Libya. Similarly, through classroom observations it is witnessed that reading at the ESP is difficult as new language, words; terminologies are used in it along with an intense demand of reading as the course on a major perspective is based on readings. Students get enroll in the economic ESP courses without researching and knowing that the course is all about reading materials and working through it as this secondary ESP cannot be cleared without developing effective reading skills along with various other skills related to readings. Economic ESP curriculum cannot be useful if the teacher is not experienced in this field because the method of education and learning environment depends upon the teacher’s skills, knowledge and abilities.

As identified through the classroom observations that the textbooks referred for economic ESP curriculum are considered as the most effective and authentic source of teaching because they are approved by the Education Ministry of Libya; however, the other reading essential are usually not developed by the teachers due to lack of adequate guidelines and procedures. Amirian (2013) conducted an experiment where one group of students was being taught ESP through traditional methods of teaching whereas the other group was taught through reading learning methods. The results indicated that for ESP students, reading methodology was high effective than that of traditional teaching as ESP is a different nature and type of study where reading helps in acquiring knowledge and to learn more about the specific purposes related to the industry.

Contrastingly, Kiran (2013) mentioned that due to lack to guidelines and instructions to be followed, teachers face difficulties while developing an ESP reading programs as ESP is not based on one domain only, it caters to various disciplines including medicine, law, tourism, hospitality, aviation and many others. This creates issue for teachers for developing course material and reading essentials as a reading content for ESP medicine will be different from that of ESP of law as terminologies used in each domain are different. As proposed by Sidek (2012), the reading material developed by teachers for secondary ESP in Libya on average is not revised on a regular basis and is not up to the mark as there is no proper procedure or methodology given for teachers to follow along with the unmet need of a specialist that helps in designing the ESP reading content.

It is observed through classroom trainings that teachers are working hard towards fulfillment of the students and the ESP requirement; a higher degree of teacher's control is emphasized due to the fact that the learning environment is created due to the control that teacher emphasizes on along with the collaboration with students in order to help and encourage them to polish their reading skills as ample reading assignments are given to students on weekends to work upon it in a manner that requires use of high cognitive skills. Interaction level of teachers and students is high in the initial period of the course as students come across various readings shocks but when they are capable of using high cognitive abilities in secondary economics ESP readings then the level of interaction reduces as the teacher wants his/her students to be confident and proficient at the secondary economic ESP level to clear the course with flying-colors.

Furthermore, It is comprehended through the acquired classroom trainings that the capability of the student regarding reading and using of cognitive abilities also dependents upon the easiness and complexities of the reading material given as a easy reading material will require lower cognitive skills as compare to a difficult reading material that requires greater time along with variety of higher level cognitive and interpersonal skills. However, it depends upon the teacher's willingness to decide that which reading essentials are to be given to students in classroom for evaluating their reading skills. In contrast, Skelton and Willis (2004) believe that it is essential to include all the textbook readings regardless of their complexity level in the ESP curriculum because of the fact that the criteria for success in secondary ESP in Libya include reading skills as an essential part.

On an overall perspective it is identified through the classroom trainings that secondary economic ESP curriculum of Libya is based on readings and demands high as well as low cognitive abilities. However, in the initial level, lower level of cognitive abilities is required, whereas organizing, applying, analyzing, generating, evaluating, integrating and synthesizing of information and knowledge requires high level of cognitive demands. Moreover, in order to gain success in ESP academics, usage of higher level of cognitive abilities are required. In addition, Teachers play a vital role in developing the readings and creating an environment that caters to effect learning practices. However, due to lack of proper guidelines and instructions, teachers are unable to develop reading materials on their own which serves as a reason for using merely the textbooks for giving secondary economic ESP classroom knowledge.

Conclusion

It is concluded that structuralism theory is reflected in Libyan ESL secondary reading curriculums when an instructor intends to engage students in read and fill the blank, read and solve the problem and similar passage reading activities. Task-based theories can be applicable to the practice of communicative language teaching (CLT) whereas socio cognitive theory is also applicable to SLA. 6.23% of ESL textbook statements related to reading comprehension reflect the approaches and theories of communicative instructions. Reading instructions under interactive theory of reading and the top-down theory of second language reading can be differentiated with the use of reading instructions that imitate the top-down theory of reading. In addition, the level of cognitive demand for reading tasks reflected in the secondary economic ESP requires high as well as low cognitive abilities. However, higher emphasize is placed on high level of cognitive demand due to the fact that no one can succeed and gain knowledge in economic ESP in Libya without using them as not only reading but analyzing, synthesizing, interpretation of information is also required.

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A Corpus-Based Analysis and Appraisal of News Reports on Protesters from Political Conflicts in Thailand by Foreign News Agencies

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Abstract
Appraisal has been employed in previous foreign studies. They have focused on corpus-based analysis and comparison of news reports. However, the previous work in Thailand has inadequately focus on appraisal of news report comparison among news agencies, and corpus analysis. Thus, this paper aims to use corpus data to analyse and compare appraisal of news reports on protesters as the appraiser and appraised from political conflicts in Thailand between two foreign news agencies.

Thai political news from two English online newspapers: *BBC* and *CNN* published from 31 October, to 31 December 2013 were compiled. The term “protester/s” which played key role in these conflicts was selected. Concordance lines of “protester/s” were employed to analysed connotations and collocations of appraising items. Appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005) were employed in focusing on attitudinal positioning: affect, judgement, and appreciation.

In *BBC*, protesters expressed affect: happiness, undesired, insecurity, and dissatisfaction. Appraised items included government, political activities, violence, and political activity product. In judgement including propriety, impropriety, capacity, and incapacity, protesters were appraised by antigovernment, and news reporters. In *CNN*, protesters expressed affect: happiness, undesire, security, and dissatisfaction. Appraised items were government, and anti-government. In judgement containing tenacity, propriety, and impropriety, protesters were appraised by government, and news reporters.

The similarities and differences were appraising, appraised and appraiser items. Appraising items were expressed positively from adjectives and verbs and negatively from adjectives and verbs + political activities in negative meaning.

Introduction

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

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

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

However, the previous work in Thailand has been inadequately concerned with appraisal of news report comparison among news agencies and little attention has been paid to corpus analysis, and Appraisal framework. Thus, this paper aims to use corpus data to analyse and compare appraisal of news reports on protesters as the appraiser and appraised from political conflicts in Thailand between two foreign news agencies. This paper has implication in providing guidance for using corpus –based analysis of evaluation in text.

The concept of Appraisal framework

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

According to Martin (2003), Martin and White (2005), and White (2012), the appraisal contains two main positioning including attitudinal positioning, and dialogistic positioning. However, this paper focuses only on attitudinal positioning mentioned as follows:

Attitudinal positioning means that writers/speakers indicate either a positive or negative assessment of people, places, things, happenings and states of affairs (White, 2012). Attitudinal positioning can be divided into three main types including affect, judgement, and appreciation.

1. Affect

Martin (2003), and Martin et al. (2005) cite that affect contains many characteristics. It can be expressed by using Verbs of emotion such as laugh, and cry, and adjective of emotion: happy, and sad. In addition, it includes Positive and negative affect such as happy, and angry. In some cases, it contains A scale intensity of feeling such as like (low), love (medium), and adore (high).

Affect can be classified as four main types:

1.1 (Un)Happiness includes happy, sad, love, and hate.

1.2 (Un)Desire contains suggest, request, and demand.

1.3 (In)Security involves anxiety, confident, trust, and surprised.

1.4 (Dis)Satisfaction includes ennui, displeasure, curiosity, and respect.

2. Judgement

Martin (2003) and White (2012) explain that judgement is normative assessments or evaluation matrix for human behavior typically making reference to rules or conventions of behaviour. It focuses on a view to controlling what people do. According to White (2012), judgement involves language which criticises or praises, condemns or applauds the behaviour, actions, deeds, sayings, beliefs, and motivations of human individuals and groups. Besides, they involve in assessments by reference to systems of legality/illegality, morality/immorality or politeness/impoliteness. Judgement can be divided into five main types:

2.1 Normality

Normality involves how special containing positive and negative terms. Positive terms include lucky, fortunate, charmed, normal, natural, familiar, cool, stable, predictable, fashionable, celebrated, and unsung. Negative terms contain unlucky, hapless, star-crossed, odd, peculiar, eccentric, erratic, unpredictable, dated, retrograde, obscure, and also-ran.

2.2 Capacity

Capacity focuses on positive and negative terms. Positive terms are found from powerful, vigorous, robust, sound, healthy, fit, adult, mature, experienced, witty, humorous, droll, insightful, clever, gifted, balanced, together, sane, sensible, expert, shrewd, literate, educated, learned, competent, accomplished, successful, and productive. Negative terms are concerned with mild, weak, whimpy, unsound, sick, crippled, immature, childish, helpless, grave, slow, stupid, thick, flaky, neurotic, insane, naive, inexpert, foolish, illiterate, uneducated, ignorant, incompetent, unaccomplished, unsuccessful, and unproductive.

2.3 Tenacity

Tenacity focuses on how dependable containing positive and negative terms. Positive terms include plucky, brave, heroic, cautious, wary, patient, careful, thorough, meticulous tireless, persevering, resolute, reliable, dependable, faithful, loyal, constant, flexible, adaptable, and accommodating. Negative terms involve timid, cowardly, gutless, rash, impatient, impetuous, hasty, capricious, reckless, weak, distracted, despondent, unreliable, undependable, unfaithful, disloyal, inconstant, stubborn, obstinate, and willful.

2.4 Veracity

Veracity is concerned with truth and how honest. Positive terms are shown from truthful, honest, credible, frank, candid, direct, discrete, and tactful. Negative terms are found from dishonest, deceitful, lying, deceptive, manipulative, devious, blunt, and blabbermouth.

2.5 Propriety

Propriety relates to ethics. Positive terms involve good, moral, ethical, law abiding, fair, sensitive, kind, caring, unassuming, modest, humble, polite, respectful, reverent, altruistic, generous, and charitable. Negative terms are concerned with bad, immoral, evil, corrupt, unfair, unjust, insensitive, mean, cruel, vain, snobby, arrogant, rude, discourteous, irreverent, selfish, greedy, and avaricious.

3. Appreciation

White (2012) cites that appreciation is assessments of the form, appearance, composition, impact, significance etc of human artefacts, natural objects as well as human individuals (but not of human behaviour) by reference to aesthetics and other systems of social value.

Martin (2003, pp. 160-161) and Martin et al. (2005) mention that appreciation can be divided into three main types as discussed below.

3.1 Reaction

Positive terms involve impact: arresting, captivating, engaging, fascinating, exciting, and moving, and quality: lovely, beautiful, splendid, appealing, enchanting, and welcome. In addition, negative terms deal with impact such as dull, boring, tedious, staid, dry, ascetic, and uninviting, and reaction: quality such as plain, ugly, repulsive, and revolting.

3.2 Composition

Positive terms are concerned with balance such as balanced, harmonious, unified, symmetrical, and proportional, and complexity including simple, elegant, intricate, rich, detailed, and precise. Besides, negative terms relate to balance such as unbalanced, discordant, contorted, and distorted, and complexity such as ornamental, extravagant, monolithic, and simplistic.

3.3 Valuation

Positive terms contain challenging, profound, deep, innovative, original, and unique. Negative terms include shallow, insignificant, conservative, and reactionary.

Research methodology

This paper is a part of pilot study of my dissertation so the data has been collected for two months from 31st October to 31st December 2013. This period was the beginning of political conflicts in Thailand between Yingluck's government and the opponent. In terms of participants, protesters were selected in this study because they played key role in these conflicts and got high frequency of wordlist. In addition, *BBC* and *CNN* were selected due to popular foreign news agencies. Besides, the data were compiled from political news from online newspapers then these news were saved into text files. In *BBC*, it contained 85 files, and 391 tokens of protester/s. In *CNN*, it included 39 files, and 178 tokens of protester/s.

In terms of analysis parts, they contained many steps: Firstly, conduct corpus analysis and study co-texts of the key words such as collocation to explore connotations and structures of the appraising items of the protesters in the political conflicts in Thailand. Secondly, categorize words or phrases that carry evaluation meanings using the Appraisal framework. Thirdly, compare similarities and differences between *BBC* and *CNN*.

Results of the study

This section was concerned with the results from *BBC*, the results from *CNN*, and the comparison between *BBC* and *CNN* mentioned as follows:

1. BBC

This section involved types of affect and judgement in *BBC* discussed as follows:

1.1 Types of affect

The results revealed many types of affect including 3 tokens of happiness in positive meaning (%3.66), 9 tokens of desire in negative meaning (%10.98), 1 token of security in negative meaning (%1.22), and 69 tokens of satisfaction in negative meaning (%84.15). (See table 1)

Table 1

Frequency of protesters as the appraiser focusing on affect found in BBC

Affect	Tokens	Percentage
Happiness (positive meaning)	3	3.66
Desire (negative meaning)	9	10.98
Security (negative meaning)	1	1.22
Satisfaction (negative meaning)	69	84.15
Total	82	100.00

1.1.1 Happiness

(1) On Tuesday, police cut away wire and opened barricades to avoid further confrontation with anti-government protesters. An anti-government ***protester*** ***kisses*** a riot police officer on the cheek during a rally outside the Government House in Bangkok on 3 December 2013. (BBC November 26, 2013-1.txt)

(2) ***Protesters*** ***shook hands*** with police officers, ***hugged*** them, and ***offered*** them ***roses***. (BBC December 3, 2013-3.txt)

As in example one and two, these political incident occurred before The King's anniversary so the confrontations between protesters and the government officers were less tense. They made protesters happier. Protesters expressed these feelings to the police by kissing found in example one, shaking hands, hugging, and offering the roses found in example two.

1.1.2 Desire

(3) The ***protesters*** ***want*** ***Yingluck Shinawatra's government to resign***, saying it is controlled by her brother - ousted former PM Thaksin Shinawatra. (BBC November 26, 2013-2.txt)

(4) Anti-government ***protesters*** ***want*** ***Ms Yingluck to resign and for her government to be replaced with an unelected "People's Council"***. (BBC December 12, 2013-2.txt)

Protesters expressed desire which had negative effects to Yingluck's government. The results showed that want collocated with political activities in negative meaning. The result from example three showed that they wanted Yingluck govt to resign because it was controlled by Thaksin. In example 4, they wanted Yingluck to resign and government to be replaced with an unelected People's Council.

1.1.3 Security

(5) "I was sleeping and then I heard several gunshots. I ***was surprised***," one 18-year-old ***protester***, who identified himself by his nickname "Boy", told Reuters news agency. (BBC December 28, 2013-1.txt)

It was found in example five that protester expressed insecurity by using surprised. Several gunshots were unexpected political incident.

1.1.4 Satisfaction

(6) ***Anti-government*** ***protesters*** take part in a rally outside the Government Complex on 28 November 2013 in Bangkok, Thailand. (BBC November 28, 2013-2.txt)

(7) Thai military officials look up towards ***opposition*** ***protesters*** in Bangkok on 25 November 2013. (BBC November 25, 2013-1.txt)

(8) Tens of thousands of ***protesters*** ***marched against the bill***, which was rejected by the Senate on 12 November. (BBC November 20, 2013-1.txt)

(9) ***Protesters gathered in Bangkok to disrupt registration for February's election***. (BBC December 26, 2013-3.txt)

In example six and seven, protesters expressed dissatisfaction with the government shown by "antigovernment" (example six), and "opposition" (example seven). In addition, dissatisfaction was expressed by action verbs involving political activities. The result from example eight showed that protesters expressed dissatisfaction of the bill by marching and the result from example nine revealed that they expressed dissatisfaction of the election by gathering in Bangkok.

1.2 Types of judgement

Judgement contained 1 token of capacity in positive meaning (%8.33), 3 tokens of capacity in negative meaning (%25), 4 tokens of propriety in positive meaning (%33.33), and 4 tokens of propriety in negative meaning (%33.33) as shown in table 2.

Table 2

Frequency of protesters as the appraised focusing on judgement found in BBC

Types of judgement	Tokens	Percentage
Capacity (positive meaning)	1	8.33
Capacity (negative meaning)	3	25.00
Propriety (positive meaning)	4	33.33
Propriety (negative meaning)	4	33.33
Total	12	100.00

1.2.1 Capacity

(10) The BBC's Lucy Williamson in Bangkok says the mood of the protesters is very ***friendly***, as they and the government side shadow-box around each other. (BBC November 27, 2013-1.txt)

(11) The ***protesters were unable to*** take the prime minister's office and the government were unwilling to use the level of force necessary to disperse them. (BBC December 2, 2013-2.txt)

(12) The protesters had declared Sunday the decisive "V-Day" of what they termed a "people's coup". However, despite clashing with security forces, they ***failed*** to seize more government buildings or unseat Ms Yingluck. (BBC December 1, 2013-2.txt)

Protesters were appraised by news reporter focusing on capacity found in “friendly” (example 10). In terms of imcapacity, the protesters were appraised by news reporter involving “were unable to take the prime minister's office” in example eleven, and “fail” in example twelve.

1.2.2 Propriety

(13) Akanat Promphan, a ***protest spokesman***, said: "We are occupying the finance ministry in a ***non-violent*** and ***peaceful way***, so our supporters around the country can do the same and occupy all government offices." (BBC November 26, 2013-3.txt)

(14) Anti-government ***protesters*** have left ***peacefully*** after they forced their way into the army headquarters in Bangkok and held a demonstration there. (BBC November 29, 2013-1.txt)

(15) ***Hard-core*** ***protesters*** had camped out all night at the stadium in central Bangkok where candidate registration was due to take place. (BBC December 23, 2013-1.txt)

(16) The BBC's Jonathan Head says these ***protesters*** are a ***hardcore*** group determined to use everything they can to stop the election. (BBC December 26, 2013-1.txt)

Protesters were appraised by protest spokesmen in example thirteen and news reporter in example fourteen involving propriety shown by “nonviolent” and “peaceful” found in example thirteen and “peacefully” in example fourteen. In terms of impropriety, protesters were appraised by news reporter expressed by “hard-core” in example fifteen and sixteen.

2. CNN

This section was concerned with types of affect and judgement in *CNN* mentioned as follows:

2.1 Types of affect

The results from *CNN* showed many types of affect including 2 tokens of happiness in positive meaning (%7.69), 3 tokens of desire in negative meaning (%11.54), 1 token of security in positive meaning (%3.85), and 20 tokens of satisfaction in negative meaning (%76.92) as illustrated in table 3.

Table 3

Frequency of protesters as the appraiser focusing on affect found in CNN

Affect	Tokens	Percentage
Happiness (positive meaning)	2	7.69
Desire (negative meaning)	3	11.54
Security (positive meaning)	1	3.85
Satisfaction (negative meaning)	20	76.92
Total	26	100.00

2.1.1 Happiness

(17) ***Protesters*** responded with cheers and applause, claiming victory. Some of them ***hugged*** police officers and took photos with them. (CNN December 4, 2013-2.txt)

As illustrated in example seventeen, these political incident occurred before The King’s anniversary so the confrontations between protesters and the government officers were less tense. They made protesters happier. They expressed these feelings to the police officers by hugging and taking photo with them.

2.1.2 Desire

(18) Thai ***protesters want PM to quit***. (CNN December 9, 2013-1.txt)

Protesters expressed desire which had negative effects to Yingluck’s government. The results revealed that want collocated with political activities in negative meaning. The result in example eighteen showed that protesters expressed desire which had negative effect to Yingluck because they wanted pm to quit.

2.1.3 Security

(19) Akanat said the ***protesters believe*** their current numbers to be in the tens of thousands, perhaps as many as 50,000. (CNN November 26, 2013-1.txt)

In example nineteen, protesters expressed security by using “believe”. They believed that there were a lot of supporters in the protest.

2.1.4 Satisfaction

(20) An ***anti-government protester*** blows a whistle in front of Thai flags during a rally at Bangkok's Democracy Monument on Friday, one day after the embattled Prime Minister Yingluck Shinawatra survived a no-confidence vote in parliament. (CNN December 9, 2013-2.txt)

(21) Thai ***protesters march to oust government***. (CNN November 26, 2013-2.txt)

(22) ***Protesters had gathered*** in the government district of Bangkok this week ***to demand the ouster of the country's prime minister*** and threatened to shut the city down for a month in January. (CNN December 28, 2013-1.txt)

It was found from example twenty that protester expressed dissatisfaction with the government shown by “antigovernment”. Besides, dissatisfaction was expressed by action verbs involving political activities. As illustrated in example twenty-one, protesters expressed dissatisfaction with the government by marching. In addition, the result from example twenty-two revealed that protesters expressed dissatisfaction with PM by gathering in the government district.

2.2 Types of judgement

The results from *CNN* revealed many types of judgement involving 1 token of tenacity in positive meaning (%33.33), and 2 tokens of propriety in negative meaning (%66.67) as shown in table 4.

Table 4

Frequency of protesters as the appraised focusing on judgement found in CNN

Types of judgement	Tokens	Percentage
Tenacity (Positive meaning)	1	33.33
Propriety (negative meaning)	2	66.67
Total	3	100.00

2.2.1 Tenacity

(23) ***Undeterred***, ***protesters*** -- with handkerchiefs covering their noses and mouths to ward off the sting of tear gas -- threw rocks across the fence that rings Government House toward the phalanx of riot police on the other side. (CNN December 1, 2013-2.txt)

As shown in example twenty-three involving tenacity, the protesters were appraised by news reporters expressed by “undeterred”.

2.2.2 Propriety

(24) “The proposals of the ***protesters*** are ***undemocratic*** and ***unconstitutional***," said Suranand Vejjajiva, a top aide to Yingluck, in an interview with CNN. (CNN December 4, 2013-1.txt)

In example twenty-four focusing on impropriety, The proposals of the protester was appraised by Suranand Vejjajiva who’s the government party shown by “undemocratic” and “unconstitutional”.

3. Comparison between BBC and CNN

This section dealt with the comparison between BBC and CNN in terms of affect and judgement discussed as follows:

3.1 Types of affect

The results showed similarities and differences between *BBC* and *CNN*. Both *BBC* and *CNN* contained happiness in positive meaning, and desire and satisfaction in negative meaning. In terms of differences, security in negative meaning was found only in *BBC*, and security in positive meaning was found only in *CNN*. (See table 5)

Table 5

Frequency comparison of protesters as the appraiser focusing on affect between BBC and CNN

Affect found in BBC	Tokens	Percen-tage	Affect found in CNN	Tokens	Percen-tage
Happiness (positive meaning)	3	3.66	Happiness (positive meaning)	2	7.69
Desire (negative meaning)	9	10.98	Desire (negative meaning)	3	11.54
Security (positive meaning)	1	1.22	Security (positive meaning)	0	0.00
Security (negative meaning)	0	0.00	Security (negative meaning)	1	3.85
Satisfaction (negative meaning)	69	84.15	Satisfaction (negative meaning)	20	76.92

3.2 Types of judgement

The results of this study showed similarities and differences between *BBC* and *CNN*. Propriety in negative meaning was found in *BBC*, and *CNN*. *In terms of differences*, capacity in positive and negative meaning, and propriety in positive meaning were found only in *BBC*. In addition, tenacity in negative meaning was found only in *CNN*. (See table 6)

Table 6

Frequency comparison of protesters as the appraised focusing on judgement between BBC and CNN

Types of judgement found in BBC	Tokens	Percen-tage	Types of judgement found in CNN	Tokens	Percen-tage
Capacity (positive meaning)	1	8.33	Capacity (positive meaning)	0	0.00
Capacity (negative meaning)	3	25.00	Capacity (negative meaning)	0	0.00
Tenacity (Positive meaning)	0	0.00	Tenacity (Positive meaning)	1	33.33
Propriety (positive meaning)	4	33.33	Propriety (positive meaning)	0	0.00
Propriety (negative meaning)	4	33.33	Propriety (negative meaning)	2	66.67

Conclusion and discussion

The purpose of this paper is to use corpus data to analyse and compare appraisal of news reports on protesters as the appraiser and appraised from political conflicts in Thailand between two foreign news agencies. The data has been collected for two months from 31st October to 31st December 2013. In terms of participants, protesters were selected because they played key role in these conflicts and got high frequency of wordlist. The data were compiled from political news from two foreign online newspapers: BBC and CNN. Analysis parts contained many steps: conduct corpus analysis and study co-texts of the key words such as collocation to explore connotations and structures of the appraising items of the protesters in the political conflicts in Thailand. Then, categorize words or phrases that carry evaluation meanings using the Appraisal framework. After that, compare similarities and differences between *BBC* and *CNN*.

In *BBC*, protesters express many types of affect including happiness in positive meaning, desire, security, and satisfaction in negative meaning. Judgement contained capacity in positive and negative meaning, and propriety in positive and negative meaning. In *CNN*, protesters expressed many types of affect: happiness in positive meaning, desire in negative meaning, security in positive meaning, and satisfaction in negative meaning. Besides, judgement was concerned with tenacity in positive meaning, and propriety in negative meaning.

In terms of the comparison between BBC and CNN, The results showed similarities and differences *involving types of affect*. Both *BBC* and *CNN* contained happiness in positive meaning, and desire and satisfaction in negative meaning. However, security in negative meaning was found only in *BBC*, and security in positive meaning was found only in *CNN*. In terms of judgment, Propriety in negative meaning was found in *BBC*, and *CNN*. However, capacity in positive and negative meaning, and propriety in positive meaning were found only in *BBC*. Additionally, tenacity in negative meaning was found only in *CNN*.

The results of this study revealed similar types of attitudinal positioning to those described in Martin (2003), and Martin et al. (2005) including affect and judgement. In addition, affect can be expressed by using verbs and adjectives of emotion. However, appreciation is not found in this study. It may be because the key participant in this work deals with human so the attitudinal positioning may focus on affect and judgement more than appreciation. Besides, the results show that affect can be expressed by action verbs concerned with political activities which differs from those described in Martin (2003), and Martin et al. (2005).

The results support the previous studies that corpus analysis has implication for evaluation in text because corpus-based approach is beneficial in terms of systematic observation of naturally occurring data and decreasing bias, linguistic intuitions and chancy due to a large collection of texts (Baker, 2006, pp. 10-12, 2011, p. 24; Channell, 2003, pp. 39-55).

Further studies can be conducted to explore appraisal of news reports on other key participants as the appraiser and appraised such as government members including Yingluck, Shinawatra, Thaksin Shinawatra, Red-Shirts and Pheu Thai Party, and anti-government members: Suthep Thaugsuban, Abhisit Vejjajiva, and Democrat Party. In addition, the data are collected from Thai news agencies including *Bangkok Post* and *The Nation to explore the similarities and differences of* appraisal of news reports and methodologically could adopt both quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Besides, the future studies are concerned with identity representation of key participants.

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The Influence of Saliency and Frequency of Morphosyntactic Structures on Attention to Recasts during Spoken Interaction

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Abstract

Studies on the effectiveness of recasts have drawn mixed results, which is possibly due to the role of attention to recast, or lack thereof, during interaction. According to Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001), it is suggested that attention is associated with saliency and frequency of structures. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine how different levels of saliency and frequency affect interlocutor's attention to recast. Learners engaged in interaction tasks that elicited separate morphosyntactic structures with four different dyadic composites: +salient/ + frequent, +salient/ -frequent, -salient/ + frequent, and - salient/ -frequent. The amount of recast given on each dyad was controlled in order to control the effects of frequency of the recast itself. To determine which recasts were attended to for which structure, instances of uptake were identified. In addition, after completion of the interaction tasks, written and spoken tests on the target structures were given. The number of uptakes together with performance on the tests was compared between dyads. Statistical differences in the number of uptakes and test scores between dyads would suggest differences in levels of attention to recast as a function of differences in levels of saliency and frequency of target structures. The findings demonstrate that saliency and frequency group outperformed other three target morphosyntactic structures and they can play crucial role for learners to pay attention to recast.

Keywords: interaction, attention, recast, saliency, frequency

Introduction

English plays a major role in many countries and has been taught all over the world (Nunan 2003). High proficiency in English is required in order to succeed in many areas of society such as science, business, education and technology (Foley, 2005). As a result, English has been promoted and teaching methods developed in the classroom to be the most effective in many countries including Thailand.

In Thailand, English is regarded to be an important subject because English proficiency is considered to be a requirement for one's career and study in the future. People who have a high proficiency in English can perform better in many fields such as education, science, technology and business (Wiriyachitra, 2002). The Ministry of Education realized the importance of English and included English into the Basic Education Core Curriculum (2008) as a foreign language. Even though Thai students have learned English for many years, they consider English is difficult to use in real life communication (Khamkhien, 2010). Thai students' English proficiency needs to be improved to reach the lingua franca criteria.

The past simple tense, especially irregular verbs, is one of the problematic structures for Thai learners of English which cause may be due to the fact that they are not accustomed to conjugating verb form to express the event (Smyth,2001). Comparative adjectives are the other problematic structure for Thai learners which may be caused from the complicated rules and exceptions to understand and memorize (Smyth, 2001). This may be due to the fact that their native language (Thai) does not need to conjugate verb form to communicate like English, German and French (Han, 2002). Moreover, Thai learners do not usually receive oral production practice as often as they should in classes (McDonough, 2007). Vanden Bramden (2007) suggests that learners are given explicit explanation of forms but do not have enough opportunities to practice their language learning in class and real life situations, they seem to have difficulty when they need to communicate and speak English.

However, there are also disagreements on the effectiveness of recasts on L2 language learning which is possibly due the role of attention to recast during interaction or the level of learners' language proficiency level. Moreover, recasts are debated to be beneficial in the way of disrupting the flow of communication, the ability of learners to notice recasts in classroom interaction (Nicholas, Lightbrown and Spada 2001). Schmidt (2001) suggests that input does not become intake for language acquisition unless it is noticed and it is best achieved by the frequency of interactional feedback which relates to attention and enhances the benefits for language learners. The purpose of this study was to investigate how interactional feedback recast could help learners improve their language performance. Moreover, it aims to investigate how saliency and frequency affect to language learning development of which there is no research to confirm about this point of view. It may be caused from many factors and it becomes an inspiration to study about this issue.

Interaction Hypothesis

According to Long (1996), Interaction Hypothesis is the theory of second language acquisition, in which refers to the development of language improvement by promoting face to face communication. Additionally, Long also claimed that

Interaction hypothesis proposed that corrective feedback obtained during interaction stimulates interlanguage development because it links input, internal learner ability; especially selective attention and output in productive ways. Furthermore, this is backed up by Glass (1997) who reiterated for the efficacy of interactional feedback facilitated language development. Research on interaction hypothesis has shown types of interactional feedback and empirical evidence for the impact on comprehension (Loschky, 1994) and L2 development (Ellis et al., 1994, Mackey & Oliver, 2002). Also the results have shown that different types of feedback improve second language learning in different levels. In this current research, only one type (recast) of interactional feedback will be emphasized to investigate the most effective benefit for language acquisition because the previous research had different findings on the effectiveness of recast. To show the different effectiveness of interactional feedback, the next part will illustrate the different types and their effectiveness.

Carrol and Swain (1993) investigated the influence of feedback on the ability of adult ESL learners to identify verbs that change and that do not change in dative sentences. They compared 5 groups of participants; four groups received four feedback conditions and the fifth group functioned as the control group. The study results showed that recast was able to cause some forms of changes in learners' interlanguage at least on a short-time basis.

Recasts

It is explained differently according to different points of view towards recasts. This can be explained by Lyster and Ranta (1997) that recast includes the teacher's implicit provision of an accurate reformulation of all or part of a student's incorrect formed utterance. Furthermore, Long (1996) suggested that recasts are statements that rephrase a child's statement by changing one or more sentence components while still referring to its essential meaning. There is also evidence from Braidi (2002) which suggests that recast is a response which perceived as a recast it it's combined with content words of the quickly incorrect NNS utterance, also changed and corrected the utterance in different ways such as phonological, syntactic, morphological, or lexical. The example is from Sheen (2007) extract illustrate the usage of recast as follow:

> S**:** *The boy have many flowers in the basket.*
> *T*: <u>*Yes, the boy has many flowers in the basket.*</u> *(recast)*

The teacher reforms the student's utterance without explanation which leads to confusing ideas for the students with many researchers showing interest in investigating the effectiveness of recast including this study.

Selective Attention

Selective Attention has been identified as cognitive process that mediates input and L2 development through interaction (e.g. Gass and Varonis 1994; Long, 1996; Schmidt, 2001; Robinson, 2003; Phil 2003). Learners' attention to recasts will be transcribed from audio record and count as uptake. Dörnyei (2005) defines individual differences as the characteristics of each person in behaviorism, cognitive ability, interest, and personality. Additionally, it has been focused on as a second language learning research type to discover the most important factors which help learners to acquire language effectively (Schuman, 2001). There are various different points of view toward individual differences. According to Dörnyei (2005), individual differences are classified into five types: (a) language aptitude which is concerned with the achievement of learning language especially cognitive abilities such as working memory, selective attention, and word recognition; (b) motivation which is viewed as affective variable to succeed in learning language; (c) learning styles which are regarded as the preferences of learning language; (d) learning strategies refer to a particular learning way of achieving the language acquisition; and (e) anxiety which is regarded as an uncertainty of learner toward learning language. This study will further investigate the language aptitude in the aspect of individual differences in selective attention as cognitive and psychological variables affect how learners learn language successfully.

Research Questions

To answer these questions, six hypotheses are tested. The first hypothesis is that learners will show more development and uptake in salient and frequent (S/F) morphosyntactic structure more than salient but non-frequent structure (S/NF), non-salient but frequent structure (NS/F), non-salient and non-frequent structure (NS/NF). The second hypothesis is that learners will show more development and uptake in the morphosyntactic target structure in S/NF group more than NS/F group and NS/NF group. The third hypothesis is that learners will show more development and uptake in the morphosyntactic target structure NS/F group than NS/NF group. This study aims to investigate and answer this question; how do different levels of saliency and frequency affect learners' attention to recasts?

Participants

The research populations are first year students who are studying in university in Thailand. The sample is comprised of thirty freshmen from non-English major who are studying in pre-intermediate level at the University in the Northeastern of Thailand. The average of their English language proficiency is lower intermediate which is classified by their English test score for University Admission examination. The participants generally have about 10 years for experience in English language learning. The participants will have treatment tasks and receive recast during interactional task. There are 12 males and 18 females and their average age was 18.

Data Collection Procedures

The effects of interactional feedback recasts on the acquisition of two different grammatical structures (past tense irregular verbs and comparative adjective "er", "more") are investigated in a quasi-experimental design. Participants are assessed by pretest, then receive the treatment and complete the posttest. The result from pretest and posttest are compared to find the differences in order to see the improvements of the students' language learning performance. The independent variable is the frequency and saliency of the target structures. The dependent variable is the score of the posttest. There are three main phrases in this study. They include the pretest, treatment and protest. The pretest is given a week before the treatment phrase. The treatment phrase includes two sessions; past simple tense and comparative adjective.

Participants received two practice tasks of irregular past simple tense and comparative adjective. After the treatment phase, there is a posttest.

Target structure forms

The current study aims to investigate how saliency and frequency affect to language learning development so the criteria of target structure base on the saliency and frequency. S/F group comprises of twenty irregular verbs classified by the frequency of occurrences form the corpus of contemporary American English (COCA). S/NF group represents twenty irregular verbs which are classified by COCA with number of occurrences less than 40,000 times from the word list. NS/F group consists of twenty adjective chosen from word list in British National corpus (BNC) database in 1000 word level. NS/NF group represent twenty adjective chosen from BNC database in the frequency above 1000 word level for the word list.

Past Tense irregular verbs

The irregular past simple tense was selected for two main reasons. The first reason is the nature of the structure. The irregular past simple tense is considered as a salient grammatical structure because it is obvious for learners and acquired easier than grammatical non-salient structure (DeKeyser, 1995). For example, I *went* to Central Plaza yesterday (Hewings, 2005). The second reason is because the target structure in their course syllabus and they seem to have difficulties in learning them. Irregular past tense is considered as salient feature because there is a clear rule of fix form of each verb and the rules are set and easy to understand and results in learning as an explicit knowledge.

Comparative adjective

The comparative adjective is the other target structure. It is considered to be a non-salient structure according to the suggestion from Ellis (2001) who explains and distinguishes the error types when learners use comparative. He suggested that ESL students can make different types of errors such as omission, double marking, regularization, and misrepresentation. He explains that omission arises when learners do not use both “er” and “more” for comparative. Double marking occurs when learners use both “er” and “more” for one comparative adjective. Regularization happens when learners overuse the morphological markers with adjective; for example handsomer. Misrepresentation is seen when learners substitute a phrasal comparative marker for the morphological marker for example “more smarter”. Yang & Lyster (2010) also suggest that comparative adjectives are non-salient feature because it is complex and unpredictable characteristics of comparative adjective ; add – er the base form of adjective or put – more in front of adjective.

Treatment Tasks

Story telling exercise

This exercise will be conducted to elicit learners’ oral production. Students are showed the target irregular verbs which display in a picture. Each student narrates a short story by using a verb in past tense form and pictures provided. The reason of providing a picture is to help participant narrate a story easier without concerning about vocabulary so that they can focus on past simple tense form. Learners tell a story by using past action. The opening words of the story are set as "Yesterday, I went to Central Plaza with my friend and we…" It is set the beginning of the story because control the use of past tense. When learners make an error, researcher provides learners recasts with the correct form past simple tense form.

Picture description exercise

This exercise will be used to encourage the use of adjective in comparison form. Learners will see a set of pictures accompanied with useful adjectives and describe the pictures to the researcher. The comparison can be made such as "a tiger is more dangerous than a cat". When learners make an error, researcher provides learners recasts with the correct form the comparative adjective.

Audio recorder

The audio recorder is a digital recorder that was used to record during the treatment task. Some interaction conversation in interactional tasks will be transcribed and checked whether learner modified their utterance after hearing recasts. It was also used for scoring to compare learners' speech development.

Data Collection and Research Design

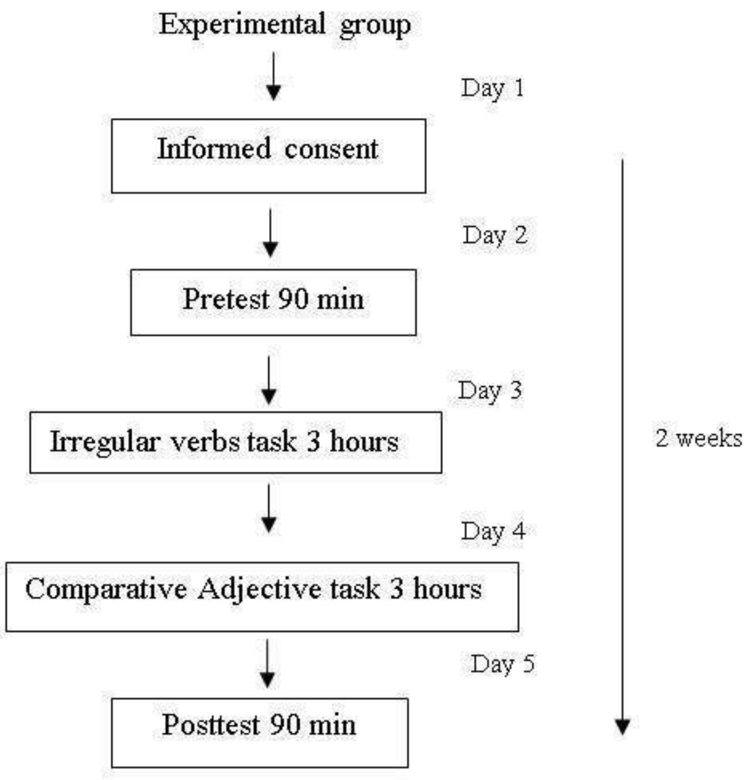

Figure 1 Experimental procedure and approximate times

Data Analysis Procedures

SPSS version 19.0 statistical software was used for statistical analysis. The increase of scores was calculated by subtracting post-test scores with pre-test scores. Then the difference of increase among the target structures was analyzed using the Linear Mixed Model procedure, in which the subject was treated as a random factor. Uptake is operationalized as verbal respond by learner follows the teacher immediately after receiving feedback. The numbers of uptake are counted to indicate the attention of learners to interactional feedback recasts. Learners' attention to recasts will be transcribed from audio record and count as uptake. The use of irregular past simple tense and comparative adjective are counted by tokens.

Results

The average increase of grammar test and speaking test scores were shown in Table 1. Nearly all students performed better for the post-test as 27 out of 30 students had increased scores in every target structure. The maximum increase was found in S/F group for both grammar and speaking tests. Significant difference among the increase of grammar test scores was found in every pair comparison ($P<0.05$), except for the comparison between NS/F and NS/NF group. Table 1 presents a comparison of the number of student's uptake. A large portion of students' uptake in SF (72.27 %) outperformed other target structures group; S/NF (42.47 %), NS/F (49.54%) and NS/NF (40.17%).

Table 1 Student uptake means and SD deviation.

Structure	n	Recasts	Uptake
S/F	30	101	73
S/NF	30	113	48
NS/F	30	109	54
NS/NF	30	117	47

Table 2 shown significant increases of scores which were calculated by subtracting post-test scores with pre-test scores.

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA shows that test score in four target structures are significantly different, F (3, 87) p = 0.000. Repeated-measures t-test (using a Bonferroni adjustment, $\alpha = .05/4 = 0.0125$) showed that participants outperform in SF structure significantly than NSNF: t (29) = 4.920 , p = 0.000, SF versus SNF: t (29) = 3.734 , p .< 0.001, SF versus NSF: t (29) = 3.796 , p .< 0.001, SNF versus NSF: t (29) = -.718 , p .< .479, SNF versus NSNF: t (29) = .458 , p .< .650, NSF versus NSNF: t (29) = 1.373 , p .< .180

Table 2 Paired Sample Test of Pretest and Posttest of Each structure

Structure		Pretest	Protest	Score increase	Sig. (2-tailed)
SF	Written	3.63	9.03	5.40	.000
	Spoken	1.90	4.70	2.80	.000
SNF	Written	4.03	8.70	4.66	.000
	Spoken	1.40	3.93	2.53	.000
NSF	Written	4.56	8.43	3.86	.000
	Spoken	1.90	4.26	2.36	.000
NSNF	Written	4.36	8.40	4.03	.000
	Spoken	1.33	3.76	2.43	.000

Discussions

The S/F grammatical structure group outperformed the other groups by making significant gain in both grammatical judgment and spoken tests. Additionally, only SF structure showed significant between group differences among 4 groups (SF, SNF, NSF, and NSNF). The findings indicate that saliency and frequency may effect on learners' attention to recast which can lead to language development which showed that learners gain greater than other structures. The superior performances of SF structure over other structures may be due to the fact that participants were pushed to retrieve target forms that already existed in their long-term memory and also. The saliency of target structure is clear and easier for participants to notice. This can support the suggestion of Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001) that attention is associated with saliency and frequency of structures. Regarding to research question how do different levels of saliency and frequency affect learners' attention to recasts? The findings of this study reveal advantages of saliency and frequency of the target structure which has to be salient and leaners need to exposure with the structures as much as possible then it may lead to better leaning. Learners in the current study could be considered to improve their language learning in the target structure which is salient and expose them frequently to pay more attention and be able to notice easier than other morphosyntactic structures.

Limitations

The results from this study must be considered with caution. First, the study comprised of a small number of participants. Any generalization of the results should take learner's characteristics and their instructional context into consideration. Second, some of learners did not practice and have a test on the same date which may affect how their test scores. So, researchers may be cautious to the test for all learners.

Pedagogical Implications

Regardless of the limitations, certain pedagogical implications can be drawn from this study. Teachers should give feedback to the students in the most effective method because it can motivate learners to learn more. In addition, it is also essential to let students know when they have made a mistake so that they will learn from it and take corrective measures. Therefore, the results of this study will help teachers to learn more about monitoring students' learning and give them feedback which can be given to individual students, group of them, or the entire class. It would be more efficient if the whole class can share in the monitoring process and the feedback. Teachers in ESL and EFL classrooms can apply this teaching technique in their classroom activities as frequently as possible for each and every assignment in the process of acquiring proficiency especially speaking skills with new material.

Conclusion and Further Research

The current study examined structures which have both saliency and frequency in the word list. Although previous interaction research revealed in the background of the study support the relationship between interaction and learning, it is still important to continue investigating how saliency and frequency play a role in language development. Learners in the current study could be described as pre-intermediate. It could be possible that they need more practice in speaking and interaction. As a result, the stories telling and picture description tasks may have been appropriate for more advanced learners. However, this issue remains to be investigated in the future about the differences between saliency and frequency. The study suggests that recasts may lead to more uptakes because they are focused on a single linguistic feature and the reformulated item is salient to learners.

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Positive Outcomes of Contrastive Instruction on L2 Phonology

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Abstract
This research essay attempts to examine the effect of explicit pronunciation teaching by reporting the findings of a quasi-experiment which studied the process and outcome of L1-L2 contrastive pronunciation instruction on the learning of English stop consonants by Bangladeshi students of English as a Foreign Language. There were two sections. Results of the intervention section (N=9) were compared with those of the control section (N=9). The students in the intervention section were given contrastive pronunciation instruction while the other section received placebo (L2-only) pronunciation instruction. Their progress in perception and production was measured by pre-tests and post-tests, leading to the following conclusion: Contrastive pronunciation instruction has positive outcomes on Bangla-speaking learners of English.

Keywords: contrastive pronunciation instruction, English stop consonants, quasi-experiment, L2-only pronunciation instruction, Bangla-speaking learners of English

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1. Introduction

SLA researchers have tried to observe the effect of instruction on almost all areas of L2 including pronunciation. In the development of L2 phonology, explicit instruction[1] has been a traditional but dominant trend (for some studies, see Neri, Mich, Gerosa, & Giuliani, 2008, Cardoso, 2011 etc.). Many such instructions utilize the argument of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Lado, the proponent of CAH, observed,

> In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning. Those elements that are similar to native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. (1957, pp. 1-2)

In other words, contrasting the features of L1 and L2 should predict the difficulties or general difficulty areas of L1-speaking learners of L2 (Crystal, 2003). Thus, conscious instruction on pronunciation forms--especially difficult forms--should bring tangible gains in the pronunciation performance of learners. In fact, based on the CAH, L1-specific lists of English sounds for native speakers of particular languages have been made available in texts like Braithwaite (2008).

In the context of Bangladesh, there were some observational studies on L2 pronunciation (for example, see Hasan, 2000, Hasan, 2013, and Maniruzzaman, 2008). However, there has not been any experiment or quasi-experiment to evaluate the effect of explicit instruction of contrastive features of L1 and L2 on Bangla-speaking learners of English. The present study intends to fill this gap. It will specifically experiment with the instruction of the contrastive features of stop consonants in English and their counterparts and near-counterparts in Bangla to Bangla-speaking learners of English.

2. The Difference between Bangla and English Phonological Systems

There are a number of English phonemes that are challenging to learners with L1 Bangla. However, the present study pays attention to only the stop consonants. The main focus will be on the following:

1. English has three voiceless stops /p, t, k/. Depending on their position in a syllable, each of the stops has two main allophones: aspirated and unaspirated. For example, [p^h] is usually used in syllable-initial positions contrasting phonetically with [p] in other positions. As learners do not know about the importance of aspiration in syllable-initial positions in English, they do not expect initial /p, t, k/ to be aspirated. As a result, when they say or hear words having stops, confusions occur. To a trained ear, their /p, t, k/ sound indistinguishable from their /b, d, g/. Also, when they hear Standard English, they tend to hear /b, d, g/ as /p, t, k/ because they do not know that, in syllable-initial positions, the main difference between the two pairs is aspiration (Roach, 2009). To make matters worse, they

[1] Such instructions are also referred to as FoFS (focus on-formS) as defined by Doughty and Williams (1998).

have both voiceless unaspirated plosives /p, t[2], k/ and voiceless aspirated plosives /pʰ, tʰ[3], kʰ/ as individual phonemes in their L1, Bangla. This distribution in Bangla makes them victims of negative transfer from L1 (Selinker, 1972). Therefore, the first instructional focus will be teaching the allophones of /p, t, k/--unaspirated voiceless [p, t, k] following s- or in initial positions of unstressed syllables versus aspirated voiceless [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ] in word-initial or stressed syllable-initial positions.

2. There are three voiced stops in English: /b, d, g/. In case of syllable-initial positions of stop consonants, there is no possibility of misunderstanding between /b, d, g/ and /p, t, k/ if aspiration is maintained properly. However, in syllable-final positions, the phonemes /b, d, g/ are almost-voiceless or completely voiceless (Roach, 2009). In such cases, the cue to the difference between and identification of /p, t, k/ and /b, d, g/ is pre-fortis clipping. As students do not know this, they tend to confuse them. It seems logical for the 2nd instructional attention to be given to unaspirated voiceless /p, t, k/ versus unaspirated almost-voiceless /b, d, g/ at syllable-final positions. One advantage for Bangla-speaking learners is that their L1 has /b, d[4], g/ in her inventory of stop consonant phonemes. Selinker (1972) refers to this kind of phenomenon as positive transfer from L1.

3. Specific Research Questions and Hypothesis

The specific research questions of this quasi-experiment are: Does explicit instruction have any effect on Bangla-speaking learners of English in their perceptual and articulatory learning of the pronunciation contrast between:

(a) unaspirated voiceless /p, t, k/ following s- or in initial positions of unstressed syllables and aspirated voiceless /pʰ, tʰ, kʰ/ in word-initial or stressed syllable-initial positions?
(b) unaspirated voiceless /p, t, k/ versus unaspirated almost-voiceless /b, d, g/ at syllable-final positions?
(c)

It is hypothesized that the subjects in the intervention section of this study will experience a difference (compared with those in the control section) from the explicit approach in L2 pronunciation instruction in developing the above-mentioned contrast, which may otherwise affect their intelligibility (Levis, 2005).

4. Data Collection and Analysis

4.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 1st year undergraduate students of BRAC University, Bangladesh. Out of 18 students, 10 of them were female and 8 were male

[2] According to prominent Bangla linguists including Hai (1967) and Shaw (2012), Bangla has /ʈ/, /ʈʰ/, and /ɖ/ (retroflex) instead of /t/ and /tʰ/, and /d/. However, as replacing retroflex with alveolar stops does not give rise to phonemic difference (in Bangla or English), teaching the difference was not considered worth-instructing.
[3] See footnote 1
[4] See footnote 1

with an average age of 19. They were randomly divided into 2 sections (N=9 each). Their level was similar: intermediate. In this quasi-experimental study, contrastive L2 pronunciation instruction and control instruction were compared using quantitative research methods.

4.2 Intervention

The current study supports that contrastive L2 pronunciation instruction is effective at promoting students' L2 pronunciation learning. Their perception of the metalinguistic knowledge of the contrastive analysis will be assessed through their production of the target phonemes.

Two weeks before the actual intervention, the students of both control and intervention sections sat a pre-intervention test. The perception part of it featured 30 words with syllable-initial fortis/lenis consonants and 40 words with syllable-final fortis-lenis or lenis-fortis pairs (based on *Audio Unit 4* of Roach, 2009). In the production part of it, they read aloud 36 words with the target consonants (/p, t, k/) in initial positions and 21 words with final fortis/lenis stops. The objective of the test was to assess whether they could pronounce English stop consonants correctly.

The students in the intervention section were given instructions on effective perception of contrastive phonetic and phonological features of the target stop consonants of Bangla and English. It included explicit instruction on selected pairs of stop consonants--especially contrastive phonetic and phonological knowledge on target English phonemes and their perceptually similar counterparts in Bangla followed up by listen-and-repeat exercises and explanatory notes. For example, the instructor discussed the importance of aspiration and lack of aspiration in pronouncing English stops; and how to clip the vowels before syllable-final fortis consonants. The intervention was meant to improve the learners' metalinguistic knowledge of contrastive features. On the other hand, the control section received placebo (L2-only) instruction. The entire process took three weeks.

Two weeks after the intervention, to apply their newly gained knowledge, the students were asked first to appear in a perception test which was a different version of the sound discrimination items used in the pre-intervention perception test. And the production component also comprised items similar to the pre-intervention production test but they were ordered in a different way to preclude the elicitation of responses from recognition memory.

4.3 Assessment

During the perception tests, the instructor played audio clips and immediately after listening to them the participants checked one of four answer choices provided in the answer sheet. Only the target plosives were considered while the multiple choices were designed. In other words, one test item tested the candidates only on the target stop consonant. Table 1 shows scoring values for the sample item "peat" in the perception tests:

Student Answer	Score Received
[pʰi:t]	3
[pi:t]	2
[bi:t]	1
[Ci:t][5]	0

Table 1. Scoring values for "peat"

In the production tests, the participants were given hardcopies of the test with items such as "peak", "speak", "forepeak" etc. Their productions of the test items were recorded digitally on a computer hard disk and then scored. Table 2 shows some sample items in the production tests with student pronunciations and scores.

Sample item	Student Pronunciation	Score	Sample item	Student Pronunciation	Score	Sample item	Student Pronunciation	Score
peak	pʰi:k	2	speak	spi:k	2	forepeak	fɔ:pi:k	2
	pi:k	1		spʰi:k	1		fɔ:pʰi:k	1

Table 2. Sample items in the production tests

Students may have pronounced /ɪ/ in place of /i:/. However, that did not affect their scores. The test was strictly controlled for any deviances found in their perception and production of phonemes that were not relevant to the experiment.

4.4 Results

To ensure the reliability of the pre-tests, the researcher relied on Cronbach's Alpha. The values for perception and production pre-tests were 0.90 and 0.95 respectively, signifying very high reliability index. Additionally, before running the independent T-tests, normality distribution assumptions were checked in the Shapiro-Wilk test. The results for post-intervention perception and post-intervention production tests were 0.99 and 0.98 respectively. Thus, the test confirmed the normality distribution assumption extremely highly.

As the two most important assumptions for parametric tests were successfully met, independent T-tests were run to ascertain any difference between the sections. There was no statistically significant difference between the variable of pre-instruction ability of control and intervention sections. In the T-test, the P value of intervention and control sections in the perception pre-test was 0.79 (greater than 0.05), which is not considered to be significant. The t (16) and Cohen's d values were 0.26 and 0.12 respectively. The P value of the sections in the production pre-test was 0.88 (greater than 0.05), which again is not considered to be significant. The t (16) and Cohen's d values were 0.15 and 0.07 respectively.

[5] Participants were instructed to choose choices starting with C if they heard a non-stop consonant.

The post-intervention tests were carried out to confirm or reject the hypothesis of this research study, which held that contrastive L2 pronunciation instruction would make a difference between the learning experience of the intervention section and that of the control section. Table 3 and 4 show all the details of both sections that were submitted to t-tests to ascertain the effect of independent variables in this study.

		Pre-intervention			Post-intervention		
		Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
Perception	Intervention Section	104.61	4.57	9	123.5	6.56	9
	Control Section	104	5.45	9	115.4	6.46	9

Table 3. Details of Perception

		Pre-intervention			Post-intervention		
		Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
Production	Intervention Section	110.28	6.65	9	127.5	7.95	9
	Control Section	109.78	7.73	9	110.22	9.95	9

Table 4. Details of Production

Statistically strong differences were found in the post-intervention perception test. The P value of intervention and control sections in the perception post-test equaled 0.02, considered to be significant. The t (16) and Cohen’s d values were 2.63 and 1.24 respectively. In the post-intervention production test, the P value of the sections was 0.0009. This value is statistically very significant. The other values are $t (16) = 4.07$ and Cohen’s $d = 1.92$. Cohen’s effect size values ($d \geq 0.8$) signaled high practical significance in both perception and production post-tests.

Additionally, to check for any difference, the paired t-tests for dependent variables were run for each individual section as well. Both sections achieved statistically extremely significant intra-section gains from their pre- to post-intervention performance in perception: IS Perception ($t(8) = -25.07$, $p < 0.0001$, $r = 0.86$) and CS Perception ($t(8) = -30.37$, $p < 0.0001$, $r = 0.69$). Intervention Section also did well in their pre- to post-intervention performance in production. The values are IS Production ($t(8) = -37.05$, $p < 0.0001$, $r = 0.76$. However, the CS did not fare well: CS Production $t(8) = 0.53$, $p = 0.61$(not statistically significant), $r = 0.03$ (very low correlation or small effect)). So, the perception and production pre-tests triggered positive impact on only the competence of the CS.

Therefore, it can be concluded that explicit instruction of the contrastive features of stop consonants in English and their counterparts and near-counterparts in Bangla has immediate outcomes on learners’ perception of English stop consonants in both the intervention and control sections; and it had greater outcomes on the intervention section’s performance than that of the control section.

4.5 Limitations and Ethical Considerations

As in the case of most classroom studies, teachers have little to do with the sample size, which mostly depends on the number of students signing up for the course. Besides, in an EFL setting, it is almost impossible to find a class of students with a heterogeneous mix of L1s.

Though there was a control group which was deprived of the treatment, control students' results in this study did not affect their final grades. Students' participation counted towards earning 10 points in the final breakdown of evaluation--irrespective of their achievements. However, they were masked to this.

In addition, the results of the statistical analyses were not examined to discover differences, if any, between male and female learners. Future studies may direct their attention to such variables.

5. Conclusion

The present quasi-experiment has found encouraging outcomes of explicit instruction of the contrastive features of stop consonants in pronunciation instruction since the achievements of the intervention section in both competence and performance were more statistically significant than those of the control section. It may also be added that the pre-intervention tests might have triggered some consciousness of English stop consonants on the control section leading to their better competence proven through the post-intervention perception test.

This quasi-experimental study has been successful in proposing that explicit contrastive L2 pronunciation instruction can be more efficient than placebo (L2-only) pronunciation instruction. Further experiments should explore whether such explicit contrastive L2 pronunciation instruction can help learners improve their competence and performance in other contexts. If such studies can be replicated in other contexts with similar results, one may conclude that explicit contrastive L2 pronunciation instruction has lasting outcomes on the acquisition of L2 phonology.

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Feeling Righteous? Stress Shift in English L2 Learners

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Abstract

This study examines the stress assignment of English suffixed words produced by L2 learners. The stimuli were disyllabic words and their two suffixed forms: in isolation, e.g. 'HUman', with neutral suffixes, e.g. 'HUman-ist', and with non-neutral suffixes e.g. 'huMAn-ity'. The addition of non-neutral suffixes in the present study induces two types of stress shift: (1) progressive shift in stem words with penultimate stress, e.g. MUsic to muSIcian and (2) regressive shift in stem words with ultimate stress, e.g. preFER to PREference. The stimuli were constructed using the spoken data from COCA (The Corpus of Contemporary American English). Each stimulus was presented in plain text without stress marks on a computer screen for 4 seconds and was repeated 4 times in a random order. Twenty-five L2 learners who are native Mandarin speakers were instructed to produce the word within the time limit. The reaction time was also monitored. The recordings were transcribed by a trained phonetician and the accuracy rate was tabulated. The results showed a significant lower accuracy rate and a longer reaction time in regressive shift pattern. It is thus postulated that there is an asymmetry between progressive and regressive shift patterns. The effect of stress location, lexical frequency, and stress awareness on the accuracy rate is discussed. The present study hopes to contribute to teaching English stress in an L2 context.

Keywords: Stress shift, Mandarin, Second Language, Foot structure, Suffix type

Literature Review

Stress placement and intelligibility

It has been shown in Filed (2005) that misplacement of lexical stress affect the intelligibility of both native and non-native learners. However, the phenomenon received less attention that the acoustic realizations of stress in L2 learners.

Typology of suffix

According to Roach (2010), English suffixes can be categorized in three types: (1) suffixes carrying primary stress themselves, e.g. –ese and –eer in ‘Vietamese’ and ‘pioneer’; (2) neutral suffixes that do not affect stress placement, e.g. –al and –ly as in ‘magical’ and ‘lovely’ suffixes; and (3) nonneutral suffixes that induces stress shift such as –ian and –ence in ‘beautician’ and ‘competence’. (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Kreidler, 2004)

Suffix and stress in second language learners

Shemshadsara (2011) investigated the production of neutral and nonneutral suffixes of 30 Persian speakers who learn English as a second language. The participants produce a stem in three conditions: unsuffixed, with neutral suffix and with nonneutral suffix. The study found that words with nonneutral suffixes induces higher error rate. However, the stimuli for non-neutral and neutral suffixes were not created systematically to examine the same stem with both neutral and nonneutral suffixes. The lexical frequencies of their stimuli were also not taken into account.

On the other hand, Chu (2013) recorded 20 Taiwanese students who learn English as L2 and found that nonneutral suffixation was generally more difficult than neutral suffixation. She also discovered a difference in performance between different foot type: trochaic stem words ('σσ) and words (σ'σ). Trochaic stem words showed higher accuracy rate. She inferred that it might originate from statistical learning that initial stress is more often. On the other hand, both trisyllabic and disyllabic stimuli with stress placed on the second syllable gained higher error rates than those with stress on the first syllable. Chu (2003) pointed out the possible modulating effect of syllable number, foot structure of stem and suffix type on stress shift in suffixed word; however, the factors involved in the analyses were too many and the interaction became too complex to tease apart the effect of these factors.

In sum, Shemshadsara (2011) suggested a possible performance difference between neutral and nonneutral suffixed words while Chu (2003) discovered some interaction between syllable number, foot structure of stem, and suffix type. The present study aims to explore two factors on English stress placement in disyllabic stems: foot strutcure (trochaic or iambic) and suffix type (null, neutral, nonneutral). In addition, given that nonneutral suffix could induce two types of stress shit: rightward/progressive (e.g. MUsic to muSIcian) or leftward/regressive (e.g. preFER to PREference), we would like to investigate the difficulties for these two types of shift patterns in L2 learners.

Our design differs from Chu (2012) in the following ways: 1) we adopt spoken frequency but not text frequency in order to tab the information which is more tuned into speech production 2) we focus on the foot structure of disyllabic stem for a closer examination on progressive and regressive stress shift: trochaic and iambic stem with non-neutral suffixes induces progressive (MUsic to musician) and regressive (preFER to PREFerence) stress shift respectively.

Previous studies by Shemshadsara (2011) and Chu (2013) yield different results on the accuracy rates of neutral and non-neutral suffixed words. Our hypothesis is as follows: non-neutral suffixes necessitate a shift in the stress placement and thus may be pronounced incorrectly compared to neutral ones. Furthermore, we predict that second language learners might have more difficulties in regressive shift compared to progressive shift.

Methodology

Stimuli

To explore the effect of Foot and Type, the stimuli were designed according to these two factors. Two types of disyllabic stems were constructed according to their foot structure: trochaic or iambic. Furthermore, each word along with their two suffixed forms form a suffix set: (1) in isolation, e.g. ‘HUman’, (2) with neutral suffixes, e.g. ‘HUman-ist’, and (3) with non-neutral suffixes e.g. ‘huMAN-ity’. Twelve sets of these triplets and a total of 36 words were used as stimuli. The neutral suffixes included –al, –ing, –ist, –ly, and–s; while the non-neutral suffixes that induces regressive stress included –ence and –ent. The frequency of the stimuli were queried using the spoken data from COCA (The Corpus of Contemporary American English at http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/).

Trochaic stem	Neutral suffixed	Non-neutral suffixed
dictate (394)	dictating (120)	dictation (25)
music (19431)	musical (2454)	musician (1194)
beauty (2584)	beauties (78)	beautician (21)
human (16270)	humanist (23)	humanity (972)
normal (7221)	normally (3247)	normality (56)
noble (638)	nobly (12)	nobility (66)

Iambic stem	Neutral suffixed	Non-neutral suffixed
compete (1990)	competing (1219)	competence (275)
prefer (1707)	preferring (55)	preference (493)
defer (235)	deferring (39)	deference (145)
precede (47)	preceding (118)	precedent (822)
prevail (668)	prevailing (199)	prevalent (297)
reside (99)	residing (38)	resident (2010)

Participants

Twenty-five college students (age 19-24. 10 male, 15 female) participated in the experiment. All of them had no speech or hearing impairment.
Procedure

The stimuli were presented using a subject testing software. Randomized stimulus was presented in plain text in lowercase without stress marks for 4 seconds with four repetitions. The participants were seated in front of a computer screen and wore a Microsoft LX3000 headset with a microphone placed about 8 cm from their lips. The participants were instructed to read the word shown on the screen naturally. The entire recording lasted about 10 minutes, followed by a language background questionnaire.
Stress placement rating

A total of 3600 tokens (36 words × 4 repetitions × 25 participants) were analyzed. The participants' productions were played and rated for the stress placement. A phonetically trained linguist rated the 25 participants' recordings and identified the stress placement. Segmental errors were not considered as error.

Results

The overall accuracy result at a glance is presented in Fig. 1

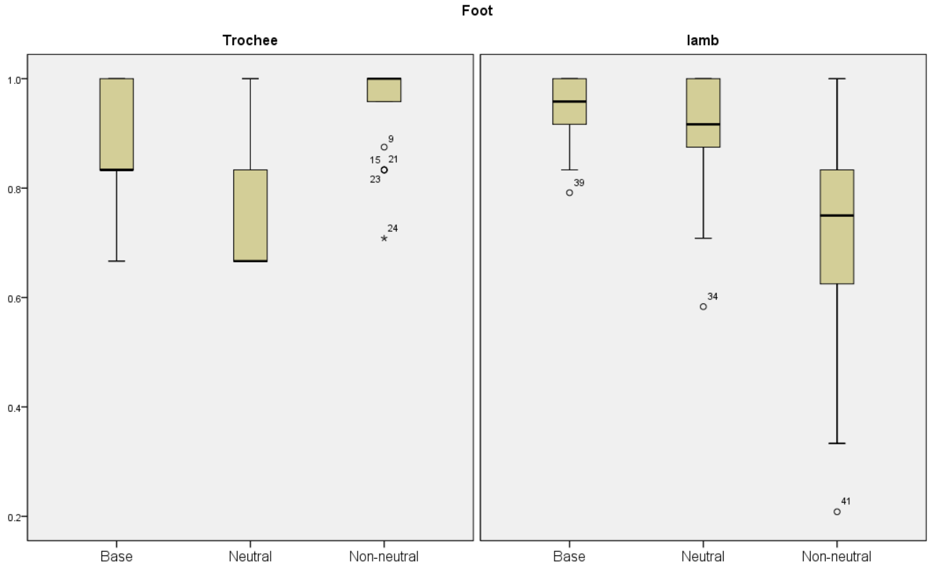

Figure 1. Accuracy rate of all foot structures and suffix types

A 2x3 repeated measure ANOVA was adopted to examine the effect of Foot and Type on the accuracy rate of stress shit. The results indicated the main effect of Foot is not significant F(1, 24)=.28 p = .602 (Fig. 2).

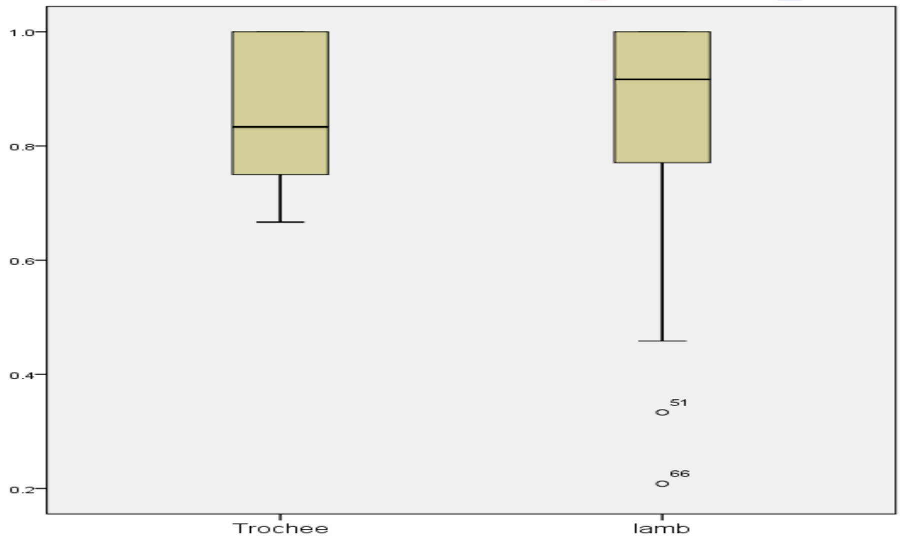

Figure 2. Accuracy rate by Foot.

On the other hand, the main effect of Type is significant, $F(2, 24) = 8.16$ $p = .001$ (Fig. 3.3). Posthoc comparison confirmed that the accuracy of Stem (M=.913, SD=.01) is significantly higher than Neutral (M=.824, SD=.016)and Non-Neutral (M=.832, SD=.021), yet there is no significant difference between the later.

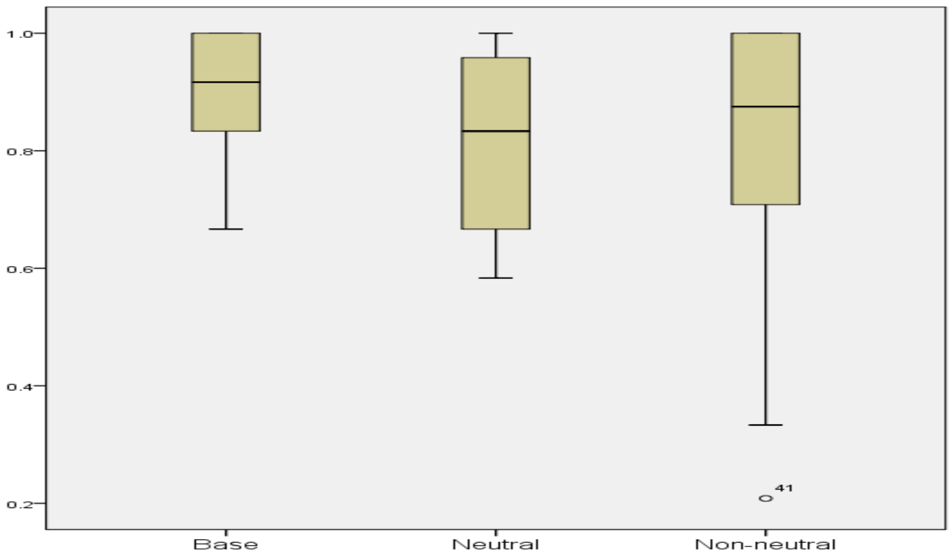

Figure 3. Accuracy rate by Type.

The interaction is also significant $F(2, 48) = 28$, $p < .001$, the significant interaction originates from the fact that words without suffix (Stem) and words with neutral suffix (Neutral) get higher accuracy in iambic foot. On the contrary, words with non-neutral suffix induces direct opposite performance— stem with trochaic foot seem (M=.95 SD=.081) to be significantly easier than iambic stem (M=.71, SD=.20).

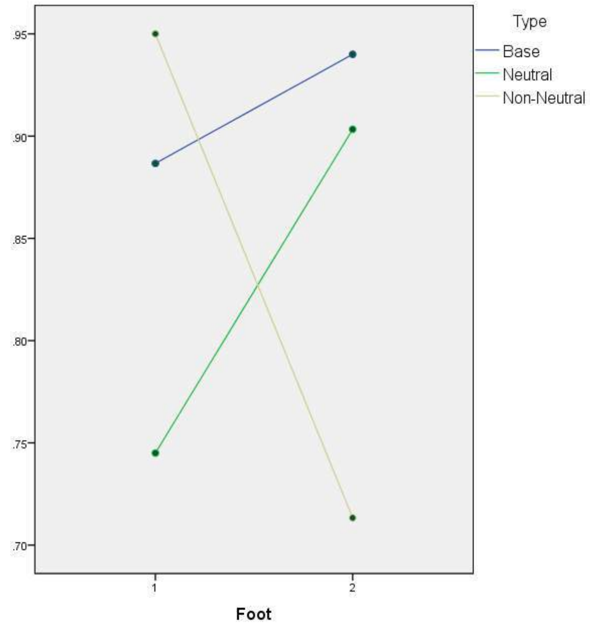

Figure 4. Interaction between Foot and Type.

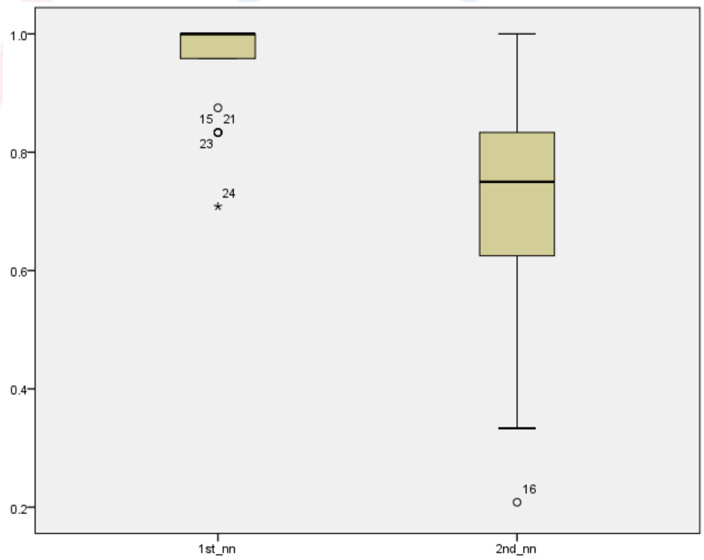

Figure 5. Pair-wise comparison between trochaic and iambic stems with nonneutral suffixes.

Discussion

The present study examines the stress assignment of English suffixed words produced by L2 learners with Mandarin L1 background. The stimuli were disyllabic words and their suffixed counter parts. The results indicated that regressive shift pattern is significantly harder for L2 learners. The asymmetry between progressive and regressive shift patterns was confirmed.

To further examine the non-neutral factor, which causes the significant interaction o Foot and Type, we compared the stimuli derived from trochaic and iambic foot. It is observed that for words with trochaic stem (e.g. human), non-neutral suffix induces progressive stress shift (e.g. humanity) whereas iambic stem (e.g. preFER) induces a regressive stress shift (e.g. PREference). Despite the fact that the lexical frequencies for the iamb-derived words are higher than trochee-derived words, they seem to be significantly more difficult, for second language learners. The frequency comparison could be found in Table 1.

(a)

Trochaic stem	Non-neutral derivation
dictate (394)	dictation (25)
music (19431)	musician (1194)
beauty (2584)	beautician (21)
human (16270)	humanity (972)
normal (7221)	normality (56)
noble (638)	nobility (66)

(b)

Iambic stem	Non-neutral derivation
compete (1990)	competence (275)
prefer (1707)	preference (493)
defer (235)	deference (145)
precede (47)	precedent (822)
prevail (668)	prevalent (297)
reside (99)	resident (2010)

Table 1. Lexical frequencies of trochaic (a) iambic (b) stems and their derived words with nonneutral suffixes.

We postulate that a possible factor behind the results could be that the most frequent suffixes: -tion, -ic, and -ity (data from White et al. 1989) all attract pre-suffixial stress and might have trigger a preference for that specific location. On the other hand, a cross-linguistic study should be conducted to examine if there are universal linguistic stress pattern in world languages.

Limitation and further studies

A possible confound of the present study was brought up by the audiences that the assumption of the present study is that the stem form is the base where the learners started their learning. However, a closer examination should be done for word sets in which suffixed words are more frequent than the base and the learners task would be re-docking the stress from the suffixed form. Issue of word frequency.

Two major issues One more issue we didn’t address fully is that the stress placement of the base stem should be correct to start with so the stress shift could be certain to start with the position we assume. The bar charts below

We plan to conduct a perception study comparing the perceptual differences between the base and progressive shift words vs. base and regressive shift words.

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The Usage of Games (Adapted from Korean Reality Shows) in Oral English Classroom to Increase Participation in Speaking

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Abstract
This study aims to understand how games influence oral English learning in terms of participation and motivation through a context-aware learning environment. Games help students to engage in learning activities based on motivation theory, involving various educational strategies, including game-based learning, collaborative learning, and context-aware learning. A qualitative research using case study method was adopted. A group of 29 students from Universiti Malaysia Sabah participated in the game learning activities. The games consisted of four type of games, each has its own set of activities; namely Quick Quiz, Mind your Head, Time's Up and Spontaneous Story Telling. During the games, observations were carried out by researcher. They were then been interviewed to get in depth data. The evaluation results of the learning participation and learning motivation demonstrated that incorporating games into the English learning process could achieve better oral English learning outcomes. The study showed that the interest in learning English had changed after the implementation of the series of language games; respondents who initially find it troublesome with certain problems especially on grammar usage in speaking had confidently use the language.

Keywords: Speaking Skill, Language Game, English

Introduction

Communication is a vital part in learning. Speaking is the productive part of oral English in communication while listening is its receptive part (Celce Murcia, 1989). The teacher centered approach that is still widely used today encourage learners less to practice the productive part which is vital for communication. Hence, real language could not occur. Even by using a conventional oral teaching method, learners still find it hard to realise real language conversation outside the classroom.

The problem we face today in oral proficiency among ESL learners remained the same since decades ago as students in Malaysia lack the real and authentic exposure in the skill; especially speaking skill, hence they could not communicate well. In the classroom, teachers will usually ask their students to write and read a guided dialogue that has already be prepared beforehand or role-played an act that has undergone a series of training before presenting it which revealed more of mechanical drill of language in action. This makes the activity looks realistic but not real or authentic as they do not use the language spontaneously. In such traditional classroom, students may feel anxious, scared and low in motivation. They feel that they need to be perfect in all angles; linguistics, accent, body gesture, memorizing of dialogues, turns and lines, therefore rendered it to be unreal or robotic. Without the opportunity of real exposure of how an authentic English language communication should be taught, students will be handicapped in executing their crucial daily activities in English. It is highly recommended that games can be used in teaching speaking as games are fun activities which endorse interaction, thinking, learning and problem solving strategies spontaneously. Furthermore, games are affective tools for learning because they offer students a hypothetical environment in which they can discover substitute decisions without the risk of failure.

By using language games as the core approach in this study, it is hope that the conventional teacher centered can be turned into an active learner centered classroom. Language games approach emphasizes the communication activities that involve the real use of language in daily life situation. It offers good production of input into the skill focus and hope to enhance their confidence and real usage of the language. Hence, this study explored learners' responses in using games strategy in term of their motivation and participation in the communicative games interaction.

The Problem

Teaching of any language to unmotivated learners will always be a challenge. Even teaching a second language to motivated learners is a problem. This is because motivation alone doesn't guarantee success. Learning a second language such as English in a formal setting with limited exposure in the real practice and use of the language can kill the enthusiasm of many an aspiring learner. If learners have problem motivating themselves to learn a second language teachers have problems with offering effective and efficient pedagogy to teach the language that suit the needs of every child.

Generally, teachers have problems teaching all the four basic skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). Arguable however, teachers are more at home teaching language skills such as writing and reading but often shy away from teaching the skills of listening and speaking. Dealing with speaking in English language and the use to communication and participation in the classroom seems to be a big challenge for second language speakers. Folse (2006) stated that students do not have the chance to talk in classes.The teacher seems to do all the talking while learners just sit and listen passively most of the time. For these reasons the teaching of listening is often neglected.

Most teachers are at sea as to how to provide students with opportunities to develop their students' communicative skills and this prove a challenge even in the higher institutions of learning. Despite the fact that the English language is the medium of instruction at the university level, many students (including final year graduates) still struggle to communicate in English for academic purposes (Mustapha, 2010) From my experience of teaching in low English proficient students and from the literature perused, I gather that in the teaching and learning of spoken English, our undergraduate students tend to shy away from participating in class speaking activities prepared by the teachers. Usually, they preferred to keep quiet during English lesson and were reluctant to speak in English. The main reasons for this is fear of being ridicule and lack of confidence.

According to McCroskey (1984), many students even at higher levels of study experience some level of fear and anxiety when asked to communicate, especially in public. This feeling of discomfort when communicating is called communication apprehension. It can be stressful for them when they are expected to speak in the second language. Therefore, students are unable to perform well in speaking skills, and they fail to communicate well.

As such it is imperative to find a supplementary technique that the teachers could use effectively and efficiently and that is comfortable to the students. A technique that could cast away their shyness embraced their fear and enhanced their confidence to take part in the learning process. Hue (2010) in his study showed that using language games will boost the student's oral skill to the limit. Their responses and participation could later become real communication and as communication improves so will oral competency in English.

Research Aims And Objectives

The objectives of this study are to;

(1) Determine students use of language freely by determining:
i. The use of verbal language during games
ii. The use of non-verbal language during games

(2) Determine students participation by determining:
i. The physical involvement in classroom participation
ii. The emotional involvement in classroom participation

Research Questions

The research questions in this study are as follows:

1) Observe students' motivation (reaction)
1. Do the games motivate the students to use the English language freely?
i. How do the students use the language verbally in the games?
ii. How do students use the language non-verbally in the games?

2) Observe students' participation (interaction)
2. Do the games allow the students to participate freely?
i. How physically involved are students in the games?
ii. How emotionally involved are students in the games?

Methodology

This study employed a case study design with a qualitative approached. Case study is particularly useful in my study on rare or complex phenomena such as oral communication failures in learning ESL. The focus of case study is upon a particular unit and that is the case. A case can be an organization, a city, a group of people, a community, a patient, a school, etc. (Willig, 2001). The social unit being studied defines the case study, whether it is a person, a program, a company, a situation or whatever (Maylor and Blackmon, 2005). The strength of case study is that it can take an example on an activity – 'an instance in action' –and use multiple methods and data sources to explore it and interrogate it and thus it can achieve a rich description of a phenomenon (Stark and Torrance, 2005). Neuman (1997) states that a qualitative researcher may use a case study approach where he/she might gather a large amount of information on one or few cases, go into greater depth, and get more details on cases being examined. The case study researcher goes for data analysis in a different way in comparison to quantitative researchers. So, this is basically a qualitative case study. It is qualitative in nature due to the data needed to answer the Research Questions posed in this study. It is a case study because it involves only a class of students from a specific language course from larger group undergraduate students.

Sampling

A total of 29 students were used as respondents. All respondents were around the age of 20-25 and are studying English Language Level 2 (Oral Communication). Most of them obtained either band 1 or 2 in the Malaysian University English Test. About 5% of the class obtained a higher band 2 and has average proficiency of the language, but then, they are still in doubt of the usage. Even though they are weak, they do understand simple instructions. This will make it slightly easier for me to explain the games to them. In addition to random sampling schemes, out of seven purposive sampling schemes presented by Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007), nested sampling is relevant in my case study to obtain representativeness (Sankoff, 1971). The participants were a group of semester two undergraduate students from a mix based courses, science and non-science students at Universiti Malaysia Sabah.

Case Study Step-By-Step Procedure

There were six steps procedure or protocol embraced in this case study, they are as follows:

a. The research started with the problem - the study question. The problem can be defined as a discrepancy between an initial state (what we have) and a final state (what we want to have) and is realized in the objectives.

b. The objectives and the propositions were made clear.

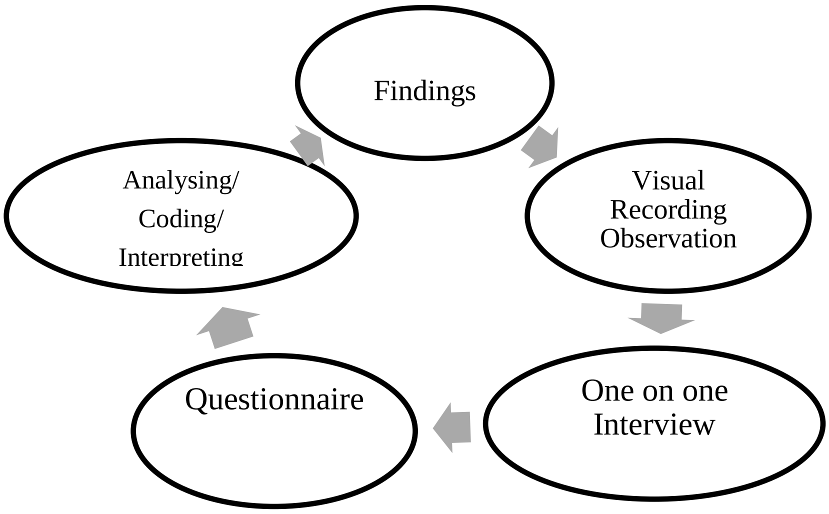
c. The next step involved defining the unit of analysis and then data collection. The data collection utilized four qualitative methods. Data come for various sources and depending on the problem and objectives, it will be collected qualitatively (e.g., by interview and observation)

d. Once collected, the data was analyzed qualitatively. The data collected qualitatively (e.g., by interview and observation)

e. In the next step, linking this categories analysis in a logical way was used to link my results to the study objectives and/or propositions.

f. Finally, based on the aspects discussed at point "e", conclusions and discussions led to the interpretation of findings in the particular context and in the larger context of the scientific literature on the topic.

Data Collection



During this study the language games activities were observed and recorded. A questionnaire was also given before and after the study period. A smaller group of respondents were selected to be interviewed with the aid of the recordings.

Data Analysis Matrix

For ease of understanding of the method of data analysis I have included a Data Analysis Matrix. The matrix put together the research objectives and questions, the source of data, the techniques of data gathering and analysis in a single table to explain how the analysis conducted.

Research question 1

Do the games motivate the students to **use** the English language freely?

a. How do the students use the language **verbally** in the games?

b. How do students use the language **non-verbally** in the games?

MAIN CAT.	**SUB-CAT.**	**SUBJECT**	**DATA**	
			METHOD OF GATHERING	**METHOD OF ANALYSIS**
VERBAL	1. Speaking	1.Intra-group	Observation Protocol	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational analysis
			Questionnaire	Categorical Nominal scale
		2.Inter-group	Observation Protocol	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational Analysis
			Questionnaire	Categorical Nominal scale
	2. Whispering	Neighbor	Observation Protocol	Inductive Analytical
	3. Screaming	At peers	Observation Protocol	Inductive Analytical
	4. Laughing	1. At themselves 2. At others	Observation Protocol	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational Analysis
			Questionnaire	Categorical Nominal scale
NON-VERBAL	1. Listening	1. Teacher's instruction	Observation	Inductive Analytical
		2. Peers' questions and responses	Observation	Inductive Analytical
			Questionnaire	Categorical Nominal scale
	2.Para-language	Respond to peers	Observation	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational Analysis
		1. Hand gesture by players	Observation	Inductive Analytical
		2. Body gesture	Observation	Inductive Analytical
		3. Face expression	Observation	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational Analytical

Table 1.1 Data Analysis Matrix

Research question 2

Do the games allow the students to participate freely?
a. How **physically** involved are students in the games?
b. How **emotionally** involved are students in the games?

MAIN CAT.	SUB-CAT.	SUBJECT	Data	
			METHOD OF GATHERING	METHOD OF ANALYSIS
Physical	Communication	Individual Intra-group Inter-group	Observation protocol	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational analysis
	Body language	Individual Intra-group Inter-group	Interview	Conversational analysis
			Observation protocol	Inductive Analytical
Emotional	Enthusiasm	Individual Group Class	Observation protocol	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational analysis
	Confidence	Individual Group Class	Observation protocol	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational analysis
	Enjoyment	Individual Group Class	Observation protocol	Inductive Analytical
			Interview	Conversational analysis

Table 1.2 Data Analysis Matrix

Results

Question 1

The data from the observation, interview and questionnaire were analyzed and they showed that the students do enjoy interacting using the target language i.e. English Language, verbally by speaking, whispering, screaming and laughing; and non-verbally by listening and para-language. The data is presented by the order of the game was carried out below.

MAIN CAT.	**SUB-CAT.**	**G1**	**G2**	**G3**	**G4**
VERBAL	5. Speak ing	√	√	√	√
	6. Whis pering	√	√	√	√
	7. Screa ming	√	√	√	√
	8. Laug hing	√	√	√	√

Table 2.1 Verbal Categories

NON-VERBAL	2. Listen ing	√	√	√	√
	2.Para-language	√	√	√	√

Table 2.2 Non-verbal categories

<u>Verbal</u>

a. Speaking

In all four games used in this study, speaking was involved. The first attribute of speaking was the independence of students' free flow of thinking aloud. This is important because it determines the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude toward learning. Even though this game had a fix rule and is a turn taking game, still, subjects have their independence in using the language without being forced.

Secondly is the pace. After engaging into the motion of the game gracefully, half way into the game, it went faster. The sentences used were simple and short but it startled one student and he hesitated. He was out of words, and was forced to change member. The new member continued his sentence comfortably. Their turn taking although fix, it was naturally presented as seen below;

S1*: My best friend was in a coma*
S2*: I was so sad because she's…my friend is in come &im very sad because she the best friend I ever have.*
S3*: I was crying.*
S4: aa….(OUT! New member)
New member: My tear go..fall& I tell my mom
S5*: I tell ,y mom…my friend's father was come to ask me 'Why you cry'*
(Obs. G1, L. 168-178)

While being occupied into the active speed of the game, participants did not find grammar to be a barrier for them to participate. They kept on responding to peers assertively. Game gave them space to try enduring their fear of speaking in the target language. Subjects were so committed to achieve their desired goal that they forgot about the accuracy of the language. Their focus seems to be on the game flow and care more on the fluency of language use as seen in the excerpt below;

J: No. ***They keep the gun to the other people you know what I say****? The gun is not with them? A… with them. They saw the two people & run away.*
T: Because they are shocked & run away with the gun, they decided to search for the elephant that they were searching earlier

A: after that they ***saw the elephant in 5pm****.* ***So the two people finding a tree living there & the tomorrow they will kill the elephant.***

(Obs. G.1, L60-67)

In question two on the questionnaire stated by all 29 participants said that they like the games they played. Participants said that they were motivated to use the target language because it made them speak without worries and discomfiture. Some said that they can practiced English in an informal way, improved it by thinking fast and spontaneously. Other than that, several of them claimed that it gives them energy since it is fun, interesting and enjoyable. (**Questionnaire**, Q2)

b. Whispering

In all four games, whispering was involved. Whispering here referred to a soft spoken act using one's breath rather than one's throat, especially for the sake of secrecy (Oxford dictionary, 2010). All four games were similar, *I saw subjects whispering before performing their parts, and they were trying to get assistance finding the correct vocabulary and to form correct sentences. Some whispered to each other to share ideas on how to continue the conversation.* **(Int. S2)**

c. Screaming

Screaming is simply means making a loud, high-pitched sound (Oxford Dictionary, 2010). It can be found in all four games played. I noticed that once the participants were really immersed in the game, they focused whole-heartedly to their friends' answers; they listened conscientiously so as to respond to what they heard by shouting and screaming as seen in game two;

A: I use gmail. Why you wear glasses?
B: Because I need it. So, What is your favourite colour?
A: Blue (alarm rang) ***(the whole class screamed)***

(Obs. G2, L16-18)

d. Laughing

In all the four games conducted, laughing was used widely in the game communication. Laughing referred to the act of making spontaneous sounds and movements of the face and body that are the instinctive expressions of lively amusement and sometimes also of derision (Oxford Dictionary, 2010). The idea of making people laugh is to make the atmosphere feel relaxed. In order to grab attention, one needs to get the audience to pay attention on the content they utter.
It was observed that when participants felt entertained, they are motivated. As a nature of a game being enjoyable, the usual atmosphere of tense and fretful English classroom became more relaxed and secured. As a result, participants felt motivated in involving themselves into the activities.

In game 1, the whole class was entertained by the participants' continuous stories. The audience laughed hard conscientiously listening to their friends answer. Other than that, players also find their content to be amusing and fun as seen in the excerpts below;

*S1: Hasel&Gratel go to McD****(the whole class laugh out loud)****& order the big mac & the French fries.*

S2: When they go McD& order Big mac & French fries but when the cashier said that this price that you must to be….must to be….what? you must to be paid..but when they check their pocket they have no money. So they walk away out from the mcdonald& go to the….to the what? The jungle.

S3: When the Hasel&Gratel
Class: ***(the whole class laugh)*** *How can McD be near the jungle?...*
F: (cont) Hasel&Gretal in the jungle…arr…suddenly aa… Hasel&Gratel …aa…came come late to meet the..& run away again.
(Obs..G1, L.33-49)

"When my friend ***laugh, I enjoy that****. It's a good game because we have to think fast...****"***

(Int.2 Q5)

A different type of entertainment involved in game two. The participants sometimes used malay words in their speech that others found it humorous. They laughed at each other as seen below;
A: What is your favourite color?
B: Blue
A: Errmmm, what you eat today.
C: Ammm, nasilemak.
A: Drink?
C: Cappuccino
A: Why you like it?
*C: I like it laa****(laugh)***
A: Why
C: That's my favourite drink **(Obs. G2, L51-60)**

Non-Verbal

a. Listening
In the four games, the role of listening was visibly involved. Listening referred to one's attention to a sound, take notice of and act on what someone says; respond to advice or a request, make an effort to hear something; be alert and ready to hear something and used to urge someone to pay attention to what one is going to say (Oxford Dictionary, 2010). In this study, the game situation demanded oral language to be used extensively and listening plays an important role in order to respond. In the following excerpts from the four games testifies the phenomenon;

Students listened attentively to both teacher and peers. Regardless of the content and order, they felt excited to start running the show. As a result, interesting output was observed. In the second round of the game, it went very smooth as they were then feeling contented with the setting. The atmosphere was filled with laughter as they enjoyed their friends' answers. The length of the utterance made was longer this time.

"Even when i don't play but i know what the game about & I'm excited also"
(Int. S6. Q5)

Eventhough, there were only ten students participated every round, other members of the class were eagerly taking part in listening to what the content being discussed, reacted to it and responded to, when the players hesitated;

D: hasel&Gratel was shocked with this matter & they shot the bird & the bird was died
S: When Hasel (ih sepa namatu?) " ***(whole class burst laughing)***
C:Hansel&Gratel
S: What?
C: Hasel&Gratel" **(Obs.**G1, L.8)

b. Para-language

Para-language linguistically referred to vocal features that accompany speech and contribute to communication but are not generally considered to be part of the language system, as vocal quality, loudness, and tempo: sometimes include facial expressions and gestures (Poyatos. F, 1993). Also referring to the definition, all four games involved para-language.

In game 2, the game started after the instructor explained the procedure. Even during the explanation, the facial expression of the participants and viewers were positive. Because the game was adapted from the famous Korean game show i.e. Running Man, students who have watched it have clear view of what to expect and having the chance to try out for themselves really boost their enthusiasm. The environment was stimulating to the students though it created ambiance and serenity in learning language. This happened in all four games played.

The continuation of attentive listening makes the classroom retained the life. The participants have no problem focusing on their task, some of them made funny faces to make their friends laugh. The viewers on the other hand were seen engaging to the game in the middle part of the game. It is entertaining to them most of the time.

A: Why?
B: I don't want?
A: Why? ***(hysterical, the class laugh at their mischievous act?)***
(Pace become faster & louder with excitement)
(alarm rang) **(Obs, G2, L42-46)**

Question 2
The data from the observation, interview and questionnaire were analyzed and they showed that the students participate voluntarily in all games through communication and body language. Emotionally they were motivated, confident and happy. The data is presented in table 4.3 and 4.4 below by the order of the games conducted.

MAIN CAT.	SUB-CAT.	**G1**	**G2**	**G3**	**G4**
Physical	Communication	√	√	√	√
	Body language	√	√	√	√

Table 2.3 Physical Categories

MAIN CAT.	SUB-CAT.	**G1**	**G2**	**G3**	**G4**
Emotional	Enthusiasm	√	√	√	√
	Confidence	√	√	√	√
	Enjoyment	√	√	√	√
	Disengaged	√	√	√	√

Table 2.4 Emotional Categories

Physical

a. Communication
In all four games, communication was involved. Communication referred to the imparting or exchanging of information by speaking, writing, or using two-way process of reaching mutual understanding, in which participants not only exchange (encode-decode) information, news, ideas and feelings but also create and share meaning. In general, communication is an act of connecting people or places (Lee.D, Brosziewski.A, 2009).

In the questionnaire, question three talked about how game can enhance involvement, students responded that they have tons of chances. Some said when the game started they quickly got themselves participate without any force by the teacher. They tried to speak whenever they get the opportunity. Communication also helps them to participate among themselves especially when conversation and question were asked.
(**Questionnaire**,Q3)

Before the game started, a list of rules and regulation of the game were presented by the instructor. Communication was the most obvious element after the briefing. This is called a teacher-classroom communication. Subjects, not considering the roles, players or viewers talk to each other to find ways and to get clearer information on how the game supposed to go. As I go through the data, the same gesture that was seen in game 1, also occurs in game 2, 3 and 4.

During the game, communication was the most important element to get the game going. A wider range of interaction was found; there were student-teacher communication, student-student communication, and student-class communication. Teacher-student communication was only when students were still unclear of the game's instruction. While playing, especially whenever there was hesitation, helpers from the inter-group and also intra-group gave their assistance. It encourages participation informally during the game. Examples below.

" S: Hasel eh…ermmmm (pause) Hasel feel very sad because aaaaa….
They have a…. ***(bunuh…bunuh ape…)***
Class: Kill….kill…
S: have kill the bird " **(Obs. G1, L.17)**

"*Because* ***I see many friends help their friends with problem****.* ***If I don't know the words I can ask my friend. They help me. Spontaneously to talk to my friend"***
(Int. 5, Q4)

"We will help each other *if we don't know what to say we ask question"*
(Int.6, L6)

b. Body language

Body language referred to the conscious and unconscious movements and postures by which attitudes and feelings communicate (Ribbens. G, 2001). In all four games, body language is involved.

Natural body languages that accommodate the spoken language were found in all of the games played. Even before the game started, a try out was conducted. They were happy to get involved. Signals such as poking, clapping and waving were seen during the try out. I stopped the try out session and started the real game. Students were disappointed; I noticed it by the sound of their sigh. I can feel that they were having fun and I was interrupting them.

B: I was crying.
C: aa….(OUT! New member)
My tear go..fall& I tell my mom (hand making tear drop on face)
D: I tell my mom…my friend's father was come to ask me 'Why you cry'
E: & I say, I was very sad coz my friend, his son is coma.
(Obs, G3, L.164-169)

Emotion

a. Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm may be defined as strong warmth of feeling or a keen interest. It is generally contrasted with apathy which may be defined as a lack of emotion or lack of interest. Enthusiasm is achieved through navigation when students wanted to clarify certain input, they will push an extra initiative to overcome their fear, hence it will build their comprehension and therefore contribute to learning.

Even though most of the game ran for more than 30 minutes, the excitement of both the participants and viewers did not dwindled at all. They kept playing and focusing on the whole period. This is evidenced in all games conducted whereby they showed high enthusiasm. From the self reflection data, one student explained his enthusiasm to speak English increased;

"The game forced me to speak in English because if someone does not speak in this game, someone is going to loser. So, me as someone who does not want to give up, I'm continue to speak in English even though my language is so bad."

(S4, SR)

Though enthusiasm is immeasurable, actions portrayed by the students in the game illustrated the degree of their enthusiasm. In game 4, the indicator of enthusiasm was seen through their responses i.e. fast responses to every question asked, stayed calm, think thoroughly before they made their move;

E: I'm policeman you are criminal. So, you has somebody you want to catch you, when I touch u, this is my pistol. What are you do
F: I run away
E: I chase.. I say freeze.
F: Do you like to watch mr. bean movie?
D: Yes, so cool man
F: Have you seen the movie, what you do?
D: What I do? Just smile, don't laugh boring
D: What time is this
A: I don't know. I don't have a watch, I don't hear you **(Obs, G4, L67-76)**

b. Confidence

In all four games, confidence developed in consistently. Confidence referred to a feeling or believe that you can do something well or succeed at something (Oxford dictionary, 2010). In this study, the games incorporate factors affecting self-assurance such as culture, custom, social persuasion, experience (failure and success) in the process; therefore common physiological signs of distress such as fear, panic and nausea. However, these signs were nowhere to be found in all four games.

All 29 respondents said the language games motivated them to speak based on question five in the questionnaire. They also stressed that by using game student speak out of excitement whatever they wanted to express themselves. They were braver hence it increased the level of self-confidence. (**Questionnaire**, Q5)

In addition, several students mentioned about being comfortable using games in learning English;

' for me the study with game more fun more we ***comfortable*** *speak in English because we have to speak to win the game.'* **(Int. S4, Q.1)**

'Yes, because when we play game more ***comfortable*** *in English.'*
(Int. S4, Q.3)

'the1st game , I think very interesting. Not really difficult. I feel ***confident & comfortable*** **(Int. S5, Q1)**

c. Enjoyment

According to Merriam dictionary, enjoyment means a feeling of pleasure caused by doing or experiencing something one like or the condition of having and using something that is good and pleasant. It is also appeared naturally without being force. By giving something invigorating, they will involve themselves in speaking without being compel. Of course in all four games, enjoyment was involved. The elements of comfort and confidence permitted them to have fun and use the target language without being vulnerable. Data is shared in question one on non-verbal involvement and also physical evidence in question two.

Laughing is an obvious indicator for enjoyment, other than physical motion such as smiling and giggling. Because i could not measure enjoyment simply by rating how enjoyable students felt, i will use laughter as the indicator. In all four games, laughter occurred. They laugh at themselves, they laugh at their friends, class members laugh at players and sometime they laugh alone. Evidences below are from the four games conducted;

A: Cappuccino
B: Why you like it?
*A: I like it laa****(laughs and giggles)***
B: Why
A: That's my favourite drink (**Obs.**G2, L. 56-60)

F: It's up to you how you laugh. How? Then just show me how you laugh
D: ahahaha~
E: Louder-louder.
D: AHAHAHAH
(class laughs out loud) (**Obs.**G4, L.29-33)

To add, data from questionnaire responded by participants also had confirmed the observation data by saying that they feel happy, fun, enjoyable, excited, encouraging, confident and brave during the English class. Some described that they feel nervous with anxiety where they feel eager to get involved in the game.
(**Questionnaire**, Q1)

d. Disengaged

Nevertheless, there was not always enjoyment in language games. When the duration of the game is too long, the fun faded. Though, students disengaged from the game. Disengaged here means the release from the connection of not being influenced in something.
Game 4 took the longest time to complete. Participants and viewers found the game to be uninteresting due to the time length. The game took up almost the whole lesson time. However, was cut off by the instructor when one of the viewers said;

"it's very hard to win this." **(Obs. G4, L.129)**

Students were alleviated once the game was over. Even though they found the task to be hard to accomplish, they requested it to have it often in the classroom.
"Miss, we want more games! More! More!" **(Obs. G4)**

Despite the smooth run at the beginning of the game, participants was highly motivated.

Discussion

Potrayal of Motivation, Participation and Encouragement in ESL Oral Classroom

In the research conducted by Celce-Murcia (1984), she suggested that one way of improving the social dynamic in language class that helps in encouraging communication is variety in learning activities on many different levels such as manipulative drills to the communicative activities. This study shared Celce's finding, whereby most respondents who took part in the language games felt more comfortable ESL learning as well as acquiring language through the implementation of language games. As documented in the interviews conducted after the language games, students responded that they were speaking relatively natural, their confident increased with each game and activity and as a result they became calmer and more relax. This is manifested too in the naturalness and spontaneous reactions of their participations in the language games conducted. After a series of language games with various kind of focus, it has enhanced their fluency. In short, games help students to relax, work cooperatively and to break barrier of shyness among their classmates in communicating in English.

Engaging in Student-Centered Learning instead of Teacher-Centred Learning

Teacher acts as a facilitator or instructor to the class especially in speaking. Students don't seem to have difficulty in taking instruction (listening skill). Once students are familiar with the language elements and understood the games instruction given, they became more active and participated fully as portrayed by the given students' attention in this study. Furthermore, they were very involved in the games as they were curios to try the game. Of course they were differences in their level of involvement which can be attributed to the level of difficulty of the games and activities as has been stated by Thorndike.

Students' interest on the language game is a big advantage to teachers because it promotes self learning. Game by its nature is fun, by integrating it into ESL language learning process; students naturally engaged themselves. It is supported here that this method is more effective than other teaching methods as it encourage them to explore various angles of the language choices unconsciously. This is similar to the findings by Smith (2007) in his research, 'Games for Teaching Information Literacy Skills' proves that games is a useful indeed tool in teaching and learning process as they stimulate active learning. Albert Bandura (1961) lent support to this statement through his modeling and observational learning theory which stated that students who work cooperatively in small group tend to set one of the students in their group as model, thus create self-learning.

Meaningful Teaching – Learning process

Finally, in term of teaching, learning becomes meaningful and fun. The study showed that they were more relaxed and enthusiastic to be involved in the activities. They seemed to be oblivious to making 'mistakes' because they were more on the task. Karapetyan (2004) stated that learners take part because playing is fun and natural, establishing a cooperative and friendly environment for the pursuit of challenging but interesting goal. The focus shifts from learning to playing, encourage relaxation, build self-confidence and facilitate memory functions. The language games used in this study showed that these activities allowed the students to be very active and at the same times being more interactive.

Conclusion

The primary goal of this study was to investigate the use of language and participation by using language games on learner's in speaking. This is a short term study meant only to ascertain the use of language through motivation and encouraging participation of students when language games were introduced. Participation is important as language learning is an active process.

This study has established that the language games encouraged the use of language and participation in class greatly. The big question however remains whether the participation will lead to; increase proficiency and the rate of acquisition. As such it is recommended that future studies concentrate on longitudinal studies to view whether level of participation actually translate into better proficiency and the rate of that acquisition

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The Effects of Using a Facebook Group in Teaching a Foreign Language

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Abstract
Nothing remains the same, nor does the foreign language teaching. In the past and now in most countries, where the foreign language is taught in an unnatural environment, teaching a language starts and ends in the class with applying different approaches, which were popular in different past years, and expect the students to learn the language well. However, people born after 1980 are called digital Natives who are characterized as having access to networked digital technologies and the skills to use those technologies. Major parts of Digital Natives' lives and daily activities are mediated by digital technologies, so why don't we support their learning with a social networking site like Facebook by establishing a group and sharing related materials to improve their learning and motivate them? This paper presents data collected from a questionnaire which was applied to 24 participants in 2014 fall term at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages, and evaluates the particiipants' perception, including views on the effectiveness of using this Facebook group.

Keywords: Facebook group, Effectiveness in language learning, students' perception, social networking

Introduction

"Teaching as you were taught" will no longer work.

Fawcett g. and Juliana M. (2002)
I don't know how you were taught English, but I was taught it in a class with the teacher's salutation -Good morning students, ant the students' response -Good morning teacher. Then went on with the instruction -Open your books page … and the lesson would start and end in the class with the teacher's presentation, and some practice activities. All things we did were limited with the class and its four walls. Is it the way we need to follow? I guess the answer is no as the new generation is keen on technology and they have the ability to use the technology professionally. So, what can be done? I believe that we can benefit from the new generation being keen on technology. A recent research shows that college students are spending close to half of their waking hours on their smartphones. Therefore, many educators and researchers have a think about how to benefit from the technology to help students improve their learning.

Teenagers and young adults, constituting the majority of language learners, use social networking sites commonly and actively. Facebook, whose user number is over one billion, is listed as having potential applications for teaching and learning. Considering the large number of students on Facebook often actively participating in discussions and groups, we cannot ignore its potential as an educational tool. Therefore, as an instructor teaching over 18 years I wanted to take benefit from this potential by forming a Facebook group and using it outside the classroom for four main purposes: Sharing related materials about newly learned structure, phrases, vocabulary or reading materials to consolidate their learning; providing a chance for the students to interact with their classmates and teachers in case they ask a question or share something; informing them about all tasks they are supposed to do and motivating them to believe in themselves and feel secure.

This study has been designed to explore the perception of my students about using the Facebook group outside the classroom. The paper presents data collected from a survey which was applied in my 2014 fall term A2 according to CEFR level class students at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages, and evaluates their perception, including views on the effectiveness of using the Facebook group.

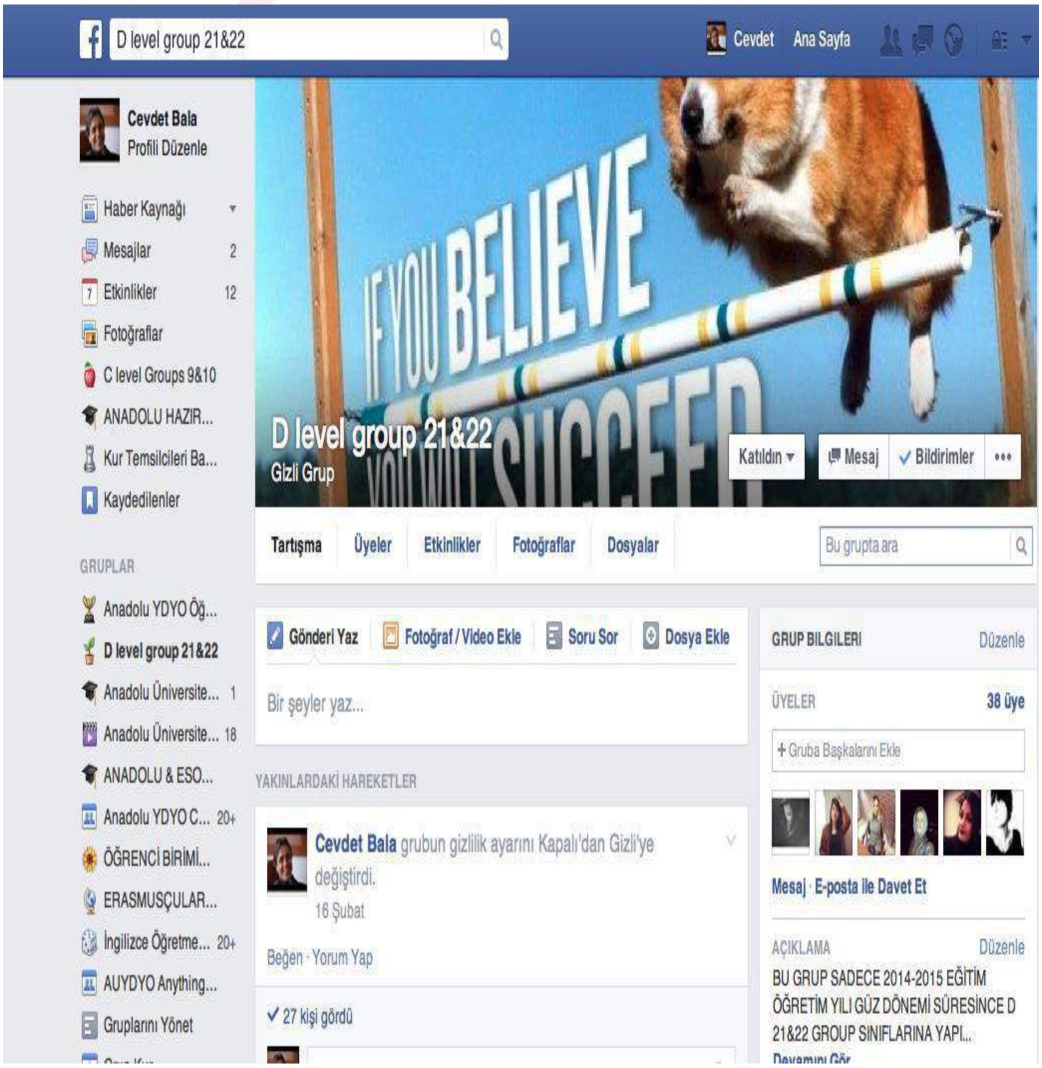
Review of Literature

Integrating the technology and social networking sites, especially Facebook because of its huge number of users, into teaching&learning process is suggested as a result of some researches in the technology age. Some studies focusing on the usage of Facebook as an educational tool have shown its undeniable potential. Bosch (2009) states that Facebook is listed as having potential applications for teaching and learning. If one considers the large numbers of students on Facebook often actively participating in discussions and groups, it cannot be ignored as a potential educational tool. Matthews (2006) sees Facebook as an opportunity to directly reach over 75 percent of his target audience. Timonidou (2012) focuses on those who are willing to use Facebook for educational purposes, and he sees it as a valuable source of academic as well as social benefits. He believes that just like with any other tool, Facebook or any other SNS, can be used for many different purposes, including education, that are only limited by our imagination. Duboff (2007) analyzes faculty members' reflections stating their posts on Facebook indicated to students that they were part of the same academic community, and that it helped break down barriers between themselves and students. Of course the literature is not limited with them, but merely with these results we can easily arrive at a conclusion that Facebook can be used as a potential tool for education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research aims to demonstrate whether forming a Facebook group and using it to benefit from its potential as an educational tool has efficacy in language learning.
Another concern is to find out the participants' perception of using the Facebook group we formed to be used outside the class for different purposes.

Our Facebook Group



The Facebook group we would be using in my classes was formed and the students were invited to be a member of it. It was a closed group what meant no one could access it except my students, and accepted only the students I would be teaching English during the fall term 2014-2015. Completing the process of forming the group, I started to use it for the aims (sharing some extra activities to consolidate their learning, to inform them about their responsibilities, to create an atmosphere for interaction between the teacher and their classmates and to motivate them before the exams) I had planned.

Shared Samples Via the Group

Materials to consolidate their learning

Interaction between the teacher and students

Information about their tasks

Messages to motivate

Methodology

Through the end of 15 week teaching term eight online poll questions addressing the target of the group were designed on Survey Monkey. The address was shared on the group page and the participants were asked to answer the questions so that I could see their perception towards the use of this group. The data gathered from 24 students were evaluated and commented on according to data percentage.

Research Questions

Eight questions based on my experience and literature review were designed by myself and asked to the participants to find out what they thought about and how they perceived the group.

1.Is it a good idea to be in contact with your classmates and teacher via a group?
a. Yes b. No
2.Do you find our Facebook group useful?
a. Yes b. No
3.How often do you log into our group?
a. Once a day b. More than once a day
c. Once in 2-3 days d. Once a week
4.Why do you log into the group?
a. To see what is posted
b. To ask a question
c. To interact with classmates
5.How much time do you spend in our group?
a. Around one hour b. More than one hour
6.Do you think that the things posted on the group are helpful?
a. Yes b. No
7.What is the most effective purpose of the group?
a. To be in touch with my classmates and teacher
b. To study with different materials
c. To be informed about everything
d. Teacher's motivation
8.Do you think that the group has a positive impact on your learning?
a. Yes b. No

Participants

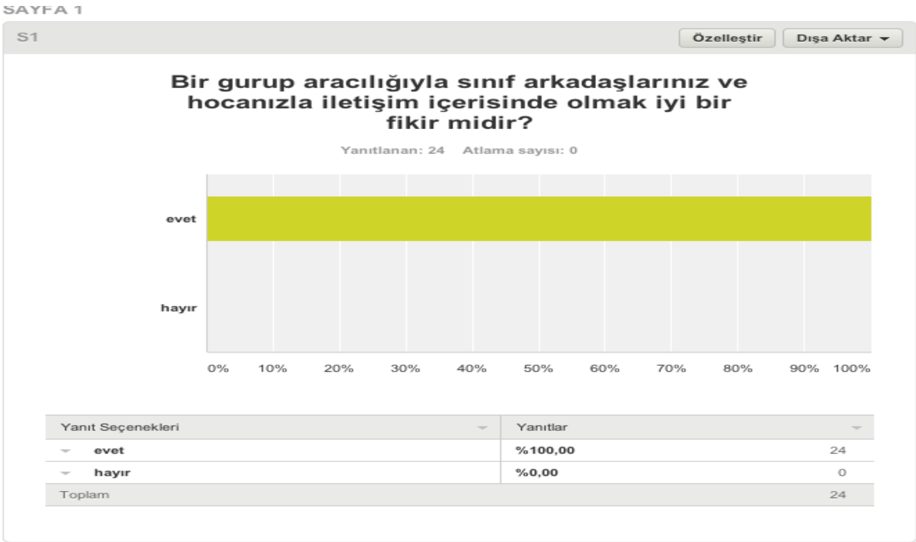
The participants of this study were the students I taught English at Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages in the Fall term 2014-2015 academic year. Their level is A2 according to CEFR. They are degree students aged between 18-25 and they study English obligatorily or optionally at least for a year before they start to study at their faculties.

Results and Discussions

The data gathered from 24 students, were evaluated and commented on according to data percentage

Results

Question 1. Is it a good idea to be in contact with your classmates and teacher via a group?



a. Yes 100% b. No 0%

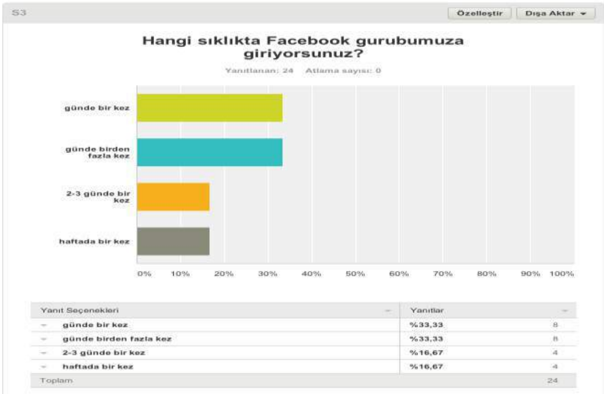
All of the students respond to the question saying yes, which means that they all think that having a group is a good idea to be in contact with their classmates and teacher.

Question 2. Do you find our Facebook group useful?

a. Yes 100% b. No 0%

Again all of the students respond to the question saying yes, which means that they find the group useful.

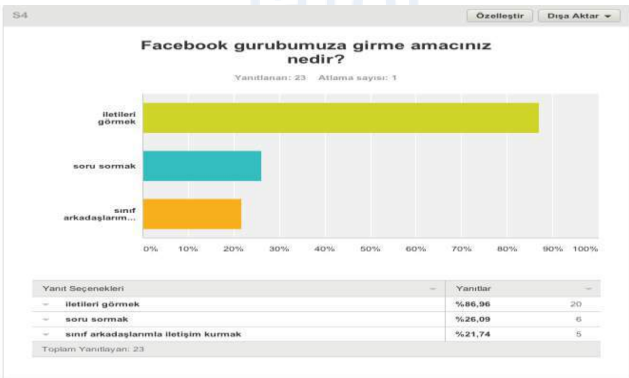
Question 3. How often do you log into our group?



a. Once in a day 33.33% b. More than once a day 33.33%
c. Once in 2-3 days 16.67% d. Once a week 16.67%

Four different percentages show that 66.66% of the participants log into the group once or more than once a day, which shows that the majority of them follow the group's posting daily; 16.67% says once in 2-3 days, and 16.67% answer the question stating once a week, which means all the students have a look at the group at least once a week.

Question 4. Why do you log into the group?



a. To see what is posted 86.96%
b. To ask a question 26.09%
c. To interact with classmates 21.74%

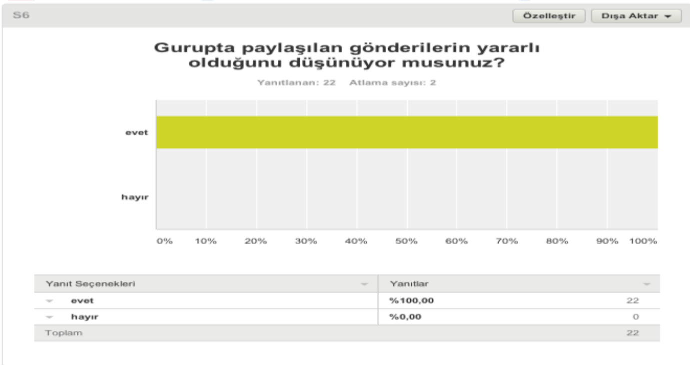
For the question searching for the reason why the students log into the group the participants have the chance to choose more than one choice. The results show that 86.96% to see what is posted, 26.09% to ask a question and 21.74 to interact with classmates. Nearly all of the students wonder what is posted as well as half of them benefit from the group to ask a question or to interact with classmates.

Question 5. How much time do you spend in our group?

a. Nearly one hour 95.45% b. More than one hour 4.55%

The result of the question searching for the time the students spend in the group shows that nearly all of the students spend nearly one hour in the group, which proves that the students check and do the posting as well as they interact or ask questions.

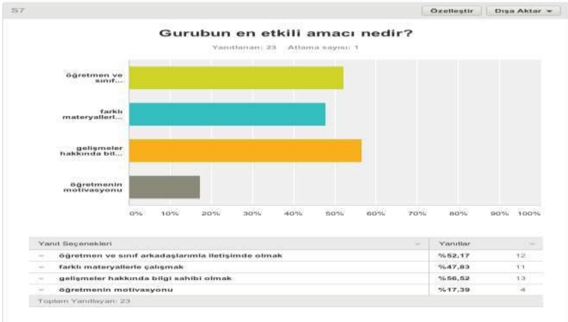
Question 6. Do you think that the things posted on the group are helpful?



a. Yes 100% b. No 0%

This result can be interpreted that the students benefit from whatever is done via the group as 100% finds the things helpful.

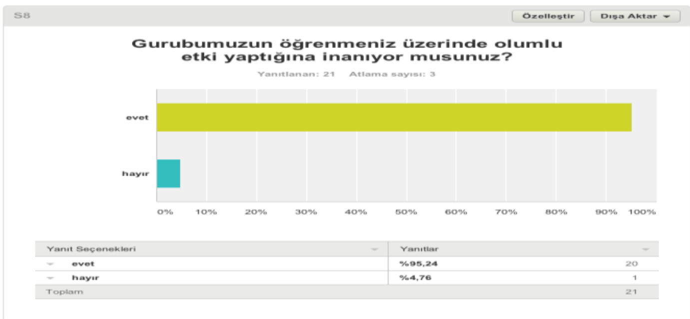
Question 7. What is the most effective purpose of the group?



a. To be in touch with my classmates and teacher 52.17%
b. To study with different materials 47.83%
c. To be informed about everything 56.52%
d. Teacher's motivation 17.39%

Similar to question 4, for the question searching for what the most effective purpose of the group is the participants have the chance to choose more than one choice. The results show that 100% of them think that the most effective purpose of the group is to be in touch with their classmates and teacher, and to study with different materials, which can be interpreted as learning continues outside the class. 56.52% log into to be informed about everything, and 17.39% appreciate the teacher's motivation.

Question 8. Do you think that the group has a positive impact on your learning?



a. Yes 95.24% b. No 4.76%
The result of the question looking for whether the group has a positive impact on the students' learning shows that close to 100% (95.24%) think that it has, while 4.76% think it doesn't.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that forming a Facebook group to share related materials to supplement the newly learned topics, to give a chance to interact with their classmates and teacher, to inform them about all tasks they are supposed to do and to post some messages to motivate them is an effective and preferred way in learning a language. The findings demonstrate that being in contact every time is a good idea and forming a Facebook group to be used outside the classroom for different purposes is useful. The participants think that the sharings are helpful and effective. What is more, they are curious about what is shared and they follow the group's sharings daily spending at least one hour to check and do extra activities. It seems that the group has a positive impact on their learning

To put in a nutshell, from the results of the survey it can be concluded that forming a group and using it outside the classroom is effective in many ways. Most of the students are pleased to use the group which has a positive impact on their learning.

Implications

As Davis (2006) states the Internet has become a conduit where people can learn, share, and collaborate in ways not possible years before. We are in a technological era and we need to use it not to become old fashioned. In other words, we cannot teach as we were taught years before.

For sure, technology will not replace a teacher, but if a teacher doesn't use technology, they will be replaced by a teacher who does.

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Effects of a Professional Development Programme on New Zealand Language Teacher Beliefs and Teaching Practice

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Abstract

The study is set in New Zealand where teaching and learning other languages is not compulsory, and one result of this context is that teachers often have to teach a language without having pedagogical knowledge of or training in language teaching. As a consequence, many professional development opportunities are offered. This research project tries to establish the impact of one of those Professional Development Programmes on participating teachers' beliefs of language teaching and on their teaching practice. The project explores the effects of a three week Mandarin language and pedagogy immersion programme in China on non-native and native speakers. The participants are in-service teachers who have little or no training in language teaching. The study illustrates the teachers' language teaching beliefs as well as teaching practices before their international experience, and how they develop over time afterwards. Out of the ten participants four are chosen as case studies, two of which are presented in this article. The study is a longitudinal one based on narrative inquiry, interviewing participants prior to their professional development and twice afterwards over several months. The findings suggest a substantial impact of the programme on teaching beliefs and on teaching practices, in particular on the use of target language and teaching methodology.

Keywords: teacher beliefs, teacher training, professional development

Introduction and context

In New Zealand learning other languages is not compulsory and not considered a priority within society. As a teacher, specialising in a language is not required, but teaching a language, even without linguistic or pedagogical knowledge, could become part of the teaching duties. In an attempt to bridge this gap, many professional learning and development opportunities are offered. It is unclear, however, how effective the programmes are for teachers. This research project therefore tries to establish the impact of one of those professional development programmes on participating teachers' beliefs of language teaching and on their teaching practice. The project explores the effects of a short-term international professional development (PD) programme, a three week Mandarin language and pedagogy programme in China on non-native and native speakers. The participants are in-service teachers who have little or no training in language teaching.

Although existing research looks into either teacher beliefs (Borg, 2011), or professional development (Guskey, 2002, King, 2014) or the effects of short term international experience programmes (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006, Trent, 2011, Willard-Holt, 2001), there is a lack of studies combining those areas which the present research project aims to connect.

Professional development for language teachers has attracted considerable attention and the effects of short-term international PD programmes on teacher beliefs and habits has particularly been evaluated. Barkhuizen and Feryok (2006) studied expectations and experiences of Hong Kong students in New Zealand during a six week programme and found an impact on the students' language learning, pedagogical understanding and cultural awareness. Similarly, Trent (2011) examined Chinese students participating in a six week immersion programme in Australia aiming to increase language proficiency, cross-cultural awareness and understanding teaching English as a second language. The students reported gains in proficiency, cultural understanding and a contribution to their identity as English language teachers. In her study, Willard-Holt (2001) established the effects of a week long experience of American English native speakers in Mexican schools, teaching English. The experience impacted on participants' beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and their empathy for non-native speakers of English.

Although those professional development programmes have had a clear effect on teachers' attitudes, habits, cultural awareness and, in the first two studies, language proficiency, effects of these programmes on teachers of other languages than English is not documented enough. Additionally, the impact of international PD programmes on the beliefs of in-service teachers is scarcely evaluated, and according to Borg, the impact of teacher education on 'in-service language teachers' beliefs is limited' (Borg, 2011).

The presented study aims to investigate the effect of an international professional development programme on in-service teachers of Chinese, looking at the teachers' cognition, but also at their teaching practices, illustrating those effects in two case studies.

The research questions posed were the following:

Are there any effects, and if so which, of an international professional development programme on in-service language teachers'

a) beliefs of language teaching and learning
b) language teaching practice?

The international professional development programme

The evaluated programme was a three week immersion programme in China which took place in the New Zealand summer school holidays just before the start of a new school year, and it included three components: language learning, cultural understanding and tasks based around Mandarin language teaching.

The participants received daily language classes through a tertiary institution in Beijing, and activities varied according to the language proficiency of the participants. The institution also organised cultural events such as calligraphy and Tai Chi sessions. The accompanying facilitator from New Zealand, instructed the participants in task-based language teaching. The participants had to apply this knowledge in several ways. For example, the teachers had to interview people on the street about a certain topic or had to ask native speakers for directions. The teachers had to document the interviews by audio- or video-recording people to provide evidence. The teachers then reflected on how those tasks could be adapted and used in their specific language teaching contexts in New Zealand schools. Another feature of the pedagogical strand was to highlight the connection between language and culture and finding ways to illustrate intercultural communicative language teaching. After the first week of generic language instruction the language classes focused on structures and language needed to complete the expected tasks. The participants worked in mixed ability groups to decide on how to present the task.

The programme was designed as full immersion and participants were encouraged to use Mandarin whenever possible. Native speakers on the programme were paired with non-native speakers for tasks and social activities to encourage the use of Mandarin as frequently as possible.

Participants

Out of the ten participants on the programme four were selected for case studies, two of which are presented and discussed in this article. The ten New Zealand teachers were made up of five native and five non-native speakers and consisted of nine female and one male teacher.

The language knowledge of the non-native speakers varied greatly from two rating themselves as 'intermediate or above' and three rating themselves at a lower level. None of the non-native speakers had been trained as a Mandarin language teacher.

The case studies were made up of two native speakers, Xian-Li and Liang-Min, and two non-native speakers, David and Janet, who all taught at New Zealand secondary schools; two at all boys colleges and two at coeducational schools. Both native speakers were originally from Taiwan with Mandarin as their first language, but also had a high language competence in English and in Japanese. The non-native speakers were speakers of those languages as well, but had English as their first language and a high proficiency in Japanese. Their Mandarin level was the equivalent of B2 of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and A1 of the CEFR.

All four had a teaching degree and the two native speakers were trained as language teachers in Taiwan, but the two non-native speakers had no formal language teacher training. However, both of those teachers had been teaching Japanese for several years.

Both native speakers indicated similar reasons for applying for this professional development opportunity emphasising a desire to better understand Chinese language and culture, and to receive training about pedagogy. As mentioned above, the two non-native speakers had a background in Japanese, and their main purpose for the professional development was to improve their linguistic competence in Mandarin to be able to teach at all levels with confidence.

The two cases chosen for this article provided the most information-rich data while showing similar trends as the other cases.

Data collection and analysis

Data was collected in three semi-structured interviews with each participant. Prior to their departure they were interviewed to find out about their language learning and teaching history, their language teaching beliefs and about their usual teaching practice to establish a context for each teacher. The teachers were interviewed again within four to six weeks after they had returned to New Zealand which coincided with the beginning of term one of a new school year. The second interview aimed, among other things, to find out what the participants had experienced in China, what their general perception was and tried to establish if any beliefs about teaching and learning a language had shifted. The third and final interview was scheduled six months after the professional development programme and asked participants to estimate if there had been any changes in their teaching practice, if, as a consequence, their learners experienced any changes and if their beliefs about teaching a language were affected.

The data of the three interviews was structured and evaluated based on Guskey's framework of professional development (2002) which establishes teacher beliefs and classroom practice before a professional development programme, looks at changes in teachers' classroom practice and in student learning outcomes and finally estimating if there has been a change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes which marks the beginning of a new cycle in a similar way. The data was complemented by the participants' application form and a formal evaluation form administered by the event providers.

Sampling for the case studies was based on purposeful sampling to obtain cases deemed information-rich for the purpose of this study. The case studies explore commonalities as well as differences across cases (Duff, 2008).

Findings

The two case studies presented in this article are that of Xian-Li and David. The case studies illustrate the backgound and context of the two teachers and highlight their identified beliefs alongside with consistency or discrepancy in their teaching practices. One belief out of the stated ones will be evaluated and tracked according to Guskey's evaluation framework before the impact on beliefs and practice over time will be showcased.

Case study 1: Xian-Li

Background and context

Xian-Li was 41 at the time of the study, originally from Taiwan and a native speaker of Mandarin. She came to New Zealand to do a postgraduate degree in teaching. Although she learnt English in Taiwan it was a 'very traditional grammar based' approach and she could not understand or communicate when she first arrived (i1). Asked which language she felt most comfortable with now, she emphasized that it was context dependent, choosing Mandarin as language for feelings and personal circumstances, but English for anything relating to teaching and teacher training, as her experience took place in an English speaking country.

Xian-Li had been working at her current secondary school for six years at the time of the interview and had prior experience at another college for three years. Her school was a co-educational year seven to thirteen college, catering for students between 11 and 18 years. Apart from Chinese the school offered Spanish, but from year 11 onwards students could only choose four subjects resulting in languages becoming an unpopular choice and leading to very small or even combined year level language classes.

Both the Mandarin and Spanish teacher were specialist teachers only teaching languages. Xian-Li taught at all year levels and had a Mandarin Language Assistant to support her with preparation and sometimes with teaching.

Xian-Li identified that her students needed more input in Chinese as there were not many opportunities for them 'to interact or communicate' and when students excelling in exams 'come to real communication with Chinese then they are still' (i.1). In her first interview prior to the international PD Xian-Li explained that her motivation for participating was twofold: to reflect on her practice and to 'work with other language teachers and to really rethink of my own teachings and see what I can improve' (i1).

Beliefs and classroom practice

In the following some of Xian-Li's beliefs and her classroom practice are presented.

Target language input

One of Xian-Li's beliefs centered on the need for more target language input which she mentioned several times in the first interview. Despite this relatively strong belief she envisaged ‘conduct[ing] [her] class in Chinese’ as an ideal outcome of the professional learning. This might seem slightly surprising, given she is a native speaker of Mandarin and language competence does not seem to be the obstacle for teaching in Mandarin. When asked, she explained that non-native speakers ‘probably don’t feel confident to use language’, but as a native speaker ‘we have a sort of attitude, I mean for me, like it’s easier we just explain in English and they will understand, just quick solutions if you are under time pressures ‘ (i1). This practice of teaching in English strongly conflicted with her previously stated belief. She justified her approach with it being the norm in a New Zealand language classroom as ‘in New Zealand environment it’s just all the instruction in English all the time, every language classroom it’s common practice to be honest’ (i.1), also highlighting a wish to conform with others as ‘it’s kind of a trend and if you are the only one it’s difficult’ (i.1). Being a highly reflective teacher, Xian-Li recognised that her beliefs and teaching practice conflicted and added: ‘…you need to see the value if you use more Chinese […] it might take a longer time for me to actually help them to understand, but in long term the result will maybe be more rewarding’ (i.1). She acknowledged the usefulness of changing her attitude to align more with her stated belief ‘ I think I need to shift my attitudes and actually implement this’ (i.1).

Target language use by learners

When it came to her learners, Xian-Li believed that there should be more oral output in Chinese in her lessons, either through students interacting with each other or through responding to her in the target language. Similar to her belief around language input she stated that her practice conflicted with that belief as the learners’ output was often only in writing rather than in speaking.

Purpose of learning

It was important for Xian-Li that her learners saw a purpose for learning Mandarin and that they had to ‘see the application of using a language rather than just something on a textbook for them to sit the exam’ (i.1). She explained further that she always attempted to contextualise the learning for her students. However, just as with her other beliefs, she mentioned the conflicting practice, as ‘everything is sort of academic oriented so the exam and assessments are very important’ (i.1). The discrepancy between her students’ assessments and their use of Chinese was evident to her as the students good in exams, based on reading and writing, could not use Chinese outside an assessment situation and for communication.

Impact: ‘Language learners need more input’

Xian-Li’s strongest belief by far was that learners needed more input in the target language. This is evaluated based on Guskey’s framework of the effect of professional learning development.

Professional development

During her time with the other participants in China Xian-Li appreciated the combination of native and non-native speakers and stated that it helped her ‘to think from the students’ perspective’ (i.2). She also realised in conversations with the non-native speakers that some aspects, words or phrases needed further explanations and she realised ‘that my students would not get this straight away and they would want to know and understand more, too’ (i.2).

Change in classroom practice

This insight to look at her lessons from a learner’s and non-native speaker’s perception had an immediate impact on Xian-Li’s classroom practice when she returned: ‘I think I have tried to make more attempt to use more target language. And I think it’s also an inspiration from working with the non-native teachers, because I found with them and with my students, when you explain to them and will take time, then they can start to use it. But if you don’t explain in the first place they just wouldn’t use it’ (i.2). She highlighted again her slight shift in belief about the importance of explaining aspects in Mandarin when she described a shift in her behaviour: ‘in the past I was just thinking there is so much I need to cover, so I wouldn’t spend a lot of time to explain all those instructions. […] But now I feel it’s actually really valuable or important’ (i.2). Additionally to giving instructions in Mandarin or offering explanations in the target language Xian-Li decided to use more authentic material to increase the input and to incorporate a more student centred approach in her teaching. She mentioned that she now emphasised group and team work, but also shifted her teaching style to a more inductive one illustrating that in an example for essay writing: ‘[…] instead of teach them how to write essays now they just brainstorm ideas and they actually have to come up in their groups with the points they want to cover in their essays and how would they structure it. So I think in the sense I sort of throw more responsibility or make them take more roles in their own learning and actually they enjoy it more rather than me explaining all the things. So I feel somehow the shift is still carrying on’ (i.2).

Change in student learning

The change in Xian-Li’s teaching practice also had an effect on her learners. To her mild surprise, the students reacted positively to her shift in teaching as ‘they are actually quite interested to have more input.’ (i.2), although the students initially indicated that they did not understand the teacher. Xian-Li explained her strategy to ‘repeat again and I will speak slowly and I will explain and repeat again’ until ‘they will start to pick up some repetition and will gradually get it and use it’ (i.2). Although her new approach of teaching was more time consuming it was reinforced by results the teacher could see quite early on: ‘… and the other time I noticed two students were actually using those Chinese instructions to converse, and they asked each other questions, and I was very impressed’ (i.2). She mentioned several times that her students enjoyed her ‘new’ style indicating that students’ motivation was higher than before.

Shift of belief

Xian-Li’s insight during the professional development, her attempt to change her teaching practice combined with the students’ reaction encouraged her to align her belief about the importance of target language input with her conflicting belief about explaining things in English. She was aware that ‘it’s a kind of habit, because it’s easier. Students will get it if you explain in English. But it’s a shift in my mentality and then I start to be more aware of how much Chinese I speak to them in classes' (i.2). The programme heightened her awareness of how to give instructions in Mandarin and gave her strategies on how to increase target language input.

Effect after six months

In the third interview with Xian-Li she reflected on her practice again and illustrated some additional changes. She explained that in the past she 'started with vocabulary and sentence patterns or grammatical structures and then more essay writing or more longer reading passage' (i.3). As this approach had never led to students using the language appropriately she decided to shift from an isolated use of the target language to an authentic and more purposeful context for learning: 'I was thinking if they learn all the basic vocabulary on the structures, but they can't achieve any communicative purpose, what is the point for them to do so and they might remember those words beautifully but they can't use those words to express in a communicative context' (i.3). Her shift of belief centred on setting a context for her learners and to use language in a situational context. In order to achieve that, Xian-Li was by then convinced of the benefits of target language use. However, as she said in her previous interview, she realised before that 'it's important to communicate' (i.3), but in her practice '[she] want[ed] to control'. When she saw that her students explored different ways of using the language and different ways of achieving their goals she decided to align her belief with her practice even more.

Overall, Xian-Li aligned her beliefs about the need for language input with her practice.

Case study 2: David

Background and context

David was 45 at the time of the study, a native English speaker from New Zealand and a proficient speaker and user of Japanese. His command of Chinese was relatively high, equivalent to B2 of the CEFR, as David had lived in China for a year. However, in his opinion his Chinese was only good because of his Japanese knowledge and his conversational skills were very limited in Chinese according to his judgment. David had been teaching at his current school for nearly ten years, had taught at another secondary school previously and had lived in Japan for about eleven years.

He taught at a secondary school for boys between 13 and 18 years, and was one of two language teachers at his school. Apart from Chinese, the school offered Spanish and Japanese. The latter was also taught by David at all year levels and he had a high level of proficiency and experience in teaching Japanese. However, he had never formally been trained to teach another language. Having been approached by his principal to teach Chinese, David agreed to take on the challenge. The school wanted David to teach students from their first year of secondary school and to gradually phase out Japanese. David had been teaching Chinese for less than a year to first year secondary school boys at the time of the study.

David's motivation for participating in the professional development programme was to raise his linguistic skills to ultimately teach students at all year levels. He also felt 'there is no other support' (i.1) so he was determined to make use of the opportunities available.

Beliefs and classroom practice

Whereas Xian-Li had some quite strong beliefs about language teaching which collided with her teaching practice David's beliefs and practice seemed to be in utter accordance.

Teaching style

In his first interview before the international PD programme David stated very clearly that he believed boys were very focused on form and function in a language. He believed that boys wanted to understand how language 'fits together' and therefore they enjoyed analysing grammar as they could 'reassemble language' (i.1). He realised that 'this approach is a little more old-fashioned' but he firmly believed it was 'a very male way of approaching things' (i.1). According to David, the 'grammar-translation approach is intuitive to most people' (i.1), and he justified his style further with the belief that 'boys aren't naturally conversationalists' and 'don't like conversations' (i.1). As a result, David separated structure and content of the language.

Target language input and use by learners

Backed by his belief that 'boys like to understand' he used 'quite a bit of English' (i.1) and his lessons reflected a dichotomy of English and Mandarin. He explained that with a lack of professional training in teaching a language which led him to adopt an 'explain in English and do in the target language'-approach which seemed logical to him. Consequently, his students only used Mandarin for newly introduced language or for specific activities. Apart from that, the classroom language was English.

Impact: 'Boys want to understand and assemble language'

David's beliefs circled around how boys conceptualised language which to him was a need to understand and to 'assemble' language rather than use it in conversations. This concept of beliefs is evaluated based on Guskey's framework of the effect of professional learning development.

Professional development

During the professional development programme in China David was impressed that the whole programme was done in Chinese and that participants were expected to have conversations in and outside the classroom in Mandarin. After his return he mentioned in the second interview that he found this 'really useful' and that the communicative approach employed by the PD programme helped him achieve his goal of increasing his language competence to run a class in Chinese.

Change in classroom practice

As a result of his positive experience David decided to try a new teaching style with his students. He created table mats with different themes, for example classroom phrases, responses to questions, and greetings which the students had available throughout the lesson and which could be used any time. He also introduced a 'red light' for his classroom giving a visual cue that with the light on it was 'only Chinese'. Overall, he tried 'to use as much Chinese as possible with the lesson' (i.2), something he had not done in his previous language lessons. David now used 'general everyday communication for the sake of communication' and acknowledged that 'it is really useful' (i.2). 'Communication for the sake of communication' meant for David using language in a real life purpose and in context. This was an entirely new idea in his teaching and he illustrated it with an example where students were given some sweets wrapped in colourful paper as a prize. Instead of handing them the sweets and congratulating them in English he used the prize to introduce the colours and only after the students had told him in Mandarin which colour of sweet they preferred they received their prize. As David stated 'this is very different for me. So if I can maintain this without falling back into my old tricks then, yeah, long term certainly it will be quite a revolution really' (i.2).

Change in student learning

To his mild surprise his students 'love' the tablemats and 'often use different phrases or different table mats'. Despite his belief that boys did not really like communicating he found that his new approach of using the target language 'for communication sake' had a positive effect on his learners: 'I have to say their enthusiasm is quite high and they really enjoy communicating […] more than the phrase or the structure for the day' (i.2). David was surprised about this effect as it seemed to contradict his belief about how boys learnt and what boys needed. At the same time he was pleased with his learners' ability to communicate with him in Mandarin in the classroom.

Shift of belief

Because of the positive impact his new approach had on his male learners David was willing to adjust his belief of separating the language of instruction and the language content. He acknowledged that he 'changed to a communicative approach', but the deeply rooted notion that boys needed to understand was still quite strong and therefore only led to a slight adjustment of his set of beliefs.

Effect after six months

In the third interview after six months of the professional development David continued to implement his 'new approach' of contextualising language and he still tried to include as much Mandarin in his lessons as possible. Similar to Xian-Li he came to the conclusion that with isolating language and restricting it to vocabulary and grammar his students were not able to use the target language in a conversation: 'teaching them more old fashioned grammatical and vocabulary list approach the students are only producing what I taught them to produce, and I guess, yeah, I am talking to them more in the target language I suppose, and they talk back to me in the target language, whereas before I was teaching them phrases and words and they were repeating the phrases and words only back to me' (i.3). He was still surprised that contextualising language led students to create 'their own legitimate language and [they] come out with little phrases by themselves'. David noticed also another side effect of his new approach: His students were more engaged and motivated: 'The boys are very, what's the word? Very intrinsically motivated, actually communicating in the language rather than just studying it' (i.3) which led to a higher retention rate in his classes. He explained that usually he lost a number of boys to studying other subjects after a term, whereas now the loss of students in the Mandarin class was minimal. He attributed that to his communicative approach: 'I would say it's more to do with the teaching approach' (i.3). Due to all those positive effects David was willing to adjust even his belief about boys' learning stating: 'I am thinking now we perhaps need a little bit less explanation to be honest. They don't actually need as much explanation of activities in class as I had previously thought' (i.3).

Following the professional development programme David changed his practice and then adjusted his beliefs accordingly.

Conclusion and implications

In both case studies the teachers changed their teaching practices as a result of the international professional development programme. Both used more target language, especially for authentic classroom communication rather than only for language instruction. Communication for a purpose paired with target language use resulted for both in very positive effects making the learners more engaged and motivated. Consequently, Xian-Li and David adjusted their beliefs about teaching. Interestingly, neither of them mentioned the language classes nor the explicit methodology training of the international professional development programme as influential for their change in practice, but instead the first-hand experience of successfully using only the target language for communication and, for the native speaker, the experience of seeing language learning through non-native speakers' and learners' eyes. The insight that contextualised target language use is achievable, and even enjoyable, is not a ground-breaking one and seems to be almost standard in modern language teaching methodology, but for those teachers without language teacher training it was an entirely new idea and close to 'a revolution'. A limitation of the study is the fact that all data is based on the teachers' perception rather than classroom observation. Future research could combine those areas to see if they align.

If the relatively short international professional development programme can change teachers' beliefs and teaching practice it would be worthwhile thinking of ways to multiply this impact allowing more New Zealand teachers to benefit from it.

Although the participants do not state it explicitly it seems the change in teaching practice is not necessarily a result of being in a different country, but that of having a first-hand experience working together with native and non-native teachers. Further research could investigate if similar effects can be achieved by replicating that approach locally. Another possible reason for the change in teaching practice could be attributed to the fact that the participating teachers had to reflect and monitor their teaching practice and beliefs over a relatively long period of time obliging them to become aware of them and to focus on any changes.

Further research is needed to determine the influencing factors for changes in teaching practice and beliefs more clearly. However, for participants in this study the international professional development programme was effective with a strong impact on teaching practice and language teaching beliefs.

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A Study of Anxiety Levels amongst Chinese Students for a Master Degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages at a UK University

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Abstract

Foreign language anxiety, as one of the most important affective variables, has been attracting more and more attention in second language acquisition studies since the early 1970s. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the general situation of Chinese students in the MA TESOL group at the University of York. In addition, the potential factors that might contribute to foreign language anxiety are explored in the present study. To collect the quantitative and qualitative data, multiple research instruments were used: a questionnaire and semi-structure interview. An adapted version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was distributed randomly to forty Chinese students in the MA TESOL group. Semi-structure interviews with six Chinese students from the MA TESOL group were conducted to obtain further information. Due to the similarities between the present study and Aida's (1994), Aida's revised factor analysis was employed to investigate the potential anxiety-provoking factors. The results indicate: 1) a low level of foreign language anxiety exists among the Chinese students canvassed, especially in writing and speaking; 2) among four anxiety-provoking factors, Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation and Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speakers were the main ones. In addition, writing anxiety was also cited as one of the main anxiety-provoking factors. Based on these findings, the study finishes with a consideration of related teaching implications both for the UK and China.

Keywords: Foreign Language Anxiety, anxiety level

1 Introduction

Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) is one of the important variables consistently influencing language learning and, consequently, the last three decades have seen a considerable amount of research devoted to examiningthe nature of Foreign Language Anxiety and anxiety-provoking factors.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the general situation of foreign language anxiety amongst Chinese students in the MA TESOL group and the potential anxiety-provoking factors they are exposed to, using a widely used measurement instrument: the Foreign Language Learning Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al., 1986). The findings of this study should further clarify the details of language anxiety as it is experienced by Chinese students in MATESOL and also permit the identification of potential anxiety-provoking anxieties. The findings could be used to reduce the effects of anxiety and therefore may be beneficial to practitioners and learners alike, in the ongoing quest to create low-anxiety language classrooms.

The research questions of the present study are listed as follows: What is the general situation of foreign language anxiety in their language classroom? What are the potential factors affecting their foreign language anxiety?

2. Foreign language anxiety

2.1 Definition of Foreign Language Anxiety

Anxiety towards foreign language learning was first researched in the 1980s when attempts were made to clarify the concept of foreign language anxiety and identify the potential anxiety-provoking factors (Horwitz, Horwitz. and Horwitz., 1986). Horwitz et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as "anxiety consists of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.128). Similarly, MacIntyre (1998) later defined language anxiety as "the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language".

2.2 Horwitz's construct of foreign language anxiety

The theoretical model of foreign language anxiety proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986) bridges the gap between psychology and linguistics (MacIntyre, 1998). Like Gardner (1985), the proponents of the model conceptualise L2-related anxiety as a distinct type of anxiety expressed in response to the unique experience of learning and using a language other than one's mother tongue (L1), distinguishing it from (1) a general trait of anxiety, which may show up in a wide variety of circumstances, as well as (2) other, more general forms of anxiety. (Tóth, 2008, p.57) Furthermore, Horwitz et al.

(1986) indicate that foreign language anxiety is relatedto performance evaluation in an academic and social context. Parallels can bedrawn between FLA and three related performance anxieties: 1) communication apprehension; 2) test anxiety; and 3) fear of negative evaluation (Horwtiz, et al., 1986, p. 127).

These three categories of anxiety provide the essential conceptual foundations for the description of foreign language anxiety. They do not view foreign language anxiety as simply a combination of existing fears which are transferred to the foreign language learning setting. Rather, they define foreign language anxiety as "a *distinct complex* of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process"(Horwitz, et al., 1986, p.128).

2.3 Sources of language anxiety

There are a number of things that may lead to foreign language anxieties arising and with an increasing amount of students feeling anxious in foreign language settings, as well as greater awareness of the relationship between FLA and foreign language learning, it is vitally important to understand the sources of this anxiety and find effective ways to reduce students' anxiety and provide a low-anxiety atmosphere. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), anxiety is one of the best predictors of success in second language learning and one of the important variables that consistently and negatively impacts upon performance, regardless of the foreign language being learnt. Therefore, many studies (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremablay, and Masgoret, 1997; Horwitz, 2001) have investigated the relationship.

The primary sources of language anxiety, as discussed by Horwitz et al. (1986), are communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Aida concluded from her case studies, which adopted Horwitz et al.'s factor analysis, that speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, fear of failing the class, comfortableness in speaking with native speakers and negative attitudes toward the foreign language class are the four factors which lead to language anxiety. Similarly, Price (1991) concluded (as cited in Zheng, 2008) from his case studies that the difficulty level of foreign language classes, personal perceptions of language aptitude, certain personality variables (e.g., perfectionism and fear of public speaking) and stressful classroom experiences are all possible causes of anxiety. Young (1991) on the other hand,identifies six potential sources of language anxiety: personal and interpersonal anxieties; learner beliefs about language learning; instructor beliefs about language teaching; instructor-learner interactions; classroom procedures;and language testing.

Meanwhile Oxford (1999) manages to list ten sources: self-esteem, competitiveness, test-anxiety, social anxiety, beliefs, tolerance of ambiguity, risk-taking, identity and culture shock, classroom activities and methods, and instructor-learner interactions. In terms of initiating factors, Ellis (1994) proposed that the first possible source of language anxiety might come from learners' competitive natures.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) proposed that test anxiety is general anxiety rather than a component of foreign language anxiety. The factors found in Aida's research explain the construct of foreign language and support the view of language put forward by MacIntyre and Gardner. At the same time, Aida's (1994) research results also reveal that other factors such as fear of failing the class, comfortableness in speaking with native speakers of the language, and negative attitudes towards the language class contribute to FLA in foreign language learning settings.

3. Methodology

The participants in this study were forty Chinese students on MA in TESOL courses at the Department of Educational Studies, at the University of York, and were selected randomly. The MA programme they were taking is designed for students who plan to teach English as a second or foreign language in the UK or internationally, or who plan to do research on the teaching, learning or assessment of English as a second or foreign language (MA in TESOL, n.d.).

This research investigates participants' views on the causes of their language anxiety, their levels of language anxiety and the characteristics of their language anxiety. It is hoped that the qualitative approach will lead to a deeper understand of language anxiety.

Therefore, this study employs both quantitative and qualitative strategies to investigate language anxiety - questionnaires in the quantitative part and semi-structure interviews in the qualitative part.

The questionnaire used in this study is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). The FCLASrelies on students' self-reports but its validity and reliability has been proved by many researchers (Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994; Phillips, 1992). It stemming from both clinical data and existing theoretical and empirical work on situation-specific anxiety.It consists of thirty-three items, each one on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" (scale point 5) to "strongly disagree" (scale point 1), the middle point being neutral (scale point 3).The anxiety score of each subject is calculated by summing up the total score on 33 items.

Questionnaires were distributed to the participants randomly. Forty participants were asked to complete the questionnaire on the tenth (and final) week of the third term of the MA course. The questionnaire was the adapted Chinese-English version of the FLCAS. Participants were required to finish the questionnaire after their class. Instructions were given on the questionnaire itself. The participants were simply asked to choose the statement which reflects their own feelings or opinion towards each item and were reminded that their responses would remain confidential. Then, six volunteers were interviewed by the author. The interviews were recorded and the transcriptions analyzed.

4. Results and discussion

4. 1 Results and discussion related to the first research question

Table 1: Comparison of FLCAS Data

	Present Study	Horwitz et al. (1986)	Aida (1994)
Sample size	40	108	96
Student Status	Postgraduate	First year	First year
Language	English	Spanish	Japanese
Maximum	117	147	146
Minimum	47	45	47
Mean	85.54	94.5	96.7

The table above demonstrates the lower level of foreign language anxiety found by the present study, lower than that found by either Horwitz et al. (1986) or Aida (1994). However, given that 30% of the participants' foreign language anxiety scoreswere higher than 99, a certain level of foreign language anxiety does exist among the present sample.

In this study, the mean score of the sample on the FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale) was quite low at 85.54. In contrast, the mean score inHorwitiz et al.'s (1984) and Aida's (1994) study were 94.5 and 96.7 respectively. In other words, the mean scores of the Chinese students on the MATESOL programmewere quite low compared to the first year students learning Spanish in Horwitiz et al.'s study and the first year students learning Japanese in Aida's study. The scores of the Chinese MATESOL students on the FLCAS ranged from 47 to 117. The scores ofHorwitz et al.'s students ranged from 45 to 147 and Aida's students' scores ranged from 47 to 146. As the findings illustrate, all three studies have similar minimum scores. However, the maximum score varies. The maximum score of the present research is 117, which is much lower than that of the other two studies.

In conclusion, a low level of foreign language anxiety exists amongst the group of students who participated in the current study.

According to the comparison of three researches, there is considerably less foreign language anxiety amongst the present sample. There might be several reasons for this situation. Firstly, the participants in the current study are doing a master's degree related to teaching English. In order to be a professional teacher, they have to have a reasonable command of English, which they will have got from studying their first degree. According to the data from the interviews, 5 out of 6 participants have an overall IELTS score of 7 and one 6.5. Secondly, most of them have been learning English for 10 years or more and all the participants studied English as their major in their Bachelor's degree. They are notbeginners, like Horwitz et al. and Aida's students,and most of them are at an advanced level of English learning. In the interviews it was revealed that they have allpassed the TEM-8 (Test for English Major Band 8, which is the most advanced level for English Majors in China). Thirdly, after a whole year on the MA programme, most of them have adapted to study in the UK. For example, during the interviews one subject claimed that:

> 'I was worried about whether I could follow the class or not in the first term. However, I did not worry about it in the second term. In first term, I was anxious about discussing questions with the others, because I was afraid that they would laugh at me. But, I didn't worry about it this in the second term. I suppose because I got used to the situation here. This is due to the English setting being everywhere.'

These are some of the reasons contributing to the lower level of foreign language anxiety in the MATESOL group. According to the data in the table 1, the main factors contributing to language anxiety are Factor III (Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speaker) and Factor I (Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation). In other words,their anxiety isstrongest in situations related to the speaking. Conversely, according to the data from the interviews, all six students indicated that they were most anxious about the writing part. This discrepancy with the data from the questionnaires is probably due to the limitations of the questionnaire itself. There was nothing in the questionnaire specificallyabout writing. All in all, the data reveals that Chinese students in the MA TESOL group have a low level of foreign language anxiety, which surfaces most frequently in relation to speaking and writing.

4.2. Results and discussion related to the second question

Horwitz et al developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale to examine foreign language anxiety andanalysed three factors to draw parallels between language anxiety and relevant performance anxieties: 1) communication apprehension; 2) test anxiety; and 3) fear of negative evaluation. Aida then employed Horwitz et al.'s research framework to investigate anxiety in learners of Japanese and refined the factor divisions on the basis of her data. Given the fact that there are more similarities between Aida's research and the present study, her regrouped factors analysis will now be employed to reanalyse the data. The data from the current study have been regrouped into four factors: speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, fear of failing the class, comfortableness in speaking with native speakers and negative attitudes toward the foreign language. The details are listed in Table 2.

Table 2 Aida's refined factor division, mean scores and rank in the present study and Aida

Factors	Items	Present Study		Aida (1994)	
		Mean	Order	Mean	Order
Factor I: Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation	3,13,27,20,24,31,7,12, 23,18,33,16,1,21,29,4, 8,9	2.69	2	2.9	3
Factor II: Fear of Failing the Class	10,25,26,22	2.27	4	3.03	2
Factor III: Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speaker	32,11,14	2.78	1	2.82	4
Factor IV: Negative Attitudes towards the Foreign Language	5,17	2.61	3	3.2	1

Note: Items not included in the factor solution: 2, 6, 19, 28, 30.

Table 2 ranks the factors that might cause learners' anxiety in foreign language classes.Factor III (Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speaker) and Factor I (Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation) are ranked first and second in this study. In contrast, Factor III (Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speaker) and Factor I (Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation) are ranked fourth and third in Aida's study. This possibly suggests that factor III, Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speaker, would be the main factor leading to foreign language anxiety in this study. It is followed by the Factor I, Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Attitudes, which also contributes a large part to foreign language anxiety. However, in Aida's study, these two factors are ranked as the last two factors which might influence the foreign language anxiety. More details about the results of the present study will discussed below.

Aida assigned the label "Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation" to Factor I on the basis of Horwitz et al.'s foreign language anxiety division. Speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation might not be totally independent concepts, but they are probably different ways of describing the same phenomenon in a large learning situation (Aida, 1994, p. 159). This distinction is also supported by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) whose findings were similar to Aida's.

The mean of this factor (Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation) in the present study is ranked the second with a score of 2.69. At the same time, the mean of this factor in Aida's research is ranked third among the four factors. This indicates that Factor I could be the main factor which influences foreign language anxiety.

Factor III ("Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speakers") includes three items (32, 11, and 14) and all three are negatively loaded. As Aida points out, this finding is supported by other researchers such as Young (1992), MacIntyre and Gardner (1991). The mean of this factor in the current study is 2.78 meaning that it was ranked first while in Aida's study it was ranked fourth among the four factors. This suggests that Factor III ("Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speakers")is the main cause of foreign language anxiety in the present sample. Furthermore, it reveals that the subjects in this study are most anxious about speaking with native speakers. However, the mean score is significantly lower, which indicates their low level of foreign language anxiety compared to Aida's sample. In their responses to Item 11, 35% of the subjects in the present study claimedto understand why some people get so upset over their English classes. More than one third of the participants in the current study could empathise with this situation,in other words, they have similar feelings about their English classes.

From the above analysis it can be concluded that Factor III (Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speakers) and Factor I (Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation) are the main causes of foreign language learning anxiety for the Chinese students of this sample.

According to the data collected from the questionnaire, the subjects feel uncomfortable when they are talking with the native speakers. One student's response supports this:

> 'I am a bit nervous when I speaking with native speakers. I worried about whether they will laugh at my intonation or my pronunciation or not'. Another student claimed the same response.

Factor I, Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation, is ranked second among the four anxiety-provoking factors with a mean score of 2.69, which suggests that it is the main factor contributing to anxiety. In their response to Item 13 (It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.) 47.5% of subjects admitted that being asked to answer a question in their English class would make them feel embarrassed. For Item 9 (I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.) 37.5% of participants reported that they started to panic when they had to speak without preparation in English class. In the answers to Item 20 (I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.) 42.5% of subjects indicated that they can feel their heart pounding when they are going to be called upon in English class. This shows that participants are anxious about speech and fear of negative evaluation.

From the interviews, three students pointed out that they had experienced similar feelings. One student said that she was nervous and anxious when she was asked to answer a question without preparation; similarly, the. As was discussed above, one student above was anxious about whether the others would laugh at her poor speaking skills. Another student reported that she always felts the others would judge her intonation or her pronunciation, which made her a bit anxious.

The results of the questionnaires and interviews therefore show that foreign language anxiety is mainly provoked byissues related to speaking. However, all six participants in the interviews claimed to be most worried about writing, althoughthere is not any statement relating to writing in the FLCAS. One student claimed that she had been anxious about her writing the whole year: “I am worried about whether I have chosen the right method to do my research or not … anxious about whether the research is realistic enough for me to carry on or not. In addition, I have to consider the procedure, the structure of the whole assignment and plagiarism. And, the plagiarism thing always drives me crazy”. Another student reported:

> ‘I am anxious about writing. Besides the test for Linguistics, the other three evaluations on our study are based on assignments. It always confused me the term “critical thinking”. It is quite hard for me to think critically. Sometime, even if I have the ideas or points in my mind, I still have problems expressing them clearly and critically. Due to the wrong time plan, I always did my assignments in a hurry. It increased my anxiety about writing’.

As suggested above, writing seems to be a major cause of anxiety for students in the current study along with Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speakers and Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation. Several reasons could account for both the first finding and second finding.

The shortcoming of the assessment system in China probably causes the extraordinary anxiety about speaking.In China, the assessments are always tests or quizes such kind of paper work. Speaking is seldom assessed.Language teaching in China is very text-book and grammar-translationcentred leading to an imbalance in the teaching of speaking and listening. In addition, students can pass their English exams without being tested for speaking. This situation starts in junior and high schools, and continues into universities. The tests are mainly related to listening, reading and writing. Students are trained to be good at taking tests rather than developing their spoken and written competence. Take the CET-4 (College English Test, Band 4, whichevery college student is required to pass in order to obtain the bachelor degree) for example: the exam consists of tests for listening, reading and writing parts but ignores speaking. Another reason is possibly related to the design of curriculum. Only a limited number of college students in China have speaking classes. Furthermore, speaking classes which are tutored by native speakers are uncommon. All this mightlead to ignorance of spoken English and probably results in poor spoken English, which might exaggerate the level of foreign language anxiety.

Due to the increasing peer competition, students feel anxious about their English skills. Hence, they refuse to speak English in public or practice it with classmates once they sense they are having problems. They feel upset and are worried that others students will judge them and even laugh at them. They are quite sensitive to the negative evaluation from teachers and classmates. The fear of the negative evaluation will add to their problems.

Writing anxiety is also probably connected with the Chinese system of assessment. Writing is only a small part of the whole examination, which focuses on listening and reading. And theamount of writing required is quite minimal - even in the TEM-8 (the highest level of English major students in China) it is only 300 words. In addition, there are fewongoing assessments of writing skills and most students in Chinaonly need to finish one dissertation of five thousands words. In contrast, writing is the main form of assessment in UK, especially for the MA TESOL group. They need to do three assignments and one dissertation to complete the course.

As discussed above, speaking with native speakers, fear of negative evaluation and writing anxiety are the main factors contributing to anxiety in L2 language learning. Therefore measures should be taken to reduce anxiety levels and create a low-anxiety classroom.

5. Conclusion and teaching application

The analysis above compared the questionnaire data from the present study with Aida's (1994) findings and also used information from interviews. From the analysis of the data, we can conclude that:

Generally, Chinese students in the MATESOL group experienced a low level of foreign language anxiety, provoked mainly by speaking and writing.Aida's regrouped four factors of FLCAS were applied to carry out the factor analysis due to the great similarities between the two sets of data. Factor I---- Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation --- and Factor III ---- Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speaker --- are the main factors contributing to anxiety. According to the data from the interviews, writing anxiety is also a significant anxiety-provoking factor.

Aida (1994) noted that educators should identify the anxious students at first. Following this, the education should cope with the appropriate interventions to overcome foreign language anxiety.Philips (1992) indicates that the importance of creating a low anxiety surrounding to promote more attendance. Creating a harmony atmosphere is an effective way to reduce the anxiety stemming from peer competition. It is suggested that teachers should give some encouraging words or even compliments towards students' behaviors. Another frequently used method is make the language class surroundings more friendly and less stressful, where students do not worry about making mistakes.

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Vietnamese Learners' EFL Acquisition: From Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills to Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

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Abstract
This study aims to investigate how English as a foreign language is acquired to help Vietnamese teachers and learners of English understand how competence in English develops from the use of language for authentic communicative purposes to the ability to demonstrate academic language in all language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Vietnamese learners step up the levels of English by first learning how to perform the language for conversation, and then using English for their academic work. The focus of the study is given to a survey of an experimental group and a control group of high intermediate level students of English at a university in Vietnam. The experimental group received the treatment, which is the familiarization of students to more standardized tasks. The settings for language acquisition range from context-embedded situations to context-reduced ones, and the tasks of language performance move from cognitively undemanding activities to cognitively demanding ones along with the timelines for learning social and academic language. The tasks were collected and analyzed to see whether proficient students, though would require contextual support, would need more cognitively demanding tasks. The results of the study may show that the students in the experimental group perform significantly differently from the ones in the control group, and work out conditions in which EFL Vietnamese learners can acquire basic communication skills and academic language proficiency in terms of receptive and productive skills. Suggestions for the more effective methodology towards EFL Vietnamese learners' high performance are provided.

Keywords:interpersonal communication skills, cognitive academic language proficiency, context-embedded, context-reduced, cognitively undemanding, cognitively demanding, experiential, textual, meta-functions

Introduction

English as a foreign language has become popular in many fields in the world. A good command of English has become the key to being successful in finding good careers. It requires a great deal of effort in learning and an effective teaching method to students to contribute to making progress upon their completion of English language courses. An investigation into the effective use of language for authentic communicative purposes and the ability to demonstrate advanced academic language in all four language domains: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, suggests that language instructors should take into consideration a suitable methodology to benefit EFL learners. In addition, the new approach will help language instructors to judge the success of their teaching and will help English language learners identify areas to improve their language proficiency.

In this article, the author tried to investigate Vietnamese (L1) students' English (L2) performance at a university in Vietnam. There has been significant research on how L1 students have acquired the second language from communicative skills to language proficiency during their course of language learning. However, there is still the need to see how L1 students develop their L2 performance from the use of language for authentic communicative purposes into the ability to demonstrate academic language, and how teachers help students develop linguistic competence from commucative competence. The purpose of this study was to investigate how English as a foreign language was acquired to help Vietnamese teachers and learners of English understand this development through the explanation of the theory of second language acquisition (SLA) by interpreting the linguistic concepts of Halliday (1985), Martin (1992) and Eggins (1994), the bilingual perspective (Cummins, 2000) and the perspective of comparative and contrastive linguistics (Brown & Yule, 1996 & Cao, 2004). The investigation is merited for two reasons: 1) the students' language performance should show a relationship between the post test and the treatment of the experimental group; 2) if such a relationship exists at the university, it may be possible to work out the method that best benefits L1 students in SLA. This study will lead to the suggestion of an all-round method, which is more suitable for EFL Vietnamese learners to go from basic interpersonal communicative skills to cognitive academic language proficiency.

Literature Review

EFL Vietnamese learners step up the levels of English by first learning how to perform the language for conversations, and then using English for their academic work. Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) involves the context-embedded, everyday language that occurs between conversational partners. This takes the average second-language learner at least two years to acquire. Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), or the context-reduced language of academics, takes five to seven years under good conditions to develop to a proficiency level (Cummins, 2000). The literature reviews in this study will discuss the systemic theory, the bilingual perspective, and the perspective of comparative and contrastive linguistics and indicate the features of communicative competence and linguistic competence.

Systemic functional theory

Eggins (1994), following the studies by Halliday (1985) and Martin (1992), worked out a theoretical linguistic model that can help to clarify the conceptualization of systemic functional linguistic theory, in which she proposed three meta-functions in the analysis of discourse semantics. The three meta-functions are comprised of three characteristics: (1) the first one is "interpersonal", such as expressing a person's attitude toward negotiation; (2) the second one is "experiential", such as the process of nominalization (turning verbs into nouns) from the spoken language to the written version; and (3) the third one is "textual", such as how a person's utterances link together and are related to what he or she has just said and to the context around him or her. Eggins explained the concepts by giving a typical example. In this, the sentence expressing the speaker's intention to drink some bottles of wines can be said as follows:

"I suggest we attack the reds"

in which

1) The meaning is interpersonal when it expresses our attitude and takes up the role which means a friendly suggestion, open to negotiation;
2) The meaning is experiential when it focuses on the actions that we, as human agents, should carry out (attack), and the entities (the reds) our actions will have an effect on;
3) The meaning is textual when it is about how what we are saying links together and is related to what we have just said and to the context around us.

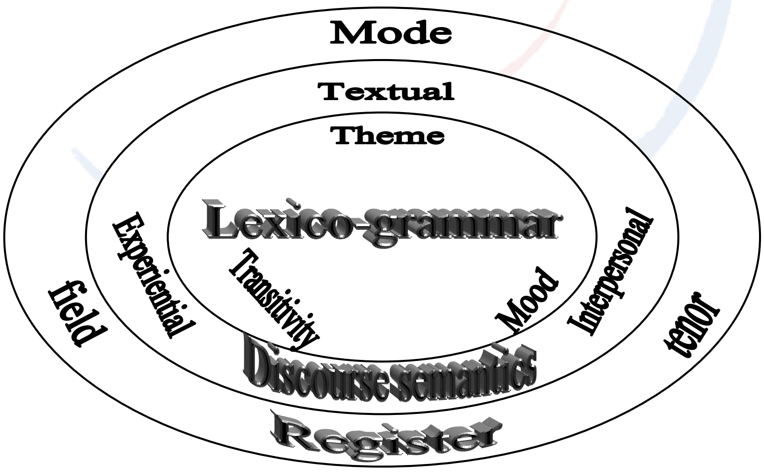

Figure 1 The Systemic Functional Theory (Eggins, 1994)

Interpersonal versus Experiential meta-functions

In Figure 1, in terms of discourse semantics, experiential meanings focus on the action that human agents should carry out while interpersonal meanings focus on the role relationships with other people and their attitudes to each other. Among the three meta-functions above, the experiential meanings usually go through the process of nominalization as we move from the spoken language (human actors and action process) to the written version. Therefore, experiential meanings (nominalization) appear objective in academic contexts. Accordingly, BISC in involved with interpersonal meanings while CALP is related to the experiential meanings.

Textual meta-function (cohesion)

The textual meanings are clarified with the use of discourse markers, which are the signals or cues that point to the important ideas and features of a text, and play a very important role in making the text coherent. They link ideas together. According to Martin (1992:168), the semantic system conjunctions can be realized through paratactic and hypotactic relationships within the clause complex and through cohesive conjunctions. Texts, which are produced in this mode and are often in the written form, realize conjunctions as semantic relations between processes involving nominalization. Therefore, cohesive devices are said to be used in academic contexts when CALP is taken into account.

The bilingual perspective

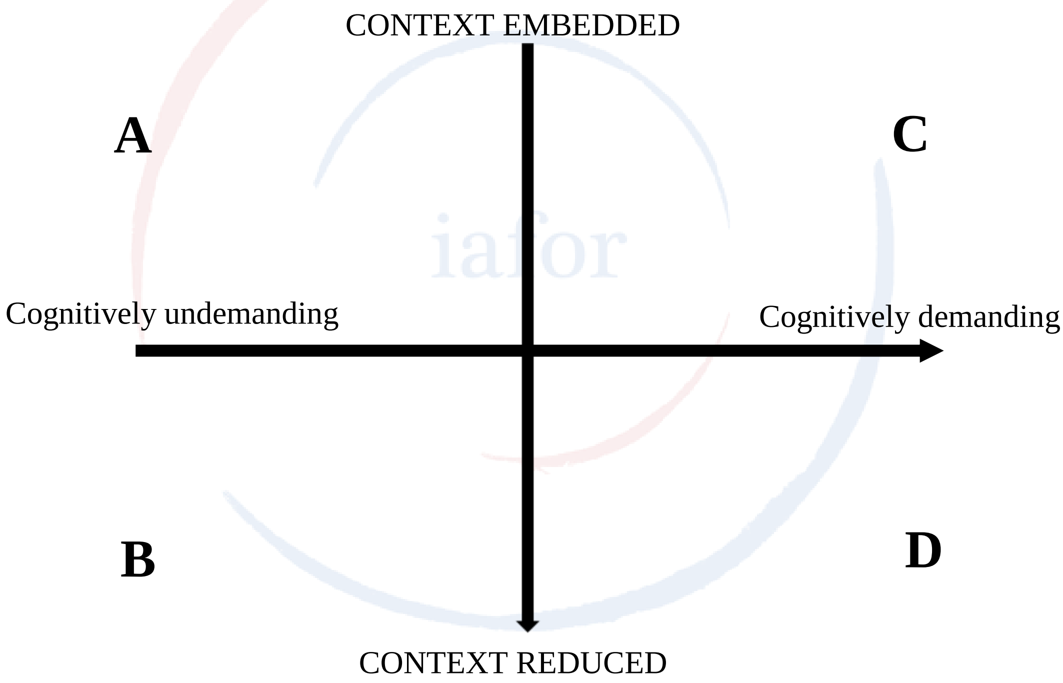

Figure 2 Model for assessing task difficulty (Cummins, 2000)

As Cummins (2000) states: “Conceptual knowledge developed in one language helps to make input in the other language comprehensible”, a learner who is good at his or her own language could possibly know how to learn to use another language more easily. In Cummins’ concept, this is called the “Common Underlying Proficiency”, which works as the background to perform L1 and L2. According to Cummins’ model in Figure 2, tasks range from cognitively undemanding to cognitively demanding; and from context-embedded to context-reduced. In a context-embedded task, whether it is cognitively undemanding (A) or cognitively demanding (C) relies on the sources of information that the learner can access. For example, the learner can explain the illustrations of what is being talked about or raise relevant questions. In a context-reduced task, whether it is cognitively undemanding (B) or cognitively demanding

(D), the learner is required to listen to a long conversation or a lecture or read academic texts, and the sources of information that the learner can access are limited. In a cognitively demanding and context- reduced task (D), EFL learners may find it most difficult at the initial stage of learning English. However, EFL learners should develop the ability to accomplish such tasks, which is essential for academic success.

The perspective of comparative and contrastive linguistics

A learner is said to acquire a foreign language when he or she not only has correct pronunciation of, correct use of words, correct use of grammatical structure, correct and appropriate use of functions and notions in specific communicative situations. Besides, he or she knows how to express himself or herself both receptive and productive skills, that is, effectively in listening, reading, speaking and writing in communicative tasks. Moreover, that person also shows the ability to use the target language to survive in the target language community such as to use the language to find a job and to maintain employment. In addition, that person can compare and contrast two languages and two cultures in terms of linguistic characteristics that English and Vietnamese have and do not have in common.

English	**Vietnamese**
▸ English is subject-prominent and topic-prominent (Brown & Yule, 1996) ***(Topic)*** ***(Comment)*** Eg. This book / I have read	▸ Vietnamese is topic-prominent (Cao, 2004) (***Topic)*** ***(Comment)*** Eg. Cuốn sách này/tôi đã đọc (This book I have read)

Table 1 The comparison between English and Vietnamese

Table 1 tells us that English is subject-prominent (Cao, 2004). Furthermore, English is also subject-prominent and topic-prominent (Brown & Yule, 1996) while Vietnamese tends to be topic-prominent (Cao, 2004).

Communicative competence and linguistic competence

There are some aspects that can be considered criteria for a learner to focus on and acquire as the background to assess his or her language acquisition as can be seen in the following table.

1	pronunciation	vocabulary		grammar
2	listening	speaking	reading	writing
3	function	notion	theme/topic	communicative situation
4	grammatical competence	socio-linguistic competence	discoursal competence	strategic competence
5	task fulfillment & communicative activities		using language to survive in target community	
6	ability to compare & contrast L2 & L1 ability to compare & contrast L2 culture & L1culture			

Table 2 Aspects of second language acquisition

Communicative competence

A learner is said to possess the communicative competence when he or she not only has correct pronunciation, correct use of words, correct use of certain grammatical structures, but also has the correct and appropriate use of functions and notions in common topics and specific communicative situations. In other words, he or she should have the ability to understand and select appropriate language choices according to different socio-cultural contexts (e.g., greeting friends and greeting elderly persons), to select between a variety of possible options of linguistic forms and content to match the appropriate social cultural context and norms (e.g., making a request: *If you don't mind, I would like to open the window now*.), to select an appropriate interpretation of the language according to the existing context or unfolding reality (e.g., making an indirect command in a hot room which needs air-conditioning: *It feels hot in here*.). In this way, his or her ability to take into consideration any of the following communicative functions when he or she is engaged in:

a) The status of the speakers
b) The purpose of the interaction
c) Norms or conventions

Linguistic competence

A learner is said to acquire linguistic competence of a foreign language, in addition to communicative performance of language skills, he or she should have the knowledge of the language structure and the ability to use this knowledge to manipulate its meaning system in all modes of communication such as to use the language to find a job and to maintain the employment in a foreign country. These linguistic features that need to be possessed are as follows.

a) Phonology (phoneme, pitch, stress)
b) Morphology (root word & affix)
c) Syntax (the sentence patterns of language: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, etc.)
d) Semantics (the meaning of language: vocabulary, meanings of words; multiple meanings: synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, metaphor and similes)

Phonology: stress

English is a multi-syllabic and inflected	Vietnamese is a monosyllabic and uninflected
Eg. STUdents	Eg. Các sinh viên (Students)

Table 3 Phonology in English and Vietnamese: stress

Linguistic competence: pitch

English	Vietnamese
▸ Ghost ▸ Mother ▸ Tomb ▸ Horse	▸ Ma ▸ Má ▸ Mả ▸ Mã

Table 4 Phonology in English and Vietnamese: pitch

Linguistic competence: intonation

English (intonation)	Vietnamese
▸ You are working. ▸ You are working?(rising intonation)	▸ Anh sắp làm việc. ▸ Anh sắp làm việc **chứ (hả)**? Vietnamese people use the particle: **chứ** / **hả** at the end of question.

Table 5 Phonology in English and Vietnamese: intonation

Linguistic competence: Morphology: root word & affix

English	Vietnamese
‣ Happy ‣ **Un**happy ‣ Unhappi**ness**	‣ Hạnh phúc ‣ **Không** hạnh phúc ‣ **Sự** bất hạnh

Table 6 Morphology in English and Vietnamese: root word & affix

Linguistic competence: Syntax

English	Vietnamese
(adj) (n) A **white** car	(n) (adj) Một chiếc xe hơi **màu trắng**

Table 7 Syntax in English and Vietnamese

From the perspectives of the SLA issues, this study addresses the following research questions:

Research questions

1. How do EFL Vietnamese students develop their language performance from the use of language for authentic communicative purposes into the ability to demonstrate academic language?
2. How do teachers help EFL Vietnamese students develop their linguistic competence from commucative competence?

Method

A two-group design was used in this study. The focus of the study is given to a survey of an experimental group and a control group of high intermediate level students of English at a university in Vietnam. The experimental group received the treatment, which is the familiarization of students to more standardized academic tasks. The quasi-experiment, in which the students had to take the pretest and the posttest, was used.

Participants

The study was conducted from December, 2014 to April 2015. The participants belong to an experimental group (21 students) and a control group (19 students) of English, who had finished studying high intermediate intensive English courses and took the speaking tests which satisfied the requirements of the testing philosophy. All the participants had already learned the communicative skills. The participants took the tests at end of the course during the investigation.

Data collection and procedures

The experimental group received the treatment in a course of fifteen weeks (two hours per week) which is the familiarization of students to more standardized academic tasks. After that, all participants took the oral exams. Each participant performed 6 tasks in the allotted time of 6 minutes. Each participants' responses were scored by two language instructors with a reference to the four-point rating rubrics designed in a similar way to that of ETS (Educational Testing Service, 2005). The tasks were scored, collected and analyzed to see whether proficient students would require contextual support, and would need more cognitively demanding tasks. To prevent raters' bias based on the mode of responses, raters independently scored answer items for each student. As part of an overall strategy to summarize results on all items in terms of meeting the passing-failing requirement of the author's university, the ratings were converted to scaled score: 0-30. To ensure the objectivity of the survey, the two raters' converted scores were then compared. Where discrepancies occurred and the discrepancies were not significant, the raters reevaluated responses and reached consensus on a score.

The major data in this study included the scored speaking responses. All the test results dealt with are within the jurisdiction of the university. Therefore, consent was obtained from the university authorities. To ensure the confidentiality, candidates' names were removed prior to the data entry; the raters' names were not revealed; and the permission of the school authorities was acquired. Therefore, the test scores were affected by such factors as communicative language ability, test method facets, and personal attributes (Bachman, 1997). The scored speaking responses were classified according to the points earned after being marked against the language conventions in the designed rubrics. After the collected data were analyzed, a method was suggested.

In this design, the comparisons between the two groups received the p value that emphasized the probability of facts. All participants taking the speaking tests were measured at fifteen weeks after the intake. The experimental design ensures the internal validity. The p value would show the statistical significance for the tests and the test-takers. In this study, the scores earned by the test-takers were assessed through a two-sample t test.

Reliability

The author analyzed the participants' scored speaking tasks and compared the scores. Reliability was assessed when the raters made judgments on the language produced by the test-takers. The interrater reliability was estimated when the scores were produced by two raters and a correlation coefficient was calculated between them (Brown, 1995).

Results

The results are discussed in terms of the components of the scored speaking tasks to see if the participants' awareness of linguistic features and the test results were related. The speaking task results were divided into levels corresponding to the designed criteria. Potential difficulties were that the test results might get involved with subjective factors due to the unavoidable element of human intervention, so the survey results might create variables. Before taking the tests, the students had to finish the English course of high intermediate level for fifteen weeks in which they were taught language conventions. The speaking tests were integrated and independent speaking items that were aligned within a single theme or content area, reflecting the manner in which students naturally acquired and used the language in the classroom or in the real world. Each item provided the information and elicited the linguistic interaction that was necessary for students to complete the subsequent item.

For the first research question, the experimental group got the raw test scores in the pretest responses ranging from 1 to 3. For posttest responses, the experimental group got the raw test scores ranging from 3 to 4. The statistics of the converted scores are displayed in Table 8 below.

Table 8
Converted test scores in pretest and posttest speaking responses for the experimental group

Test-takers	Converted pretest responses	Converted posttest responses
1	10	13
2	11	15
3	13	17
4	14	18
5	15	17
6	17	19
7	17	17
8	14	18
9	10	15
10	15	17
11	14	18
12	10	13
13	19	24
14	10	14
15	9	13
16	15	17
17	19	22
18	13	18
19	18	23
20	17	17
21	15	19

The control group got the raw test scores in the pretest responses ranging from 1 to 3. For posttest responses, the control group got the raw test scores ranging from 2 to 3. The statistics of the converted scores are displayed in Table 9 below.

Table 9

Converted test scores in pretest and posttest speaking responses for the control group

Test-takers	Converted pretest responses	Converted posttest responses
1	13	13
2	11	13
3	13	15
4	10	15
5	15	17
6	17	15
7	15	17
8	14	17
9	10	15
10	15	17
11	13	15
12	10	13
13	17	22
14	10	17
15	10	15
16	15	17
17	18	17
18	13	13
19	19	19

All the respondents gave responses to the questions on various topics in the tests, and all the questions were answered in the same format. The results of the two-sample *t* test in Table 10 below suggest that probability values have statistical significance with *p* value (0.04851). In other words, the *p* values can calculate the possibilities of the scores being the foundation for future implementation.

Table 10

The statistical significance

Group	Observations	Means	*p* value
Experimental	21	17.33	0.04851
Control	19	15.89	

The second research question is answered based on the survey of the tests performed by the test-takers to show how students' linguistic competence in speaking was acquired in terms of the percentage of respondents acquiring test criteria. For the experimental group 71.4% (N=15) of respondents were found to meet the criteria of the test (acquiring over 50% of the score in order to pass the tests). Similarly, for the control group, 47.4% (N=9) respondents were found to meet the criteria of the test (acquiring over 50% of the score in order to pass the tests). The statistics of the survey are clearly presented in Table 11 below.

Table 11
Percentage of respondents of both groups acquiring test criteria

No. of experimental group students	Percentage of experimental group respondents	Percentage of control group respondents	No. of control group students
15	71.4%	47.4%	9

From the comparisons in Table 10 and Table 11, the findings clearly indicate that the amount of exposure to a foreign language with the focus of the awareness of linguistic features integrated into the school syllabus has a positive effect on students' performance. Though respondents in the two groups gave different responses to the questions on various topics at different testing times, the statistics remain significant.

The results of the study may show that the students in the experimental group perform significantly differently from the ones in the control group, and work out conditions in which EFL Vietnamese learners can acquire a good command of English when they start to learn the language from basic communication skills to academic language proficiency in terms of receptive and productive skills.

Discussion

This study investigated how EFL Vietnamese learners develop their language performance from the authentic communication into the academic proficiency in L2 acquisition. It examined whether the percentage of the test-takers could meet the necessary requirements on high intermediate levels of language proficiency. The statistical findings indicate that there is no significant difference and that there is the statistical significance for the speaking tasks with the *p* value ($p = 0.048536131$) for the posttests taken by the experiment group and the control group. One possible explanation is that the better results came from the tests that were taken by students who had been given clear and systematic instructions of linguistic knowledge in advance of how to take the tests, and the students had spent an adequate amount of time familiarizing themselves with academic language. The competence and experience of the students in specific assignments may have contributed to their outcomes.

For the second research question of how teachers help EFL Vietnamese learners develop their linguistic competence from communicative competence, the effective methodology towards EFL Vietnamese learners' high performance is suggested as follows.

1. More linguistic practices should be assigned in terms of phonology, morphology and syntax.
2. A proper method of assessment should be designed such as criteria for academic writing and speaking.

To develop EFL Vietnamese learners' communicative competence, teachers of language must provide contextual situations (multiple and systematic language use opportunities) teach appropriate language usage (form and content, styles of speech) and pronunciation (intonations, hesitancies, pauses, loudness, pitch, stress and rate)

a) Strategies for Communicative Competency Development

- Questions & anticipatory answers
- Monitoring
- Making requests
- Role play
- Choral reading
- Chanting

b) Practices for Communicative Competency Development

- Repetition drills
- Memorization
- Formulaic expressions
- Verbal attention getters
- Answering in unison
- Talking to self
- Elaboration

Conclusion

This article, which focuses on the Vietnamese learners' EFL acquisition of formal English features from basic communicative skills, has taken a step in the direction of defining relationships between the interpersonal, experiential and textual meta-functions through the course survey of two student groups – the experimental group (N=21) and the control group (N=19) – to serve as the basis for a suitable teaching methodology. It is possible in a certain way that other school environments with a different complex of levels and learning materials may produce entirely different results.

The findings show that although the study investigates the experience of small groups of students in the single college setting for a speaking course of fifteen weeks, it may prove to be more effective when lecturers make students realize more of linguistic features.

Making EFL learners more familiar with academic English seems difficult and complicated for intensive English learners, but is more effective at improving learners' language proficiency. Further research should be replicated in other settings with different populations to see how well language competence develops.

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Application of Morphological Typology and English Affixation Instruction

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Abstract
This study aims at investigating the effectiveness of application of morphological typology into the instruction of English Affixation for English major students. The study focuses on student performances in the analytic sense indicating their knowledge for merits of English inflectional morphemes, namely: the meaning of affixes, numbers of affixes in the made-up words, syntactic categories of affix and its base; and of English derivational morphemes namely; the meaning of affixes in the made-up words, numbers of morphemes, syntactic categories of affix and its base, and pronunciation of stress pattern in the made-up words. The findings of the study revealed that there is a significant and varied difference in the test scores of the control group and the experimental group. The results will be discussed in two perspectives. The first is the effectiveness of how application morphological typology could foster in the instruction of English affixation. The second is the importance of deficiency in the instruction required for secondary applications to be used in the instruction of English affixation.

Keywords: morphological typology, morphological instruction, ESL

Introduction

It is unarguable that learning grammar is one of the biggest concerns in learning a second language. Morphological knowledge is definitely one of those. On the linguistic grounds, English morphological instruction will gain the L2 learners of the internal structures of words in a particular language. This paper presents an experimental and applicative study on the acquisition of English Affixation from a typological perspective and implication from pedagogy that facilitate the development of learnability of English major students in Uttaradit Rajabhat University. It illustrates the use of applying cross-linguistic morphological characteristics to morphological acquisition of Thai adult ESL learners.

Problems in morphological knowledge gained a vast attention from researchers. To begin with, morphological knowledge about English affixation is proved to be a big account for English as a second language learning. A study was presented by Saengchan and Norbert (2006) in order to investigate how morphological knowledge was synthesized and reflected in writing skill by Thai university students. In the research, the statistics of lexical errors in the English compositions of third year Thai English learners in university level revealed that morphological knowledge as reflected in their writing errors was the second most numerous errors. They found that misselection of word, that is formation of wrong selection of roots and affixes, was found highest at 60% of word structural errors. It consisted of two suffix type errors; (a) the same word class with similar form (for example, There is a lot of competition, instead of competitiveness) and (b) the wrong use of particular word class (for example, It is said that today our world is globalization, instead of globalized). The errors in the wrong use of particular word class were significantly higher than that in the same word class with similar form. This evident supports the notion of lexical development by Jiang (2000) who explained that at the stage three of morphological knowledge a word will be achieved by a learner of L2 when the learner can integrate and form the semantic, syntactic, morphological and formal specification of L2 word as lexical entry.

Moreover, as the ‘language transfer’ affects the learning of L2 English, it is generally assumed that certain linguistic aspects of a second language learner’s native language will transfer to the L2 acquisition of him or her (Bliss, 2006) Within the domain of word formations by affixation, the difficulties in supply the morphosyntactic and phonological constraints are resulted from the fact that the L1 Thai may not represent them. In teaching English to Thai native speakers as a second language, morphological features become daunting road as the notion of the term ‘affixation’ in English to Thai students of English seems most likely to be what they only call ‘prefixes’ and ‘suffixes’. They also tend to guess the meaning of a word by translating it word-to-word, and did not apply the correct analysis on how words are formed from smaller elements with meaning. That makes sense by the influence of their L1 Thai which does not apply a lot of affixation process in word formations as much as an isolating language. Besides, the L2 English requires the principles governing the pronunciation of words in affixation as well.

According to the problem mentioned above, there is a desirable instruction that should be designed to cover all perspectives which can fix the problem of how students can learn and perform better in English knowledge of affixation.

Literature Review

Morphological Instruction in L2 Thai Learners of English

There are two opposing views of the effectiveness of studies on morphological instruction in Thai L2 learners of English. According to Timyam (2008), a needs analysis was conducted to investigate the needs of various aspects of knowledge in linguistics for English major students. The subjects in the study were 123 English major students at the undergraduate and graduate level. The results showed that the students considered morphology as highly needed. They also suggested that morphology should be taught in order to help the students know the meaning of unfamiliar English vocabulary.

Yet, there are some striking findings that suggested that morphological instruction did not change the learning achievement of Thai L2 learners of English. First, in a study by Chuenjundaeng (2006), an investigation of Suranaree University of Technology (SUT) students's the effectiveness of word composition strategies in the receptive knowledge of English noun suffixes: -iton, -er,-ment, -ity. The participants were 167 undergraduate students who were studying fundamental English courses at Suranaree University of Technology in Thailand. The results showed that the participants' receptive knowledge on the four noun suffixes was only 13.5% accurate, and suggested that the possible factor was the frequency of word which the participants encountered in their daily life. This research pointed out that word-composition strategies could not benefit the students to remember words in the same domain. Second, there was a master degree thesis in morphological awareness and its relationship between vocabulary knowledge and morphological complexity among EFL students in Omani University by Farsi (2008). The study examined the L2 learners' knowledge of morphemes and morphemic structure which would allow them to reflect and manipulate morphological structure of words and would be shown as a predictor of L1 vocabulary. It applied an adapted test to assed both analytic and synthetic aspects of morphological knowledge. The analytic test referred to breaking down complex words into smaller meanings, while synthetic referred to reassembling smaller meaning to make up new words. Farsi applied Nation's Vocabulary Test (Nation, 2001 cited in Farsi, 2008) as a means to assess the effect the morphological knowledge on vocabulary development. The results indicated that the students' overall morphological awareness and vocabulary size were limited, but they performed better in the Morpheme Identification Test (analytic) than they did in the Morphological Structure (synthesis), and there was no statistic relationship between the two constructs. Besides, the students' performance on morphological analysis did not play a role in their performance on simple words vs. complex words. In addition, in a research paper by Sritulanon (2013), a study was conducted to examine the effects of morphological instruction on reading abilities of low proficiency adult EFL learners at a university in Thailand. In the study, the researcher presented an experiment on two groups of the low proficiency adult EFL learners by giving morphological instruction; namely narrow sense of analytic aspect by Farsi (2008), to the participants to the experimental group, and testing both groups on their reading ability in terms of vocabulary and reading comprehension or the narrow sense of synthetic aspect by Farsi (2008). The results revealed that teaching morphological awareness did not foster the vocabulary development and reading comprehension skills of the L2 learners whose limitation vocabulary size was of 2,000-3,000 common words.

Therefore, these studies confirm an assumption that morphological knowledge is a major problem in learning English towards other additional linguistic skills. Yet, all of them did not mention the real and overall aspects that are required in morphological knowledge of English which will be discussed in the following section.

English Morphological Complexity and Its Acquisition

While many of studies pointed how morphological instruction contributes to the development and acquisition of second language in reading, spelling, comprehension, or vocabulary achievement (e.g. Deighton,1959; Laufer,1997, Farsi, 2008; Carlisle, 2010), one can say English morphology is complex to learn. This section will describe linguistic and psychological aspects involving with morphological knowledge of English affixation and difficulties in acquiring it. First, difficulties in inflectional morpheme awareness revealed knowledge of L2 learners. According to Universal Grammar, Jiang (2004; 604-605) cited two approaches that account for knowledge about inflectional morphemes, as a grammatical rule, of L2 learners namely competence deficit approach (CDA) and performance deficit approach (PDA). Jiang stated that CDA considers that ESL learners' morphological difficulties are a sign of incomplete acquisition of morphological knowledge on the learner's part. Learners may know all the rules about inflectional morphemes, but such conscious intellectual understanding is not part of their integrated linguistic competence.

In other word, when L2 learners perform errors and variability of inflectional morphemes in spontaneous communication because the performer has learned a rule but has not acquired it (Karshen, 1982, p.86 cited in Jiang 2004). Therefore, such difficulties reflect that the knowledge of inflectional morphemes is learned but not represented in their internalized knowledge. On the other hand, PDA considers such difficulties in accessing, retrieving, or controlling what has been internalized. Jiang cited researches by Sharwood (1986, p12-13 cited in Jiang 2004) and Sorace (1985, p240 cited in Jiang 2004) to explain that such difficulties are resulted from the process where L2 learners may suffer a long delay to attempt to have control over and that L2 knowledge is procedural that is necessary for accessing internalized knowledge. Thus, according to Jiang, the inflectional morphemes in English behave like a grammatical rule that L2 learners are taught to learn and be represented in their internalized knowledge.

Second, in Tyler and Nagy's (1989) study, they explained three aspects of knowledge in acquiring the derivational morphemes in English. The first is knowledge of semantic relationships. L2 learners are able to recognize the semantic relationship between how two words share a morpheme in common as a basic level of knowledge of morphology such as 'argue' and 'argument'. The researchers also additionally noticed in their experimental study that unfamiliar or infrequent morphemes might cause difficulties to unitize the knowledge. Thus, to acquire this, producing definitions is more demanding than recognizing correct definitions. The second is knowledge of syntactic properties. As a primary function of derivational suffixes in English is to change the part of speech of a base, so if someone does not know the base of word, the suffixes will become ambiguous information about their syntactic categories. For example, one should be able to gather from the endings as in 'aggression' is a noun, 'aggressive' is an adjective, without knowing that 'aggress' is the base. And the third is knowledge of distribution which is considered to be the most complicating. This is because all derivational suffixes are constrained by the syntactic category of the base they attach to, e.g., -ness to adjectives, or -ize to nouns. The researchers suggested that this aspect of knowledge should be the last to be acquired. This is because learners are required to have knowledge about the syntactic contribution, before they could figure out the restriction of distribution, and avoid overgeneralization of words that violates the constraints on the distribution of that suffix such as '**badity'* or '**repeatize*'.

Besides those concerns mentioned in previous section, there are some more interesting aspects that should account for morphological instruction. The first is the awareness of phonological and morphological properties of affixes. Neutral and non-neutral affixes are two terms referring to the classification of English affix where the non-neutral ones can cause stress shift ('satan' -'satanic', 'employ' – 'employee') (Katamba and and Stonham, 1993, p.89-90) ,while the neutral ones are said to be stress neutral ('serious'-'seriousness', 'power'-'powerless'). Shemshadsara (2011, p.145) stated:

> "Affixes are of two kinds that play an important role in place of stress. They are called prefixes and suffixes. The former comes before the stem and the latter comes after stems. They have one of the following effects on words stress.
>
> i) The affix itself receives the primary stress (e.g. 'semi' + 'circle'),
> ii) The word is stressed just as if the affix was not there ('pleasant', 'unpleasant')
> iii) The stress remains on the stem; not the affix, but is shifted to a different syllable (e.g. magnet, 'magnetic'). "

According to Peter Roach (2004, p.96) who explained that there are different kinds of suffixes which are stress-moving, stress-carrying, and neutral. He stated:

> "If the stem consists of more than one syllable, there will be a secondary stress on one of the syllables of the stem. This cannot fall on the last syllable of the stem, rather it moves to an earlier syllable. For example, in the word 'Japan' the primary stress is on the last syllable, but when we add the stress-carrying suffixes, the primary stress is on the suffix and the secondary stress is placed the first; 'Japanese'."

However, suffixes like -able, -age, -al, -ful, -ing, and -ish do not change the place of stress if they attach to words. For examples wonder has primary stress in the first syllable. If we add the suffix -ful to it, the place of stress does not change like 'wonderful'."

In a study carried out by Zahar Ghobani (2011), thirty Persian English major freshmen at Roodbar Azad University were given test to read and pronounce two types of words including ones with stress moving suffixes, and those with neutral suffixes. The result showed that stress-moving suffixes are more difficult to learn than neutral suffixes.

The last morphological complexity is the affix combination. According to level-ordering hypothesis, the difference behavior of neutral and non-neutral affixes is explained in terms of strength of boundaries. That is, a weak boundary (indicated by #) separates the base from a neutral suffix. In contrast, a strong boundary (indicated by +) separates the base from a non-neutral suffix. Plag (2001,p. 2) demonstrated the notion as the following classes or strata:

Class I suffixes : +ion, +ity, +y, +al, +ic, +ate, +ous, +ive
Class I prefixes : re+, con+, de+, sub+, pre+, in+, en+, be+
Class II suffixes : #ness, #less, #hood, #ful, #ly, #y, #like
Class II prefixes : re#, sub#, un#, non#, de#, semi#, anti#

Based on the hypothesis, Fadhil (2007, p. 113-119) proposed that each stratum can be distinguished by the phonological, morphological, and semantic characteristics in terms of restrictions. Even so, the hypothesis is still problematic when certain affixes are combined. 'Dual Class' affixes are raised to point out because the group of affixes is in the both stratum I and stratum II at the same time. For example, '-ize' is in the stratum I in the word 'Catholicize' because there is a shift of stress from the first to the second syllable, while in the word 'Bermudaize' is in the stratum II because the place of stress does not change. The Dual Class affixes are show as following;

Dual Class Prefixes : hyper-, circum-, neo-, mono-
Dual Class Suffixes : -ize, -ment, -ism, -ist, -ive, -y (Szpra, 1982, p. 42 cited in Fadhil 2007, p.16)

Besides, some possible combinations violate the restriction. For example, in the words 'readability' and 'organization', suffixes '-ity' and '-ation' from the stratum I occur outside stratum II suffixes '-able' and '-ize'. Finally, violation of distribution constrains can also be seen in terms of overgeneralization.

In short, to acquire the complex morphological knowledge of English affixation, it takes both linguistic and psychological attempts. As for the English inflectional affixes, learners should be aware of them as grammatical rules and acquire them to apply the affixes with the different syntactic categories of bases. Moreover, it requires more for derivational morphemes. Learners should, first, be able to recognize the semantic relationship of any possible words that might share a common morpheme. By this, it means that they can produce the definition of a morpheme and then recognize to apply when they encounter any possible words. The second is the knowledge syntactic properties of affixes when they are attached to a base. The third is the knowledge of distribution which is the information that tells about the syntactic categories of a base. The last is phonological knowledge which can affect the possible pronunciation of words in terms of stress pattern.

Typological Perspectives

Even though it has been widely observed that English as a second language learning is negatively affected by the difficulty or insufficient knowledge of English morphological knowledge, the literature concerning the morphological differences among languages and its implication for English as second language learning is very limited. Recent research by Schepens et al. (2013) presented an investigation in the notion referred as morphological complexity and L2 learnability. Morphological complexity here can be defined as the extent to which a language makes use of modifications of words as it reflects how much investment is needed for an adult L2 learner to acquire another language. The study revealed that L2 learnability and L2 proficiency would co-vary in terms of the morphological formation of the L1 mother tongue and the L2 to be learned.

According to this point of view, the more different and complex in morphological structure represents in the mother tongue, the more decisive property in establishing L2 learnability it would be. To depict how different and complex in morphological structure could be, Comrie (1981) proposed a continuum of morphological variation in the world's languages. He divided languages into two morphological dimensions, the first one concerns the number of morphemes in a word, and the second concerns the segmentability of words. Therefore, languages can be categorized into either isolating (e.g. Chinese), fusional (e.g. Spanish), polysynthetic (e.g. Tuscarara), or agglutinating (e.g. Turkish). Besides, because of how much different languages it could bring into an English L2 environment, the awareness of typological phonological and morphological knowledge proved it motivated learning of English.

El-Saghir (2009) conducted a simple daily experiment of cross-linguistic differences in her classroom. She asked students to say the translation of simple nouns and their corresponding plurals in their native languages. Then they were instructed to identify the inflectional suffixes, prefixes, or markers for plural in their L1 and to provide a short list of vocabulary to explain to the classroom in English. It was interestingly found out that without any formal morphological processing instruction in their native languages before; they were surprised to discover the similarities and difference between English and L1 in terms of grammatical function. The students could explain the distributions of affixes cross-linguistically, and became more aware of word formation in terms of analyzing words into morphemes, as well as predicting their spellings.

According to Schephen et al. (2013), it might conform his idea that in the previous studies showing Thai L1 learners have problems in morphological knowledge is because the fact that L1 Thai morphology is not more complex than English. Even so, it is interesting if numbers of cross-linguistic morphological lessons are brought for the learners to experience the morphological complexity and become aware towards the complexity in English affixation phenomenon.

The Experiment and Methods

This study essentially made an attempt to verify the major hypothesis that was what contribution by applying morphological typology into English affixation instruction, and it had an objective to investigate the morphological awareness of L2 learners of English affixation in terms of analytic sense, namely; the bases, various affixes, the syntactic categories, and phonological conditions.

Participants

The participants in this study were third-year English major students from Education Faculty; who enrolled in Morphology and Syntax 1 offered by the present researcher during semester 1/2012, and had passed Introduction to Linguistics Course in Uttaradit Rajabhat University. They were native Thai speakers who had spent more than six years learning English as a second language, and divided into two groups in the experiment according to the registration provided by the institution namely section 01 consisting of 51 and section 02 of 58 students, respectively. Their proficiency in English was overall mixed according to the GPA variability in each section. According to the interviewing before the experiments, all participations from the two classes were willing to be involved in the experiment. The section 01 was randomly selected as the controlled group, and the section 02 was randomly as well as the experimental group.

Procedures

To make the comparative experiment on English affixation valid, the participants were divided into two groups according to their enrolled sections. At the stage 1, both groups were given the instruction for analytic lessons for English morphological make-ups including the meaning, syntactic properties, and phonological conditions of bases and affixes; both inflectional and derivational morphemes. At stage 2, only the Section 02 as experimental group was given instruction for supplementary analytic lessons for morphological typology. Finally, the controlled and experimental groups were given two tests to evaluate the accuracy on morphological identification.

Data Collection

The data used in this study were mainly collected from two tests of the accuracy in analyzing morpheme identification; namely, inflectional test, and derivational and pronunciation of stress patterns. The morphological awareness on inflectional test was required to evaluate the ability to identify the meaning of words, number of morphemes in the words, and the syntactic properties of the made-up words, and of the base. The morphological awareness of derivational test was required to evaluate the ability to identify the meaning of words, the number of morphemes in the words, and the syntactic properties of made-up words, the distributions of affixes, and the stress patterns in the made-up words.

Materials and Development

The morpheme identification task on morphological typology, given to the Section 02 as experimental group, consisted of data from languages including Turkish, Latin, Swahili, Hmong, Hungary, Spanish, Hebrew, Persian, Arabic, and Kwakwa'ala from Frommer and Finegan (2004), Finegan (2004), Katamba and Stonham (1993), Savetamalya (1998), and Shopen (1985). They were presented in IPA transcriptions alongside with translations. These languages were selected to represent cross-linguistic affixation with inflectional and derivational morphemes. The objective of the task is to widen the participants' experience on morphological complexity in analyzing words into smaller elements with respect to their phonological condition, morphological structure, meanings, syntactic properties and distribution.

The tests

The tests in the study were developed by the researcher, and were divided into two parts. The first was the inflectional test where included eight English inflectional morphemes; plural, possessive, comparative, superlative, present tense, past tense, present participle, and past participle. The 20 words were selected to represent the eight inflectional morphemes. They were provided and underlined in sentences in order to, first, avoid wrong analysis from the possible similar forms, and to include null morpheme and irregular form cases which are not simply morphologically marked in English (e.g. eat/ate or hit/hit). Moreover, in a sentence like I like chocolate, although the agreement feature is not overtly realized, the verb 'like' still carries features for person (first), number (singular), and tense (present).

These abstract features are covertly present (Li, 2012). The objective of the test was to evaluate the ability of the participants to identify the meaning, number of morphemes, part of speech of made-up words, and part of speech of the bases. Moreover, derivational morphemes were not involved in this test. The answers to each aspect were directed to be in English except for meanings of the made-up words that could be either Thai or English. Analysis of each word would count for four points for each aspect would count for one.

The second was derivational test. Because English has a vast number of derivational morphemes, words were selected to represent with the following respects. To prevent the participants from producing definitions more than recognizing correct definitions of morphemes, the present researcher selected affixes based on the most 20 common affix list by Fry and Kress (2006) to match the participants level of knowledge of morphology. They all were both non-neutral and neutral affixes. Then, they were combined with the most 20 common Greek and Latin roots according to Fry and Kress (2006). The affix combination is also concerned in the test because when certain affixes are combined, there is a shift of stress. (e.g. 'read'/ 'readable'/ 'readability') (Fadhil, 2007). The objective was to evaluate the ability of the participants to identify the meaning, number of morphemes, part of speech of made-up words, distribution of the affixes, and pronunciation of stress pattern in the provided words. Moreover, the inflectional morphemes were not involved in this test. The answers to each aspect were directed to be in English except for meanings of the made-up words that could be either Thai or English. Analysis of each word would count for five points for each aspect would count for one.

Results and Discussions

The results of this study came from two tests. The first was the analysis of the mean scores from the English inflectional test and the second was from the derivational test. The statistical analysis of the independent samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the two tests between the controlled group and experimental group.

Table 1. Independent Samples t-test for the comparison of inflectional tests results between the controlled group and experimental group.

		N	*Mean*	*t*	*Sig.*	*Sig. (2-tailed)*
Meaning of the made-up words	**Controlled Group**	51	50.20	-7.812	0.587	0.000
	Experimental Group	58	62.55			
Numbers of Morphemes	**Controlled Group**	51	51.29	-6.009	0.251	0.000
	Experimental Group	58	63.31			
Part-of-speech of the made-up words	**Controlled Group**	51	58.75	-3.171	0.503	0.002
	Experimental Group	58	63.79			
Part-of-speech of the bases	**Controlled Group**	51	61.18	-2.429	0.970	0.017
	Experimental Group	58	64.83			

According to Table 1, the independent samples t-test was performed to compare the mean scores of the controlled group and experimental group in the inflectional test with four different aspects. The findings revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the test in the aspects of meaning of the made-up words, number of morphemes, and part-of-speech of the words between the two groups at the significant level 0.05. In contrast, as for the aspect of part-of-speech of the bases, there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups.

Even though the experimental group performed higher mean scores in all four aspects, with total scores of 80 points, which is in accordance with a study by Farsi (2008) that morphological instruction can foster students better in analytic performance, showing no statistically significant difference in identifying part-of-speech of the bases between the two group is probably resulted from that the morphological awareness of the participants was evoked by the syntactic information by the adjacent parts in the sentences. Additionally, as the concept of CDA claims that the learners of inflectional morphemes learn all about the grammatical rules but did not acquire those, the results suggested clearly that the participants in the experimental group mastered the knowledge of grammatical patterns better than those in the controlled group.

Table 2. Independent Samples t-test for the comparison of derivational tests results between the controlled group and experimental group.

		N	*Mean*	*t*	*Sig.*	*Sig. (2-tailed)*
Meaning of the made-up words	**Controlled Group**	51	64.12	-6.009	0.251	0.000
	Experimental Group	58	79.14			
Numbers of Morphemes	**Controlled Group**	51	59.22	-9.185	0.226	0.000
	Experimental Group	58	80.09			
Part-of-speech of the made-up words	**Controlled Group**	51	60.49	-7.723	0.123	0.000
	Experimental Group	58	78.88			
Part-of-speech of the bases	**Controlled Group**	51	63.24	-8.198	0.086	0.000
	Experimental Group	58	81.72			
Stress placement	**Controlled Group**	51	53.82	-9.183	0.147	0.000
	Experimental Group	58	72.33			

According to Table 2, the independent samples t-test was performed to compare the mean scores of the controlled group and experimental group in the inflectional test with four different aspects. The findings revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the test in the aspects of meaning of the made-up words, number of morphemes, part-of-speech of the words, and stress placement between the two groups at the significant level 0.05.

According to a Tyler and Nagy's (1989) study, there are three aspects of knowledge in acquiring the derivational morphemes in English. They are knowledge of semantic relationship, the syntactic properties, and the knowledge of distribution. With total score of 100 points, the findings suggested that experimental group also significantly performed higher mean score than the controlled group in all five aspects. At the same time, the experimental group had the highest mean scores in identifying number of morphemes in accordance with their results in the inflectional test. However, it is obvious that stress placement aspect revealed the lowest mean scores of both groups among the aspects they performed.

Discussions

The results from the experimental group demonstrated the success of application of morphological typology into morphological instruction of English affixation. It depicted the morphological awareness of the learners towards the morphological complexity in English affixation. As we can see in the tests where students were given to identify the number of morphemes in both tests, it showed that the mean scores of the controlled group were lower, while those of the experimental group were higher. This suggests that the morphological typology lesson can foster the learners' awareness in breaking down the complex structures in the given words. That is, the learners were introduced to the nature of typological word formation which allowed them to have a clearer view of how English words are structured and what content of linguistic complexity might come with them. Besides, the results, where the experimental group also had high mean scores the test where they were asked to identify the part-of-speech of the base, revealed they gained more insightful knowledge of syntactic distribution when an affix is applied to a base.

Still, there is deficiency from the study. It is obvious that the stress placement test had given the participants hard times. It was the only aspect the both group had as the lowest. Besides, both groups performed better scores in neutral affixes than those in non-neutral ones. This suggests that the application of morphological typology might not fully cover the spectrum of phonological information for the L2 target to learn. Besides, as a tonal language, Thai does not supply the intonation into itself like English does. Therefore, phonological aspect is still a challenge that this application could not get over because of the content itself and the language transfer.

Conclusion

This research was conducted to examine the effectiveness of applying morphological complexity from various languages into the instruction of English affixation. The major hypothesis was what contribution by applying morphological typology instruction could make to the development of L2 learners of English affixation. The results showed that application of morphological typology proved it could foster the morphological awareness of Thai L2 learners in the experimental group in their analytic performance in terms of analytic sense, that was the awareness of word formations, namely: the bases, various affixes, the syntactic categories, and phonological conditions. The participants performed best in identifying the number of morphemes both inflectional and derivational, while it is observed that there is a transfer effect from Thai L1 which keeps them from fully acquiring knowledge in suprasegmental level. Therefore, there is a need to try different and effective strategies for promoting the English L2 learners in pronunciation.

Note

At the end of the experiment, students from the controlled group were given the same cross-linguistic morphological analytic lesson as those from the experimental group had.

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Appendix A

The following are examples from cross-linguistic inflectional morphemes in the experiment

Identify the morphemes in the following languages. State the meaning of each morpheme and if they are free or bound. State which morpheme is inflectional and explain with definition of it.

1. Swahili

nilipata	'I got'	niliwapiga	'I hit them'
walipata	'they got'	walitupiga	'they hit us'
nilipiga	'I hit'	walikipiga	'they hit it'
nilikipata	'I got it'	utatupiga	'you will hit us'
ulikipata	'you got it'	ulipata	'you got'
nitakipata	'I will get it'	watakupiga	'they will hit you'
ulipiga	'you hit'	ulitupiga	'you hit us'
watakipiga	'they will hit it'	nitakupata	'I will get you'

(from Katamba 1993: 65)

2. Spanish

amigo	'male friend'	mutʃutʃo	'boy'
amiga	'female friend'	mutʃutʃa	'girl'
amigos	'male friends'	mutʃutʃos	'boys'
amigas	'female friends'	mutʃutʃas	'girls'

(from Frommer and Finegan 2004: 23)

3. Hmong

nws mus tsev	'he goes home'
nws tau mus tsev	'he went home'
nws mus tsev lawn	'he has gone home'
nws yuav mus tsev	'he will go home'
nws yuav mus tsev lawn	'he will have gone home'

(from Savetamalya 1998 : 92)

4. Swahili

anasoma	'he is reading'
asoma	'he reads'
alisoma	'he read'
amesoma	'he has read'
atasoma	'he will read'
akisoma	'if he reads, if he read, if he will read'

(from Savetamalya 1998 : 92)

Appendix B

The following are examples from cross-linguistic derivational morphemes in the experiment

Identify the morphemes in the following languages. State the meaning of each morpheme. State if it is free or bound. Indicate the definition of bases and affixes.

1. Persian

dærd 'pain'	dærdnak	'painful'
næm 'dampness'	næmnak	'damp'
xætær 'danger'	xætærnak	'dangerous'
gærm 'warm'	gærma	'heat'
pæhn 'wide'	pæhna	'width'

(from Finegan,2004: 48)

2. Arabic

kitaaba	'writing'	kataba	'he wrote'
kaatib	'writer'	kaataba	'he corresponded with'
maktab	'office'	?aktaba	'he dictated'
maktaba	'library'	?iktataba	'he was registered'
maktuub	'letter'	takaataba	'he exchanged letters with'
miktaab	'typewriter'	inkataba	'he subscribed'
kutubii	'bookseller'	iktataba	'he had a copy made'

(from Finegan, 2004: 50)

3. English

nation
national
nationalize
denationalize
denationalization
anti-denationalization
pre-antidenationalizatin

(from Katamba 1993 : 55)

Appendix C

The following is the inflectional morpheme test in the experiment.

Identify the meaning, number of morphemes, part of speech, and part of speech of the base in the underlined words.

1. Mary went to the hospital this morning.
2. He always wanted to marry an Asian girl.
3. He studied for exam last night.
4. I changed my mind before I did that.
5. I ate all the pizza and pasta.
6. He loves chocolate cakes.
7. My son usually cries at night.
8. Jaime goes to school every day.
9. Parker does all of housework himself.
10. Michael read the book over and over before he lost it.
11. Elizabeth's car was stolen last night.
12. The man crashed his motorcycle into Hilary's gate.
13. Children are waiting for Christmas.
14. The man was swimming in the pool before it rained.
15. Your legs are obviously longer than mine.
16. Christmas is the happiest time of year.
17. The fish are swimming up to the river.
18. It is too hard for a housewife to take care of many children when she has to work at the same time.
19. How many days have you spent on your report?
20. I had just sent the email before you called.

Appendix D

The following is the derivational morpheme test in the experiment.

Identify the meaning, number of morphemes, part of speech, part of speech of the base, and the primary stress of the words.

Group A derivational suffixes

Non-neutral	Neutral
biological	slowly
international	comparable
photographer	happiness
mobility	sorrowful
education	enjoyment

Group B derivational prefixes

Non-neutral	Neutral
discover	unhappy
reapply	misbelief
submarine	antibody
supermarket	semifinal
impolite	deforest

Finding a Voice in EFL Classroom Discussions: A Bakhtinian Interpretation of Formative Assessment

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Abstract
Formative assessment occurs when teachers and learners gather evidence about the current state of learners' understanding for the purposes of adapting teaching and learning and moving learning forward (Wiliam, 2011). Task based peer discussion classes are fertile ground for eliciting evidence of learners' productive language skills. In fact, much of the research into task based learning has tried to isolate best practice by focusing on learners' production in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity of their language (Skehan, 2014). However, the research has not adequately taken into account the complexities of peer interaction, such as how learners identify themselves as learners within a task, and how learners invest in their own learning (Zhou, 2013). This paper takes an emic perspective and uses Bakhtin's concept of the utterance to analyse two Japanese learners' productive improvements as they progress through six English discussion classes. Evidence that formative assessment techniques can affect learner investment and identity construction is provided through the analysis. The paper concludes by suggesting that mobilising formative assessment opens routes to acquisition not traditionally considered in much classroom based research and practice, and calls for more research in this area.

Keywords: formative assessment, peer interaction, discussion tasks, investment, identity

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Introduction

Formative assessment has been described by Wiliam (2011) as the bridge between teaching and learning. It potentially offers resources for teachers to engineer language learning tasks to provide learners with the opportunity to recycle and proceduralise language. Cizek (2010) conceptualises formative assessment as the collaboration between practitioners and learners for the purpose of identifying the needs of learners and adapting teaching and learning to suit those needs. Wiliam (2011) and Black and Wiliam (2009) also underline the importance of feedback and including learners in the processes of teaching and learning. To understand how formative assessment can be integrated as part of classroom discussion tasks, it is necessary to review a number of factors which impact on discussion activities. First, an overview of research and insights into peer interaction tasks can help set the agenda for designing formative assessment. Second, understanding complications arising from the local context can provide insight into the constraints and affordances impacting on the implementation of formative assessment. Finally, as a practical tool which bridges teaching and learning, what counts as moving learning forward needs to be clearly defined. These three factors will be discussed in turn.

Since Long’s interaction hypothesis made the case for second language acquisition through interaction (1981), researchers have examined evidence of language learning through peer interaction in classroom settings, and have noted the features of interaction which provide opportunities for proceduralising internal models of morphology, lexis, and pronunciation (Philp, Adams & Iwashita, 2014). In particular, peer interaction tasks provide learners with the opportunity to experiment with language forms (Mackey, 2007), and negotiate for meaning and language form through reformulations, clarification checks and recasts (Pica, 2013). Furthermore, the collaborative process gives rise to corrective feedback and modified output, allowing learners to bring about changes in their interlanguage (Adams, Nuevo & Egi, 2011). There is also evidence that focusing learners on communication strategies, such as turn taking and referential communication, can promote discourse competence during peer interaction (Tarone, 2005; Naughton, 2006).

However, a number of other factors can impact on the effectiveness of interaction to provide language learning opportunities. These include the language proficiency of the learner (Iwashita, 2001) task design (Samuda & Bygate, 2008), learners’ attitudes (Fujii & Mackey, 2009) and learning preferences (Platt, 2005), and the investment (Norton, 2011) in language learning that learners bring to the interaction. Particular issues of social-loafing, free-riding and diffusion of responsibility (Littlewood, 2014; Topping, 2010) could inhibit opportunities for learning. In fact, Ellis (2012, pp. 152-193) has suggested that these factors may impact to such an extent in real classrooms as to lead to a dearth of opportunities for the kinds of interactional features that promote language acquisition. It would therefore seem to require great skill on the part of teachers to bridge teaching and learning through formative assessment in discussion tasks.

Discussion tasks have been described as promoting interest and interaction when staged appropriately (Willis & Willis, 2007, pp.8-11). However, three factors within the local context can impact on the efficacy of discussion tasks. First, many learners within a Japanese university have passed through secondary education by rote learning English grammar and phrases in preparation for university entrance tests (Brown & Yamashita, 1995), with little or no development of production skills. Secondly, this focus on grammar means the learners are not familiar with a fundamentally learner centred approach promoted by task based learning. Nunan and Lamb (2001) note that learners need to be systematically taught the skills required to implement a learner centred approach to pedagogy. Finally, Platt (2005) is conscious that certain types of tasks, such as gap fill tasks, are ways of talking that the learners may have no experience with, and is open to creative interpretation. These three issues suggest that simply offering a formalised procedure for discussion tasks would not necessarily promote the kind of interaction that leads to acquisition. It therefore seems appropriate that formative assessment plays a facilitative role in this context – to encourage productive output, to facilitate learners in a learner centred pedagogy and to encourage the creation of new ways of speaking.

The successful integration of formative assessment into discussion tasks does not necessarily lead to an understanding of how to judge progress in discussion tasks. In fact, much of the task research referenced above makes judgements about progress in terms of structuralist notions of grammatical and lexical acquisition (Hall, Vitanova & Marchenkova, 2005), and the value of a task feature or task design is often construed in terms of learners' fluency, accuracy or complexity achievements (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan, 2014). Furthermore, task design is sometimes evaluated in terms of learners' focus on the task's linguistic goals (Willis & Willis, pp.113-134). Iwashita (2001) showed that learners often missed opportunities for modified output, choosing instead to focus on confirmation checks to achieve task goals, and miss the linguistic goals completely. While Iwashita did not speculate as to why learners manifested this behaviour during tasks, she rationalised it in terms of varying dyad proficiencies and learners' preferences for being in a particular dyad. A criticism of these perspectives on assessment is that they are subjective only to the researcher or the teacher, and not necessarily salient to the learner.

Platt (2005) provided an alternative assessment of her learners' progress in a pair language task. Through conversation analysis of task interaction and discourse analysis of a reflective interview, she was able to show how one learner came to see herself as a good language learner in the face of a more dominant and confident interlocutor. The learner in the study grew in confidence and took control of the interaction with her partner. The assessment employed Bakhtin's concept of the utterance (Bakhtin, 1986) in the analysis of the interaction between the two learners to show how they negotiated not just linguistic features, but also their identities in the task.

Bakhtin's ideas are coming to have more and more impact on educational practice and policy making around the world, (White & Peters, 2011; Hall, Vitanova & Marchenkova, 2005; Ball & Freedman, 2004). In particular, his concept of the utterance is useful in language learning contexts. Utterances have a number of properties, including addressivity and heteroglossia. Bakhtin wrote about addressivity: "An essential marker of the utterance is its quality of being directed to someone, its addressivity. An utterance has both an author and an addressee" (Bakhtin, 1986, p.95). Given that classroom talk is considered to be a form of institutional talk restricted by the goals of the teacher and the students (Heritage, 2005), it could be argued that learners address their utterances not just to each other in discussion

(Chappell, 2014), but to what they imagine the teacher and the curriculum expects of them.

The utterance is also said to be filled with the voices of others, and this is the property of heteroglossia. Bakhtin wrote: "Our speech, that is, all our utterances …, is filled with others' words, varying degrees of otherness or varying degrees of 'our-own-ness', varying degrees of awareness and detachment. These words of others carry with them their own expression, their own evaluative tone, which we assimilate, rework and re-accentuate" (Bakhtin, 1986, p.89). Norton (2011) relates this idea to the process of moment-by-moment identity construction and investment in language learning. Investment in language learning is a sociological construct that parallels motivation in psycholinguistics. Learners invest in their learning when they use or manipulate learning resources in their context to alter or reinforce their identities during moments of learning. It is this investment in language learning in a discussion classroom context that can be seen as taking control of one's own learning from a formative assessment standpoint (Wiliam, 2011).

The three factors which impact on discussion tasks and addressed above were: i) how current peer interaction research can inform an agenda for formative assessment; ii) understanding the local context in order to design formative assessment with constraints and affordances in mind, and iii) considering what counts as language learning improvement. Given this overview, formative assessment in discussion tasks can be defined with the following parameters:

i) it is a set of resources used by the teacher and students to elicit evidence of learning that learners can understand relative to a curriculum agenda;
ii) the resources encourage productive output that addresses a clearly defined curriculum agenda;
iii) the resources play a facilitative role in the appropriation of utterances for identity construction and investment in collaborative and creative language output.

Three resources were designed for formative assessment, and are described below. This research examined evidence in two students' classroom interactions for some impact of the assessment resources on language learning behaviours over six weeks.

Methodology

Discussion tasks took place over six weeks with one second year undergraduate non-English major class of 24 mixed-proficiency students. The students' TOEIC scores ranged from 350 to 650. Listing and ranking tasks were employed for the discussions, and students, working in groups of three or four, discussed how best to rank concrete items or actions. During the second and final lessons, for example, the students ranked anti-social behaviour with respect to the level of fine imposed for carrying out the behaviour. In the second lesson, students discussed anti-social behaviour in a dorm room, such as listening to music loudly, and in the sixth lesson they discussed anti-social behaviour on the beach, such as riding motorbikes around children.

In the pre-task, the students were exposed to the task's vocabulary through pictures and short readings, and basic phrases were provided on a check-list. The ranking task was modelled by the teacher and a language assistant, and learners spent about twenty minutes discussing. The discussion tasks were recorded in the language laboratories and students transcribed parts of their discussions in the post-task for analysis of language form.

Three formative assessment resources were designed. The first was called the “Pit Stop”. This is the idea of students consciously taking time out of the discussion (Ellis, 2006, p.34) to focus on finding an appropriate form for what they want to say. The students can switch into their native language and discuss the language problem, thereby focusing on form explicitly. Furthermore, the Pit Stop was designed in such a way that the students had to decide first whether they were focusing on mechanical features of language, lexical problems or grammatical problems (Philp et al., 2014, p.26). This facilitates an awareness of meta-language and its role in learning, and construes one of the defining features of formative assessment that learners take control of their own learning (Wiliam, 2011, pp.145-158). Its deployment by students potentially construes a willingness to invest in collaborative focus on form.

The second resource was “Leadership Skills”. These were embedded into the curriculum, and were described to students as sequences of interaction. One example was “Listen-Summarise-Suggest”, where students might listen to their partners discuss some suggestions for ranking, then summarise some of the suggestions before making a suggestion of their own. In this sense, Leadership Skills are simply communication strategies designed to improve communicative competence (Tarone, 2010). A similar focus on communication strategies (Naughton, 2006) has been seen to improve participation in terms of the number of turns taken. The provision of sample sequences for leadership skills construes another feature of formative assessment that the criteria of assessment are made clear to the learners (Wiliam, 2011, pp.51-69).

The final resource was a language reflection journal. For homework each week, the students were asked to reflect on the successes and difficulties of the discussion tasks. The teacher also used the journals to respond to the students’ concerns and offer advice. The use of reflective language journals in the context of EFL discussion classes has not been well researched. However, in the context of writing classes, they have been shown to improve motivation, reduce anxiety and improve confidence in learners (Holmes & Moulton, 1997; Peyton, Staton, Richardson & Wolfram, 1990; Alexander, 2001). Reflection on classroom performance was shown by Ewald (2004) to positively affect future performance. Ewald had learners watch skits that showed some of the problems of group work. The learners went on to make more effort to collaborate during tasks. This implies that reflection on performance through a language journal has the potential to facilitate the improvement of future language performance.

The project described here is an ongoing project looking at all of the volunteer students in the classroom. One low proficiency student, referred to as David, and one high proficiency student, referred to as Mary, were selected from this project for analysis here to illustrate some of the issues on language investment and identity construction referred to above, and to demonstrate how an analysis of utterances in Bakhtinian terms can yield insights into behavioural changes in learners that potentially reflect investment and identity construction.

Analysis: David

David had one of the lowest TOEIC scores in his group. During lessons, he sometimes appeared to rely on ridicule as part of social bonding with his group. One strategy he used at times was to flaunt his low English proficiency in order to elicit laughter from his classmates. For the first entry in his language journal, he wrote: “I was noticed in the difficulty of making a conversation. And I thought that it was hard to tell that my feelings in English.” This issue with participation is seen in Extracts 1 and 2.

Extract 1 (Lesson 2: Dorm Room)

1	Partner 1:	one a::: ten milli a:: ten thousand
2	Partner 2:	[te:n thousand
3	Partner 1:	[ten thousand hai ten thousand
4	Partner 2:	ten thousand yen
5	Partner 3	yen
6	Partner 2:	[ten thousand ten
7	David:	[pet pet
8	Partner 1:	(2.4) mazu bakkin wo kimeru dake we’ll just decide the fines first
9	David:	yes

In Extract 1, the group is discussing the different levels of fines to use for anti-social behaviour in a dorm room, and they reach consensus that the highest fine should be ten thousand yen by turn 6. In turn 7, David topicalises one of the anti-social behaviours - keeping pets in the dorm room - to suggest that this behaviour should be punished with the highest fine. However, his partner, after a pause, code-switches into Japanese to explain that the group is not ready to move into that stage of the discussion. David, in turn 9, immediately complies.

Extract 2 (Lesson 2: Dorm Room)

1	Partner 1:	one- e:↑ (0.4) listening music↓ (.) curtai:n (.) petto (.) smoking (.) gas
2	David:	pet is expensive
3	Partner 1:	bu- but ano:: (0.4) keeping the gas i:s very dangerous
4	Partner 2:	[a- me too
5	David:	[a::::↓
6	Partner 1:	it’s too expensive
7	Partner 2:	(1) I see
8	David:	[>okay okay okay okay< ˙hh a gas number one

Similarly, in Extract 2, David shows compliance with the group’s prevailing wishes. His partner lists a number of behaviours that could be discussed, followed in turn 2 by David’s suggestion that keeping a pet should have the highest fine. His partner counters the suggestion, and another partner concurs in turns 4 and 7. In turn 8, David concedes his argument without justifying his original suggestion.

David’s low proficiency, combined with the real-time pressures of conversation is probably contributing to his compliant stance. In fact, in his journal, he refers many times to “words and grammar” with respect to his performance. When prompted: “What do you think you can improve?” he wrote: “I should learn grammar and words." When prompted: "What did you do well in this class?" he wrote: "'Look at the picture in the left side'. I think I could say well this sentence. I say without the wrong word and grammar". On another occasion he wrote: "I can learn many words and grammar". However, his attitude towards time-out was less optimistic. He wrote: "But I still cannot get used to pit stop", and "I depend excessively on Pit Stop. So, I think that I should limit the number of times." It is possible that he feels a struggle between participating in order to get language knowledge, and having language knowledge in order to participate effectively.

Extract 3 (Lesson 6: The beach)

1	David:	I think number one dangerous action is motorbike
2	Partner 1:	Yes I agree with you
3	Partner 2:	a:↓ I don't agree hh huh (slight laughter)
		(Turns omitted; justification that the bike can avoid children)
4	Partner 2:	(0.4) so↓ hh it is (0.7) I think it is not dangerous
5	David:	Pit sto::p
6		baiku wo bousou suru kamoshirenai
		he might lose control of the bike
7	Partner 1:	h↓e::::↑ bousou
		lose control
8	Partner 2:	a: I think break down
9	Partner 1:	a:: break down koshou suru tekina
		like to break down
10	David:	yes yes pit stop over

In the language journal, I targeted his use of online planning, and encouraged him to remind his friends that using the pit stop will result in a higher score for the group's discussions. I encouraged him to not worry about grammar, but that words were important. Extract 3 is taken from the final discussion task, in which students are discussing whether riding a motorcycle on the beach is acceptable or should be prohibited. David makes the suggestion first that riding a motorbike should be prohibited. One of his partners disagrees, and provides some justification that the rider can avoid the children. David uses the pit stop in order to justify his original suggestion. When compared with the earlier extracts, it can be seen that David has now used a resource to invest in his own learning instead of complying with the previous speaker. (The mis-translation in turn 8 was actually corrected a few turns later). The decision to alter his own behaviour could have been facilitated by the support one of his partner's provided in turn 2. The unconvincing nature of the counter argument to his suggestion might also have given him the confidence to add a justification for his own reason.

Extract 4 (Lesson 6: The beach)

1	David:	(3) I don't see.
2	Partner 2:	Pit stop
3	David:	o↑ka:y↓
4	Partner 3:	okay ˙hh

In addition, Extract 4 shows an earlier stage of the discussion when another of his partners took the initiative to open the pit stop use. He warmly welcomed its use and supported his partner with his intonation in turn 3, and thus helped to imbue the pit stop with value. This utterance speaks to his history with the pit stop. The utterance acts to counter the negative connotations that came with that history, and sets up the context for Extract 3 which came just a few turns later. There are potentially a number of factors which have contributed to David's decision to invest in his language learning, but one of those key factors is David's greater awareness of the pit stop's potential value, possibly mediated through the language journal, as well as his agency in setting up its value in Extract 4, leading to its eventual deployment in Extract 3.

Analysis: Mary

Mary is a highly motivated, outgoing student. She is one of the higher proficiency students, and she has always actively participated in communication activities. Controlling the sequencing of tasks was very important for her, and on one occasion she exhibited frustration at her group members for changing the direction of a task in a way that did not suit her. This sequencing seemed to hold value for her for successful participation in class. She wrote in response to the prompt, "What did you learn in this lesson?" by describing one of the tasks she had done in class: "First, I suggested it to decide whether it was a good day or a bad day. Second we thought about why we thought that it was a good day and a bad day. Third I started to think about a situation." The task in question was to decide, based on pictures, whether characters had had a good day or bad day and rank the experiences in terms of how good and bad those days were. In fact, the importance of appropriate sequencing for her is seen in Extract 5. After exchanging some information about the picture, Mary's partner tried to move into describing the scene in turn 1. However, Mary countered this move by reminding her partner in turns 3 and 4 that they should first decide whether the day is a good day or not.

Extract 5 (Lesson 1: Good days and bad days)

1	Partner:	hhh what happened?
2	Mary:	[so:: [yeah eh:: (1)
3		he he is g- good day or bad day
4		so I we decide good day or bad day
5	Partner:	[oh:: mm::

Mary's attempt to control the sequencing of a discussion was a regular feature of her extracts. In extract 6, she tries to control the sequence implicitly by starting to list some of the anti-social behaviours in turns 1 and 2 that should be evaluated in advance of deciding the respective fines.

In turn 6, one partner suggests moving forward with giving reasons, which Mary supports in turn 7, but her other partner starts the ranking stage of the discussion in turn 9. In turn 11, Mary attempts to rescue her original intention of evaluating the anti-social behaviours. However, in turn 12, her partners continue with deciding the level of fine. Mary, being one of the higher proficiency students, is probably able to see the value in sequencing the discussion in the way she attempted since it is more likely to lead to a deeper, extensive discussion. As it stands, Extract 6 shows her partners moving spontaneously and impulsively towards the task's goal and missing

Extract 6 (Lesson 2: Dorm room)

1	Mary:	M:aybe (.) I think (2) ˙hh mm:: leaving a fire should be: prohibi::
2		>^leaving the fi:re< (2) listening a nn music
3	Partner 1:	[oh [mm mmm
4	Mary:	e:::m
5	Partner 1:	mm↓
6	Partner 2:	(3) one reason
7	Mary:	yah
8	Partner 2:	˙h one reason
9	Partner 1:	a:: which is higher=
10	Partner 2:	=reading a book is higher
11	Mary:	(2) a:: leaving a:: mm
12	Partner 1:	[Top
13	Partner 2:	one
14	Partner 1:	five thousand

opportunities for the depth of talk that Mary's preferred sequence would allow for. Unfortunately for Mary, the impulsive talk of her partners is quite fast, and Mary does not have time to mobilise the linguistic resources to successfully persuade her partners to follow her sequence. Extract 7 illustrates this problem in more detail. The students had just discussed that leaving the gas on in the dorm room is dangerous, and Mary had attempted to compare it with listening to music loudly in turn 1. She outlines her reason in turn 5 by code switching into Japanese, and by turn 7 she is trying to figure out how to say it in English. However, her partner counters the argument in turn 9 and Mary, in turn 11, gives up her attempt at making a comparison. It is possible that she realised her argument would not stand up against the original suggestion that leaving the gas on is the most dangerous, but the futility of her approach may have been augmented by her failure earlier in the task to set up an appropriate sequence for comparing items. The talk in this lesson continued in much the same way, with impulsive decisions about levels of fines and only brief diversions into explaining reasons.

Extract 7 (Lesson 2: Dorm room)

1	Mary:	a:: listening a music is (.) °so::° (2) mm ˙hh (2)
2	Partner 1:	(laughter)
3	Partner 2:	mawari no hito people who live around here
4	Partner 1:	un un
5	Mary:	ni meiwaku wo kakeruka won't it cause trouble for them
6	Partner 1:	mm
7	Mary:	>but< (.) so (1) many- wait wait wait
8	Partner 1:	[(laughter)
9	Partner 2:	eto (.) are mo (focus) mawari ga hi ga but the fire also causes trouble
10	Mary:	[m
11:		>okay< people will be fire

These extracts show Mary's struggle to operate within a loosely defined speech genre. The goals of the task were clear to the students, but the route to achieving them was still being negotiated. This became a source of frustration for Mary. Having observed her frustration I decided to use the language journal to focus on encouraging Mary to explicitly organise her group, writing "Please be the leader of your group." I also encouraged her to use the "listen-summarise-suggest" leadership skill, feeling that this would give her the opportunity to discuss items in depth. When asked about what she thinks a leader should do in a discussion, she wrote "The leader of the discussion have to say how to form all opinion". Later, when asked if she could use the leadership skill, she wrote "I can use leadership advice. I can hear other student's opinion. But every other student worked hard like I did."

Extract 8 (Lesson 6: The beach)

1	Partner 1:	let's::: discussio::n
2	Mary:	>okay ^first< (2) decide (.) five actions w(hh)ich are proha (.) pro::hi ha
3	Partner 3:	[prohibit action actions

Extract 8 shows how Mary explicitly clarifies the task structure in the final lesson in turn 2. There are no attempts by her partners to shift the talk towards deciding levels of fines in an impulsive way. However, more interestingly, in Extract 9, turns 2 and 5, Mary is seen to offer verbal cues of support for her partner's suggestions. These kinds of utterances are not as prominent in earlier extracts, and here they act to facilitate more extended turns for her partners. Her partners had the opportunity to modify their English output on a number of occasions.

Extract 9 (Lesson 6: The beach)

1	Partner 1:	m:: (clear throat) hh the ball a- ball (0.7) hit (.) around people
2	Mary:	[mm::↓
3	Partner 1:	maybe maybe maybe (2)
4		and (3) big pla- uh↑
5	Mary:	[okay okay okay↑

Extract 10 shows Mary taking extended turns after listening to her partners' suggestions. She summarises her partner's suggestions in turn 1, coinciding with both the leadership advice and her own belief that the leader should say all opinions. When making her own suggestion in turn 2 she takes another extended turn. Both these turns show pushed and modified output. However, Extracts 8, 9 and 10 all show that Mary has successfully negotiated her role within the task. She has found a way to sequence the tasks appropriately, give support to her partners as is characteristic of her outgoing nature, and find opportunities for extended output that coincide with her values towards English language learning. Her values towards participation in discussion classes can be seen when she writes about giving good reasons: "I have to think about the reason of general not the reason of mine. I have to give clear and detailed explanations by using concrete example. I have to use plain English." It could be argued that in these three extracts, Mary has found a way to bring to life her identity as a successful English language learner.

Extract 10 (Lesson 6: The beach)

1	Mary:	e::m the man and dogs (.) playingu:: (1) the ball (.) b(hh)all game so (2) you said (.) so (.) they need large (.) place and u:: dog (.) had (.) lead↑ so dog ru ru::n free place (turns omitted)
2	Mary:	so (.) children and old people (.) >maybe< maybe:: dogs (2) un hh ˙hh d(hh)ogs hh injure (2) nn baby and children older people↑ so::: this action hn is bad thing °maybe° d(hhh)o you th(hhh)ink↑ ˙hh

Discussion

In both cases, formative assessment was seen to have had an impact on the ways the students carried out their interaction in class. In David's case, the time out tool and the language journal were combined and provided David with resources for his own agency. He altered his interaction styles and invested in the pit stop, which in turn created opportunities for learning. Facing difficulties of interaction during group work in order to deploy a resource demonstrates language investment.

Formative assessment worked for Mary by providing her with a meta-cognitive tool to reflect on the processes of interaction in the language journal, and also allow her to plan communication strategies. This allowed her to better control the sequences of discussion, in line with her ideology towards language learning, and in turn provided moments for extended pushed output. Over time, and with the assistance of the formative assessment tools, Mary was able to alter her own behaviour to create a learning environment that was more suited to her identity as a learner.

Formative assessment, then, can be seen as the deployment of resources both in the curriculum (leadership skills) and through practical tools (pit stop, language journal). The teacher, through mediating the use of these tools, can help learners to take control of their own learning. However, there are limitations which can be seen in the data. Mary's group, for example, preferred to use the pit stop to code switch into Japanese, continue the discussion in Japanese briefly, and then revert back to English. In spite of advice to use the pit stop to modify their output, they never changed their behaviour in that respect. Similarly, David was given leadership advice, but admitted in his journal that he was unable to use it because he had reached his limit just by giving his opinion. Both of these examples show that students ultimately decide how best to use the resources available to them. This also highlights the importance of providing a set of resources that are easily accessible and relevant for learners.

Conclusion

In a review of communication research in EFL, Zhou (2013, p.19) recommended further research into identity negotiation and investment in learning. Bakhtin's concept of the utterance offers an analytical tool for this, and was used here to demonstrate how formative assessment resources affected changes in the interaction styles of two learners over a six week period of discussion task performances. Addressivity was the first feature of the utterance discussed. This acknowledges that the utterances are a part of the classroom institution, and investment and identity construction are therefore taking place within this context. The second feature was voice appropriation. Changes in utterances, such as coming to use supportive utterances (uh huh, mm) more extensively, and changes in intonation, can be interpreted as strategic attempts to invest in the interaction and create opportunities for extended output, in response to the history of a particular group's interaction. Bakhtin's concept of the utterance highlights how the design of formative assessment resources needs to account for the development of interaction within specific groups. Continued research into the interactional development within groups should be encouraged on a larger scale so that various interactional features can be drawn out, and formative assessment resources which enhance language learning investment and identity construction can be designed and deployed more effectively.

Bakhtin's concept of the utterance, when mobilised as an analytical tool, has direct practical consequences for three main issues in second language education: i) it demonstrates the processes by which opportunities for language acquisition in peer interaction can change or can be changed over time; ii) it provides an alternative assessment of learners' discussion task improvements; iii) it impacts on the design of formative assessment resources that are sensitive to the learners' willingness to invest in language learning and their ever shifting language learning identities. From a theoretical standpoint, the utterance shows how formative assessment bridges the gap not just between teaching and learning, but also between post-structuralist notions of investment and identity and structuralist notions of language recycling and proceduralisation.

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Studying How To Study Kanji: A Practical Approach

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Abstract
One of the biggest challenges for Japanese language students is to effectively learn *kanji* (Chinese characters used in modern Japanese writing system). Therefore, teaching *kanji* becomes also one of the biggest challenges for Japanese teachers/professors. A variety of teaching methods has been developed in order to make this learning effective, i.e., pleasant, long-lasting and accurate. Some of them are the study of *kanji*'s *naritachi* (the elements they are composed of, as in Yoshimitsu's *Kanji no Naritachi Jiten* – "Dictionary of *kanji* origins" or "Dictionary of *kanji* composition" – and James Heisig's "Remembering the Kanji"), the study of *kanji* from context or by dividing them in semantic groups etc. Recently many computer programs and phone apps have been created not only for studying Japanese language but specifically for learning *kanji*. From the perspective of a Japanese language class to Brazilian Portuguese native speakers, the purpose of this brief work is to reflect on strategies on learning *kanji* in order to improve Japanese language classes and self-study practice.

Keywords: Kanji, learning strategy, self-study.

Introduction

The present work is motivated by Japanese language students in Brazil and their struggle in learning *kanji*, Chinese ideograms used in Japanese language. This paper is part of a beginning research project – named *Kanji no Kandan*, or "Pleasant conversations on *kanji*" – on how to more effectively learn and therefore how to teach *kanji*. It is aimed at analyzing frequent practices and at verifying possible strategies, in order to find what has and what has not been working for the purpose. Not being able to retain studied kanji is a common complaint from students all over Brazil and, as far as it is possible to see, the same scenario can be found regarding Japanese language students in other places of the world.

It all started from the researcher's own experience as a Japanese language student. I had my undergraduate studies on Japanese Language and Literature from 1995 to the year 2000 in Rio de Janeiro Federal University, Brazil. Unfortunately, I let my Japanese studies on second plan until 2010, when I started teaching Japanese at Amazonas Federal University. Having passed such a long time, it was not surprising that I didn't have the same proficiency, but it was worse than I could ever imagine. In fact, it was one of the most frustrating experiences I've ever had in my life. When I was reviewing my first lessons, it seemed that I hadn't lost much, but as long as I was going deeper and reaching the most difficult topics, I started wondering how I could have forgotten all that so quickly. I found in my treasured pieces of paper a speech I had written to participate in a Speech Contest. I couldn't read most of the ideograms I had written myself, I couldn't remember the words. Studying so hard for so long, repeating kanji over and over again – and it seemed to be almost totally lost.

Nevertheless, teaching Japanese makes one study even harder than he/she used to do as a student. It was common to hear from the students themselves they also didn't feel stimulated, because *kanji* seemed to be very hard to retain. One of them once told that in a given time of study life, it feels like learning two *kanji* and forgetting one, giving two steps forward and one backward. It is the teacher's role to tell students that it's perfectly normal to feel this way, so that at least there is a moving forward – and say *ganbatte kudasai*, "try to do your best", even though they feel it is being asked too much of them.

Notwithstanding, maybe it is not really normal to feel that it is too much struggle for not having a reasonable result. Searching for some information on the Internet, trying the sentences "how to learn kanji fast" and "how to learn kanji easily" was really surprising. There were many videos and tutorials whose title would promise, for instance, "How to learn kanji in three months" or "How to learn kanji fast and never forget them", and similar contents. However, most of the entries only give some basic tips, like "study at least one kanji every day", or "go to Japan and live there for at least one year". Some of the resources promised to make one learn *kanji* in a funny way. These were the most interesting ones, because most of them introduced *kanji* games, and it is known that game activities are popular among students from all countries and ages, no matter what subject they are studying. In spite of that, the games we found would not globally approach *kanji* – they would test meaning, reading, writing, stroke order and more rarely composing, but not all at the same action: the user was to choose one of the abilities to test at a time.

Back to classroom, there was an urge to find out what we – Japanese language teachers – have been doing wrong. If someone tells it is possible to learn 500 kanji within a month, for example, and one feels he is not able to do that, he is definitely doing something wrong. And here we have a huge misunderstanding point: people might have different expectations about what "learning kanji" really means. Maybe some understand that only knowing the readings, or maybe the most important, the meanings, is enough to consider it learning kanji. However, whenever I refer to "learning kanji" I mean learning stroke order, meaning, reading, context and radicals. Which perspective is the most accurate? Is the last one too severe, or the first one too condescended? Or none is appropriate? The fact is that students go to the University to become Japanese teachers and they suffer with the problem of graduating and yet not being able to read a newspaper article from Asahi Shinbun, for example.

Strategy awareness: what has been done wrong?

Starting from the need of rethinking the strategies of teaching/learning *kanji*, the quest for previous studies in which the same problem was being faced took place. An interesting article from R. H. Gamage, from the University of Wollongong, Australia, named "Perceptions of kanji learning strategies: Do they differ among Chinese character and alphabetic background learners?", brought some initial insights to the present research. Toyoda (as cited in Gamage, 2003) says that "it is during the intermediate stages that most learners from alphabetic backgrounds lose their interest and motivation for studying kanji, although they were interested during the initial stages" (p. 3).

This situation looks familiar to Brazilian students of the Japanese language: most of the students can be considered as having an intermediate level of Japanese language when they are about to graduate, and it is exactly the most critical step for their self-esteem: they wish they hadn't forgotten many *kanji*, they wish they could have had the chance of learning a lot more. Gamage (2003) also mentions Shimizu and Green's three types of conventional strategies to teach/learn kanji: rote, contextual and mnemonic or memory strategies (p. 3). Gamage (2003) writes that in his own research that "Learners with good performances have claimed frequent use of a wide variety of strategies and frequency of use was mostly considered as a determining factor for effectiveness of a strategy" (p.5). Curiously, in Gamage's research there was the following result: participants answered that "they tend to rely more on rote learning skills for retaining a new kanji. All participants very rarely use contextual skills and associating kanji with alphabets in order to remember the shape or pronunciation" (p. 10).

Considering that this article was led more than ten years ago in a University in Australia, it is to wonder: what about students in Brazil, in the years 2014/2015? What is going on with Brazilian students when they study kanji? What kind of strategy – or strategies – do they use? Are they aware of them? Then a poll was launched on the Internet, and information was collected – not really worrying if they were in University undergraduate courses or not. The poll opened on March and closed in April 15th 2015. From the results, we could notice that, just as Gamage's students, most of them rely on rote learning (63,27%).

Strategy for a tough subject

Last year an online course called *Learning How To Learn: Powerful Mental Tools To Help You Master Tough Subjects*, ministered by Terrence Sejnowski and Barbara Oakley, from Coursera.org, caught our attention. The risen interest was obvious, since *kanji* can be indeed considered a tough subject, but as we came to know the course was based mainly in a book called *A Mind For Numbers - How To Excel At Math And Science (Even If You Flunked Algebra),* by Barbara Oakley, it led to think that probably it wouldn't reach the target, which was to learn specifically *kanji*, not Mathematics. Anyway, we registered in the course and it was a very helpful experience. In this paper, some of the insights from the course that led to a reflection about strategies of studying and teaching *kanji* are shown.

The first insight is the difference between the focused and diffuse modes of learning. In the focused mode, the student is concentrated in the action of studying and no interruptions are allowed. Brain is committed to that moment and to digging in the contents one is studying. But concentration cannot last so long. Time of profitable concentration may vary in context, but definitely spending hours and hours without taking breaks does not make a more efficient study. On the other hand, there is the diffuse mode, when one is not really sitting at a desk, reading and writing, but doing something else (walking, surfing on the internet, talking to someone, relaxing, for example) and, underneath perception, the brain makes connections and we suddenly have an insight, a solution to a problem, or the expected comprehension of a difficult subject.

Which one is the best for learning more effectively? The answer seems to be both of them (Oakley, 2014, p. 26). We need the two of them in order to learn effectively. Most of the people must have already had the experience of focusing in finding a solution for a given problem, but it didn't come before a good night of sleep or a walk in a beautiful park, for instance. What happens is that the focused way is generally thought as the appropriate way of learning. Diffuse mode is usually taken for granted and, with so much effort and so little result, then comes procrastination, leaving *kanji* study for another time, because it is somehow painful, yet important. Steel (as cited in Oakley, 2014, p. 76) affirms that procrastination is for things that make people uncomfortable. It has been studied and proved through medical imaging studies: the pain centers of the brain light up when the person is doing something he/she doesn't like or doesn't want to.

Hence, different strategies should be used to make study (brain either on focused or diffuse mode) more dynamic – and this would very likely help avoid procrastination. Students in Gamage's research were not using many contextual or association (mnemonic) skills, but preferred rote learning. In our poll, students showed the same tendency. It is to wonder what the results would be if they all tried varying study strategies.

Shimizu and Green's types of strategies

Since it is a matter of strategy and the purpose of the paper is to study how to study *kanji*, it is necessary to bring back Shimizu and Green's three types of strategy on *kanji* learning, which are rote, contextual and mnemonic:

a) *rote learning* – based on repetition; it is still present in many language books and is mostly used by students who had a traditional approach background in their mother language or in other language studies.
b) *contextual* – based on a context, like the name leads to think: *kanji* is studied in a word, in an expression, in a sentence, in a text.
c) *mnemonic* – based on association and comparison techniques, in order to make it easier to memorize the *kanji*.

Approaching each one of them, some comments are necessary. Firstly, the word "repetition" might sound somewhat tedious, time-wasting, unattractive. Almost nobody would describe a good class as an environment in which people are simply repeating contents. But repetition is not only good: it is important. The problem remains on how it is done. If someone chooses to study 50 *kanji* in one afternoon by copying them twenty times each, for instance, he might remember them in the beginning of the night, but most of them will be forgotten by noon the day after and just some of them will be kept for a test the week after. It is important to have **spaced repetition**; otherwise, it won't have the same effect. Content must be studied in a day and reviewed constantly.

Repeating must be done for memorizing: but what kind of memory is being talked about? Oakley (2014, p. 46-47) reminds us that there are different kinds of memory: working memory and long-term memory. Students seem to be putting much effort in memorizing *kanji* keeping it in working memory, and it seems to be one of the reasons why *kanji* is so easily and quickly forgotten. As Oakley (2014) explains: "Working memory is the part of memory that has to do with what you are immediately and consciously processing in your mind. […] you need to maintain these memories actively; otherwise, your body will divert your energy elsewhere, and you'll forget the information you've taken in. In contrast, long-term memory might be thought of as a storage warehouse. Once items are in there, they generally stay put (p. 46-7)."

Spaced repetition is the way to settle information in long-term memory. Some good resources for helping students to memorize *kanji* are word flashcards, but recently apps like Anki©, Memrise© and others work just the same way – with the advantage that they can store much more information in a fast, accessible and light way, inside a cell phone.

In class, we have been trying to use what we called 「漢字のチャレンジ！」, "Kanji Challenge", small tests that usually have a theme (animals, family names, names of Japanese provinces etc.). As Barbara Oakley points out (2014, p. 210), testing yourself is one of the ten rules of good studying. Some students might not like the word *kanji* or *challenge* (or both together, sounding even more intimidating), but they respond positively to the exercise after it is done, even if they can't remember most of the ideograms. It helps them to become aware, before graduation, about how fast *kanji* can be forgotten when they are not seen very often.

Secondly, contextual strategies are important as well. Learning *kanji* from texts is obviously better than learning them alone. Just as varying strategies can prove to be the best one, varying types of texts can also help improve learning effectiveness. Studying *kanji* through lyrics or *manga* is not a new idea, but it has been turning good results. A teacher can ask the students to choose their favorite song, their favorite singer or band, and if they don't know any it can also be a good time to learn some Japanese culture, too. Other suggestion that can be easily put into practice is to download exercises based on *Kanji Kentei Shiken*, the *kanji* proficiency test (www.kanken.org). It can be a very good tool specially for intermediate and advanced learners. For example: imagine a simple fill-in-the-blanks exercise and a given sentence that has to be completed with the word *shika*. In Japanese, the word *shika* has different meanings, depending on the *kanji* that are used: 鹿 (deer), 歯科 (dentistry), 市価 (market price), 史家(historian). It is not just a matter of knowing how to read *kanji*, but also how to write it and, most importantly, knowing to what context it belongs.

Finally, mnemonic or memory strategy is based in associations and comparisons in order to better keep information by forming connections. Linking information is the better way to keep it, so it will not be lost in working memory, but appropriately stored in long-term memory.

The reason why I started studying Japanese was *kanji*, and I fell in love with *kanji* when a friend of mine taught me the first one, and she used the *naritachi* technique. The *naritachi* is based on explaining kanji through the elements that form them. This friend showed me the *kanji* for person (人) and told me it resembles the drawing of a person. She also showed me the *kanji* for tree (木) the drawing of a tree. And then she showed me the kanji of the word *yasumu* (休), which means "to rest". Thereafter I learned the *kanji* for the verb "to work" (働), *hataraku* in Japanese: a person, plus something heavy, plus physical strength. Then the problem came: *naritachi* will not make sense every time. What could be the explanation for the *kanji* for 紫(*murasaki*) "purple"? It has a footprint, a spoon and a thread. How does "purple" come from that? And the word 零(*rei*) "zero"? How can rain and orders make "zero"?

In the book *Remembering the Kanji*, the author James Heisig makes associations and even short stories from the elements in a kanji, so that it becomes easier to memorize it. In his book's introduction, Heisig writes (1997): "What makes forgetting the kanji so natural is their *lack of connection with normal patterns of visual memory.* We are used to hills and roads, to the faces of people and the skylines of cities, to flowers, animals, and the phenomena of nature. And while only a fraction of what we see is readily recalled, we are confident that, given proper attention, anything we choose to remember, we can. That confidence is lacking in the world of the kanji" (p. 1).

The idea went on further and it became a website: http://kanji.koohii.com. People from all around the world can share their stories/their associations to remember the *kanji*. It is really useful – and funny, most of the time. Only to illustrate the associations with some comments shared in the website, below there are two explanations for the words "purple" and "zero" mentioned above:

We know he ate that blueberry pie! We saw purple footsteps, leading to a purple spoon and purple stains on the threads of the tablecloth. (jameserb)

If you just rain orders on people, the chance any of it gets done is zero. (Zareon)

Dividing *kanji* in semantic groups is also related to mnemonic strategy. The book named *Gaikokujin no tame no imi kara manabu kanji*, or “Learning kanji through the meaning – for foreigners” is a good example of semantic division technique. The lessons are divided according to different semantic groups, i.e.: a lesson for parts of the body, a lesson for food, a lesson for religion, a lesson for colors and sounds so on. When studying a lesson, all *kanji* are linked through meaning; this link is supposed to improve the quality of mnemonic input. Although it can be used as a very empowering tool, it is hard to be used in basic or even intermediate levels, being more adequate to upper intermediate and advanced levels. When starting to learn a foreign language, words for everyday life and from varied semantic groups are immediately necessary.

Conclusion

This paper addressed strategies on learning *kanji* in order to improve Japanese language classes and self-study practice, from the perspective of a Japanese language class to Brazilian Portuguese native speakers. Strategy awareness (studying how to study) is advocated as the key to reflect on how some practices have been working and some others haven’t in order to improve learning/teaching *kanji*. Shimizu and Green’s (as cited in Gamage, 2003) types of kanji learning/teaching strategies – rote, contextual and mnemonic – served as a parameter to guide the reflections on what advantages and disadvantages some tools and resources have shown so far. Some insights from Oakley’s work (2014) were also used in this article, such as the danger of procrastination, how it works and how varying strategies can help avoiding it. Another insight is that in spite of the fact that repetition is good for learning, it has to be spaced; otherwise, information will not be transferred to the long-term memory, and by continuing in working memory, it can be easily discarded in a short time. Frequent testing is another way to transfer information to the long-term memory, since it is a form of spaced repetition. Contextualization and association are also useful to learn *kanji* linking them to context, semantic group or formation (*naritachi*). Finally, to vary strategies (rote, contextual, mnemonic) seems to be the best one.

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Enhancing Reading Ability through Vocabulary Learning and Reading Satisfaction of Grade Eight Thai Rural Students with Self- Made Stories of Virtue and Morality

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Abstract

Reading is the main English language skill mostly emphasized in all Thai educational levels. Therefore, the English's reading ability of Thai learners is highly expected despite the fact that most of them still lack this ability and need to be enhanced (Chawwang, 2008). Thus, to solve this problem, this study implemented "Self-Made Stories of Virtue and Morality" emphasizing fundamental vocabulary for lower secondary students based on Thai National English Core Curriculum with the following objectives: 1) to develop reading ability of grade eight rural students 2), to enhance their vocabulary learning, 3) to improve their satisfaction in learning new vocabulary through reading these selected stories. 36 students were purposively selected as the study samples at Ban Chumsang School, Office of Buriram Primary Educational Area Services 4, Office of the Basic Education Commission, Ministry of Education, Thailand. The research tools were pre/post tests of reading comprehension exercises, questionnaires, and tests of learning achievement. They were tried out three times in the similar groups of students in two relevant schools nearby. Quantitative data collected were presented in term of t-test (Dependent Sample), and percentage. The major findings showed that although both of students' vocabulary learning and their reading ability were averagely enhanced, they were significantly satisfied with learning new vocabulary through reading selected English Stories of Virtue and Morality. This clearly reflects that selected stories for creating satisfaction on English reading helps improve vocabulary learning and language acquisition (Loukia, 2006; Zugel, 2012).

Keywords: Reading ability, vocabulary learning, reading satisfaction, self-made stories of virtue and morality

1. Introduction

English language is a core course for all and the outcome is that they will be able to use the language for daily and internationally communication, regarding to Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC, 2008). The abilities in reading English are required for young Thai rural learners of English as foreign language (EFL), (OBEC, 2008). Despite the fact that most of them lack the reading competence to communicate or gain information from different types of sources (Noom-ura, 2013; Chawwang, 2008; Chomchaiya & Dunworth, 2008).

In addition, most of young Thai learners have negative attitude towards English learning (Noom-ura, 2013). Their imagination of English language is monster-like. This negative attitude hampers the motivations to learn and improve language ability (Noom-ura, 2013). Also, the opportunities to use the language are limited and they are unconfident when participating in English environment because they are afraid of losing face (Noom-ura, 2013).

Considering the results of the ordinary national educational test (O-NET) of all young Thai learners in Thailand, English subject was the lowest score of all subjects (Noom-ura, 2013). It seems a shortcoming regarding the objective of improving the learning achievements of Thai rural learners of English language. It raises the questions 'what happened and why? What should teachers do to help them improve their reading?'

Moreover, young Thai rural students are not eager to read perhaps because they have vocabulary limitation (Noom-ura, 2013; Chawwang, 2008; Chomchaiya & Dunworth; 2008). They are not able to read a word neither understand its meaning. As a result, they become poor readers in English as foreign language. The situation is worse since they lack the reading ability. Some students cannot read a single word. This has been considered the crucial problem of Thai rural learners of English and, for years, the researchers have been putting an effort to help improve the language learning and ability of Thai rural students; however, the increase has been small.

Several studies revealed the problems in learning English, particularly reading, of Thai learners (Noom-ura, 2013; Chawwang, 2008; Chomchaiya & Dunworth, 2008). However, more studies are still required on how to solve the problems and help improve language ability of young learners. It is necessary to improve the reading ability of Thai rural kids, so that they can acquire knowledge and be able to effectively communicate in the ASEAN community and in the 21st century. The present study was conducted in order to test the enhancing of reading ability of Thai rural learners through reading stories (Nomnian, 2013).

2. Review of Literature

Vocabulary learning is the centre of improving reading ability. Understanding vocabulary and its correct usage helps learners to read extensively and to permanently build up their reading ability. Based on this assumption, reading stories is administered to grade eight Thai rural students. This part reviews extensive reading, reading satisfaction and vocabulary learning, reading and language acquisition, and self-made stories and vocabulary learning.

2.1 Extensive reading: reading stories

Extensive reading includes reading stories, comic, news, and other materials that enable learners to read and study new vocabulary through context. It also helps learners to understand the correctly usage of the vocabulary. Collecting vocabulary will retain for the future retrieval (Mehring, 2005).

Reading stories is the type of extensive reading that is, according to many studies, effective in improving vocabulary learning and reading ability (Krashen, 2006; Wang, 2013; Loukia, 2006; Kickman, Pollard, & Vaughn, 2004; Zugel, 2012; Min & Hsu, 2008; Korte,n.d.). Examining the current situation in Chinese Universities, for teaching and learning how to read, Meng (2009) proved that extensive reading certainly improve reading competence as well as linguistic capabilities.

Free time reading in school is an alternative path of extensive reading, apart from reading traditional materials in classroom, that allows students to read other materials they are interested to. In a study about the reading of online materials for enhancing extensive reading of high school students done by Guo (2012) it is submitted that students' vocabulary and language acquisition were significantly increased with those practices. In addition to other studies employing reading stories with EFL students, Fojkarl, M.D., Skela, J., & Kovač, P. (2013) confirmed that reading helps to increase fluency in reading. The consequence of the study on reading fluency in EFL classroom through extensive reading of high school students in Japan also strongly confirmed that extensive reading effectively enable students to read more fluently (Iwahori, 2008).

2.2 Self-made stories and vocabulary learning

Self-made stories are the stories that the researcher created and developed as tools for improving students' extensive reading. Krashen states that poor readers need extra motivation to read (Krashen, 2013). Teachers should provide books and materials that are easy to read, understandable, attractive and interesting for learners, such as comic books, story books, and short stories with the consideration of learners' age and interests in order to provide what they really want to read (Krashen, 2013, 2006). Learners themselves were also allowed to select what they really want to read. It encourages enjoyable reading that can influence vocabulary learning and improving reading ability, as a result. This has been confirmed by some studies on suitable reading materials for students in different ages (Min & Hsu, 2008).

2.3 Reading satisfaction

Reading satisfaction refers to readers' happiness in reading. In other words, a reader read productive information pleasurably (Krashen 2006). Krashen (2006) points out that what fosters happiness in reading is reading material and readers' interests. It is so challenging and rewarding for readers to select interesting and comprehensible reading materials by themselves and read it. Because it is pleasant for them to enjoy what they have read. As a result, it is evidenced that self-selected readers become addicted to reading (Krashen, 2006; Wang, 2013).

In Nohora Inés, N. & González, P. Porras (2010), elementary students were allowed to create and read their own stories and that resulted in the increase of their participation and motivation in reading. Moreover, it is shown that students have learnt more new vocabulary.

It is important for teachers of EFL to organize and provide interesting materials or provide opportunities for learners to select reading material by themselves. This make learners feel great to read regarding their own interests, and this increase their motivation to read more: re-read or read other interesting materials, (Krashen, 2006; Wang, 2013). It is relevant to the suggestions of Chomchaiya and Dunworth (2008) on some effective factors that should be considered for increasing learner's reading motivation; interesting reading materials and classroom environment.

2.4 Reading and language acquisition

Learners of English as a foreign language acquire the language through different ways of learning, including both receptive and productive. Reading is one of the most effective ways in acquiring the language, particularly for EFL learners immerse in an environment where English is not spoken (Wang, 2013). Learners can learn vocabulary through reading. They have to memorize vocabulary and understand the story, particularly when they have to read and subsequently answer questions about what they have read (Krahen, 2013). In some situations, when learners do not comprehend a word, what they have to do is re-read and attempt to understand, thereby pushing them to acquire vocabulary and language in contexts or situations.

Vocabulary learning is important as a center of improving reading ability (Wang, 2013; Moeller, Ketman & Masmaliyeva, 2009) because it provides paths to access all forms of productive information. Learners of English as a foreign language are able to collect and store a new vocabulary through reading. This is consequent with Duke and Mosses (2003) that vocabulary learning is the basis for building up and developing reading ability.

Without learning a word, learners are unable to understand content in reading materials. However learning a single word alone does not help readers to comprehend what they read. Therefore, extensive reading is a combination of single vocabulary comprehension, usage and contextual comprehension (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006).

3. Research Methodology

This study is a quantitative research. It was conducted with the 36 Thai rural students of a public lower secondary school, under Buriram Primary Educational, Service Area Office 4, Office of Basic Educational Commission, Ministry of Education, Thailand. The main purpose is to help improve their reading ability, vocabulary learning and their satisfaction of learning the language through extensive reading. The research procedures cover the stories selection and making, tying out the stories, the use of the stories with the targeted students, collecting and analyzing data, and, at last, conclude the research.

3.1 Research Tools

The study used the following research tools to collect data: stories books, achievement test and questionnaire of satisfaction. Each story book contained reading comprehension exercises, pre-post tests and vocabulary lists. Stories illustrations were attached to each story which was relevant to its content. In addition, the lesson plans and learning behavior observation were also employed.

3.2 Stories selecting and developing

Firstly the researcher reviewed and analyzed the core curriculum of English language, to see what students have to learn and what ability they were required to have. It demonstrated students were required to have reading ability on different types of material, including, labels, newspaper, and stories (OBEC, 2008). Next, the researcher selected ten stories and developed it with the content integration of other subject matters, age, and student's interests. Each story has different content. Some teaching and morality were hidden at the end of the stories. This was to shape up behavior and moral thinking of the students. It was so called self-made "Stories of Virtue and Morality". Vocabulary used in the stories was selected according to the national corpora (OBEC, 2008). Each story book contained a story, comprehension exercises, pre-post tests and vocabulary lists. Stories illustrations were attached to each story with relevance to its content. All the stories, then, were brought to five education specialists for correcting and editing. Lastly, the story books were tested before they were employed into a classroom.

3.3 Trying out the stories

To increase reliability and validity of the story books, all of them were tested. There were, in total, 3 try outs. Each try out was done with different students from a different school of the school where the research was to be conducted. The first try out was "one to one testing" (1:1) and was made with three students (one good, one average and one weak student) selected according their result in previous study. It took two hours for students to read and do all the exercises, including pre-post tests. The first try out found that some parts of the stories were confusing, the vocabulary used was too difficult and the illustrations were not relevant to the stories. Those parts were adjusted to be suitable. The second try out was a "small group testing" with totally 9 students (3 good, 3 average, and 3 weak students). It was found they enjoyed the stories. The last try out was tested with the whole class of the students in a school in order to see if the self-made stories were suitable to be brought into classroom for improving the students' abilities regarding vocabulary learning and reading. The try out results showed that they were reliable and suitable to be employed into classroom.

3.4 Employing the stories in the classroom
The subjects were 36 lower secondary students of a public school in a remote area of Thailand. The experiment was conducted from 2nd January to 28th February 2013. Students had two hours to complete the whole activities provided with one story. Lesson plans were designed as a teacher manual for planning the classroom activities with explanations on how to use each story as a teaching material. In total there were 10 stories of virtue and morality.

The procedure of applying the stories in classroom was as follows. At the beginning, the whole class students took the pre achievement test (50 items) before they start to read every story. This was to discover the students' comprehension about the stories and vocabulary contained in all stories. Students were expected to learn and acquire the vocabulary through the reading of all the stories. After they completed the reading and studying of all stories the post achievement test was administered to them. The results of pre and post tests were compared to see if they have made any progress in reading comprehension.

The next step was reading stage. Before they started to read each story, they had to do the pre-test of each story. The outcome of the pre-test was collected in order to subsequently measure the improvement they would have made after they completed the reading and had done doing all exercises of each story. Then the students started to read the stories followed by exercises to review their understanding of vocabulary. This was to monitor their reading comprehension and help motivate them to actively concentrate on their vocabulary learning and reading. Finally, they had to do the post-test of the stories; again the result was collected to compare the progress of their reading ability. The students had to follow the learning reading stories mentioned earlier from the first to the last of the stories.

Classroom activities were well designed and planned to support the students learning. Apart from that, friends helped and facilitated each other during accomplishment of trial. Classroom learning environment was also another important factor encouraging students to read and enjoy the stories. It helped by motivating them to improve reading.

3.5 Data Collections and Analysis
The data were collected with the following tools: achievement tests, pre-post tests of each story, reading comprehension exercises, and satisfaction questionnaire. The data were analyzed by using percentage and average ($\bar{X}$) and S.D (Standard Deviation) and t-test.

4. Results of the Study

The findings of the study are presented in three parts: The efficiency and the effectiveness of the stories in helping improving vocabulary learning and reading ability, the comparison of the pre and posttest results, and the students' satisfaction of learning from the stories of virtue and morality.

4.1 Reading Ability
The research data in this part were collected from administering post-test of each stories and pre-post test of reading comprehension exercises. The result was presented below.

Table 1: Students' average score from doing exercises and post-test of each story and the achievement test

Stories	N	Full Scores	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Percentage
1. The Sufficiency Economy Village					
Exercises	36	10	9.06	1.04	90.56
Posttest	36	10	8.19	0.82	81.94
Total Scores	36	20	17.25	1.63	86.25
2. You Are What You Eat					
Exercises	36	10	8.86	0.96	88.61
Posttest	36	10	8.47	0.81	84.72
Total Scores	36	20	17.33	1.51	86.67
3. The Smart Bella and Billy					
Exercises	36	10	8.83	0.97	88.33
Posttest	36	10	8.19	0.75	81.94
Total Scores	36	20	17.03	1.52	85.14
4. The Magic Crystal					
Exercises	36	10	8.67	0.99	86.67
Posttest	36	10	8.28	0.88	82.78
Total Scores	36	20	16.94	1.53	84.72
5. Princess Angela					
Exercises	36	10	8.86	0.87	88.61
Posttest	36	10	8.64	0.93	86.39
Total Scores	36	20	17.50	1.63	87.50
6. The Colorful Pumpkins					
Exercises	36	10	9.33	0.99	93.33
Posttest	36	10	8.61	0.90	86.11
Total Scores	36	20	17.94	1.57	89.72
7. The Turtle and the Red Swan					
Exercises	36	10	8.78	0.93	87.78
Posttest	36	10	8.11	0.92	81.11
Total Scores	36	20	16.89	1.51	84.44
8. The Sweet Island					
Exercises	36	10	8.61	0.87	86.11
Posttest	36	10	8.25	0.97	82.50
Total Scores	36	20	16.86	1.48	84.31

Table 1 (Continue)

Stories	N	Full Scores	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Percentage
9. The Moth and the Coward Girl					
Exercises	36	10	8.72	1.00	87.22
Posttest	36	10	8.22	0.72	82.22
Total Scores	36	20	16.94	1.37	84.72
10. The Beggars' Daughter					
Exercises	36	10	9.00	0.83	90.00
Posttest	36	10	8.39	0.77	83.89
Total Scores	36	20	17.39	1.34	86.94
Total average scores	36	200	172.08	11.85	86.04
Achievement Test	36	50	44.19	2.32	88.39
The effectiveness of the stories in helping improving vocabulary learning and reading ability is 86.04/88.39.					

Table 1 illustrates the average score of the students in each exercise after reading the stories. The average score was 172.08 out of 200 marks or 86.04 percent. This was considered a highly outcome and reflected a high effectiveness of enhancing vocabulary learning and reading ability through reading stories. Similarly, the average score from doing achievement test was 44.19 out of 50 marks or 88.39 percent. It represented a good result of learning. It also reflected that students were able to read and understand the stories quiet well. They have learnt some new words and comprehend the stories pretty good. Thus, reading these self-made stories of virtue and morality can enhance vocabulary learning and reading ability. In other word, students developed reading competence through reading stories.

4.2 Vocabulary Learning

The data collected from administering pre-post test of test of reading achievement. The result of pre-test was compared to the result of post test of the achievement test and presented in the table 2 and 3 below.

Table 2: The percentage of the achievement test, average score and the efficiency of the stories

Tests	N	Total Scores (1,800 Points)	Percentage	E.I.
Pre-test	36	838	46.56	0.7827
Post-test	36	1,591	88.39	

According to the results shown in Table 2, the average score of the achievement test was at 46.56 percent for the pre-test. This is considered very low performance. The students might not understand the words in the stories they had read or they might have lacked reading ability, thus leading to the very unsatisfactory results of the pre-test. On the contrary, the post test score was at 88.39 percent. This shown that the students gained some improvement after they studied and learned vocabulary. It was assumed that students have re-read to better comprehend some new vocabulary in order to make a better results of exercises as was shown in the effectiveness index (E.I.) of 0.7827 or 78.27 percent.

Table 3: The Results of the achievement test

Samples	N	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	t
Pre-test	36	23.28	3.90	69.923**
Post-test	36	44.19	2.32	

Note ** with the significant level of .01 ($_{.01}t_{35}$ = 2.4366)

Table 3 presents the average score of the achievement test of the 36 students. It compares average score of the test done before and after the self-made stories were employed in their practice. The result of the pre-test was very low with the average of 23.28 out of 50 marks. The post-test average score was obviously increased at 44.19 out of 50 marks. This can be interpreted in the sense that the students have significantly improved their vocabulary learning and reading ability through self-male stories of virtue and morality.

4.3 Reading Satisfaction

This result gained from distributing a questionnaire of satisfaction on reading stories to the students after they have read all the stories provided during the study. There were 30 questions about the reading and learning vocabulary through reading self-made stories. The questionnaire consisted of 5 rating scales of satisfaction: 1-5 for the lowest, low, moderate, high, and the highest respectively. The results are presented below.

Table 4 Students' satisfaction on stories in enhancing vocabulary learning and reading ability

Items	Questions	Students' satisfaction		
		$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Level of satisfaction
1	A story book is boring reading material.	4.47	0.51	high
2	I like to read stories.	4.36	0.49	high
3	I think the content of the stories should been reduced.	4.42	0.50	high
4	A story books useful to improve reading.	4.69	0.52	highest
5	I am confused when reading a story.	4.58	0.55	highest
6	Reading stories can help promote reading fluency.	4.83	0.38	highest
7	I feel lonely when reading stories.	4.36	0.49	high
8	I feel happy and relaxed when reading.	4.72	0.45	highest
9	I feel stressful when reading stories.	4.39	0.49	high
10	I always focus on reading stories.	4.97	0.17	highest
11	These stories are attractive and interesting.	4.50	0.61	highest
12	I can learn vocabulary from reading stories.	4.36	0.49	high
13	Learning from reading is process learning.	4.67	0.48	highest
14	I feel pleasant when reading a story.	4.81	0.40	highest
15	I do not want to learn from reading.	4.28	0.45	high

Table 4 Students' satisfaction on stories in enhancing vocabulary learning and reading ability (Continue)

Items	Questions	Students' satisfaction		
		$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Level of satisfaction
16	Reading a story can help improve my language.	4.97	0.17	highest
17	Reading a story is an old style of learning.	4.39	0.49	high
18	A story book is understandable.	4.56	0.50	highest
19	A story book is a suitable reading material.	4.75	0.44	highest
20	It is worth reading a story.	4.42	0.50	high
21	A story book is a useful material.	4.64	0.49	highest
22	Reading can help me understand vocabulary better.	4.72	0.45	highest
23	I want to read these stories again if I have time.	4.58	0.55	highest
24	Story books reinforce me to learn better.	4.58	0.50	highest
25	Reading makes me become a fast learner.	4.72	0.45	highest
26	I want to learn vocabulary from reading.	4.67	0.48	highest
27	I love to participate in reading activities.	4.33	0.48	high
28	Reading make me become loving to learn a language.	4.81	0.40	highest
29	Reading encourages me to have problem solving skill.	4.75	0.44	highest
30	I have a lot of fun reading the stories.	4.39	0.64	high
	Total/Average	**4.59**	**0.19**	**highest**

Regarding Table 4, students were very satisfied with learning the language through reading stories with the average level of satisfaction at 4.59 out of 5.00. This reflects that the stories employed in improving reading ability were helpful. Moreover, the students had fun and enjoyed to read the stories, however, the results shown some negative attitudes as highly as positive attitudes towards reading the stories. Students strongly commented that story books are boring at 4.47 of the average levels of satisfaction. They said the content of the stories should have been cut down. This can be implied that the vocabulary used in the stories were too difficult for them to be able to comprehend. When they did not understand what they read, they could not enjoy the stories. Considering the positive opinion on reading stories, it found that students were happy to read. They found story books enhanced them to become a better reader. It supported that reading stories help motivate vocabulary learning and improve reading competence.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Reading ability is an important receptive skill in learning a language. Lack\ of this ability might cause ineffective reception of information or failure of understanding. Vocabulary is the fundamental factor to comprehend a text.

Reading stories can encourage students to learn vocabulary that leads to understand the language. To discover whether or not readers can understand what they have read, questions were given to readers. It is acceptable that if a reader correctly answers the questions, it can be assumed that he had learnt vocabulary and he has reading ability (Wang, 2013). Questioning helps to encourage readers that are attempting to learn and to understand the vocabulary, including grammar and language in situations.

Reading with pleasure is considered the most appropriate way to enhance a poor reader to be a better reader (Krashen, 2006). Reading materials is another factor that plays an important role in promoting vocabulary learning and reading competence. Interesting and comprehensible reading materials regarding to readers' ages and their own interests are best suitable to motivate students to read. Readers should have opportunities to select reading materials they want to read by themselves, as well as, teachers should provide varieties of reading information for them.

In conclusion, the way of extensive reading that consists in reading stories effectively improves vocabulary learning. Moreover, reading interesting and understandable information promotes the reader's happiness and pleasure. Through the reading of enjoyable, interesting and comprehensible materials the reader can pleasantly gain new vocabulary and knowledge (Krahen, 2006). The retention of what he has learnt lasts life-long and is retrievable in the future usage. Apart from learning vocabulary through reading, the reader might also acquire contextual and grammatical language. This is strongly supported by many studies. Hence, to help learners of English as a foreign language, the materials provided to read should be attractive and interesting for them, in the overall context of the organization of a suitable and relaxing classroom environment for students.

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Enhancing Reading Ability through Vocabulary Learning and Reading Satisfaction of Grade Eight Thai Rural Students with Self- Made Stories of Virtue and Morality

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Abstract
Reading is the main English language skill mostly emphasized in all Thai educational levels. Therefore, the English's reading ability of Thai learners is highly expected despite the fact that most of them still lack this ability and need to be enhanced (Chawwang, 2008). Thus, to solve this problem, this study implemented "Self-Made Stories of Virtue and Morality" emphasizing fundamental vocabulary for lower secondary students based on Thai National English Core Curriculum with the following objectives: 1) to develop reading ability of grade eight rural students 2), to enhance their vocabulary learning, 3) to improve their satisfaction in learning new vocabulary through reading these selected stories. 36 students were purposively selected as the study samples at Ban Chumsang School, Office of Buriram Primary Educational Area Services 4, Office of the Basic Education Commission, Ministry of Education, Thailand. The research tools were pre/post tests of reading comprehension exercises, questionnaires, and tests of learning achievement. They were tried out three times in the similar groups of students in two relevant schools nearby. Quantitative data collected were presented in term of t-test (Dependent Sample), and percentage. The major findings showed that although both of students' vocabulary learning and their reading ability were averagely enhanced, they were significantly satisfied with learning new vocabulary through reading selected English Stories of Virtue and Morality. This clearly reflects that selected stories for creating satisfaction on English reading helps improve vocabulary learning and language acquisition (Loukia, 2006; Zugel, 2012).

Keywords: Reading ability, vocabulary learning, reading satisfaction, self-made stories of virtue and morality

1. Introduction

English language is a core course for all and the outcome is that they will be able to use the language for daily and internationally communication, regarding to Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC, 2008). The abilities in reading English are required for young Thai rural learners of English as foreign language (EFL), (OBEC, 2008). Despite the fact that most of them lack the reading competence to communicate or gain information from different types of sources (Noom-ura, 2013; Chawwang, 2008; Chomchaiya & Dunworth, 2008).

In addition, most of young Thai learners have negative attitude towards English learning (Noom-ura, 2013). Their imagination of English language is monster-like. This negative attitude hampers the motivations to learn and improve language ability (Noom-ura, 2013). Also, the opportunities to use the language are limited and they are unconfident when participating in English environment because they are afraid of losing face (Noom-ura, 2013).

Considering the results of the ordinary national educational test (O-NET) of all young Thai learners in Thailand, English subject was the lowest score of all subjects (Noom-ura, 2013). It seems a shortcoming regarding the objective of improving the learning achievements of Thai rural learners of English language. It raises the questions 'what happened and why? What should teachers do to help them improve their reading?'

Moreover, young Thai rural students are not eager to read perhaps because they have vocabulary limitation (Noom-ura, 2013; Chawwang, 2008; Chomchaiya & Dunworth; 2008). They are not able to read a word neither understand its meaning. As a result, they become poor readers in English as foreign language. The situation is worse since they lack the reading ability. Some students cannot read a single word. This has been considered the crucial problem of Thai rural learners of English and, for years, the researchers have been putting an effort to help improve the language learning and ability of Thai rural students; however, the increase has been small.

Several studies revealed the problems in learning English, particularly reading, of Thai learners (Noom-ura, 2013; Chawwang, 2008; Chomchaiya & Dunworth, 2008). However, more studies are still required on how to solve the problems and help improve language ability of young learners. It is necessary to improve the reading ability of Thai rural kids, so that they can acquire knowledge and be able to effectively communicate in the ASEAN community and in the 21st century. The present study was conducted in order to test the enhancing of reading ability of Thai rural learners through reading stories (Nomnian, 2013).

2. Review of Literature

Vocabulary learning is the centre of improving reading ability. Understanding vocabulary and its correct usage helps learners to read extensively and to permanently build up their reading ability. Based on this assumption, reading stories is administered to grade eight Thai rural students. This part reviews extensive reading, reading satisfaction and vocabulary learning, reading and language acquisition, and self-made stories and vocabulary learning.

2.1 Extensive reading: reading stories
Extensive reading includes reading stories, comic, news, and other materials that enable learners to read and study new vocabulary through context. It also helps learners to understand the correctly usage of the vocabulary. Collecting vocabulary will retain for the future retrieval (Mehring, 2005).

Reading stories is the type of extensive reading that is, according to many studies, effective in improving vocabulary learning and reading ability (Krashen, 2006; Wang, 2013; Loukia, 2006; Kickman, Pollard, & Vaughn, 2004; Zugel, 2012; Min & Hsu, 2008; Korte,n.d.(. Examining the current situation in Chinese Universities, for teaching and learning how to read, Meng (2009) proved that extensive reading certainly improve reading competence as well as linguistic capabilities.

Free time reading in school is an alternative path of extensive reading, apart from reading traditional materials in classroom, that allows students to read other materials they are interested to. In a study about the reading of online materials for enhancing extensive reading of high school students done by Guo (2012) it is submitted that students' vocabulary and language acquisition were significantly increased with those practices. In addition to other studies employing reading stories with EFL students, Fojkarl, M.D., Skela, J., & Kovač, P. (2013) confirmed that reading helps to increase fluency in reading. The consequence of the study on reading fluency in EFL classroom through extensive reading of high school students in Japan also strongly confirmed that extensive reading effectively enable students to read more fluently (Iwahori, 2008).

2.2 Self-made stories and vocabulary learning
Self-made stories are the stories that the researcher created and developed as tools for improving students' extensive reading. Krashen states that poor readers need extra motivation to read (Krashen, 2013). Teachers should provide books and materials that are easy to read, understandable, attractive and interesting for learners, such as comic books, story books, and short stories with the consideration of learners' age and interests in order to provide what they really want to read (Krashen, 2013, 2006). Learners themselves were also allowed to select what they really want to read. It encourages enjoyable reading that can influence vocabulary learning and improving reading ability, as a result. This has been confirmed by some studies on suitable reading materials for students in different ages (Min & Hsu, 2008).

2.3 Reading satisfaction
Reading satisfaction refers to readers' happiness in reading. In other words, a reader read productive information pleasurably (Krashen 2006). Krashen (2006) points out that what fosters happiness in reading is reading material and readers' interests. It is so challenging and rewarding for readers to select interesting and comprehensible reading materials by themselves and read it. Because it is pleasant for them to enjoy what they have read. As a result, it is evidenced that self-selected readers become addicted to reading (Krashen, 2006; Wang, 2013).

In Nohora Inés, N. & González, P. Porras (2010), elementary students were allowed to create and read their own stories and that resulted in the increase of their participation and motivation in reading. Moreover, it is shown that students have learnt more new vocabulary.

It is important for teachers of EFL to organize and provide interesting materials or provide opportunities for learners to select reading material by themselves. This make learners feel great to read regarding their own interests, and this increase their motivation to read more: re-read or read other interesting materials, (Krashen, 2006; Wang, 2013). It is relevant to the suggestions of Chomchaiya and Dunworth (2008) on some effective factors that should be considered for increasing learner's reading motivation; interesting reading materials and classroom environment.

2.4 Reading and language acquisition
Learners of English as a foreign language acquire the language through different ways of learning, including both receptive and productive. Reading is one of the most effective ways in acquiring the language, particularly for EFL learners immerse in an environment where English is not spoken (Wang, 2013). Learners can learn vocabulary through reading. They have to memorize vocabulary and understand the story, particularly when they have to read and subsequently answer questions about what they have read (Krahen, 2013). In some situations, when learners do not comprehend a word, what they have to do is re-read and attempt to understand, thereby pushing them to acquire vocabulary and language in contexts or situations.

Vocabulary learning is important as a center of improving reading ability (Wang, 2013; Moeller, Ketman & Masmaliyeva, 2009) because it provides paths to access all forms of productive information. Learners of English as a foreign language are able to collect and store a new vocabulary through reading. This is consequent with Duke and Mosses (2003) that vocabulary learning is the basis for building up and developing reading ability.

Without learning a word, learners are unable to understand content in reading materials. However learning a single word alone does not help readers to comprehend what they read. Therefore, extensive reading is a combination of single vocabulary comprehension, usage and contextual comprehension (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006).

3. Research Methodology

This study is a quantitative research. It was conducted with the 36 Thai rural students of a public lower secondary school, under Buriram Primary Educational, Service Area Office 4, Office of Basic Educational Commission, Ministry of Education, Thailand. The main purpose is to help improve their reading ability, vocabulary learning and their satisfaction of learning the language through extensive reading. The research procedures cover the stories selection and making, tying out the stories, the use of the stories with the targeted students, collecting and analyzing data, and, at last, conclude the research.

3.1 Research Tools
The study used the following research tools to collect data: stories books, achievement test and questionnaire of satisfaction. Each story book contained reading comprehension exercises, pre-post tests and vocabulary lists. Stories illustrations were attached to each story which was relevant to its content. In addition, the lesson plans and learning behavior observation were also employed.

3.2 Stories selecting and developing
Firstly the researcher reviewed and analyzed the core curriculum of English language, to see what students have to learn and what ability they were required to have. It demonstrated students were required to have reading ability on different types of material, including, labels, newspaper, and stories (OBEC, 2008). Next, the researcher selected ten stories and developed it with the content integration of other subject matters, age, and student's interests. Each story has different content. Some teaching and morality were hidden at the end of the stories. This was to shape up behavior and moral thinking of the students. It was so called self-made "Stories of Virtue and Morality". Vocabulary used in the stories was selected according to the national corpora (OBEC, 2008). Each story book contained a story, comprehension exercises, pre-post tests and vocabulary lists. Stories illustrations were attached to each story with relevance to its content. All the stories, then, were brought to five education specialists for correcting and editing. Lastly, the story books were tested before they were employed into a classroom.

3.3 Trying out the stories
To increase reliability and validity of the story books, all of them were tested. There were, in total, 3 try outs. Each try out was done with different students from a different school of the school where the research was to be conducted. The first try out was "one to one testing" (1:1) and was made with three students (one good, one average and one weak student) selected according their result in previous study. It took two hours for students to read and do all the exercises, including pre-post tests. The first try out found that some parts of the stories were confusing, the vocabulary used was too difficult and the illustrations were not relevant to the stories. Those parts were adjusted to be suitable. The second try out was a "small group testing" with totally 9 students (3 good, 3 average, and 3 weak students). It was found they enjoyed the stories. The last try out was tested with the whole class of the students in a school in order to see if the self-made stories were suitable to be brought into classroom for improving the students' abilities regarding vocabulary learning and reading. The try out results showed that they were reliable and suitable to be employed into classroom.

3.4 Employing the stories in the classroom

The subjects were 36 lower secondary students of a public school in a remote area of Thailand. The experiment was conducted from 2nd January to 28th February 2013. Students had two hours to complete the whole activities provided with one story. Lesson plans were designed as a teacher manual for planning the classroom activities with explanations on how to use each story as a teaching material. In total there were 10 stories of virtue and morality.

The procedure of applying the stories in classroom was as follows. At the beginning, the whole class students took the pre achievement test (50 items) before they start to read every story. This was to discover the students' comprehension about the stories and vocabulary contained in all stories. Students were expected to learn and acquire the vocabulary through the reading of all the stories. After they completed the reading and studying of all stories the post achievement test was administered to them. The results of pre and post tests were compared to see if they have made any progress in reading comprehension.

The next step was reading stage. Before they started to read each story, they had to do the pre-test of each story. The outcome of the pre-test was collected in order to subsequently measure the improvement they would have made after they completed the reading and had done doing all exercises of each story. Then the students started to read the stories followed by exercises to review their understanding of vocabulary. This was to monitor their reading comprehension and help motivate them to actively concentrate on their vocabulary learning and reading. Finally, they had to do the post-test of the stories; again the result was collected to compare the progress of their reading ability. The students had to follow the learning reading stories mentioned earlier from the first to the last of the stories.

Classroom activities were well designed and planned to support the students learning. Apart from that, friends helped and facilitated each other during accomplishment of trial. Classroom learning environment was also another important factor encouraging students to read and enjoy the stories. It helped by motivating them to improve reading.

3.5 Data Collections and Analysis

The data were collected with the following tools: achievement tests, pre-post tests of each story, reading comprehension exercises, and satisfaction questionnaire. The data were analyzed by using percentage and average ($\overline{X}$) and S.D (Standard Deviation) and t-test.

4. Results of the Study

The findings of the study are presented in three parts: The efficiency and the effectiveness of the stories in helping improving vocabulary learning and reading ability, the comparison of the pre and posttest results, and the students' satisfaction of learning from the stories of virtue and morality.

4.1 Reading Ability

The research data in this part were collected from administering post-test of each stories and pre-post test of reading comprehension exercises. The result was presented below.

Table 1: Students' average score from doing exercises and post-test of each story and the achievement test

Stories	N	Full Scores	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Percentage
1. The Sufficiency Economy Village					
Exercises	36	10	9.06	1.04	90.56
Posttest	36	10	8.19	0.82	81.94
Total Scores	36	20	17.25	1.63	86.25
2. You Are What You Eat					
Exercises	36	10	8.86	0.96	88.61
Posttest	36	10	8.47	0.81	84.72
Total Scores	36	20	17.33	1.51	86.67
3. The Smart Bella and Billy					
Exercises	36	10	8.83	0.97	88.33
Posttest	36	10	8.19	0.75	81.94
Total Scores	36	20	17.03	1.52	85.14
4. The Magic Crystal					
Exercises	36	10	8.67	0.99	86.67
Posttest	36	10	8.28	0.88	82.78
Total Scores	36	20	16.94	1.53	84.72
5. Princess Angela					
Exercises	36	10	8.86	0.87	88.61
Posttest	36	10	8.64	0.93	86.39
Total Scores	36	20	17.50	1.63	87.50
6. The Colorful Pumpkins					
Exercises	36	10	9.33	0.99	93.33
Posttest	36	10	8.61	0.90	86.11
Total Scores	36	20	17.94	1.57	89.72
7. The Turtle and the Red Swan					
Exercises	36	10	8.78	0.93	87.78
Posttest	36	10	8.11	0.92	81.11
Total Scores	36	20	16.89	1.51	84.44
8. The Sweet Island					
Exercises	36	10	8.61	0.87	86.11
Posttest	36	10	8.25	0.97	82.50
Total Scores	36	20	16.86	1.48	84.31

Table 1 (Continue)

Stories	N	Full Scores	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Percentage
9. The Moth and the Coward Girl					
Exercises	36	10	8.72	1.00	87.22
Posttest	36	10	8.22	0.72	82.22
Total Scores	36	20	16.94	1.37	84.72
10. The Beggars' Daughter					
Exercises	36	10	9.00	0.83	90.00
Posttest	36	10	8.39	0.77	83.89
Total Scores	36	20	17.39	1.34	86.94
Total average scores	36	200	172.08	11.85	86.04
Achievement Test	36	50	44.19	2.32	88.39
The effectiveness of the stories in helping improving vocabulary learning and reading ability is 86.04/88.39.					

Table 1 illustrates the average score of the students in each exercise after reading the stories. The average score was 172.08 out of 200 marks or 86.04 percent. This was considered a highly outcome and reflected a high effectiveness of enhancing vocabulary learning and reading ability through reading stories. Similarly, the average score from doing achievement test was 44.19 out of 50 marks or 88.39 percent. It represented a good result of learning. It also reflected that students were able to read and understand the stories quiet well. They have learnt some new words and comprehend the stories pretty good. Thus, reading these self-made stories of virtue and morality can enhance vocabulary learning and reading ability. In other word, students developed reading competence through reading stories.

4.2 Vocabulary Learning

The data collected from administering pre-post test of test of reading achievement. The result of pre-test was compared to the result of post test of the achievement test and presented in the table 2 and 3 below.

Table 2: The percentage of the achievement test, average score and the efficiency of the stories

Tests	N	Total Scores (1,800 Points(	Percentage	E.I.
Pre-test	36	838	46.56	0.7827
Post-test	36	1,591	88.39	

According to the results shown in Table 2, the average score of the achievement test was at 46.56 percent for the pre-test. This is considered very low performance. The students might not understand the words in the stories they had read or they might have lacked reading ability, thus leading to the very unsatisfactory results of the pre-test. On the contrary, the post test score was at 88.39 percent. This shown that the students gained some improvement after they studied and learned vocabulary. It was assumed that students have re-read to better comprehend some new vocabulary in order to make a better results of exercises as was shown in the effectiveness index (E.I.) of 0.7827 or 78.27 percent.

Table 3: The Results of the achievement test

Samples	N	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	t
Pre-test	36	23.28	3.90	69.923**
Post-test	36	44.19	2.32	

Note ** with the significant level of .01 ($_{.01}t_{35}$ = 2.4366)

Table 3 presents the average score of the achievement test of the 36 students. It compares average score of the test done before and after the self-made stories were employed in their practice. The result of the pre-test was very low with the average of 23.28 out of 50 marks. The post-test average score was obviously increased at 44.19 out of 50 marks. This can be interpreted in the sense that the students have significantly improved their vocabulary learning and reading ability through self-male stories of virtue and morality.

4.3 Reading Satisfaction

This result gained from distributing a questionnaire of satisfaction on reading stories to the students after they have read all the stories provided during the study. There were 30 questions about the reading and learning vocabulary through reading self-made stories. The questionnaire consisted of 5 rating scales of satisfaction: 1-5 for the lowest, low, moderate, high, and the highest respectively. The results are presented below.

Table 4 Students' satisfaction on stories in enhancing vocabulary learning and reading ability

Items	Questions	Students' satisfaction		
		$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Level of satisfaction
1	A story book is boring reading material.	4.47	0.51	high
2	I like to read stories.	4.36	0.49	high
3	I think the content of the stories should been reduced.	4.42	0.50	high
4	A story books useful to improve reading.	4.69	0.52	highest
5	I am confused when reading a story.	4.58	0.55	highest
6	Reading stories can help promote reading fluency.	4.83	0.38	highest
7	I feel lonely when reading stories.	4.36	0.49	high
8	I feel happy and relaxed when reading.	4.72	0.45	highest
9	I feel stressful when reading stories.	4.39	0.49	high
10	I always focus on reading stories.	4.97	0.17	highest
11	These stories are attractive and interesting.	4.50	0.61	highest
12	I can learn vocabulary from reading stories.	4.36	0.49	high
13	Learning from reading is process learning.	4.67	0.48	highest
14	I feel pleasant when reading a story.	4.81	0.40	highest
15	I do not want to learn from reading.	4.28	0.45	high

Table 4 Students' satisfaction on stories in enhancing vocabulary learning and reading ability (Continue)

Items	Questions	Students' satisfaction		
		$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Level of satisfaction
16	Reading a story can help improve my language.	4.97	0.17	highest
17	Reading a story is an old style of learning.	4.39	0.49	high
18	A story book is understandable.	4.56	0.50	highest
19	A story book is a suitable reading material.	4.75	0.44	highest
20	It is worth reading a story.	4.42	0.50	high
21	A story book is a useful material.	4.64	0.49	highest
22	Reading can help me understand vocabulary better.	4.72	0.45	highest
23	I want to read these stories again if I have time.	4.58	0.55	highest
24	Story books reinforce me to learn better.	4.58	0.50	highest
25	Reading makes me become a fast learner.	4.72	0.45	highest
26	I want to learn vocabulary from reading.	4.67	0.48	highest
27	I love to participate in reading activities.	4.33	0.48	high
28	Reading make me become loving to learn a language.	4.81	0.40	highest
29	Reading encourages me to have problem solving skill.	4.75	0.44	highest
30	I have a lot of fun reading the stories.	4.39	0.64	high
	Total/Average	**4.59**	**0.19**	**highest**

Regarding Table 4, students were very satisfied with learning the language through reading stories with the average level of satisfaction at 4.59 out of 5.00. This reflects that the stories employed in improving reading ability were helpful. Moreover, the students had fun and enjoyed to read the stories, however, the results shown some negative attitudes as highly as positive attitudes towards reading the stories. Students strongly commented that story books are boring at 4.47 of the average levels of satisfaction. They said the content of the stories should have been cut down. This can be implied that the vocabulary used in the stories were too difficult for them to be able to comprehend. When they did not understand what they read, they could not enjoy the stories. Considering the positive opinion on reading stories, it found that students were happy to read. They found story books enhanced them to become a better reader. It supported that reading stories help motivate vocabulary learning and improve reading competence.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Reading ability is an important receptive skill in learning a language. Lack\ of this ability might cause ineffective reception of information or failure of understanding. Vocabulary is the fundamental factor to comprehend a text.

Reading stories can encourage students to learn vocabulary that leads to understand the language. To discover whether or not readers can understand what they have read, questions were given to readers. It is acceptable that if a reader correctly answers the questions, it can be assumed that he had learnt vocabulary and he has reading ability (Wang, 2013). Questioning helps to encourage readers that are attempting to learn and to understand the vocabulary, including grammar and language in situations.

Reading with pleasure is considered the most appropriate way to enhance a poor reader to be a better reader (Krashen, 2006). Reading materials is another factor that plays an important role in promoting vocabulary learning and reading competence. Interesting and comprehensible reading materials regarding to readers' ages and their own interests are best suitable to motivate students to read. Readers should have opportunities to select reading materials they want to read by themselves, as well as, teachers should provide varieties of reading information for them.

In conclusion, the way of extensive reading that consists in reading stories effectively improves vocabulary learning. Moreover, reading interesting and understandable information promotes the reader's happiness and pleasure. Through the reading of enjoyable, interesting and comprehensible materials the reader can pleasantly gain new vocabulary and knowledge (Krahen, 2006). The retention of what he has learnt lasts life-long and is retrievable in the future usage. Apart from learning vocabulary through reading, the reader might also acquire contextual and grammatical language. This is strongly supported by many studies. Hence, to help learners of English as a foreign language, the materials provided to read should be attractive and interesting for them, in the overall context of the organization of a suitable and relaxing classroom environment for students.

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Integrated Teaching Strategy in the Reading Classroom

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Abstract
Integration in language instruction still remains an elusive, if not an impossible, goal. In describing integrated literacy instruction, Shanahan (1997) writes: “Given the long history and nearly universal acceptance of the idea of integration, there have been few empirical investigations of its effects. I have been able to identify no study, in any field with any age level, which has clearly demonstrated more coherent or deeper understandings, or better applicability of learning as a result of integration" (p. 15). One possible cause could be that research on ESL as well as classroom teachers have focused attention on the larger, rather than the narrower and more important aspects of instruction. Many have emphasized the importance of the interrelationships among the language arts. For example, Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and Smith (1997) argue that an integrated approach helps young children see that what they learn in one domain can transfer to another. Many other researches have been conducted in pursuit of similar goals. This paper assumes that if we are to be successful in a larger context of integration, such as an integrated program level and transfer of learning as a result of integration, we need to look at the smaller context such as integration of related skill in every academic subject in school. This paper will discuss an evidence-based and practical classroom strategy that enhances the integration of Reading skills by creating experiences that enhance learning. The paper aims to answer the following pedagogical questions in the context of cooperative learning environment. How can integration be achieved in the context of classroom Reading. How does transfer of skills assist in an effective integration of reading skills to enhance learning.

Keywords: integrated skills, reading instruction, creative learning experience

Introduction

Reading in the classroom has remained one of the most difficult aspects of second or foreign language instruction especially with the advent of visuals in media technology. Online communication, which is flooded by colors, visuals and sounds, continues to eat up a lot of students' time and continues to compete with essential reading time. Despite rapid advancement in other areas of communication, skillful reading remains in education and is highly rewarded in modern society. Advances in Second Language Reading research have brought attention to the complex array of skills which constitute L2 reading proficiency as to issues surrounding the development of reading proficiency.

This paper introduces a Reading Strategy the speaker has been using in the classroom, an activity that uses the integrated skills approach. The integrated skills approach allows student interaction and participation in the Reading process and makes possible the transfer of learning skills from reading to communication which is the end goal of language learning.

Reading is an Active Skill

Since Lado's categorization of the language skills into either passive or active, Reading has been identified as a passive skill – despite counter arguments thrown against it. This paper argues that Reading, as a classroom activity, is not a passive skill because of the fact that students constantly interact with the written text. It involves a number of micro and macro skills that allows the student to interact with the printed material in order for comprehension to occur. Here are some examples of the micro skills of Reading: ① figure out the meaning of words、②acquire vocabulary、③pick out key words in the text、and ④get the main idea from the information: Comprehension is a cognitive process. Some macro reading skills include ①recognizing rhetorical forms of written discourse for interpretation, ②inferring context that is not explicitly by using background knowledge, and ③inferring links and connections from described events, establishing relationships, cause and effects and several other cognitive activities.

In addition to these, a summary of the five essential components of Reading reminds us of the complexity of tasks Reading demands of the students. First, Reading requires phonemic awareness, the knowledge and manipulation of sounds in spoken words.

Reading for comprehension also requires Phonics, the relationship between written and spoken letters and sounds. Furthermore there is the problem of Reading fluency including oral reading skills. The problem of poor comprehension is usually a result of the students' ability to read with accuracy, with appropriate rate, expression, and phrasing. For the students to interact with the printed material, the knowledge of words is very essential. Vocabulary development therefore is essential in reading; it is not just knowledge of words and their definitions. More importantly, it is the ability to use a stock of words and their context into every reading situation that is the stepping stone of a good comprehension. Reading skills, therefore, are specific abilities that enable a reader to read the written form as a meaningful language. We also allow for reading any printed material written with independence, comprehension and fluency. In so doing, the students mentally interact with the message. In lieu of this, the act of reading cannot be considered a passive activity.

Reading and the Tapestry of Language Learning

At this point it is important to mention one important concept of second/ foreign language teaching. One image associated for teaching English as a second or foreign language is that of a tapestry (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). The tapestry of language learning is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting or learning condition, and the conditions for relevant languages (i.e., English and the native languages of the learners and the teacher). The learner creates the second language much as the weaver creates the tapestry. The learners' needs and purposes are fundamental to the development of the learner's language just as the weaver's needs and purposes. For the instructional loom to produce a large, strong, beautiful, colorful tapestry, all of these strands must be interwoven in positive ways. For example, the instructor's teaching style must address the learning style of the learner, the learner must be motivated, and the setting must provide resources and values that strongly support the teaching of the language. However, if the strands are not woven together effectively, the instructional loom is likely to produce something weak, ragged, and unattractive, not recognizable as a tapestry at all. If this weaving together does not occur, the strand consists merely of discrete segregated skills – parallel threads that do not touch, support or interact with each other. The results of segregated skills instruction in poorly woven tapestry highlights the advantages of integrating the skills aand move toward improving teaching and learning a second or foreign language.

In addition to the four strands mentioned above--teacher, learner, setting, and relevant languages--other important strands exist in the tapestry. In a practical sense, one of the most crucial of these strands consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. This strand also includes associated or related skills such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage. When the skills are adequately interwoven during instruction, the skills strand of the tapestry leads to optimal ESL/EFL communication and language learning. One way this is made possible is through the integrated-skills approach.

Integrated Skills Instruction

Two types of integrated-skill instruction that are worth mentioning are either the content-based language instruction and task-based instruction. The first of these emphasizes learning content through language, while the second stresses doing tasks that require communicative language use (Khand & Ahmed, 2010). Both of these benefit from a diverse range of materials, textbooks, and technologies for the ESL or EFL classroom. In content-based instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative fashion while learning content such as science, mathematics, and social studies. Content-based language instruction is valuable at all levels of proficiency, but the nature of the content might differ by proficiency level. In task-based instruction, students participate in communicative tasks in English. Varied activities such as pair work and group work are often used to increase student interaction and collaboration. In writing classes for instance, students work together to write, edit or produce a class newspaper.

In highly advanced communication classes, students develop a television commercial, enact scenes from a play, or take part in other joint tasks. More structured cooperative learning formats can also be used in task-based instruction. The nature of the tasks varies and the tasks are carefully selected and implemented to suit the language proficiency of the learners. Tasks are defined as activities that can stand alone as fundamental units and that require comprehending, producing, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language while attention is principally paid to meaning rather than form (Nunan, 1989). The task-based model has begun to influence not just the teaching of ESL and EFL but the measurement of learning strategies as well.

A Task-based Strategy in Teaching Reading

The reading strategy to be introduced here involves two stages: the planning stage and the hands-on implementation stage.

The planning stage: The first stage occurs on the first or second class session at the beginning of the semester. The class is split into groups of four, and students are allowed to meet the members of the group and get to know each other. In this stage the students plans and assigns the leader for each week of the four weeks to follow. Each leader has the following responsibilities. He is to bring to class a short article – one page long, if without photos, and two pages at the longest, if with photos. The article could be any topic of interest to the leader. The difficulty level is to controlled. This means that if the leader chooses an article, he should be able to prepare at least three comprehension questions and must be able to answer these questions. Most importantly, the leader must not be absent on the assigned day. With this it is important that the members take each other’s contact number, and should contact each other to switch roles in case of emergency.

The implementation stage: The implementation stage happens at the first twenty minutes of each reading lesson when this activity is conducted. Students are instructed to take turns reading the article aloud. The purpose is for every member to check for correct pronunciation and reading of new and unfamiliar words. The students are encouraged to help each other, and the leader must be able to save the group when all things fail. After the group has checked for vocabulary, the leader asks the comprehension questions that include not only 3W’s. The questions should include most importantly the “Why” and “How”. In most cases, students finish answering the comprehension questions and move on to culture expansion of the theme of the day’s reading.

The teacher is expected to receive a copy of the reading material from all the leaders in the beginning of the class. The teacher reads through these while students are busy with their own reading. The teacher gives comments to the leader, if necessary, and goes around during the session to see if things are going well with each group. Each session ends when the members have all agreed on the correct answers to the questions, and have written down a feedback for the day's session.

Obviously, this strate3gy engages each member of the class to participate in the reading process and be responsible for their own and the other members' reading. Reading skills are integrated, and checked in a way that learners move from the fundamental skills of word recognition to more advanced skill of discussing the theme in relation to their own culture context. In so doing, the language skills are integrated in a way that reading starts with interaction with the printed material and ends with a communicative task. Oral Reading gives students time to check certain fundamental skills used in every application, which is letter recognition. From there, learners move on to the next advanced stage of reading. Given different comprehension questions each lesson time, students develop the ability to deal with more advanced skills such as identifying main ideas, making inferences, predicting and making associations. In every session students work their way up the linguistic chain from morphemes (parts and sounds of words) to semantics (meaning) and syntactics (grammatical construction) until they finally arrive at understanding socio cultural kinds of discourse. Needless to say, students plan and are responsible for their own learning. Because of its integrated nature – due to the fact that reading strategy enhances performance in multiple skills – transfer of learning skills becomes possible.

Conclusion

The Reading strategy introduced here uses the integrated skills approach to enhance learning. The essence of this approach lies in the integration of skills within the Reading strand and an integration of Reading and other language skills through transfer of skills. The students move on from interacting with the printed material to Oral Communication. The task requires comprehending, producing and manipulating language. At the same time, it induces student interaction and collaboration.

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Pechakucha Presentations in the Classroom - Supporting Language Learners with Public Speaking

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Abstract
Presentation skills are vital for language learners, but traditional PowerPoint presentations are often intimidating for second language students because of their length. They can also be very boring with students speaking slowly and hesitating constantly. Pechakucha presentations are a special type of presentation that was initially started in Tokyo, but has now spread all over the world. Each presentation consists of twenty slides; each slide is on automatic timer for twenty seconds. For this reason these are sometimes known as 20/20 presentations. The fast pace, but short time period is ideal for language learners. Each slide lasting only twenty seconds reduces pressure on students to memorize long passages, whilst the slides changing automatically discourages hesitation or going off topic. The slides are also very simple and visual. This paper will outline how the unique nature of the automatic timings in Pechakucha presentations can be used to motivate and support students with public speaking in their second language. It is also ideal for classrooms, when there is a limited time period to watch numerous presentations. The presenter will outline how Pechakucha can be used as an entire course to teach public speaking, but also as an activity and evaluation tool that could be used in any class. The presenter will share classroom materials that have been used very successfully in a monolingual situation in Japan encouraging public speaking with intermediate level students.

Keywords: Presentations, Pechakucha, Public Speaking

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Introduction

When Steve Jobs said "I hate the way people use slide presentations instead of thinking", (Isaacson, 2012) he was probably referring to long boring presentations with complex slides that no one can read or understand. Pecha Kucha presentations use slides, but in their simplest form. They are fast paced, visual and over in a few minutes. Pecha Kucha presentations support nervous presenters, but also limit overly loquacious speakers. This is true for all presenters, but especially true for non-native English speakers lacking confidence in speaking English. When presenters are nervous about speaking they often create complex slides, to detract from their speaking skills. Through forcing students to use the Pecha Kucha format students create simple visual slides, practice more, keep their audience interested and are assisted in continuing to speak at a steady pace throughout their presentation.

What is Pecha Kucha?

Pecha Kucha presentations are a special type of presentation, which were initially started in Tokyo by Astrid Klein and Mark Dytham of Klein-Dytham Architecture, but have now spread all over the world. Each presentation consists of twenty slides; each slide is on automatic timer for twenty seconds. For this reason these are sometimes known as 20/20 presentations. The presentation format was devised as a way for designers to display their work, but also to avoid long boring presentations. As Klein and Dytham say "Give a microphone and some images to an architect -- or most creative people for that matter -- and they'll go on forever! Give PowerPoint to anyone else and they have the same problem." (Klein & Dytham, 2015) Each slide automatically changes after twenty seconds and there are only twenty slides in each presentation. This means that the presentation lasts exactly six minutes and forty seconds. Pecha Kucha presentations were traditionally held as social events- 'Pecha Kucha Nights.' There are currently more than 800 cities around the world hosting Pecha Kucha nights along with many more educational and corporate organizations organizing in-house events.

Pecha Kucha in the Language Classroom

Presentations are a very effective way to improve students' oral and aural skills as well as gaining vital presentation skills necessary for their future. Whether you become an office worker, teacher, or member of your children's school parent teacher association, there are situations throughout your life when you need to speak in public. Increasingly there are situations where this needs to be done in English for non-native English speakers. Many forms of speaking needs to be done off the cuff with no time to practice, however much you practice English conversation there will not be enough time to practice every possible question, which you might be asked. However presentations are an opportunity for students to practice their oral skills in a controlled atmosphere. Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan (2010) state that oral presentations facilitate the practice of all four skills; reading, writing speaking and listening. In the case of Pecha Kucha, due to the visual slides there is little practice of reading and writing, but listening and speaking skills can be improved through presenting and being a member of the audience. Adding worksheets or student evaluation can increase the benefit of these activities.
There are numerous problems with teaching non-native English speakers to make

presentations. One of the biggest problems is that when teaching students to present, teachers tend to tell students what to do, but the students get very little actual practice at presenting. This is partly due to logistics; it is very difficult for students to practice presentations without taking up a lot of classroom time with most students sitting and listening. In this article I would like to describe why I think that Pecha Kucha presentations are great for non-native English speakers, why they work so well in the classroom and how to set up your classroom to incorporate presentations, either for a whole course or just part of a course.

Why is Pecha Kucha good for language learners?

Many people, not only second language learners, are afraid of public speaking. The thought of standing up in front of an audience for thirty minutes is daunting. Shorter presentations can be easier for nervous public speakers. As Pecha Kucha is focused on each slide for 20 seconds it makes students feel that it is short enough to accomplish. Anyone can speak for 20 seconds!

Many nervous public speakers have poor public speaking skills. They either hesitate too much, trying to remember their words or rush through the presentation without explaining their ideas properly. Pecha Kucha with its built-in 20 seconds per slide controls the speaker's pace in a very natural way. An added benefit is that the presenter is forced to consider their words very carefully to fit into a 20 second slot and they need to practice carefully. Students reported spending more time practicing Pecha Kucha presentations than other PowerPoint presentations (Anderson & Williams, 2012).

The nature of Pecha Kucha is that the slides need to be very visual to be read in 20 seconds. Complicated graphs and charts, which are often the worst part of PowerPoint presentations, need to be avoided. This very visual aspect makes the presentations far more entertaining for the audience. It also means that the audience needs to listen to the presenter rather than just read the slides. Audiences in Anderson and Williams' (2012) study reported that the Pecha Kucha presentations were more enjoyable than normal presentations. As one audience member said, "It is immensely more entertaining for the audience-sometimes sitting through presentation after presentation is painful, but the Pecha Kucha went by in a flash." (Anderson & Williams, 2012, p. 5)

Pecha Kucha can be done using PowerPoint, so that it does not need any special software or equipment. PowerPoint has been used in classrooms for a long time, and students need to learn to use PowerPoint. Added to which students want to use technology in the classroom. As Beyer (2011) said, "Students enjoy integrating technology into the classroom and rate professors more favorably when PowerPoint is used" (Beyer, 2011, p. 122). However in many cases students rely on PowerPoint instead of presentation skills. The PowerPoint slides are often works of art, but the presentation still fails due to poor presentation skills.

What Topics are Good for Pecha Kucha Presentations?

Pecha Kucha presentations were initially designed as a way to showcase the work of designers. In reality they can work for any type of presentation. As the slides are

only on the screen for 20 seconds, clear simple visuals are best, but this could be a picture or a simple graph or chart. It discourages the use of complicated graphs and charts, which are probably unsuitable for presentations anyway.
PowerPoint software supports most languages, so Pecha Kucha presentations could be in almost any language.

Arguments against the use of PowerPoint presentations in the classroom

There have been a number of arguments against using PowerPoint in the classroom. The most serious is that students rely too much on the PowerPoint slides. This is possible in Pecha Kucha as with ordinary presentations, but I think with the shorter time scale and extra practice this can be minimized. Secondly Murphy (2006 cited in Taylor, 2012) states that the sequential nature of PowerPoint slides make the audience feel separated from the learning process. This is a criticism, which is very true of Pecha Kucha. Especially because of the speed of the presentations and the short time of the slides there is very little opportunity for interaction between the audience and the presenter. This can be lessened by providing opportunities for questions and answers at the end of the presentation. During a Pecha Kucha event there will typically be about three presentations and then a break. The break period is an opportunity for people to talk to the presenters. When I make a Pecha Kucha presentation many people came to talk to me during the break. This was a refreshing change from the typical question and answer session, although you do not have the advantage of learning from other audience members' questions.

How to set up your class

Pecha Kucha is suitable for use as an entire course or for assessment in any other content-based courses. In either case there are some important skills, which need to be taught.

Body Language

- i. Hand gestures
- ii Body gestures
- iii Facial gestures

These are best taught through pair work or small group guessing games. Giving students cards with words written and students have to show these emotions or ideas without speaking. This type of charades game makes students overact, which helps them to overcome some of their inhibitions. "On stage, it feels really awkward to do large movements because — normally in life — we're talking to someone in a more intimate setting and moving your arms really big feels melodramatic. But on the stage, you have to move your body in really big gestures" (Torgovnick May, 2012).

Eye Contact

Eye contact is very difficult for many students, but I have found that it can be particularly difficult for second language learners, who do not usually sue direct eye contact in their own culture. This is a skill that can be taught, but it needs lots of practice. Developing from one on one eye contact, to small groups and finally to large groups can help students to gradually get used to the feeling of looking into someone's eyes. I usually ask students to make short one-minute self-introductions, firstly to a number of partners, then two pairs join to make a group of four and students give the same short self-introduction to a group of four students, then two groups of four join to make a group of eight and each student stands up to give the same self-introduction to the larger group. In this way students become very confident with the content of what they are saying and gradually build up to a larger group.

Volume

Many people use a microphone when giving presentations, but unless you have the highest quality Wi-Fi clip-on microphone it is going to seriously impede the presentation. I like to encourage students in a classroom to learn to project their voice. We start by dictating short sentences aloud to a partner on the other side of the classroom. As everyone is speaking at the same time you need to speak as loudly as possible. You partner must write down the sentence accurately, which necessitates understanding and hearing accurately.

Word stress

To make your voice interesting and emphasize the important points of your presentation you need to use word stress. I usually start with a very simple sentence such as the one below. Initially students listen to the teacher, and identify the stressed words. Then the students practice with a partner. Again this helps students to lose their inhibitions.

There are **two** big black rats in the kitchen.
There are two **big** black rats in the kitchen.
There are two big black **rats** in the kitchen.
There are two big black rats in the **kitchen**.

Planning you presentation

The biggest mistake that most presenters make is to start planning their presentation by opening the PowerPoint application. Nancy Duarte (2012) recommends starting with PostIt stickers. These should then be transferred to a planning sheet such as the one in Figure 1. If a full Pecha Kucha presentation is being done there should be exactly twenty slides. Each slide should contain phrases, which will be used in the presentation. In 20 seconds you can say a maximum of 50 words. Students should practice saying the words from each slide within 20 seconds. If they speak slowly they should reduce the number of words. The Slide Planning Sheet should also include ideas for gestures and a note about the picture. After that students can start looking for suitable pictures for each slide.

Slide Planning Sheet

Figure 1

Slide 1	Slide 2
Slide 3	Slide 4
Slide 5	Slide 6
Slide 7	Slide 8
Slide 9	Slide 10

Parts of the presentation

Students need to be taught specific language for parts of the presentation. Firstly explicit teaching of opening phrases for the introduction helps students to start their presentation confidently. State your name, the title of your presentation and a simple opening sentence, “This presentation will move you, entertain you, and will most definitely inform you. Today, I’m going to talk to you about 3 things…” (Kwan & Lusk, n.d.) Secondly, transition phrases help students to move smoothly from slide to slide. State when you are moving onto new topics use words such as; ‘next’, ‘after this I will talk about…’ Thirdly, students need to be taught specific language to describe pictures and explain graphs. Teach students phrases such as; ‘at the top of the picture’ ‘in the background’. With graphs you can teach words such as ‘axis’, sharp increase’ and ‘small decrease.’ Finally, teaching phrases to finish the presentation helps students to finish the presentation smoothly. This should include a repetition of your main topic, ‘thank you for listening’, and a way for the audience to contact you if they have any further questions.

Evaluation

In most academic settings there is a necessity to evaluate students. More than this presentations can be used as a way to evaluated students’ understanding of content of a course or as an alternative to writing a research paper. If your students have strong verbal skills, but weak writing skills, this can be very effective. Firstly individual presentations or pair presentations are probably better suited to Pecha Kucha, due to the short time scale. Secondly, between ten and twenty slides is best, always use 20 seconds per slide, any less and the students do not have time to say what they need to say, any more and the students will begin to hesitate. Thirdly it is better to incorporate two presentations in a semester, as this allows for improvement and students can try different styles. Finally make sure that all your students have the transitions set on automatically

I always prepare a 5-point evaluation sheet in advance. There is very little time; so having boxes you can just check is very useful. The evaluation criteria will depend on what you have taught, but will probably include some of these points. There is very little time to write extensive comments, so unless you are recording videos to evaluate later this should be kept to a minimum.

• Body Language	1	2	3	4	5
• Eye Contact	1	2	3	4	5
• Volume	1	2	3	4	5
• Intonation	1	2	3	4	5
• Introduction	1	2	3	4	5
• Conclusion	1	2	3	4	5
• Timing	1	2	3	4	5
• Slide information	1	2	3	4	5
• Slide visuals	1	2	3	4	5

Comments

Logistics

Setting up the automatic transitions.

1. Open transitions
2. Click on the advance slide ‘After:’ and set to 20.00
3. Check ‘All Slides’

Load slides onto the classroom computer before the presentations start

When you have many students presenting in a short time period you should have the students upload slides onto your computer one week before their presentations. Due to the size of Pecha Kucha files do not try to email them, as some email services cannot accept the file size. In emergencies you can download software to help you send large files. Up loading slides in advance serves three goals, firstly, it forces students to practice body language and speaking in the week before the presentation, without spending their time making slides. Secondly, the teacher can grade the slides in advance. Finally there will be no lost USBs on the day of the presentations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, presentations are an excellent way to improve speaking and listening skills. They are also a skill that all students need to learn. Pecha Kucha presentations are ideal for students and classrooms due to their short length and speed. They enable teachers to incorporate a large number of presentations within a class period. They also help to scaffold and support students, who are nervous speaking in public in a second language. Finally students, who took part Pecha Kucha presentations said that they learned to present more confidently. They also enjoyed watching other class members giving presentations.

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What Motivates You towards Academic Success? A Comparative Study

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Abstract
Student motivation, a very difficult element to identify in 'academic success' (AS), has been the focus of many studies in the educational field around the world; the United Arab Emirates (UAE) is no exception. Faculty often find it challenging to align their teaching strategies and course learning outcomes with the factors affecting student motivation. Research focusing on analyzing motivating factors behind student success at the Petroleum Institute (PI) has been ongoing for the past 18 months. Findings from the original research show that contrary to the teacher's perception, the students are more concerned with the quality of education than previously thought.
The current study follows up on these findings by comparing the data collected at the PI, an engineering-only government-sponsored university, and data collected from Abu Dhabi University (ADU), a private university offering multiple degree options in a variety of areas. Results of the study and possible explanations for these results will be discussed.

Keywords: motivation and 'academic success'

Introduction

The last two decades have witnessed massive expenditures in the field of higher education in the UAE. The UAE government as well as private sector entities have spent millions of dollars in order to establish high quality educational institutions, especially at the tertiary level. Once created, these institutions have to compete with international universities that have established satellite campuses in the country, and in order for them to do that, they strive to secure national and international accreditation.

The Petroleum Institute-University and Research Center (PI), the UAE's leading state owned engineering university and research center in, and Abu Dhabi University (ADU), the number one private university in the emirate, are cases in point. Both universities were successful in achieving national accreditation through the Committee for Academic Accreditation (CAA), the UAE Ministry of Higher Education, and international accreditation through the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET).

This study compares students' motivating factors towards 'academic success' in both institutions. However, before we discuss the study and its results in detail, it is worth providing some background information about the institutions and the study as a whole. PI was founded by Emiri Decree in the year 2000, and officially started operation in 2001. The Abu Dhabi National Oil Company (ADNOC) is the main sponsor of the PI and all PI graduates are guaranteed employment at ADNOC and its group of companies. PI was established based on the Colorado School of Mines (USA) curriculum and offers five engineering majors (electrical, mechanical, chemical, petroleum and geosciences). There are approximately 1,970 students (90% Emirati, 10% children of Arab/South Asian expats plus students from China and African oil producing countries). These students achieved a minimum 75% average or equivalent in their high school diploma with a minimum of 75% in the science subjects. ADU, on the other hand, was established as a private venture in 2003, and has grown to become the leading private university in Abu Dhabi with campuses in Abu Dhabi and Al Ain. ADU has a diverse student population of around 5,930 (51% Emirati, 49% children of Arab/South Asian expats among other international students). The university offers 21 degrees across its three degree granting colleges (Engineering, Business/Finance and Arts & Sciences) and the university college. The minimum entry requirement for ADU is 66% high school average.

The present study stems from a pilot project that originally started at the PI in the summer of 2012. This pilot project dealt with different areas of teaching and learning, namely proficiency exams, curriculum development and motivation. This was followed by a PI-wide study that focused on motivation and 'academic success'. The second part of the study was twofold: 1) a comparison between female and male students' perception of motivating factors towards 'academic success', and 2) a comparison between students' perceptions of motivating factors and teachers' perceptions of their students' thoughts on 'academic success'. The ways in which teachers can align their learning outcomes and expectations with students' perceptions was also addressed in the second part. Discussions that this study triggered when presented at international conferences led to the current study which aims to identify the elements of similarity/difference that exist among UAE students when it comes to motivation and 'academic success'. We, therefore, started the final part of the study with the following hypothesis in mind "Although both ADU and PI cater to the UAE population, their demographics are different, so the students' perceptions of 'academic success' are most probably different"

Review Of The Literature

There is no denying the fact that the phrase 'academic success' (AS) has a wide range of definitive applications, most of which depend on who you are talking to -- students, faculty, family or employers -- and often, depending on your location in an increasingly globalized world. Seeking a universal meaning for the term 'academic success' can lead to frustration. Trying to come up with one characterization of success has intrigued many who have been working to understand the human mind for millennia. "For some success is a process and for others it is considered a product" (Hamilton and Ghatala, 1994). To illustrate, when you say someone is being successful in their academic career, it does not mean that someone has achieved 'academic success'. The complexity of understanding this topic of 'academic success' is daunting, considering the density of these differently perceived characteristics of success.

According to cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), human beliefs, ideas and cognitive competencies are modified by external factors such as a supportive teacher, a stressful roommate, or even a noisy environment. For example, 'academic success' is related to those experiences that match internal perceptions. Knowing that our students come from home environments and academic settings that are different from those of western students (CSIS, 2013), we have explored the perspectives of our learners in relation to such concepts and values experienced by them in order to understand the discourse of motivation in our particular social and cultural context here in the UAE.

"Anthropology of education" is a term that is currently being used in instructive courses to define the teaching of competencies necessary to work with important topics such as education, learning, and knowledge in an increasingly globalized world. Looking at our data from this international standpoint is helping us to understand why some of our well-planned approaches to teaching and learning need to be re-addressed in order to meet student requirements for achieving 'academic success'.
Having reviewed an informal student survey from Ferris State University in the United States with nine pages dedicated to what students believe 'academic success' to be, we found that Emirati students at the Petroleum Institute and Abu Dhabi University had similar concerns and responses to their US counterparts. Nonetheless, these undergraduates had divergent priorities. With a closer look at the demographics of the UAE, many different cultural identities appear in the character of the youthful academics who are experiencing rapid social and educational change (Findlow, 2006, p. 23). Student opinions are, unsurprisingly, likely to be different. These learners are the new generation of the UAE being exposed to 'otherness' in a way that their parents were not, which paints an evolving picture of this young country as it strives to produce a national identity (ibid).

The UAE is dealing with a small, traditionally conservative population that, in the period before statehood, 1971, had no formal education system. It is now a "politically, economically and technologically-sophisticated federation of seven states" (ibid). Schneider and Lee, 1990, state that now, "Parent expectations are extremely powerful and are transmitted through a cultural context in which education is highly valued because it leads to self-improvement and increase in self-esteem". An oft-repeated comment by PI students is that they are becoming engineers because it is a parental wish, not necessarily their own. In a summary publication of a Gulf Roundtable discussion at the Center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS, 2013), the change in perceptions of what an education can do for one is developing summarily. The Roundtable team proclaims that 'academic success' is related to cultural and economic characteristics. With the PI students assured of jobs when they graduate and the ADU students knowing the competitive world they will be entering upon leaving their safe university haven, it is expected that they will both have different concerns and priorities.

Referring back to Gardner (1985) and his integrative motivational theories, the researchers of the new millennium have accepted his macro-perspective as useful to compare the motivational prototypes of whole learning communities. They drew inferences from his work on intercultural communication. Nevertheless, these broad factors such as multi-culturalism and language globalization needed to be expanded to include the current motives being expressed by students in their immediate learning situations. McGroarty (2001) summarized this situation perceptively, as cited in Dornyei (2005).

> "*Existing research on motivation, like much research in educational psychology, has begun to rediscover the multiple and mutually influential connections between individuals and their many social contexts, contexts which can play a facilitative, neutral or inhibitory role with respect to further learning." (p.86.)*

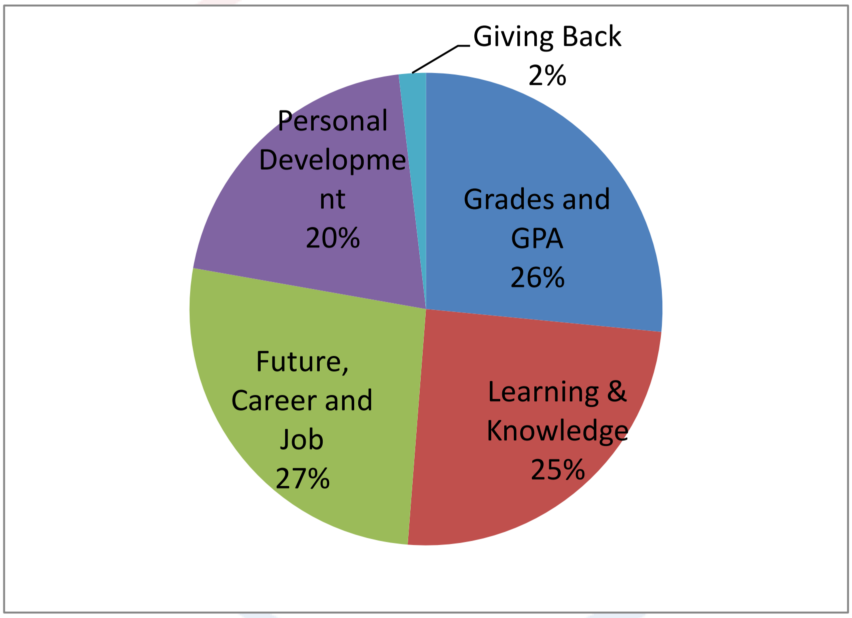
In line with this thinking, Lizzio et al. (2002) in a study that looked at students' views of the learning environment and the subsequent academic results claim that "students' perceptions of their current learning environment were a stronger predictor of learning outcomes than prior achievement at school." Additionally, Crede et al. (2008) proposed that "study habits and skill measures improve prediction of academic performance more than any other non-cognitive individual difference variable examined to date and should be considered the third pillar of 'academic success'."

Biggs (1989) 3P model addresses the issue of student perceptions and how they affect the learning process. In order to benefit from the knowledge gleaned in our survey, this model could be used to identify more closely learners needs required outside content areas. Biggs proposes three sets of variables to be addressed: the learning environment and student characteristics (*presage*); students' approach to learning (*process*); and learning outcomes (*product*).

Studies have shown that students' *presage factors* (prior knowledge, academic ability, personality) influence greatly their ability towards 'academic success'. Additionally, their perceptions have a great impact both on their hard (academic achievement) and soft (satisfaction, development of key skills) learning outcomes. This model suggests that personal and situational factors cause a student to employ a particular method to learning, which then controls the types of outcomes attained (Lizzio et al., 2002). *Process factors* include students' approach to learning; eg. A 'deep' approach to learning is described as attempting to create understanding by applying and comparing ideas whereas 'surface' learning memorizes and repeats information learned without trying to integrate information (ibid). The third variable in the 3P model is *product factors*, which describe the learning outcomes (cognitive, affective or behavioural) which students develop from the learning process (ibid).

Noting the disparity in this study between an engineering institution and a broader-based curriculum university, it could be that these universities need to consider taking a closer look at how the classroom environment is affecting the students' progress towards what they understand to be the road to success. With the enormous amount of money spent on higher education in the UAE, all stakeholders are interested in making better student admissions and retention decisions.

Main Findings And Discussion



An online questionnaire was administered via the Institute's Institutional Research & Studies Office to all PI students across the disciplines. For the purpose of this paper, the results of only one of the main open-ended questions is being shared and discussed (Research Question # 9: What does 'academic success' mean to you?). A total of 174 of the 219 students who participated in the research answered the question. The student definitions of 'academic success' AS can be categorized into five main themes: *good grades/GPA, learning the content and for knowledge purposes, future career and job; personal development; and giving back to the community/country* (Fig.1).

Figure 1: Pi Student Definition Of Academic Success

At the PI, the two most recurring themes with the highest overall percentages are *future career and jobs* with 27% and *good grades and high* GPA (grade point average) with 26%. For instance, one student defines ‘academic success’ as “learning the necessary subjects that will be related to the future job”. Another student adds, “to achieve the highest grades… ‘academic success’ is to have high grades in your courses.” This is not surprising since PI students have guaranteed positions waiting for them at the end of their studies and are monetarily rewarded for the attainment of a high GPA at the end of each semester during their studies. Therefore, considering the high expectations placed on the students by the stakeholders, it is understandable why they associate job preparedness and high GPA with ‘academic success’.

The third emerging theme from their answers is related to *learning and knowledge* with 25% of the students defining ‘academic success’ thusly. One student claims AS is, “knowledge aside from the grade. I can get a D in a course due to an unfortunate incident, but what matters is my understanding of the course.” Another student reports AS is “...understands every word being said is relevant to the subject/course and being able to prove that on an exam paper.” Learning for knowledge’ sake matters to the PI students especially after joining the workplace. Their performances are assessed through several stages of professional development programs, and those who excel in them get promoted swiftly. This is consistent with the competitive nature of the engineering field in the job market where this criterion can distinguish the strong candidates from the weak ones.

Although hard to pinpoint, another recurrent theme was personal development which 20% of the respondents define as ‘academic success’. In the words of one student, “‘academic success’ means that I have slotted myself into life as a successful and independent person who shall distribute his knowledge”. Another student adds, “‘academic success’ means progress in life”. These two definitions go beyond the grades and jobs to something more in line with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954) where self-actualization and self-development emerge after the basic needs, safety and security are met, a finding which validates the original hypothesis.

The last category that PI students relate to ‘academic success’ is *giving back* with 2% of the students defining it as the ultimate ‘academic success’. In this category students mention how grateful they are to their country, their leaders and for all the opportunities provided for them. One student believes, “it means a lot to me. Make my country and my family especially my parents proud”. Another one adds, “Working hard every day to achieve my goals and make my family and friends proud of me”.

At ADU, the researchers, for convenience, administered hard copies of the questionnaire to the students. A total of 113 students out of the 128 students who completed the questionnaire answered the research question # 9. The team was able to categorize ADU students’ definition of ‘academic success’ AS into the same five main themes: *future career and job; good grades/GPA, learning the content and for knowledge purpose, personal development; and giving back to the community/country.* (Fig.2)

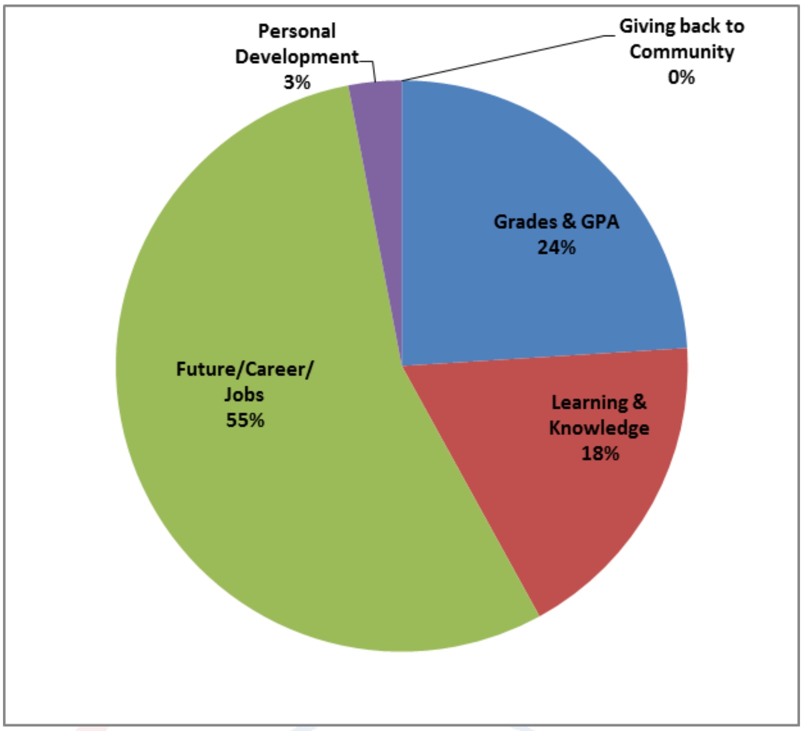


Figure 2: Adu Student Definition Of Academic Success

The results differed in comparison with the PI, and one of the categories (giving back to the community) did not exist at all. In the ADU survey, future career and jobs had the highest overall percentage, 55%. One of the students' definition of AS resonates, "it will grant me my future life and my job." Grades and GPA came second with 24% with answers such as "I graduate with good grades" and "it means to achieve higher than the average in a class" and learning and knowledge with 18% eliciting responses like "equipping graduates with skills and knowledge in order to confront all situations in life and care with ease" and "to get a huge amount of knowledge and to become different every day." As mentioned earlier, *giving back to the community* was not mentioned.

From their responses, the researchers observed the expressed need for the ADU students to secure a job in a competitive employment market. After graduating, there is no guarantee that they will find suitable jobs, unlike the PI graduates who have jobs waiting for them upon completion of their studies.

The final step of this study was to summarize and compare the responses of both groups. (Fig. 3)

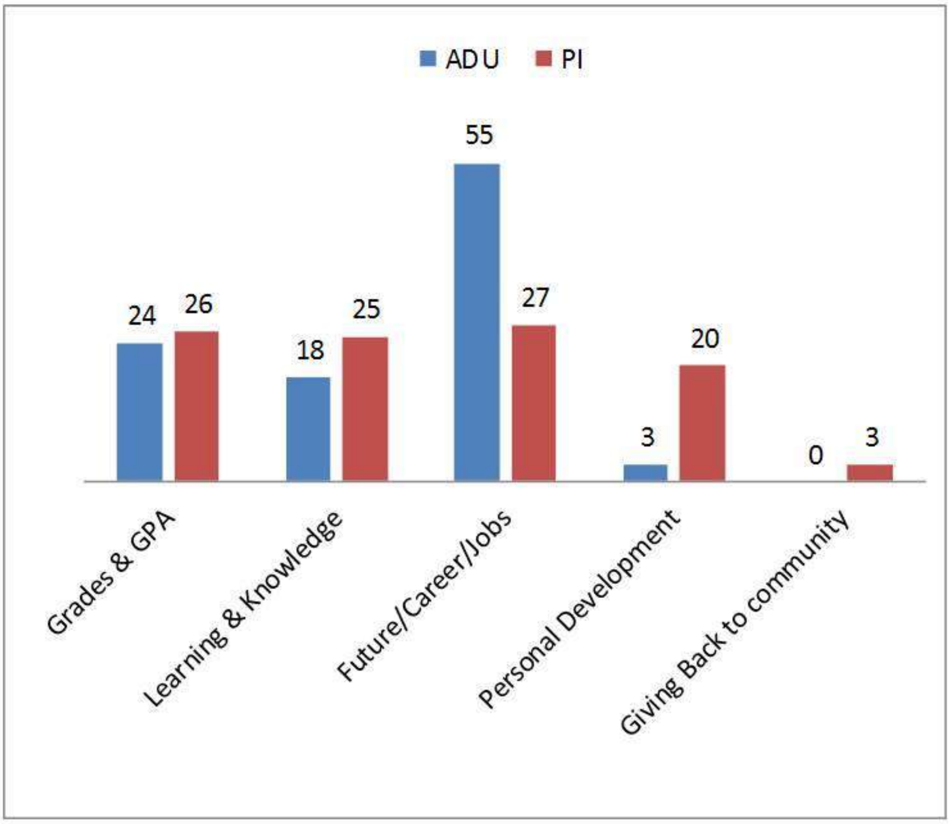


Figure 3: Comparison Between The Two Universities

Looking at the overall results and attempting to understand each group's responses, it was possible to highlight the probable reasons for the differences in their definition of 'academic success'. The major difference lies upon the job security bestowed upon the PI students while the ADU students have to compete for jobs with the Emiratis at large, in addition to competing with other university graduates and job seekers from other parts of the world.

Results from *grades and GPA* as well as *learning and knowledge* categories were not far apart from each other, 24% vs 26% and 18% vs 25% respectively. However, without either oversight or underplaying the importance for ADU students to have good GPA in order to keep their scholarship, it is also important to stress how a high GPA can provide them with a competitive edge in the job market. PI students, on the other hand, equate high GPA with the monetary rewards they receive at the end of each month in the form of stipend as well as the bonus they are entitled to at the end of each semester. As far as *personal development* is concerned, for many of the PI students, this is not only about getting a job. It is also about being able to challenge oneself and prove one's worth as one alumna proclaims, "to put it simply, my job is the thrusting force that keeps me going." The majority of the PI students are first generation engineers in their immediate and extended families, which carries great pride and a sense of accomplishment. ADU students' concern for grades and degrees overshadows their concern for professional development as this doesn't show on transcripts when applying for a job or a higher degree.

When it comes to *giving back to the community*, PI students demonstrate a greater need to give back to their home country. They connect the love for their country to the pride of identity as university educated citizens, as these elements are the results of their supportive environment. The alumna continues, "…and I am so proud to be serving my country in my own way." Then again, because ADU students have been expatriates all their lives, they might not have time or energy to spend on activities outside the university arena. In fact, many of them juggle their studies along with part/full-time jobs.

Conclusion

Both the Petroleum Institute and Abu Dhabi University settings are widely-known to be rigorous academic environments. In order to provide a productive learning environment, a better understanding of the factors that drive the students to achieve 'academic success' will facilitate a more beneficial learning community for all. As these opposing student opinions are identified, suitable intervention can be designed and tailored to match the students' key motivating factors for achieving their individual goals in the programs provided.

Based on data from our survey, it is clear that further research should be conducted to further expand our knowledge of these student perceptions. At this stage, we have identified the diversity of beliefs from two academically dissimilar institutions, but have not yet discovered what inspired these perceptions. A focus group, for example, might offer the opportunity to express the deeper feelings of these opinions and uncover reasons as to why the students hold these beliefs. With this opportunity for discussion on the topic, barriers to 'academic success' may be identified and possible solutions shared.

At a later stage, more expansive research is recommended, whereby the study might be replicated in other private and government-run universities, or possibly only in engineering institutions throughout the region.

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Foreign Language Education in the Wake of Globalization: The 'Learning-To-Communicate' Approach

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Abstract

Undoubtedly, globalization must be considered in terms of both migration of people and movement of capital. Thus recognition of the socio-political entanglements through language learning process is in this context, I believe, of great importance. For that reason, herein I define the 'learning-to-communicate' approach, as a method whereby virtue of active cognition both student and teacher engage in critical communication. While in the 'learning-to-pass' approach passive cognition and 'banking education' (Freire 1970) prevails, the 'learning-to-communicate' approach, although not bereft of 'cognitive dissonance' (Festinger 1957), embraces freedom of expression, joy of discovery and curiosity fuelled by common social ends, "for when treated simply as a way of getting individual information, or as a means of showing off what one has learned, it loses its social motive and end" (Dewey 1897). The notion that a student with basic foreign language skills is incapable of full engagement neither in a proposed discourse nor in critical communication, is possibly wrongly presumed; for when treated with equal consideration and stimulated through curiosity guided by vital questions, the learner is bestowed with a motivation for further language learning. Using this approach, this paper will attempt to outline ways in which English learning within small groups of Japanese undergraduate students could be improved. However, further investigation, evaluation and theorization of this approach are essential for more conclusive evidence.

Describing or defining globalization process by simple terms is rather complex, so to earmark its beginning and its end. Nevertheless, we must not avoid critical discussion about its evolution and the role it plays on the manner we relate to and perceive reality. What does globalization entail and what form it should take?

Globalization

In *The Sources of Neoliberal Globalization* Jan A. Sholte notes that a line should be drawn between globalization - “development in a social geography”, and marketization - “policy approach to this trend”, in other words, the former indicating migration of people, ideas, integration of people through borderless exchange, while the latter *laissez-faire*[1] market economics *i.e.* neoliberalism through deregulation, liberalization and privatization in order to maximize profit - migration of capital. Aforementioned juxtaposition manifests itself by two distinct images *i.e.* one that is fully alive – rising from the human needs for integration, sharing and care, and one that is devoid of life in its very core – dominant perpetuation of capitalism and property`s *status quo* in its all forms. The justification that *laissez-faire* market economics combined with globalization, so called 「global-liberalized markets」, can bring about egalitarian society, the state of being free within it from oppressive restriction inflicted by the authority, and peace to the whole world has many flaws in it[2] and when unchallenged it has no legitimacy to exist.

Core Tenets of Culture of Capitalism

In *Global Problems and the Culture of Capitalism*, Richard H. Robbins writes lucidly about globalization as an economic process *i.e.* mode of production-exchange-consumption and its impacts on social, cultural, educational and ecological conditions: 1) continued economic growth that latently or overtly calls for 2) transformation of non-monetary resources (political, environmental, social) into monetary capital by means of 3) neoliberalism and 4) with no commons, civic society is destined to cease; to avoid these progressive *état des affaires* 5) steps need to be taken to restore our political, environmental and social capital *inter alia* to terminate 「corporate personhood」; in order to maintain the control over local flux of resources, withdraw from policies promoting globalization-by-marketization (NAFTA[3] TTIP[4]

1 *French*: a term applied to the policy of leaving businessman alone to do “their of thing”- “let us do it“ in direct translation

2 Marx and Engels 1848; Kropotkin 1913; Hertz 2001; Chomsky 2005; Keane 2009

3 North American Free Trade Agreement

4 Transatlantic Trade and Investment Partnership

TPP[5]); resume economic power to local communities, respond to intellectuals and educational institutions who fail in “responsible and independent critics of the government’s policies”[6] (Fulbright 1967).

Of course, Robbins is not alone in these observations, prominent thinkers of the past century such as Engels, Marx, Kropotkin, Proudhon, Dewey, Freire, Bookchin *et al.* had drawn alike analogies *i.e.* between private property expansion, society impoverishment and class division; between economy and education: “the ultimate aim of production is not production of goods, but the production of the free human beings associated with one another on terms of equality” (Dewey, 1938), that are being further developed by Chomsky and Giroux.

Long Lived Neoliberalism – Education and Knowledge

In spite of the harms and drawbacks generated by neoliberalism in the context of globalization *i.e.* poverty (Cornia and Court 2001), unemployment and underemployment (Wood 1994), permission of authorities on so called “umowy śmieciowe”- junk contracts[7] (Zilova *et al*. 2014), social injustice and collective spirit`s deterioration through competitive individualism (Harris and Seid 2000; Goodman 2011); the consent for preservation of such policies continues. As Scholte pinpoints in his report “the chief dynamics are located in four interrelated areas: governance, production, knowledge, and social networks”[8]. In case of knowledge and education, following *isms* may largely support its dynamics:

- secularism - vivid separation physical world from otherworldly forces;
- anthropocentrism - that puts human into circle of attention allowing on overindulgence in his/her desires, interests and experiences, thus precluding from understanding of structural arrangements and empathic response to devaluated human beings;
- scientism- “scientism is a matter of putting too high a value on natural science in comparison with other branches of learning or culture – much the most valuable part because it is much the much authoritative, or series, or beneficial“ (Sorell 1991);

5 Trans-Pacific Partnership
6 re-quoted from *Challenges* by Serge Lange (p.161)
7 “junk contract” refers to Civil Law Contracts in Poland - common employment practice, a transition from student-hood to employment-hood, however enabling cost-cutting of employment by not abiding minimum wage directive and preventing labors from buildup of social and pension benefits
8 Scholte (p.16) (2005)

- instrumentalism - allocation of the highest importance to knowledge through creation of non-inductive theories[9], thus allowing for problem solving "by omitting (…) the universe of the realities behind the various appearances" (Popper 1962).

Others, such as professionalism and fetishism of knowledge could me also contributor to preservation of modus operandi of the policies.

In *The Menace of Liberal Scholarship,* Noam Chomsky by quoting Conor Cruise O`Brien, argues that power exhorted on educational institutions is danger to scholarly integrity ”power in our time has more intelligence in its service, and allows that intelligence more discretion as to its methods, than ever before in history" and that we have moved in the direction of the state where "a society is maimed through the systematic corruption of its intelligence"[10] (Black 1967); he goes on by quoting Senator Fulbright that "the surrender of independence, the neglect of teaching, and the distortion of scholarship, the university is not only failing to meet its responsibilities to its students; it is betraying a public trust"; by further saying that "the "free-floating intellectual" may occupy himself with problems because of their inherent interest and importance, while the professional, however, tends to define his problems according to the technique that he has mastered, and has a natural desire to apply his skills" and this can be reflected in the comment of Dr. Harold Agnew (Director of the Los Alamos Laboratories Weapons Division): "The basis of advanced technology is innovation and nothing is more stifling to innovation than seeing one's product not used or ruled out of consideration on flimsy premises involving public world opinion"[11]. Of course, it is not to say that all institutions comply with omnipresent conformity and passiveness that allows for silent acquiescence.

"Fetishism of commodities" was used by Marx in his book *Capital, Volume I*: "When we bring products of our labour into relation with each other as values, it is not because we see in these articles the material receptacles of homogenous human labour. Quite the contrary: whenever, by the exchange, we equate as values our different products, by that very act, we also equate, as human labour, the different kinds of labour expended upon them. We are not aware of this, nevertheless, we do it. Value therefore, does not stalk about with label describing what it is. It is value, rather, that converts every product into a social hieroglyphic."(Marx 1978). In other words, it is a

[9] as opposed to Dewey`s concept of instrumentalism "that science starts from observation and proceeds, by induction, to generalizations, and ultimately to theories"
[10] re-quoted from *Chomsky on Anarchism* by Noam Chomsky (p.11) (2005)
[11] *Ibid.*, p.12

special relationship we develop with commodities, replacing social relations between people, as an effect, obscuring relations of production in accordance with facts as a "social hieroglyphics". In the same manner, the concept can be applied to knowledge - fetishism of knowledge - the product of institutionalized education, thus can be treated also as a commodity, consumable item, therefore allowing scholars to act as noncritical agents for government`s policies. The only way to reveal its productive relationships is to investigate how the knowledge as a commodity is an element of complex arrangements of production-exchange-consumption process. Though Dewey, refers in the following passage to a language , "for when treated simply as a way of getting individual information, or as a means of showing off what one has learned, it loses its social motive and end" (Dewey 1897); commodity-like-attitude can be noticed.

"Theory of ethnic stratification" developed by Donald Noel , explains that the ethnic stratification is a product of three following factors: 1) competition for resources; 2) unequal power; and 3) ethnocentrism. David Nibert has modified this theory to account for human oppression that is sustained through mutually reinforced socio-economic mechanisms; 1) economic exploitation; 2) unequal power greatly extended in the control of state; and 3) ideological control (Nibert 2013).

Patterns in devaluation of certain groups within society due to discrimination based on the grounds of one`s age (ageism), race (racism), gender (sexism), sexual orientation (homophobia), physical or intellectual disabilities *et al.* have been questioned and broadly studied by many sociologists; why do particularly these groups are vulnerable to abuse and/or violence, are burdened in a disproportionate manner with privation and backset? Many among of them come to understand that the prejudices are a consequence of social arrangements that are biased and unjust, that formulate one`s conciseness and this, in turn, is mirrored in one`s actions toward others. For instance, Anderson and Collins argue that the various forms of oppression *i.e.* racism *etc.* should be examine with the context of belief system and social institutions. Suzanne Pharr states "It is virtually impossible to view one oppression (…) in isolation because they are all connected (…). They are linked by a common origin-economic power and control-and by common methods of limiting, controlling and destroying lives. There is no hierarchy of oppressions. Each is terrible and destructive.

To eliminate one oppression successfully, a movement has to include work to eliminate them all or else success will always be limited and incomplete." (Pharr 1988) Thought some of the form of the oppressions can be more easily recognizable than others, Chomksy points out "Actually, another problem which I think must be faced is that at any particular point in human history people have not understood what oppression is. It's something you learn (…) one of the first tasks is to get people to understand that they are living under conditions of oppression and domination." (Chomsky 2005). In other words, taking notice of something that, at the first glace, is imperceptible and blend into our everyday activities can be difficult.

Based on theory of ethnic stratification and oppression by Noel and Nibert respectively, Fig. 1 depicts dynamics of neoliberal practices i.e. production-exchange-consumption process that transform educational institutions and social interactions.

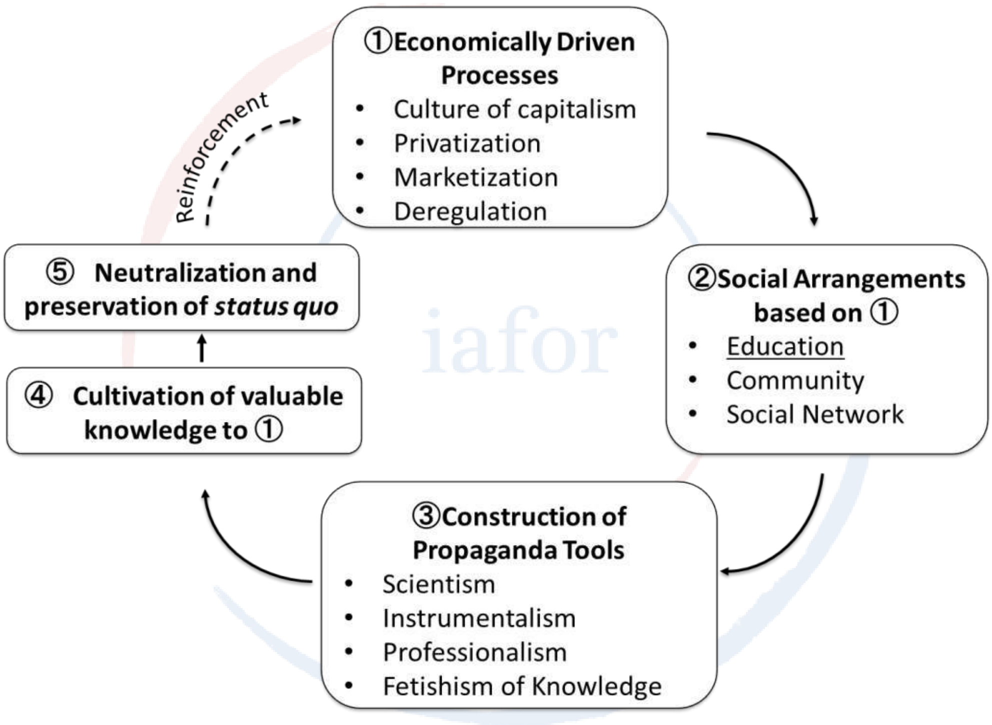

Fig. 1 Dynamics of neoliberal practices.

Learning-to-Communicate Approach

To assure that knowledge acquired through language and education are not a sole means to an ends for neoliberal policies and capitalism that is some ways create, propagate and sustain a thrust for constant exuberant display and exaggerated spending; blur our critical thinking abilities, and eternize conformism and passiveness; foreign language education must also undergo transformation.

In the process of trying to find answer to "How to acquire communication abilities in foreign language?" in that way, following factors came to manifest themselves:

- active cognition;
- motivation;
- "dialogical communication" - "the essence of education as the practice of freedom awakening of critical consciousness through the investigation of "generative themes" (Freire 1970).

Learning-to-communicate approach is a method where by virtue of active cognition both student and teacher engage in critical communication. While in the 'learning-to-pass' approach passive cognition and banking education -"instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiques and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat.

This is the "banking" concept of education, in which the scope of action allowed to students extends only as far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits" - prevails, the 'learning-to-communicate' approach, although not bereft of "cognitive dissonance" – "the existence of dissonance, being psychologically un uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance", and when it is "present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actively avoid situations and information which would likely increase the dissonance" (Festinger 1957), embraces freedom of expression, joy of discovery and curiosity fuelled by common social ends. The notion that a student with basic foreign language skills is incapable of full engagement neither in a proposed discourse nor in critical communication, is possibly wrongly presumed; for when treated with equal consideration and stimulated through curiosity guided by vital questions, the learner is bestowed with a motivation for further language learning.

Fig.2 shows an outline of the learning-to-communicate approach. The approach comprises five following segments, each of which can be associated with listening, writing, reading, speaking and thinking abilities. Though, it is being put into practice for few months, further investigation on evaluation of overall approach, account for effectiveness of each factor, and possible effect of de-motivators must be conducted. At present, the approach`s evaluation is under examination

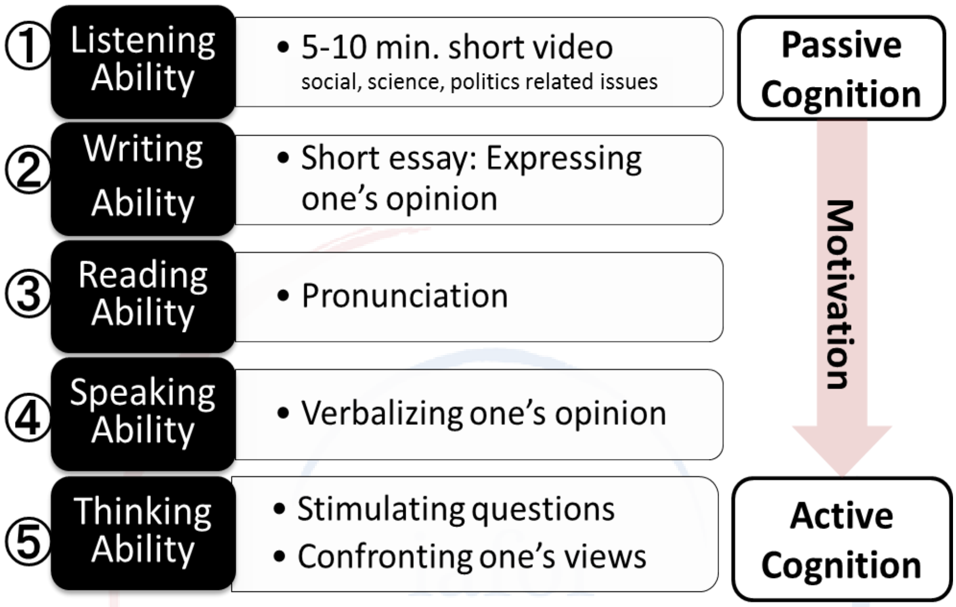

Fig. 2 Outline of learning-to-communicate

Conclusions

While acknowledging multi-facets of globalization process, it is difficult to state unanimously that it brought about merely negative implications. However, in case *laissez-faire* market economics combined with globalization, as many have been noticing, there are grounds for concerns, and the critique has been addressed partially herein.

Teaching-to-test approach that prepares students to a standardized test whether in in general subjects or foreign languages, though, can provide student with information and score that often is a measure of an academic success through memorization; reflects the "banking concept" of education. It may be, that creating more interactive and/or exciting spaces for learning through use of technology, or not, is insufficient in invoking a curiosity and critical though in a student. Therefore, the shift in paradigm in the way the foreign language education is conducted and the manner it is perceived by policy making institution is needed.

On the other hand, “learning-to-communicate” approach, though still in its infancy and built purely on theorization, when executed with full commitment, hopefully will bring about conditions where “freedom no longer be placed in a opposition to nature, individuality to society, choice to necessity, or the personality to needs of social coherence” (Bookchin 2005).

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Using Personal Diaries to Improve Students' Academic Writing Skills in English

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Abstract

Most students in Japan leave high school having been exposed to a wide range of grammatical structures and vocabulary items. However, analysis of new first-year university students' written reports showed a marked lack of multi-clause sentences, limited vocabulary use, and confusion about how to structure paragraphs. Student interviews revealed that many had received little practice of writing beyond the sentence level in their previous English education, and some said that they were unwilling to write extensively due to a perception of writing as "difficult" and "boring". This paper first outlines the research and rationale behind an attempt to rectify these problems. It then follows a case study in which students were asked to write a personal diary every week in order to gain more experience in producing longer pieces of writing. Students were graded on volume of output, and the teacher feedback focused on the content of the diary rather than on grammar, structure and spelling. The findings presented here (taken from discourse analysis and student questionnaire results) suggest that the experience of writing a diary in English can have positive effects on learners' willingness to produce longer pieces of academic writing. This leads to increased sentence complexity, a more varied vocabulary, and the ability to structure written reports more effectively.

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1. Context

The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Technology (MEXT) requires all students in junior and senior high school to learn English. Therefore the vast majority of students in Japan enter university after at least six years' L2 study in which the government-approved curriculum has exposed them to a wide range of grammatical structures and vocabulary items. The Ministry also places a strong emphasis on communicative ability (MEXT, 2011; MEXT, 2012); however, communication skill has often been criticised as being underdeveloped in Japanese education (Gorsuch, 1998), with "a strong preference for […] linguistic knowledge over linguistic performance" (Law, 1995, p. 217). In spite of recent government recommendations to move away from traditional grammar-translation approaches, change has been slow (Koike and Tanaka, 1995, p. 24). Nishino and Watanabe (2009, p. 134) suggest that as students and teachers focus on entrance examinations with a heavy component of reading comprehension, "many secondary school English teachers may believe that detailed grammatical knowledge and intensive reading skills are crucial for Japanese secondary school learners," at the expense of other skills. While this issue has been widely discussed with regard to students' oral communication (Tahira, 2012, p. 5), it may also impact negatively on their ability to communicate ideas effectively through writing.

The research described in this paper was conducted in the Business department at a private women's university in Tokyo. All students would spend at least one semester (during their second year) in the United States, so the first year English course is a four skills programme designed to prepare learners for the study abroad experience, in which they will be required to take Business content classes in an English-language environment.

2. Problems with Students' English Writing on Entering University

Discourse analysis of 74 students' essays (on the topic of 'My English Learning Experiences') in the first week of university suggested that students' essay writing skills had not been fully developed in high school. The analysis, alongside follow-up interviews with the students, helped identify four major problems: a marked lack of multi-clause sentences, the inability to use paragraphs effectively, a reliance on only the most common vocabulary items, and an unwillingness to write extensively.

2.1. Lack of Multi-Clause Sentences

While students used a wide variety of grammatical structures in the essays, individual sentences were often short, with only 15 percent of all sentences containing more than one clause. Single-clause sentences are not inherently problematic; however, when the essays were shown to third party readers, they expressed difficulty in understanding the writers' intentions and commented that many ideas appeared unconnected and undeveloped due to the lack of multi-clause sentences. For example, one student wrote:

My host sister took me to school. I eat lunch with her classmates. They asked me many questons about Japan. I could answer in English. I was very very happy!

This passage could have been made clearer by the simple addition of conjunctions, such as *and* or *so.* For example:

My host sister took me to school <u>and</u> I ate lunch with her classmates. They asked me many questions about Japan <u>and</u> I could answer in English, <u>so</u> I was very, very happy!

In the follow-up interview, this student showed awareness of how conjunctions could make her writing clearer, but she said that she was worried about making mistakes in writing longer sentences and combining different grammar points, so she had decided to keep each structure separate. This sentiment was echoed in interviews with other students.

2.2. Inability to Use Paragraphs Effectively

A further issue affecting the students' ability to express ideas clearly was a limited awareness of how to use paragraphs. Two problems were prevalent. The first, in 58 percent of essays, was a disregard for paragraphs altogether. For example:

I like English very much. Last year I homestay for 2 weeks in Canada. My English was bad first. But my host family was kind. Soon I could speak more. It was fun. My host sister took me to school. I eat lunch with her classmates. They asked me many questons about Japan. I could answer in English. I was very very happy! But my test score is not good. Very low! I think test English is diffrent. I will go to Boston in sophomore. I want to speak English with foreign peple. Also I want to make good test score. Please advice me teacher! Thank you!

A second common feature (in 29 percent of essays) was a tendency to treat each sentence as a new paragraph. For example:

I studied English for 6 years.
Its difficult for me.
In junior high school we sang songs in English.
But in high school we studied hard for entrance exams.
It was so hard.
I like watching movies in English.
Especially I like Disney Pixar for example TOY STORY.
I want to watch without Japanese captions.

In interviews, almost all students were aware of the basic concept of paragraphs. However, they expressed uncertainty about exactly *how* to use them, and more than half of the students said that they had not needed to consider paragraph construction previously as they had never written longer essays in English. Their written output in high school had been almost exclusively at the sentence level, usually responding to test questions with single-sentence answers.

2.3. Over-Reliance on Common Vocabulary

The student interviews showed that most of their high school English study was focused on reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary acquisition. Placement tests before classes began had a strong reading focus and scores suggested that students were familiar with a wide range of both high and low frequency vocabulary. Despite this, the vocabulary used in the essays was narrow, mostly limited to the commonest words. In fact, fewer than two percent of items came from outside the most frequent 1000 word level (West, 1953). This may have been in part due to the familiar subject matter (discussing personal language learning experiences); however, it also pointed to a limited active vocabulary that could impair students' ability to express more complex ideas.

2.4. Unwillingness to Write Extensively

The final problem identified by the initial analysis was perhaps the most fundamental: the students appeared unwilling to produce longer pieces of work in English. Before writing these essays, students had been given instructions to write at least 200 words. However, the average length of the submitted work was just 162 words. In interviews, almost every student expressed the view that writing essays was "boring" or "difficult". Additionally, more than 60 percent said that they had received little practice in extended writing in their previous English education. Storch and Hill (2008) stated that the lack of opportunity to produce extended writing could lead to a lack of improvement in composition skills. Therefore this issue had serious implications regarding the students' chance of future progress. If they continued producing only the bare minimum, then this would limit the possibility for improvement in all aspects of writing.

3. Reasons for Concern

Clearly, the problems outlined above may prevent the learners from expressing their ideas articulately in writing. This is of particular concern as all the students in this research would attend university in the United States in the second year and would be expected to submit written reports in English; therefore these issues may impact negatively on their study abroad experience. Additionally, interviews with the students suggested that the problems were connected to learner confidence. Students were *aware* of many of the issues, but they were reticent to try and address problems independently; for example, using conjunctions to construct multi-clause sentences, or employing less common vocabulary to discuss ideas more clearly and deeply. Instead the learners preferred to choose the easier option – short sentences, the most familiar vocabulary, fewer words – in order to avoid making mistakes. If risk-taking is a characteristic of a successful language learner (Rees-Miller, 1993, p. 682), then such a lack of confidence could lead to difficulties in all aspects of English, not only writing. On a more practical level, in the limited class time available to study academic writing, students and teachers were forced to devote their efforts to basic sentence and paragraph structure, rather than on more technical aspects of essay construction that would be important when studying abroad.

4. Addressing the Problem

Based on these preliminary research findings, it became clear that the course needed a component that would encourage students to write without fear of making mistakes. In order to encourage longer pieces of work and improve writing fluency, it was decided to ask students to write personally rather than about any given subject. By allowing students to choose their own topics, it was hoped, the writing process would be more fun and less "boring" or "difficult".

The next question was exactly *how* to proceed. Following discussions with colleagues, three platforms were proposed for students to express themselves in writing:

First, requiring students to use social network sites (SNS), such as Facebook or Twitter, to correspond with the class and teacher in English. While this form of communication is currently very popular and can be useful for authentic language practice, *requiring* learners to use SNS could have implications on privacy – not all students wish to join such sites. Additionally, SNS tends to encourage short posts and responses (Twitter, for example, limits posts to 140 characters), so it does not address the issue of low volume of output.

The second option was an email blog between student, teacher and selected classmates. This would be more private, and more suited to extended writing than SNS. Fellner and Apple (2004) found that the complexity of grammar and vocabulary as well as writing fluency (words per minute) improved after seven days of supervised blog writing. However, some teachers had experienced difficulties with such an activity in the past, stating that students had often lost interest after an initial surge of enthusiasm.

Finally, personal diaries (also known as dialogue journals) were considered. Holmes and Moulton (1997) stated that the use of dialogue journals can encourage authentic interaction and help develop learners' grammar awareness, and Nassaji and Cumming (2000) discovered that journals can help build the complexity of students' writing. A diary is of course very similar to a blog; however, it differs in that it provides a tangible, physical record of students' progress, allowing teacher and learner to easily check any gains made over the semester. Therefore it was decided to pilot the use of writing personal diaries in order to improve English writing skills.

5. Implementation

For this research, the test group comprised 48 students from two classes selected to complete diaries for homework every week. A control group of 26 students did *not* write diaries. Instead, they completed worksheets for homework, explicitly connected to the language studied in the syllabus. In all other respects, both groups followed the same curriculum, including the 200-word essay in week 1, plus 500-word academic essays in weeks 7 and 13 of the 15-week semester.

The teacher asked each student in the test group to buy a notebook that would be used exclusively for the diary. This was intended to keep it separate from other class notes and homework, distancing it from explicit language learning. The students were encouraged to write about any topic they wished: recent life events, favourite things, news stories, problems, anything that they felt comfortable discussing. They were then requested to submit the diary to the teacher every Tuesday, with at least two completed entries per week. There was no specified word count; however, students were told that they would be graded on effort rather than grammar or spelling. Furthermore, the teacher would not correct or comment on technical aspects of language, but instead respond to the *content* of the diary with comments or questions. He would then return the diaries to the students each Friday.

6. Results: Discourse Analysis

The four problems identified at the beginning of semester were: the lack of multi-clause sentences, the inability to use paragraphs, a narrow active vocabulary, and an unwillingness to write extensively. Therefore, data collection and analysis was focused on these areas.

6.1. Multi-clause sentences

In week 1, the students writing diaries used more than one clause in only 17 percent of their sentences. By week 9, this had more than doubled to 36 percent of sentences, and by the last diary entry (week 14), 42 percent of sentences used more than one clause, suggesting increased grammatical complexity in students' writing.

Next we will compare diary writers' performance with that of the control group who did not write diaries. All students wrote the 200-word short essay in week 1 and 500-word academic essays in weeks 7 and 13.

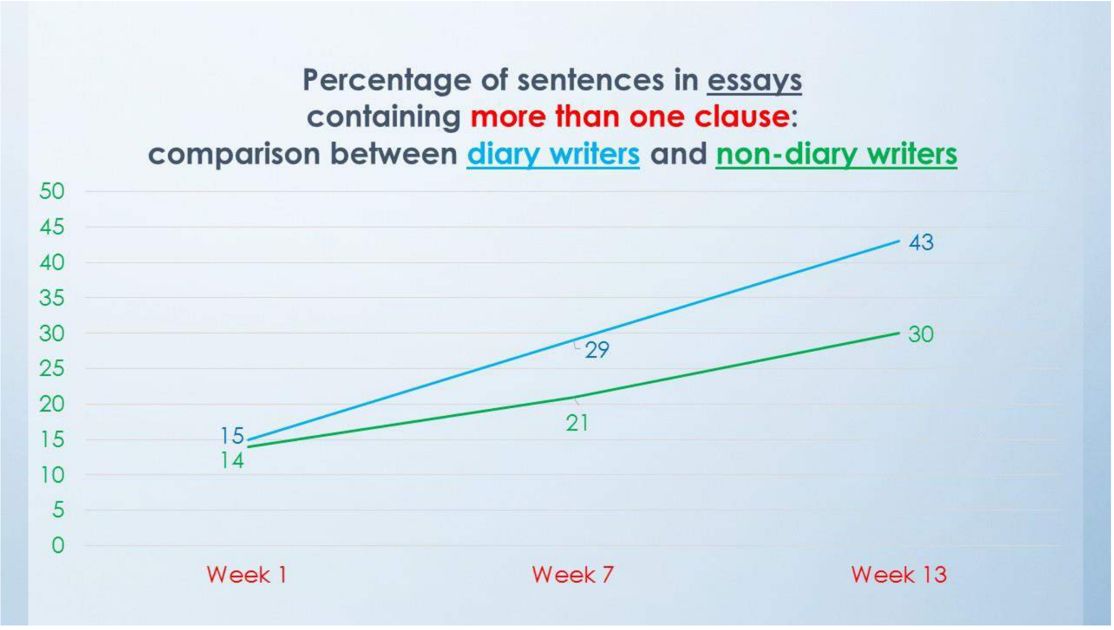

Figure 1

This chart shows that in both groups (those who wrote diaries, and those who did not) there was an increase in the percentage of sentences containing multiple clauses. However, while the percentage more than doubled for non-diary writers (14 percent in week 1 to 30 percent in week 13), students who wrote diaries saw an even sharper increase – almost threefold – from 15 percent in week 1, to 43 percent in week 13. This suggests a willingness among diary writers to use more complex structure, connecting ideas more effectively, thus making essays more cohesive.

6.2. Paragraphs

The level of success in paragraph writing was more difficult to measure. Overall, there still appeared uncertainty about when it was appropriate to start a new paragraph. However, diary writers showed some improvement throughout the semester. Only two students (4.16 percent) failed to use paragraph breaks in their final essays in week 13, and none of them made the error of beginning each sentence on a new line. Conversely, in the group that had not written diaries, five students (19.23 percent) did not use any paragraph breaks in the week 13 essay, and two (7.69 percent) still started each sentence on a new line, in spite of repeated reminders not to do so.

6.3. Vocabulary Range

In the test group, only 1.8 percent of words in diaries used in week 1 came from outside West's (1953) most frequent 1000-word level. This more than doubled by week 5 (4.1 percent) and quadrupled by week 14, when 7.5 percent of words came from outside the most frequent 1000 words.

In academic essays, diary writers made similar gains in their breadth of vocabulary. The following graph compares the performance of diary writers with non-diary writers.

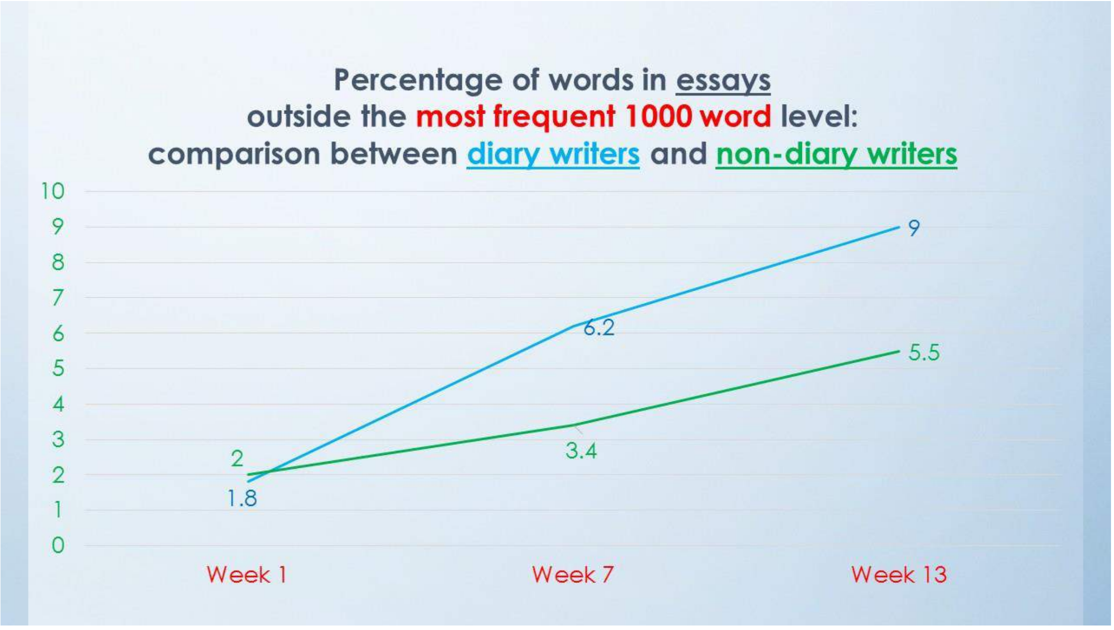

Figure 2

This chart shows a sharp increase in the use of less frequent words by the diary writers, while gains by non-diary writers are less marked. As all of the essays were on the same topic across both groups, it may be surmised that diary writing can help broaden students' active vocabulary in academic writing.

6.4. Willingness to Write Extensively

There were concerns among teachers that students' initial enthusiasm in writing diaries would decrease as the semester progressed, resulting in shorter or incomplete diary entries. However, the opposite was the case: the length of work steadily increased, from an average of 38 words per entry (w.p.e.) in week 1, to 56 w.p.e. in week 5, 70 w.p.e. in week 9, and 98 w.p.e. in week 14. These results suggested not only that students were motivated to keep writing the diary, but also that they were willing to extend themselves more and more.

These gains translated to the students' academic writing. In weeks 7 and 13, students were asked to write "500-word" essays. The following graph shows how diary writers and non-diary writers compared.

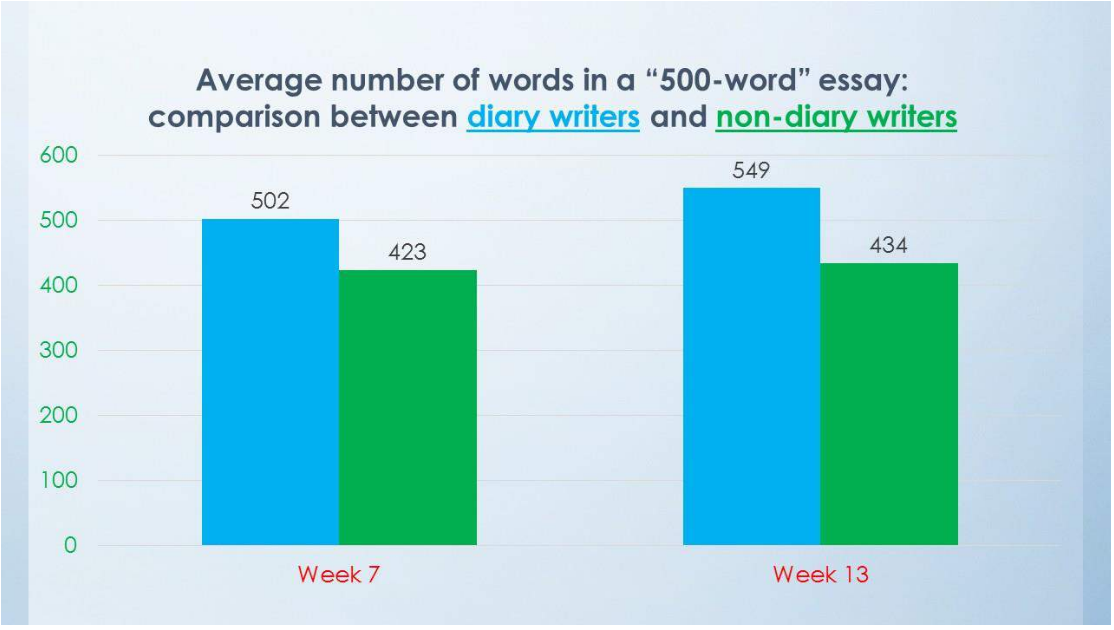

Figure 3
While non-diary writers' word counts consistently fell well short of the requested 500 words, this chart shows that diary writers wrote longer academic essays on average. By week 13, they wrote an average of nearly 10 percent more than what was asked of them, suggesting an increased willingness to write compared to those who did not keep diaries.

7. Results: Student Questionnaires

The data gleaned from discourse analysis were very encouraging. Additionally, informal interviews, as well as some of the diary entries themselves, suggested that students' attitudes toward the diaries were positive. To gauge learner reaction in more detail, at the end of the semester, 33 students who had written diaries completed questionnaires about their experience. Following Dornyei's (2003, p. 18) edict that less is often more, the questionnaire was kept short, consisting of just four parts. The first two (7.1 and 7.2, below) were scaled response questions containing five categories: *Strongly Agree, Agree, Don't know, Disagree,* and *Strongly Disagree*. The third question (7.3) was a closed *Yes/No/Don't Know* question. Finally, students were asked to give comments on any good or bad points of writing an English diary during the course (7.4).

7.1. Did you enjoy writing the diary?

Eleven students (33.33 percent) responded 'strongly agree' to the question of whether they enjoyed writing the diary. A further 21 students (63.63 percent) responded 'agree', and just one student responded 'don't know'. No student disagreed. This showed that writing was no longer seen as "boring" or "difficult" by these students (as had been indicated in interviews at the beginning of the semester), and had instead become something enjoyable. As learner enjoyment has been shown to be closely related to motivation in language learning (Wang, 2008; Noels 2003), this was a hugely significant development.

7.2. Did the diary help to improve your English writing?

The results for this question were similarly encouraging. Fourteen students (42.42 percent) responded 'strongly agree' – the diary helped improve their English writing – while 16 students (48.48 percent) responded 'agree'. The remaining 3 students (9.09 percent) chose 'don't know'. Research has shown that awareness of progress can lead to enhanced self-efficacy, thus improving future learning (Schunk, 2001), so it is especially gratifying that the majority of students in this study could notice the beneficial effects of the diary writing activity for themselves. This may facilitate further gains in their studies ahead.

7.3. Will you continue writing an English diary in the future?

Again, the student response to question 3 was positive. Twenty students (60.60 percent) responded 'yes', they will continue writing a diary in the future, with the remainder saying 'don't know'. If the activity can encourage continued independent learning, then students have the opportunity for further improvement, even after the course has ended. This response also makes it clear that many students feel comfortable writing in English, which is a markedly different attitude to that seen in student interviews at the beginning of the semester.

7.4. Please give comments on any good or bad points of writing an English diary in this course.

In 33 questionnaires, 26 respondents wrote comments. Within these comments, there were 35 statements in total (some students writing more than one statement). Of these statements, 27 can be classified as positive, and eight statements may be deemed negative. The vast majority of positive statements (21 out of 27) referred to the teacher's written comments about the content of the diary; for example, "I look forward to your comments every time." Four positive statements referred more to general enjoyment ("It was fun to write a diary!"). Of the negative statements, all eight of them expressed a desire for more teacher correction of grammar or spelling; for example, "I'd like you to feedback not only on content but also spelling and grammar!!" "I'd like you to check grammar because I write similar contents."

8. Evaluation and Reflection

The results of this study showed that personal diary writing can have positive effects on learners' attitudes towards writing, leading to measurable gains over their peers who did not write diaries. As well as the benefits outlined above, the teacher of the course noted further positive outcomes. Through the dialogue process, it was possible for the teacher to learn more about the students' lives, enabling him to tailor classes towards their needs or interests. For example, after many students had written about seeing a popular film, a class was designed around some of the issues raised in the movie. Additionally, the diary allowed students the opportunity to request and receive one-to-one tuition not always possible in a class of 20 or more students.

Students used the diary to ask for advice on how to improve listening or speaking skills and how to study for TOEIC. One student was worried about an upcoming English speech contest, so the teacher offered a list of public speaking tips. Another learner was very shy in class but wrote about her life with great eloquence and humour; through the diary response, the teacher suggested she told some of these stories to her classmates, and she soon gained confidence not only in her writing but also in her speaking. The dialogue aspect meant that, as well as explicit language learning gains, the relationship between teacher and students improved significantly. As one questionnaire respondent commented, "I feel closer to you with the diary."

It should be noted that this case study was conducted by one teacher-researcher in a single university department. The process outlined in this paper has led to stronger interpersonal relationships between the researcher and participants, so the study could be open to accusations of researcher bias. Therefore, it would be interesting to observe a similar study in a different setting and with different participants and teachers.

The student requests for more correction of grammar and spelling show that there may have been some disconnect between the intention of the teacher (to improve writing through free practice), and the wants or needs of some of the students. Further study might compare the students' academic writing performance after content-focused feedback on their diaries (as in this study) with more traditional, language-focused feedback on their diaries.

While more extensive research will be beneficial, the data provided by this case study strongly suggest that personal diary writing can have positive effects on the volume, grammar complexity, vocabulary and cohesion of students' academic essay writing.

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Exploring International Programme Students' Intercultural Communication Competence in Thailand

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore the international students' Intercultural Communication Competence ICC in the international programme at a private university in Thailand as to whether they can adapt and utilize their abilities effectively and appropriately when interacting among people from various different cultural backgrounds in terms of knowledge, attitudes, skills and awareness. A total of 36 international students voluntarily participated in and responded to the survey questionnaires on a 5-Likert scale. Moreover, the data was collected by interviewing and observing the participants through the extracurricular activities and communication through social media. The findings showed that the international programme can enhance an individual's Intercultural Communication Competence ICC. While the students' language proficiency is much better, especially when using English language as the main medium to communicate among themselves, they are able at the same time gain knowledge about other cultures. The result is that the longer they stay in their host country, the more understanding they have towards other cultures because they are studying in an international programme

Keywords: Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC), cross-cultural communication, international programme

Introduction

Diversity in the world is a basic characteristic of human society and also the key condition for a dynamic world. Whilst living in a culturally diverse world, each individual seeks to maintain one's unique cultural identity and at the same time be open to other cultures. Mahatma Gandhi (1921) once said, "I do not want my house to be walled in on all sides and my windows to be stuffed. I want the cultures of all the lands to be blown about my house as freely as possible. But I refuse to be blown off my feet by any." This quote could be used to explain the concept of a diverse society in this modern world. In the globalization era, people increasingly contact and engage with individuals from different ethnicities, races, nationalities, religions and cultures in their daily lives on a more frequent basis and so no surprise that diversity has become an interesting topical issue among many scholars.

Due to such differences in societies, many researchers and theoreticians have studied the ability to step beyond one's own culture with other individuals from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds (Ruben, 1976; Byram, 1997; Fantini, 2006; Bennett, 1993). It is called '*Intercultural Communication Competence*' (ICC). According to Fantini (2006), 'Intercultural Communication Competence' can be defined as 'a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself.' Besides, many different terms can be used to describe Intercultural Communication Competence (Sinicrope, Norris & Watanabe, 2007) such as Transcultural Communication, Cross-cultural Adaptation, Intercultural Sensitivity, Global Competence, Intercultural Interaction, Global Competitive Intelligence, and Intercultural Cooperation.

According to Ruben's (1976), a behavioural approach links between what individuals know as well as what those particular individuals actually do in intercultural situations. He has listed seven dimensions of Intercultural Communication Competence in order to assess individuals' behaviours based on observation procedures.

Figure 1: A Comparison of Ruben's Model of Intercultural Communication Competence

On the other hand, Byram (1997) has proposed that intercultural competence involves five factors, especially in linguistics communication, including verbal and non-verbal forms and the development of linguistic sociolinguistic and discourse competencies. Furthermore, Bennett's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) consists of six stages which are divided into three ethnocentric stages and three ethno relative stages. Each spot along the continuum represents increasingly complex perceptual views of cultural differences. By identifying the underlying experience of cultural differences, predictions about behaviour and attitudes can be made and education can be modified to facilitate development along the continuum.

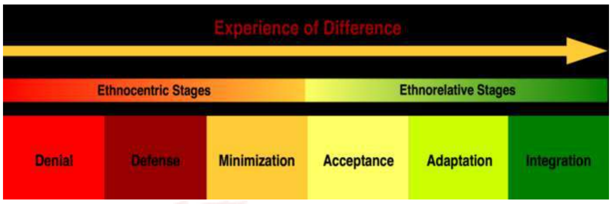

Figure 2: Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity

According to Fantini (2006), he proposed that ICC can be developed for successful intercultural communication through four dimensions: Knowledge, Attitude, Skill and Awareness (KASA). In general, Intercultural Communication Competency can be seen as a necessary part of people's personal and professional lives as an ability to overcome difficulties when communicating with people from different backgrounds.

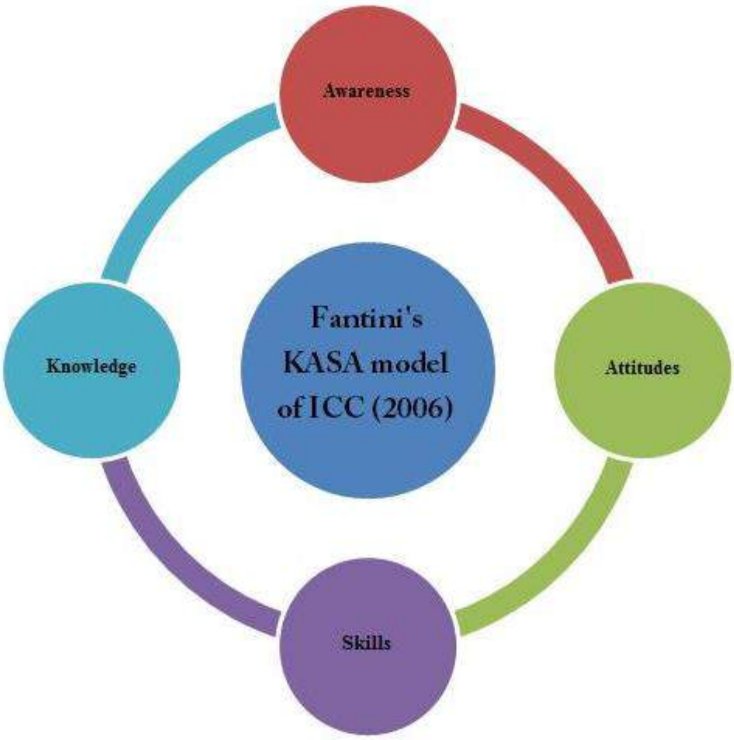

Figure 3: Fantini's (2006) KASA Model of Intercultural Communication Competence

In the globalizing world, studying abroad can be considered as one of the most effective assessment tools to explore the Intercultural Communication Competence

(Saricoban and Oz, 2014; Keles, 2013; Nedelcu and Ulrich, 2014; Mirzaei and Forouzandeh, 2013; Hismanoglu, 2011; Farnia and Wu, 2012; Dusi, Messetti & Steinbach, 2014). It is believed that by studying in another country in an international programme, the individual can gain international knowledge and experience, face challenges and enlarge the intercultural communication competency and of course, one can generally improve their language proficiency.

Based on Saricoban and Oz's reserach (2014), they have investigated pre-service English teachers' Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) in Turkey. They used a 5-point Likert scale self-reported questionnaire to examine differences in participants' ICC. It showed the strong positive correlations between the participants' studying abroad and their ICC levels. Additionally, Keles (2013) studied the attitudes and beliefs of some European university students to Turkish people while they joined the ERAMUS Exchange Programme in Turkey. It is found that people from different cultures need to break the assumptions towards other cultures. These assumptions are beliefs rather than truths and are usually influenced by various subjective factors. People need to be aware of how to interact with others with respect and knowledge of their culture. Furthermore, Nedelcu and Ulrich (2014) explored students and faculty's perceptions on experiences provided by international exchange programmes in Romania. The results showed that both incoming and outgoing Erasmus students assessed studying abroad in a positive way as they improved in both foreign language proficiency and intercultural understanding and competences of the host country's culture and society.

In Thailand as shown in Figure 4, the Office of the Higher Education's survey (2012) was found that the numbers of foreign students in public and private higher education institutions in Thailand gradually increased every year, especially at the undergraduate level. The latest report reveals that in the year 2011, there were 13,397 foreign students in Thai higher education institutions which had doubled from the year 2007, when there were only 7,184 students. The top three countries were from neighbouring countries in Asia such as China, Myanmar and Laos respectively.

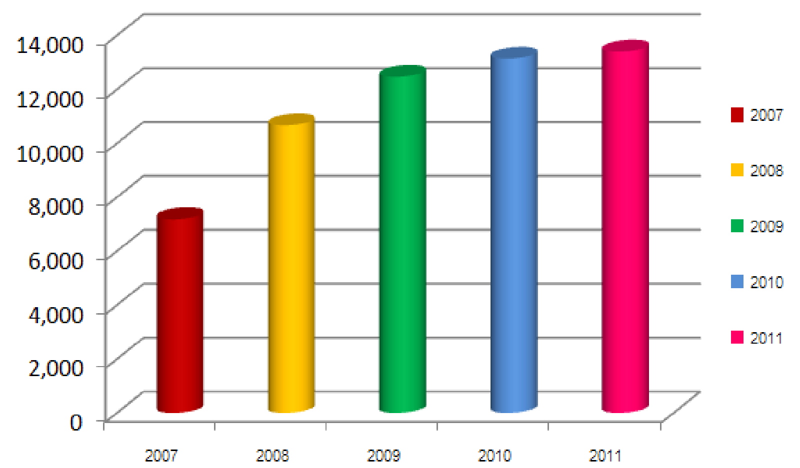

Figure 4: The Numbers of International Students studying in Thailand

Obviously, it can be seen that the more students explore other different cultures, the better they can improve their intercultural communication. Hence, studying abroad appears to enable a wider experience of knowledge and understanding good practices across different cultures. To better appreciate how the international programme abroad can be used as an effective tool for assessing intercultural communication competence, this study aims at exploring students' intercultural communication competence in the international programme at a private university in Thailand, whether they can perform their abilities effectively and appropriately when interacting among people from various different cultural backgrounds. The study was designed to address the research question: What skills, knowledge, awareness and attitudes do international programme students at Kasem Bundit University have in regard to the intercultural communication competence?

Methodology

Participants

This study was carried out in the Department of Aviation Industry Management (International Programme), at Aviation Personnel Development Institute (APDI), Kasem Bundit University, a private university in Thailand. A total number of 36 international students voluntarily participated in this recent study and responded to the survey questionnaires on a 5-Likert self-reported scale. It consisted of 21 males (58.33%) and 15 females (41.67%). At the time of data collection, the participants were in their 2nd and 3rd year of their study in university and they have already had experience in the diverse cultures especially studying in the international programme. These participants were from different countries; Nigeria (N=5, 14%), China (N=7, 19%), Somalia (N=6, 17%), Bangladesh (N=1, 3%), Cambodia (N=3, 8%), Brunei (N=3, 8%), Nepal (N=4, 11%), South Africa (N=4, 11%), Comoros (N=1, 3%), and The Philippines (N=2, 6%). Their age ranges were between 18-25 years, 25-35 years and 35-45 years, and the average age among all participants was 22.49 years.

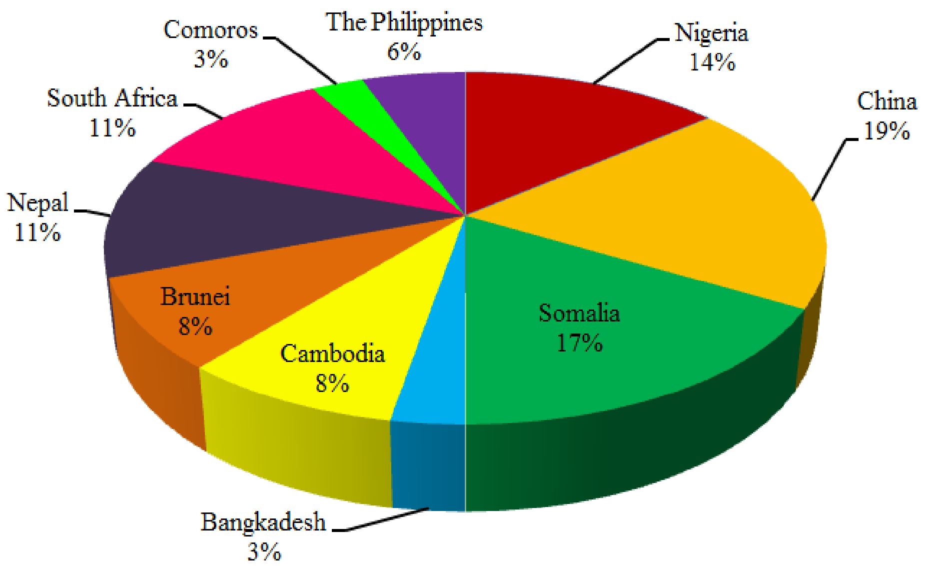

Figure 5: Fantini's KASA Model of Intercultural Communication Competence Instruments

The instruments in this study included a self-reported questionnaire, an observation and a semi-structured interview in order to triangulate the data and to enhance the trustworthiness of the results.
The self-reported 5 Likert-scale questionnaire ranged from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' and consisted of three parts. The first part included the participants' demographic information such as gender, age, and nationality whereas the second part contained questions about motivation and interest towards the host culture. Finally, the third part included 52 questions about ICC based on Fantini's (2006) investigation on intercultural abilities: 11 items for assessing the participants' knowledge, 13 items for evaluating the participants' attitudes, 10 skill items for assessing the participants' skill to communicate across different cultures and finally 18 items for assessing the participants' awareness of intercultural communication and one more question was the open-ended question, asking their further opinion towards intercultural communication. In order to judge participants' ICC, the criteria of the scores can be categorised into three levels as showing in Table 1, the scores were considered *High* if they were between 3.5 and 5.0, *Moderate* if they were between 2.5 and 3.4 and *Low* if they were between 1.5 and 2.4.

ICC Level	Mean	Options
High	4.0 - 5.0 3.5 - 4.4	Strongly agree Agree
Moderate	2.5 - 3.4	Neither agree or disagree
Low	1.5 - 2.4	Strongly disagree

Table 1: The Criteria of Intercultural Communicative Competence Level

Moreover, the data was collected by observing the participants through their classroom activities and extra curriculum activities such as the welcome party for international students. Besides this, observation was also done through social media such as Facebook group, and LINE programme, an application on mobile phones, where they use English language for communication among themselves. The semi-structured interview was also used as the research instrument in order to receive more information on the participants' intercultural communication competence as well.

Results

This study examined students' intercultural communication competence (ICC) in the international programme. The results of data analysis revealed that the participants' level of interest and motivation towards the host significantly increased by the time they have experienced cultural diversity. The longer they stayed in the host country, the higher their interest and motivation increased. Besides, the participants admired that the hosts could become as bicultural and bilingual as possible with the percentages of 47.22% and 44.44% respectively.

As shown in Table 2, In terms of knowledge of intercultural communication competence, the participants showed that they had abilities to learn about general and specific cultures. Within the Thai cultural setting, they learned to compare and differentiate their own cultures and the host culture in order to overcome communication barriers especially with language. More than half of the participants knew techniques to aid their learning of Thai language and cultures. For instance, one of the Thai traditional norms the participants could easily recognise was Thai greeting. They knew how Thais greet others by saying the word '*sawasdee*', which means '*hello*' in English with the palms pressed together. Not only they learn a host language and cultures, but they also learn how to interact with local people and adjust themselves within a new environment among many people from different nationalities. Overall, the participants' ICC ability in terms of knowledge, the average ability was moderate level ($\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ = 3.35). Even though it was not in a high level, the participants were able to recognise signs of strategies to overcome any difficulties that might occur while they live in a host country.

Table 2: Intercultural Communication Competence Abilities: Knowledge

Question items	$\bar{x}$	SD
1. I can cite a definition of culture and describe its components and complexities	3.33	.828
2. I knew the essential norms and taboos of the host culture (e.g., greeting, dress, behaviors, etc.)	3.28	1.08
3. I can contrast important aspects of the host language and culture with my own	3.36	.961
4. I recognise signs of culture stress and some strategies for overcoming it	3.14	1.01
5. I know some techniques to aid my learning of the host language and culture	3.69	1.00
6. I can contrast my own behaviours with those of my hosts in important areas (e.g., social interactions, basic routines, time orientation)	3.50	.971
7. I can cite important historical and socio-political factors that shape my own culture and the host culture	3.36	1.19
8. I can describe a model of cross-cultural adjustment stages	3.31	1.03
9. I can cite various learning processes and strategies for learning about and adjusting to the host culture	3.25	.906
10. I can describe common interactional behaviours among Thais in social and professional areas (e.g., family roles, team work, problem solving, etc.)	3.39	.838
11. I can discuss and contrast various behavioral patterns in my own culture with those in Thailand	3.33	1.14

As Table 3 shows, in regard to the attitude ability of ICC, the average of the participants' ability was in high level ($\bar{x}$ = 3.56). Most of the participants had positive attitudes when dealing with their own emotions and frustrations with the host culture. Overall, the participants had a willingness to learn from the hosts, both language and culture. Besides, they tried to adapt their behavior to communicate appropriately for different situations.

Table 3: Intercultural Communication Competence Abilities: Attitude

While in Thailand, I demonstrate willingness to	$\bar{x}$	SD
12. interact with host culture members (I didn't avoid them or primarily seek out my compatriots)	3.42	1.07
13. learn from my hosts, their language, and their culture	3.58	1.02
14. try to communicate in Thai and behave in 'appropriate' ways as judged by my hosts	3.50	1.08
15. deal with my emotions and frustrations with the host culture (in addition to the pleasures it offered)	3.31	.856
16. take on various roles appropriate to different situations (e.g., as a volunteer)	3.53	.878
17. show interest in new cultural aspects (e.g. to understand the values, history, traditions, etc.)	3.61	.903
18. try to understand differences in the behaviours, values, attitudes, and styles of host members	3.61	.871
19. adapt my behavior to communicate appropriately in Thailand (e.g., in non-verbal and other behavioural areas, as needed for different situations)	3.58	.937
20. reflect on the impact and consequences of my decisions and choices on my hosts	3.53	1.08
21. deal with different ways of perceiving, expressing, interacting, and behaving	3.64	.798
22. interact in alternative ways, even when quite different from those to which I was accustomed and preferred	3.67	.894
23. deal with the ethical implications of my choices (in terms of decisions, consequences, results)	3.72	1.08
24. suspend judgement and appreciate the complexities of communicating and interacting interculturally	3.61	.994

As Table 4 shows, the participants used their skills to improve their intercultural communication, which was in the high level ($\bar{x}$ = 3.52). For example, the question item 33, '*I use culture-specific information to improve my style and professional interaction with my hosts*' showed that the participants had abilities and skills to improve their interaction with Thais. Moreover, the participants found that using the social media such as Facebook and LINE programme was seen as very important and useful in order to expand their knowledge about Thai culture, practice their language skills and also make friends among international students at the same time.

Awareness could be seen as the crucial ability of intercultural communication competence in this study, the participants showed that they were aware of the differences and similarities across their own and the host language and culture. Even though the Thai environment has impact on their lives, they could learn and develop their intercultural communication competence and appreciate different cultures and at the same time they were also proud of their own identities. For instance, when there was a traditional costume show in the international student welcome party, each student was so proud to present their own cultures and also appreciated others.

Table 4: Intercultural Communication Competence Abilities: Skills

Question items	$\bar{x}$	SD
25. I demonstrate flexibility when interacting with persons from the host culture	3.56	.969
26. I adjust my behavior and dress as appropriate, to avoid offending my hosts	3.47	.810
27. I am able to contrast the host culture with my own	3.42	1.05
28. I used strategies for learning the host language and about the host culture	3.64	.990
29. I demonstrate a capacity to interact appropriately in a variety of different social situations in the host culture	3.61	.838
30. I use appropriate strategies for adapting to the host culture and reducing stress	3.47	.845
31. I use models, strategies, and techniques that aid my learning of the host language and culture	3.22	.929
32. I monitor my behavior and its impact on my learning, my growth, and especially on my hosts	3.67	.956
33. I use culture-specific information to improve my style and professional interaction with my hosts	3.39	.903
34. I help to resolve cross-cultural conflicts and misunderstandings when they arose	3.78	1.07

Table 5: Intercultural Communication Competence Abilities: Awareness

While in Thailand, I realise the importance of	$\bar{x}$	*SD*
35. differences and similarities across my own and the host language and culture	3.81	.856
36. my negative reactions to these differences (e.g., fear, ridicule, disgust, superiority)	3.22	.929
37. how varied situations in the host culture required modifying in my interactions with others	3.50	.737
38. how host culture members viewed me and why	3.58	1.05
39. myself as a 'culturally conditioned' person with personal habits and preferences	3.44	.998
40. responses by host culture members to my own social identity (e.g., race, class, gender, age)	3.42	.996
41. diversity in the host culture (such as differences in race, class, gender, age, ability)	3.39	1.05
42. dangers of generalizing individual behaviours as representative of the whole culture	3.61	.964
43. my choices and their consequences (which make me either more, or less, acceptable to my hosts)	3.50	.910
44. my personal values that affect my approach to ethical dilemmas and their resolution	3.50	1.02
45. my hosts' reactions to me that reflect their cultural values	3.58	.937
46. how my values and ethics are reflected in specific situations	3.56	.843
47. varying cultural styles and language use and their effect in social and working situations	3.53	.971
48. my own level of intercultural development	3.72	1.03
49. the level of intercultural development of those I work with (hosts, classmates, co-workers)	3.50	.910
50. factors that help or hinder my intercultural development and ways to overcome them	3.33	.756
51. how I perceived myself as communicator, facilitator, mediator, in an intercultural situation	3.53	.910
52. how others perceived me as communicator, mediator, in an intercultural situation	3.58	.874

Figure 6: Activities among international students from various countries

From the interviews and observation, the findings showed that students' language proficiency is much better through usage in the classroom while they had to discuss in class and also through extracurricular activities along with the social media, especially using English language as the medium to communicate among themselves. Not only their language abilities in English increase more, but they also gain knowledge about different cultures from various activities arranged in the university and local communities as well.

During the interviews, one of the foreign students from China said "*When I first arrived to Thailand. I couldn't speak Thai and my English was not good enough. My native language is Chinese, so I have to communicate with others by using the body language sometimes. Now, my English is getting better and I've learnt to speak Thai, too*." Another student, originally from Cambodia, also mentioned about her achievement in improving language abilities and gaining knowledge of different cultures, "*My English is much better than when I was in my own country and I enjoy being around with people from different countries, I can learn their cultures and also share my own cultures*." Furthermore, a Nigerian student stated "*I've learnt a lot from being here, but you need time to adjust yourself to others*."

Discussion and Conclusion

In every diverse society, people will learn to adapt themselves through communication with others in order to increase their knowledge, attitude, skills and awareness abilities.
The findings show that the international programme can enhance an individual's intercultural communication competence. The longer they stay in the host country, the more understanding they have. The findings support Bennett's (1993) developmental model of intercultural sensitivity, people learn to value and respond respectfully to other cultures. Changes in individuals' worldviews can be observed to see how one can respond and adapt oneself to cultural differences depending on the duration of time staying in the host country. Studying in international programmes can be seen as an exciting and new experience.
However, when people from different cultures come together, they should empathize to understand others' point of views as Ruben's (1976) mentioned '*Empathy*', the

ability to understand another person's situation, as one of the seven dimensions of intercultural communication competence.

Studying in the international programme helps improve language proficiency especially in English. Some students such as Chinese had difficulties and this would lead to misunderstandings in communication. However, they have learned to speak Thai and used their intercultural abilities to communicate with non-verbal such as body language and facial expressions. This is in compliance with Byram's (1997) factors of intercultural communication competence especially in linguistic communication. Further study should be focused on foreign students with larger numbers of participants in order to see whether it yields a different or similar result.

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Error Analysis on Thai Regular Final Consonants Pronunciation of Chinese TFL University Students

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to analyze the errors in Thai regular final consonant pronunciation of Chinese university students studying Thai as a Foreign Language (TFL). The sample group of this study consists of twenty-one first-year Chinese university students undertaking the Thai Language and Culture program during the 2014 academic year at the School of Liberal Arts, Mae Fah Luang University, Chiang Rai province, Thailand. For this study, twenty-seven monosyllabic words comprised of the eight Thai regular final consonants: /□≺/, /□□/, /□↔/, /□∓/, /□□/, /□.·˙/, /□⌟/, and /□□/ have been chosen from wordlists for children, a part of *Basic Wordlist for Learning and Teaching Thai at Elementary Level*, produced by the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, Ministry of Education. The errors were collected from the wordlists' pronunciation form. Frequency and percentage were employed to calculate pronunciation errors of Thai regular final consonants. The findings revealed that errors on /-.·˙/ are the highest, followed by /□□/, /□□/, /□□/, /□⌟/, /□↔/, /□≺/, and /□∓/ respectively. This study also recommends that error analysis should be implemented in order to create pronunciation exercises as a basic tool for solving the pronunciation problems of Thai regular final consonants encountered by Chinese TFL university students.

Keywords: Error analysis, Thai regular final consonants, pronunciation, Thai as a Foreign Language (TFL), Chinese university students

Introduction

In this era of globalization, the popularity and need for studying the Thai language have expanded because of the growth of investment, the tourism industry, economic interdependency, and business expansion both into and out of Thailand. Thus, many learners choose to study the Thai language as the vital tool in order to obtain better jobs and develop themselves for regional competitiveness.

Nowadays, many educational institutions in Thailand offer Thai language courses for non-native speakers. Mae Fah Luang University is one such institution. A bachelor's degree in Thai language and Culture (TLC) has been offered at Mae Fah Luang University since 2007 so as to provide both Thai language skills and Thai cultural knowledge for non-Thai learners.

Most learners who enroll in the TLC program are Chinese. When Chinese learners study Thai as a foreign language (henceforth TFL), they face various linguistic problems because native language interference has directly influenced their foreign language acquisition as Ponmanee (1999: 59) has also affirmed.

Final consonants are one of the critical problems among Chinese students studying TFL. Based on my teaching experience, I have noticed that some Chinese learners continually encounter pronunciation problems because they cannot distinguish the difference between Chinese and Thai languages.

Studies on the analysis of pronunciation errors of Chinese learners studying English are abundant; nevertheless, the error analysis of pronunciation errors of Chinese learners studying Thai, especially Thai final consonants, are rarely found. In order to improve and develop learning and teaching TFL, research on this issue should be conducted.

Comparison of Standard Chinese (SC) and Standard Thai (ST) final consonants

According to Chumnirokasant (1999: 239), there are nine Thai final consonants: four stops (□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□ and □□□□), three nasals (□□□□, □□□□, and /□.·˙/), and two semi-vowels (□□□□ and □□□□). On the other hand, there are only two final nasals □□□□ and /□.·˙/ in Standard Chinese (Lin, 2007) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Comparison of Standard Chinese (SC) and Standard Thai (ST) final consonants

Place of articulation / Manner of articulation		Bilabial SC	Bilabial ST	Alveolar SC	Alveolar ST	Palatal SC	Palatal ST	Velar SC	Velar ST	Glottal SC	Glottal ST
Stops	Voiceless		-p		-t				-k		-ʔ
Nasals	Voiced		-m	-n	-n			-ŋ	-ŋ		
Semi-vowels	Voiced		-w				-j				

What are Thai regular final consonants?

As mentioned earlier, there are nine Thai final consonants. However for this study, the researcher has used all Thai final consonants except /□□/ because there is no final consonant in this group, for example □≺⟼□□□□ ‘aunt’. Each Thai alphabet in the third column in Table 2 represents the writing form of Thai regular final consonants.

Table 2

Thai regular final consonants

No.	Thai final consonants	Representative alphabet for Thai regular final consonants	Examples
1	/-p/	บ	ชอบ /chɔ̂:p/ ‘to like’
2	/-t/	ด	เป็ด /pèt/ ‘duck’
3	/-k/	ก	นก /nók/ ‘bird’
4	/-m/	ม	ดื่ม /dɯ̀:m/ ‘to drink’
5	/-n/	น	กิน /kin/ ‘to eat’
6	/-ŋ/	ง	ถุง /thǔŋ/ ‘bag’
7	/-w/	ว	แมว /mɛ:w/ ‘cat’
8	/-j/	ย	ขาย /khǎ:j/ ‘to sell’
9	/-ʔ/	-	ป้า /pâ:ʔ/ ‘aunt’

The difference of each Thai final consonant makes each word have different meaning. For example, the spelling of /kaːn/ is varied: กาน 'to prune'; การ 'task'; กาล 'time'; and กาฬ 'black'. Each word has a different spelling but the same Thai phonetic symbol has been used to transcribe the pronunciation of each word, and we call them "homophones[1]".

Research questions

What are the frequent errors in the pronunciation of Thai regular final consonants made by first-year Chinese TFL university students?

Objectives

To analyze pronunciation errors of Thai regular final consonants made by Chinese TFL university students

Methodology

Participants

Twenty-one first year Chinese university students studying Thai Language and Culture Program during the 2014 academic year at the School of Liberal Arts, Mae Fah Luang University, Chiang Rai province, Thailand.

Word Choice

The twenty-seven monosyllabic words were chosen from *Basic Wordlist for Learning and Teaching Thai at Elementary Level*, which is for young children, produced by the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, Ministry of Education, Thailand.

Table 3 shows the selected twenty-seven monosyllabic words. For each Thai final consonant, the researcher tried to choose words whose initial consonants, vowels, and tones are different. For example, for □□□□□□□□ and □□□□□□□ in the first row for Thai final consonant □□□□, the initial consonants were □□□□ and □□□, the vowels were □□□□ and □□□, and the tones were a falling tone and a low tone respectively.

[1] one of a group of words pronounced in the same way but differing in meaning or spelling or both, as for example *bear* and *bare*

Table 3

Twenty seven monosyllabic words using for pronunciation errors analysis

Thai final consonants	1	2	3	4	5
/-p/	/chô:p/ 'to like'	/càp/ 'to catch'			
/-t/	/mî:t/ 'knife'	/chút/ 'group, set'	/pèt/ 'duck'		
/-k/	/lû:k/ 'child'	/phàk/ 'vegetable'	/nók/ 'bird'		
/-m/	/phǒm/ 'I'	/cha:m/ 'bowl'	/sôm/ 'orange'	/dɯ̀:m/ 'to drink'	
/-n/	/kin/ 'to eat'	/lên/ 'to play'	/chɔ́:n/ 'spoon'	/khɛ̌:n/ 'arm'	/ʔà:n/ 'to read'
/-ŋ/	/lá:ŋ/ 'to wash'	/kɛ:ŋ/ 'curry'	/hɔ̂:ŋ/ 'room'	/thǔŋ/ 'bag'	
/-w/	/khâ:w/ 'rice'	/mɛ:w/ 'cat'	/khíw/ 'eyebrow'		
/-j/	/khǎ:j/ 'to sell'	/thûaj/ 'cup'	/ja:j/ 'grandma'		

Instrument

The pronunciation form was used for collecting the data. This form contains twenty-seven monosyllabic words with eight Thai regular final consonants: /-≺/, /-␣/, /-□/, /-∓/, /-□/, /-.˙˙/, /-⌋/, and /-□/. All selected words in Table 4 have been ordered according to the number specified in *Basic Wordlist for Learning and Teaching Thai at Elementary Level*.

Table 4

Twenty seven monosyllabic words in the pronunciation form

No.	Thai words	Thai phonetics	Meaning
1	กิน	/kin/	'to eat'
2	ขาย	/khǎ:j/	'to sell'
3	ข้าว	/khâ:w/	'rice'
4	เล่น	/lên/	'to play'
5	ชอบ	/chô:p/	'to like'
6	ล้าง	/lá:ŋ/	'to wash'
7	ผม (ส.)	/phǒm/	'I'
8	ช้อน	/chó:n/	'spoon'
9	ลูก	/lû:k/	'child'
10	ถ้วย	/thûaj/	'cup'
11	จับ	/càp/	'to catch'
12	ผัก	/phàk/	'vegetable'
13	ชาม	/cha:m/	'bowl'
14	แขน	/khɛ̌:n/	'arm'
15	แกง	/kɛ:ŋ/	'curry'
16	ส้ม	/sôm/	'orange'
17	มีด	/mî:t/	'knife'
18	ยาย	/ja:j/	'grandmother'
19	ชุด	/chút/	'group, set'
20	นก	/nók/	'bird'
21	แมว	/mɛ:w/	'cat'
22	ห้อง	/hô:ŋ/	'room'
23	เป็ด	/pèt/	'duck'
24	คิ้ว	/khíw/	'eyebrow'
25	ดื่ม	/dɯ̀:m/	'to drink'
26	อ่าน	/ʔà:n/	'to read'
27	ถุง	/thǔŋ/	'bag'

Data collection

Each student had to pronounce each word two times. Thai phonetic symbols were used to transcribe their pronunciation in the pronunciation form.

Data analysis

Frequency and percentage were employed to calculate errors in the pronunciation of Thai regular final consonants made by first-year Chinese TFL university students.

Findings

The results revealed that the most frequent errors occurred with the use of □□.·˙□ (40.48%) in the pronunciation of Thai regular final consonants made by first-year Chinese TFL university students, followed by □□□□□(25.40%), □□□□ (22.22%), □□□□ (21.91%), □□□□ (15.87%), □□□□ (14.29%), □□□□ (12.7%), and □□□□ (11.91%) respectively as illustrated in Figure 1.

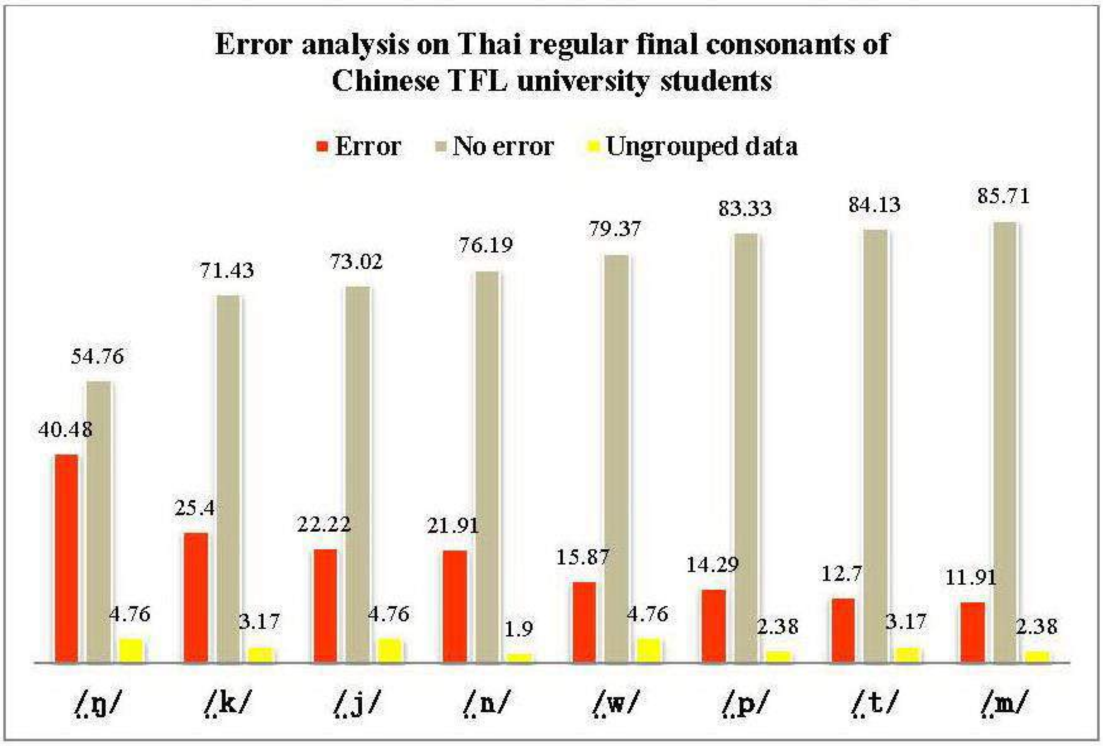

Figure 1: Error analysis on Thai regular final consonants of Chinese TFL university students

The pronunciation errors of Thai regular final consonants will be exemplified as followed:

1. □□□□

This final consonant sound was revealed to be pronounced incorrectly the most frequently (40.48%) by Chinese students. In this study, □□□□,□□□□□,□□□□□, and□□□□□□were found to substitute for the final □□□□.

Table 5

Pronunciation errors of final /-ŋ/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)			
	/-n/ (16.67%)	/-m/ (15.48%)	/-ʔ/ (7.14%)	/-j/ (1.19%)
/kɛ:ŋ/	/kɛ:n/	/kɛ:m/	/kɛ̀ʔ/	/kǎ:j/
/hɔ̂:ŋ/	/hɔ̂:n/	/hɔ̂:m/	/hɔ̌:ʔ/	
/lá:ŋ/	/lá:n/	/lá:m/	/lâ:ʔ/	
/thǔŋ/	/thǔn/	/thǔm/	/phǔ:ʔ/	

From this table, it can be seen that Chinese students employed □□□□□with the highest frequency (16.67%), followed by □□□□□(15.48%), □□□□□(7.14%), and □□□□□(1.19%).

2. □□□□

The pronunciation errors of □□□□ (25.40%) were the second highest. Most Chinese students replaced □□□□ with □□□□,□□□□□□□□□□, and □□□□.

Table 6

Pronunciation errors of final /-k/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)			
	/-ʔ/ (11.11%)	/-p/ (9.52%)	/-n/ (3.18%)	/-t/ (1.59%)
/phàk/	/phǎ:ʔ/	/phàp/	/phà:n/	
/lû:k/	/sǔ:ʔ/	/lù:p/	/lu:n/	
/nók/	/no:ʔ/			/nòt/

Table 6 shows that Chinese students employed □□□□ the most (11.11%), followed by □□□□ (9.52%), □□□□□(3.18%), and □□□□□(1.59%).

3. □□□□

The number of pronunciation errors found in the final □□□□ (22.22%) is the third highest. Four final sounds are typically substituted for it: □□□□,□□□□□, □□□□, and □□□□.

Table 7

Pronunciation errors of final /-j/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)			
	/-w/ (9.52%)	/-ʔ/ (7.94%)	/-t/ (3.17%)	/-n/ (1.59%)
/ja:j/	/ja:w/	/jâ:ʔ/	/jâ:t/	/jɔ:n/
/thûaj/	/thǎ:w/	/khɔ̌:ʔ/		
/khǎ:j/	/khaw/	/khǎ:ʔ/	/khá:t/	

Based on Table 7, it can be seen that Chinese learners pronounced □□□□ as□□□□□ (9.52%), □□□□ (7.94%), □□□□ (3.18%), and □□□□ (1.59%) respectively.

4. □□□□

The errors of □□□□□pronunciation were calculated at 21.91%. Although □□□□ was categorized as a final nasal in Standard Chinese, Chinese students still were confused and could not pronounce this final sound accurately as seen in Table 8.

Table 8

Pronunciation errors of final /-n/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)				
	/-m/ (13.33%)	/-ŋ/ (3.81%)	/-ʔ/ (3.81%)	/-k/ (0.95%)	/-j/ (0.95%)
/ʔà:n/	/ʔà:m/	/ŋâ:ŋ/	/ʔà:ʔ/		
/lên/	/lêm/		/nǎ:ʔ/	/sɯ̀k/	
/chɔ́:n/	/chɔ́:m/	/chɔ́:ŋ/			
/khɛ̌:n/	/khɛ:m/	/khɛ̌:ŋ/			/khǎ:j/

It was found that□□□□□□(13.33%), □□□□□(3.81%)□□□□□□ (3.81%), □□□□□(0.95%), and □□□□□(0.95%) were often substituted for □□□□. Chinese learners mostly utilized □□□□ instead of □□□□ because of the same manner of articulation that is used in nasals.

5. □□□□

Four final sounds were selected to replace final □□□□□□These□were □□□□,□□□□□, □□□□, and □□□□□ respectively.

Table 9

Pronunciation errors of final /-w/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)			
	/-ʔ/ (7.93%)	/-t/ (4.76%)	/-n/ (1.59%)	/-j/ (1.59%)
/mɛ:w/	/mɔ:ʔ/	/khît/	/mɤ:n/	
/khǐw/	/khô:ʔ/			/khûj/

As seen in Table 9,□□□□□ has the highest number of pronunciation errors (7.93%), followed by □□□□ (4.76%), □□□□ (1.59%), and □□□□□(1.59%).

6. □□□□

Only two final □□□□ and □□□□ sounds were discovered in substituting the pronunciation of final □□□□as shown in the following table.

Table 10

Pronunciation errors of final /-p/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)	
	/-ʔ/ (9.53%)	/-n/ (4.76%)
/chô:p/	/chɔ:ʔ/	/co:n/
/càp/	/cǎ:ʔ/	/ca:n/

To replace the final consonant □□□□□□Chinese students most frequently used □□□□□(9.53%) and □□□□□(4.76%). Since the place of articulation of □□□□ is bilabial, Chinese learners could easily imitate the pronunciation of this sound. For this reason, the pronunciation errors of this sound were rarely found.

7. □□□□

The use of□□□□□, □□□□, and □□□□ in English were 6.35%, 3.17%, and 3.17%, respectively, in order to replace the final □□□□ in Thai.

Table 11

Pronunciation errors of final /-t/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)		
	/-n/ (6.35%)	/-ʔ/ (3.17%)	/-t/ (English) (3.17%)
/pèt/	/phɔ:n/		
/mî:t/	/mi:n/	/mǐ:ʔ/	/mì:t/
/chút/	/khun/		/kha:jt/

Noticeably, only one low proficiency student pronounced final □□□□□in Thai as final □□□□ in English. This error might have arisen from their misunderstanding about the pronunciation of this sound.

8. □□□□

Many substituted final sounds were employed for pronouncing final □□□□ in this study: □□□□□(4.76%), □□□□□(3.57%), □□□□ (1.19%), □□□□ (1.19%), and □□□□ (1.19%).

Table 12

Pronunciation errors of final /-m/

Words	Examples of pronunciation errors (Descending order)				
	/-n/ (4.76%)	/-ʔ/ (3.57%)	/-ŋ/ (1.19%)	/-t/ (1.19%)	/-p/ (1.19%)
/dɯ̀:m/	/tɯ̀:m/	/sǒ:ʔ/			
/sôm/	/sɔ̌:n/	/phǔ:ʔ/			/sòp/
/phǒm/	/phǒn/		/phǒŋ/		
/cha:m/				/khâ:t/	

Chinese students likely tended to pronounce final □□□□ by using□□□□□ because both of them have a similar manner of articulation (nasals).

Conclusion

The most frequent pronunciation errors of Thai regular final consonants were □□.·˙□, followed by □□□□, □□□□, □□□□, □□⎵□, □□⊰□, □□⎵□, and □□∓□, respectively. The pronunciation errors found in the study commonly have the same phonetic features with the given Thai final consonants, for example the same place of articulation or manner of articulation.

Table 13

Most substitution of final sounds used by Chinese TFL university students

No.	Thai final consonants	Most substituted final sounds
1	/-p/ (Stops, Bilabial)	/-ʔ/ (Stops, Glottal)
	/-t/ (Stops, Alveolar)	/-n/ (Nasal, Alveolar)
	/-k/ (Stops, Velar)	/-ʔ/ (Stops, Glottal)
2	/-m/ (Nasals, Bilabial)	/-n/ (Nasals, Alveolar)
	/-n/ (Nasals, Alveolar)	/-m/ (Nasals, Bilabial)
	/-ŋ/ (Nasals, Velar)	/-n/ (Nasals, Alveolar)
3	/-w/ (Semi-vowels, Bilabial)	/-ʔ/ (Stops, Glottal)
	/-j/ (Semi-vowels, Palatal)	/-w/ (Semi-vowels, Bilabial)

From above table, it can be concluded that in the first group, “Stops”, Chinese learners mostly employed □□□□ to substitute for the final consonant □□□□ and □□□□. All sounds were stops but had different places of articulation (□□□□□bilabial, □□□□□velar, and □□□□ glottal respectively). On the other hand, □□□□ was used to replace □□□□. They had same place of articulation that was alveolar, but the manner of articulation differed (□□□□□stops and □□□□ nasals respectively).

The “Nasals” group consisting of □□□□□□□□□□□ and □□□□ was replaced by the nasals □□□□□□□□□□□ and □□□□□ respectively. Since there are two final nasals sounds, □□□□□ and □□□□□ in Standard Chinese, it was noticed that Chinese learners could perceive that these sounds were nasals; however, they probably had insufficient information concerning the correct place of articulation. This may have led to the pronunciation errors of Thai regular final consonants.

As for the “Semi-vowels” group, most Chinese students employed □□□□ instead of□□□□□. Due to an obviously dissimilar manner and place of articulation, Chinese students seemed to be confused about the correct pronunciation of each Thai final consonant. Chinese students also used □□_□ to replace □□□□. It can be summed up in that both □□_□ and □□□□ are semi-vowels but they have a dissimilar place of articulation (□□□□palatal and □□_□ bilabial, respectively).

Discussion

The pronunciation errors of Thai regular final consonants are partially caused by native language influence and/or inadequate knowledge of Thai linguistics. Though these two final sounds are nasals and similar to final sounds in Standard Chinese, Chinese learners used various final sounds to replace Thai final consonants □□□□ and □□□□□

Thai final consonants	Final sounds substitution				
/-n/	/-m/	/-ŋ/	/-ʔ/	/-k/	/-j/
/-m/	/-n/	/-ʔ/	/-ŋ/	/-t/	/-p/

In other words, Chinese learners employed only two final sounds to substitute for the Thai final consonant □□□□. The place of articulation of this Thai final consonant is bilabial, so it may be easy for Chinese learners to remember its pronunciation.

Thai final consonants	Final sounds substitution	
/-p/	/-ʔ/	/-n/

It was noticed that Chinese students tended to use /□□/ to replace every Thai final consonant as the following table shows.

Table 14

Examples of using final /−ʔ/ sound to substitute Thai final consonants

No.	Thai final consonants	Words	Substituted final /−ʔ/ sound
1	/-ŋ/	/kɛ:**ŋ**/	/kɛ̀**ʔ**/
2	/-k/	/phà**k**/	/phǎ:**ʔ**/
3	/-j/	/ja:**j**/	/jâ:**ʔ**/
4	/-n/	/ʔà:**n**/	/ʔà:**ʔ**/
5	/-w/	/khíw/	/khô:**ʔ**/
6	/-p/	/cà**p**/	/cǎ:**ʔ**/
7	/-t/	/mî:**t**/	/mǐ:**ʔ**/
8	/-m/	/phǒ**m**/	/phǔ:**ʔ**/

For this study, most Chinese students studying in the TLC program came from the Yunnan province[2] (Wikipedia, 2015). Concerning the aspect of ethnicity, "Yunnan has the highest number of ethnic groups among all provinces and autonomous regions in China. Among the country's 56 ethnic groups, 25 are found in Yunnan." (Yunnan, n.d.). Regarding regional dialects, notable features found in many Yunnan dialects include the partial or complete loss of distinction between finals □□□□ and □□.·˙□, as well as the lack of /y/ (Wikipedia, 2015). Furthermore, Lin (2007: 3) gave an opinion about the influence of regional dialects on Standard Chinese pronunciation, saying that:

"Most Chinese learn to speak SC only after they have acquired their regional dialects and may learn from schoolteachers who do not have correct SC pronunciation

2 Yunnan is a province of the People's Republic of China, located in the far southwest of the country.

themselves. In addition, many Chinese speakers regard SC simply as a practical tool of communication and often retain their local accents when speaking SC, especially within their local communities."

It can be said that both the Yunnan dialect, as a regional dialect, and Standard Chinese directly affected these Chinese students in studying the pronunciation of the Thai language. When they pronounced each Thai word, the Yunnan dialect and/or Standard Chinese interfered with the Chinese learners' perception of Thai (as a foreign language); accordingly, teachers should regularly notice and consider the suitably practical solutions to raise their awareness and comprehension in studying Thai pronunciation.

Interestingly, an avoidance strategy was used by a few students with a low proficiency in Thai. They were likely to avoid pronouncing some difficult or unknown words. Moreover, only one student pronounced the Thai final consonant □□□□ as □□□□ in English. This may stem from the shortage of Thai linguistic knowledge and Thai writing form that make them lack self-confidence in pronouncing Thai words.

Recommendations

In teaching a second/foreign language, teachers should focus on Contrastive Analysis (CA) in order to gain information about differences and similarities of the L1 and L2 of learners. Doing this could enable them to predict possible problems that may arise among foreign learners. Besides, error analysis should be implemented in order to provide pronunciation skill supplementary teaching documents, consisting of Thai linguistic knowledge, activities, and exercises, as a basic tool for solving the pronunciation problems of Thai regular final consonants encountered by Chinese TFL university students.

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EFL learners' perceptions of and attitudes toward the use of Reader Theater for improving oral skills in an ESP course

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Abstract

In today's global world, English speaking skills are important for international contexts. For EFL learners, good oral English skills require constant practice to achieve oral fluency, good pronunciation, and good intonation. Nowadays, communicative language teaching (CLT) is prevalent as many language instructors adopt a CLT curriculum design. However, unmotivated or underachieving EFL learners are often incapable of engaging in CLT activities, such as information gaps and role playing, which require extensive preparation for them. They also appear anxious when they speak in front of others. Reader Theater (RT) has been widely used in the literature and reading classes due to its benefits, such as promoting oral reading fluency (Carrick, 2000; Millin, 1996), as demonstrated in existing research (Busching, 1981; Coody, 1992; Flood, Lapp, Flood, & Nagel, 1992; Harris & Sipay, 1990; Sebesta, 1997; Trousdale & Harris, 1993). Thus, the current study applied RT in an ESP course for oral skill training in order to explore learners' attitudes toward and perceptions of RT in this ESP course as well as its potential benefits for learners in oral practice. A survey was analyzed using descriptive statistics to investigate how students perceive RT in terms of their attitude, confidence, motivation, oral fluency, and accuracy. The findings showed that RT had a positive effect on oral skill training in general. Most of the students agreed that RT had a positive effect on their confidence and motivation for the course. The results offer pedagogical suggestions for future course design.

Keywords: Reader Theater, oral reading fluency, script writing, role-play

Introduction

In today's global world, English speaking skills are important for international contexts. For EFL learners, good oral English skills require constant practice to achieve oral fluency, good pronunciation, and good intonation. Nowadays, communicative language teaching (CLT) is prevalent as many language instructors adopt a CLT curriculum design. However, unmotivated or underachieving EFL learners are often incapable of engaging in CLT activities, such as information gaps and role playing, which require extensive preparation for them. They also appear anxious when they speak in front of others. Reader Theater (RT) has been widely used in the literature and reading classes due to its benefits, such as promoting oral reading fluency (Carrick, 2000; Millin, 1996), as demonstrated in existing research (Busching, 1981; Coody, 1992; Flood, Lapp, Flood, & Nagel, 1992; Harris & Sipay, 1990; Sebesta, 1997; Trousdale & Harris, 1993).

Reader Theater (RT) is a strategy used to involve students in reading aloud. It combines reading practice and performance. Its goal is to enhance students' reading skills and confidence by having them practice reading with a purpose. RT gives students a real reason to read aloud. The benefits of using the RT strategy are that it promotes fluency, it helps readers learn to read aloud with expression, and it helps build reading confidence.

This study sought to establish empirical data on the benefits of applying RT in an oral communication training class and to explore students' perceptions and attitudes toward RT activities. To this end, the researchers address the following research questions: (1) What are participants' perceptions and attitudes toward the RT activity in the Escort English course? and (2) What are the participants' confidence and motivation levels regarding RT activities in Escort English?

Methodology

This section introduces participants' background, the course design, the instrument, and the data analysis.

Research Setting and Participants

The present study was conducted at a technological university in central Taiwan. Fifty third-year students from the Department of Applied English were surveyed to investigate their perceptions and attitudes regarding the implementation of in-class RT activity. The respondents were invited to participate by students enrolled in the course Escort English, taught by the researcher.

Course Design

This course, which met for two hours each week, was aimed at enabling students to develop various oral speaking and communicative skills for different business scenarios. The curriculum focused primarily on details of Escort English. The instructor used the teaching method of presentation, practice, and production (PPP) to deliver the course; this teaching method includes lectures, in-class practice, and presentations. Each week, the instructor introduced one scenario from Escort English and had course participants practice in pairs before doing a RT presentation in front of the class.

Reader Theater Activity

In the first class meeting of the course, the students received detailed explanations as to what RT is, how they should do it, and why it is beneficial for them to improve their English oral skills and pronunciation. Moreover, students were told that each RT activity would be graded as a course participation grade. During each class meeting, students were given 10 minutes to practice their dialogue on a specific given topic with their partners. Usually, a big screen with a couple of pictures or photos related to the topic was also provided to help students role-play in the topic. Then students were assigned homework which they needed to rewrite the dialogue and use the expressions and vocabulary learned during class. They needed to practice the intonation, pronunciation, and fluency. Most importantly, they were told to focus on pace and emotion as well.

Instrument and Data Analysis

The participants were asked to complete a questionnaire in the end of the course. The 15 items on the questionnaire were constructed based on the research questions of this study. The items addressed students' perceptions of in-class RT and attitudes toward it. The study applied a 4-point Likert scale (i.e., strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree) for all items. The 4-point scale was used to eliminate the neutral point in order to elicit a definite decision; this approach provided a better measure of the intensity of participants' attitudes or opinions. The data collected were interpreted into percentages and means to describe students' perceptions and attitudes about participating in the in-class RT activity.

Findings and Discussion

The first part of the findings presents participants' feedback regarding their perceptions, attitudes, confidence, and motivation related to the RT activity. Table 1 summarizes participants' reactions to the 15 statements related to participants' RT activity experience in the class in terms of perception and attitude, confidence, and motivation.

Table 1 *Participants' Survey Responses*

Statement	Percentage (Frequency)			
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I enjoy Reader Theater activity in each class meeting.	0%(0)	0%(0)	20%(10)	80%(40)
2. The class is more interesting as it involves acting out the scripts.	0%(0)	0%(0)	20%(10)	80%(40)
3. The photos and images that are provided on the big screen in Reader Theater activity help me to visualize the scenario of the topic.	0%(0)	0%(0)	20%(10)	80%(40)
4. I feel I learned to improve my oral communication when I acted out the scripts.	0%(0)	2%(1)	18%(9)	80%(40)
5. I think Reader Theater activity helps me to develop oral fluency.	0%(0)	0%(0)	10%(5)	90%(45)
6. Reader Theater activity is an effective way of teaching English oral skills.	0%(0)	0%(0)	20%(10)	80%(40)
7. Reader Theater activity helps to improve my English pronunciation.	0%(0)	4%(2)	40%(20)	56%(58)
8. It is not difficult for me to act out the assigned scripts.	0%(0)	4%(2)	40%(20)	56%(28)
9. It is not difficult for me to rewrite the assigned scripts.	0%(0)	20%(10)	16%(8)	64%(32)
10. I feel anxious about role-playing in front of the class.	0%(0)	48%(24)	40%(20)	12%(6)
11. I feel that I have more confidence in English pronunciation in general after taking this course.	0%(0)	4%(2)	48%(24)	48%(24)
12. I enjoyed working with my partner on writing and performing the scripts.	0%(0)	0%(0)	10%(5)	90%(45)
13. I try my best to act out the scripts when I do Reader Theater activity.	0%(0)	0%(0)	40%(20)	60%(30)
14. I look forward to engaging Reader Theater activity before the class meeting starts.	0%(0)	4%(2)	48%(24)	48%(24)
15. Reader Theater activity can motivate me to engage in role playing.	0%(0)	0%(0)	16%(8)	84%(42)

Perception and Attitude (Statements 1–7)

Based on the findings summarized in Table 1, most participants had a positive attitude toward RT activity. Indeed, 98% agreed that RT activity helps improve their oral communication by acting out the scripts. The data from the remaining question items were very consistent, all showing 100% positive responses. In other words, most participants thought that the RT activity was an effective way to teach English pronunciation and fluency. Only 4% of the participants disagreed with the statement “Reader Theater activity helps to improve my English pronunciation.” Overall, this finding suggests that RT should be incorporated into the teaching of oral communication in the classroom.

Confidence (Statements 8–11)

In terms of the difficulty of acting out the scripts, 56% of participants strongly agreed and 40% agreed that it was not difficult to act out the assigned topic and scripts. The remaining 4% disagreed with the statement. Regarding the difficulty of rewriting the scripts, 64% strongly agreed and 16% agreed that they were confident and able to rewrite the scripts. The remaining 20% disagreed with the statement. The data suggest that additional guidance should be provided to participants to enable them to rewrite the scripts. Finally, 52% of the participants claimed that they felt anxious about role-playing in front of the class. The remaining 4% disagreed with the statement.

Motivation (Statements 12–15)

The majority of the participants had positive responses to the motivation category. The data for the four question items were very consistent, with 100% of participants agreeing that they tried their best to write more and 100% stating that they enjoyed working with their partners on RT activity in class. Indeed, 96% of participants looked forward to RT activity; only 4% disagreed with this statement.

As these results indicate, the majority of participants enjoyed RT activity and how it was arranged. Participants’ oral pronunciation and fluency were improved by engaging in RT activity. The results about participants’ confidence in RT activity were mixed, but most participants were confident about their ability to act out and rewrite the scripts. Regarding the motivation questions, the data suggest that the majority of participants were motivated when they engaged in RT activity.

Conclusion

The results of this study suggested that the participants had positive perceptions about their RT experience in the class. They also indicated a positive attitude toward RT activity in the class. Obviously, the participants perceived RT as an effective way to practice their oral communication, which helped improve their fluency and pronunciation while keeping them motivated.
These results can be used to offer some suggestions for teaching. It would beneficial if instructors provided some script examples for students. This way, students will have a clear idea of how to rewrite their scripts. Moreover, the length of RT activity can be increased to ensure that students have enough practice time.

Due to the time constraints, this study might have some limitations. First, it would have been much more valuable to analyze participants' oral presentations to determine their improvement in speaking fluency and pronunciation. Second, conducting interviews would probably enhance the conclusions of this study.

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Class Book: A Case Study of a University English Class Sharing Their Experiences to Enhance Learning with Peers

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Abstract

Dewey (1938) argued that educational activities should begin from the immediate personal and social experience of the learners. He also advised educators to use things within the range of existing experience of students that have the potentiality of presenting new problems which will encourage further experience. As university students in Japan are often passive about expressing themselves and actively being engaged with the class, I developed a class portfolio-making activity named Class Book into which a series of different learning skills are incorporated using students' actual life experiences. In this activity, students make their own biography to share with peers. This case study examined the consequences of the learning based on students' experiences for a particular sophomore English class in a university in Japan. My findings indicate that the participants had active interactions with peers, took responsibility of their own learning, and created a positive learning environment. This case study indicates that students' life experiences are an effective form of learning materials. However, it also suggests that teachers give adequate structured support for students to take advantage of their experiences at the fullest. This presentation will resonate with the conference theme in that it describes how students' life experiences affect their learning in a positive way.

Keywords: case study, university English class in Japan, experiential learning

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Introduction

As young adult learners in Japan are often passive about expressing themselves and speaking in front of others despite their English skills, they hesitate to participate in class activities actively and lack a sense of peer learning. When it comes to Japanese university students, it is often the case that they put lesser importance on English classes, which are normally compulsory in the first and second years, compared to elective or specialized classes in their own major. However, in my opinion, any learning opportunity should be experienced meaningfully by the learners and class as a community.

I have experience in teaching requirement English courses at several universities in and around Tokyo. Normally, students are divided into different classes depending on their English level within their majors. And most of these courses are taught with textbooks designated by the school or teacher, and designed to prepare students for the test at the end of each semester. Teachers are randomly assigned to these classes. Thus, students have few chances to take control of their own learning over what to learn and who to learn from and with. This may cause passive learning among Japanese university students in the school in which their freedom to learn is limited, and their learning is initiated from external sources so that they are indifferent to their class activities and peers.

As opposed to this reality, Schmitt and Schmitt (1993) say that learners are now increasingly encouraged and expected to take an active role in their own learning, and point to the necessity of learners having the skill to help manage their own learning. However, as far as my teaching experience is concerned, many university students are facing problems that affect their learning and improvement: One is that their learning style is limiting their motivation to learn, and the other is that as a result their engagement in their class and with their peers do not seem to be successful.

Let me describe one actual example. I taught a sophomore speaking class at a women's university in Kanagawa, Japan, a suburb of Tokyo, for a year starting from April 2012. Some of the students did not show motivation in the class and had little interaction with their peers as I believe they could not identify themselves with the course materials and also with their peers.

Therefore, my responsibility as a teacher is to facilitate learners' active participation and interaction by incorporating an effective way that they could connect with the class activities and peers. To fulfill my responsibility, I carried out an experimental class portfolio-making activity named "Class Book" in the above said class for 5 sessions in December 2012 and January 2013 (See Figure 1). The students wrote their biography to talk about their interests and experiences, and visualized and personalized it onto two sheets of paper with photos, illustrations and other decorations. These sheets are called My Page. Then, I had the students talk in groups and ask about their My Pages. Surprisingly, the lesson turned out to be more active than usual with all the students intently engaging in their conversations. This finding led me to wonder about the effectiveness of learners' actual interests and experiences.

Consequently, I argue that teachers should create a rich learning environment that is meaningful for students. Thus, my research questions are the following;

- How does incorporating students' actual interests and experiences into learning affect their participation and interaction in the class?
- What implications do these findings have for English educators?

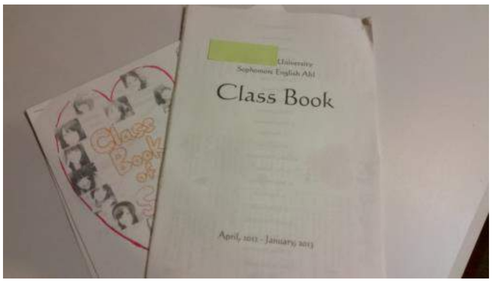

Figure 1: Class Book booklets

This study is significant because it aims to explore possibilities of student' interests and existing experiences as learning materials for learning English with peers in an active way. It introduces a new approach to encourage students' learning and also provides students opportunities to be active learners who can manage their own learning.

Related Literature

Traditional Learning vs. Experiential Learning

In many university classrooms in Japan, students most of the time follow the instruction of the teacher who gives what should be learned, and receive few opportunities to actively participate in their own learning. Dewey's (1938) definition of traditional education is to prepare students for future responsibilities and for success in life, by having them acquire the organized bodies of information and prepared forms of skill. Consequently, students become passive, receptive and obedient while the teacher transmits to them a chain of knowledge. To imposition from above is opposed expression and cultivation of individuality; to external discipline is opposed free activity in which students learn through actual experience (Dewey, 1938, p.19).

Therefore, learning from texts and from above, mainly from teachers, may limit students' motivation to learn. According to Rogers and Freiberg (1983), in experiential learning students themselves are part of the learning process, they are willing to learn from within, and know their own needs. Which direction should university education today move forward, traditional or experiential learning? Adults need learning to be meaningful; they are autonomous, independent, and self-directed; their prior experiences are a rich learning resource (Kerka, 2002, p.1). Adults should learn better if their learning is experiential and learner-centered as Kerka said that learner centeredness is a distinguishing characteristic in adult education. Learner-centered instruction includes:

- techniques that focus on or account for learners' needs, styles, and goals.
- techniques that give some control to the student.
- techniques that allow students' creativity and innovation.
- techniques that enhance a student's sense of competence and self-worth. (Brown, 2001, p.46-47)

Rogers and Freiberg (1983) summarized that students make decisions about their learning, and take responsibility for and evaluate the results of those decisions by exploring their own interests. Furthermore, Benson (2001) described Rogers' view of the teacher's role as a facilitator who adopts a non-judgmental role in helping the learners achieve their goal and intervenes as little as possible in the development of the learner.

Free from the "Banking Concept"

On the contrary, even today teachers do not fully understand what kind of learning students appreciate. Instead, they become the center of the class and teach things from outside the range of students' understanding. Freire (1970) stated that students tend to consider the teacher as the one who has knowledge without realizing that they know things they have learned in their relations with the world and with others. He argued that the teacher often elaborates on a topic that is completely alien to the existing experience of students. Benson's (2001) view is that in traditional education, knowledge is transmitted from the teacher to learners, and that learners are assimilated into the logic of the teacher. Freire (1970) called this flow the "banking concept". In contrast to this view, Freire urged educators and learners to know that knowledge emerges from "inquiry human beings pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other" (p.53). Student existing experiences and interests probably can change learning from being simply transmission of knowledge from the teacher to presenting what is meaningful for students' social experiences.

Experience for Leaning

Dewey (1938) argued that educational activities should begin from the immediate personal and social experience of the learners. According to Benson (2001), Dewey viewed learning as a process which generates problems that must be solved to satisfy individual students' needs, and the school and the classroom are considered microcosms of the community in which students work together to solve those problems. In fact, Dewey (1938) asked "how many found what they did learn so foreign to the situations of life outside the school as to give them no power of control over the latter?" (p.27). It is often the case that what students learn in school is beyond the reach of the experience that they already possess.

Dewey (1938) then advised educators to use things within the range of existing experience of students that have the potentiality of presenting new problems which will encourage further experience. Marshall (2002) also contended that meaningful lessons relate to students' world, and originate in prior experience and evolve from there to the creation of new knowledge, experience and a richer understanding of life. Students' interests and experiences should highly reflect their personal and social elements of their daily life, as per Dewey (1938), who put an importance on "materials which at the outset fall within the scope of ordinary life-experience" (p.73).

Constructivist Approach

Candy described constructivism as a cluster of approaches that knowledge cannot be taught but must be constructed by the learner (cited in Benson, 2001, p.35). Benson (2001) takes Vygotsky's view on the importance of social interaction in which learning starts from the learners' existing knowledge and experience, and evolves through social interaction. Vygotsky (1978) explained that in his zone of proximal development theory there are two levels of development: learners' actual and potential levels of development. According to Lantolf and Appel (1994), the former shapes learners' ability to perform certain tasks independently without help from others, while the latter characterizes ability that learners can carry out with help from others. This difference existing between what learners can do independently and what they can do under the guidance of more experienced others is referred to as the zone of proximal development defined as follows: "it is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86). Students' actual interests and experiences can be used as a rich learning resource. Sharing them in collaboration with peers, learners can reach out of their actual level of development to their potential level of development.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Krashen (1981) proposed some hypotheses that describe how people learn a language: one of them is the Affective Filter hypothesis. The "affective filter" is an imaginary barrier which prevents learners from acquiring language from the available input (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.39). According to Lightbown and Spada the filter will be "up" (blocking input) when learners are stressed and unmotivated while it will be "down" when they are relaxed and motivated. Krashen, thus, stated that if learners feel confident in themselves about using language, they will probably use it more frequently by taking risks. Krashen (1981) defined an effective teacher as someone who can provide comprehensible materials in a low anxiety situation. It seems likely that students' own interests and experiences lower students' affective filter, motivate them and encourage their learning.

Study Details

Participants

I selected a sophomore English speaking class of twenty female students at a women's university in Kanagawa, Japan. At this university, first and second-year students take three required English classes of different skills: reading, writing and speaking. They are divided into appropriate classes depending on their year, major and English level. This target class of my study met for a 90-

minute class once a week and learned together for one year starting from April 2012. The students in this class understood main points on familiar topics daily encountered in school and spare time, and talk about them in English. I assigned a textbook to this class and basically designed different kinds of oral fluency practice taking elements from the textbook. For example, the students did speeches of different length, conversations, games, group work and discussions. Through observing this class, I came up with two concerns. First of all, the students hesitated to express themselves and speak up in front of the others. Second, I did not recognize much interaction going on among them. They did not seem to care who they were learning with in the class besides their close friends. Generally speaking, educators in Japan often claim that students are passive about expressing themselves in class thus they do not actively participate in class activities and lack a sense of learning together with peers. This particular class was no exception.

Class Book

Class Book is a class portfolio-making activity I designed using students' interests and existing experiences. The procedure is: (1) students are given a sample biography template to prepare themselves for making their own biography and go over useful vocabulary and phrases (Appendix A) (2) they are provided a biography template to fill out with their own experiences and interests (3) they visualize and personalize their written biography onto two A4-sized pages named My Page with photos, illustrations, decorations and coloring (4) they choose six items that hold a story to tell from their My Page and mark them 1-6 (5) they write a short speech for each of their six choices (6) they have a small-group speaking activity named My Story in which they throw a dice and talk about the item from their My Pages marked with the same number that the dice shows (7) they get a copy of Class Book, a booklet compiled with all the My Pages of the class at the end. These procedures were spread out into five sessions for my students.

Data Collection & Analysis

I constantly observed the students' reaction and interaction during the five sessions and collected all their My Pages besides ones who were absent. Also, I conducted a post-study survey. The collected data is 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.

Findings

Student Observation

Although the initial reaction of the students to the introduction of the Class Book activities was not as positive as I had expected, they seemed to gradually enjoy doing the activities as they moved on with different sessions. For instance, in the first session in which the students had to be rather receptive while they listened to what I said as I demonstrated how to fill out the biography form with new key vocabulary and phrases, they did not show much interest or excitement. Also, there was not much interaction among the students since this session was mostly individual work of writing. However, once they were on their own to complete their biography, some of them occasionally made comments in Japanese to each other about their experiences and interests that they had written such as "I didn't know that we're from the same city," "I have a toy poodle too. Do you want to see his photo?" and "You went to Turkey?" I saw students who had barely known each other throughout the school year conversing friendlily for the first time.

Having had the first session as an ice-breaker, in the following two sessions more of the students became fond of the Class Book activities as they were getting more familiar with their peers. Actually, these two sessions were spent on visualizing each student's written biography onto 2 pages of A4-sized paper with real-life materials so-called realia such as photos in addition to stickers, drawing and coloring. The visualized biography pages were called My Page (See Figure 2). This hands-on practice involved more interaction between the students. For instance, they asked peers for some materials they needed in addition to short comments in Japanese. Then, I told the students to ask in English for I found it a chance to enhance peer interaction in English. I taught them expressions like "Do you have a glue?", "Can I use your marker?" or "I like your page" to list a few.

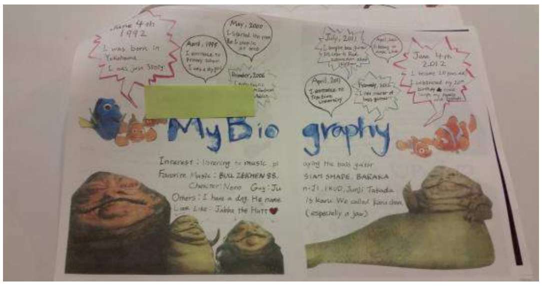

Figure 2: My Page example

On the other hand, the following fourth session was comparatively low-key. In the previous sessions, a positive peer-learning atmosphere was already established in the class so that this session was quite comfortable despite the fact that the most of the class time was individual work of writing. In this session, the students chose six important moments or items from their My Page and wrote a short speech about each of their six choices.

In the final session of the Class Book activity series, the students had a speaking activity in small groups of three to four. By this time, almost all the students knew each other even ones that they had not been close before, so they participated in the session very actively. A great deal of peer communication with questions, answers, short comments or laughing was observed in most of the groups. The students lead their group work on their own without my help as they had previously prepared themselves ready with their My Page and short speeches to use in this final speaking session. The same positive student participation was maintained even when groups were shuffled a few times so that the students were able to interact with as many peers as possible by speaking English. In addition, when a copy of the Class Book was handed out to each student, everybody seemed absorbed by riffling through all the My Pages of their peers (See Figure 1). The class put a period to their one year of learning together with their Class Book.

Student Survey

As I previously mentioned, I conducted a post-study survey to see how the Class Book activities had affected their learning. The students rated their answers on a 1-5 scale with 5 being "I really think so", 3 "OK" and 1 "not at all". The survey was done in Japanese and was later translated into English by myself. 17 students out of 20 answered the survey.

Questions	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. It was a good opportunity for your peers to know about you.	0	0	0	2	15
2. It was a good opportunity for you to know about your peers.	0	0	0	0	17
3. It was fun to know about your peers' personal interests and experiences.	0	0	0	0	17
4. You like sharing your personal interests and experiences in class.	0	0	2	5	10
5. It was good practice to make your own learning materials using your own interests and experiences	0	0	0	1	16
6. It was meaningful to make the Class Book to commemorate your class.	0	0	0	2	15
7. Your My Page enabled you to talk about yourself well in English.	1	0	4	9	3
8. You can express yourself well if you have a visual aid like your My Page.	0	0	2	7	8
9. You can understand your peers well if you have a visual aid like your My Page.	0	0	0	5	12
10. You can speak English easily if it is about your personal interests and experiences.	0	0	3	3	11

From the overall survey results, I can claim that the respondents' reaction toward the Class Book activities was quite positive. First of all, according to questions 1-4, almost all the respondents were successful in getting to know more about their peers and having their peers know more about them finding it interesting to share their personal interests and experiences with their peers without hesitation. Furthermore, questions 5 and 6 reveal that the students were highly capable of or in favor of managing their own learning by making their own learning materials using their actual interests and experiences. It can be also said that the students liked to be closely connected to each other and united as a class.

As I said earlier, the students did not hesitate to share personal life elements including interests, experiences and background with their peers. Rather, as questions 7-10 indicate, they claimed that their My Pages helped them express themselves fairly well and learn about their classmates well as a useful visual guide. However, if you look at questions 7 and 8 again, when it comes to using English to express themselves, on one hand speaking English turned easier for most of the students, but it is not necessarily true to everyone in the class. Let me also introduce actual respondents' comments.

- The My Page activity was fun as I got to know more about my classmates.
- It was a good opportunity to know my classmates' personalities, favorites and interests.
- The final My Story speaking activity was a fun way to practice speaking.
- I enjoyed reading other people's My Pages.
- This whole series of the Class Book activities was interesting as it was like making a year book for graduation.

Conclusion

To respond to my research questions, I identified the following prominent themes that provide evidence of how learners' existing experiences and interests affect possibilities for their learning: comfortable learning environment, effectiveness of familiar topics, learners' management of their own learning, active peer interaction, development through collaboration with peers and unity as a class as summarized in the discussion. This study indicates that students' real experiences and interests can be definitely used as a meaningful learning material for achieving their active participation and peer learning in university English speaking classrooms.

To conclude, I would like to make the following implications. First, more research on the effectiveness of learners' actual experiences and interests has to be done, preferably on different kinds of groups of learners, to investigate its validity. For example, is the Class Book activity series attractive to male university students or groups of younger or older students? Second, it is also necessary to see how learners' experiences and interest affect learning when incorporated into different language skills such as listening, reading, writing, grammar or vocabulary building.

Additionally, students' own experiences and interests should be used within a specific structure such as the Class Book activities as it prepares learners for what they want to talk about. As learners encounter their peers' experiences and interests, they learn new vocabulary and ideas as well as connectedness with their peers. At the same time, it often requires them to respond to unexpected questions or comment, which could be difficult for learners. Therefore, structured support like the Class Book's worksheets and lesson plans is highly recommended to be used along with the actual practice. Also, error correction and a follow-up reflective activity by the teacher to review learners' performance would be effective as well.

The Class Book technique can be used by different kinds of learners and teachers of English to experience the possibilities that it brings about. As my project was conducted only on a group of twenty individuals, further study will be necessary to appeal to a wider, more general community of learners and teachers of English.

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A Comparative Study of Narrative Ability in English-Chinese Bilingual Primary School Students

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Abstract

This study aims to compare Singapore primary students' English and Chinese narrative abilities from a developmental perspective. Little research has been done to characterize students' bilingual competence in Singapore. Thirty-six students from Primary One, Three and Five, from four neighborhood schools participated in the study. Each participant told a story while referring to the pictures in both Mandarin Chinese and English, with a counterbalanced order. Narrative ability was measured by temporality and evaluative expressions. The participants' performance was first compared across two languages, followed by a comparison on the performance across different age groups within one language. Then, the developmental patterns revealed by various age groups were compared across two languages. The results showed that as age increased, participants' narrative abilities developed in both Chinese and English. Older participants were able to narrate a story with information more thematically organized than the younger participants. Older participants' were better able to switch the perspective of narrating the story, describing the characters' mood, cognitive activities and language. In general, English narrative ability is more advanced developed than Chinese narrative ability. Implications for teaching are discussed.

Introduction

This article concerns bilingual competence with aim of comparing Singapore learners' English and Chinese narrative abilities in a developmental perspective. Description of bilingual competence is always a concern for bilingual education. It can inform educators about learning needs, and provide basis for educators to facilitate balanced development of two languages. Furthermore, it can shed light on possible effects of the language policy and current curriculum on fostering bilingual competence.

Description of learners' bilingual competence is important especially in Singapore context because Singapore is characterized by "English-Knowing bilingualism" policy which broadened English proficiency and Chinese proficiency. Before independence, the majority of Singaporeans spoke Southern Chinese dialects, such as Hokkian, Cantonese, and Teochow etc. After independence, first, the government has promoted English for economic development. They made English as the medium of instruction for all the content subjects. Second, the government promoted mandarin for facilitating communication within Chinese ethnic. Southern Chinese dialects (Hokkian, Cantonese, and Teochow) have dramatic differences in terms of pronunciation, which hinders the communication. The government has promoted Mandarin because it is commonly used among Chinese communities around the world. Since then, it is hypothesized that English has become dominant language in Singapore.

It is difficult to argue whether English is the dominant language for adults after many years of English-as-medium-of-instruction education. However, it may not be the case for pre-adolescents. Little research explored pre-adolescents' bilingual competence, though much has been written on bilingual policy and education system in Singapore (Dixon, 2005, 2009; Li, Zhao, & Yeung, 2012; Shepherd, 2005). Some researchers compared secondary students' writing competence and strategies of Chinese and English in the 1980s (Cheng, 1992; Hsui, 1996; Wong, 1993), little has been conducted on comparing students' narrative abilities. Cheng (1992) compared secondary students' writing abilities of Chinese and English . One hundred and twenty participants wrote one expository essay and one narrative essay in both languages. The essays were rated from content, structure, grammar, language, and spelling. The results showed that English proficiency was higher than Chinese proficiency. It is difficult to draw conclusions about learners' bilingual status based on one or two measures because language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) may not develop at the same space. The results of comparing Singapore learners' English and Chinese writing abilities may not reflect differences between other language skills. Limited research fails to reveal a comprehensive picture on this issue.

Narrative ability is a basic communicative skill for exchanging and sharing personal experiences. To successfully narrate a story requires a speaker's cognitive and language skills. Comparing narrative abilities across languages can give us a comprehensive picture of bilingual competence. Since little has been done on this topic, this study aims to compare the development of primary students’ narrative abilities in Chinese and English in the context of Singapore.

Literature review

The purpose of this session is to review: 1) methods of describing bilingual competence; 2) relationship between development of L1 and L2 proficiency; 3) on what aspects that children develop their narrative ability.

Description of Bilingual Competence

Previous research described differences of L1 and L2 proficiency by exploring learners' dominant language. Dominant language is defined by language proficiency. If a learner is more proficient in one language than the other, then the former language is treated as the dominant language. Dominant language can be measured via objective and subjective methods. Objective tests include assessing language knowledge and skills, such as grammar (Yip & Matthews, 2006), vocabulary (Daller, Van Hout, & Treffers-Daller, 2003), and reading and speaking skills. One example of such a study was conducted by Yip and Matthews measuring mean length of utterances for syntactic competence of preschool children, and found that the participants were Cantonese-dominant (Yip & Matthews, 2006). Some researchers designed standard tests to measure reading and speaking skills such as C-test, and the Bilingual English-Spanish Oral Language Screening tests (Bedore et al., 2012). Subjective assessment refer to learners self-evaluation. These studies required the participants to evaluate their own competence in two languages according to a proficiency scale or consulting the guardians of children to judge learners' language proficiency (Gollan, Weissberger, Runnqvist, Montoya, & Cera, 2012; Sheng, Lu, & Gollan, 2013). They compared the results of objective tests and the results of self-assessment and found a strong correlation between the two. The researchers therefore stated that subjective assessment could also accurately describe bilingual competence.

However, the previous methods were criticised in that the measurements were carried out in a pen and pencil tradition, concerned with language knowledge, therefore may not reflect the communicative competence (Baker, 2011). Communicative competence resembles multiple use of language knowledge and skills, such as vocabulary, grammar, pragmatic skill, strategic skill, socio-linguistic skill, etc (Canale & Swain, 1980). There is a need for employment of communicative tasks to describe bilingual competence.

Relationships between L1 and L2 proficiency

The relationship between L1 and L2 development is another concern in bilingual education. The interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1991) stated that L1 and L2 proficiency were interdependent on each other. The theoretical underpinning of the hypothesis is the Common Underlying Proficiency Hypothesis (CUP) (Cummins, 1980). The hypothesis proposed two different components of language proficiency: basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). The distinction was that the CALP was closely related to cognitive ability while BICS was acquired naturally regardless of IQ or academic achievement. CALP plays a role in development of reading and writing abilities in languages. According to the CUP hypothesis, reading and writing abilities of two languages are interdependent on each other. Thus, the CUP hypothesis predicts a relationship between L1 and L2 reading and writing abilities but does not predict the relationship between development of L1 oral proficiency and L2 oral proficiency.

Empirical studies have proved the relationship between L1 development and L2 development by examining the more concrete components of language proficiency. They focused on the contribution of cognitive factors and L1 proficiency to L2 learning (Abu-Rabia, 2001; Park, 2013). Cognitive factors included metalinguistic awareness, working memory, and IQ tests ect. L1 proficiency included reading and writing abilities, as well as lexical knowledge and grammatical knowledge. Researchers found that the effect of L1 proficiency on L2 proficiency has been moderated by L2 language knowledge. It seems learners need certain L2 language knowledge to enable L1 proficiency to transfer. It was also pointed that the distance between L1 and L2 written systems would influence this effect. Other studies also have proved that there was a relationship between L1 and L2 oral proficiency which was not predicted by the CUP hypothesis. Lasagabaster (2001) found that metalinguistic awareness on L1 significantly correlates with speaking proficiency as much as reading and writing proficiency.

Development of Narrative Ability

Development of narration is of great interest for many researchers because narration can serve as a window for researchers to explore children's language and cognitive development. To successfully narrate a story requires complex language skills and cognitive skills to construct experience, organize information and express via extended discourse. Researchers made great efforts in discovering common features that characterize various age groups across different languages. By doing this, they are able to identify universal developmental patterns. The results revealed that children’s narrative ability developed in terms of temporality and evaluative expressions.

Temporality refers to relations between events. It reflects how learners conceptualize and organize information. There are three basic types of relations: temporal, adversative and casual. Temporal relation is the basic relation indicating time sequence among events. Adversative relation indicates a contradictory relation among events. Casual relation reflects a cause-effect relation among events. Among the three types, casual relations can better reveal the theme of a story. The linguistic devices to express these relations include conjunctions, adverbs, and tense. Researchers found that older children expressed more causal relations in their stories than younger children (Chang & McCabe, 2013).

Evaluative expressions refer to non-event description; include describing language, mood, and mental activities of story characters. If description of events moves plots vertically, evaluative expressions would move plots horizontally (Bamberg & Damrad-Frye, 1991). To express evaluative expression requires children to think from other people’s perspectives and infer mental activities according to contexts. Some researchers explored linguistic and paralinguistic devices of evaluative expressions. Some researchers explored the types of evaluative expressions and others focus on the functions.

Some researchers explored the linguistic devices for expressing evaluative expressions. In general, two types were found: linguistic and intonational devices. Linguistic devices include negation, adverbs of degree, adjectives, etc. Intonational devices include stress (Peterson & McCabe, 1983). Other researchers explored the types of evaluative expressions based on the content. Bamberg and Damrad-Frye (1991) identified five categories: mood, language, inference, negation and casual relation. They found 9-year-old children and adults produced more description of mood than 5-year-old children. Similar results were found by other researchers (Berman & Slobin, 1994; Chen & Yan, 2011). Among the five categories, description of mood was found to be more difficult than other types as children need to think from the perspective of characters in a story, inferring what the character was thinking and feeling. Thus, this type requires more cognitive processing.

In sum as age increases, children are able to tell a complete a story with information thematically organized and express evaluative expressions at appropriate time to show their understanding of stories.

L1 and L2 proficiency are multi-dimensional in nature. The components examined were limited in the literature. More research is needed to explore relationships of other language skills between two languages. Narrative ability is closely related to literacy development, and therefore should be predicted by the interdependence hypothesis. This study describes bilingual competence by measuring narrative ability and explore the relationship between Singapore learners' Chinese and English narrative abilities.

Research Questions

With the purpose of describing and comparing development of narrative abilities in Chinese and English, this study is going to answer the following research questions.

1) What is the developmental pattern of Chinese narrative ability?
2) What is the developmental pattern of English narrative ability?
3) Are there any similarities and differences?

Methods

Participants

This study recruited thirty-six participants from four neighbourhood schools. Neighbourhood schools are usually located in the heartland of public housing, constituting the majority of the primary school in Singapore. Research on participants from neighbourhood schools would give us a better understanding of the normal students. Thirty-six participants are from Primary One, Three and Five, with twelve from each grade. There were seventeen male participants and nineteen female participants.

Instruments

A series of six wordless pictures were used to elicit children's narration. The content of the pictures is about two boys fighting at the beginning. Then the teacher came and stopped them. After that they became friends again. The content is designed based on a storybook and retreated as close to students' school life.

Research procedure

All the participants performed the task in both Chinese and English. A counterbalance design was employed. At the beginning, the interviewer asked several questions to warm up the participants for the latter task, such as: "anything exciting happened recently? What animals do you like most?". Then, the researcher explained the task instruction. After that, two minutes were given for preparation, then the participants began to tell the story. The whole process was audio-recorded and transcribed for latter analysis.

Transcription

The transcription follows the rules of the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) (Macwhinney, 2000). The audio-recorded data was transcribed by the researcher and one research assistant who is Singaporean.

Coding Schemes

Temporality

Temporality was measured by use of connectives. Connectives indicate relations between events. Although besides connectives there are other linguistic devices to indicate event relations, some linguistic devices are not common across English and Chinese. Therefore, this study analyzed connectives to investigate temporality. There are three basic relations: temporal, adversative and casual. Temporal connectives indicate time relations among events, such as "when, then, after that, at first" in English, and "ranhou, houlai, zhihou, gangkaishi" in Chinese. Adversative connectives indicate adversative relations among events which refer to what is happening latter is contradictory to what happened before. The adversative connectives include "but, although, though" in English, and "suiran, danshi, keshi " in Chinese. Causal connectives indicate casual relations among events, such as"because, so, if" in English, and "yinwei, suoyi" in Chinese. The examples are given in Table 2.

Table 1 Coding Scheme for analyzing temporality

Connectives	Examples
Temporal	They are going to fight again when the teacher ran towards them
Adversative	The two boys were still arguing but they did not use any violence
Casual	She walked away because she didn't want to see anyone get injured

Evaluative expression

This study developed framework for analysing evaluative expressions based on Bamberg and Damrad-Frye's study (1991). The categories of evaluative expressions include motivation, language, cognitive activities, and mood. The motivation category refers to description of story characters' intention. The linguistic features include "I try to, I want to". Language category refers to description of direct and indirect characters' speech. Cognitive activities refer to descriptions of characters mental activities, such as what the characters know or understand. The linguistic features include "I realize" and" I know". Mood category refers to description of the mood such as angry, happy etc.

Table 2 Coding Scheme for evaluative expressions

Types	Examples
Motivation	小明走到操場上想找朋友跟他玩打籃球 xiǎo míng zǒu dào cāo chǎng shàng xiǎng zhǎo péng yǒu gēn tā wán dǎ lán qiú Nobody want to make friends *Xiao ming walked to the playground, want to find a friend to play basketball with him*
Language	那一個小男孩去跟老師說(2.5)他們在吵架 nà yī gè xiǎo nán hái qù gēn lǎo shī shuō (2.5) tā men zài chǎo jià *That little boy went to tell teacher that (2.5) they were quarreling* He say (2.1) good (2) carry on fighting
Cognitive activities	小華覺得自己錯了 xiǎo huá jiào dé zì jǐ cuò liǎo *Xiao hua thought he was wrong* I thought it looks very interesting
Mood	還有一個男孩兒很開心 hái yǒu yī gè nán hái ér hěn kāi xīn *and there is another boy who is happy* The boy is very happy

Reliability of Coding

In order to test reliability, the researcher randomly selected twenty percent of the narrative transcripts, and hired a second coder to conduct analysis. This study used Nvivo software to calculate Cohen's Kappa Index that ranges from 0-1, with 1 meaning 100 percent agreement. The Cohen's Kappa index of the two coders' coding result was 0.9, indicating a 90 percent of agreement.

Findings

All learners' performance on temporality and evaluative expressions categories were first compared across the two languages in total. Then the results were compared across different age groups within one language. After that, the developmental patterns revealed by various age groups were compared across languages.

Temporality

A comparison of temporality in Chinese and English is shown in Table 3. Participants produced more connectives in English than in Chinese in each type. Thus, English stories can be interpreted as more thematic than Chinese stories. One participant's English and Chinese stories were shown below.

F1EG

- 有一天，有两个(3.1)男孩在吵架(3.5)，那儿有一个小男孩(2.1)<看到>[/](13.3) {很好} (6.8) 看到 他们(12.7) 吵架(23.4)，**那**一个小男孩去跟老师说(2.5)他们在吵架 (10.4) <那那(nei)个>[//](3.3)那老师(1.6)去(2.8)罚他们。(1.5)**那**那(nei)个小男孩在笑(9.8)那他们就不要(4.5)吵架(32.1) 那[/](6)**那**他们就(2.1)哭 {raising tone} (9.3)**那**他们就要做朋友了。 (03:17.104)

  *One day, there were two (3.1) boys are arguing (3.5)，there was a boy (2.1)<saw>[/](13.3){good} (6.8) saw them (12.7) fighting (23.4)，**that** one boy went to tell the teacher saying (2.5) they were arguing (10.4) <that that>[//](3.3) that teacher (1.6) go to (2.8) punish them。(1.5) **that** that little boy was smiling (9.8) that they did not want to (4.5) quarrel (32.1) that [/](6) **that** they already (2.1) cried {raising tone} (9.3) **that** they want to be friends.*

F1EG

- <one：>[/] (2.1) one day <there's one>[//] there's two little boy (1.4) fighting (2.0), and (2.5) one boy saw them fighting so[/] (1.7) **so** one boy went to tell teacher that both of them are fighting(2.7), **so** teacher ask them (1.2) to calm (1.1) and (1.3) teacher scold them (1.4) and **then** the (1.4) Lee [//] and teacher separate lee nicely (2.2), **after that** (1.6) no one ()1.2 wants to play with them and (1.2) they want to be friends already (01:00.319)

In the above examples, the P1 student was unable to utilise proper Chinese connectives to indicate temporal relations. Instead, she used “na” functioning as the connective. Also there were no other types of connectives. In the same participant’s English story, she was able to use proper English connectives, such as "then", and "after that". Besides, she utilized a causal connective “so”, although the clauses connected by “so” may not have a strong causal relationship.

When compared results across different grades, P5 participants produced more time and casual connectives than P3 participants while P3 participants produced more temporal connectives and casual connectives than P1 in Chinese. The frequency of temporal and casual connectives increase as the age of participants increased. In terms of adversative connectives, P3 participants produced the most adversative connectives among the three grades. The results indicate that P3 and P5 participants were telling stories in a more thematic manner than P1 participants, but P3 and P5 participants organized the information in a different way.

In English, P3 participants produced the most temporal, casual and adversative connectives than P5 participants. P1 produced the least in each type of connectives. The results indicate that P3 were more able than the other two grades to tell a story in a thematic manner.

Comparing across two languages, the older participants were able to tell a story in a more thematic manner than younger participants in Chinese. In English, P3 participants produced the most thematic stories than the other two grades. This is consistent with some studies that investigated Children's L1 development (Chang, 2004). The frequency of connectives increased at first and then declined. However, each grade participants produced more temporal connectives in English than in Chinese. This indicates that English is more advanced developed than Chinese in terms of temporality. The similarity is that P3 participants produced the most adversative connectives in both Chinese and English. This relates to the specific information expressed by P3 participants. P3 participants usually described the boys' behavior after teacher stopping them as "they were still arguing with each" or "they were fighting non-stop". This behaviour was described as adversative to the teacher's behaviour. P5 participants either missed this information or did not interpret the relation as adversative. The following examples demonstrated P3 and P5 participants' description of these events. In the first example, the P5 participant only described the temporal relation between the two events. The second P5 participant missed the information but described the minor character instead. The two P3 participants both described that after teacher stopped the boys, they were still angry or continue fighting.

F5BG: after the teacher have left the [/] the two boys started fighting again
G5BT: the teacher went to them and stopped them for fighting each other. (1.7) Tommy was laughing at the side
X3EB: and also stop those (1) two friends fighting **but** they were still angry at each other
B3EI: she told them not to fight anymore, **but** they didn't listen

Table 3 A comparison of Connectives in Mandarin and English

	Mandarin		English	
Connectives	Frequency	No. of Participants	Frequency	No. of Participants
Temporal	106	26	185	36
Adversative	34	18	37	15
Casual	31	10	57	21
Total	171	30	269	36

Table 4 A comparison of three grades in Mandarin

		Mandarin (N=36)		English (N=36)	
Grade	Connectives	Median	No. of Participants	Median	No. of Participants
P1	Temporal	0.5	6	4	12
	Adversative	0	2	0	3
	Casual	0	2	0	5
P3	Temporal	2	9	7	12
	Adversative	1	10	1	7
	Casual	0	2	1.5	8
P5	Temporal	3.5	11	4	12
	Adversative	0.5	6	0	5
	Casual	0.5	6	1	8

Figure 1 A comparison of temporal connectives between Mandarin and English

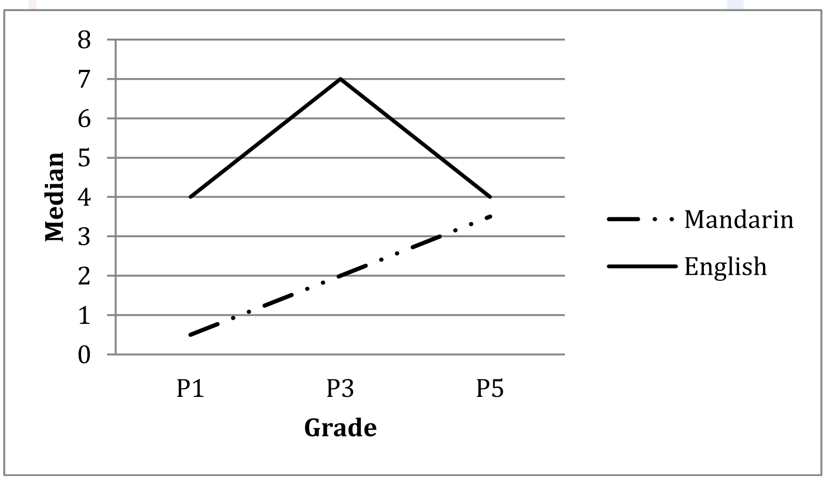


Figure 2 A comparison of adversative connectives between Mandarin and English

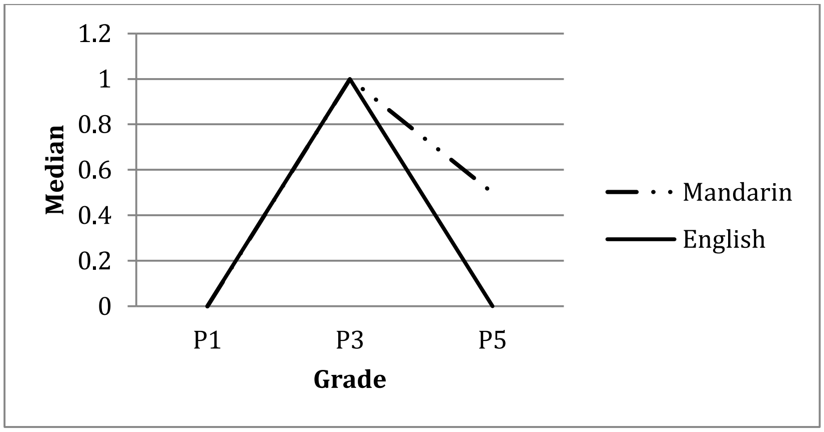
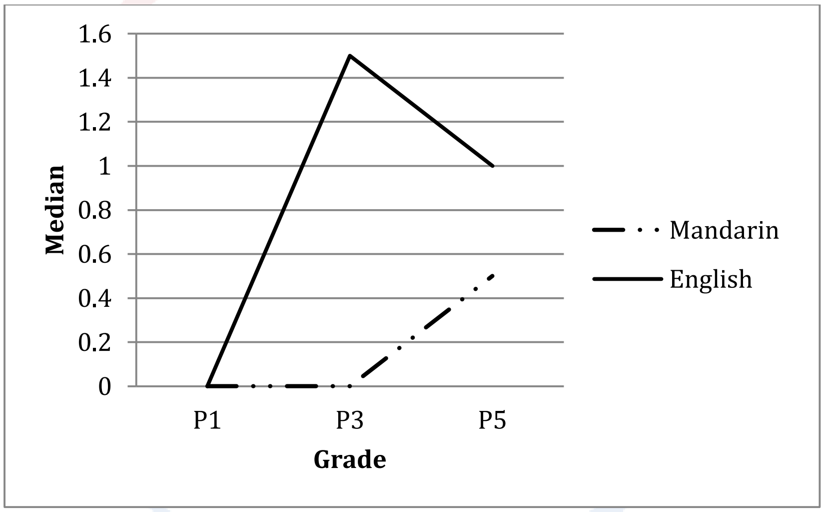


Figure 3 A comparison of causal connectives between Mandarin and English



Evaluative Expressions

A comparison of evaluative expressions in Chinese and English was shown in Table 5. In general, the largest category of evaluative expressions produced by participants in both languages is language. The second largest category is mood while the least is motivation. Participants produced more evaluative expressions in English than in Chinese in each category.

For development in Chinese, the largest category produced by P1 participants was language while the second largest category is mood. For P3 participants, again language is the largest category, but the second largest category was cognitive activities. For P5 participants, the largest category was mood while the second largest category is cognitive activities. Generally, the percent of cognitive activities and motivation categories increased as the age of participants increased while the other way round for language category. Besides, only P3 and P5 participants produced motivation category. The percent of mood category decreased first then increased.

For development in English, the largest category produced by P1 was mood, while the second largest category is language. The largest category produced by P3 was language while the second largest category is mood. P5 participants produced the largest category was language while cognitive activities was the second largest category. In general, the percent of cognitive activities category increased as the age increased. The percent of motivation decreased as the age increased. All the three grades were able to describe motivation.

By comparing two languages, the percent of cognitive activities category increased as the age increased. The difference is that the developmental pattern is opposite in terms of motivation.

Table 5 A comparison of evaluative expressions in Mandarin and English

	Mandarin			English		
Type	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants
Motivation	16	6.7	12	33	11	18
Language	96	40.17	32	114	38	31
Cognitive	55	23.01	23	64	21.33	24
Mood	69	28.87	25	89	29.67	29
Total	239	100	35	300	100	36

Table 6 A comparison of grades in Mandarin

	Grade								
	P1			P3			P5		
Type	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants
Motivation	0	0	0	8	7.69	6	8	8.17	6
Language	16	47.06	10	52	50	10	28	28.57	12
Cognitive	4	11.76	2	25	24.04	11	28	28.57	11
Mood	14	41.17	5	19	18.27	9	34	34.69	10
Total	34	100	11	104	100	12	98	100	12

Table 7 A comparison of grades in English

	Grade								
	P1			P3			P5		
Type	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants	Frequency	Percent (%)	No. of Participants
Motivation	8	13.56	6	14	11.29	6	11	9.4	6
Language	16	27.12	9	60	48.39	11	38	32.48	11
Cognitive	8	13.56	6	19	15.32	8	37	31.62	10
Mood	27	45.76	7	31	25	10	31	26.50	12
Total	59	100	12	124	100	12	117	100	12

Figure 4 A comparison of motivation category in Mandarin and English

Figure 5 A comparison of language in Mandarin and English

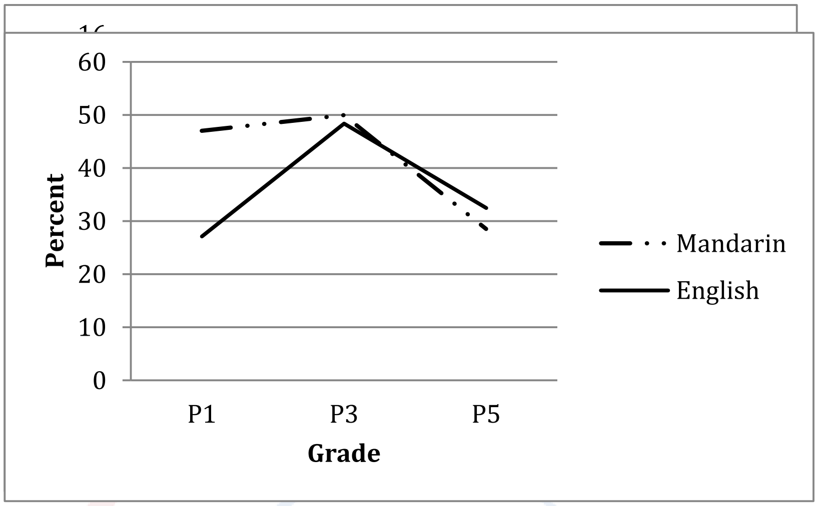


Figure 6 A comparison of cognitive in Mandarin and English

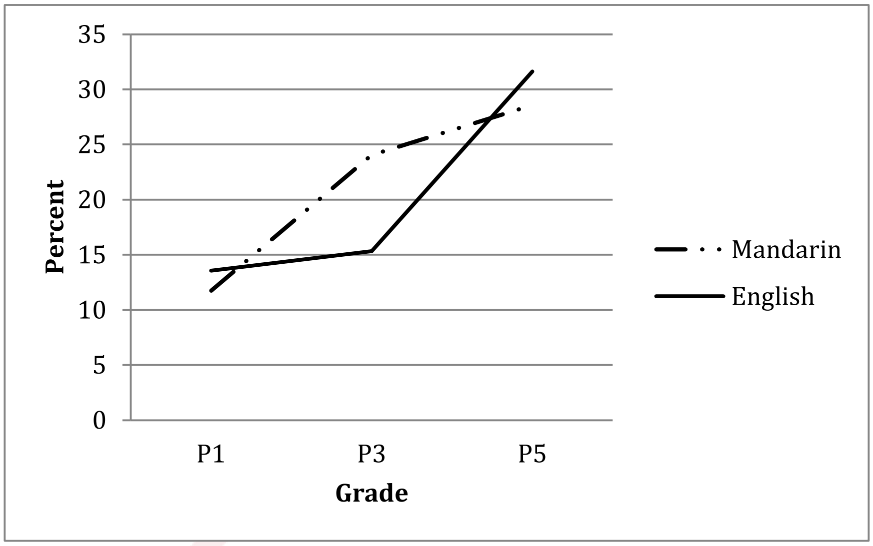
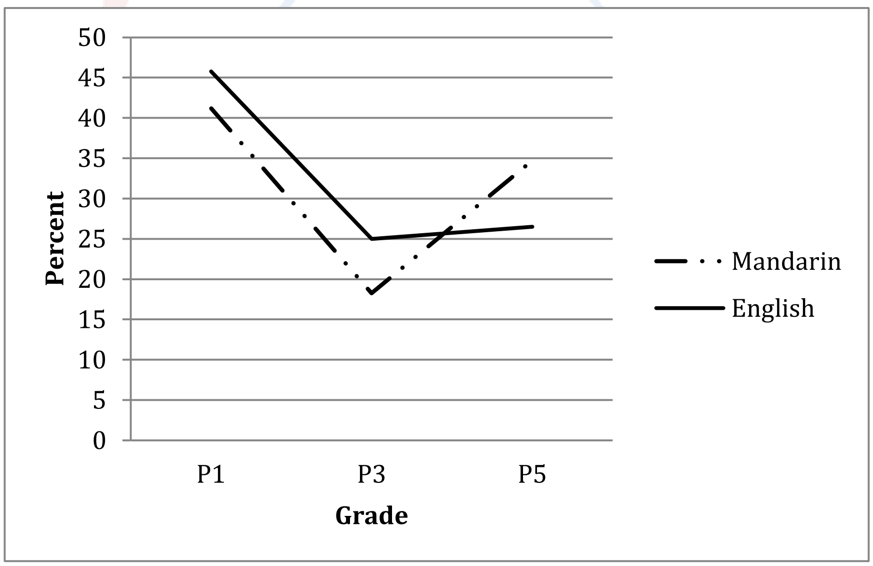


Figure 7 A comparison of mood in Mandarin and English



Above Chinese and English stories were analysed in terms of temporality and evaluative expressions and the performance compared across languages. In terms of temporality, older participants were better in telling the story in a thematic manner than the younger participants. While in English, P3 students were able to produce the most thematic stories. In terms of evaluative expressions, the description of cognitive activities increased as the age of participants increased. In Chinese, the percent of describing motivation also increased as the age of participants increased while the percent of language category decreased. In English, the percent of describing motivation decreased as the age of participants increased.

Discussion

Some of the findings were consistent with the results of previous studies. As age increased, participants' narrative ability developed in both Chinese and English in terms of temporality and evaluative expressions. Older participants were able to narrate a story with information more thematically organized than the younger participants. Older participants were better able to switch the perspectives of narrating the story, describing the characters' mood, cognitive activities and language. To express mental activities is more challenging than other categories because participants needs to make inferences about the characters' mental status according to the context.

The different findings from the previous studies lie in the development of evaluative expressions. In addition to the increase in description of mood, this study also found the increase in description of cognitive activities. This category includes describing the mental activities of the characters, or to say what the characters thought. This type of evaluative expression was usually started with phrases such as "I think...", "I understand...", or "I know... ". Previous studies did not find the increase in this category as the age increased. The reason may be the use of different elicited materials. The widely used picture book to elicit children's narration in the literature is *frog, where are you* (Mayer, Ormond, Murray, Templeton, & Osborn, 1969). This picture book consists of twenty four wordless pictures with the main plot being the little boy with his dog looking for the missing frog. The plot is more likely to elicit description of the action rather than the mental activities. In this research, the plot of the elicited materials is about two boys fighting, and the process of being angry with each to becoming friends. Thus, the story would trigger more descriptions of mental activities than the frog story would trigger.

By comparing Chinese and English narrative ability development, this research provided information on children's bilingual competence. The results indicated that participants' English narrative ability is more advanced developed than Chinese in terms of temporality and evaluative expressions. In terms of temporality, participants expressed more connectives of each type in English than in Chinese. Besides, each grade produced more connectives in English than in Chinese. In terms of evaluative expressions, participants expressed each category more frequently in English than in Chinese. Based on the three measures, participants' narrative ability is more advanced developed than English. However, some of the results should take typological differences of the two languages into consideration, for example, connectives. Chinese is a language where clauses are more likely connected semantically while in English, clauses are more likely connected syntactically. Therefore, it is expected that participants produce more connectives in English than in Chinese.

Similar patterns of development were also found in Chinese and English in terms of evaluative expression. The types of evaluative expressions and frequency increased as the age of participants increased in both languages. Within various types of evaluative expressions, the percent of description of cognitive activities increased as the age of participants increased. This finding is consistent with the Common Underlying Proficiency Hypothesis (Cummins, 1980; Cummins, 1979). As L1 and L2 proficiency shared cognitive components, they should have similar developmental patterns. To express evaluation requires the cognitive ability of understanding other people’s feelings. Young children are self-centred. As they grow older, they will begin to understand other people’s minds as they understand themselves. This ability promotes the development of describing evaluative expressions in both languages.

Conclusion

This study compared Singapore primary students’ narrative abilities in Chinese and English to describe their bilingual competence. The results indicated that their English narrative ability was more advanced developed than Chinese in terms of temporality and evaluative expression. The research has following implications. First, the results provide references for teachers to promote balanced bilingual development. For example, the teacher can raise students' awareness of narrating from other people's perspectives by emphasizing the features and functions of evaluative expressions. Second, the criteria for narrating a story should be consistent across two languages and should be explicitly taught to students. By doing this, L1 and L2 curriculum can be coordinated so that to facilitate the transfer of the knowledge and skills that are developed in L1 to L2. There are very few studies in the field to describe bilingual competence in terms of communicative competence. This research can enrich our understanding of development of bilingual competence in the context of Singapore. However, more research is needed in testing other communicative skills for revealing a full picture on this issue in the future.

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Improving Teacher Questions and Feedback through Action Research

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Abstract
Teachers are constantly striving to improve student learning. One way teachers can do so is through action research within their own classroom. Here a case study is presented concerning the use of mixed methods research to investigate teacher feedback in a Japanese junior high school English class. This research project quantitatively classified the types of feedback given by the Japanese English teacher (JTE) and Assistant language teacher (ALT) into the following categories (as proposed by Lyster, 1998): Recasts, explicit correction, and negotiation of form. Teacher question types (display, referential, conformational, and repetition) were also quantified. Finally, a qualitative interview was performed, wherein the JTE watched a video recording of the lesson and reflected on possible improvements. The results of the analysis showed that the JTE and ALT primarily used negotiation of form (i.e. prompting student self-correction) in their feedback. Furthermore, display questions (where the answer is already known by the teacher) were the most used. A review of the lesson video recording by the JTE prompted the realization that there was a lack of open-ended questions asked, there was too much teacher talk in the class, and an over use of student praise. Thus by conducting action research teachers were able to self-identify areas to improve their lessons and create a more communicative classroom environment.

Introduction

Posing questions to students and providing feedback on their answers are fundamental aspects of teaching and thus an important field of investigation both generally and for self-reflection by individual teachers. This particular action research project was undertaken to investigate both the questioning strategies and feedback techniques used in a particular English language class, as well as to evaluate their effectiveness. Additionally it is hoped that the examination of the class through this action research will aid in the improvement of the teaching methods employed in this classroom.

Teaching situation background

The observed class was a 1st year junior high school (seventh grade) English as a foreign language (EFL) class in Japan. The class was observed midway through the school year. As only one class was observed during this research project, knowledge of the class background can help put the results obtained in context, as well as help to explain why certain approaches (such as the use of team-teaching) were used.

In Japan it is compulsory for students to study a foreign language and the vast majority of schools choose English. At public schools in this school district, English is studied formally from the fifth grade of elementary school. In elementary school students are taught 32 lessons, of 45 minutes each, per year. The lessons focus primarily on vocabulary and using a few set phrases (for example “Do you like dogs?” “Yes, I like dogs.”). Native speakers of English are primarily responsible for teaching elementary school lessons as the regular classroom teachers typically have little or no knowledge of English. No reading or writing is taught at the elementary school level.

In junior high, students begin studying English three times per week for 50 minutes each with a specialist Japanese Teacher of English (JTE). The JTE is joined by a native-English speaking Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) once per week. A useful overview of the history and issues involving the use of team-teaching in Japan is provided by Tajino and Tajino (1999). Some of the common issues that they cite is a tendency for JTEs to use the ALT as a “human tape recorder” relegated to simply reading passages aloud from a book for students to repeat and for the ALT to view the JTE simply as a translator. There is also a great deal of variation in terms of which teacher plans the lessons and leads the class.

At this school, the JTE is primarily responsible for lesson planning and the ALT assists as required for team-teaching. The JTE and ALT typically discuss the day's upcoming lessons for around ten minutes in the morning.

The role of action research

Action research, according to Dornyei (2007), is characterized by a close link between the teacher and researcher, as well as its purpose in furthering understanding of the classroom situation with a view of improving the effectiveness of the teacher's instruction. Furthermore, Taylor (2002, p. 399) states that “...you may only look at one class, possibly only one lesson, and are not looking for the large numbers to make your research statistically viable and thus generalizable to other contexts.” However Dornyei (2007) notes that although action research is potentially powerful for its active rather than passive involvement of teachers in research, it can be difficult to carry out in practice due to the extra time demands placed on teachers who conduct their own research, a lack of incentives, as well as their lack of training leading to questions of the research's validity. Thus Dornyei (2007) concludes that action research “... although it is undoubtedly a noble idea, it just does not work in practice.” (p. 191).

While this argument may be valid in many cases, it presupposes that the teacher carrying out the research has no training (such as a research background in their undergraduate or post-graduate studies), and is unable or unwilling to devote the necessary time to the project. Thus as we will explore below, action research remains a potentially useful tool for many teachers to methodically examine their teaching situation in the continuing quest for professional improvement.

Classroom research methods

A large number of classroom research methods have been developed that are available to classroom action researchers for examining classroom interaction. A review by Chaudron (1988) alone found 26 different examples. These can be classified on a spectrum of their quantitative or qualitative nature. Examples of quantitative data can include test scores, surveys with set responses, and tally-sheets for observations. While quantitative methods have the advantage of being statistically analyzable, they run the risk of missing important information that, while not easily quantifiable, is vital to the understanding of the situation. This issue can be addressed by utilizing more qualitative methods, although these run the risk of being influenced (either intentionally or not) by the preconceived notions of the investigator. However, it can be argued that no method can be totally without bias, as even the selection of categories for quantitative surveys can influence the results). Common quantitative data collection methods include interviews or surveys that allow open-ended responses, as well as researcher observations (as in an ethnographic study). Dornyei (2007) states that by using mixed methods (combining qualitative and quantitative approaches) researchers can achieve a fuller understanding of the situation, verify findings against each other, and reach multiple audiences who may be more inclined towards one method or the other.

There are a number of technologies available to aid researchers in gathering data. An increasingly popular tool in classroom research is the use of video recorders. When using video however, Zuengler, Ford, & Fassnacht(1998, cited in Dornyei 2007, p. 184), caution against the occurrence of "literal blind spots" where the camera is unable to view the entire class, as well as "figurative blind spots" where the unfamiliar presence of the camera causes the subjects to change their behavior. The advantage of using video rather than simply recording audio is that it allows the repeated observation of non-verbal interactions that can be a vital component of communication, in addition to being helpful in differentiating which subjects an utterance can be attributed to (Murison-Bowie, cited in Dornyei 2007, p. 185). Although transcribing video can be labor intensive, once completed the data in the transcripts can be easily re-examined for future research by both the original researcher and others.

The role and effectiveness of questions

If proper communication is the ultimate goal of learning a language, then questions that facilitate communication rather than simply check knowledge can be a useful tool.

As Chaudron (1988) points out, questions that are open-ended are more effective than closed questions which result in either simple yes or no answers, or standard phrases that are simply parroted (such as the classic "How are you?" "I'm fine, thank you, and you?"). Furthermore, referential questions where the teacher is unaware of the answer are more likely to result in natural communication than display questions to which the teacher already knows the correct answer. For example "What did you do last weekend?" will likely elicit a more complex response than "What's the date today?" However, closed and display questions can still be considered useful as a means of increasing confidence in low-level students as the answers may be simpler and require less vocabulary. Thus while open-ended and referential questions are more likely to result in a more communicative classroom, other types should not be overlooked completely, as their effectiveness may depend on the learning context and student level.

Another factor related to questions to consider, besides the type of questions asked, is to whom they are asked and how. Classes naturally contain students of different levels as well as personality. Some students are naturally more confident (though not necessarily more able) and thus more likely to answer a question posed by the teacher. This can lead to the domination of class time by some students to the detriment of other students' opportunities for communication. Chaudron (1988) points out that questions are useful for directing who is expected to speak in addition to selecting the topic of discussion. Thus by asking questions to specific students, teachers can attempt to create more opportunities for quiet students to communicate. Teachers can also direct easier questions to lower level students so that they can feel involved in the class and gain confidence through getting a correct answer. Likewise, more advanced students can be given challenging questions to help maintain their interest.

The role and effectiveness of feedback

Feedback is an essential aspect not only of classroom discourse, but also general communication. While feedback can take many forms (such as praise, criticism, and body language) it is perhaps most directly observable and applicable in this case of error correction. It is currently felt, although not universally, (Russell 2010) that it is important for students to receive feedback so that they can identify errors and thus make changes necessary to improve their performance, especially when learning a language outside of childhood (Long 1996, cited in Russell 2010). Hedge (2000) also explains that there are many factors to consider when providing feedback. These include which errors are important to correct (for example systemic errors, which are a result of incorrect knowledge of English, versus simple mistakes), how to give negative feedback without causing anxiety and demotivating the learner, when to correct (immediately versus at the end of the activity), as well as the method of feedback.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identify the following types of oral error correction: Explicit correction (identifying and correcting the error), recast (repeating the answer in it's correct form without explicitly identifying that the answer was incorrect), repetition (repeating the statement and using tone of voice to indicate the error), clarification requests (indicating that the response was not understood), elicitation (leaving pauses for the students to fill with the correct answer), and metalinguistic feedback (referring to a grammar point to prompt the correct answer). They found that in an examination of French immersion second language classrooms that recasts made up the majority of teachers' feedback. However recasts were the least effective in terms of student uptake, defined as "... a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (Lyster and Ranta 1997, p. 49). They go on to categorize uptake as with or without repair based on whether there was "...the correct reformulation of an error" (Lyster and Ranta 1997, p. 49). Lyster (1998) subsequently combines elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition into the category of "negotiation of form" (AKA prompts) as all four categories bring an error to the students attention without directly offering the correct form. Lyster (1998) goes on to claim that while recasts are useful for correcting phonological mistakes, they were less effective for correcting lexical and grammatical errors. Lyster claims this is partly because students don't always recognize a recast as a correction. Finally Lyster concludes that using the negotiation of form as feedback was the most effective as it allows students to notice and correct their own mistakes.

However in a review of feedback research, Russell (2010) concluded that there is still debate over the effectiveness of recasts (particularly in non-immersion settings) as well as whether or not student uptake is an accurate measure of learning.

Methods

In order to investigate the use of questions and feedback in this particular classroom, a mixed methods approach was undertaken. The approach taken in this study was to attempt to triangulate the results through a combination of quantitative tally-sheets and a qualitative ethnographic study. This was done with the view that by combining techniques they will complement each other and create a more complete view of the situation than either would give if used on their own.

Qualitative analysis

The researcher decided to obtain data via the post-class review of a video tape made of the class rather than by actively making observations during the class itself. This was done for several reasons, not least of which was that the researcher was himself participating in teaching the class. It was felt that due to a lack of practice in classroom observation that a format allowing multiple viewings of events would preclude the possibility of significant omissions on the part of the researcher. The use of two video cameras also allowed the observation of the class from multiple angles (one facing the teachers and the blackboard, the other facing the students), as well as providing insurance against technical malfunctions resulting in gaps in the data. Also, while not hidden, the cameras were placed outside of the students immediate field of vision in order to minimize any distractions to the class.

Two weeks following the recorded lesson a semi-structured interview with the JTE was recorded regarding her impressions of the lesson. The JTE was also shown the recorded footage so as to refresh her memory of the lesson. The two-week gap between the lesson and the interview may have aided in the objective self-critique of the lesson.

Quantitative analysis

Tally-sheets were chosen to gather quantitative observations due to their simplicity and ease of use. Furthermore, the tally-sheets used event sampling (tallying results over the course of the class) rather than time sampling (breaking the observation period into times sections) for the quantitative analysis as the researcher was only concerned with the amounts and relative proportions of questions and feedback rather than when they occur.

The researcher chose to divide the types of questions into display, referential, and confirmation types for simplicity. Repeated questions were tallied separately so as to indicate the total amount of questions without unduly influencing the ratios of types of questions.

The researcher chose to adopt the feedback categories set out by Lyster (1998), again due to their simplicity. This class didn't feature writing activities so only oral questioning and feedback strategies needed to be examined.

Results

Ethnographic qualitative observations

The observed class consisted of 7 students (1 female and 6 male) who have been in the same class together since kindergarten. All the students are native Japanese speakers. The school is located in a rural area of Japan with very little exposure to English. In fact it is quite likely that the only direct interaction the students have had with a non-Japanese person is within the language class. A short anonymous survey (see appendix) revealed that the large majority of the students (6/7) enjoy studying English and feel it is important for them. The reasons given for studying English included for future employment, university, travel, and making friends (4, 2, 2, and 1 students respectively). This positive attitude to studying English helps to explain why they are generally well behaved and attentive.

While the students were aware of the presence of the recording equipment, it didn't appear to affect the class atmosphere, likely because there were no unfamiliar observers operating the equipment. The class was very teacher-centered, with a great deal of talk between the two teachers and students, as well as between the teachers themselves. Lockstep (whole-class work) was prominent, with no pair or group work performed, and thus almost no talk occurring between students. The class primarily focused around the blackboard, with the JTE and ALT spending most of the class standing on either side of it. The total amount of teacher talk appeared to be shared equally between the JTE and ALT, although the JTE was more likely to explain grammar points and the ALT more likely to provide example sentences and pose questions to the students. There was also a significant portion of talk between the ALT and JTE, with the JTE posing questions to the ALT in order to provide examples of dialogue for the students to listen to. Students did not raise their hands and wait to be called on for answers, but rather called out responses. The JTE and ALT both provided immediate feedback to students, often at almost the same time, causing their responses to overlap. There was a tendency for three of the seven students to dominate the answering of questions posed to the whole class, with the other students only answering questions posed to them directly. The questions were very repetitive, for example pointing at various objects on the board and asking, “what's this?” or ”where's this?” over and over. There is also a great deal of praise for students, particularly from the JTE. Feedback was given in a positive manner, avoiding harsh criticism. New vocabulary and example sentences were translated by the students from English into Japanese, and Japanese also featured prominently in the explanations of the grammar points by the JTE. The students became noticeably more engaged in the class once the teachers began to adopt a more playful attitude to the placement of the object the students had to describe and also begin to move around the classroom during the final five minutes of the lesson.

Teacher interview

Two weeks after the lesson was taped, the researcher interviewed the Japanese Teacher of English (JTE) regarding the lesson and showed her the recording. When asked her impression of the lesson she responded that, “It was very bad. I spoke too much. [the] students need more and more activities.” She went on to say that the same types of questions were always asked and that she feels we need to ask more “how” and “why” questions (ie. open-ended questions). She felt that these questions are more likely to make students think, but that it is difficult for the students to answer them. She went on to explain that she asks the same sequence of questions every week so as not to intimidate the students and allow them to gain confidence. However, she feels that she should take advantage of the small class size to now ask individual students more follow up questions. For example, if a student is asked “How are you?” and they reply “I'm tired.” she could then ask “Why are you tired?” Other comments on the lesson were that the students should be speaking with the ALT more and that talk between the two instructors should be reduced. Also, the JTE felt that she should have used more real-life classroom examples to practice the locations of objects rather than relying on the printed material on the blackboard beyond the initial presentation.

When asked about classroom feedback the JTE felt that it was useful, but perhaps somewhat excessive. “I often praise them. If the answer is right we have to praise. Great. Good job. That's right. Those words sometimes encourage them, but I use [them] too much” She also felt that it is better to correct mistakes immediately, rather than later in the lesson.

Overall the JTE felt that having watched the video of her teaching was a good opportunity to improve her teaching in the class.

Quantitative analysis of question types and feedback

Table 1. Types and Frequencies of Questions (Qs) Posed to Students (SS) by the Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) and Japanese Teacher of English (JTE)

Type of question	No. of ALT to SS Qs	% of total ALT to SS Qs	No. of JTE to SS Qs	% of total JTE to SS Qs
display questions	40	70.2	50	63.3
referential questions	7	12.3	1	1.3
teacher confirming understanding	8	14	5	6.3
teacher repeats a question	2	3.5	23	29.1
total	57	100	79	100

Table 1 indicates that the majority of questions posed by both the assistant language teacher (ALT) and the Japanese teacher of English (JTE) are display questions (70.2% and 63.3% respectively). Furthermore, while the ALT and JTE both asked a similar number of questions to confirm understanding, the JTE was much more likely to repeat a question to a student than was the ALT. Although the total number of questions posed by the JTE was higher than that of the ALT (79 versus 57), when the repeated questions are subtracted from the total the numbers do not vary greatly (56 versus 55).

Table 2. Types of Feedback (FB) Given to Students (SS) by the Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) and Japanese Teacher of English (JTE)

Type of feedback	Frequency of ALT FB to SS	% of total ALT FB to SS	Frequency of JTE FB to SS	% of total JTE FB to SS
recast	1	4.5	1	2.9
explicit correction	6	27.3	4	11.8
negotiation of form	15	68.2	29	85.3
total	22	100	34	100

Table 2 shows that the majority of feedback provided to students by both the ALT and JTE is through the negotiation of form (68.2% and 85.3% respectively) whereas recasts made up the smallest amount of feedback for both (4.5% and 2.9%). The ALT was also more likely to use explicit correction than the JTE.

Discussion

This action research project has shown that both the JTE and ALT make extensive use of display questions in their class (Table 1). In terms of the effectiveness of this type of questioning, there is much to be desired, as became apparent to the JTE upon reviewing the transcript. The ethnographic study of the class revealed that almost no communication occurred between students. On the other hand, while there was no pair or group work, the small class size means that the total amount of student communication was unlikely to be significantly lower due to the number of questions directed to the class by the teacher. Also, the practice of asking specific students questions slightly mitigated the tendency of certain individual students to completely dominate the class. Unfortunately, if the purpose of asking questions is to create a communicative environment with natural back and forth communication, the repeated use of display questions can be considered a major obstacle. However, it is questionable whether the students are at a high enough level to engage in more communicative talk without teacher questions for guidance. Also, while the ALT and JTE dominate the classroom talk, by interacting together and asking each other questions, they can provide unscripted examples of English in action for the students to observe. The key points, as observed by the JTE in the teacher interview, are to take advantage of the small class size and ask more follow-up questions to the students, as well as to gradually decrease the amount of teacher talk and allow the students to gain confidence and include more real-life activities to challenge the students to communicate more.

In terms of feedback, the research shows that the teachers primarily use negotiation of form (prompts) rather than explicit correction, although there are some variations between the two teachers (Table 2). This type of feedback is considered effective, (particularly for lexical and grammatical errors, (Lyster, 1998)), although as the ethnographic transcripts indicate, the way that JTE and ALT provide overlapping feedback could be considered confusing to the students. Also, by constantly correcting each response they are potentially inhibiting a communicative atmosphere through over-correction.

It is interesting to note that the results do not confirm those obtained by Lyster (1998), as the majority of feedback in this study was negotiation of form rather than recasts. However, because of the limited scope of this study it would be difficult to speculate as to the cause of this discrepancy in feedback methods. Also, while the categories presented by Lyster (1998) are useful for quantitative analysis, there is still some subjective interpretation on the part of the researcher when tallying feedback as some categories are difficult to distinguish (particularly between a recast and a repetition as the difference relies on voice tone). It would be interesting to repeat this analysis in other Japanese junior high schools to see if these results are consistent within the Japanese school system or whether the observed class was simply an outlier. Until this stage is completed however, it is not possible to generalize the results of this single classroom observation to make comparisons between Japanese English language classrooms and the Canadian French immersion classrooms observed by Lyster (1998).

Finally, in terms of the effectiveness of team teaching between the ALT and JTE, the fact that both teachers gave similar amounts of feedback (Table 2) and asked similar amounts of questions (Table 1) indicates that there is a fairly equal relationship between them. While the video transcript indicates that the ALT and JTE do conform somewhat to the stereotypical roles of "human tape recorder" and "translator" respectively (Tajino & Tajino, 2000) those are not their exclusive roles and thus the students are able to benefit from the different strengths that both teachers bring to the classroom.

Conclusion

By conducting an action research project, it was possible for EFL teachers to systematically self-evaluate their teaching style in terms of the questions they ask and the feedback they provide to students. While the results obtained through this action research may not be generalizable to situations outside the particular classroom studied, the research still has “internal generalizability” (Maxwell, 1992, cited in Dornyei 2007, p. 58). Thus the results can be useful for improving other classes taught by the ALT and JTE. By performing this action research project the JTE and ALT were able to identify four immediate areas that require attention: the domination of the answering process by a few students, too many repeated display questions by the teachers, the ALT and JTE giving feedback at the same time, and too much praise.

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Appendix

Survey and results

Do you enjoy studying English?
英語を勉強するのが好きですか？
Do you study English outside of school (Juku, Eikaiwa, etc)?
学校の授業以外に（塾、英会話）英語を勉強しますか？
    If yes, how often per week.
    する場合：週に何回勉強しますか？
Is studying English important for you? If yes, why.
あなたにとって、英語を勉強するのは大事なことですか？大事だと思ったら、なんでそう思いますか？

- -Future job　就職
- -University　大学入試
- -Travel　海外旅行
- -culture　異文化に興味ある
- -make friends　国際交流
- -other　他に

Question	Number of positive responses	Number of negative responses
Do you enjoy studying English?	6	1
Do you study English outside of school?	2	5
Is studying English important for you?	6	1
I study English for a future job.	4	0
I study English for university.	2	0
I study English for travel.	2	0
I study English for culture.	0	0
I study English to make friends.	1	0
I study English for other reasons.	0	0

The Frequent Errors in English Writing of Students Who Study in the English Writing for Careers Course

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Abstract
This study investigated common English language errors made by 28 participants who enrolled the English Writing for Careers course in Burapha University in 2003. Four writing assignments of all participants were analyzed. They were sentence writing according to the provided pattern, paragraph writing for introductory, resume writing, and cover letter writing. Errors were identified by the error checklist that was created by the researcher. The numbers of errors were calculated by using SPSS program. The four most frequent errors committed by the participants were vocabulary choice, parts of speech, punctuation, and spelling. The study is important to educators and material developers who influence on better educational system. For English learners, the error analysis can show the drawback in their English writing.

Keywords: error analysis, language learning, writng for careers

Introduction

English is a world language. Every country around the world can use English language to communicate with people from other countries who speak different languages. In 2015, Thailand is a member of ASEAN Economic Community(AEC). This means that Thai students have opportunities to work in any member countries in AEC. English language is a lingua franca for AEC, so English language skill is important for Thai students, especially writing skill. For Burapha University students, English Writing for Careers course can enable them to increase their English writing ability.

Jefferson (2008) stated that written communication is important in the work place for three reasons. First of all, it enables readers to read and study at their convenience. And another reason is that it can be permanently recorded for future reference. Finally, it is a good way to transmit information to others.

Burapha University is aware of the importance of English writing skill well, so English Writing for Careers is a required course for second year students in some majors of Burapha University. The objectives of the course are to study basic to advanced grammar in writing, to enhance vocabulary skill in related career fields, and to improve students' writing skill to communicate for their job well. The materials of the courses are usually commercial books created by native speakers. Although theses textbooks are good, native speakers may not understand something about Thai students who study English as a foreign language clearly. As a result, some parts of these books are not suitable for Thai students. Commercial text without grammar usually is material of English writing for careers course. Using these commercial textbooks for English writing for careers course may not be the most effective for students in Burapha University. The way to solve this problem is creating a textbook that includes important content suitable for Thai students. To create a good textbook for the students, their frequent errors in English writing should be studied. And then the result of this study can be used to create the textbook for English Writing for Careers course. The suitable material with studied content can improve Burapha University students' writing skills.

Methodology

Subjects Of The Study

The population in this research were 112 Burapha university students who enrolled in section 1 and 2201 of the English Writing for Careers course in the summer semester in 2013. According to Teerawut Aekakul (2000), the suitable average amount of sample group of hundred population should be 25%.

The 25% of 112 students is 28 students, so these 28 students were the subjects of the research. They were chosen by random. Every four students from the name lists were pulled out as the subjects of the research. All subjects were taught by the researcher for 15 weeks. The content of teaching was from basic sentence pattern to paragraph writing in careers. They were assigned to do four tasks entire semester.

Research Instruments

To accomplish the objectives of the present study, two research instruments were employed. They were four writing tasks and the checklist for evaluating subjects' English writing tasks. The four writing tasks were writing sentences according to provided sentence patterns, writing a paragraph for introductory, writing a resume, and writing a cover letter for applying a job.

The second instrument of the research is the checklist for evaluating created by the researcher and revised by three reviewers who are English lecturers at Burapha University Language Institute. They have taught English writing for careers course more than three courses. They understand the course well and experienced about grading students' writing.

The error checklist was created by using table. It is easy to understand. All topics were grouped. There are four groups of errors to be checked. All topics are important for writing skill. They are content, organization, lexis, and grammar.

The first group is content with subtopic is address the task. It means whether writer response the tasks clearly.

The second topic is organization. The topic consists of three subtopics relating coherence, coordinating conjunction, and subordinating conjunction. Coherence means that all supporting details are organized to make information go together. Coordinating conjunction and subordinating conjunction enable organization of writing well.

Lexis is the third topic of the error checklist. There are two parts in the topic; vocabulary choice and spelling. Vocabulary choice was to check whether students chose suitable vocabulary in their writing. The vocabulary was used correctly. Spelling shows that students spell every word in their writing correctly.

The last topic of the error checklist is grammar. There are ten parts that are important points for writing skill. The grammatical errors for this topic as follows:

- article
- part of speech
- pronoun
- subject-verb agreement
- countable noun/ Uncountable noun usage
- tense
- gerund and infinitive
- fragment
- run-on
- punctuation

Error Topic	Frequency	Average
Content		
address the task		
Organization		
coherence		
coordinating conjunction		
subordinating conjunction		
Lexis		
vocabulary choice		
spelling		
Grammar		
article		
part of speech		
pronoun		
subject-verb agreement		
countable noun/ Uncountable noun usage		
tense		
gerund and infinitive		
fragment		
run-on sentence		
punctuation		

Data Collection Procedure

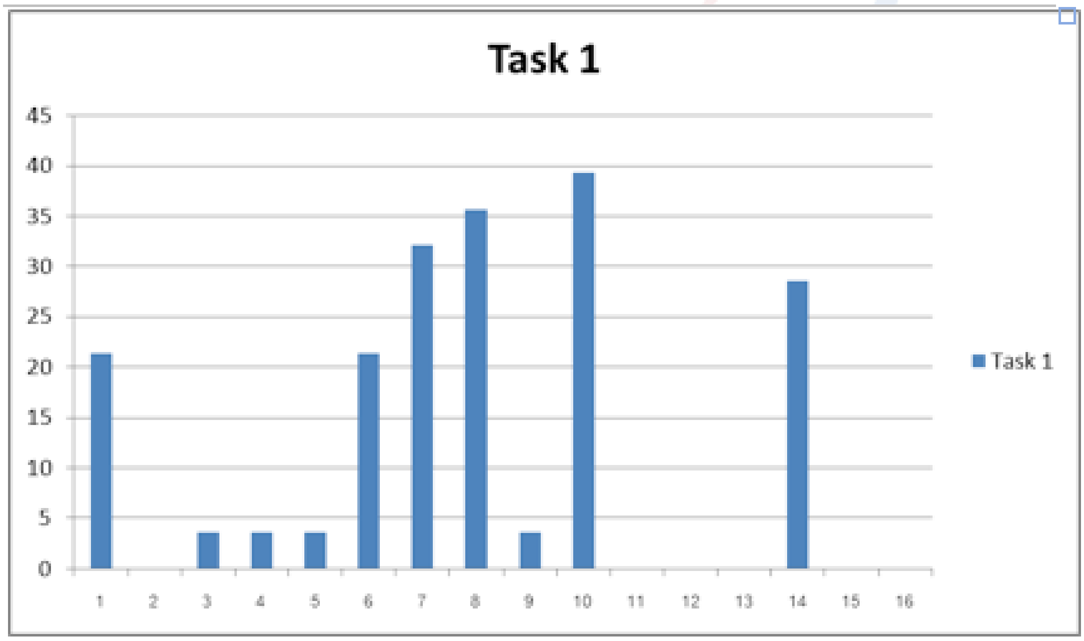
The study was conducted for 15 weeks in the summer semester in 2013. Four assignments were given to the subjects. They were assigned to write sentences according to provided sentence patterns, to write a paragraph for introductory, to write a resume, and to write a cover letter for applying a job. And then all four writing assignment of 28 subjects were corrected by the error checklist that was reviewed by three experts who have experienced in teaching English writing for careers many semesters. The number of errors in each group of the error checklist was calculated by SPSS. Each error was categorized under only one error group.

Research Findings

The numbers of errors were tabulated in five tables. They are four tables for four participants' tasks and one summary table for all errors occurred in all participants' tasks. The first table showed frequent errors in writing sentences according to provided sentence patterns.

Table 1: Frequent errors in the participants' task I

Error Topic	Frequency	Average
Content		
address the task	6	21.4
Organization		
coherence	-	-
coordinating conjunction	1	3.6
subordinating conjunction	1	3.6
Lexis		
vocabulary choice	1	3.6
spelling	6	21.4
Grammar		
article	9	32.1
part of speech	10	35.7
pronoun	1	3.6
subject-verb agreement	11	39.3
countable noun/ Uncountable noun usage	-	-
tense	-	-
gerund and infinitive	-	-
fragment	8	28.6
run-on sentence	-	-
punctuation	-	-

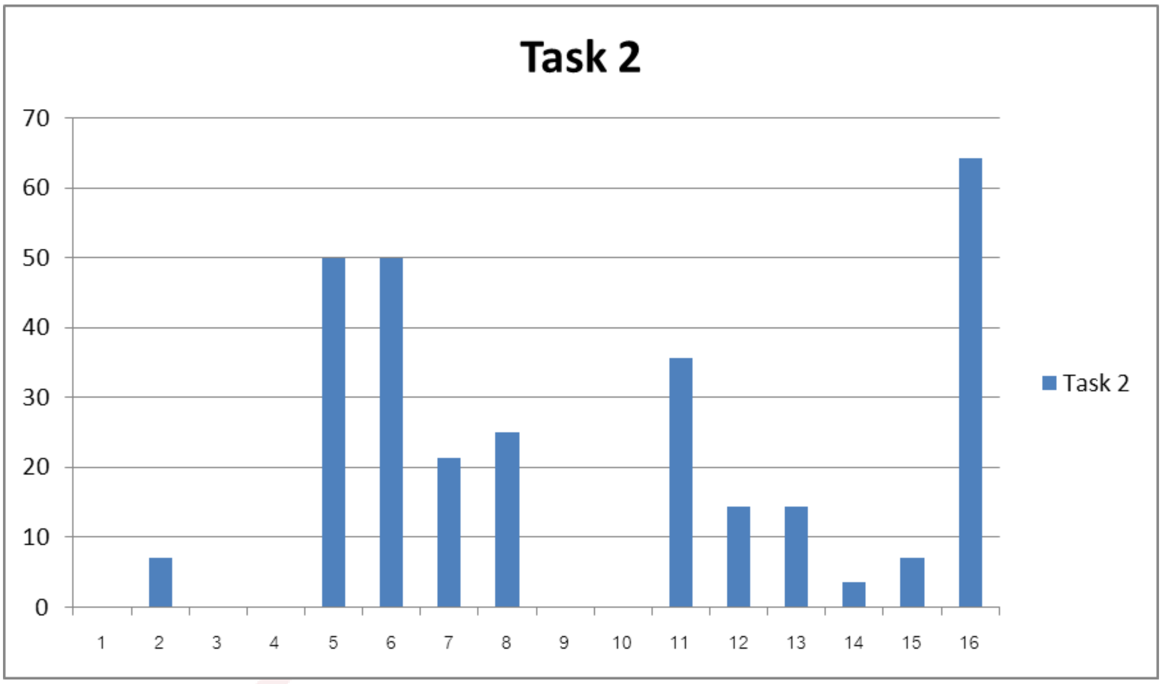


The most three frequent errors in writing sentences according provided sentence patterns were subject-verb agreement, part of speech, and article. Some participants created their sentences by using wrong verb forms. They might be nervous about the patterns and pay less attention to agreement between subject and verb, part of speech of words they used, and article for nouns they used. Coherence, run on, and punctuation error didn't occur in this task because the task was only sentence creating not paragraph. Participants didn't make countable noun and uncountable noun usage and tense error because they used simple nouns and verbs they know how to use correctly to avoid making a mistake.

The second table showed the errors in participants' writings for writing paragraph for introductory

Table 2: Frequent errors in the participants' task II

Error Topic	Frequency	Average
Content		
address the task	-	-
Organization		
coherence	2	7.1
coordinating conjunction	-	-
subordinating conjunction	-	-
Lexis		
vocabulary choice	14	50
spelling	14	50
Grammar		
article	6	21.4
part of speech	7	25
pronoun	-	-
subject-verb agreement	-	-
countable noun/ Uncountable noun usage	10	35.7
tense	4	14.3
gerund and infinitive	4	14.3
fragment	1	3.6
run-on sentence	2	7.1
punctuation	18	64.3

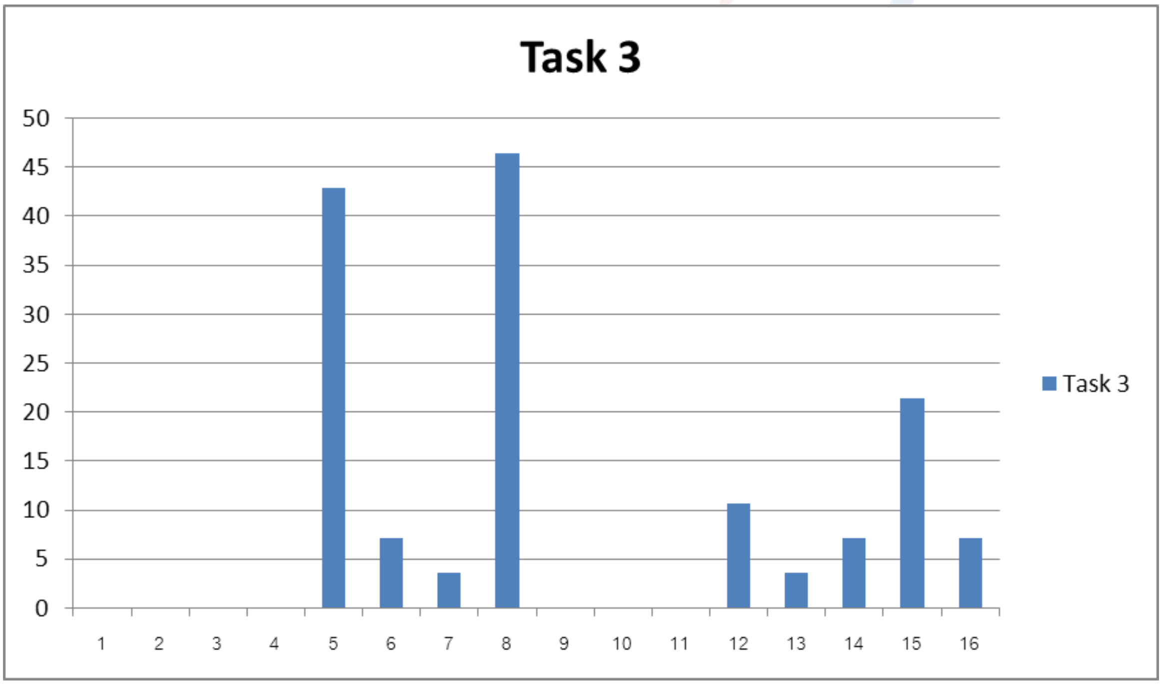


The most frequent error in task II was using punctuation. The task II was to create an introductory e-mail. All details for writing e-mail were taught before doing the task. The minor errors- using punctuation, choosing suitable vocabularies, wrong spelling, and countable noun and uncountable noun usage- occurred more frequent than other types of errors.

The third table demonstrated the errors in participants' writings for writing resume.

Table 3: Frequent errors in the participants' task III

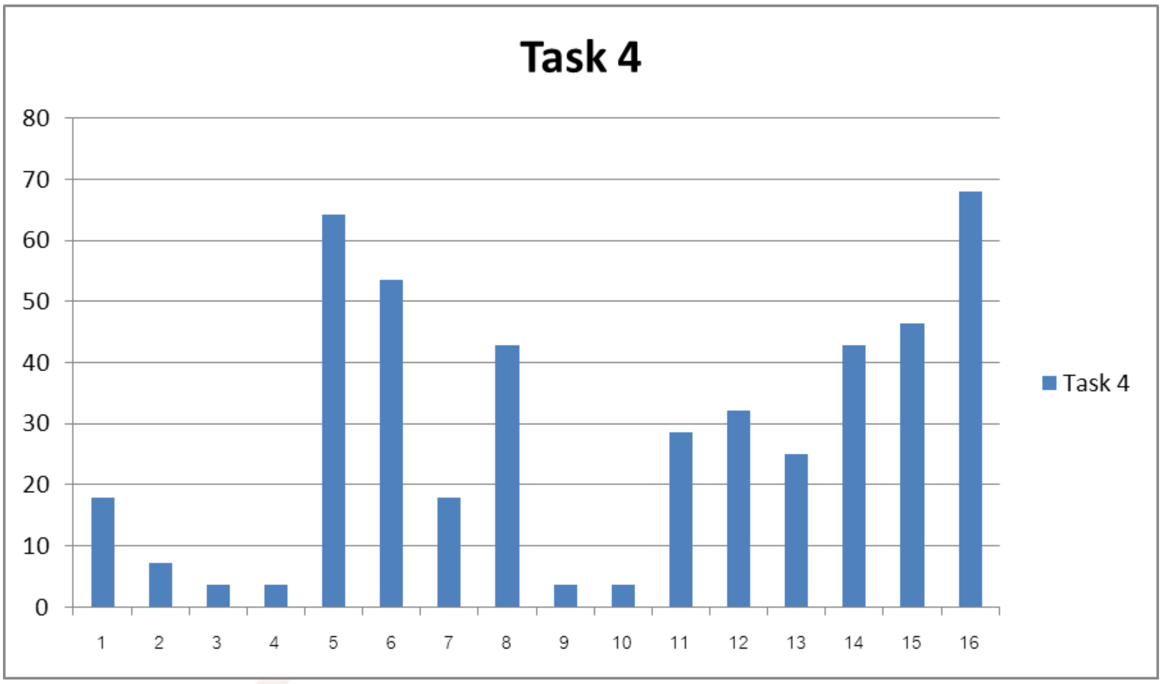
Error Topic	Frequency	Average
Content		
address the task	-	-
Organization		
coherence	-	-
coordinating conjunction	-	-
subordinating conjunction	-	-
Lexis		
vocabulary choice	12	42.89
spelling	2	7.1
Grammar		
article	1	3.6
part of speech	13	46.4
pronoun	-	-
subject-verb agreement	-	-
countable noun/ Uncountable noun usage	-	-
tense	3	10.7
gerund and infinitive	1	3.6
fragment	2	7.1
run-on sentence	6	21.4
punctuation	2	7.1



Using wrong part of speech of words participants used is the most frequent errors in the task III. Some participants couldn't use suitable words in the resume writing. The other types of errors occurred less frequently. The cause of this might be about time and environment in doing the task. The task was take-home assignment, so all participants had enough time to review their writings. The fourth table expressed the errors in participants' writings for writing a cover letter for applying a job.

Table 4: Frequent errors in the participants' task IV

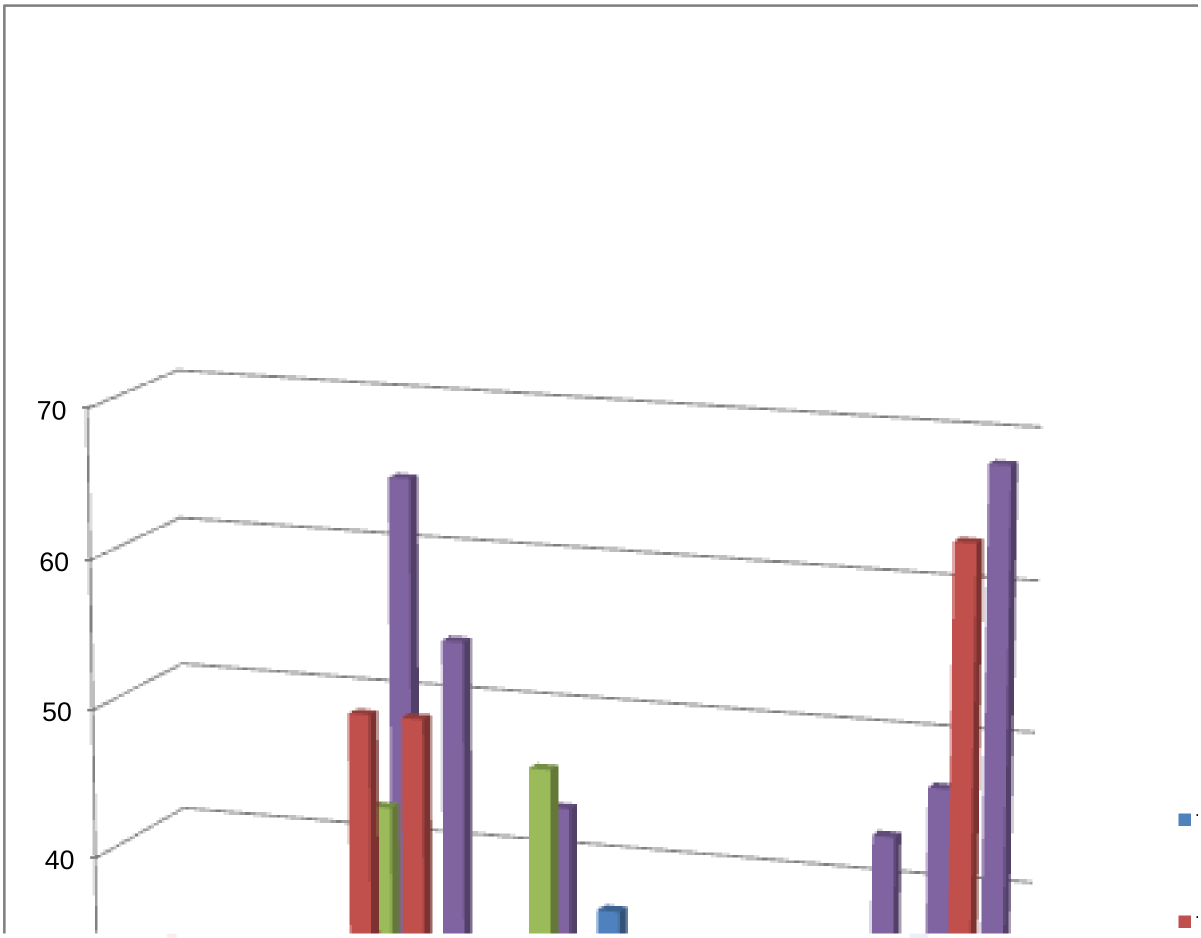
Error Topic	Frequency	Average
Content		
address the task	5	17.9
Organization		
coherence	2	7.1
coordinating conjunction	1	3.6
subordinating conjunction	1	3.6
Lexis		
vocabulary choice	18	64.3
spelling	15	53.6
Grammar		
article	5	17.9
part of speech	12	42.9
pronoun	1	3.6
subject-verb agreement	1	3.6
countable noun/ Uncountable noun usage	8	28.6
tense	9	32.1
gerund and infinitive	7	25
fragment	12	42.9
run-on sentence	13	46.4
punctuation	19	67.9



Using incorrect punctuation is the most frequent error in the fourth task. In this task, participants had to write the cover letters to apply the job according to the provided advertisement. Writing a cover business letter was taught before the participants did the task, so they didn't make a lot of major mistakes. The last table showed total frequent errors of all four tasks of the participants in each kind of error topics according to the error checklist.

Table 5: Frequent errors in all participants' tasks

Error Topic	Frequency	Average
Content		
address the task	10	8.93
Organization		
coherence	5	4.46
coordinating conjunction	2	1.79
subordinating conjunction	2	1.79
Lexis		
vocabulary choice	45	40.18
spelling	38	33.93
Grammar		
article	21	18.75
part of speech	44	39.29
pronoun	2	1.79
subject-verb agreement	12	10.71
countable noun/ Uncountable noun usage	18	16.07
tense	16	14.29
gerund and infinitive	12	10.71
fragment	23	20.54
run-on sentence	23	20.54
punctuation	41	36.61



The most frequent four types of errors that happened in participants' writing were using unsuitable words, choosing incorrect part of speech of words, using wrong punctuation, and misspelling.

Discussion

As the finding show, the most frequent error of participants' tasks was vocabulary choice. Choosing the appropriate words in writing is the writing skill that should be prior improved. The other three frequent errors were using wrong part of speech of the words, using wrong punctuation, and misspelling. The surprised result was the frequent error in misspelling. Some teachers think that spelling shouldn't be taught in the writing class. Some teachers think that it is not writing skill.

Interestingly, students in writing class should be practiced about spelling more than the past. Spelling is important for written communication which is the goal of writing skill. For example, if there are some misspelling words in resume, an applicant may lose the opportunity to get a job. As job application context, misspelling shows unprofessional. To solve the problem is that teachers should use the writing class activity to practice their students in spelling. Dictation may be the interesting choice. For part of speech topic, some teachers may think that it should be taught in grammar course. The result of the research showed that it is not true. If writers understand the part of speech of each word, they can create their writing well. They will know how to choose and use the words in their writings correctly and appropriately. For using punctuation topic is very important for many writing activities. In the one of four tasks in the research, the participants were assigned to write the cover letter to apply the job according the provided advertisement. Using wrong punctuation was the most frequent error in this task. Participants used comma incorrectly. For greeting part in the letter, they didn't use comma after the name of recipients. The way to deal with the problem is increasing variety tasks and activities in writing class to stimulate students practice using punctuation in many situations. The least frequent error were using personal pronoun, coordinating conjunction, and subordinating conjunction topics. Although they were fewer errors in the result of the research, they shouldn't be omitted in writing class. They can be taught together with using punctuation and coherence. The other two interesting topics were fragment and run-on. They may be taught that they are too difficult for students to learn in writing course. They should be taught in grammar course. The result of the research showed that they are the other two frequent error topics, so they should be taught in the writing class and appeared in the materials for writing course.

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Enhancing a Bridge Program with the First Year Experience Concept

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Abstract
In September 2014, the Petroleum Institute in Abu Dhabi introduced the First Year Experience concept to its Academic Bridge Program in an attempt to enhance student learning and improve student retention. This paper describes how the First Year Experience program was implemented then concludes with the results of feedback from a student satisfaction survey. The PI Academic Bridge Program was created with three branches: Skills, Success and Socialize. The Skills workshops included a variety of topics, such as stress management and goal-setting. Once the Skills Workshop was underway, a Success branch was introduced. The Success component of the FYE matched students to academic advisors who would guide students in areas such as study skills, time management and self-awareness. The final component, Socialize, which included competitions, sports events and excursions for students, was then launched to complete the trinity. The first semester of the FYE-Bridge culminated in an awards ceremony where outstanding students were rewarded for their participation in the program. In light of the survey's positive findings, it is suggested that the success of the First Year Experience program at the Petroleum Institute can be replicated on similar Bridge programs with minimal impact on faculty workload and budget, yet with maximum impact on student learning and retention.

Keywords: Freshman, First Year Experience, ABP, Petroleum Institute

Introduction

University foundation programs were first piloted in 1965 as part of the US government's Upward Bound project designed to facilitate access to college for disadvantaged students (U.S Department of Education, 2015). The nomenclature of such a concept may be recognized today in its various guises as an orientation, university preparation, bridge or bridging course, but its focus has shifted from the disadvantaged towards intervention designed to ease the transition from high school to university. By 1983, following a U.S government report titled *A Nation at Risk* which was highly critical of retention rates in the country's universities, especially in freshman year (Gardner, 1986), it became clear that foundation studies were not enough to prepare students for the rigors of a tertiary education. In response to this need, a conference at the University of Southern Carolina yielded the introduction of the Freshman Year Experience concept, also known as First Year Experience (FYE). The FYE differs from a foundation, or bridge program, in that it is designed to enhance the first year tertiary experience by continuing the process of higher education orientation through advising, mentoring, counselling, tutoring and community involvement designed among other things to foster student involvement and enthusiasm for their institution. This has ultimately led to greater student retention rates (Gardner, 1986). But what happens when retention rates and course enhancement need addressing in the foundation year as opposed to the freshman year? This paper examines the outcome of an FYE program when conflated with the Academic Bridge Program at the Petroleum Institute in Abu Dhabi, UAE.

In Fall 2014, under the guidance of Dr. Muna Balfaqeeh, Director of the Academic Bridge Program (ABP), a First Year Experience initiative was launched as part of the institute's strategic plan to address student retention rates and curriculum design. This paper will first describe how this FYE was installed and maintained then provide feedback from a student satisfaction survey pertaining to its delivery and reception amongst the student population at the Petroleum Institute (PI).

The Petroleum Institute (PI)

The PI was established in 2001 under the auspices of the Colorado School of Mines with funding from the UAE government and international oil companies, including Shell, JODCO and BP (Scott, 2004). Its creation came in response to a need for greater representation of Emirati nationals in the associated fields of petroleum engineering. The institute now has a student population of approximately 2,000 graduate and undergraduate students on separate male and female campuses. Around seventy percent of students originate from the Emirates while an international representation accounts for the remainder.

The PI's Academic Bridge Program (ABP)

In Fall 2014, there were twenty-eight full-time faculty members on the ABP serving a bridge program of approximately 110 male and 174 female students. These students were on segregated campuses and streamed by TOEFL scores into Intermediate 1 (TOEFL 420 to 457) and Intermediate 2 (TOEFL 460 to 497). A score of TOEFL 500 and above was required for freshman year entry. Students attended twenty hours of English lessons each week, or two hours per day between 8am and 12pm then two hours per day between 1pm and 3pm with a four-hour morning block on Thursdays. They also undertook Math courses for two hours per day (except Thursdays), though these were not a pre-requisite to joining freshman year at the PI.

Fall 2014 FYE Launch

A team of coordinators was appointed by the Director from the pool of ABP faculty members. For reasons of consistency, it had been decided the ABP split the structure of its First Year Experience into the same three components found on the PI's Freshman Year Experience, namely Skills, Success and Socialize. What follows is a description of how this trinity was formed and developed.

Skills

Skills, the first component of the new program to be launched, became the branch on the ABP FYE designed to deliver general interest and academic topics to students through 30 to 45 minute workshops during lunch breaks. Its inception involved the Skills Coordinator inviting expressions of interest from ABP faculty for workshop ideas. From the initial submission 16 workshops were then selected and a schedule produced and displayed on both male and female campuses. The workshops were also advertised through student email and classroom teachers. A sign-up sheet for a maximum of 25 seats was then placed in the Independent Learning Centre on each campus with several places reserved for 'seriously at risk' students. The initial schedule of activities included topics such as, time management, stress management, the transition from high school to university, goal-setting, useful apps and even a workshop on tai-chi. Because the timing of workshops fell during student break time, a light lunch was provided at the end of workshop sessions. Faculty giving workshops were not paid extra for their work; however, their efforts would be recorded on their Annual Faculty Performance Review under the *Service* section.

Success

The Success branch on the FYE focused on academic advising, tutoring and counselling. With a professional PI counselling team already available under the umbrella of PI Resident Life, the focus turned to advising and tutoring. As with the Skills component, expressions of interest were canvassed from faculty for members willing to act as academic advisors, then once the list had been compiled by the coordinator, each student on the ABP was assigned an advisor with whom they were required to meet at least twice throughout the semester. Despite most faculty not having much experience or training in academic advising, approximately 80% of faculty signed up for advising duties, and each was assigned an average of 12 advisees. An initial Meet & Greet of all advisors and students was organized in a lecture theatre before scheduled one-to-one meetings were arranged. Concerns were raised surrounding the instructor and advisor's roles in relation to the student: Is an advisor supposed to tutor? Should an advisor assign homework? Why can't instructors simply be assigned as advisors to their own students? In light of these concerns, it was agreed that the role of the advisor as a tutor remain at the discretion of each faculty member until a proper tutorial centre could be created to which advisors could refer students. Consequently, advisors drew on their own academic background and advising skills to address advisees needs until a clearer role description could be drafted.

A flagging system was introduced on the institute’s CAMS ERP system so that instructors could flag a student on their class list and add comments before the database alerted the student’s advisor of the issue. A meeting was then be initiated by the advisor. Flagging criteria included missing course quizzes, a mid-term grade of F, poor attendance and behavioral issues. Students flagged twice i.e. in English and in Math were referred to a second phase of academic advising called AIMS (Academic Intervention and Mentoring Service).

AIMS (Academic Intervention and Mentoring Service)

The AIMS program was specifically reserved for students seriously at risk of failing two subjects and thus facing an increased threat of termination from the Petroleum Institute. If an advisor noticed on the ERP system that an advisee had been flagged twice, the student was referred to the AIMS program coordinator. In the inaugural semester of advising on the FYE, a total of four male and seven female students were referred to the AIMS program where the AIMS coordinators programmed a weekly schedule with their AIMS advisees while maintaining contact with the advisee’s English and Math instructors to monitor any improvement in academic performance. Once a student had demonstrated improvement in the agreed areas, s/he was un-flagged.

Socialize

Socialize, which is a formalized social calendar of activities on the ABP, became the final branch in the trinity. Conference and exhibition excursions, sports, recreation, social activities, competitions and charity fund-raising are all examples of Socialize events designed to help stimulate interactions and interest between students and the world beyond the institute. The Socialize Coordinator was tasked with creating and implementing a dynamic social calendar for male and female interests both on and off-campus. Faculty who participated as volunteers and chaperones etc. were able to indicate their participation on the Service section of their Annual Faculty Performance Review.

Passport Control

With a plethora of activities in Skill, Success and Socialize, and almost three hundred students to coordinate, it was essential to install a monitoring system whose purpose would be to encourage students to embrace the FYE concept and also record the students’ participation. Consequently, a passport system was introduced. Each student was given an FYE Bridge Passport -a portable, pocket-sized booklet of ten pages which they produced at FYE events and meetings in order to receive a stamp for their participation. In Fall 2014, ABP students were encouraged to collect a minimum of 10 stamps for Intermediate 1 or 11 stamps for Intermediate 2 over the course of the semester. For Fall 2014, it was decided that no grade penalties would be applied if the student failed to reach his/her quota. However, there were rewards for those students who exceeded the FYE expectations.

End of Term Awards

In order for the ABP to show its appreciation to the students who helped amplify the presence of the FYE by exceeding the number of stamps in their passports, separate awards ceremonies were held in auditoria on the respective campuses at the start of Spring 2015. Instructors were asked to tally their students' stamps for each branch of the FYE and enter the data onto an excel sheet on the institute's shared drive. Results showed that 24% of students (n=69) exceeded their stamp quota. The awarded students were separated into three categories and given the following prizes:

> Top overall stamp collectors = Mini i-pad (n=12)
> Top stamp collectors for each branch = $US135 gift voucher (n=17)
> Students exceeding the minimum number of stamps = Cinema tickets (n=40)

Following the success of the FYE in Fall 2014, it was decided that for the subsequent semester FYE participation would constitute 5% of course grade where all ABP students would be required to attain a minimum number of twelve stamps.

Student Survey

At the end of Fall 2014, FYE Coordinators created an online survey to measure participants' impression of the new FYE Bridge Program and collect ideas from students on how the FYE might be enhanced. A link was then distributed to the student population (n=284) by email with a response rate of 45% (n=129) and with an approximate even split of male and female respondents.

Highlights of the FYE Bridge Program

As a result of the FYE Bridge:
75% of respondents agreed that it helped them to engage in student life at the PI.
67% said they had become better students.
61% believed they had increased their knowledge.
56% believed they had built better relationships with others.

On the question of ways to enhance the FYE Bridge, three recurring themes appeared in the open-ended option:

> greater contact with other universities and/or community outreach eg. hospitals.
> increased number of social activities, events and competitions.
> more focus on English & soft skills – less focus on TOEFL.

Skills Highlights

Workshops had an average of 18 attendees per session (n=16).
69% (n=85) attended at least one workshop.
80% of respondents rated the workshops as 'helpful'.
72% (n=71) ranked the Abu Dhabi Science Festival as 'very useful'.

Success Highlights

87% (n=87) of respondents agreed that advising was helpful.
67% (n=79) preferred their advisor *not* to be their instructor.
53% of respondents (n=64) *did not* participate in a group counseling information session.

Socialize Highlights

73% (n=84) wanted more fitness and sports activities on campus.
82% (n=95) suggested more events related to charity work.
The most popular events include the Japanese tea ceremony and the excursion to the Abu Dhabi International Petroleum Exhibition and Conference (ADIPEC).

Conclusion

The aim of the ABP's FYE program was to address student retention rates and encourage greater interaction between students and their institute by broadening contact with faculty through their roles as advisors, tutors, workshop presenters and social activity volunteers. Though is too early to gauge the impact that the new program is having on student retention, the anecdotal evidence is promising. The results of this study further indicate that the FYE Bridge Program at the Petroleum Institute is not only enhancing the student learning environment, but also allowing faculty to share their life experiences and personal skills and talents with interest and appreciation from the student body. Such an initiative may therefore not only serve the pedagogical interests of the students, but may also attract potential students to bridge programs in both government and private sectors.

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The Derivation Words Recognition: Understanding the Suffixation Patterns of English Vocabulary

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Abstract
Words are one of the important elements that language learners must master as having insufficient words will be a barrier for them to deliver ideas or expressions. The challenge to understand English words seems to be very complicated because they are dominated by derivations. Considering to that matter, this paper describes the patterns of derivation words that have been analyzed accordingly from 358 academic word lists and only words that can be developed into at least three patterns are considered as findings.

The results show that the changing patterns of the part of speech are classified into eighteen types. For patterns embarked on verbs are 1) Verbs-Adjectives-Adverbs. 2) Verbs-Adjectives-Nouns. 3) Verbs-Nouns-Nouns. 4) Verbs-Adjectives-Adjectives. 5) Verbs-Nouns-Adjectives. 6) Verbs-Nouns-Nouns-Adjectives. 7) Verbs-Nouns-Nouns-Nouns and 8) Verbs-Nouns-Adjectives-Adverbs. Furthermore, patterns started on nouns are 1) Nouns-Verbs-Nouns. 2) Nouns-Adjective-Nouns. 3) Nouns-Nouns-Adjectives. 4) Nouns-Adjectives-Adverbs. 5) Nouns-Adjective-Adjective-Nouns. 6) Nouns- Adjectives-Verbs-Nouns. 7) Nouns-Nouns-Adjectives-Adverbs and 8) Nouns-Adjectives-Adjectives-Adverbs. Two patterns commenced by adjectives found that are 1) Adjective-Adjectives-Adverb and 2) Adjectives-Adjectives-Nouns. Each pattern contains of suffixation that have also been structurally analyzed into details. By learning those suffixation patterns carefully, it is hoped that language learners will be more aware of and recognize the English vocabulary better and are touched up to expand their vocabulary mastery in the future.

Keywords: word recognition, derivation, suffixation patterns, English vocabulary

Introduction

Although grammar is important, vocabulary is far more important (Renandya, 2013, p.29). Quoting Wilkin (1972, p. 111), he writes that without grammar very little can be conveyed but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. This encourages language learners to increase their vocabularies beside grammar to be able to communicate.

However, vocabulary development strategy suggested by many practitioners in Indonesia is through learning by heart that is revealed ineffective (Sadiq & Pradita, 2015). Sadiq and Pradita propose a more effective way in enhancing learners' vocabulary acquisition that is by using of affixes (p.15). Quoting several scholars Nakayama (2008) states affixes are selected because students learn less frequency words by connecting those words to high frequency words or suffixes or prefixes. Nakayama further explain that because of its similarity between L1 and L2, when language learners have knowledge on affixes and understand a base word, those learners can predict and use its derivative words.

To provide students with more predictable derivative words, this paper describes twenty patterns of suffixation of English vocabulary. Therefore, it consists of five main sections: introduction, literature review, method, results and discussions, and conclusion.

Literary Review

Spencer (1991) defines derivative as 'the formation of lexeme from another lexeme'. Derivation, therefore, adds a root or a stem an affix or affixes. This additional affixes will change the syntactic class membership of the word such as from adjective to noun, from noun to verb, etc. It is well-known as derivational morphology (Fromkin, 2000) and lexical morphology (Crystal, 1995). In addition, derivational affixes produce new words (Malmkjaer, 1991).

Derivational affixes can be classified into class-maintaining and class-changing process. The first produces a new word in a different word-class (e.g. category (noun) – categorize (verb)), while the latter produces a new word but does not change the class (e.g. concrete (noun) – concretion (noun)). In addition to the two classifications, the third category - the phenomenon of conversion - is also important. It changes word-class without any affixation, e.g. service (noun) – to service (verb) (Spencer, 1991).

Derivational morphology belongs to one of two components to word attack namely structural analysis. It is because the analysis deals with morphological units or units that determine meaning (Ballard & Tighe, 2011). It is described that learning structural units provide students more efficient way to attack unfamiliar words which utilize larger units than simple letters or letter combinations. In addition, in the process of analyzing the word, students can attach meaning to those units (Ballard & Tighe, 2011).

Therefore, it is suggested that learning affixes is one of the best ways to attack words. Affixes are meaning units attached to words so that the meaning of the word is changed. The rationales of proposing affixes in learning vocabulary are firstly that affixes provide students a head start in pronouncing new words they may not know, when students are already familiar with the pronunciation of a prefix, suffix, or root word. For example, *transcontinental* will easier to be pronounced because prefix *trans-* has been familiar for students. Secondly, meaning can be determined more easily if the meaning of an affix has been known well and thirdly knowledge of affixes will be very helpful for spelling recognition. In this study, a segment of affixes being analyzed is suffixes—parts of words added to the end of root words. Suffixes that change the part of speech or meaning of a word are called derivational endings (Ballard & Tighe, 2011).

Quoting scholars in her manuscript, Ebbers (2009) describes that both derivations and derivational suffixes present the greatest challenge. Some of confronts are understood because derivational suffixes convey syntactic information regarding grammatical function. For example, the transformations from *create* to *creative* and *creatively* imply different grammatical use. In addition, derivational suffixes may convey from strong to weak semantic information. For examples, *painful* - *painless* contain strong semantic information, while *politic* - *political* contain weak semantic information. Therefore, the tackle of understanding derivational morphology can happen above third grade and continues through high school. This is understandable because an abundance of derivations are in intermediate and secondary content area texts and it becomes essential that how derivational suffixes drive word class (syntax or grammar) and how derivations create abstract meanings are lack of understandings. Struggling readers in middle and high school and in college are poor in comprehending derivational suffixes.

Furthermore, Nakayama (2008) in his study about learning vocabulary through special prefix summarized that those learners who do not have prefix knowledge at the beginning can be effectively enforced systematic teaching. However, the teaching must be done integrated because one-shot systematic teaching seemed has no direct affect for the outcome of long-term vocabulary learning. In addition, in short term retention of words, teaching prefixes systematically will benefit the learners to a certain amount whether they have knowledge of base forms of vocabulary items or not. For a longer term, the learners' vocabulary will be retained when they have already knowledge on vocabularies.

Other study done by Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) showed that L2 learners are still difficult to produce various derivative forms within a word family. The learners seemed to have partial productive knowledge of the two or three typical forms of derivative. In addition, knowledge of noun and verb derivative at each stage is increasing while adjective and adverb forms are considered difficult. To conclude, Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) state the implication that more direct attention to the teaching of derivative forms is needed.

A study that is focused on academic words is conducted by Rasinski et al (2008). The results of their study show that the integration of Latin and Greek roots into vocabulary instruction which is set up systematic, ongoing, and consistent offers awesome potential for enhancing students' academic growth.

Stahl and Shiel (1992) had studied approaches to enhance poor readers' ability. One approach that they suggest is an active teaching of words as part of larger semantic fields. Through active teaching of larger semantic approach, the vocabulary knowledge and comprehension of students of all abilities appears to improve. In similar purpose, results of Bellomo's study (2009) demonstrate that "teaching morphologically complex vocabulary at the college preparatory level along with providing a working knowledge of morphemes can assist students toward college readiness". Schmitt and Meara (1997) report their study that suffix and association knowledge improve the learner's vocabulary overall size and general language proficiency which is measured by the TOEFL test.

Methods

This is a descriptive study of 358 academic vocabulary lists which has been compiled and categorized by parts of speech; or in other words, into grammatical categories or word groups (Burke and Smith). Of 358 words, 8 words are reduced as they consist of one word only without indication of having suffixes. Therefore, 350 words which are further studied to identify the possibility of its patterns. Only derivations that have indicated for three or more strings are being verified.

Results

There are eighteen suffixation patterns encountered at the study which are classified into three general categories – verbal, noun and adjective. The verb, noun, and adjective patterns have verbal, noun, and adjective words to be added on the suffixes. Suffixation for verbal and noun dominates the variation with eight patterns, followed by adjective with only two variations. Those patterns are described in details in the following.

Verbs Patterns

1. Verbs – Adjectives – Adverbs

In this pattern, there are nine forming suffixes that could be added to Verbs to create Adjectives and ended with suffix –ly to create Adverbs. The pattern can be seen in table 1.

Table 1: Verb – Adjective – Adverb Pattern

Verb	+	**Forming suffixes**	=	**Adjective**	+	**Forming suffix**	=	**Adverb**
Verb	+	-ive, -al, -ary, -ed/d, -al, -ing, -ant, -ent, -able, -ate,	=	Adjective	+	-ly	=	Adverb

Examples:

Compare + ive = comparative + ly = comparatively
Complement + al = complemental + ly = complementally
Complement + ary = complementary + ly = complementarily
Compose + ed/d = composed + ly = composedly
Accord + ing = according + ly = accordingly
Accord + ant = accordant + ly = accordantly
Intermit + ent = intermittent + ly = intermittently
Apply + able = applicable + ly = applicably
Consider + ate = considerate + ly = considerately

2. Verbs – Adjectives – Nouns
There are two categories come across this pattern. The first type is that five forming suffixes that could be added to Verbs to create Adjective and ended with suffix –ity to create Adverbs. The second is type is that six five forming suffixes added to Verbs to create Adjectives and ended with suffix –ness to create Adverbs. The pattern can be seen in table 2 and 3.

Table 2: Verbs – Adjectives – Nouns Pattern (a)

Verb	+	**Forming suffixes**	=	**Adjective**	+	**Forming suffix**	=	**Noun**
Verb	+	-ive, -al, -ary, -able, -ible	=	Adjective	+	- ity	=	Noun

Examples:

Conduct + ive = conductive + ity = conductivity
Complement + ary = complementary + ity = complementarity
Apply + able = applicable + ity = applicability
Conduct + ible = conductible + ity = conductibility
Dimension + al = dimensional + ity = dimensionality

Table 3: Verbs – Adjectives – Nouns Pattern (b)

Verb	+	**Forming suffixes**	=	**Adjective**	+	**Forming suffix**	=	**Noun**
Verb	+	-ive, -ary, -ory, -able, -ible, -ed	=	Adjective	+	- ness	=	Noun

Examples:

Compare + ive = comparative + ness = comparativeness
Complement + ary = complementary + ness = complementariness
Introduce + ory = introductory + ness = introductoriness
Credit + able = creditable + ness = creditableness
Deduce + ible = deducible + ness = deducibleness
Abstract + ed = abstracted + ness = abstractedness

3. Verbs – Nouns – Nouns

This pattern contains of five categories, having two forming suffixes that could be added to Verbs to create Nouns. To create the other Nouns, four suffixes can be added. The pattern can be seen in from table 4.

Table 4: Verbs – Nouns – Nouns Pattern

Verb	**+**	**Forming suffixes**	**=**	**Nouns**	**+**	**Forming suffixes**	**=**	**Nouns**
	+	-or	=		+	- ship	=	
Verbs	+	-ion	=	Nouns	+	- ist	=	Nouns
	+	-ion	=		+	- ism	=	
	+	-ion	=		+	- er	=	

Examples:

Conduct + or = conductor + ship = conductorship
Abstract + ion = abstraction + ist = abstractionist
Appropriate + ion = appropriation + ism = appropriationism
Exhibit + ion = exhibition + er = exhibitioner

4. Verbs – Adjectives – Adjectives

Only one forming suffix can be added to Verbs to create Verbs and ended with suffix –able to create Adjective found in this pattern.

Example:

Categorize + ed/d = categorized + able = categorizable

5. Verbs – Nouns – Adjectives

This pattern contains of five categories, having four forming suffixes that could be added to Verbs to create Nouns. To create Adjectives, five suffixes can be added. The pattern can be seen in from table 5.

Table 5: Verbs – Nouns – Adjectives Pattern

Verb	**+**	**Forming suffixes**	**=**	**Nouns**	**+**	**Forming suffixes**	**=**	**Nouns**
	+	-ion, -or, -ation	=		+	- **al**	=	
Verb	+	-ist	=		+	- ic	=	
	+	-ion	=	**Nouns**	+	- able	=	**Nouns**
	+	-ion	=		+	- ary	=	
	+	-ion	=		+	- ist	=	

Examples:

Calculate + ion = calculation + al = calculational
Conduct + or = conductor + al = conductorial
Confirm + ation = confirmation + al = conformational
Determine + ist = determinist + ic = deterministic
Discuss + ion = discussion + able = discussionable
Exclude + ion = exclusion + ary = exclusionary
Demonstrate + ion = demonstration + ist = demonstrationist

The last three patterns have four strings of suffixations. Each is described in the following details.

6. Verbs – Nouns – Nouns – Adjectives

In this pattern, the Verb is added with suffix -ion to create Noun. It can be further inserted suffix –ist to create another Noun, and finally suffix –ic can be adjoined to create Adjective.

Example:

Associate + ion = association + ist = associationist + ic = associationistic

7. Verbs – Nouns – Nouns – Nouns

In this pattern, the Verb is added with suffix -ment to create Noun. It can be further inserted suffix –arian to create another Noun, and finally suffix –ism can be adjoined to create Noun.

Example:

Establish + ment = establishment + arian = establishmentarian + ism = establishmentarianism

8. Verbs – Nouns – Adjectives – Adverbs

This pattern has several variations on suffixes adding and reveals that all word classes are accommodated from verbs to adverbs. Therefore, this pattern can be formulized more rigidly and anticipatively. For example, a verb can be directly combined with suffix –ment to create Nouns. These Nouns are further attached with either suffix –ative or –al to create Adjectives and finally the Adjectives are appended with suffix –ly to form Adverbs. The examples of these kinds are as follows.

Argue + ment = argument + ative = argument ative + ly = argumentatively
Develop + ment = development + al = developmental + ly = developmentally
Discriminate + or = discriminator + y = discriminatory + ly = discriminatorily
Explain + ation = explanation + ory = explanatory + ly = explanatorily
Compose + ition = composition + al = compositional + ly = compositionally

Nouns Patterns

1. Nouns – Verbs – Nouns

In this pattern, there is only one Forming suffix (-ize) that can be added to Nouns to create Verbs and ended with suffix –ation to create Nouns.

Example:

Category + ize = categorize + ation = categorization

2. Nouns – Adjective – Nouns

In this pattern, there are one forming suffix (-al) that can be added to Nouns to create Adjectives and ended with four kinds of suffixes (-ity, -ness, -ism, -ist) to create Nouns. The pattern can be seen in table 6.

Table 6: Noun – Adjective – Noun Pattern

Noun	+	**Forming suffix**	=	**Adjective**	+	**Forming suffixes**	=	**Noun**
Noun	+	-al	=	Adjective	+	-ity -ness -ism -ist	=	Noun

Examples:

Condition + al = conditional + ity = conditionality
Fact + al = factual + ness = factualness
Fact + al = factual + ism = factualism
Fact + al = factual + ist = factualist

3. Nouns – Nouns – Adjectives \

Only one forming suffix can be added to Nouns to create Nouns and ended with suffix –ary to create Adjective found in this pattern.

Example:

Concrete + ion = concretion + ary = concretionary

4. Nouns – Adjectives – Adverbs

There are two forming suffixes (-al and -ary) that can be added to Nouns to create Adjectives and ended with suffix -ly to Adverbs. The pattern can be seen in table 7.

Table 7: Noun – Adjective – Adverb Pattern

Noun	+	**Forming suffixes**	=	**Adjective**	+	**Suffix**	=	**Noun**
Noun	+	-al, -ary	=	Adjective	+	-ly	=	Noun

Examples:

Condition + al = conditional + ly = conditionally
Element + ary = elementary + ly = elementarily

The last four patterns have four strings of suffixations. Each is described in the following details.

5. Nouns – Adjective – Adjective – Nouns
In this pattern, the Noun is added with suffix -ic to create Adjective. It can be further inserted suffix –al to create another Adjective, and finally suffix –ness can be adjoined to create Noun.

Example:

Category + ic = categoric + al = categorical + ness = categoricalness

6. Nouns – Adjectives – Verbs – Nouns
In this pattern, the Noun is added with suffix -al to create Adjective. It can be further inserted suffix –ize to create Verb, and finally suffix –ation can be adjoined to create Noun.

Example:

Context + al = contextual + ize = contextualize + ation = contextualization

7. Nouns – Nouns – Adjectives – Adverbs
In this pattern, the Noun is added with suffix -ion to create Noun. It can be further inserted suffix –al to create Adjective, and finally suffix –ly can be adjoined to create Adverb.

Example:

Variate + ion = variation + al = variational + ly = variationally

8. Nouns – Adjective – Adjectives – Adverbs
In this pattern, the Noun is added with suffix -ic to create Adjective. It can be further inserted suffix –al to create another Adjective, and finally suffix –ly can be adjoined to create Adverb.

Example:

Category + ic = categoric + al = categorical+ ly = categorically

Adjectives Patterns

1. Adjective – Adjectives – Adverb

Only one forming suffix can be added to Nouns to create Adjectives and ended with suffix –ly to create Adverb found in this pattern.

Example:

Analytic + al = analytical + ly = analytically

2. Adjectives – Adjectives – Nouns

There are two forming suffixes (-al and -ate) that can be added to Nouns to create Adjectives and ended with suffix -ly to Adverbs. The pattern can be seen in table 8.

Table 8: Adjective – Adjective – Noun Pattern

Noun	**+**	**Forming suffix**	**=**	**Adjective**	**+**	**Forming suffixes**	**=**	**Noun**
Adjective	+	-al	=	Adjective	+	-ity -ism -ness	=	Noun

Consequent + al = consequential + ity = consequentiality
Consequent + al = consequential + ism = consequentialism
Consequent + al = consequential + ness = consequentialness

Discussions

In his study, Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) describe that formation of derivative in several cases is governed by non-transparent rules. Therefore, to settle on the accurate derivation form, learners must frequently confirm it through item-based learning – case by case. Schmitt and Zimmerman explain further that this can happen because there is no rigid rule that can be referred to create derivative forms. In many occasions, English regularities in suffix choice are unclear and incoherent.

However, the results of this study are not at all useless as scholars such as Bybee (1988) Selkirk (1982), and Di Sciullo (1997) who are quoted by Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) provide lexical idiosyncrasy particularly in morphological and syntactic properties. They claim that the emerging patterns may be helpful for both teachers and learners. It can be jotted down that the noun-forming suffix –ity is adjoined only to an adjective (e.g., vitality), and the verb-forming suffix –ify is only combined either to an adjective (e.g., beautify) or to noun (e.g., testify). In addition, the verb-forming suffixes such as –ize, and –en will be much more appropriately attached to intransitive adjective (e.g., category, wide) than transitive adjective (e.g, proud, faithful).

Therefore, the above patterns give lexical idiosyncrasy ideas in how derivative are formed. Firstly, verbs can be formed into adjective, verb, or noun. Verbs forming nouns are possible to form its derivation into four strings. To make them easier to figure out, the following figure may be helpful.

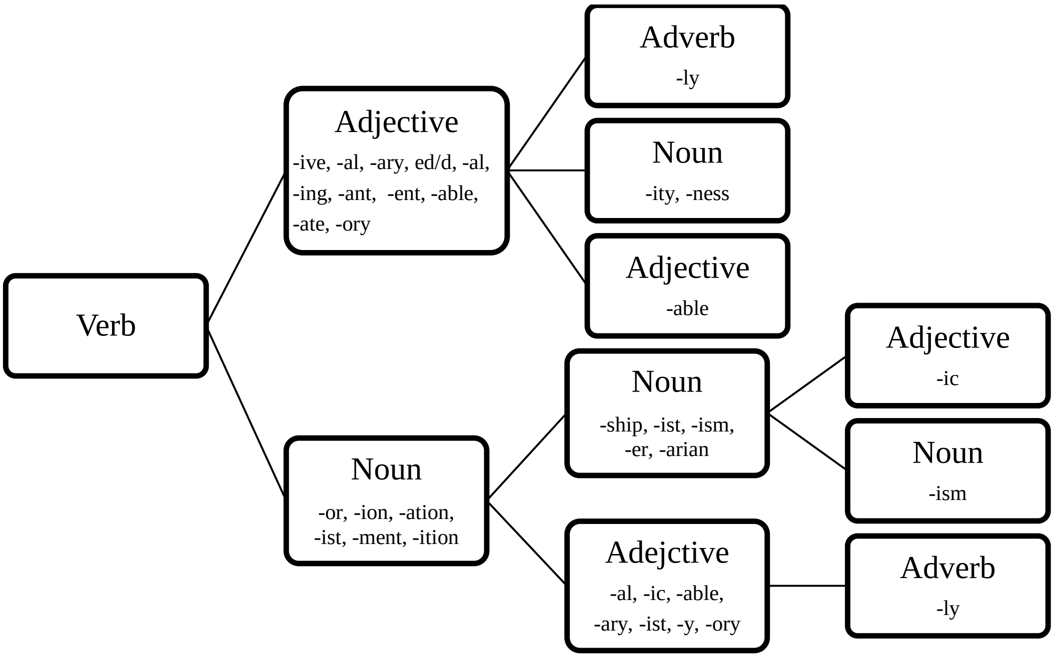

Figure 1: Derivative forms from Verbs

Secondly, nouns can be further transformed into verb, adjective or noun. Nouns forming adjectives are likely to form its derivation into four strings. To make them easier to discover, figure 2 displays the directions.

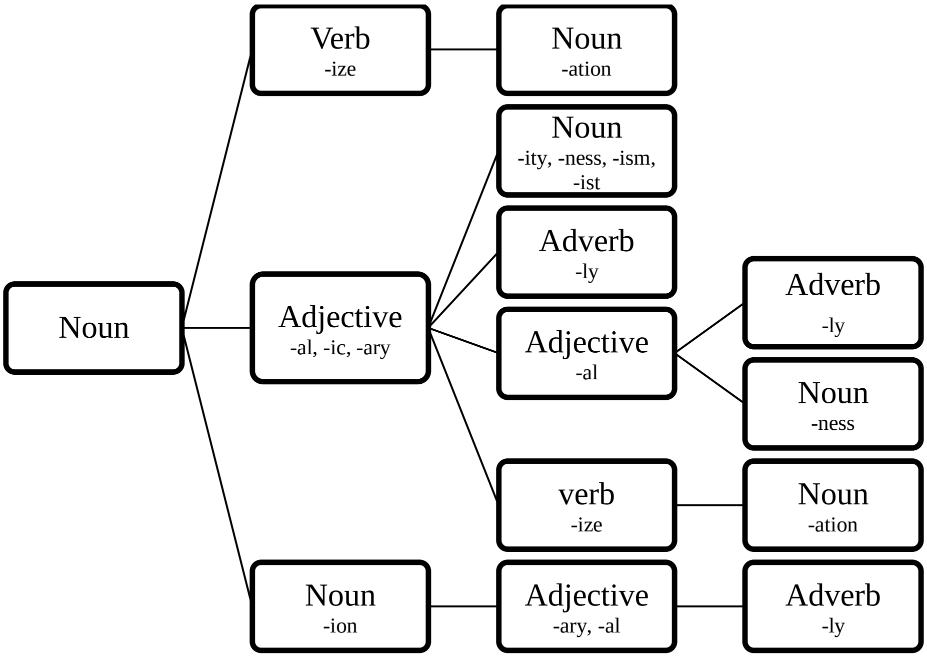

Figure 2: Derivative forms from Nouns

Thirdly, adjective can form another adjective by adjoining forming suffix –al and after that can be continued to form both adverbs by adding forming suffix –ly and nouns by inserting forming suffixes –ity, -ness, -ism.

Conclusion

The patterns found above are be prompted by verbs, nouns, and adjective with its combination even to four strings. Those patterns can be used to figure out how forming suffixes attached to a particular word class. It is realized that the patterns are only concept maps and therefore need further practical way to implement them to learn derivative formation. As stated by Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002), the results of their study call for teaching derivative forms in a more direct attention. This paper contributes an insight on lexical knowledge learning especially in derivative forming patterns more directly attentively. A further study on the characteristic of which forming suffix will go hand in hand with another suffix and that of visualizing the characteristic into learning materials is needed.

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How to Teach the Expletive "It"

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Abstract
In some English grammar books used in schools in Japan, the expletive *it* in a sentence like (i) *It seems that John loves Mary* is not given a detailed explanation and sometimes appears to be regarded as having the same status as ambient *it*. I assume that this is because both refer to nothing and behave differently from the expletive *it* in a sentence like (ii) *It is likely that John loves Mary*, where *it* refers to the *that*-clause with which it can be replaced, as in *That John loves Mary is likely*. However, according to Napoli (1988), *it* in a sentence like (i) differs from ambient *it* in that the former cannot control PRO, whereas the latter can. Furthermore, *it* in a sentence like (ii) can also control PRO, which indicates that the expletive in (ii), rather than that in (i), seems to share this property of ambient *it*. In order to teach these expletives to students effectively, it is essential for teachers to understand their idiosyncrasies. Recent syntactic studies, such as Honda (2015), reveal how the expletive *it* is derived and what its nature is. I therefore suggest here that pedagogical grammar would do well to take advantage of the fruits of such syntactic studies.

Keywords: the expletive *it*, pedagogical grammar, syntax

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Introduction

In this paper, I discuss how English L2 students can be taught what we call the expletive *it*. This appears in sentences like that in (1).

(1) It seems that John loves Mary.

(Honda 2015: 307)

For native speakers of Japanese, this kind of sentence is difficult to understand. This is because Japanese does not have expletives like the English expletive *it*. Such expletives are not associated with any obvious meanings, and thus cannot be translated into Japanese.

Thus, teaching this kind of sentence to Japanese learners of English can be problematic, and the question arises as to how it might best be done. Note that the complement clause in (1) is easy enough to teach Japanese learners. The *that*-clause *that John loves Mary* can be translated into Japanese as *John-ga Mary-o aisiteiru*. In contrast, the matrix clause cannot be translated so straightforwardly.

Some school grammar books in Japan explain that the expletive *it* in (1) has the same status as what we call ambient *it* in a sentence like (2).

(2) It is cold today.

Note that *it* in (2) has the same status as *it* in (1), in that neither has semantic content, and neither can be translated into Japanese. Consider now the expletive *it* in (3).

(3) It is likely that John loves Mary.

(Honda 2015: 307)

In English classroom instructions, Japanese teachers often explain that the *it* in (3) refers to the *that*-clause with which it can be replaced. This indicates that the sentence in (4) has the same meaning as that in (3).

(4) That John loves Mary is likely.

(ibid.)

In contrast, note that the *it* in (1) cannot be replaced by the *that*-clause, as in (5).

(5) *That John loves Mary seems.

(ibid.)

Thus, it seems that the expletives in (1) and (3) differ in certain respects. This may be why some English grammar books for Japanese students explain that the expletives in (1) and (2) have the same status, and that they both differ from the expletive in (3).

Three Types of Expletives

Judging from the facts above, there appears to be no problem for current classroom instruction. It seems natural to explain that the expletives in (1) and (2) are two of a kind, and that the expletive in (3) is of a different kind.

However, recent syntactic study has revealed certain counterexamples to this explanation. Let us consider these and then discuss how the expletive *it* may be taught.

First, consider the sentences in (6).

(6) a. *It seems enough that John died [PRO to upset me].
(Napoli 1988: 329)
b. It got cold enough [PRO to snow].
(ibid.: 327)

As can be seen in these examples, sentence (6a) is unacceptable, whereas sentence (6b) is acceptable.

According to Napoli (1988), ambient *it* can control PRO, as it does in (6b). PRO refers to the subject of the infinitive and is not phonetically realized. In other words, the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the matrix clause in (6b). On the other hand, the expletive *it* in (6a) cannot control PRO, and this is why (6a) is unacceptable. Interestingly, however, the expletive *it* in (7) can control PRO.

(7) It's likely enough that John did it [PRO to convince me we ought to question him].
(ibid.: 328)

With regard to the control of PRO, the expletive *it* in (7), which is the subject of the predicate *is likely*, seems to be of the same kind as ambient *it*, rather than being the same as the expletive *it* in (6a), which is the subject of the verb *seem*. Such examples contradict the school grammar book explanation mentioned above.

In addition, a new question arises here: Why do ambient *it* and the expletive *it* in (7) behave similarly?

Derivations under Minimalism

In order to solve these puzzles, the manner in which expletives are introduced in the syntactic derivation needs to be clarified. Let us consider how expletives are treated under Minimalism (see Chomsky 2001).

English has two expletives, namely *there* and *it*. The expletive *there* is generally said to appear in existential and unaccusative sentences, as in (8a) and (8b), respectively.

(8) a. There is someone in the room.
b. There appeared a ship on the horizon.
(Fujita & Matsumoto 2005: 58)

With regard to how these sentences are derived, within the recent minimalist framework, sentences are built up through the operations *Merge* and *Agree*. For example, sentences like that in (9a) are derived through the derivation shown in (10).

(9) a. John broke the vase.
  b. The vase broke.

(10) a. [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]
  b. [$_{v^*P}$ v^* [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]]
  c. [$_{v^*P}$ [$_{DP}$ John] [$_{v^{*\prime}}$ v^* [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]]]
  d. [$_{TP}$ T [$_{v^*P}$ [$_{DP}$ John] [$_{v^{*\prime}}$ v^* [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]]]]
  e. [$_{TP}$ [$_{DP}$ John]$_i$ [$_{T'}$ T [$_{v^*P}$ t_i [$_{v^{*\prime}}$ v^* [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]]]]]

First, the verb *break* merges with its complement *the vase*. These two elements constitute a verb phrase (VP). In (10b), *v** is the transitive light verb. Whether a verb is transitive or intransitive in a sentence depends on its light verb. The transitive light verb has two main tasks. One is to assign accusative Case to the verb's complement, i.e., the internal argument, in this case, *the vase* in (10). The other task of the light verb is to merge an external argument; in this case, *John* is merged in (10). Then, T(ense) merges with *v**P. T has an EPP-feature, thereby requiring something to fill its specifier position. The specifier of TP corresponds to the subject position of a sentence. The nearest element that matches the EPP-feature is the external argument *John*, making *John* the subject of the sentence in (9a). *John* agrees with T and is raised to the specifier position of TP, and is assigned nominative Case by T. For expository purposes, I avoid mentioning here the feature-inheritance proposed in Chomsky (2008).

Let us return now to the derivation of the intransitive counterpart of (9a), i.e., the sentence in (9b). In this regard, consider the derivation in (11).

(11) a. [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]
  b. [$_{vP}$ v [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]]
  c. [$_{TP}$ T [$_{vP}$ v [$_{VP}$ break [$_{DP}$ the vase]]]]
  d. [$_{TP}$ [$_{DP}$ the vase]$_i$ [$_{T'}$ T [$_{vP}$ v [$_{VP}$ break t_i]]]]

The first step, in (11a), is the same as that in (10a). Then, VP merges with *v*, which in this case determines the verb to be intransitive. This light verb does not assign accusative Case to the internal argument, nor does it merge an external argument. Then, T merges with *v*P. The nearest element that matches the EPP-feature on T is the internal argument *the vase* in (11c). Thus, the internal argument agrees with T and is raised to the specifier position of TP, becoming the subject of the sentence in (9b). Additionally, the internal argument is assigned nominative Case by T.

Let us now consider the derivations of the sentences in (12).

(12) a. The ship appeared on the horizon.
  b. There appeared a ship on the horizon.

(Fujita & Matsumoto 2005: 58)

According to Fujita & Matsumoto (2005), (12a) and (12b) share the base structure shown in (13a) to (13c).

(13) a. $[_{\text{VP}}$ appear $[_{\text{DP}}$ the ship]]
b. $[_{v\text{P}}\ v\ [_{\text{VP}}$ appear $[_{\text{DP}}$ the ship]]]
c. $[_{\text{TP}}$ T $[_{v\text{P}}\ v\ [_{\text{VP}}$ appear $[_{\text{DP}}$ the ship]]]]
d. $[_{\text{TP}} <\alpha> [_{\text{T}'}$ T $[_{v\text{P}}\ v\ [_{\text{VP}}$ appear $[_{\text{DP}}$ the ship]]]]]

At the point of the derivation at (13d), two options are available. Note that the phrase *the ship* actually has the structure in (14).

(14) $[_{\text{DP}}$ the $[_{\text{NP}}$ ship]]

The Determiner (D) selects an NP as its complement. Thus, what is raised to the specifier position of TP, which is marked <α> in (13d), can be either the string *the ship* or the D on its own, i.e., *the*. If the whole DP, namely *the ship*, is raised to the specifier position of TP, (12a) is derived. However, if only the D is raised to the specifier position of TP, it is phonetically realized as *there* and (12b) is derived. Fujita & Matsumoto (2005) propose that the expletive *there* is originally the D, i.e., *the*. This proposal might explain why sentences like that in (15) are unacceptable.

(15) *There appeared the ship on the horizon.

If the expletive *there* is originally *the*, it is impossible to derive a sentence like that in (15), where two Ds are required.

Note that the D *the* is the head of the DP in (14). Therefore, what agrees with T is not the noun or the NP but the D. This is why T can agree with either the DP as a whole or D on its own.

The Derivation of Expletive *It*

In Honda (2015), I applied the above analysis to the expletive *it*. To my present knowledge, a *that*-clause is usually analyzed as a CP, but I assume a structure like that in (16) for *that*-clauses.

(16) $[_{\text{DP}}\ \Delta\ [_{\text{CP}}$ that ...]]

(Honda 2015: 312)

In (16), Δ is a D that is phonetically null and selects a CP, namely a *that*-clause. I further assume that a CP cannot agree with T.

Let us return to the case of the sentences in (1) and (3). I propose that the structures underlying (1) and (3) are those in (17) and (18), respectively. I assume that the verb *seem* directly selects a CP, as in (17), but that the adjective *likely* selects a DP, as in (18).

(17) $[_{\text{CP}}$ C $[_{\text{TP}} <\alpha> [_{\text{T}'}$ T $[_{v\text{P}}\ v\ [_{\text{VP}}$ seem $[_{\text{CP}}$ that John loves Mary]]]]]]
(18) $[_{\text{CP}}$ C $[_{\text{TP}} <\alpha> [_{\text{T}'}$ T $[_{v\text{P}}\ v\ [_{\text{VP}}$ is $[_{\text{AP}}$ likely $[_{\text{DP}}\ \Delta\ [_{\text{CP}}$ that John loves Mary]]]]]]]]

As might be expected on the basis of the discussion above, in (18), there are two options to fill the position marked <α>. One is to raise the whole *that*-clause, i.e., the

DP as a whole is raised to the subject position. This is how the sentence in (4) is derived, with the DP being assigned nominative Case by T. The other option is to raise only the D, namely Δ in (18). By this option, the *that*-clause remains in situ, and Δ is raised to the subject position and assigned nominative Case. I assume that if Δ is assigned Case, it is phonetically realized as *it*. This, in my veiw, is the origin of the expletive *it*. Furthermore, I assume that Δ inherits the semantic features of the *that*-clause, making the sentence in (7) acceptable.

In contrast to (18), the structure in (17) does not contain Δ, and, as assumed above, a CP cannot agree with T. This makes it impossible for the *that*-clause to be the subject of the sentence, as in the case of (5). In such a view, there is no option to fill the <α> position in (17), and I therefore assume that the expletive *it* is inserted as a last resort repair strategy. Thus, the expletive *it* brings nothing other than the features to agree with T. This is why the expletive *it* in *seem*-sentences, such as that in (6a), cannot control PRO. According to Napoli (1988), an element that is not assigned any thematic role cannot control PRO; the ungrammaticality of (6a) follows.

The above discussion suggests that the expletives in (1) and (3) have different origins. Honda (2015) shows evidence for this claim, as in (19).

(19) ?*It [is likely that John loves Mary] and [seems that Bill loves Sue].

(Honda 2015: 314)

According to Honda (2015), the unacceptability of (19) suggests that one type of the expletive *it* cannot be substituted for the other type.

In addition, the expletive, which is originally Δ, also differs from ambient *it*. Ambient *it* is a kind of argument, rather than an expletive. Chomsky (1981) classifies ambient *it* as a quasi-argument, and, as Fujita & Matsumoto (2005) points out, ambient *it* can be replaced by an ordinary argument, as in (20b).

(20) a It rained.
b. Blood rained.

(Fujita & Matsumoto 2005: 34)

The analysis of *that*-clauses as either DPs or CPs also explains a further fact. Consider the sentences in (21) and (22).

(21) a. Mary asked what time it was.
b. Mary asked the time.
c. It was asked what time it was.
(22) a. Mary wondered what time it was.
b. *Mary wondered the time.
c. *It was wondered what time it was.

(Chomsky 1995: 32-33)

As we can see in (21b), the verb *ask* selects a DP as its complement, as reflected by the structure in (23).

(23) [$_{VP}$ ask [$_{DP}$ Δ [$_{CP}$ what time it was]]]

Thus, when such a sentence is passivized, Δ is raised to the subject position and assigned nominative Case, instead of the external argument in the active sentence. Thus, Δ is phonetically realized as *it*, and (21c) is derived.

On the other hand, the verb *wonder* selects a CP as its complement, with the structure in (24).

(24) [$_{VP}$ wonder [$_{CP}$ what time it was]]

The verb *wonder* does not select a DP, which is why (22b) is unacceptable. Furthermore, this indicates that there is no Δ in the complement of the verb *wonder*, which explains that there is no way to derive a sentence like (22c). One might wonder why it is impossible to fill the subject position of (22c) as a last resort repair strategy. In this regard, I assume that passive sentences like (21c) are derived from the structure in (25).

(25) [$_{CP}$ C [$_{TP}$ <β> [$_{T'}$ T [$_{PartP}$ <α> [$_{Part'}$ -en [$_{VP}$ ask [$_{DP}$ Δ [$_{CP}$ what time it was]]]

Based on Hornstein, Martins & Nunes (2008), I assume that passive verbs consist of VPs and participle (Part) phrases whose head is the passive morpheme *-en*. Additionally, I suggest that the passive morpheme requires that something fill its specifier position, marked <α> in (25), as T does. I assume that the last resort repair strategy of inserting the expletive *it* is only available in the specifier position of T. Thus, there is no way to satisfy the requirement of the passive morpheme in (22c), as (22c) does not contain Δ. This assumption is validated by the absence of impersonal passive sentences like (26) in English.

(26) *It was danced.

If the expletive *it* could be inserted in the specifier position of PartP, (26) would be acceptable.

Educational Implications

The above discussion set out the differences among (1), (2), and (3) with regard to expletive *it*. Let's discuss the implication for pedagogical grammar. It would appear that it is incorrect to teach English L2 students that the expletives in (1) and (2) are the same, or to treat these expletives as equals. Despite sometimes being classified as the same, they are quite different from each other. In my view, English L2 teachers may make error because they are unware of the existence of sentences like that in (20b). In fact, *it* in (2) is not an expletive, but rather a kind of argument of the verb, and one that does not have counterpart in Japanese.

Perhaps the most problematic aspect of this situation is that English L2 teachers fail to show students the correct picture of the expletive *it* in (1). Indeed, the expletive *it* that Japanese junior high school students encounter for the first time is that in sentences like (27a), according to the current course of study for lower secondary school (MEXT 2008).

(27) a. It is important (for us) to study English.

b. (For us) to study English is important.

Note that the expletive *it* in (27a) is of the same kind as that in (3), because it can be replaced by an infinitive clause, as in (27b). This suggests a strong possibility that students might believe that the expletive *it* can always be replaced by a clause that appears in the same sentence. Such a belief can cause a problem when Japanese senior high school students encounter a sentence like that in (1). Worse still, students may come across sentences like those in (28).

(28) a. John seems to love Mary.
b. John is likely to love Mary.

(Honda 2015: 307)

Such examples may lead students to believe that the predicate *seem* behaves in the same way as does the predicate *is likely*. In fact, they do have the same structure if the complement clause is infinitival, as in (29) and (30).

(29) $[_{CP}$ C $[_{TP}$ John$_i$ $[_{T'}$ T $[_{vP}$ v $[_{VP}$ seem $[_{TP}$ t_i to love Mary]]]]]]

(30) $[_{CP}$ C $[_{TP}$ John$_i$ $[_{T'}$ T $[_{vP}$ v $[_{VP}$ is $[_{AP}$ likely $[_{TP}$ t_i to love Mary]]]]]]]

However, the predicate *seem* and the predicate *is likely* have different structures if the complement clause is finite, as seen above. These facts may well confuse English L2 students, and I assume that most teachers are unable to explain them, as the current pedagogical grammar in Japan does not address the different status of the expletives in (1) and (3).

The question arises: How should English L2 students be taught sentences with expletive *it*? I believe that it may be both difficult and ineffective to teach them the syntactic derivations. A straightforward approach would be to tell them that there are three types of *it* other than the personal pronoun, and to demonstrate unacceptable sentences such as those discussed above. Whereas it is natural and essential to make an issue of unacceptable sentences in syntactic studies, it is relatively rare to do so in classroom instruction. However, I believe that showing English L2 students the unacceptable sentences in this particular case will provide them the opportunity to understand the underlying structure of such sentences. Only through such unacceptable sentences can one come to understand the underlying difference between constructions.

Furthermore, it is essential for English L2 teachers to understand how sentences with expletives are derived. When such teachers are asked why the expletive *it* in a *seem*-sentence cannot refer to a *that*-clause, whereas the expletive *it* in sentences like (3) and (27a) can, many might say, “Just remember the correct sentences!” without referring to syntactic knowledge of expletives. In addition, note that the above discussion also implies that the *that*-clauses in (1) and (3) differ. Thus, attention needs to be given not only to the expletive *it* but also the *that*-clause in English L2 instruction.

Concluding Remarks

As the discussion above has shown, syntactic studies have clarified why the expletive *it* behaves differently among the sentences in (1), (2), and (3). Syntactic studies within the framework of Minimalism have offered a more detailed explanation of aspects that are not explained by current pedagogical grammar. Thus, I conclude that pedagogical grammar would do well to take advantage of the elucidation offered by recent syntactic studies. This may lead English L2 students to a better understanding of difficult concepts like the expletive *it*.

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