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Book Reviews

June 2018 Foreword

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Welcome to the June issue of Asian EFL Journal in 2018. Including ten research articles and two book reviews, this issue explores diverse topics essential to the field of teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language. Specifically, it addresses Western pedagogical training, task complexity, attitudes toward English varieties, plural marking of loanwords and non-loanwords, form-focused instruction, differences in learning styles, factors influencing language achievement, dynamic usage-based approach, self-correction strategies, and learning together method in diverse contexts. Two book reviews concerning multiculturalism and conflict reconciliation, and team-teaching in language teaching are also covered. Such diversity is also embodied by the inclusion of authors from different geographic regions around the globe, well demonstrating the vitality of the Asian EFL community.

This issue opens with a research paper proposed by Shanshan Lu and Paul Moore. Their study, entitled, "Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers' reflections on Communicative Language Teaching", focused on how the effects of Western training on teachers' implementation of CLT in diverse Chinese contexts, particularly after the recent education reforms and under the changing social dynamics. Their examination of 60 Western-trained university teachers suggested the positive impacts of Western education on their reconstruction of CLT beliefs. Pedagogical implications and suggestions for future design and implementation of similar projects are provided.

Mahpul and Rhonda Oliver, in their article "The effect of task complexity in dialogic oral production by Indonesian EFL learners", probed into the effect of task manipulation (i.e., planning time and the number of elements) on dialogic performance as measured by complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF). The results from 52 Indonesian learners of English only partially support the predictions of the Cognition Hypothesis in that resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions (i.e. number of elements and planning time) in tasks impact on learners' oral production

in terms of CAF. Directions for teachers about how to use tasks to promote learners' language performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency are offered in this article.

Zhenjie Weng, in the study "Voices from international Chinese students on varieties of English: A mixed methods study", explored the experiences with and attitudes toward English varieties among international Chinese students in a western Pennsylvanian university. A mixed methods design including survey and semi-structured interview was employed for comparisons and contrasts of international Chinese students' experiences with diverse Englishes prior to and after their arrivals in the United States. The results revealed the complexity in the English language ideology embraced and practiced in diverse contexts. The author also detailed pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research at the end of the article.

In "Not all nouns are created equal: Japanese EFL learners, written English, and plural marking of loanwords and non-loanwords", Matt Lucas investigated Japanese EFL learners' performance on tasks designed to assess accuracy in obligatory plural marking of countable nouns. Multiple sources of data collected included an error recognition task and two writing tasks specifically comparing awareness of the need for plural marking on three different types of countable nouns: (1) English loanwords having no Japanese equivalent, (2) English loanwords that also have Japanese equivalents, and (3) nouns that have only a Japanese form. The results were mixed, as evidenced in the participants' responses to the designated tasks. Pedagogical implications and suggestions for researchers interested in relevant issues are provided.

Feng Teng, in "The effect of Focus on Form and Focus on Forms instruction on the acquisition of phrasal verbs by Chinese students", focused on how form-focused instruction affected the acquisition of phrasal verbs by 90 Chinese tertiary-level students of limited English proficiency. Randomly assigned into two experimental groups (the FonF and FonFs conditions) and one control group, the participants completed three tests, including word form recall, meaning recall, and word usage. With the results revealing significantly better performance from the FonFs group and word meaning recall taken as the most acquired vocabulary knowledge in each group, the researcher concluded with the vital role that Focus on Forms played on learning of phrasal verbs.

With respect to "A qualitative research of the difference in the learning styles between Chinese and Taiwanese English major students", Shu-Chin Su and Tao Ling probed into differences in university students' learning styles between Mainland China and Taiwan. Aiming to uncover differences and similarities in the learning styles among English majors, the researchers found that while most of the participants from both sides were reflective, sensing, and visual learners, the "Sequential/Global" differentiation was mixed. Students from Mainland China seemed to be sequential learners while those from Taiwan were more global. The article concluded with implications and suggestions for educations as well as researchers.

Singhanat Nomnian and Thithimadee Arphattananon directed the readers' attention to factors influencing English teaching and learning achievement. Situated in the Thai context, their article, entitled "A qualitative study on factors influencing achievement of English language teaching and learning in Thai government secondary schools", detailed a typological analysis of the interview transcripts from school principals and head teachers of foreign language departments. With ten factors underpinned by the socio-cultural and political influences identified by the researchers, the article sheds light on existing challenges that the government faces in enhancing English language teaching and learning achievement in government secondary schools in Thailand.

In the following article entitled "Self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program: A solution to the challenges of large heterogeneous teacher-fronted classes", Mufeeda Irshad and Pei Yi Liu discussed how a self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program grounded in a dynamic usage-based (DUB) approach facilitated second language learning. With the purpose of solving challenges faced by language learners in large heterogeneous teacher-fronted classes, a self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program was proposed, featuring individualised self-paced learning support through multiple exposures to comprehensible authentic language input and scaffolding (both instructional and visual). The comparison between individualised self-paced learning environment and teacher-directed learning setting revealed the efficacy of the proposed program on overcoming learner anxiety.

Chin-Wen Chien, in her article "Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' self-correction of pronunciation problems and their strategies", explored self-correction of errors and strategies for pronunciation

among 47 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates. The analysis of diverse data sources (interview, videos, activity designs, and reflections) highlighted "linking" and "stress" as major pronunciation problems faced by EFL learners. Chien also reported popular self-correction techniques adopted for English learning (such as watching online lessons and reading aloud), and further pointed out the participants' reliance on multimedia resources for learning specific pronunciation features. Advice on better self-correction in pronunciation are addressed.

As regards the final major study "Effects of implementing a Learning Together Method (LTM) on social skills", Wondwosen Tesfamichael Ali examined the effects of LTM implementation on eleventh graders' social skills in relation to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills. The participants' responses to the self-developed social skills questionnaire revealed how appropriate implementation of LTM contributed to enhanced social skills. This article brings new insights for researchers and instructors who are interested in integrating cooperative LTM into the field of language learning.

We hope you find the articles in this June 2018 issue to be informative, inspiring, and comprehensive. Bearing in mind the contribution to continuous improvement in English language instruction around the world, we sincerely hope that this issue helps provide new insights into the formulation of future research and innovations for EFL/ESL practitioners in cross-border, interdisciplinary, and collaborative manners. We would like to express our sincere appreciation to the contributors and reviewers of articles and book reviews who have made this issue possible.

Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers' reflections on Communicative Language Teaching

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Bio data

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Abstract

The role of Western-trained teachers in the implementation of Western pedagogies, such as Communicative Language Teaching (hereafter CLT), has been highlighted in many studies (e.g. Pu, 2010; Schuerkens, 2003). However, little has been done regarding how Western training affects teachers' implementation of CLT in diverse Chinese contexts, particularly after the release of the latest reform proposal for the national college entrance exam in 2013. This study thus investigates this issue under the recent education reforms and the changing socio-economic contexts in China. A survey and follow-up interview were employed to examine the participants' perspectives towards: 1) impact of Western education on their current teaching practice and 2) sense of appropriateness and effectiveness of implementing CLT at tertiary English language education in China. Western-trained university teachers (N = 60) participated in the questionnaire survey. Eight of the 60 participants were chosen for the semi-structured interviews. Findings show that Western education had a positive impact on the participants' reconstruction of CLT beliefs. Their

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implementation of CLT was not smooth but was perceived as necessary and effective. These findings have implications for EFL teachers in Chinese and similar contexts, as well as non-native students, program designers and teacher educators in Western training programs.

Keywords: communicative language teaching, China, English as a foreign language, Western teacher training, TESOL

Introduction

The demand for professional English teachers is rapidly increasing in China as the demand for competent users of English increases (Guo & Beckett, 2012). This pushes Chinese students of teaching to study abroad, in order to gain an advantage (e.g. salary, professional title) over local-trained teachers (Pu, 2010; Waghann, 2013). For many Chinese English teachers, it has been a "dream" (Pu, 2010, p. 8) and a "prevailing trend" (Waghann, 2013) to experience English language and culture abroad. In fact, Chinese students comprise a large part of the international student enrollments in TESOL and related programs in the so-called "core" English-speaking countries (Australian Education International, 2014; Kachru, 1986). After their Western training[1], a growing number of these students return to China to teach English (Pu, 2010; Zhong, 2013).

Many studies highlight the role of this specific group of Chinese teachers in implementing Western pedagogies in local practices. For instance, Medgyes (1986) and Schuerkens (2003) both note that such teachers, armed with Western and local minds, can fully realize the conflicts between native theories and non-native practices, thus act as accelerators in giving Western pedagogies local meanings. Research results also show that the changes and clashes what Western-trained teachers experienced in their Western education did influence their practical teaching (Chowdhury & Ha, 2008; Pu, 2010). In such circumstances, it is valuable to investigate the reflections of this specific group of teachers.

Most importantly, the current study argues, as Gupta (2004) suggests that the whole situation may be changing as a result of the changing socio-economic contexts. Under the combined influence of globalization, the rapid economic development in China and the increase of

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[1] In the current paper, "Western-trained" teachers refer to teachers who hold degrees of TESOL or related programs in the United States, Great Britain, Australia, Canada and New Zealand.

international academic exchange activities within Chinese contexts, Chinese teachers' and students' attitudes towards language teaching and learning are also changing.

Using a mixed methods design, the current study investigates how Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers incorporate CLT into their tertiary teaching; and their beliefs of the prospects of CLT at tertiary education in China. As such, we aim to add to the small amount of research on the impacts of Western teacher training on non-native EFL teachers' local teaching practice (Allen, 2010).

Literature Review

Communicative Language Teaching

It is now forty years since the origins of CLT in the 1970s (Littlewood, 2014). The goal of CLT is to develop learners' communicative competence (hereafter CC; Savignon, 2005). Rather than a specific method following strict rules, CLT now serves as "an umbrella term", which includes all approaches that aim to develop CC "in personally meaningful ways" (Littlewood, 2014, p. 349). It is now seen as essential not to follow any specific methodologies and techniques, but to develop personalized approaches to CLT relevant to specific contexts (Littlewood, 2014; Savignon, 2005).

Some principles of CLT are now mostly accepted as "axiomatic" in the field (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 173). Based on categorization and comparison of principles of CLT as interpreted by several researchers (Berns, 1990; Brown, 2001; Jacobs & Farrell, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Richards, 2006), five commonly cited principles of CLT have been identified for the purposes of this study:

1. *Language as a medium of communication*: the most essential function of language is to allow communication; Language is learned through communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

2. *Communicative competence*: a comprehensive concept that includes a learner's grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence (Celce-Murcia, 2008).

3. *Learner autonomy*: classroom techniques and curricula should develop learners' sense of "ownership" of their learning and motivate their independent learning (Brown, 2001, p. 47; Richards, 2006).

4. *The role of the teacher as a facilitator*: teachers should only provide guidance, but not control, to help students manage unrehearsed situations (Brown, 2001).

5. *Integration of several language skills*: teachers should integrate the four language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing, in class, because they are interconnected in language learning (Brown, 2001).

However, CLT is not without criticisms, which mainly come from the widely reported difficulties of implementing CLT in non-Western countries (Chowdhury & Ha, 2008; Li, 1998). Thus, it has been suggested that the field should move from CLT to task-based language teaching (hereafter TBLT); and from "method-based pedagogy" to "post-method pedagogy" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 59; Savignon, 2007, p. 207). Nevertheless, TBLT is considered as an "offshoot" of CLT (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 66). Moreover, studies (Chen, 2014; Hu, 2003) have found that TBLT and post-method pedagogy still experience low levels of popularity among Chinese students and teachers. As global trends influence national policy, some current research into language teaching in China has shifted focus from CLT to Content and Language Integrated Learning (hereafter CLIL) and English as a Medium of Instruction (hereafter EMI) (Dearden, 2014). However, findings have revealed considerable gaps between (inter)national policy ideals and actual practices in Chinese classrooms (Hu & Lei, 2014). China is still in a transitional period from traditional Chinese methods to the adaptation of CLT (Pu, 2010; Rao, 2002). Thus, the focus of the present study is CLT, rather than TBLT, post-method pedagogy, CLIL or EMI.

CLT in China

In China, English language teaching (hereafter ELT) traditionally follows a combination of Grammar Translation Method and Audiolingualism (Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989). Such approaches are informed by Confucian heritage, which is deeply rooted in Chinese cultures of learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hu, 2002). Chinese cultures, like other cultures, include taken-for-granted expectations and beliefs in terms of teaching and learning. Two prominent characteristics have been student passivity and teacher-centredness (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996), though the situation is changing (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). This is particularly reflected in the latest reform proposal for the National College Entrance exam (gāo kǎo, 高考) in 2013. The Ministry of Education (MOE) requested that the evaluation of English skills should be diversified; students could take tests

multiple times every year and only the highest score would count for the national college entrance exam (MOE, 2013). Given the demonstrated washback effect on teaching and learning changes in testing in specific contexts (Cheng & Watanabe, 2004), Chinese education experts argue that these changes will move ELT in China away from a test-heavy system. Free from the extreme pressure of rigid testing, teachers and students will be able to concentrate on practical language ability. Under this wave of exam reforms across the country, new textbooks were published to improve students' practical language ability, such as *Hello Learner's English* for primary school students and Successful English for Vocational Colleges for higher vocational colleges (Wang, 2014; Zhang, 2014). Also, Chinese political advisers called for reforms of English language assessments to make it more effective in cultivating actual language ability (Hu, 2013).

The above language education policy and curriculum reforms favor CLT. In reality, since Li Xiaoju introduced CLT into the country in 1979, it has gained attention, popularity and significance (Anderson, 1993; Ouyang, 2003). Particularly in 1992, the State Education Development Commission (SEDC), the central body charged with regulating educational policy, formally introduced CLT into the secondary school system, requiring English teachers to teach communicatively (SEDC, 1992; Liao, 2000). Hence from the mid-1990s, CLT has been widely practiced in China, though studies have reported a gap between top-down policy and actual classroom practice, resulting in eclectic compromises between CLT and traditional Chinese methods (Liao, 2000; Hu, 2005). Chinese researchers mainly hold three perspectives regarding the adoption of CLT: absolutism, resistance and adaptation (Pu, 2010).

Liao (2000, 2004), representing the absolutist view, argues that it is the government's position to adopt CLT. The Chinese government has invited native speakers of English as "foreign experts" to "demonstrate advanced CLT" in school communities, as the government believes, since CLT originates from Western countries, what native speakers of English demonstrate should represent "authentic" CLT. The government has also sent teachers abroad to study Western pedagogy (Ouyang, 2003, p. 122). Liao (2004) also emphasizes that any difficulties (e.g. large class size, grammar-based tests) can be overcome if teachers are aware of these difficulties.

Conversely, some researchers (e.g. Hu, 2002, 2003; Yu, 2001) report a wide range of constraining factors in the CLT movement in China. By reviewing relevant studies in China, Butler (2011) presents three of these factors: a) conceptual constraints (e.g. misconceptions regarding CLT); b) classroom-level constraints (e.g. large class size); and c) societal-institutional level

constraints (e.g. exam system) stop China, especially the less-developed regions, from implementing CLT effectively (Hu, 2003).

Rather than directly adopt or completely resist CLT, the majority of Chinese teachers, in fact, "retain their traditional approach as a pedagogical framework but integrate elements of CLT into it" (Littlewood, 2014, p. 354). Liao (2000) and Hu (2002, 2005) both encourage teachers to adopt an eclectic approach to meet local needs.

Chinese Teachers' Perceptions of CLT

Although research on teachers' beliefs regarding CLT is now well-established, literature on Chinese teachers', particularly Western-trained Chinese teachers', beliefs regarding CLT is still very limited, with only two studies investigating this issue. Burnaby and Sun (1989) examined 24 Chinese teachers' views on the effectiveness and appropriateness of CLT. Participants felt that CLT was mainly applicable to those going to live and study abroad, but not for other Chinese students, especially non-English majors. This is mainly because the purposes of most Chinese students of English are to use English in their future work, such as reading technical articles and translating documents; traditional methods, which provide analytical skills and language knowledge, "suit" their purposes (1989, p. 478). Conversely, Pu's (2010) study supports the adaptation view of CLT. Employing a case study design, Pu found that the four participating teachers adapted different CLT principles using different techniques; although they faced different constraints and difficulties, they were capable of establishing their personal CLT versions (2010).

The results of the limited research into Chinese teachers' perspectives on CLT, along with the present educational reforms, suggest that China is preparing to incorporate aspects of communicative teaching methodology on an unprecedented scale. Western-trained teachers, because of their exposure to Western culture, may be seen as qualified practitioners of CLT. Thus, employing a qualitative approach to mixed methods design, the current study investigates Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers' reflections on their Western education, particularly their implementation of CLT. The two research questions are as follows:

1. What CLT principles do Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers perceive as appropriate to implement in their teaching practice? What principles are difficult to implement?

2. What do Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers think about the appropriateness, effectiveness, and prospects of CLT in tertiary education in China?

Methodology

Participants

Survey participants included 60 graduates of Western programs working in China as EFL teachers (39 female; 21 male). Participants were recruited online: the first author found potential participants' email addresses in Chinese universities' websites; then sent them emails to explain the aims and benefits of the current study, and encouraged them to participate in the study. The participants all held degrees of TESOL or related programs[2] in five core Western countries[3]; 91.7% had worked as an EFL teacher before studying abroad. They were currently working at 34 different universities in 23 cities; their students' level of proficiency in English was either intermediate (25%) or advanced (75%), based on the completed survey. Twenty-four participants were teaching both General English for non-English majors and Academic English for English majors, whereas 20 were teaching General English and 16 were teaching Academic English only. Table 1 below provides an overview relevant participant data.

Table 1
Participant data

	N	Min.	Max.	*M*	*SD*
Age	60	28.0	65.0	45.2	9.55
Years of studying in Western programs	60	0.83	7.58	3.01	1.84
Years of teaching after returning to China	60	1.00	35.0	11.7	8.85

Table 2 below gives an overview of academic qualification and employment status of the participants.

Table 2
Highest education and employment status of the survey participants

	Highest Education				Employment status	
	Bachelor	Graduate Diploma	Master	PHD	Full-time	Part-time
N	3	2	31	24	56	4
%	5.0	3.3	51.7	40.0	93.3	6.7

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[2] Education, Applied Linguistics, Language and Communication, TESL, TEFL, Comparative Education, ELT.
[3] USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand, Canada.

Eight participants were selected for follow-up interviews according to Patton's (2002) maximum variation sampling strategy; involving variation according to gender, age, Western education background, teaching experience, as well as questionnaire responses. Table 3 below provides background data for interview participants.

Table 3
Background of interview participants

Participant ID	Sex	Age	Years of studying in Western programs	Western education background	Years of teaching after returning to China
01	F	29	5	MA TESOL and MS Education (USA)	2
06	F	45	1	Master of Education (Australia)	12
07	F	50	3.5	PHD in Education (Australia)	3.08
08	M	65	3.5	MA Applied Linguistics (Australia)	29.83
16	F	43	5	MA and PHD in Second Language Acquisition and Teaching (USA)	5
19	M	40	5	MA in Linguistics in Netherlands; PHD in Linguistics (USA) (current)	2
04	M	45	0.8	MA Modern English (UK)	15
05	F	28	1.5	MA Applied Linguistics (Australia)	1

Instruments

Employing a mixed methods design, data were collected via two instruments: an online questionnaire and follow-up interviews.

The first instrument, questionnaire, was employed to examine the impact of Western education on the participants' teaching practices, particularly their implementation of CLT. It consisted of four sections: demographic data; impact of Western education; implementation of CLT and further participation. The survey was conducted in Mandarin (the participants' L1) to ensure the best comprehensibility of the questions. However, to minimize misunderstanding, theoretical terms were also written in English. The survey design was based on a range of reviewed literature (e.g. Li, 1998; Pu, 2010) in order to identify the salient debates in the field, with further questions added to address the particular research questions of the current study. It was piloted with two practicing Western-trained Chinese teachers. Some minor changes to question wording to improve clarity were made as a result.

The follow-up interview was conducted to obtain an in-depth insight into participants' teaching beliefs and how Western education influenced their instruction, which can expand and delve into survey topics as such data cannot be obtained with questionnaires (Heigham & Croker, 2009). The interview was semi-structured and conducted by phone or social networking software. Each interview included three sections: information about Western education and current teaching contexts, impact of Western education and implementation of CLT, as an extension of the questionnaire. Informed consent was granted before interviewing. The interviews were audiotaped and then transcribed verbatim into Chinese as soon as possible before being translated partially into English.

Data analysis

Survey and interview data were analyzed in two phases by the first author. In the first phase, quantitative data analysis involved descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, frequencies and range). In the second phase, qualitative data were analyzed following Dörnyei's (2007) four phases of content analysis. After transcribing and coding all the data, the first author looked for recurring themes in the data; compared the similarities and differences between themes among the participants; then wrote memos and developed a visual category map to classify all identified themes according to their prominence (most-mentioned) and relevance to the research questions. Finally, survey and interview data analysis were integrated to see if there are any consistency and inconsistency before drawing on conclusions and discussions.

Results

Results of quantitative data analysis

Analysis of the impact of Western training indicated that all participants had tried to apply what they had learned abroad. All reported benefits while 76.7% reported difficulties. Fifty-eight (96.7%) noted that they concerned about teaching approach. Forty-two (70%) stated they mainly used CLT in their classes, ten used an eclectic approach, three used TBLT, and two used lectures, seminars and discussions.

When asked what CLT principles they had learned in their Western education, 73.3% noted 'language as a medium of communication'; 88.3% noted 'CC'; 90% noted 'learner autonomy';

93.3% noted 'teacher as a facilitator' and 65% noted 'integration of several language skills'.

In terms of the practical implementation of CLT, 50 (83.3%) participants noted the main aim of their courses was to equip students with the ability to use English in real-life situations outside the classroom for communicative purposes. Two-thirds of the participants described their classes as learner-centered, whereas only six (10%) described as teacher-controlled. Thirty-eight (63.3%) participants reported that they paid balanced attention to the four language skills. Most (83.3%) stated that their assessment mainly focused on communicative ability (e.g. student performance in communicative activities), while only a small percentage (13.3%) focused on language knowledge.

Table 4 below compares the sense of importance of CLT among participants, with the actual use of CLT in classes and their sense of effectiveness.

Table 4
Sense of Importance of CLT, Use of Communicative Practices in Classes, and Sense of Effectiveness of CLT of the Survey Participants (on a scale of 1 to 5)

	Min.	Max.	*M*	*SD*
Importance of CLT	3	5	4.72	.49
Frequency of including communicative activities	3	5	4.17	.64
Frequency of integrating several language skills	2	5	4.08	.83
Effectiveness of CLT	3	5	3.90	.47

As is shown in Table 4, the mean of the sense of importance was the highest, with the means decreasing for the actual use and the sense of effectiveness of CLT. The standard deviation of the frequency of integrating several language skills elicited the widest variation in responses.

Moreover, rather than authentic materials, textbooks (48.3%) and teacher-developed materials (30%) were their students' main learning materials, though some interview subjects claimed that these materials were communicative.

In terms of perspectives towards the overall appropriateness and efficiency of CLT, nearly all (98.3%) participants believed that it was necessary to adapt CLT in their classes. However, when further asked whether they preferred CLT to other teaching methods, the percentage of positive answers was slightly smaller (88.3%).

Analysis of the most difficult aspect of CLT to employ demonstrates that 'CC' (30%) ranked first, followed by 'learner autonomy' (26.7%), 'integration of several language skills' (25%),

'teacher as a facilitator' (10%) and 'language as a medium of communication' (8.33%). The results of the follow-up item, the least difficult aspect of CLT to employ, support these findings.

Further analysis shows the perceived main difficulties (see Table 5 below) and benefits (Table 6) of implementing CLT at tertiary education in China.

Table 5
Main Perceived Difficulties of Implementing CLT

Theme	n	%
1. Students lack confidence and motivation to use English	41	68.3
2. Large class	35	58.3
3. Limited time	30	50.0
4. Local teaching and learning culture	27	45.0
5. Students' resistance to class participation	26	43.3
6. Grammar-based examination	20	33.3
7. Students' low English proficiency	18	30.0
8. Lack of authentic English materials	13	21.7
9. The differences between EFL and ESL	13	21.7
10. Insufficient support from school administration	7	11.7
11. Lack of facilities	5	8.33
12. Insufficient support from colleagues	2	3.33
13. Insufficient support from parents	1	1.67

Note. The themes were ranked in order of percentages from highest to lowest.

Table 6
Main Perceived Benefits of Implementing CLT

Theme	n	%
1. Motivate students to learn English for communication purpose	47	78.3
2. Equip students with the ability to communicate in English fluently	41	68.3
3. Promote students' learning by using authentic materials and activities	41	68.3
4. Ensure students for the equal emphasis of the four language skills, rather than of merely grammar and vocabulary	36	60.0
5. Create a real-life environment in language learning	30	50.0

Note. The themes were ranked in order of percentages from highest to lowest.

Table 5 illustrates that the crucial difficulties of implementing CLT were from students who lack confidence and motivation to use English, as well as some situational constraints such as large class and limited time. Table 6 shows that the perceived most obvious benefit of implementing CLT was to motivate students to learn English for communicative purposes.

Results of qualitative data analysis

Overall, analysis of the qualitative data shows that there were many contextual differences involved within Chinese college English education contexts. Some participants reported much more autonomy and freedom in managing their classes and assessments while others noted the unchanged examination-oriented or textbook-oriented educational system. For instance, regarding teaching approaches, three of the eight interviewees reported that they had a great deal of "freedom" to choose what and how to teach (Participant ID: 06). Conversely, one participant indicated that he had to attend a collective preparation for teaching plans, which he had to follow. Another two participants similarly reported that they were required to teach according to a prescribed curriculum and examinations.

Regarding what aspect of Western education influenced them most, half of the interviewees answered Western teaching approaches. They held favorable attitudes towards CLT, though one participant felt that CLT class was "too casual" (Participant ID: 07). The following comment was typical.

> CLT has always been the core of every lesson in my two years of teaching after returning to China. It is my teaching ideal and objectives, which are consistent with the education philosophy of the English Language Center at my university (Participant ID: 01).

Two participants reported that they had experienced authentic and vivid English language during their Western education. After returning to China, they could teach students "real language" rather "language knowledge from textbooks" (Participant ID: 19). One participant said that she tried to "create real language environments" in her classes (Participant ID: 01).

Regarding the biggest change before and after Western education, three participants indicated that before they focused on language knowledge such as grammar and vocabulary to help students prepare for exams. After Western education, they placed more emphasis on students' CC and authentic language use. One claimed that his students welcomed communicative activities such as group presentation. "My students now are more comfortable speaking English and they are not as nervous as before when taking oral language tests" (Participant ID: 19).

All interviewees noted that they learned, self-learned, attended workshops, or observed classroom practices of CLT during their Western education. Thus, they most reported being well armed with the theory, curriculum design, procedure and classroom techniques of CLT.

After returning to China, the interviewees tried to apply what they learned and experienced in their Western training, including CLT. A majority reported difficulties when they first applied CLT, including 1) assessing 'CC', 2) promoting 'learner autonomy', 3) 'integrating several language skills', and 4) students' expectations.

Difficulties in assessing communicative competence. Supporting the results of the quantitative data, more than half (5) of the interviewees reported their concerns regarding assessing CC. Many participants indicated that students' classroom performance was not representative of their CC; teachers' evaluation, to a great extent, was "very subjective" (Participant ID: 06). The following comment was a salient one.

> We teachers, as spectators and assessors, cannot properly evaluate a student's CC only based on his/her classroom performance. Speaking a lot doesn't mean that his/her CC is good; … Moreover, even if a student speaks native-like English, it doesn't mean that s/he accomplishes good CC… (Participant ID: 19).

To solve this problem, another interviewee suggested that students' after class language performance such as "participating in English contests, publishing English essays, and making English videos" should contribute to their final scores (Participant ID: 04).

Issues in promoting learner autonomy. Several interviewees noted the lack of systematic and specific training of how to promote 'learner autonomy' and what are the affecting factors. Even they knew how to do it; there were still some inevitable situational constraints such as "Chinese students, Chinese classrooms, and traditional assessments" (Participant ID: 16). Also, one interviewee concerned that, particularly for low-grade students, if a teacher gave them too much "freedom", it might be "very troublesome" for both the teacher and the students (Participant ID: 04). The following comment further explained the unchanged roles of Chinese teachers as authority.

"Learner-centered" doesn't mean if a teacher gives more opportunities for students to speak, that is "learner-centered"… Not every student accepts that if you give him/her an opportunity, then he/she is willing to say something … If students don't speak, teachers will call the roll. In this process, teachers still think of themselves as the dominant power (Participant ID: 16).

Difficulty of integrating several language skills. Three interviewees who were teaching English majors reported that they had difficulty integrating several language skills in their classes. This is because, in English departments of Chinese universities, different language skills (e.g., listening, speaking, intensive reading) are taught separately. One participant stated "integrating different language skills in one course is almost impossible, because you have very limited time, and you can hardly complete the teaching schedules" (Participant ID: 07).

Still, the participant explained further that a few universities did not follow this tradition of separating language skills. Another two teachers also elaborated that they tried to integrate different language skills, since it was "the trend" (Participant ID: 04) and "different language skills actually promote each other" (Participant ID: 08).

Students' expectations. Analysis of comments related to students' expectations emerged the following two themes. Firstly, interviewees generally indicated students' high expectations of passing courses and exams. Chinese students who fail College English Test are not granted their university diplomas. The test thus becomes most students' "goals and motivations" of learning English (Participant ID: 01). Then teachers had to "guarantee" their students' needs and taught to discrete-point, structurally based examinations (Participant ID: 07).

Secondly, students were reported to expect teachers "to talk about knowledge" and "explain language points clearly" (Participant ID: 08). One participant complained "they always think that teachers should deliver lectures in classes… For other efforts I make for the class, they think them unimportant" (Participant ID: 01).

Interviewees attributed the above phenomenon to the deep-rooted influence of primary and secondary education on students' expectations for language learning and teachers. One participant emphasized that college students, who just graduated from secondary school, "need enough time and guidance" to adapt to the new teaching approach (Participant ID: 06).

As for their perspectives about traditional Chinese methods, several interviewees explicitly commented they were "unpopular" and "unacceptable" (Participant ID: 16). Nevertheless, two

interviewees emphasized that "we cannot accept this sort of sweeping generalization" [towards traditional methods]; "memorization and repetition can help enhance students' sense of the language" (Participant ID: 16).

Unlike traditional methods, overall, the interviewees held positive attitudes towards the prospects of CLT at tertiary education in China. They similarly emphasized "people now view CLT in a positive way" (Participant ID: 08); "although many teachers don't admit clearly that they are using CLT, they have already accepted its principles" (Participant ID: 29). Thus, they believed although some situational constraints and deep-rooted cultural differences might hamper the implementation of CLT in China, some principles of CLT facilitated their students' language acquisition and hence should be applied in practical teaching. Also, two interviewees noted that an eclectic approach was another scientific alternative. They reported that teachers should "use different teaching methods and design different activities" based on the teaching content (Participant ID: 08).

Discussion

This study examined Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers' reflections on Western education and their implementation of CLT. Findings are summarized in accordance with the two research questions addressed in the paper.

Research Question 1 - CLT principles those are appropriate and difficult to implement. Quantitative findings showed some CLT principles ('language as a medium of communication', 'teacher as a facilitator') are easier to implement without causing too much resistance or threatening the deep-rooted Chinese learning culture (Hu, 2002). However, qualitative findings argued whether the principle of 'teacher as a facilitator' was easy to implement remained controversial. Some Chinese teachers still think of themselves as authority and they were not willing to give up their power, which is in line with Chowdhury and Ha's (2008) findings.

Survey and interview findings consistently revealed that the principles of 'CC' and 'learner autonomy' brought challenges to the participants, which focused on how to implement within a specific context. Although research (e.g. Brown, 2001, p. 47) provides much guidance, results revealed that it was still far from enough. The present study, in line with Hui's (1997) conclusion, suggests that teacher training should be conducted to equip teachers with specific and useful methods to assess 'CC' and promote 'learner autonomy' in accordance with local contexts.

Research Question 2 – Teachers' beliefs regarding CLT in tertiary education in China. The stance of this study was consistent with what Hui (1997) noted that most Chinese teachers have already implemented CLT. For others who do not mainly use CLT, they still apply CLT in some situations. Supporting Pu's (2010) findings, participants in this study noted that Western education had had a positive impact on their reconstruction of CLT beliefs and practices based on local conditions; however, this contrasts with Carrier's (2003) reporting of a mismatch between Western education and local classroom practices. Participants in our study noted that difficulties and situational constraints, though powerful and sometimes unchangeable, could be overcome to a large extent if a teacher had enough initiative and professional ability (Liao, 2004).

Despite the overall reported sense of importance of CLT, the sense of effectiveness of CLT decreased and showed greater variation. Interview findings confirmed the survey findings and reported more concerns and difficulties regarding the implementation of CLT in China. These suggested that not all teachers could apply their beliefs to actual teaching practice; contexts play a significant role in the process of implementing CLT.

According to Hu (2002), an approach is only efficient when both teachers and students are ready to accept and implement it. The current study, like previous studies (Liao, 2000; Savignon & Wang, 2003) found that although teachers were becoming more willing to, or actually incorporating CLT, students were less receptive. Some students were reported to refuse to take part in communicative activities, preferring instead to attend lectures, take notes and do exercises quietly. As a result, some teachers may become frustrated, compromise and revert to traditional methods. Therefore, participants emphasized the need to develop a Chinese style of CLT, or to develop CLT "in personally meaningful ways" (Littlewood, 2014, p. 349).

The study also confirmed Pu's (2010) finding regarding the revival of traditional Chinese methods. This revealed that the participants viewed Western and local pedagogies critically and did not hold a so-called "CLT attitude" (Bax, 2003).

Finally, of note is the contextual diversity within the Chinese contexts. The current study echoes much of the work of Hu (2003) who underscores the regional differences in China. In line with Hu's (2003) finding of regional differences among Chinese students' attitudes towards English learning, the current study found similar regional differences among Chinese teachers' attitudes towards English teaching. Some participants reported much more autonomy and freedom in managing their classes and assessments while others reported less autonomy, due to the unchanged

examination-oriented or textbook-oriented educational system. The generalization that CLT is appropriate for all students and teachers in all areas in China is not supported by the findings of this study.

Conclusion

The role of teachers is widely accepted as decisive in creating classroom realities (Hu, 2005; Hui, 1997). This article drew attention to a particular group of teachers – Western-trained Chinese EFL teachers and examined their implementation of a particular aspect of Western education – CLT. Findings highlighted the significance of non-native teachers' flexibility and ability to adapt their learned knowledge to meet local needs (Faez & Valeo, 2012). Particularly, this study argues that flexibility and the ability of adaptation are essential for teachers who are trained and later work in two different contexts.

The results of teachers' perspectives towards Western education and CLT, as well as the reported changes in Chinese universities and Chinese educational reforms were surprising. The participants were much more positive in their evaluations of Western education and CLT than in previous studies (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Chowdhury & Ha, 2008). Thus, we argue that there are signs of a shift towards a more communicative approach to ELT in China. Bearing the pressing demand of globalization and modernization in mind, perhaps only those teachers who integrate "the best features" of Western approaches and of traditional Chinese methods, can "maximally" satisfy students' expectations for teachers and learning (Ouyang, 2003, p. 138; Guo & Beckett, 2012). These findings are consistent with Ellis's (2006) claim that traditional methods may be effective if they provide opportunities for learners to engage in communicative practice.

These findings have implications for teachers in Chinese and other Confucian- heritage contexts with examination-oriented educational systems (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006), pre-service teachers in Western training programs, and also for TESOL program designers and teacher educators. While the study focuses on how Western-trained teachers adjust Western theories into their local teaching, the study also provides insights for locally trained teachers. The current research suggests collaboration between Western-trained and locally trained teachers is important for establishing localized and effective CLT. For pre-service and in-service Western-trained teachers, this study suggests that critical self-reflection, professional ability and flexibility to adjust to local conditions are particularly important in giving Western theories local meanings (Pu, 2010).

For TESOL program designers and teacher educators, the current study argues the need to include cultures of learning in the program policies and practices as exemplified by Jin and Cortazzi's work (2016). The results suggest that curriculum design should integrate diverse cultural approaches, simulations and scenarios to provide (inter)national students opportunities to apply theories into actual practices while still in their teacher education programs (Carrier, 2003; Faez & Valeo, 2012).

Several limitations of this study deserve consideration. First, the beliefs and attitudes of Western-trained teachers cannot be generalized to local-trained teachers (Pu, 2010). Second, no classroom observation was conducted to see these teachers' actual teaching practice. Further research is needed to explore their teaching practice. In addition, the nature of online questionnaire surveys may have affected the quality of the collected data. However, follow-up interviews were conducted to mitigate this problem. The final limitation stems from the attempt to ask participants to recall their previous Western education experience and their impressions of CLT quite a long time later. Further longitudinal research, following Western-trained teachers from the point of graduation through their later teaching experiences, would capture a more genuine picture of their reflections (Faez & Valeo, 2012). Continuing research that includes the voices of teacher educators in Western programs, non-native students' perspectives on their Western-trained teachers, and other aspects of Western TESOL education (e.g. World Englishes) would be useful (Pu, 2010).

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The effect of task complexity in dialogic oral production by Indonesian EFL learners

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Abstract

In EFL settings opportunities to practice meaningful use of English are often limited and this is the case in Indonesia – the context of the current study - where teachers often favor traditional approaches to language learning. To address this, task based approaches to language teaching are being promoted internationally as a way to provide opportunities for language learning. This is because the use of tasks in an EFL classroom context provides learners with learning activities that reflect real life situations and language is used by learners in ways that are facilitative of their second language acquisition. However, many English

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language teachers are unsure of which tasks and tasks conditions are best for their learners. Informed by the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007), this study investigates the effect of manipulating different task conditions, namely planning time and the number of elements on L2 learner performance of dialogic tasks, as measured by complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF). 52 Indonesian learners of English performed four tasks, each involving different task conditions. The results only partially support the predictions of the Cognition Hypothesis. However, they do provide directions for teachers about how to use tasks to potentially promote learners' language performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency.

Key words: The cognition hypothesis, dialogic tasks, complexity, accuracy, and fluency

Introduction

The low levels of ability in spoken English among Asian students, particularly those coming from countries where English is a foreign language (EFL), are due primarily to the anxiety of speaking English and lack of speaking practice both inside and outside the classrooms (Na, 2007; Rahim, Ahmad, & Rosly, 2004; Tsai, 2003). This is also to the case for Indonesian students, the majority of whom have been reported as still being unable to speak English well after a number of years studying the language (Kasihani, 2010; Saragih, 2009; Setiyadi, 2009). This suggests that these learners might not have been provided with the type of learning opportunities that facilitate their development in English.

Task-based approaches (TBA), which primarily focus on meaning rather than on forms, are believed to facilitate learners' development of their language (Samuda and Bygate, 2008). This is because tasks provide learners with activities similar to a natural context and they promote the type of language use argued to facilitate second language acquisition (SLA) (Beaven, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In particular, and according to an interactionist approach (Long, 1996) tasks provide learners with opportunities for interaction and in doing so connects comprehensible input with "internal learner capacities, particularly attention, and output in productive ways" (p. 451-452).

Despite the obvious benefits, TBA have not been widely adopted in Indonesia. Instead, many teachers insist on their 'traditional practice', providing learners with linguistic rules and grammatical exercises rather than engaging them in meaningful speaking activities. As Luciana

(2005) points out, this may be due to teachers' lack of experience with TBA. Even when they attempt to use tasks they are unsure of which ones to use and what tasks conditions are best for their learners. Hence, they need direction to address these concerns and it is one aim of the current study to provide this information.

In recent years, research into TBA within SLA has burgeoned (e.g., Bygate, 2009; Gilabert, 2005; Gilabert, Baron, & Llanes, 2009; Robinson, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007a; Tavakoli & Foster 2011). In particular, a number of such studies have explored the effect of different task conditions (e.g., task complexity) on learners' language performance, with a number of such studies having been inspired by Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007).

The Cognition Hypothesis

To successfully adopt TBA, it is necessary to have learners undertake tasks and do so in an order that enables success. How this might be achieved is outlined by Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007a, 2007b, 2011) in his Cognition Hypothesis. A key part of this is the Triadic Componential Framework (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007a) which is composed of three parts: task complexity (cognitive factors), task conditions (interactive factors), and task difficulty (learner factors) all of which influence learners' L2 performance as measured by complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) as detailed in Figure 1.

Task complexity	Task conditions	Task difficulty
(Cognitive factors)	(Interactive factors)	**(Learner factors)**
a) resource-directing	a) participation variable	a) affective variables
e.g., +/– few elements	e.g., one-way/two-way	e.g., motivation
+/– here-and now	convergent/divergent	anxiety
+/– no reasoning demands	open/closed	confidence
b) resource-depleting	b) participant variables	b) ability variables
e.g., +/– planning	e.g., gender	e.g., aptitude
+/– single task	familiarity	proficiency
+/– prior knowledge	power/solidarity	intelligence
Sequencing criteria	--------------------------------	Methodological criteria
		on-line decision
Prospective decisions		about pairs and groups
about task unit		

Figure 1. Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework

According to Robinson, tasks should be designed and sequenced on the basis of task complexity because learner factors cannot be used to predict task difficulty in advance. However, the current study only focuses on the first two of these factors, that is, task complexity and task conditions. Although it is acknowledged that learner factors clearly have a role in task performance, in this study these were controlled rather than investigated.

Task complexity and task conditions, those factors that impact upon interaction and on learner performance are variously defined, as are the elements that make up each. For example, in relation to the element labeled familiarity (which depending on definition can be categorized as either task complexity or task condition) has been interpreted differently by different researchers. For example, Skehan (1998) defines it in terms of cognitive familiarity (i.e., familiarity with topic, discourse genre, and task), whereas Bygate (1999) refers to familiarity in terms of task repetition. On the other hand, Robinson's (2001a) interpretation of task familiarity refers the content of the tasks (e.g., familiarity with a route marked on a map). According to Robinson, learners are more likely to find it easier to perform tasks if they are familiar with the content or the topic of the task. Conversely, they may have difficulties if the content and/or the topic of the task are unfamiliar to them.

In this research the following definitions of 1) Task Complexity; and, 2) Task Conditions have been adopted:

1) Task complexity refers to cognitive factors that can be manipulated to increase or lessen learners' cognitive engagement when learners are performing tasks (Robinson, 2001).

This encompasses those dimensions labeled resource-depleting and resource-directing. With respect to the former, planning time is one key factor. Ellis (2005, p. 3) claims that 'planning is essentially a problem solving activity; it involves deciding what linguistic devices need to be selected in order to affect the audience in the desired way.' Planning is argued to be an effective way to reduce the cognitive load of demanding activities (Crookes, 1989; Ellis, 2003; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan, 1996). Further, it does seem that providing planning time facilitates improvement in learner language performance, as measured by CAF (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Ellis, 2005, 2009; Gilabert, 2005, 2007a, 2007b; Markee, & Kunitz, 2013; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Philp, Oliver, & Mackey, 2006; Yuan & Ellis, 2003, 2005).

In relation to the resource-directing dimension Robinson suggests three main components: +/–few elements, +/– reasoning demand, and +/– here and now. Among these, the manipulation of

the number of elements is regarded to be more inclusive than the other two components. This is because tasks which are manipulated according to number of elements may also involve the other two components of the resource-directing dimension, namely, giving reasons (+/– reasoning demands) and using present or past references (+/– here and now). It is also something that teachers can easily manipulate (e.g., adding in or taking away objects in a picture placement task or adding or subtracting differences in a 'spot the difference' task). For these reasons the current study focuses on the manipulation of planning time and a number of elements within the dialogic tasks.

2) Task conditions also involve interactive factors. Robinson (2001, 2003, 2005, 2007) specifies two types of task conditions or interactive factors, namely participation factors (interactional demands) and participant factors (interactant demands). The current study focuses on the first of these, and specifically the interactional demands related to dialogic (i.e., two way) tasks – including those that are simple and those that are more complex (based on the manipulation of task complexity factors, specifically the number of elements – as described above). Two way tasks have been chosen because it is proposed they stimulate learners' active participation in conversation because the communication burden is shared and one speaker does not dominate - ultimately leading to greater gains in learner improvement (Anton, 1999; Bell, 2003; Michel, Kuiken, & Vedder, 2007; Riggenbach, 1989). Again they are also the type of tasks that are readily available in teaching resources that promote communicative language teaching and TBA in particular. In contrast, one-way tasks are less interactive, and hence run counter to the communicative intent of many language classrooms.

Robinson (2003, p. 64) predicts that complex interactive (dialogic or two way) tasks will result in less fluent, but more accurate language production, but that simple dialogic tasks should generate more fluent language production, but decrease in accuracy. Robinson (2003, 2005, 2007) proposes that interactive, complex tasks will trigger learners to produce more comprehension checks and clarification requests which, in turn, will decrease syntactic complexity.

In addition, whilst previous studies based on Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis have mainly been conducted by manipulating only one dimension of Task Complexity, namely either the resource-directing dimension or the resource-depleting dimension, this is not the case in the current study. Usually either the number of elements (i.e., resource-directing dimension), or the "performative or procedural demands" (e.g., providing various amounts or even no planning time) have been manipulated, but not both at the same time. The current study seeks to do both.

A study by Robinson (2001a) is typical of such previous research: Monologic tasks were used and prior knowledge controlled, but the number of elements was adjusted to increase task complexity. The results showed that the complex task resulted in significantly less fluent oral production, but higher lexical complexity than the simple task. However, the complex task did not affect either accuracy or syntactic complexity. According to Robinson (2001a, p. 36), the nature of interactive tasks with many turn-takings and interruptions may "mitigate learners' attempts at using structurally complex language".

In contrast, a study undertaken by Kuiken and Vedder (2007) with 76 adult learners of French with differing proficiency levels found that increasing task complexity along the resource directing dimension did result in more accurate language production. In another study with 42 lower-intermediate students focusing on the resource directing dimension, Gilabert (2007b), manipulated three task components (+/– here and now, +/– few elements, and +/– few reasoning), and found the types of tasks did have a positive effect, not on accuracy, but on self-repair.

As indicated above, most studies have investigated only one dimension of task complexity at a time. Few studies have been conducted where two dimensions have been simultaneously investigated (e.g., +/- number of elements and +/- planning time). One notable exception is the study undertaken by Gilabert (2005) who simultaneously investigated the roles of planning time and present and past activities (here and now). In addition, most studies conducted within the parameters of the Cognition Hypothesis have been undertaken by controlling and using only one aspect of task condition, namely one way (monologic) rather than two way (dialogic) tasks (see Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2010; Foster & Skehan, 2009; Gilabert, 2005; Kormos & Trebits, 2012; Madarsara & Rahimi, 2015; Robinson, 2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007a; Saeedi, Ketabi, & Kazerooni, 2012; Tavakoli & Foster, 2011; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). However, a study undertaken by Michel, et al., (2007) did incorporate both types of tasks. Specifically, an examination was undertaken of the influence of the number of factors (+/– few elements) using both one way and two way tasks. The results showed that increasing task complexity resulted in more accurate, but less fluent oral production. Furthermore, the dialogic tasks triggered more accurate and more fluent oral production, but the production of syntax was less complex. As such the results of the study partially supported the cognition hypothesis.

Therefore, although numerous task-based studies have been conducted in ESL and EFL contexts, including those that manipulated task complexity, few, if any, empirical studies have been

undertaken where this has been simultaneously manipulated along two dimensions (i.e., resource-directing and the resource-depleting) using dialogic tasks rather than monologic tasks. The purpose of the current study is to address this gap.

On this basis, the current research sought to answer the following research question:

To what extent do dialogic tasks manipulated simultaneously along the resource-directing and the resource-depleting dimensions (i.e., planning time and the number of elements) affect the complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) of Indonesian EFL learner production?

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were first year students enrolled in an English Study Program (ESP) at a university in Indonesia. Based on the selection criteria for this program, administered through the national higher education entrance test (SNM-PTN), proficiency levels were deemed to be relatively similar. However, to ensure this was the case, the English proficiency test (EPT) was also administered. Based on these test results, four potential participants were excluded due to them having markedly different EPT scores compared to the remainder of the cohort. In addition, two others were excluded as they participated in the trials of the instruments, and the other two were absent during the data collection without prior notification. This resulted in a total of 52 participants being available for the study: 14 were male and 38 were female and all were aged between 18 and 20 years. They had all formally studied English at high school for six years, and for approximately six months had studied ESP at the university level. However, to ensure their proficiency levels were similar, the English proficiency test (EPT) was administered to 60 potential participants before the research was conducted.

Tasks

The participants completed four tasks in total which were manipulated simultaneously along the resource-directing (i.e., the number of elements, +/– few elements) and the resource-depleting dimensions (i.e., +/– planning time) in the following way:

> Task 1 + planning time and + few elements
> Task 2 – planning time and + few elements
> Task 3 + planning time and –few elements

Task 4 – planning time and – few elements

Following Robinson's categorization of task complexity, the tasks of the current study were developed from the simplest task (Task 1) to the most complex task (Task 4). The topics of the tasks – Blackberry Mobile phones and Houses for Rent – were selected because they reflect the life experiences of the participants. In addition, the topics of the tasks allowed for easy manipulation of the planned and unplanned conditions.

The tasks were piloted and based on this the tasks were amended slightly for clarity. The final versions of the tasks are shown in Appendices 1 – 4.

Procedure

Before the data collection began, the participants were randomly paired. This was done by matching each learner with the person who appeared next on the attendance document. Next, each pair performed the tasks with the researcher in attendance and their roles as speakers the speakers (A and B) were alternated in all four levels of tasks. The tasks were undertaken by all the pairs in sequential order, starting with the two simple tasks (Tasks 1 & 2) and then followed by the complex tasks (Tasks 3 & 4). Each task was performed on average for 8 minutes. The shortest duration for performing the task was 2 minutes and 12 seconds (Task 1) and the longest duration was 15 minutes and 16 seconds (Task 4). As the learners performed the tasks, they were audio recorded using a digital recorder. These recordings were then transcribed using regular orthography and coded for various CAF measures as described in section 2.4.1.

Data Analysis
Coding

The participants' oral production were coded and then analyzed on the basis of CAF. To undertake the coding, the participants' utterances were coded manually, in which the utterances were scrutinized and then designated a coding according to each aspect of CAF measure. For example, the clause for the complexity measure in terms of syntactic complexity was coded by "AS" referring to the analysis of speech units. This procedure was also applied to Accuracy and Fluency measures.

The measures adopted in this study were similar to those used by Michel et al. (2007) and included:

Complexity: Both syntactic and lexical complexity were calculated and done so in the following way:

1) Syntactic Complexity was calculated manually by determining the AS-Units (the analysis of speech units). This was used instead of T or C-Units because the interactional nature of the data meant that it consisted of many non-syntactic segments (Foster, Tonkin, & Wigglesworth, 2000; Norris & Ortega, 2009).

2) Lexical Complexity was calculated in two ways:

   i. Percentage of Lexical Words to a Total Number of Words using the Conversation Analysis Mode of CHILDES (MacWhiney, 2000).

   ii. Guiraud's Index of Lexical Richness was also calculated using CHILDES. Both measures of Lexical Complexity were commonly used in the previous studies (Gilabert 2005; Michel et al. 2007).

Accuracy was calculated manually by determining three aspects as shown in Table 1:

Table 1
Accuracy Measures

No	Accuracy Measures
1	The percentage of Error-Free clauses $$\frac{\text{Number of Error-Free AS-units}}{\text{Number of AS-Units}} \times 100$$
2	1) Percentage of Self-Repairs was calculated as: $$\frac{\text{Number of Self-Repairs}}{\text{Number of Errors}} \times 100$$
3	Percentage of Repaired Errors to Unrepaired Errors: $$\frac{\text{Number of Repaired Errors}}{\text{Number of Unrepaired Errors}} \times 100$$

Fluency was again calculated manually, ascertaining firstly the Unpruned Speech Rate A and then Pruned Speech Rate B as presented in Table 2 (Gilabert, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003).

1) To calculate Speech Rate A, the number of syllables used per minute was determined, with the following rules applied. In the current study, a syllable is taken to refer to any "syllable type" of English as elaborated by McKay (2004). These syllable types include a single

vowel (V), and vowel consonant clusters, such as, VC, CV, CVC, CVCC, CCVCC, and CCCVCCC.

2) Speech Rate B was also calculated in a similar way to Speech Rate A, but syllables which appeared as repetitions, self-corrections, false starts, and in Indonesian or local words were excluded.

Table 2
Fluency Measures

No	Fluency Measures
1	Speech Rate A $$\frac{\text{Number of Syllables}}{\text{Total number of seconds}} \times 60$$
2	Speech Rate B $$\frac{\text{Number of Syllables}}{\text{Total number of second}} \times 60$$

Reliability

Twenty percent of the data were re-coded by a second rater. Inter-rater reliability was then calculated for each measure, showing sufficiently high levels of reliability (i.e., percentage agreement was 85% or higher). (See Appendix 5 for individual scores).

Statistical analysis

The CAF measures for each of the four tasks were compared using Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) (Pallant, 2007). The comparisons were then made according to the characteristics of the tasks (i.e., +/- planning time and +/- few elements). Multivariate analysis was then used to examine the effects of the four levels of the tasks on the participants' spoken performance in terms of CAF.

Results

CAF measures for the Four Tasks

As can be seen in Table 3 the performance of the four tasks resulted in different mean scores on the various CAF measures.

Table 3
Means of CAF for the four levels of Tasks

Task/Measure	Task 1 (+ planning time/+ few elements)	Task 2 (– planning time/+ few elements)	Task 3 (+ planning time/–few elements)	Task 4 (– planning time/– few elements)
Complexity				
Syntactic: AS-Units	1.54	1.65	1.41	1.42
Lexical: % of Lexical Words to a Total Number of Words	18.84	19.40	16.77	17.03
Guiraud's Index of Lexical Richness	5.93	5.97	5.93	5.82
Accuracy				
% of Error-Free Clauses	48.74	47.17	50.89	46.33
% of Self-Repairs	7.54	2.20	1.45	5.61
Ratio of Repaired Errors to Unrepaired Errors	9.90	2.41	1.58	7.03
Fluency				
Unpruned Speech Rate A	126.23	122.11	122.73	125.01
Pruned Speech Rate B	115.99	104.97	112.65	117.87

Next, the difference between the four levels of task difficulty on CAF measures was tested using Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and then multivariate analysis was undertaken to determine the main effects size. This was done using Wilks' Lambda because the

value of sphericity in the current study was violated (Pallant, 2007, p. 255). These results are reported in Table 4.

Table 4
Repeated measures ANOVA: main effects of different levels of tasks for CAF measures

Measures		Wilks' Lamda	F-value	*p*-value	η
Complexity	Syntactic complexity	.507	15.894	.000*	.493
	Percentage of Lexical words	.523	14.896	.000*	.477
	Guiraud's Index	.934	1.162	.334	.066
Accuracy	Error-Free-AS-Unit	.825	3.465	.023*	.175
	Percentage of Self-Repairs	.660	8.398	.000*	.340
	Ratio of Repaired to Unrepaired	.693	7.237	.000*	.307
Fluency	Speech Rate A	.966	.566	.640	.034
	Speech Rate B	.723	6.244	.001*	.277

*p< 0.05, η= Partial Eta Square

As can be seen from Table 4, there was a statistically significant effect for six out of eight aspects of CAF measures (p<0.05), namely, two of the Complexity measures (Syntactic Complexity and Percentage of Lexical Words), three Accuracy measures (Error-Free AS-Units, Percentage of Self-Repairs, and Ratio of Self-Repaired to Unrepaired Errors), and one Fluency measure (Speech Rate B). In contrast, there were no significant differences between the tasks for the two CAF measures namely Guiraud's Index of Lexical Richness and Fluency as measured by Unpruned Speech Rate A.

For those measures that were significantly different, the results show a large effect size (i.e., the values of Partial Eta Squared obtained from the multivariate tests were higher than .14) and based on this, it does appear that planning time and the number of elements affected the learners' performance. The following sections explore this in detail.

Comparing Planned and Unplanned Tasks

This section reports on the apparent effect (as measured by CAF) of the planned and unplanned conditions for both simple tasks (Tasks 1 and 2) and complex tasks (Tasks 3 and 4). First the results of Complexity measures for the comparison of Tasks 1 and 2, and Tasks 3 and 4 are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Mean differences of planned and unplanned tasks for Complexity Measures

Comparison	Syntactic Complexity	Percentage of Lexical Words	Guiraud's Index
Planned Simple Task (Task 1) and Unplanned Simple Task (Task 2)	–0.11*	–0.56	–0.40
Planned Complex Task (Task 3) and Unplanned Complex Task (Task 4)	– 0.01	–0.26	0.11

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As shown in Table 5, Syntactic Complexity was only significantly different for unplanned simple task (Task 1) (0.11, p<0.05). That is, providing ten minute planning time resulted in increased complexity in the participants' oral production. However, this only occurred when the tasks were simple. As the tasks were done in order, it may be that the repetition reduced the impact of planning for the complex tasks. That is planning for Tasks 1 resulted in differences with Task 2 because the tasks were relatively novel, however, by the time the participants performed Task 3 and 4 repetition meant that planning had less bearing on the complexity of the learners output.

Next, the results of different accuracy means of Tasks 1 and 2, and Tasks 3 and 4 are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Mean differences of planned and unplanned tasks for three Accuracy Measures

Comparison	Error-Free AS-Units	Percentage of Self-Repairs to Number of Errors	Ratio of Self- Repaired to Unrepaired
Planned Simple Task (Task 1) and Unplanned Simple Task (Task 2)	1.58	5.34*	7.49*
Planned Complex Task (Task 3) and Unplanned Complex Task (Task 4)	4.55*	− 4.16*	−5.45*

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

As can be seen from Table 6, although there was no significant difference between Task 1 and 2 in terms of accuracy, Task 3 did generate more accurate oral production in terms of Error-Free AS-Units compared to Task 4 (4.55, $p<0.05$). When Accuracy is measured as a Percentage of Self-Repairs and the Ratio of Repaired to Unrepaired Errors, the results indicate that the planned simple task (Task 1) generated more accurate oral production than the unplanned simple task (Task 2) (5.34, $p<0.05$). This contrasts the findings of the comparison between Task 3 and 4 where it is found that the unplanned complex task (Task 4) actually resulted in more accurate oral output than the planned complex task (Task 3).

Next the results of the comparisons of fluency measures for Tasks 1 and 2, and Tasks 3 and 4 are shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Mean differences of planned and unplanned tasks for two Fluency Measures

Comparison	Unpruned Speech Rate A	Pruned Speech Rate B
Planned Simple Task (Task 1) and Unplanned Simple Task (Task 2)	4.11	11.02*
Planned Complex Task (Task 3) and Unplanned Complex Task (Task 4)	–2.28	–5.22

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

When measured using Speech Rate B, the participants' fluency was only significantly different for planned task (Task 1) compared to unplanned simple task (Task 2), (11.02, $p<0.05$). Therefore, it would seem that although providing planning time may increase fluency for simple tasks, when the tasks are complex, planning time has little or no effect at all.

Comparing Simple and Complex Tasks

Next the comparison of CAF measures for the simple and complex tasks (+/– few elements), namely, Tasks 1 and 3, and Tasks 2 and 4 are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Mean differences of simple and complex tasks for Complexity measures

Comparison	Syntactic Complexity	Percentage of Lexical Words	Giuraud's Index
Planned Simple Task (Task 1) and Planned Complex Task (Task 3)	0.13*	2.10*	.003
Unplanned Simple Task (Task 2) and Unplanned Complex Task (Task 4)	0.23*	2.37*	0.15

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

As can be seen from Table 8, the syntactic constructions as measured by Syntactic Complexity and the Percentage of Lexical Words for the simple and complex tasks in both the planned and unplanned conditions (Tasks 1 and 2) were significantly different. That is, changing the number of elements affected the complexity of the learners' oral production, at least with respect to syntax and lexical diversity

In terms of Accuracy, the results of comparisons of Tasks 1 and 3, and Tasks 2 and 4 are presented in Table 9.

Table 9
Mean differences of simple and complex tasks for three Accuracy measures

Comparison	Error-Free AS-Units	Percentage of Self-Repairs to Number of Errors	Ratio of Self-Repaired to Unrepaired
Planned Simple Task (Task 1) and Planned Complex Task (Task 3)	–2.15	6.08*	8.32*
Unplanned Simple Task (Task 2) and Unplanned Complex Task (Task 4)	0.83	–3.41*	–4.62*

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

As can be seen the planned simple (Task 1) and unplanned complex tasks (Task 4) were significantly different in terms of Percentage of Self-Repaired to Errors, and the Ratio of Self-Repairs to Errors, but not significantly different as measured by Error-Free AS-Units. As such these results only partly confirm the Cognition Hypothesis. That is, manipulating tasks along the resource-directing dimensions (i.e., number of elements) affects the accuracy of language production.

With respect to Fluency, the comparisons of the simple and complex tasks within the planned and unplanned conditions (Tasks 1 and 3, and Tasks 2 and 4) are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Mean differences of simple and complex tasks for two Fluency measures

Comparison	Unpruned Speech Rate A	Pruned Speech Rate B
Planned Simple Task (Task 1) and Planned Complex Task (Task 3)	3.50	3.34
Unplanned Simple Task (Task 2) and Unplanned Complex Task (Task 4)	2.90	−12.90*

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 10 shows that the only the unplanned complex task (Task 4) (12.90, p<0.05) triggered the participants to generate more fluent oral production as measured by Speech Rate B. Therefore, with respect to Fluency when no planning time is provided, it appears that complex tasks enable participants to generate more fluent oral production.

From the results described above it would seem that there is a complex interrelationship between the conditions of complexity (+/− number of elements) and planning.

In summary, the results of the current study show:

1) 6/8 measures showed significant differences (with large effect size) based on task conditions.

2) Planning time led to increased complexity (simple task only), accuracy (simple task only with planning, complex task with no planning), and fluency (simple task only).

3) Number of elements led to increased complexity (on syntax and lexical measure), accuracy (simple task only with planning, complex task with no planning), and fluency (complex task with no planning only).

Discussion

Theoretically, the current findings only provide partial support for the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2003, 2005). It may be that the context of the current study – namely an EFL setting with learners who are offered limited opportunities for language practice – affected the results. However, it may also be that the manipulation of both the resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions at the same time and with the repetition of the task may have contributed to the current results. Further research needs to be carefully designed to take these aspects into

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account. Even so the current findings are consistent with those of Mehnert (1998), and Yuan and Ellis (2003, 2005). Clearly there is still a great deal more research to do, particularly in different contexts.

It is also possible that the repetition resulted in greater familiarity with task which in turn facilitated participants to generate more oral complex production when performing the unplanned simple and complex tasks (see Table 5). In this way the current findings do provide additional support for Bygate's (1999, p. 41) argument that task repetition leads to better language performance because it provides learners with "the time and awareness to shift attention from message content to the selection and monitoring of appropriate language", and this shift in attention might enable the participants to retrieve more of their current L2 knowledge leading to greater complexity.

The simple tasks both in planned and unplanned conditions generated more complex syntactic constructions (see Table 8) which is in agreement with the predictions of the Cognition Hypothesis Robinson (2001a) and are also similar to the results found by Michel et al. (2007). However, the findings regarding Guiraud's Index contradict those of previous studies (Robinson, 2001a; Michel et al., 2007) as no significant differences were found. It is possible that the use of dialogic tasks in the current study rather than monologic tasks, as in Robinson's (2001a) study, may account for these different results. In fact, Robinson (2003, 2005) and Michel, Kuiken, and Vedder (2007) argue that the dialogic (interactive) tasks, especially complex ones, are commonly characterized by highly interactional conversation (i.e. a lot of turn-taking and clarification requests). This condition may disperse the learners' attention from what they have planned to say and, consequently, they produce simpler clauses as well as less varied lexis (Robinson, 2003, 2005; Michel et al., 2007).

With respect to Accuracy providing learners with ten minute planning time did lead to more accurate oral production when the task was simple, that is, within the resource-directing dimensions (+ *few elements*), yet when the task was complex, no planning time actually resulted in greater accuracy. In this way these findings contradict the Cognition Hypothesis which predicts lack of planning time prior to performing tasks may "create problems for learners attempting to access their current repertoire of L2 knowledge" (Robinson, 2005, p. 7). Again, it is possible that the increase in fluency for Task 4 was due to the impact of task repetition, as suggested by Bygate (1999) and because of the "familiarity with the tasks" as argued by Skehan (1998).

The current findings (as shown in Table 9) partly confirm the Cognition Hypothesis. That is,

the complex task manipulated along the resource-directing dimensions (i.e., – *few elements)* led to an increase in the accuracy of language production. However, the increase in accuracy as measured by Error-Free AS-Units was only confirmed for Task 3 (as compared to Task 1). In contrast, Accuracy in terms of Percentage of Self-Repairs and Ratio of Repaired Errors only occurred for the complex task with the unplanned condition (Task 4) compared to the simple unplanned task (Task 2). These findings are, in the main, similar to those in the study by Michel et al. (2007), that is, complex dialogic tasks generated more accurate oral production as measured by Error-Free As-Units, and Ratio of Repaired Errors, but it produced less accurate oral output as evidenced by a lower Percentage of Self-Repairs.

In this study the students' oral performance in terms of Fluency also only partly confirm the Cognition Hypothesis, which predicts that increasing complexity by decreasing planning time also decreases fluency. Further, the statistically significant increase of fluency as measured by Speech Rate B for Task 4 (over Task 2) again might be due to the familiarity (i.e., repetition) of performing the previous tasks. These findings are in line with Skehan's (1998) concept of task difficulty, that is, learners' degree of familiarity with the nature of tasks or the topic will contribute to their level of difficulty in performing tasks. These findings are also largely in agreement with the study of Michel et al. (2007) that simple dialogic tasks, that is, with few elements to compare, have the potential to generate more fluent oral production.

In short, dialogic tasks promote more fluent, accurate, and complex language production when both the resource-directing and the resource-dispersing dimensions are made simple (requiring less cognitive engagement). That is, there are few elements to discuss and learners are given time to plan (ten minute planning time) prior to performing tasks. Moreover, it does seem that dialogic complex tasks (cognitively more demanding) helps learners to improve their language performance in terms of CAF, particular when learners become familiar with doing similar tasks by repeating them, albeit under different conditions.

Conclusion

The findings of the current study do provide some degree of support for the claims by Robinson in his Cognition Hypothesis – namely that resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions (i.e. number of elements and planning time) in tasks impact on learners' oral production in terms of CAF, however, given the complex pattern of results this support is not unequivocal. This may be

because, unlike previous research which investigated these constructs separately, the current research examined these simultaneously and did so using dialogic rather than monologic tasks. Further, it was found that the manipulation of these cognitive factors alone was not sufficient to account for learners' performance. Instead what emerged is that a number of interrelated factors, including those described within the Triadic Componential Framework (e.g. task conditions or interactive factors) also have a role to play. As such these various factors need to be considered when designing and sequencing pedagogical tasks.

This study did show that repeating similar tasks led the participants to improve their language production even when the task was made more complex. This is something teachers may consider when providing learners with tasks of a similar type. Based on the theories of Robinson, Bygate and Skehan, teachers may structure tasks so that learners repeat tasks, moving from simple (less cognitively demanding) to those that are more complex (more cognitively demanding) and in this way learners can be supported to produce output of greater complexity, accuracy and fluency. As such the findings of this study provide direction for Indonesian EFL teachers and syllabus writers about designing pedagogical tasks, and factors to consider in their sequence of presentation.

In a broader sense this study demonstrates the potential of TBA for English language teaching in Indonesia. It shows that a shift from "synthetic" practices of language teaching, which solely focus on forms (e.g. through traditional grammar teaching) to TBA is indeed possible with Indonesian EFL learners. The data showed that by using tasks teachers can provide opportunities for learners focus on meaning as well as develop their English speaking ability. In addition, it was found that tasks provided students with communicative opportunities that kept them stimulated and using English in authentic ways. This is in line with the claim by Long (1991, p. 41) that "to learn a language is not by treating it as an object of study, but by experiencing it as a medium of communication". Adopting such an approach may address the current shortcomings of teaching English at all education levels in Indonesia which is generally regarded as unsuccessful (Setyadi, 2009; Saragih, 2009; Kasihani, 2010).

It is acknowledged that this is an initial study and clearly there is a need for much further research, especially in relation to task complexity (cognitive factors) - both the resource-directing (i.e., +/- few elements) and the recourse-dispersing (i.e., +/- planning time) dimensions. Further investigations, again using dialogic tasks would also be beneficial, reflecting classroom practice in a way that the previous reliance in research on monologic tasks do not.

As with most research, although a number of measures were put into place to ensure reliable and valid data, the current study does have limitations. One factor that needs to be considered in future research relates to the issue of familiarity with doing the tasks. Although an attempt was made to minimize the effect of repetition, it did seem the way the tasks were presented may have influenced the results of the current study. A counter-balanced design should be used in the future. The topics may also have influenced the type of language produced by the participants. Further replication research is warranted using alternative topics. As language pedagogy increasingly becomes task based or at the very least task oriented, there is a real need for such research to provide practitioners with guidelines for the implementation of such an approach.

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Appendinces

Appendix 1

The planned Simple Task (Task 1)

Both of you are planning to buy a mobile phone (Blackberry) as a gift for your friend's birthday. Please discuss in pairs the two different types of blackberries, comparing and arguing every detailed specification of the two types of Blackberries. Which would be the best mobile phone for you to buy.

Blackberry Onyx white	Blackberry Bold
Specifications:	**Specifications:**
Price: Rp.4.450.000	**Price:** Rp.3.750.000
Size (mm): length:109, width: 60, and thickness: 14.	**Size:** dimensions (mm): length:114, width:66, thickness:14
Wight: 133g	**Wight:** 122g
Ringtones: plyponic, MP3	**Ringtones:** polyponic, MP3
Memory: card slot 16 GB	**Memory:** card slot 128MB
Features: Messaging:SMS, MMS, email	**Features:** Messaging:SMS, MMS, email
Camera: 3.00 Mega pixel	**Camera:** 3.15 Mega pixel
Battery: standby up to 480 hours.	**Battery:** standby up to 310 hours.
Talk time: up to 6 hours	**Talk time**: up to 5 hours

Appendix 2

The Unplanned Simple Task (Task 2)

Both of you are trying to find a house for rent and to share. Please discuss the two types of houses by comparing and giving your opinion of every single detailed specification of the two houses. Please decide which would the best house for you to rent according to your discussion.

Arjuna Type	*Bima Type*
Facilities: 2 small bedrooms including desk and chairs , 1 guest room, kitchen, 1 bathroom, small front and rear gardens **Price:** R p. 600.000 per month *including* electricity and water **Location:**thirty minutes walking to university, close to bus station, and a shopping centre.	**Facilities:** 2 large bedrooms including matress, 1 guest room, kitchen, 2 bathrooms, small front and large rear gardens. **Price:** Rp. 750.000 per month' *excluding* electricity and water **Location**: ten minutes walking to university, close to a sport center, and a restaurant

Appendix 3

The Planned Complex Task (Task 3)

Both of you are planning to buy a mobile phone (Blackberry) as a gift for your friend's birthday. Please discuss in pairs the six different types of Blackberries, comparing and arguing every detailed specification of the two types of Blackberries. Which would be the best mobile phone for you to buy?

lackberry 8830	Blackberry 6230	Blackberry Pearl 8100
Price: Rp.2750.000 **Color** :Blue **Camera:** 2.0 Mega Pixel **Size (mm):** length:1113, width: 75, and thickness: 20. **Weight:** 125 g **Features:** SMS & Email **Ringtone:** Polyphonic, No MP3 **Memory:** RAM:1MB **Battery:** standby:380 hours **Talk Time:** 5 hours	**Price:** Rp.3000.000 **Color** :Red **Camera:** 2.15 Mega Pixel **Size (mm):** length:114, width: 66, and thickness: 14. **Weight:** 120 g **Features:** SMS, MMS, Email **Ringtone:** Polyphonic, MP3 **Memory:** RAM:1MB **Battery:** standby: 350 hours **Talk Time:** 4 hours	**Price:** Rp.3500.000 **Color** : White **Camera:** 2.50 Mega Pixel **Size (mm):** length:107, width: 50, and thickness: 15. **Weight:** 90 g **Features:** SMS, MMS, Email **Ringtone:** Polyphonic, MP3 **Memory:** 1 MB **Battery :** standby: 360 **Talk Time:** 4.5 hours

Blackberry 8520	9650 Bold	Bb Curve 3G
Price: Rp.4000.000 **Color** :Black **Camera:** 3.0 Mega Pixel **Size (mm):** length:110, width: 60, and thickness: 13. **Weight:** 115 g **Features:** SMS, MMS, Email **Ringtone :** Polyphonic, MP3, IM **Battery: standby:** 400 **Talk Time** : 5 hours	**Price:** Rp.450.000 **Color** :Black **Camera:** 3.5 Mega Pixel **Size(mm):** length:114, width: 65, and thickness: 14. **Weight:** 110 g **Features:** SMS, MMS, Email, IM, Games **Ringtone** Polyphonic, MP3,WMA9 **Battery: standby:450 hours** **Talk Time** : 5 hours	**Price:** Rp.5000.000 **Color** :Black **Camera:** 4.00 Mega Pixel **Size (mm):** length:109, width: 60, and thickness: 14. **Weight:** 118 g **Features:** SMS, MMS, Email, IM, Games **Ringtone:** Polyphonic, MP3,WMA9 **Battery: standby:** 500 hours **Talk Time** : 5.5 hours

Appendix 4

The Unplanned Complex Task (Task 4)

Both of you are trying to find a house for rent and to share. Please discuss the six types of houses by comparing and giving your opinion of every single detailed specification of the six houses. Please decide which would the best house for you to rent according to your discussion.

Type 22/70	*Type 30/78*	*Type 36/84*
Facilities: 1 large bedroom with a fan, 1 studying room including desks and chairs, 1 bathroom, kitchen, and no car port **Location:**close to the post office and university **Price:** Rp. 400.000/month *excluding* electricity and water	**Facilities:** 2small bedrooms, lounge including desks and chairs, 1 bathroom, kitchen, and no carport **Location:** close to bus station and local library **Price:** Rp. 600.000/month *including* electricity and water	**Facilities:** 2 bed rooms with matrass, a lounge, 2 bathrooms, kitchen, and carport **Location:** close to bus station and shopping center **Price:** Rp 700.000/month *including* electricity and water

Superior Type 30/70	Deluxe Type 40/91	Mansion Type 50/120
Facilities: 1 large bedroom with matrass, 1 studying room including desks and chairs, a lounge, a kitchen, 1 bathroom, and a carport **Location:** close to university and bus station **Price**: Rp. 500.00/month *excluding* electricity and water	**Facilities**: 2 small bedrooms with matrass,a lounge, a kitchen, a bath room, and a carport **Location:** close to sport center and bus station **price:** Rp. 700.000/month *excluding* electricity and water	**Facilities:** 2 large bed rooms with matrass, a lounge with desks and chairs, a kitchen, 2 bathrooms, and carport **Location:** close to universityand hospital **Price:** Rp 900.000/month *excluding* elctricity and water

Appendix 5

Inter-rater reliability

The percentage of interrater agreement for three measures in terms of CAF

	Measures	Percentage
Complexity	Syntactic Complexity: Percentage of Error-Free AS-Units	90
	Lexical Complexity: Percentage of Lexical Words to a Total Number of Words	95
	Guiraud's Index of Lexical Richness	95
Accuracy	Percentage of Error-Free AS-Clauses/Units	90
	Percentage of Self-Repairs	85
	Ratio of Repaired Errors to Unrepaired Errors	85
Fluency	Speech Rate A	95
	Speech Rate B	95

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Voices from international Chinese students on varieties of English: A mixed methods study

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Bio data

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Abstract

The current study explored the experiences with and attitudes toward various English varieties among international Chinese students, matriculated in either undergraduate or graduate levels in a western Pennsylvanian university. In the era of globalization, English has been disseminated around the world and generated different English varieties as a result, but the lack of language awareness among English learners/users is common in many countries where English is spoken as a foreign language (EFL), mainly due to the prevalent standard/native[1] English fallacy and limited exposure to English varieties in those countries. In response, this study, relying on a mixed-method design, included both survey and semi-structured interview data. The emphasis was on the comparisons and contrasts of international Chinese students' experiences with diverse Englishes prior to and after their arrivals in the United States. The purpose of the study was to shed light on the burgeoning need to change the status quo and stereotypes with respect to the superiority of "native" Englishes. Also, this study aimed to raise the critical language awareness of English among

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[1] The word *native* is used with quotations throughout the article to indicate the problem in using the word to describe Englishes spoken in the US, UK, and other countries within the inner circle.

English learners in China and other countries which share similar situations in English teaching with China.

Keywords: English varieties, language awareness, native English fallacy, mixed methods, critical language awareness

Introduction

This paper focuses on world Englishes and relative values[2] attached to different Englishes in the global world. This study was carried out to demystify what is meant by standardized English and to liberate English learners so that they are freer to embrace linguistic and cultural diversity, without a sense of inferiority or superiority imposed upon diverse Englishes. This study was justified to respond to a noticeable increase of English learners who study English as a second or foreign language, and a trending phenomenon of overseas students to "native" English speaking countries for various purposes, primarily for educational pursuits. Based upon the Open Doors Report ("Institute of International Education," 2015), in 2014-2015, 64 % of the international students in the U.S. came from Asia, including 42.9% from East Asia, including China, Japan, and South Korea. It has been reported that China has had over 200 million students learning English in schools (or about 20% of the total in the world), and this number is expected to increase (Deng, 2006; Pan & Block, 2011). Also, China has been the leading source of international students to four key global market share players—the U.S., the UK, Australia, and Canada. According to Fischer (2014), "in 2013-14, Chinese students accounted for almost 60 percent of the foreign-student growth at American colleges," and a vivid analogy given was "one of every three international students in the United States holds a Chinese passport" (para. 3); In 2014-2015, Chinese international students in the U.S. have increased in number to 11%, and China acknowledges its position in the world as the largest source of international students in the U.S. ("Institute of International Education", 2015). This surge of Chinese students into U.S. higher education indicates the importance of understanding Chinese students' experiences with and attitudes towards English varieties prior to and after their arrivals in the U.S. Therefore, the main research question that guided the present study asked, "What were international Chinese students'

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[2] The idea of value refers to languages' embodied social, economic, political, and cultural weight in the world market.

experiences of and attitudes toward varieties of English prior to and after their arrivals in the U.S.?" This main research question was further divided into four sub-questions to guide the survey and three sub-questions to guide the interview data- collection methods, as shown below.

Sub-questions for survey data collection:

1. Were participants only exposed to standardized British and American English in China?

2. What different types of English were participants exposed to while in China?

3. What different types of English were participants exposed to while in the U.S.?

4. What attitudes toward different Englishes and their speakers did participants hold?

Sub-questions for interview data collection:

1. What prior English training in China, both formally and informally, did participants receive?

2. What experiences with other types of English did participants have?

3. How did their experiences with different Englishes in the U.S. affect their attitudes toward those Englishes and their own accents?

The sub-questions for the survey were general to capture the overall experiences that the participants had with different Englishes. The sub-questions for the interview data collection focused more on the history of the individuals' English learning experiences as well as their attitudinal changes toward different Englishes. However, the two research methods were expected to generate a comprehensive understanding of experiences participants had with varieties of English related to attitudinal changes (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

Literature Review

This review of literature subsumed three components. First, it defined the key term "varieties of English"; second, it discussed what had been written pertaining to EFL learners' attitudes toward varieties of English in the literature; last, it analyzed the utilization of research methods by previous studies on this topic.

Varieties of English

While globalization has shrunken space and time and obscured borderlines, globalization has also increased diversity and multiplicity around the world. English, as an example, has become the most recognized "Western" language and lingua franca in the world for various purposes, including

international conferences, multinational business trades, and transnational organizations; and tourism, Pop music, and TV channels across regions (Coupland, 2010; Mufwene, 2010). Based on a recent report from the British council, there were 375 million "native" English speakers and 375 million speakers of English as a second language; however, there were over 1.5 billion speakers of English as foreign language around the world (Ellen, 2015). This prevalence of English learned and taught around the world resonates with Pan and Block's (2011) study, which showed that English has been perceived as a necessity for national development and for economic advancement, a means to be connected with the world and an access to power in the world.

English being widely taught and learned in the world gave rise to English varieties in divergent contexts other than just "native" English speaking countries. Those varieties of English were generated through adaptation, modification, destabilization, and transformation from the assumed monolithic English language (Ricento, 2010). Based upon different regions where different Englishes were spoken, various Englishes subsumed Chinese English in China (for the difference between Chinese English and Chinglish, see Zhang, 2008), Indian English in India (Fuchs, 2016), Singapore English in Singapore (Yoneoka, 2000), Malay English in Malaysia (Baskaran, 2004), Nigerian English in Nigeria (Gut, 2008), and Sri Lankan English in Sri Lanka (Bernaisch, 2013). This emergent labeling of local linguistic diversity of English has corroborated Crystal's (2003) argument that the ownership of English needed to be questioned as its wide establishment cut its connection with a single nation. In other words, English should not be considered a sole possession by "native" English speaking countries, including the UK, the US, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand (Zhang, 2008).

Consequently, with the advent of different Englishes in the world, the idea of "World English" has emerged. Kubota and Ward (2000) coined the plural linguistic diversity of English as "World English," which varied "in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, idioms, and rhetorical styles" (p.80). That is, English has become a plural form, and English was no longer one country's possession, intimating that English was a repertoire of cultures that were identifiable to specific communities, along with the continued expansion of the English reservoir as part of the nature of language development. For instance, Chinese English has been recognized as a legitimate variation of English that indexed the Chinese linguistic and cultural background, like the expression of the *Cultural Revolution* and *Majong.* No English counterparts existed to accurately convey those meanings, making Chinese English able to facilitate expressions of local culture in the language of

English to the world (Zhang, 2008). The same can be said regarding Malaysian English and Korean English, in which English was developed and institutionalized as a "recognized variety of English functioning locally" and internationally (Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011, p. 399).

EFL Learners' Attitudes Toward Varieties of English

With the increased recognition of plurality among English languages, many different Englishes have been accepted and used widely; however, not all English varieties have been given equal value in the world market (Coupland, 2010). To understand the unequal distribution of value to different Englishes, many scholars have examined English learners' attitudes toward different Englishes to explore the issues of discrimination and (self) marginalization related to less popular Englishes and their speakers. Among those studies regarding attitudes toward English varieties, plenty of them were about EFL learners' attitudes on English varieties in various contexts, including in European EFL contexts (e.g., Dalton-puffer, Kaltenboeck, & Smith, 1997; Jarvella et al., 2001; Ladegaard, 1998; Ladegaard & Sachdev, 2006; Stephan, 1997), in south-American EFL contexts (e.g., Friedrich, 2000, 2003), and in Asian contexts.

Among those EFL contexts, Asian EFL contexts had been studied assiduously and thoroughly, such as in the context of Japan (e.g., Chiba & Yamamoto, 1994; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b), in China (e.g., Evans, 2010; Fang, 2016; Xu, Wang, & Case, 2010; Zhang, 2008; Zhang & Wu, 2011; Zhou & Chen, 2008;), in South Korea (e.g., Gibb, 1999; Lee & Green, 2016; Yook & Lindemann, 2012), and in India (Bernaisch & Koch, 2016; Miah & Zhang, 2012). The results of those studies illustrated that some English varieties were more likely to be welcomed and admired than others. For example, standardized [3] "native" varieties were more favorable and desirable than less standardized ones (Jarvella et al., 2001; McKenzie, 2004; Zhang & Hu, 2008). In Zhang and Hu's (2008) study, Chinese students' attitudes toward three "native" varieties of English: American English (AmE), British English (BrE), and Australia English (AuE) showed that the participants had more positive attitudes toward AmE and BrE than AuE and could more accurately identify AmE and BrE than AuE. This was attributed to the familiarity with and level of exposure to those Englishes through textbooks and mass media. However, the sweeping tendency shown in most prior studies has been that EFL learners were more likely to have positive attitudes toward "native"

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[3] Although what is standardized English is controversial and many studies utilized this term as granted, in this study, standardized English refers to English used in textbooks, which is either American English or British English.

English varieties and were in favor of the accents of those "native" English varieties as their models to imitate (e.g., Zhang & Wu, 2011; Zhou & Chen, 2008).

Compared with other non-native Englishes (such as China English, Indian English, and Korean English), "native" varieties of English, such as American English, British English, and Australian English, were reported as being most welcomed by learners of English in Asia (Crismore, et al., 1996; Xu, Wang, & Case, 2010); however, in those studies, the authors did not problematize the use of the word "native." Which English should be seen as native was taken for granted in those studies, and the word was used as an unquestioned norm. In Xu, Wang, and Case's (2010) study, for instance, one hundred and eight college students in mainland China appraised six English speeches by two American English speakers, two British English speakers, and two Chinese English speakers. Students were asked to listen to the recorder to scale those accents based upon social status, attractiveness, and language quality. Results showed that both American English and British English received higher rates in most qualities examined. They were considered as "gentler and clearer and more intelligent, pleasant, confident, reliable, sociable, and fluent" (Xu, Wang, & Case, 2010, p. 254).

Research Methods in Previous Studies

As analyzed above, most previous studies have favored quantitative research methods with high numbers of participants to make generalizations of students' attitude toward English varieties. Lacking in those studies, however, was an emphasis on individual differences to the study of attitudes toward English varieties. Bian's (2009) study confirmed this point and revealed that students indeed had more complicated attitudes toward English varieties, rather than simply saying students preferred or did not prefer, or recognized or did not recognize, certain kinds of English. Bian (2009) analyzed data from interviews, journals, and observation notes, with results addressing that, although student participants still preferred native pronunciation in English learning, some participants had accepted their own Chinese English in pronunciation. The acceptance of their own English variety was partially due to the students' inability to obtain a native sound and also partly because of their recognition of their own English variety as legitimate. These nuanced perceptions toward English varieties could easily be overshadowed in quantitative studies due to the importance that quantitative research places on understanding broad trends in a phenomenon rather than individual experiences.

However, in the study of attitudes toward English varieties, quantitative studies have dominated the field (Bernaisch & Koch, 2016; Evans, 2010; Miah & Zhang, 2012; Rindal, 2014; Zhang & Hu, 2008). Although Evans' (2010) study employed open-ended questionnaires, which meant students could answer items like "'Name countries around the world where you know English is spoken as a native language'" and "'What kind of impression do you get when you hear these varieties?'" (p. 273), this type of questionnaire did not allow for spontaneous interaction between interviewers and interviewees, which could mean that the researchers missed interesting perceptions due to the study's limitations. Nevertheless, to some extent, this open-ended questionnaire study provided detailed insight into respondents and gave the participants' voices, at least more so than is allowable in predefined measuring instruments like verbal guise and rating scales adapted by many studies on this issue (Evans, 2010). Scant studies have utilized mixed methods, questionnaires, and interviews in studies regarding participants' attitudes toward different Englishes; even among those few studies, the use of questionnaire and interview methods took up uneven weight. Normally, the analyses of questionnaire results were in predominance and interview data were used in a way, lacking scope and depth (e.g., Lee & Green, 2016; Xu, Wang, & Case, 2010). With quantitative studies regarding attitudes toward English varieties having successfully painting a broad descriptive picture of the issue, qualitative studies that probe participants' perceptions are now needed to bring individual experiences, perceptions, and voices to the fore.

Purpose of the Study

Therefore, the purposes of the study were to fill in two literature gaps. First, previous studies have mainly analyzed students' attitudes toward different Englishes in one context; however, due to the increased cross-border travelling which has transcended geographical boundaries among Chinese students, it was unwise to ignore students' attitudinal changes toward different kinds of English from an Asian EFL context, China, to an English as a native language context, the United States. In addition, this study used mixed methods and gave relatively equal weight to the methods, survey and semi-structured interview, which would fill in the gap, resulting from the prevalence of quantitative studies in literature on this topic.

Significance of the Study

Apart from the aforementioned literature gaps this study attempted to fill in, the significance of the

study also lies in the inclusion of all kinds of English into the study and the intention to bring individual experiences, perceptions, and voices to the fore. More specifically, as most previous studies have discussed only three or four popular Englishes, like British, American, Australian, and China Englishes in a more quantitative-oriented way, this study did not limit the focus on certain Englishes. This was also related to the second significance of the study – the equal weight given to qualitative cases. As individual participants' experiences were varying and unpredictable in the study, their encounters with different Englishes would be revealed and respected and would be brought into the spotlight more vividly and naturally. Also, this study represents what appears to be the first pilot study on international students' attitudinal changes regarding different Englishes due to their cross-border experiences, which can be applied to different contexts. Beneficiaries of this study would be school administrators, language policy makers, English language teachers, and English learning students in China or even the larger context, Asia, in which many countries shared similarities in English language teaching. When this study is applied to different contexts, the beneficiaries will not just be from China, but from many other countries as well.

Methodology

The data of the study were drawn from both quantitative surveys and qualitative semi-structured interviews. The mixed methods used in this study matched the triangulation design, the purpose of which was to "obtain different but complementary data on the same topic" (Morse, 1991, p. 122, as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 62) and to "bring together the differing strengths and nonoverlapping weakness of quantitative methods (large sample size, trends, generalization) with those of qualitative methods (small N, details, in depth)" (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 62). The primary objective of the survey was to investigate participants' language awareness through the comparisons of their perceptions toward different Englishes they were exposed to and their attitudinal changes towards different English varieties in China and the U.S.. The purpose of interviewing was to explore the perceptions and opinions of respondents, particularly regarding "complex and sometimes sensitive issues" (Louise Barriball & While, 1994, p.330). However, due to the limited space and time, this study only used parts of the survey and intentionally chose two interviews to address the research questions. More detailed information was described in the following sections.

Research Context

Western Pennsylvania University[4] (WPU), chosen as the institutional site for this project, was one of the U.S. universities. This university was a representative research site for the question, as it had a required diversity of students. The university was considered a predominantly white institute with 74.65 % of white, 10. 06 % of black, and 6.21% of international students enrolled in the spring semester of 2015. In March 2015, when the study was conducted, there were 155 undergraduate and graduate international Chinese students in total who were enrolled in different majors like Finance, Art, and English. The most popular majors among the population was business, taking up 60% of the population. The variety of races and majors could diversify participants' experiences and attitudes toward different Englishes, conducive to the comparisons and contrasts in the study.

Participants

All participants met the following criteria: (a) they were undergraduate or graduate international Chinese students matriculated recently (Spring 2015 semester) in the research site; (b) they had studied English as a subject in China for no fewer than five years before they came to the United States; and (c) they had studied in the U.S. for no fewer than two years. As a result, there were 37 students in total who voluntarily participated in the survey. Among survey participants, 58% were undergraduate students, and 42% were graduate students. 60% had been in the U.S. for at least 3 years. After the survey, nine international Chinese students showed interest in the project and left their contact information for further interviewing. For this paper, two participants were selected as representative case studies with insightful and typical experiences and attitudes toward varieties of English. One of the participant was Nan, a 19-year-old undergraduate, majoring in Pre-medicine; another was Jia, a 28-year-old graduate student majoring in Curriculum and Instruction. Table 1 presents detailed biographical profiles of the two participants.

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[4] It is a pseudonym for the research site.

Table 1
Profiles of Interview Participants

Name	Major	Degree	Formal English education in China	When came to the U.S. (pursuing degree)	Years in the U.S.
Nan	Pre-medical program	Undergraduate	7 years since 1st grade	2012 (for high school's degree)	3 years
Jia	Curriculum and Instruction	Doctoral candidate	7 years since 6th grade	2011 (for master's degree)	4 years

Instruments

The open-ended survey written in English was designed first (Appendix A). The survey consisted of 33 questions in total, consisting of demographics (4 questions, including gender, major, academic standing), experiences of English in China (9 questions), study abroad in classrooms with different Englishes (7 questions), study abroad outside of classrooms with different Englishes (5 questions), and attitudes toward different kinds of English and speakers (8 questions). The design of the survey questions was to emphasize language awareness among the participants through the comparison of exposure to different English varieties in China and the U.S..

The semi-structured interview (Appendix B) was designed as a follow-up for the survey. The interview used a historical narrative approach to ask broad questions, concerning English education history in China, experiences with different Englishes in the US, and attitudinal changes due to the cross-border experiences. I gently guided the flow of the interview and asked follow-up questions when necessary. In this way, the interview allowed me to see what was in the participants' mind and enabled me to probe for more information and clarification of answers, which was unable to achieve in survey (Louise Barriball & While, 1994).

Procedures

The first stage of data collection was to conduct the survey. To recruit the potential participants as many as possible, I contacted the president of Chinese Association (an organization for international Chinese students at the research site) who had the complete list of international Chinese students' email addresses. With his assistance, I sent the invitation letter through email which included a link to the survey. The estimated time for the completion of the survey was around eight to ten minutes. At the end of the survey, participants were asked if they were interested in

taking part in an interview. If they agreed to be part of the interview, the survey instrument took them to a form where they could provide their contact information. This survey lasted for three weeks. After the end of the third week, I closed the survey. There were 37 responses received within the three weeks, and nine students in total left their contact information for interview.

The interview, conducted in Chinese, was designed as a following phase of the survey, however, the two phases were in fact conducted concurrently. Before the close of the survey, I had started interviewing participants who completed the survey earlier and were interviewed when the survey still continued. Therefore, the two phases of data collection happened approximately at the same time (Creswell & Clark, 2007). I contacted those who volunteered for the interview via email with a consent form and scheduled a time with the informants. Interviews lasted around 30-40 minutes in "a casual and psychologically relaxed atmosphere," and it was audio recorded with permission (Pouriran, Sajjadi, Pouriran, & Sajjadi, 2016, p. 24). I also clarified before the interview that the participants might be contacted after the interview for clarification and verification or even asked some emergent questions after I transcribed the interview. The interview data were transcribed verbatim, omitting non-verbal dimensions of interaction for the sake of readability of the transcripts. As the interviews were conducted in Chinese, the original transcriptions were in Chinese, and then I translated Chinese into English with adjustment in grammar for the sake of readability of the transcripts as well. The translations were double checked by a bilingual researcher who was fluent in both Chinese and English. In addition, the transcriptions were sent back to the participants to make sure there was no misunderstanding and misinterpretation.

Data Analysis

Having collected all data for the study, I "analyzed it by identifying responses to the guiding questions" (Nunan, 2003, p.593). Therefore, I presented the result one by one in the order of the research questions in the study (Creswell, 2012). As the study had multiple data from both surveys and interviews, I first focused exclusively on the survey data as it was used to generalize language awareness among the participants. Since it was impossible to present the results of 33 questions from the survey, this study chose questions that most directly answered the sub-questions for survey. To facilitate the comprehension of the survey results, I used tables to visually present the survey data.

Similarly, reading thoroughly through interview transcripts, I paid attention to the responses

pertinent to sub-questions for interview; however, this process was recursive as I re-read the interview data several times, and in each time, I used different colors of markers to mark the transcriptions to indicate different information from each participant that was relevant to the research questions. After the process of data analysis, the initial draft of analysis was sent back to the interviewed participants for member checking to guarantee the voice of the participants in the study (Galvan, 2009).

At last, to visually present the flow of the whole study, the sequence of methods use, and the relative importance of each method, I utilized Morse's (1991) notation system to indicate the relation between the quantitative and qualitative methods in the study as quan $\rightarrow$ QUAL (from quantitative survey to qualitative interview and the latter was given more weight in the study; qualitative interview was given more weight in the study was due to the low response rate from the quantitative survey) and Steckler et al.'s (1992) visual diagram to display the whole study process. The figure is shown as follows.

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│       Data collection- Survey    │        │     Data collection- Interview   │
│  • quantitative method (quan):   │   →    │  • QUALITATITIVE method          │   →
│    level of exposure as well as  │        │    (QUAL): experiences and       │
│    language awareness toward     │        │    attitudinal changes among     │
│    various Englishes in China    │        │    the participants              │
│    and U.S.                      │        │  • Semi-structured interview     │
│  • Structured survey             │        │  • n= 9, but only 2 out of 9 was │
│  • n=37                          │        │    used                          │
└─────────────────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Presentation of Survey Result   │   →    │  Presentation of Interview Result│
│  • quan data present based upon  │        │  • QUAL data present based upon  │
│    the order of the research     │        │    the order of the research     │
│    questions for survey          │        │    questions for interview       │
│  • quantify responses into       │        │  • Analyze case by case as each  │
│    percentage                    │        │    individual as a case          │
└─────────────────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────────────────┘

              ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
              │   Mixed interpretation of survey │
              │            and interview         │
         →    │  • Merge result of survey and    │
              │    interview to put the study as │
              │    a whole                       │
              │  • Connect the two results and   │
              │    look for themes in the study  │
              └─────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 1. The flow of the study

Results

Survey

In this survey, there were 24 undergraduate and 13 graduate participants. Predominantly, they came from business majors like accounting, finance, and business administration, which took up 60% of the population pool. The survey results indicated that the dominant Englishes that the participants were exposed to in China were American and British Englishes[5] which were also equivalent to their understanding of standard Englishes. After they came to the United States and access different

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[5] To most of the participants, American English and British English were singular terms, which means what they learned in textbooks, not including like African American English and other American Englishes, for instance.

varieties of English, this ideology toward Standard English was still hard to unlearn among the participants. Detailed survey results were presented in the order of the sub-questions for survey as shown below.

Were Participants Only Exposed to Standardized British and American English in China?

The survey results pointed to the dominant view that the prevalent English taught and learnt in China were British and American English, and only few surveyed respondents wrote Chinese English as well (Table 2). This was consistent with their understanding of "Standard English," followed by the question. 58% of the participants believed American English was Standard English, and 47% of them thought British English was Standard English (Table 3). This indicated that English language education in China instilled participants' belief of Standard English. This was reflected on faculty recruitment as well. 75% of the respondents replied that they had non-Chinese English teachers, and 80% among those students answered that their teachers were from the U.S. and 35% of them answered that their teachers were from the UK (Table 4). The results of these questions answered the research question that the participants were not just restricted to British and American English while they were in China. There were other Englishes, such as Indian English, Canadian English, and Australian English represented by English teachers from other countries; however, the percentages were very small. And more "native" Englishes than nonnative Englishes were represented.

Table 2

At schools in China, what kinds of English were you taught and learned[6]?

Answer	Response	%
British English	23	64
American English	23	64
Canadian English	0	0
Australian English	0	0
Other	2	0.6

*Other includes Chinese English.

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[6] It was not sure how the students discerned the differences among different Englishes; however, from the interviews, it was clear that students recognized those differences based upon accents, pronunciations, and spelling.

Table 3
What was your idea of "Standard English[7]"

Answer	Response	%
British English	17	47
American English	21	58
Canadian English	1	0.3
Australian English	1	0.3
Other	0	0
None	4	11

Table 4
Where were your non- Chinese English teachers from?

Answer	Response	%
The United Kingdom	14	39
The United States	25	70
Australia	4	11
Canada	3	0.8
Other	4	11

*Other includes India and Portland.

What Different Types of English Were Participants Exposed to While in China?

This research question had been answered based upon the results analyzed above. Although some participants accessed to other Englishes, the majority of the participants were only familiar with "native" English varieties, like British English, American English, and Canadian English. The most popular Englishes, as expected, were British and American English which had been widely

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[7] One flaw of the quantitative study was that the researcher was unable to ask follow-up questions, like what was their understanding of "standard English."

propagandized through social media as the study showed that 89% and 63% of the respondents pointed out that British English and American English were widely represented in Chinese media, like TV, movies, broadcasts, to just name a few.

What Different Types of English Were Participants Exposed to While in the U.S.?

To answer this research question, two main questions in the survey were designed to find out: (a) "What were the Englishes [the students'] professors spoke?" and (b) "What were the Englishes [the students'] classmates and community members spoke?" The results of the first question are shown in Table 5.

Table 5
What were the Englishes your professors spoke?

Answer	Response	%
Indian English	16	70
British English	12	52
American English	10	43
African American English	7	30
Australian English	4	17
Pennsylvanian Dutch English	3	13
Native American English	3	13
Canadian English	3	13
Southern American English	2	9

Toward the second question, the Englishes spoken by their classmates and community members were more diverse than the ones their professors represented. Table 6 shows the results.

Table 6
What were the Englishes your classmates and community members spoke?

Answer	Response	%
British English	14	64
Indian English	12	59
African American English	10	45
American English	7	32
Irish English	4	18
Southern American English	3	14
Native American English	3	14
Singapore English	3	14

Comparing the results from question one and question two indicated that the varieties of English the students were exposed to increased. These varieties of English in the U.S. were not seen while the respondents were in China. While in China, the kinds of English the informants were exposed to were much fewer, concerning the result of the question, "Thinking of the English media you were exposed to in China, what kinds of English were used?" The responses were more unitary and centralized on several Englishes, such as standardized British English (90%) and standardized American English (60%); therefore, in China, British and American English were shown to be dominant while other varieties of English were underrepresented.

What Attitudes Toward Different Englishes and Their Speakers Did Participants Hold?

Three relevant survey questions were designed particularly to answer this research question: (a) "When speaking to someone whose English is non-standard English, [the students] think…"; (b) "When speaking with someone whose English is non-standard, [the students] assume they have…"; and, (c) "Are [the students] willing to learn other kinds of English? If yes, which English do [the students] want to learn?" For the first question, Table 7 shows the result that most participants were inclusive in viewing different English varieties, with 79% of them choosing "we are just experiencing cultural difference."

Table 7

When speaking with someone whose English is non-standard, you usually think…

Answer	Response	%
I am stupid; I do not understand.	2	7
They are stupid; they cannot communicate.	2	7
We are just experiencing cultural differences.	22	81
Other	1	4

To the second question, Table 8 below summarizes the result. The result reveals that most of the participants were positive in their assumptions toward those speaking different Englishes. Only 3 % of the participants thought speakers with non-standard English were below average education.

Table 8

When speaking with someone whose English is non-standard, you assume they have…

Answer	Response	%
Below average education	3	11
Average education	11	41
Above average education	3	11
Do not know	10	37

Regarding the third question, the primary languages that the participants were interested in learning was British English (88%), American English (24%), and Australian English (12%). Given the varieties of English to learn, the participants still preferred to learn more "native" English varieties. Connecting with the results from the previous two survey questions, participants had positive attitudes toward different kinds of English even though they were still more willing to learn "native" Englishes than other Englishes. This might be related to the import of overseas resources such as the textbooks and English teachers from the UK, Canada, New Zealand, and the U.S. in the 20th century in China (Hu, 2004). The willingness to learn certain kinds of English was largely dependent on the ideology associated with different Englishes. To some extent, the results also affirmed the assumption that had been approved in previous studies, namely, although different Englishes had been recognized in the world, not all Englishes were put on an equal footing. To find

out more information about the language ideology toward different Englishes, interview analysis offers more detailed explanations.

Interview

Given the result of the survey, I linked exposure to varieties of English with the participants' language awareness and participants' understanding of standardized English; however, this analysis was based upon sole percentage numbers and a generalization of the population. More details were needed to better understand participants' perceptions and their attitudinal changes toward English varieties to complicate the issue owing to individual differences. Hence, for the second phase of data presentation, I selected two representative participants to be analyzed in depth, including one undergraduate and one graduate. Nan was 19 years old, born in 1997 and Jia was 28 years old, born in 1988. Through comparisons and contrasts of their experiences, the study confirmed the importance of taking personal experiences into account regarding research studies on attitudes toward English varieties. The presentation of the interview data was also based upon the order of the sub-questions for interview.

What Prior English Training in China, Both Formally and Informally, Did Participants Have?

Nan started English learning at an early age when she was in kindergarten; Nan thought English was easy and interesting at that time because she only learned about simple words, like *apple* and *cooking*. The early learning experience was fun because it was not a required subject in kindergarten and there was no testing on learning. Partially, due to strong personal passion for English, Nan self-reported that she learned English very quickly. When she was in 1st grade in primary school, she reported that she had already thought about studying abroad. The reason turned out to be harrowing.

1. I was judged and teased at school, which made me very unhappy.

2. I started to look for things that I was interested in.

3. I watched TV and started to like rock music from Western countries.

4. In order to be able to sing those songs, I started to learn English assiduously.

5. Since elementary school, my English was my best subject.

As shown in line 1, Nan was isolated at school, which forced her to look for inner comfort through other outlets. "Western" music turned out to be her passion which in turn boosted her confidence as line 5 indicated that her English was her best subject at school. This interview excerpt also elucidated that social media, such as TV, was one of the venues to introduce Nan to a new world.

6. I watched a lot of online American and British shows and films.

7. But I did not watch any other TV shows or films from other English speaking countries.

8. There were just not many of them. Most were from Hollywood.

Social media and Internet exposed Nan to American and British dramas and films and opened a window for self-healing and English learning; however, not all kinds of English varieties were represented in those social media. Instead, American and British Englishes were predominant in the social media. To some extent, this illuminated the potential impact of social media on shaping students' perceptions on English varieties, which reflects Chen and Hu's (2006) statement that "influential leaders such as writers and teachers and institutions such as the media and publishing houses" actually use and approve certain English, affecting the recognition of certain English as standardized English (p. 45).

With the constant immersion in the Englishes, Nan started to realize the difference between American and British English as she indicated as follows:

9. British English sounded more formal.

10. Their pronunciations had more nasal sounds.

11. But the American English was more casual, that was why it was easier to learn.

12. When I was in elementary school, the textbooks were British English

13. The spellings were all British.

14. But my Chinese teachers were inclined to speak American English.

15. British English was too hard for them to pronounce.

16. Many of my Chinese English teachers had strong Chinese accents.

17. They even could not pronounce "Thank you" very well.

Nan noticed that the differences between American and British Englishes were in accents, cultural connotations, and spellings as indicated in line 10, 11, and 13 respectively. In line 14, Nan specified that because British English was harder than American English to pronounce, Chinese

English teachers were unable to imitate British accents. As a result, they chose an American accent. This suggests that Chinese English teachers may try to imitate American English accents. Whereas line 16 and 17 in the excerpt reflected Nan's disaffection and denigration regarding Chinese English teachers' strong Chinese accent and their inability to pronounce *Thank you* appropriately, developing a "native" English accent was implicit in both teachers and students' preference of "native" English accents. Moreover, Nan self-studied through her access to different media since she was not satisfied with her Chinese English teachers' accent:

18. Although I learned from my Chinese teachers at school whose accents were strong,

19. I would adjust my English to sound more like American through imitating on TV.

20. So my [Chinese] accent was not strong [while I spoke English].

21. Sometimes I was even mistaken as a local U.S. student, which made me satisfied and excited.

Indicated in Line 18 and 19 was that Nan was committed to reduce her Chinese accent in English speaking. Social media, shown in line 19, provided her the opportunity to calibrate her accent through imitation from TV. Line 21 suggests that Nan's the success of equipping herself with an English accent rendered her a new identity as a perceived *local U.S. student*. This self-made new identity brought her satisfaction partly due to her standoffishness to her Chinese identity with which she was teased and mocked as shown in line 1.

Jia's story with English learning in China was quite different from Nan's. Jia started her formal English learning in China when she was in 7th grade in secondary school as a required subject. Nan and Jia started learning English at different ages, which might be due to the divergent regions they were from and the age gap between them. Jia's memories of English learning in China involved practices of rote-memorialization, copying textbooks, and dictation. Jia reported she learned English successfully this way; however, if Nan's enthusiasm toward English was by means of her own discovery of English as a way of healing from her encounters with a school bully, Jia's English learning was enlightened through her family:

22. My father thought English would be very important in the future.

23. So he bought me lots of English cartoon movies while I was in primary school.

24. Most of the movies had subtitles, which were easy to repeat, such as hello, how are you.

25. I was attracted by the language and started to repeat the words.

26. Later I was also attracted by the movies like *Harry Potter* and *Terminator*.

27. This early exposure to English gave me confidence while I started to learn English at school.

28. I was ahead of other students on the subject.

Familial influence, in Jia's case, played an essential role in bringing her into an English world, particularly British and American English as indicated in line 26. Jia's father foresaw the power of English in the world as Jia indicated in line 22 and bought her abundant cartoon movies, a huge source of cultural penetration from "western" countries, particularly the U.S. and British. Jia's English study experience turned out to be a "benign" circle as stated in line 28 that she was confident in her English performance at school and she kept her passion for English when she entered the university, where she majored in English education and received much more rigid English education that was also fraught with problems:

29. We had to choose between British English and American English while we were learning English in the university.

30. My English teacher and the president of the university said British English was very gentlemen, and only elites from upper-class spoke British English.

31. But still many students chose American English.

32. Maybe it was because many textbooks in the market were from the U.S., like *Family Album, U.S.A*. which was very famous in China at that time.

From this interview excerpts, British and American English appeared to be described as elite and authentic Englishes. British English was associated with elites and upper-class English, which may mean a popularity of an English was socially, culturally, and economically embedded. Jia believed that English teachers in China only offered the options of American English and British English while other Englishes were not apparently worthy of consideration, indicative of unequal treatment of different Englishes. The consequence of a biased selection of Englishes in textbooks as well as authoritative manipulation of English-related activities that measured one group against the norm of another seem to have led to many stereotypes, such as Jia's perception of British English as *upper-class* English (Cook, 1999). Also, line 31 and 32 suggest that American English was prevalent among Chinese students because of the influence from publications of textbooks in the market, further evidence of the impact of authority on the manipulation of English learning in China. Based upon Jia's depictions in the interview, formal English education in China remained loyal to American and British English, especially regarding what Jia discussed below:

33. In my college, there were many English speech competition.

34. The participants always mimicked British or American accents.

35. The judges including my Chinese English teachers only selected those who spoke obvious British/American accents as award winners.

36. But those with strong Chinese English accent would never win a prize.

37. That teachers favor British and American English more than Chinese English was what my Chinese English teachers told me.

This excerpt suggests the different value attributed to different types of English. With the comparison between line 35 and 36, self-marginalization becomes an issue when judges who were Chinese English teachers favored British and American English over Chinese accents. This value attribution is especially striking in Jia' description of teachers directly pointing out which English was preferred in an English speech competition. This bias toward British and American English fashioned Chinese English leaners' entrenched belief toward British and American English, which were socially and culturally charged. This prejudice made Jia's aspiration to eliminate her own Chinese accent seem reasonable:

38. While I was in the university, I tried so hard to eliminate my accent.

39. I listened to the cassette every day and imitated the tones and pronunciations.

40. I even recorded my voice and listened to it again and again to find out the problems.

41. And then I would imitate again and record again. I felt tired sometimes.

42. But when my accent was not as heavy as before, I felt rewarded.

The belief toward "native" accents can be seen as disseminating a language ideology circulated to deprecate one's own accent, itself seen as a burden and shame. Meanwhile, this belief perpetuates the perception of relative value of a "native" English accent as a model. Jia's effort to eliminate her own Chinese accent and her commitment to form a "native" English accent, depicted in the excerpt, can be seen as continuing the uncritical acceptance of "native" Englishes, particularly British and American English in the case.

What Experiences With Other Types of English Did Participants Have?

This question intended to reveal the participants' encounter with Englishes other than British and American English. This section was further divided into two parts. One covered their encounters with and perceptions of different Englishes in China, and the other covered for their experiences and understanding of different Englishes after coming to the U.S.

While They Were in China

While Nan was still in China, her mindset was restricted to Chinese, American, and British Englishes. She could tell the difference among the three different types of English; however, she was incapable of discerning other Englishes. To be more specific, she mentioned the Canadian singer and song-writer, Avril Lavigne, in the interview:

43. I loved to listen to western music, but most of time I thought they were all American.

44. For example, I liked Avril Lavigne a lot, but I did not know she was a Canadian.

45. I thought she was from the U.S.

46. At that time, I only knew there were American English and British English.

47. So when I saw Avril, I automatically associated her with American English and thought she was an American.

48. I knew her English could not be British English. But I did not know there were other Englishes other than the two.

This stereotype toward English as a possession to only British and America should not be surprising, based upon Nan's limited access to diverse Englishes in China. Furthermore, she assumed that most Englishes from western countries were American English as she stated as follows:

49. At that time, American English was so popular, like in Hollywood movies.

50. I was taken for granted that anyone who looked like Americans spoke American English.

51. You knew blonde hair and white skin.

52. Maybe there were some characters not from the U.S., but to be honest, I did not care where they were from and what English they spoke.

53. I only had the two Englishes in my mind, which I thought was a commonsense.

54. Other Englishes were just imitations of the two Englishes, I believed.

Here, Nan connects English as a language to people with particular skin colors and appearances, which indicates that language is never neutral and apolitical (Duranti, 2009). The images created by American English, here, are linked to *blonde hair* and *white skin* and embraced by Nan as a commonsense. Meanwhile, other Englishes presented by other characters who did not have *blonde hair* and *white skin* were ignored and even invisible, as shown in line 52, and the Englishes they spoke were deprived of cultures and values as stated in line 54. Although Nan could tell the difference between British and American English in accent and expression, she did not

express a value or acceptance of other varieties of English while she was in China. Previous research has attributed such points of view as Nan's as resulting from an English language ideology in China that has long established the "superiority" and "authenticity" of standardized British and American English as "pedagogical models" for English language teaching (Bolton, 2003; Zhang, 2003) when China imported overseas resources like textbooks and English teachers from the UK, Canada, New Zealand, and the U.S. to fasten China's connection with the world (Hu, 2004). However, Nan's perception toward other Englishes should not to be blamed. Her context in China lacked the multicultural education in the curriculum, and the emphasis on "native" English varieties evident in social media, publications, and English language teaching had shaped students' points of view. This is reflected in Jia's case as well.

While Jia was still in China, as an English major student, her academic life was characterized by Voice of America (VOA), British Broadcast (BBC), and American music, like Michael Jackson's songs. Although the university she attended hired foreign teachers, most of them were from the U.S. This underrepresentation evident in faculty recruitment could be a problem in cultivating students' inclusion and acceptance of other Englishes. The following example from Jia touches on the issue.

55. Once I met a Pakistan student on QQ[8] International, and he wanted me to show him around my university.

56. After we met and talked, I realized his English was not *pure*.

57. He has very strong Pakistan accent.

58. Although I could understand him most of the time, I was disappointed with his English.

59. I murmured to myself, "Why is his English like this?"

60. I wondered whether all the people from his country spoke English like that.

61. I admit that I was biased then.

In line 56 and 57, Jia shares that the Pakistan student's English did not seem *pure* or not authentic to her, explaining her association of British and American English with purity, while other Englishes were impure and inauthentic. Her devaluing of accents from Pakistan students also seemed clear. Particularly, in line 60, Jia devalues the whole nation because of the Pakistan students' "unsatisfactory" English, which reflects how Jia made sense of the differences across Englishes. Nan's and Jia's encounters with different kinds of English in China only intensified their

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[8] QQ International is a social medium used in China, equivalent to Facebook in the US.

stereotypes and generalizations toward the differences among English varieties, which reflects their lack of language awareness and acceptance of different English varieties; however, their encounters with different kinds of English in the U.S. complicated their attitudes and acceptance of English varieties and also added conditions to their understanding of standardized English.

While They Were in the U.S.

Nan came to the US when she was in 2nd grade in high school. There was an exchange program between her high school in China and a high school in the U.S. When she was in the U.S., she disclosed that the English she learned in China was too "scholastic" to use in the U.S. She gave an example (Bhattacharya, 2016; Kumaravadivelu, 2006):

62. When I was in China, teachers only pursued standardized English.

63. Even in speaking, we learned "How are you," and replied "Fine, thank you."

64. When I was in the U.S., I learned not to say that because it sounded indifferent and bookish.

65. This expression kept a distance with the interlocutors.

66. But in China, we kept saying and learning that way of greeting each other.

67. And I thought that was the only way of greeting.

68. When I first came to the US, I did not know how to respond when my American friend said "what is up?"

69. I felt totally like an outsider in the place.

70. I wanted to blend in the community here, so I even learned African American English from my black friends.

    This extract from the interview suggests the dysfunction of English education in China, which emphasizes teaching standardized scholastic English, even in communication. This scholastic English teaching did not seem to work out in a real life situation as Nan indicated in line 64 as the greeting sounds *indifferent* and *bookish*. To be recognized as a member in the community that she frequented, Nan learned African American English. This indicates that, in different situations, different Englishes were needed for social purposes, for instance, and standardized English became less relevant or important. However, the emphasis of "scholastic" and "linguistic" dimension of English teaching, according to Kumaravadivelu (2006), would only add "jobs and wealth to the economy of English-speaking countries through a worldwide ELT industry" (p.12).

Nan's language awareness toward different regional Englishes within the U.S. seems clear. She realized that American English had many different varieties. She did not realize this, however, until after being immersed into the U.S. environment, but inevitably, there were still stereotypes embedded in her recognition, as shown below.

71. After I came to the U.S., I could recognize the northern accent like New York accent and southern accent in the U.S.

72. The southern English was far away from standardized English. Its accent was too strong.

73. Also, I could distinguish between white American English and Black American English.

74. I thought Black English had very heavy accent and more colloquial compared with white English.

75. I thought these differences were because of different environments and regions where those English differences emerged.

76. It was just like different dialects in China. Sometimes people from other regions could not understand people from other communities.

77. The differences among Englishes was not just about accents, sometimes it was the culture, like slangs.

As suggested in the excerpt, Nan believed that the advent of different Englishes was due to the environments in which those Englishes were nurtured and developed, as in line 75. In line 77, Nan suggests that language, like English, was culturally manifested. In other words, English was not just owned nationally but also regionally within a national boundary as different Englishes embodied divergent regional and national cultures. However, Nan's stereotyping came through when she connected English with skin color. For example, from her perspective, all African Americans spoke Black American English and associated those who had white skin colors with White American English, which was contradictory to her association of different English varieties with regions, rather than races. This implied her lack of critical language awareness and may also reflect a paucity of different representations of races, colors, and ethnicities in textbooks in China.

In Jia's case, she came to the U.S. mainly because Britain and America were the two most popular English speaking countries that many of her classmates chose for overseas studies. Surprisingly, she thought Australia was not one of the mainstream English speaking countries. She said, "At that time, I thought Australia had nothing to do with English. Saying English, I could only connect it with British and America." This statement suggests that students in China like Jia

might have the same mindset toward English speaking countries, developed from limited exposure to English varieties, mainly represented in textbooks and social media, and the emphasis of British and American English as overarching English varieties in China. Jia's exclusion of Australia from the lists of "native" English speaking countries questioned the frequently used norm, "native" English. Whose English was "native" then? In terms of Jia's understanding, "native" Englishes only included British and American English.

Like Nan's experience with the dysfunction of communicative English taught in China, Jia realized that the standardized English from textbooks was not helpful for her to navigate the daily life in the U.S. The utmost challenge was phone calling. The flowing examples delineated her circumstances:

78. In China, the teacher taught very simply about phone calling.

79. For example, the standard conversation should be the caller saying "Hello, this is XX speaking. May I speak to…?"

80. But when I was in the US, it was so embarrassing that I did not know how to answer.

81. I called to an office. Someone picked up the phone and said, "Hello, this is International office, my name is XX, May I help you?"

82. I was totally offhand. I did not know how to answer her.

83. It was not like what teacher taught in China.

The lack of varieties in English teaching and the messages of standardized English did not prepare Jia to face her real life problems. This disconnect between English education in China and students' needs when travelled abroad in an English speaking country in the global world deserves further attention from language policy makers and English language teaching teachers in China.

While Jia had different classmates from all over the world, English diversities confused her. She depicted that she struggled to maintain her morality as she was instructed in class to respect different Englishes and the real situation where different Englishes spoken by her classmates complicated smooth communication in class. The followings were her explanations in the interview:

84. To be honest, academically speaking, we should respect different Englishes.

85. But in reality, sometimes it could be very frustrating when you had classmates who cannot speak clearly.

86. For instance, I had some classmates from Saudi Arabia. Some could not speak clearly, which I meant the sentence structures.

87. They did not use the American style, which was very confusing. I thought they created their own English.

88. Also, some of them were from China. They even bring the *Pinyin*, z,c,s into English with their terrible grammar and sentence structures.

Line 84 indicates that Jia was consciously aware of the importance to respect different Englishes; however, it seemed harder in reality because of frustration and misunderstanding created due to the differences across Englishes as she alluded to in line 86. She also addressed a problem in the perception of different English varieties. She did not know if differences among Englishes were deviations from standardized *American style* English or were as cultural difference, as reflected in line 87 and line 88. The connotation behind line 87, *I thought they created their own English*, was that everyone should imitate the standardized English, rather than creating their own. This bias in favor of standardized English was reinforced for Jia when she herself became the victim being judged in class due to her accent.

89. When I was in class, my teacher who was also an Asian and had been in the U.S. for many years did not like me because of my English accent.

90. She never asked me to answer questions, but asked students with more appropriate Englishes like Americans.

91. I thought she did not like me just because of my accent, which really made me look stupid.

Jia's encounters in the classroom suggest marginalization and self-marginalization as the teacher in the class was also an Asian, and her elaboration in line 89 that the Asian teacher in the U.S. also revealed that language beliefs were hard to unlearn even with time investment. Also interestingly, Jia felt less intelligent and even inferior because of her English accent, which she thought was the main reason why the teacher did not ask her to answer questions in class.

How Did Their Experiences with Different Englishes in the U.S. Affect Their Attitudes Toward those Englishes and Their own Accents?

Marginalization and self-marginalization complicated Nan's and Jia's attitudes toward English language learning. After staying in the U.S. for almost two years, Nan thought understanding different Englishes with different accents proved a higher level of English proficiency. She stated in the interview as follows:

92. Once I called the Costa Rica embassy in the U.S., but I could not understand his English.

93. He seemed like from Spain or Mexico with very strong accent.

94. I think Americans must have no problem in understanding these different accents.

95. So I always found the reasons from myself.

96. I need to further improve my English to understand different accents.

From the excerpts, it showed that firstly, accent was an essential feature in different varieties, which was the most significant factor conducive to communication breakdown. Secondly, Nan thought deficiency in English was a vital obstacle in understanding English with strong accents. Therefore, she thought she needed to improve her English, as she indicated in line 94 that Americans would not have the problem to understand accented English. The stereotype here was that not all Americans had proficient English and not all Americans had proficiency in all kinds of English since Englishes were not just one language, but also cultural products. Nan's belief in Americans' knowledge of English language and their competence in varieties of English may represent a tendency for English learners to internalize native speakerism (Cook, 1999).

Nan also thought there was no need to reduce or eliminate one's accent due to the inclusive environment in the U.S., which was quite different with her perception towards her Chinese accent while she was in China and reflected her acceptance of different Englishes and their speakers.

97. One good thing in the U.S. was that they did not have to eliminate their accent, but it could also be a challenge because it was too multicultural.

Nan thought that different kinds of Englishes were welcomed in the U.S. because the U.S. was a multicultural country, which also meant different English speakers did not have to eliminate their accents. In other words, she thought a receptive country was more aware of the existence of different Englishes and more inclusive toward different cultures. Compared with her experiences in China, where she tried to imitate American accents, the larger environment (the U.S.) in which different Englishes were represented seemed to encourage people to maintain their accents. The importance of the context in which different Englishes were practiced affected students' attitudes toward different Englishes. This was also mirrored in the following interview excerpt from Nan:

98. There was no best English actually. It really depended on where you were and whom you communicated with.

99. For instance, in the United Kingdom, if you did not want to be different, you would better speak British English, otherwise, you might be discriminated.

100. In China, it was better to speak British and American English because that was what most Chinese people admired and tried to imitate.

Although Nan thought there was no best English, it depended on the context where a particular English was preferred as shown in line 99 and 100. This perspective, indeed, revealed preferences toward different English languages, mirroring the hierarchy behind Englishes.

Jia, based on her experiences with English varieties in class and out of class in the U.S., became more lenient and inclusive toward different accents, compared with her attitudes in China. In an English conversation, she did not only emphasize standardized accents, but also started to consider the quality of conversations, including clarity and scopes of content. Nevertheless, to herself, she still thought standardized British and American Englishes were the best, and she expressed her strong desire to reduce her accent and if possible to eliminate her Chinese accents. She did not want to be recognized as one who spoke English with a Chinese accent and Chinese patterns; however, she emphasized that it was almost impossible to reduce one's accent:

101. If I came to the U.S. around the age of 5 or 6, I still wanted to reduce or even completely eliminated my accent.

102. I did not want other people to know that I spoke with Chinese accent.

103. But now I have given up.

104. As long as the English speakers produce clear English, I can accept their accents.

105. For myself, my goal now is not to eliminate my accent but to improve the fluidity and clarity of my speaking.

She seemed eager to reduce her Chinese accent as shown in line 101, but she seems to think that it was unlikely for her to reduce her accent as she was too old, which spoke to the definition of "native speaker" as a person who has spoken a language since childhood (Cook, 1999). Line 104 seemed like a compromise she made after feeling she could never to reduce her accent. As a result, she pursued a more "realistic" goal to improve the quality of her speaking from the perspective of clarity and the scope and depth of her speaking. Jia's tolerance with different English accents but her attempt to eliminate her own accent revealed her complicated attitudes toward different Englishes and also indicated the superiority of standardized British and American English in China. This suggests why it was so hard to enable those perceived non-standardized Englishes to stand as equal with standardized British and American English.

To conclude, the present study indicates that participants, while in China, were exposed only to certain kinds of Englishes in class, and these Englishes were all standardized "native" Englishes, like standardized British and American English. Other Englishes were almost invisible in classrooms as shown both in the survey and interview data. This biased selection of certain value-attached Englishes seems to have given rise to many stereotypes toward different English varieties as well as self-marginalization as a result of perceptions of a person's accent. Even though both the survey and interview revealed that the participants accepted disparate English varieties in communication and showed respect to different English spoken by English speakers from other countries, especially after they came to the U.S., when asked which English they would like to learn more in the survey, a great number of students chose British English. And the participants still perceived British and American English as standard Englishes and eager to imitate the accents even though they thought clarity and intelligibility were more important in a conversation; whereas this entrenched preference for native English varieties was not a coincidence, it was closely tied to the English language ideology embraced and practiced widely by language policy makers, school administrators, teachers, and students. To change this status quo of the English education in China, the suggestions of teaching English as *lingual franca* and arousing critical awareness were provided to empower English learners in China as legitimate English users and gradually change their entrenched belief on native speaker norm.

Pedagogical Implications

This section gives bottom-up pedagogical implications for English teachers in China or other countries. The main goal of English teaching, aside from enhancing students' English language skills, should also include empowering students as legitimate English users in the globalized world via increasing their language awareness and critical language consciousness. The following implications are given based upon my teaching experiences and other educators' teaching experiences in promoting students' language awareness in classrooms.

First, English teachers should promote multicultural perspectives in textbooks (Kubota, 1998). As Gee (2015) stated, "any language-English, for example-is not a monolithic thing. Each and every language is composed of many sub-languages [which are] many different styles or varieties of language" (p.101). Therefore, students firstly should be aware of the plurality of English through explicit exposure in classrooms. However, not all classrooms have access to different English

speakers. One possible solution is to choose textbooks which contain different racial, ethnic, cultural, and linguistic representations. In some cases, teachers may have limited power in textbook selection, which does not mean they cannot do anything to promote students' multicultural awareness of English language. Teachers can choose video clips, different English magazines, or movies as supplementary materials. Only through exposure to different Englishes can students realize the diversity of Englishes across regions and nations, and they may become more willing to accept varieties of English.

Second, promoting students' English language awareness requires explicit questioning from teachers. Not only should teachers show different Englishes and cultures to students through textbooks or other learning materials, but also they need to constantly ask students critical questions about the students' language learning and students' attitudes toward different Englishes. As revealed in the present study, participants communicated language awareness toward different Englishes after they had been in the U.S.; however, they still lacked critical language consciousness to shake their entrenched belief about standardized English and other non-standardized English. It seemed mainly because participants were not attentive to the "particular values, beliefs, and preconceptions" attached to English and had no attempt to "seek racial, ethnic, cultural, and linguistic equality" in learning English (Kubota, 1998, p. 303). Hence, it is necessary to promote critical pedagogy to foster critical awareness of English among English learners. One effective way may be to ask critical questions to engage students in discussions, a practice that is in line with what Cassum, Gul, and Profetto-McGrath (2015) stated, "teacher[s'] use of effective questioning skills in classroom promote CT [critical thinking] in learners. Questioning was viewed as an important element of deeper inquiry, [which] fosters students' engagement in discussion" (p. 61). This means questions should be initiated by teachers. According to my teaching experiences, teachers should begin with broad questions, like "What is the difference of the English spoken in the video with the English you are familiar with?" and then, based upon students' answers, teachers can further question students with deeper and more demanding questions. One general suggestion to teachers is to ask more contextualized questions, so that students can connect their own English learning experiences with the questions. Although teachers' competence in asking questions is vital, sometimes other factors like "nature of students, learning environment, and organizational ethos and resources" can affect the overall outcome of the questioning activities (Cassum, Gul, & Profetto-McGrath, p. 60).

Therefore, another suggestion for teachers is to utilize available resources in the classroom to devise relevant activities. For instance, according to the dynamics of the classroom, teachers can choose role-playing, English speech competition, World English Appreciation Day, and reflective writing to enable students to take different roles in English learning, not just as English learners, but also legitimate English users. Through these activities, even though there are no different English speakers in classrooms, or students are unable to answer critical questions, they can still experience or imagine the usages of English in different situations and think about whether they have to have "perfect" American or British English when the interlocutor is from Japan, for instance. It is important to have students have empathy to other English learners and to embrace different Englishes and also claim their ownership of their own English functioning in their local community (Xu et al., 2010). In fostering this attitude among students, teachers should redefine their assessment of the success of English learners, which should not be based upon "foreign accents, - the extent to which people's pronunciation conforms to native standards" (Cook, 1999, p. 195), but may be based on the clarity of their speaking and the effectiveness of their communication. The omission of one's accent is to conceal which part of the world they come from, which would not help ameliorate the native speaker bias among English learners and which is unfair to students as well.

Limitations

In spite of the contributions of the research, this study has several limitations that need addressing. As Galvan (2009) stated, "all quantitative studies are subject to errors of various kinds, so no one study should be taken as providing the definitive answer(s) to a given research problem" (p. 52). The quantitative survey in this study was flawed in the naming of different Englishes. Given all kinds of different Englishes but unable to list all the Englishes existent in the world, the survey questions could limit participants' selection and affect their decisions. Also, in the survey, particularly when asking about the participants' experiences in China like what kind of English they were introduced to in China, the researcher used norms that were prevalent in China. For example, in China, it was a commonsense that there were only British and American English, which referred to standardized British and American English shown in textbooks in China. In order to be consistent with the way of naming different Englishes in the answer, I only listed different Englishes based on the nationalities, like British, American, Australian, Canadian, and Indian

English. The variations within a nation was not emphasized in those questions; however, when asking what kinds of Englishes were represented in social media, I provided more specific Englishes within and across nations, like in the context of the U.S., the answers include standardized American English, African American English, and Pennsylvanian Dutch English. This survey design was mainly due to my positioning as an international Chinese student who learned English in China for over 10 years and stayed in the U.S. for almost five years. As an insider of the study, I meticulously thought about the most effective way to structure the survey questions. American English is a national concept. There were many varieties of American English under this big umbrella, including African-American Vernacular English, Chicano English, Cajun English, and Pennsylvania Dutch English; however, it might be useless to give all these specific Englishes since, in China, students may have no chance to access or little awareness of those Englishes that could only be more fully recognized after their exposure in the context of the U.S. Although it seemed carefully designed, some researchers might still think this is a bias since every international Chinese student is different in his or her experiences in English learning in China. Another reason was to prevent their current experiences and exposure to varieties of English from affecting their past experiences, and after a consultation with many previous studies done on attitudes on English varieties in China in which the labelling of Englishes were only based upon national boundaries, I decided to provide different varieties of English according to the national names, like Indian English, Australian English, British English, and American English; however, the data is still considered valid since the result was backed up by several other survey questions with thorough answers. Another limitation in the survey was the low response of the survey. The number of the responses could affect the accuracy of the survey result, whereas as I mentioned earlier in the study, the survey result was only considered suggestive information. The utilization of the interviews could enhance the validity of the whole study.

Future Research

This study examined international Chinese students' experiences and attitudes toward varieties of English before and after their arrivals in the U.S. The participants' identities as international students in the U.S. higher education mean that most of their encounters with varieties of English were within the campus area. The limitation of their social network and the generally more inclusive and friendly campus environment could be a factor of the participants' experiences and

attitudes toward different English varieties. Therefore, the future direction of the study should expand the research site from campus to non-campus areas. A comparison and contrast of the experiences and attitudes toward the two populations could be an interesting study. Also, this study only focused on international Chinese students. The research population can be expanded to more international students from varying contexts in the future.

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Appendinces

Appendix I

Survey Questions

This online survey is designed to understand international Chinese students' (both undergraduates and graduates) experiences of and attitudes toward different kinds of English. Do you agree to participate in the online survey?
Yes-the survey will continue
No-the survey will end

Are you an undergraduate or a graduate student at IUP?
Undergraduate
Graduate

Specify their majors
Age
Gender

I.   **Education History**

1. How long have you been at IUP?
        One semester
        One year
        Two years
        More than two years

2. What is your highest level of education in China?
        High school
        Undergraduate
        Graduate
        Post-graduate

3. Before coming to IUP, have you studied in any countries or regions other than China and IUP?
        Yes/ No
        If yes, specify where and what level

II.   **English Training**

4. When did you start learning English in China?
      Elementary school
      Junior high
      High school

University

5. How many years in total did you learn English in China?

6. At schools in China, what kinds of English were you taught and learned?
    British English
    American English
    Chinese English
    Australian English
    Other _____

7. What was your idea of "Standard" English back then?
    British English
    Chinese English
    Australia English
    American English
    Other_____

8. Did you have English teachers from other countries in China? YES/ NO
    If yes, where are they from?
    The US
    British
    Canada
    Australia
    India
    Other_____

9. Outside of school, what sources of English media were you exposed to in China?
    TV
    Internet
    Newspapers
    Books
    Personal interaction (with your friends, instructors, and classmates)
    Other_____

10. Thinking of the English media you were exposed to in China, what kinds of English were used?

    Standard British English
    Cockney
    Southeast British English
    Southwest ..
    Midlands English
    Northern England English
    Geordie
    Welsh English
    Scottish English
    Irish English
    Other British English_____

Standard American English
African American English
Pennsylvania Dutch English
Chicano English
Southern American English
Native American English
Other American English____
Canadian English
Central and South America
Hong Kong English
Indian English
Singapore English
Other Asian English_____
South African English
Other African English_____
Australian English

11. What are the reasons for you to study in the United States?
    To improve English
    An American degree provides more opportunities than a Chinese degree
    To be a global citizen
    To work abroad
    To move to the US
    Interested in American culture
    Other_____

III.   Experience in the United States

12. At IUP, in classes, did your instructors speak standard American English that you can understand? Yes/ No
    If No, please specify the dialects

13. Outside of the classes in communication with classmates and community members, have you experienced non-standard American dialects? Yes/No

14. Can you identity which dialects they speak? Yes/No

15. If yes, which dialects do you recognize?
    Standard British English
    Cockney
    Southeast British English
    Southwest ..
    Midlands English
    Northern England English
    Geordie
    Welsh English
    Scottish English

Irish English
Other British English_____
Standard American English
African American English
Pennsylvania Dutch English
Chicano English
Southern American English
Native American English
Other American English_____
Canadian English
Central and South America
Hong Kong English
Indian English
Singapore English
Other Asian English_____
South African English
Other African English_____
Australian English

16. Are you willing to learn other kinds of English? Yes/ No
    If yes, which one are you willing to learn?
        Standard British English
        Cockney
        Southeast British English
        Southwest ..
        Midlands English
        Northern England English
        Geordie
        Welsh English
        Scottish English
        Irish English
        Other British English_____
        Standard American English
        African American English
        Pennsylvania Dutch English
        Chicano English
        Southern American English
        Native American English
        Other American English_____
        Canadian English
        Central and South America
        Hong Kong English
        Indian English
        Singapore English
        Other Asian English_____
        South African English
        Other African English_____

Australian English

17. When speaking to someone whose English is not standard English, do you think
 They are uneducated
 They are educated
 They are trying to frustrate me
 They think I am stupid
 They deserve to be respected as much as those who speak Standard English
 Other_____

18. Do you have friends who speak non-standard English other than Chinese students?
 Yes/No

Would you be interested in participating in a short (30 – 45 min) interview to give me more of your ideas about these kinds of experiences.

<u>Yes—it takes them to a section that asks for their contact information</u>

<u>No-stops survey and thanks them</u>

Appendix B

Individual Interview Protocol

I.   **Demographics:**

    1. Are you a student from ALI (American Language Institute), or undergraduate or a graduate student at IUP?

    2. Please specify your major

II.   **English Education History**

    3. Please tell me your English education in China?

    Follow-up questions will be like:

- Except for learning English at school, have you been to any other English learning programs (clubs) in China?

- Did you have English friends or teachers from other countries? Where were they from and which English did they speak?

    4. There are so many English countries in the world. Why did you choose the United States?

    Follow-up questions will be like:

- Have you been to any other countries other than China and the United States

III.   **Experience in the United States**

    5. Did you experience any conflicts of English between what you had been taught and learned in China and what you experienced in the United States?

    Follow-up questions will be like:

- What did your English teachers in China tell you about American English and what was your experience of American English?

    6. What was your experience in classrooms in terms of the English they spoke (like your instructors and your classmates)?

    Follow-up questions will be like:

- Did you experience any challenge?

    7. Did you have working experience in the United States?

Follow-up questions will be like:

- What kinds of English did they speak?

- What kinds of challenge did your encounter in terms of communication?

IV.   Attitudinal changes

8. How did those experiences affect your understanding of different kinds of Englishes?

Not all nouns are created equal: Japanese EFL learners, written English, and plural marking of loanwords and non-loanwords

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Bio data

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Abstract

This study investigated Japanese EFL learners' performance on tasks designed to assess accuracy in obligatory plural marking of countable nouns. A total of 210 students from two universities in Western Japan each completed an error recognition task, and two writing tasks that were devised to compare awareness of the need for plural marking on three different types of countable nouns: (i) English loanwords having no Japanese equivalent (e.g., バナナ (*banana*)—*bananas*); (ii) English loanwords that also have Japanese equivalents (e.g., さくらんぼ (*sakuranbo*)・チェリー (*chierii*)—*cherries*); and (iii) nouns that have only a Japanese form (e.g., 柿 (*kaki*)—*persimmons*). The results of the error recognition task indicated that learners were least able to identify plural omission errors on English loanwords having no Japanese equivalent. On the other hand, participants identified more plural omission errors on English loanwords that also have Japanese forms than on nouns that have only Japanese (i.e., no loanword) forms. However, on both the picture description and free writing tasks, a somewhat different pattern emerged. Japanese EFL learners produced the fewest plural endings on English loanwords having no Japanese alternative, but they produced the highest percentage of obligatory plural endings on nouns with Japanese-only forms. Accuracy of plural marking for

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nouns, which in Japanese have both an English loanword and a Japanese equivalent, fell between the other two categories. Possible implications for pedagogy are discussed as well as future avenues of research.

Introduction

The role of the mother tongue (L1) in the acquisition of a second language (L2) has long been deemed an important one. The potential for L1 to in some way influence L2, for better or for worse, lies at the heart of cross-linguistic theory (see, for example, Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010; Odlin, 1997; Ringbom, 2007) and may have implications for second and foreign language teaching. The present study investigates the possibility that Japanese EFL learners' grammatical handling of nouns may be influenced by the substantial corpus of nouns in the Japanese lexicon originally borrowed from English. Specifically, the study focuses on learners' abilities to identify plural omission errors in written texts, as well as to appropriately mark plural nouns in their own writing. It attempts to establish whether English loanwords might be more problematic than other categories of countable noun in cases requiring plural marking and, if so, how this may impact pedagogy.

Literature review

In order to contextualize this study, it would be beneficial to first briefly comment on the role that English loanwords play in Japanese. The Japanese lexicon consists of native words (和語—*wago*), as well as Chinese-derived words (漢語—*kango*) that were added later. As contact with foreign nations outside China increased, Japanese began to adopt words from other languages such as Portuguese, German, and—most notably—English. Loanwords are referred to in Japanese as *gairaigo* (外来語), which, taken literally from their Chinese characters, means "outside" (外—*gai*), "come" (来—*rai*), and "word" (語—*go*). The presence of English loanwords has increased tremendously in recent years with some reports claiming that the figures have more than doubled since the seventies (e.g., MacGregor, 2003). It is estimated that modern Japanese now contains tens of thousands of loanwords (Stanlaw, 2004), constituting approximately 8% of its lexical base (Barrs, 2013). These are imported through the use of the block script, *katakana* (カタカナ), which

is used exclusively for foreign words. The terms *loanwords*, *import words*, *katakana words*, and *gairaigo* can be used interchangeably.

A significantly large proportion of these lexical borrowings in Japanese consist of nouns. Unlike English, however, a distinction is not drawn between the concept of countable and uncountable nouns. Iwasaki, Vinson, and Vigliocco (2010) explained that a major obstacle for Japanese speakers learning English is failing to assimilate the concept of countability. As a result, there is a tendency for Japanese learners to persist in making plural marking errors (e.g., "*The convenience store sells sandwich.*"). Kobayashi (2008) further described the problem by noting that Japanese learners of English tend to treat abstract nouns, in particular, as uncountable.

While Japanese learners of English are prone to making plural marking errors, one particular instance might be loanwords. Lucas (2017) found that loanwords were more resistant to morphosyntactic modification, since their plural suffixes were more likely to be omitted. One possible explanation for this is that singular borrowed nouns become fixed, or "fossilized" (see Selinker, 1972), due to habitual use in L1 and are thus misused in L2. Indeed, as Kay (1995, p. 72) points out, "(m)ost loanwords are nouns, which do not take inflectional endings." Similarly, Huynh (2013, p. 12) states that "(l)oanwords that are nouns directly enter the language without any major syntactical changes, as there are no classifications or suffixes to indicate change in . . . number in Japanese grammar."

Recent research into the inflection of loanwords seems to have focused largely on Middle Eastern and Southern Asian languages such as Arabic, Persian, and Urdu. For example, Al-Saidat (2011) examined English loanwords in Jordanian Arabic in the context of gender-marked suffixes and concluded that their expression in L2 does not reflect their L1 forms so as "not to violate the . . . morphological systems of the native language," and that the L1 therefore "plays the role of the governor" (p. 59). Hashabeiky (2007) investigated plurality in Persian subject-verb agreement and suggested that, although there may be a possibility in the future of English loanwords syntactically evolving to match their original grammatical contexts, they currently exist only in forms that reflect L1 grammar.

While the above studies of Arabic and Persian are illuminating in that they demonstrate how loanwords are resistant to morphosyntactic modification, there still remains very little research within a Japanese context, particularly research on the possible influence of English loanwords on the tendency of Japanese learners to omit obligatory plural endings on countable nouns. The current

study seeks to determine whether loanwords are any more problematic in this respect than other categories of countable noun. If such an influence from L1 were to exist in Japanese, it might have implications for the way in which vocabulary instruction is approached, as loanwords may require extra attention with regard to plural endings. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate whether a quantitative difference exists between three distinct categories of countable nouns: (i) those that have Japanese-only forms with no loanword equivalents (herewith "J-nouns"; e.g., 植物 (*shokubutsu*)—*plants*); (ii) those that exist in both English loanword and Japanese forms (herewith "E-J-nouns"; e.g., 飲み物 (*nomimono*)・ドリンク (*dorinku*)—*drinks*); and (iii) those that can be only expressed using English loanwords with no corresponding Japanese equivalents (herewith "E-nouns"; e.g., ビタミン (*bitamin*)—*vitamins*). While accuracy-based issues can be subdivided into spoken and written domains, for the purposes of research manageability, writing was selected over speaking in this study.

Research questions

Due to the lack of prior empirical research, the study sought to investigate whether the use of English countable noun loanwords in Japanese influence both the recognition of plural omission errors and the accuracy of their plural marking in written English. Accordingly, there are three null hypotheses:

1. There will be no differences in the ability of learners to correctly recognize plural omission errors (measured as mean accuracy percentage) among any of the three categories of J-nouns, J-E-nouns, or E-nouns.

2. Given a picture description task, there will be no differences in the ability of learners to appropriately produce plural forms (measured as mean accuracy percentage) among any of the three categories of J-nouns, J-E-nouns, or E-nouns.

3. Given a free writing task, there will be no differences in the ability of learners to appropriately produce plural forms (measured as mean accuracy percentage) among any of the three categories of J-nouns, J-E-nouns, or E-nouns.

Since loanwords might be more problematic, the direction of expected results may be stated as the following three alternative hypotheses:

1. The ability of learners to correctly recognize plural omission errors (measured as mean accuracy percentage) will be less for E-nouns than for J-E-nouns, and less for J-E-nouns than for J-nouns.

2. The ability of learners to produce obligatory plural forms in a picture description task (measured as mean accuracy percentage) will be less for E-nouns than for J-E-nouns, and less for J-E-nouns than for J-nouns.

3. The ability of learners to produce obligatory plural forms in a free writing task (measured as mean accuracy percentage) will be less for E-nouns than for J-E-nouns, and less for J-E-nouns than for J-nouns.

Methodology

Participants and sampling

Participants ($N = 210$; 118 female, 92 male) were 18- and 19-year old first-year native Japanese speakers from two private universities in Osaka. Opportunity sampling was used to solicit volunteers from among those enrolled in English communication skills courses in the faculties of Economics, Commerce, Social Science, Law, Literature, and International Studies. The vast majority of the participants ($N = 193$) was drawn from the first of these two universities; one that used the Global Test of English Communication (GTEC; see http://www.benesse.co.jp/gtec/english/) as its placement test. The average scores on the GTEC were 137 in listening ($SD = 12.62$) and 124 in reading ($SD = 14.29$), which corresponds to the upper banding of A2 level in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; for further details, see http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre1_en.asp). The remaining participants ($N = 17$) were drawn from the second university whose proficiency level was estimated to be similar to that of the first university. All participants had previously received at least six years of formal EFL instruction. Given the specific nature of the research, it is unlikely that the participants had received previous instruction regarding the way in which awareness of categories of countable nouns may influence plural marking. Although the participants were informed that they were being tested for their accuracy, they were not informed of the primary focus on countable nouns. Only data from those who provided written consent was included in the write-up of this study.

Item selection

The items selected for inclusion in the study were principally extracted and cross-checked from three paper dictionaries (*Mainichi Shimbun's Dictionary of Katakana Words*, *Obunsha's Dictionary of Katakana Words & Abbreviated Words*, and *Shogakukan's Dictionary of Loanwords*), as well as one online resource (*Jim Breen's Online Japanese Dictionary Service*; http://nihongo.monash.edu/cgi-bin/wwwjdic). The purpose of this was to ensure that the nouns sufficiently met the criteria for each of the three categories of nouns. There were only very occasional instances of categories overlapping, such as 傘 (*kasa*—umbrella), which is essentially a Japanese-only form (used to refer to the object providing protection from rain or sun), but, in extremely rare cases, *katakana* may also be used as a specific tailoring term used to refer to a special type of cut in dress-making (アンブレラ・カット (*anburera katto*)—*umbrella cut*). Due to its semantic narrowing (therefore being contextually different), as well as its low-frequency usage, it was deemed permissible for such words to be included. However, loanwords imported into Japanese either in their pluralized form (e.g., シューズ (*shuuzu*)—*shoes*) or those that phonetically resemble plural forms in their singular form (シャツ (*shaatsu*)—*shirt*, which sounds like *shirts*) were automatically disqualified for inclusion.

Instruments and procedure

In order to test whether there was a difference in both recognition and written production between each category of noun, three separate instruments were devised. A commentary to the reliability of each these instruments is provided below.

Instrument 1: Error recognition reading task

The first instrument was a reading task that required participants to identify and correct any sentences they deemed to be grammatically incorrect in a short, paragraphed text. The text consisted of thirty-eight sentences: six included J-nouns, six with J-E-nouns, six with E-nouns, and the remainder were made up of random mix of unrelated "decoy" errors and non-error sentences in approximately equal proportion (see Appendix A). The use of counters with countable nouns (e.g., *a few, lots of*, etc.) was deliberately kept to a minimum so as not to provide syntactic hints. The text was presented as a narrative separated by single lines in numbered sentences to facilitate ease of understanding, as well as to make grammatical errors somewhat more salient. The register

was deliberately rendered informal to match the conversational emphasis of the courses. These points were explained explicitly to the participants, both verbally and in writing. The task was allotted twelve minutes for its completion. In order to determine the instrument reliability of the error recognition task, a Cronbach's Alpha analysis was applied to the participants' responses from all of its thirty-eight items and, according to Kline's (2000) criteria, was deemed "Acceptable" (α = .72). Following the guidelines set out by Loewen and Philip (2006), who suggest that 10% of the sample is sufficient for a reliability analysis, the inter-rater reliability was also established using a second rater for each instrument. Cohen's kappa was calculated from randomly-selected data across all participating classes. Although the benchmark scale against which to measure the kappa statistic remains contentious (see, for example, Larson-Hall & Plonsky, 2015), the standard scale devised by Landis and Koch (1977) was applied to all Cohen's kappa analyses in this study. According to the confidence intervals on this scale, the inter-rater reliability for each of the three categories of noun (six items per category) on the error recognition instrument was "Almost Perfect" (κ = .89).

Instrument 2: Picture description writing tasks

The second instrument was designed to measure written production of the three categories of noun. It required participants to write three short paragraphs based on the contents of three separate photographs (see Appendix B). Each picture description task necessitated the use of the three categories of countable nouns in the following way. First, J-nouns were elicited through farm animals since *katakana* is not generally used for such animals (e.g., 牛 (*ushi*)—*cows*); second, J-E-nouns through fruit since many are used interchangeably (e.g., さくらんぼ (*sakuranbo*)・チェリー (*chierii*)—*cherries*); and third, E-nouns through musical instruments since most types are not traditionally Japanese and therefore have no L1 equivalents (e.g., ギター (*gitaa*)—*guitars*). Participants were required to complete all three picture description tasks consecutively. The tasks were distributed in random order (so as to eliminate any potential order effect), and the time permitted for each picture was six minutes. Task performance was measured using a ratio of accuracy that was calculated by dividing the total number of appropriately-produced items against the total number of instances in which pluralization usage was actually possible (see *Task scoring* below for a detailed explanation of this process). The inter-rater reliability for these two values (i.e, appropriately-produced items and possible items) was calculated. The first was determined as

"Moderate" ($\kappa = .59$) and the second as "Substantial" ($\kappa = .69$).

Instrument 3: Free writing task

The final instrument was a supplementary free writing task designed to gather data in less of a controlled way. The task required participants to write an opinion paragraph about the issue of animals being kept in zoos. This topic was selected because zoo animals in Japanese cover the breadth of all three categories of countable nouns. The participants were given ten minutes to complete the task. As with the picture description tasks, inter-rater reliability was calculated in two sets: one for appropriately-produced items and the other for all possible items (see *Task scoring* below). These were determined as "Substantial" ($\kappa = .61$) and "Moderate" ($\kappa = .48$), respectively.

Having piloted and revised the instruments, all three types of tasks were conducted over the span of one semester at the start of three separate lessons. One of the revisions after the pilot was to provide bilingual written instructions for each task to avoid potential misunderstandings. The tasks were supplemented by additional quantitative data from two online surveys (using the website "Survey Monkey", https://www.surveymonkey.com) and provided to participants from the first university. The first survey was administered immediately after the error recognition task and the second after the final production task. To further inform the primary statistics, qualitative data were also obtained from focus group interviews. Two interview sessions were held for two independent classes from the first university and were conducted in both English and Japanese in accordance with the participants' wishes.

Task scoring

First, in order for comparisons to be drawn across all three types of tasks, data from incomplete responses, as well as that lost from attrition, were removed.

Scores on the error recognition task were easy to quantify since the sentences in the text were either correct or incorrect. The score for each of the three categories of nouns was calculated as total correct out of six; the score for unrelated errors was total correct out of eleven and the score for non-errors was total correct out of nine (to match the number of items in each of these categories). Scorings from this instrument, as well as from the other two, were then converted into percentages so that the measurement of performance across the entire study could be standardized. Therefore, all three sets of results for mean accuracy are reported as percentages.

The picture description and free writing tasks were less straight-forward as each participant produced an unspecified number of nouns. All nouns were divided into their respective categories according to the task. Thus, in the first picture description task (which required J-nouns), the number of appropriately pluralized nouns was measured against the base of their total production. This can be illustrated with the following example:

> *His job is a farmer. He is looking after cows. He also has horses, sheep, and pig. I can't see in the picture, but I think he may have goats.*

The total instances of countable J-nouns (i.e., no *katakana* equivalent) that require plural marking is four: *cow* (牛—*ushi*), *horse* (馬—*uma*), *pig* (豚—*buta*), and *goat* (山羊—*yagi*). Note that *sheep* is not counted for inclusion since it does not require a plural suffix to indicate that there is more than one. If a participant wrote *sheeps*, it would be eliminated. From these four, plural endings have been applied three times (with *pig* failing to be pluralized), thus resulting in a score of 3/4.

The same principle was applied to the remaining two picture description tasks (i.e., those requiring J-E-nouns and E-nouns), both in accordance with their respective criteria as previously outlined. The free writing task was scored in exactly the same way, except nouns from all three categories were included in the single piece of writing.

Results

Error recognition in the reading task

Table 1
Descriptive statistics for accuracy of error recognition

Error	*M*	*SE*	95% CI		*SD*
			LL	*UL*	
J-nouns	10.71	0.94	8.87	12.56	13.55
J-E-nouns	15.79	1.31	13.21	18.38	19.03
E-nouns	4.44	0.61	3.24	5.65	8.86
Unrelated	30.82	1.12	28.62	33.03	16.20

The

Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 1. Since the study utilized a within-subjects design with repeated measures, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare the overall effect of the four categories of error on how successfully they were each recognized. A significant effect was observed at the $p < .05$ level for all four categories of error, $F(3, 836) = 119.97$, $p = <.001$, with an effect size between samll and moderate ($\eta^2 = .094$) according to Cohen's (1988) criteria.

Table 2
Post hoc LSD analysis of accuracy of error recognition

Error	Error	Mean Dif.	SE	P	95% CI	
					LL	UL
J-nouns	J-E-nouns	-5.08	1.45	<.001	-7.93	-2.23
	E-nouns	6.27	1.45	<.001	3.42	9.12
	J-nouns	-20.11	1.45	<.001	-22.96	-17.26
J-E-nouns	J-nouns	5.08	1.45	<.001	2.23	7.93
	E-nouns	11.35	1.45	<.001	8.50	14.20
	J-nouns	-15.03	1.45	<.001	-17.88	-12.18
E-nouns	J-nouns	-6.27	1.45	<.001	-9.12	-3.42
	J-E-nouns	-11.35	1.45	<.001	-14.20	-8.50
	J-nouns	-26.38	1.45	<.001	-29.23	-23.53
Unrelated	J-nouns	20.11	1.45	<.001	17.26	22.96
	J-E-nouns	15.03	1.45	<.001	12.18	17.88
	E-nouns	26.38	1.45	<.001	23.53	29.23
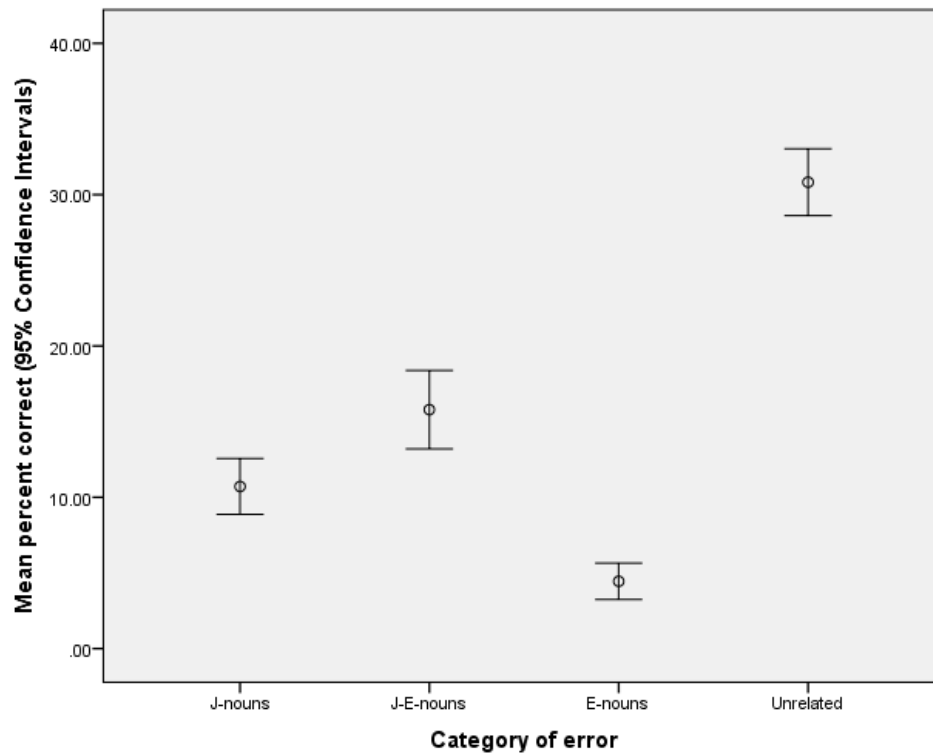
Figure 1. Accuracy of error recognition

In order to determine where the differences lie in performance, a post hoc multiple comparisons analysis was carried out using Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test. Since six possible combinations of comparison can be calibrated across the four categories of error, a level of .008 was required in order to demonstrate a significant difference (i.e., .05 ÷ 6). The results indicated that the mean scores for the four categories of error and their successful recognition in the reading task were all significantly different (see Table 2 and Figure 1).

Although the first null hypothesis may be rejected in that there were indeed differences in the ability of learners to correctly recognize plural omission errors between J-nouns, J-E-nouns, and E-nouns, the first alternative hypothesis may only be partially accepted. This is because whereas performance for E-nouns was worse than for J-E nouns (as expected), performance for J-E-nouns was actually better than for J-nouns.

Production in the picture description tasks

Table 3
Descriptive statistics for effect of picture on accuracy of noun pluralization

Error	*M*	*SE*	95% CI		*SD*
			LL	*UL*	
J-nouns	72.82	2.67	67.55	78.08	38.70
J-E-nouns	59.63	3.17	53.38	65.88	45.96
E-nouns	42.59	3.19	36.30	48.87	46.18

The descriptive statistics are indicated in Table 3. An ANOVA was also conducted to compare the overall effect of the three pictures necessitating the use of the three categories of nouns and the degree to which their plural endings were appropriately produced. There was a significant effect of the picture on the production of plural endings at the $p < .05$ level for all three pictures, $F(2, 627) = 25.21$, $p = <.001$, with an effect size between small and moderate ($\eta^2 = .074$); see Cohen (1988).

Table 4
Post hoc LSD analysis of picture on accuracy of noun pluralization

Picture	Picture	*Mean Dif.*	*SE*	*P*	95% CI	
					LL	*UL*
J-nouns	J-E-nouns	13.19	4.27	<.001	4.80	21.57
	E-nouns	30.23	4.27	<.001	21.85	38.62
J-E-nouns	J-nouns	-13.19	4.27	<.001	-21.57	-4.80
	E-nouns	17.05	4.27	<.001	8.66	25.43
E-nouns	J-nouns	-30.23	4.27	<.001	-38.62	-21.85
	J-E-nouns	-17.05	4.27	<.001	-25.43	-8.66
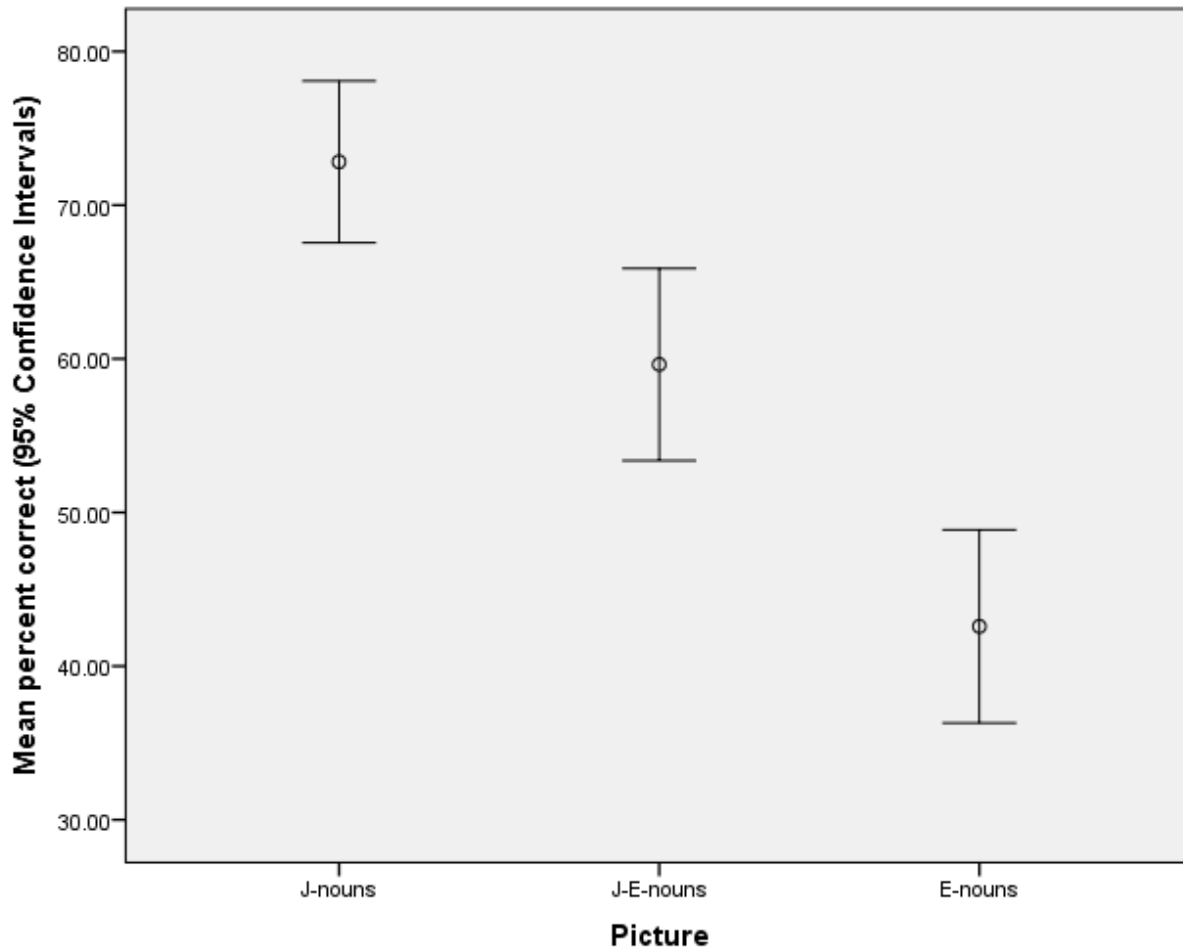
Figure 2. Accuracy of plural marking in picture description tasks

Post hoc multiple comparisons (see Table 4 and Figure 2), also using Fisher's LSD test, revealed that the mean scores for all three pictures and the appropriate production of plural endings were significantly different from each other at the .017 level (i.e., .05 ÷ 3).

The post hoc results indicated that the second null hypothesis was rejected. Since the accuracy of plural marking was less for E-nouns than for J-E-nouns, and less for J-E-nouns than for J-nouns, the second alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Production in the free writing task

Table 5
Descriptive statistics for accuracy of noun pluralization in free writing

Error	M	SE	95% CI LL	95% CI UL	SD
J-nouns	39.93	3.19	33.63	46.22	46.27
J-E-nouns	30.00	3.04	24.00	36.00	44.10
E-nouns	17.58	2.56	12.53	22.64	37.08

The descriptive statistics can be seen in Table 5. A further ANOVA was carried out in order to compare the overall effect of the categories of noun in the free writing task and the degree to which their plural endings were produced. There was a significant effect of noun at the $p < .05$ level for all three categories, $F(2, 626) = 14.42$, $p = <.001$, with an effect size between small and moderate ($\eta^2 = .044$); see Cohen (1988).

Table 6
Post hoc LSD analysis of accuracy of noun pluralization in free writing

Noun	Noun	Mean Dif.	SE	P	95% CI LL	95% CI UL
J-nouns	J-E-nouns	9.93	4.16	.017	1.75	18.11
	E-nouns	22.34	4.17	<.001	14.16	30.53
J-E-nouns	J-nouns	-9.93	4.16	.017	-18.11	-1.75
	E-nouns	12.42	4.17	<.001	4.23	20.60
E-nouns	J-nouns	-22.34	4.17	<.001	-30.53	-14.16
	J-E-nouns	-12.42	4.17	<.001	-20.60	-4.23
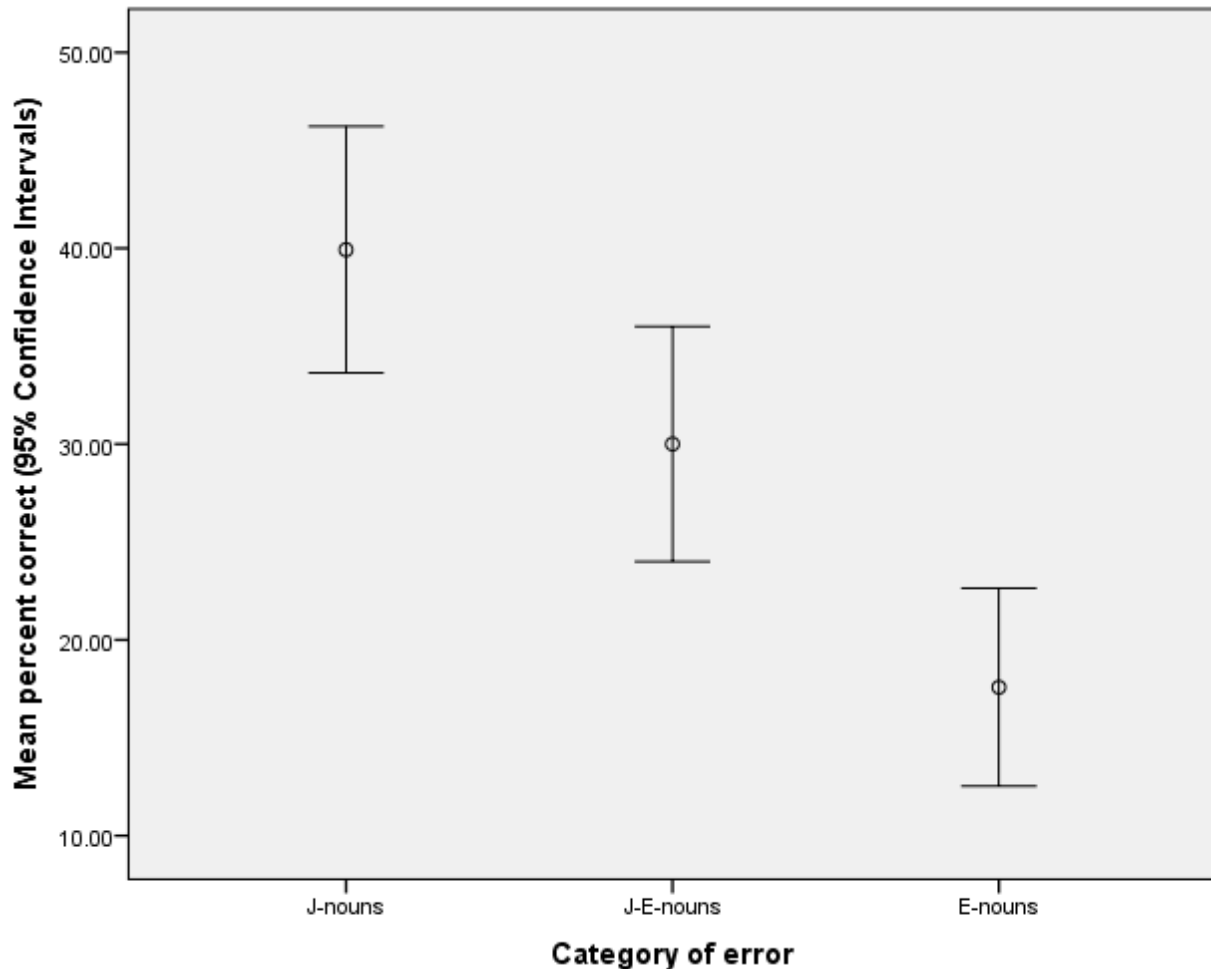
Figure 3. Accuracy of plural marking in free writing task

Post hoc multiple comparisons (see Table 6 and Figure 3), also using Fisher's LSD test, indicated that the mean scores for all three categories of nouns and the production of their plural endings were individually significant at the .017 level (i.e., .05 ÷ 3). However, it should be noted that the difference between J-nouns and J-E-nouns lay precisely at the significance level of .017 with a small effect size ($d = .22$), whereas a stronger influence came from E-nouns with a significance level of <.001 and a moderate effect size ($d = .53$) according to Cohen's (1988) criteria.

These results mean that the third null hypothesis was also rejected. As with the picture description tasks, the pluralization of E-nouns was significantly less than for J-nouns, and J-E-nouns fell between the other two categories. Therefore, the third alternative hypothesis was also accepted.

Discussion

Error recognition in the reading task and related limitations

The first null hypothesis stated that there would be no difference in the ability of learners to correctly recognize plural omission errors in any of the three categories of J-nouns, J-E-nouns, or E-nouns. The findings from the reading task revealed that there was, in fact, a significant difference between the three categories of nouns in terms of the degree to which errors associated with plural omissions were recognized. Although a significant difference was also found in the category of unrelated errors, the primary concern of this study was to examine the effect of nouns. In line with the first alternative hypothesis, learners made more plural omission errors in relation to E-nouns. However, learners were more accurate with E-J-nouns than with J-nouns. Thus, the first alternative hypothesis was only accepted in part. Given that katakana words may produce a fossilization effect, it was expected that J-E-nouns would produce performance scores somewhere between J-nouns and E-nouns, but this expectation was not supported by the results. There are three potential explanations for this finding.

The first possibility is that two of the six J-nouns chosen for inclusion in the reading task were compound nouns (i.e., *vacuum cleaner* and *washing machine*) whose latter constituent, or morphological head, also serve as *katakana* words in their isolated forms (i.e., *cleaner*—クリーナー (*kuriinaa*) and *machine*—マシーン (*mashiin*)). Owing to the notion of "compound fracture"— where learners treat each constituent separately—it is possible that participants focused on the individual words rather than on their compound forms, which impacted on the subsequent decisions they made (see, for example, Libben, Gibson, Yoon, & Sandra, 2003). Indeed, the recognition of errors for these two instances was very low (5.1% and 2.9%, respectively) compared with other non-compound nouns within the same category (e.g., *plant*, which was 37.7%).

The second possibility is that the error recognition task was simply too demanding for the participants' current linguistic level. In the survey conducted immediately upon completion of the task (see Appendix C), over half of the respondents (52.9%) believed that only a quarter of the items in the error recognition task contained grammatical errors. Although, in reality, around three quarters of the items contained errors, only a small fraction of participants (5.83%) estimated the correct proportion. The difficulty of the task was further reflected by large proportions (48.5% and 37.7%, respectively) reporting both the error recognition and error correction tasks to be "not very easy."

The third possibility—and one that could serve to tie together the other two—is the way in which noun frequency might have impacted upon the results. Perhaps more conclusive deductions could be drawn if morphological rule application is separated from lexical knowledge. In other words, a distinction needs to be drawn between whether the learners were able to recognize plural omission errors based on their grammatical ability or simply through having more familiarity with higher frequency nouns whose plural markings are repeatedly encountered.

These limitations mean that if the study were to be replicated, measures should be taken not to include compound nouns, to provide a task that is more appropriately matched to the learners' linguistic level proficiency, and to take into account the lexical frequencies of the items presented in the task, perhaps by standardizing them within a particular range. As an extra precaution, it would also be safer to remove all items that overlap with the other categories of nouns due to semantic narrowing, even if the context in which they are cited is different from that in which they are usually found and are extremely low-frequency words.

Production in the picture description tasks and related limitations

The second null hypothesis stated that there would be no difference in the ability of learners to appropriately produce plural forms between E-nouns, J-nouns, and J-E-nouns. Significant differences in plural marking were, in fact, found between all three categories of noun, as elicited by each of the three separate pictures. Thus, the second null hypothesis was rejected. Since performance for E-nouns was weaker than for both J-E-nouns and J-nouns, and performance for J-E-nouns was weaker than for J-nouns, the second alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Insights into the picture description findings may be drawn from the survey data (see Appendix D). Some 72.9% of respondents stated that they were conscious of repeating similar types of errors across all three tasks, with a quarter (25%) reporting plural endings to be particularly problematic. This suggests that in spite of an awareness of accuracy-based issues, many of the participants might have repeatedly made plural marking errors through the force of habit, or fossilization.

However, as with the recognition task, lexical frequency may need to be taken into account for more concrete conclusions to be drawn. Future related studies should therefore attempt to investigate this factor.

Production in the free writing task and related limitations

Significant differences in plural marking in the free writing task were detected across all three categories of noun, following the same pattern of results as the picture description task. Therefore, the third null hypothesis was rejected and the third alternative hypothesis accepted. However, as noted in the results section, the gradual decrease in corresponding effect size across all three tasks (.094, .074, and .044, respectively) suggests how the variables become increasingly difficult to manipulate the less controlled they become. For these reasons, the free writing task should be viewed as a supplementary source of productive data rather than the primary one of the picture description tasks.

Another limitation with the free writing task is the difficultly in determining which items should qualify for inclusion in each of the three categories of nouns. Some nouns that are predominantly used in their Japanese form may also exist as loanwords, albeit in semantically-narrowed contexts, and are therefore more difficult to judge. An example of this is "cat." Ordinarily, the standard Japanese word for cat (猫—*neko*) refers to the animal, but its loanword form (キャット—*kyatto*) may be used in alternative ways, such as in the names of companies, products, or cartoon characters. Moreover, there are occasional instances of semantic narrowing that may include loanwords being adopted in their plural forms. For example, "tiger" is automatically pluralized when used for the baseball team "Hanshin Tigers" (阪神タイガース), which could possibly impact upon the way it was produced in the task. Although the criteria for each category of nouns was discussed with the second rater, concordance became weaker in the free writing task, particularly when it came to judging all items produced (as opposed to appropriately-produced items). This was reflected in the lower inter-rater reliability score obtained for all items produced in the free writing task compared with the more controlled picture description task ($\kappa = .48$ and $\kappa = .59$, respectively). Should the study be replicated, a countermeasure against this weakness could be to establish a principle for categorizing the items and to produce a standardized list for each rater to work from.

Implications

Although performance across all three categories of noun was not particularly strong, the study demonstrates that loanwords appear to be somewhat resistant to morphosyntactic modification and may therefore lead to pluralization issues to a greater extent than other categories of countable

nouns.

During the focus group interviews, some of the participants expressed an awareness of the need to pay more attention to noun pluralization in general owing to the influence of their native tongue:

- *I've got a feeling most people think in Japanese, so that's going to influence our English.* (Participant 12)

- *If you don't pay attention, it'll definitely end up coming out in its uncountable Japanese form.* (Participant 7)

- *In terms of plural endings, if you focus your attention on them, it's probably something you can remedy.* (Participant 2)

However, the underlying feeling was that loanwords as a distinct case of cross-linguistic influence had not been previously considered:

- *I've never really thought about (loanwords being an issue) before now.* (Participant 5)

These interview comments therefore suggest it might be worth trying to raise learner awareness of the issues involved to help them better appreciate specific sources of potential L1 transfer. In fact, some interviewees seemed to make unequivocal calls for assistance:

- *I think it's helpful if the teacher keeps reminding us of (the need to use plural markings).* (Participant 8)

- *Teachers should go deeper into the concepts that lie behind the use of these grammar points. We need to do that as early on as possible.* (Participant 1)

- *Unless someone points out those differences, I wouldn't really know what was right or not. I think it's helpful to have someone say it sounds strange to a native speaker if you forget to use plural endings. It's not so much the theory that's important, but the feel for the language. If you don't do that, you're going to fall into that same pattern over and over again.* (Participant 10)

Conclusion

The results of this study and the student appeals summarized in the previous discussion suggest a pedagogical need. Since many English nominal loanwords are high-frequency lexical items in Japanese, their importance should not to be overlooked. Indeed, the success of cross-linguistic awareness-raising techniques in the form of both error recognition quizzes and translation exercises

has been previously supported (e.g., Hosseininik, 2014; Lucas, 2017). However, it may not even be necessary to develop special materials for this purpose. Teachers can implement the insights from this study immediately simply by inviting students to examine the texts they already happen to be reading to pick out examples (singular and plural) of the three categories of nouns identified in this paper. This, in turn, might cue them to be extra vigilant in handling cases requiring plural marking. Future avenues of research could therefore focus on the effectiveness of this technique.

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Appendix A. *Error recognition task (errors indicated)*

Legend:

——————	Japanese-only forms (*J-nouns*)
══════	Both Japanese and loanword forms (*J-E-nouns*)
∼∼∼∼∼∼	Loanword-only forms (*E-nouns*)
� grey	Unrelated forms

<u>Shopping</u>

(1) I usually go to shopping about once a week.

(2) I don't know why, but every time I go shopping, it seems to rains.

(3) Last week, it started raining on the way to supermarket.

(4) So I ran into a convenience store, but it had sold out of <u>umbrella</u>.

(5) I didn't have the hat, so my hair got really wet!

(6) Until last year, there weren't any cheap <u>place</u> to buy groceries in my town.

(7) Now, though, a couple of good supermarkets have opened up nearby.

(8) Some other shops sell household items like <u>vacuum cleaner</u>.

(9) In my town, there always seems to be a sale on <u>washing machine</u>!

(10) A new garden centre has also opened up.

(11) I live in an apartment, so I don't have garden.

(12) But perhaps I'll get some nice <u>plant</u> for the balcony.

(13) Usually, though, I just buy groceries.

(14) As I said, my apartment is near some good <u>shop</u> for that.

(15) I think I need to think more carefully about the type of food I buy.

(16) Most of the time, I'm cooking at home.

(17) But sometimes I go to different kinds of <u>restaurant</u> with my friends.

(18) Last week, I think I have too much fast food.

(19) I love <u>hamburger</u> and other oily things.

(20) In fact, I had one almost every day!

(21) I also like sweet <u>drink</u>, especially Cola.

(22) I know <u>milkshake</u> can be unhealthy, too.

(23) I probably didn't eat enough vegetable last week, either.

(24) So this week, I want buying some healthier food.

(25) I really like fruit, so I'm going to buy a big bunch of banana.

(26) I know fruit contains vitamin, so it's healthy.

(27) I especially like fruit for breakfast.

(28) I think fruit goes well with cornflake.

(29) Generally, though, fruit like apple can be quite expensive.

(30) One supermarket always seems to sell cheap potato.

(31) But do you think it's healthy to eat a lot of that kind of food?

(32) I think rices is probably better.

(33) I don't like Japanese-style lunch boxes, though.

(34) I prefer something lighter for lunch.

(35) I usually just have a small pack of sandwich or something like that.

(36) Do you prefer eating fast food or healthy thing?

(37) I'd be interesting to know what you like.

(38) Anyway, I'll try to eat more health this week.

Appendix B. *Picture description tasks*

(1) Picture necessitating Japanese-only forms (*J-nouns*) (farm animals)

(2) Picture necessitating both Japanese and loanword forms (*E-J-nouns*) (fruit)

(3) Picture necessitating loanword-only forms (*E-nouns*) (musical instruments)

Appendix C. *Error recognition follow-up survey*

(1) Did you understand the story about shopping?
（買い物に関する話のあらすじは理解しましたか。）

Yes	72.6%	151
Not sure	24.6%	51
No	2.4%	5
	Total responses	207

(2) The story contained some mistakes. About how many mistakes did you think there were?
（話のあらすじの中には文法的間違った内容が含まれていました。どのくらいの間違いがあったと思いますか。）

Less than 25%	13.6%	28
About 25%	52.9%	109
About 50%	26.7%	55
About 75%	5.8%	12
Over 75%	1.0%	2
	Total responses	206

(3) How easy was it to find the mistakes?
（間違いを見つけることは簡単でしたか。）

Very easy	.5%	1
Easy	6.8%	14
Neither	26.2%	54
Not very easy	48.5%	100
Not easy at all	17.7%	37
	Total responses	206

(4) How easy was it to correct the mistakes?
（間違いを訂正することは簡単でしたか。）

Very easy	1.5%	3
Easy	14.5%	30
Neither	30.0%	62
Not very easy	37.7%	78
Not easy at all	16.4%	34
	Total responses	207

(5) Which types of mistakes did you find often? (*open-ended question*)
（どのような間違いがよく含まれていたと思いますか。）

(6) Do you think you sometimes make these types of mistakes when you speak or write English? Why? （英語を話したり書いたりするときに、同じような間違いを時々すると思いますか。）

Sometimes when speaking	24.3%	50

Sometimes when writing	16.5%	34
Sometimes when speaking & writing	59.2%	122
	Total responses	206

(7) What do you think is the best way to avoid making similar mistakes? (*open-ended question*)
（同じような間違いを防ぐために、どのような事をすればよいと思いますか。）

(8) Did you find the task helpful?
（これらの読解課題はあなたにとって役に立ちましたか。）

Yes	94.2%	194
No	5.8%	12
	Total responses	206

(9) Do you have any other comments about this task? (*open-ended question*)
（これらの課題に関して何か感想や意見があれば教えてください。）

(10) What is your current TOEIC score?
（あなたの TOEIC スコアは何点ですか。）

50-150	.0%	0
151-300	.0%	0
301-450	1.53%	3
451-600	10.71%	21
601-750	8.7%	17
751-850	.5%	1
851-990	.0%	0
I have never taken a TOEIC test	78.6%	154
	Total responses	196

(11) If you know your GTEC total score, please indicate it below.
（もしあなたの GTEC スコアをご存じでしたら点数を数字で明記してください。）

| Average GTEC total score | 527 | |
| | Total responses | 20 |

(12) Do you enjoy learning English?
（英語を習いたいですか。）

Yes	88.8%	175
No	11.2%	22
	Total responses	197

(13) Do you enjoy learning English?
（英語を習うことを楽しんでいますか。）

Yes	74.1%	146
No	25.9%	51
	Total responses	197

(14) How many hours per week do you currently spend studying English?
（どのくらいの期間英語を勉強していますか。年数を数字で明記してください。）

Average number of study hours	8	
	Total responses	197

(15) How old were you when you first started studying English?
（英語の勉強を始めたのは何歳からですか。年齢を数字で明記してください。）

Average age	11	
	Total responses	195

(16) Were English lessons offered at your primary school?
（小学校で英語の授業はありましたか。）

Yes	45.4%	89
No	54.6%	107
	Total responses	196

(17) Have you ever studied English at a cram school, conversation school, or both?
（学習塾または英会話学校で英語を習ったことがありますか。）

Yes, at a cram school	43.2%	85
Yes, at a conversation school	13.7%	27
Yes, at both	11.7%	23
No	31.5%	62
	Total responses	197

(18) Do you ever use English outside of compulsory university lessons?
（必修科目以外に、どこかで英語を習ったり使ったりしますか。）

Yes	30.4%	58
No	69.6%	133
	Total responses	191

(19) Have you ever been abroad?
（外国に行ったことがありますか。）

Yes	56.9%	111
No	43.1%	84
	Total responses	195

(20) Do you ever come into contact with native English speakers outside of university lessons?
（大学の授業以外ネィティヴの人に会うことがありますか。）

Yes	31.0%	61
No	69.0%	136
	Total responses	197

Appendix D. *Picture description follow-up survey*

(1) How easy do you find writing when you choose your own topic?
（自分で課題を決めてそれに沿って文章を作ることは簡単ですか。）

Very easy	4.4%	9
Easy	19.7%	40
Neither	31.5%	64
Not very easy	38.4%	78
Not easy at all	5.9%	12
	Total responses	203

(2) How easy do you find writing with a teacher-selected topic?
（教師から与えられた課題に沿って文章を作ることは簡単ですか。）

Very easy	1.5%	3
Easy	31.0%	63
Neither	34.0%	69
Not very easy	30.1%	61
Not easy at all	3.5%	7
	Total responses	203

(3) Did you understand what you needed to write about in each of the three writing tasks?
（３つの作文課題において、どのような文章を作ればよいか理解できましたか。）

Yes	94.6%	191
No	5.5%	11
	Total responses	202

(4) Which writing task was the most difficult? Please rank them in order of difficulty by labeling them: 1 = most difficult; 2 = medium ; 3 = least difficult
What is your reason for selecting "1"? (*open-ended question*)
（どの作文課題が一番難しく感じましたか。以下の目安に沿って、1-3 の数字で答えてください。1:一番難しい 2:次に難しい 3:３番目に難しい。一番難しく感じたものは、その理由を教えてください。）

	1	2	3	Total	Average
Farm	43.2%	36.8%	20.0%		
	87	74	40	201	1.77
Fruit shop	15.6%	32.8%	51.6%		
	32	67	106	205	2.36
Musical instrument	41.6%	30.2%	28.2%		
shop	84	61	57	202	1.87

(5) Was the vocabulary difficult for any of the tasks? Why? (*open-ended question*)
（それぞれの課題において、難しい語彙が含まれていましたか。）

Yes	21.1%	43
No	78.9%	161
	Total responses	204

(6) Do you think you made of the same kind of mistake across the tasks? If yes, which types? (*open-ended question*)
（それぞれの課題において、同じような間違いをしたと思いますか。）

Yes	28.1%	57
No	71.9%	146
	Total responses	203

(7) How have you tried to improve your writing accuracy in the past? (*open-ended question*)
（これまで英語で文法的に正しく文章を作るためにどのようなことをしましたか。）

(8) What do you think is the best way in general to improve your writing accuracy? (*open-ended question*)
（一般的に、英語で文法的に正しく文章を作るようになるにはどのようなことをするとよいと思いますか。）

(9) Did you find these writing tasks helpful? Why? (*open-ended question*)
（これらの作文課題はあなたにとって役に立ちましたか。）

Yes	90.4%	180
No	9.6%	19
	Total responses	199

(10) Do you have any other comments about this task? (*open-ended question*)
この課題に関して何か感想や意見があれば教えてくだ

The Effect of Focus on Form and Focus on Forms Instruction on the Acquisition of Phrasal Verbs by Chinese Students

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Abstract

This study compared the effectiveness of two instructional approaches—focus on forms (FonFs) and focus on form (FonF)—on the acquisition of phrasal verbs by 90 Chinese tertiary-level students of limited English proficiency. This study first defined FonFs and FonF and presented the theoretical rationale for applying both types of instruction when teaching and learning phrasal verbs. Additionally, FonFs instruction (operationalized through present-practice-produce phases), and FonF instruction (operationalized through reading tasks), were evaluated as to how each type improve learners' acquisition of phrasal verbs. Learning outcomes were measured through three tests administered immediately after treatment. These tests included word form recall, meaning recall, and word usage. Results revealed significantly higher scores for students in the FonFs group. In addition, word usage was the least acquired vocabulary knowledge while word meaning recall was the most acquired knowledge for learners in each group. Findings indicated that form-focused instruction, particularly FonFs, is beneficial and indispensable for learning phrasal verbs.

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Key words: Form-focused instruction; focus on form; focus on forms; phrasal verbs

Introduction

Acquisition of new words in a foreign language depends on how well the learners process these words (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Teng & Zhang, 2015). Word processing can be induced through form-focused instruction (FFI). The pedagogical approach of FFI to foreign language education can be regarded as a reaction to communicative language teaching, for which proponents have believed that comprehensible input and meaning-oriented tasks were essential for language acquisition. When it became evident that students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) are unlikely to attain sufficient levels of language competence from mere meaning-centered instruction, FFI gained researchers' attention because incorporation of FFI into communicative language teaching can accelerate the development of the target language system and thereby facilitate language acquisition (Laufer & Girsai, 2008). The term 'form' denotes a function that a particular structure performs. For instance, the form '-ed' indicates an action that occurred in the past and which does not extend into the present.

FFI, an approach in helping learners to acquire features of a target language through communicative or content-based instruction, includes two types of instruction: Focus on Form (FonF) and Focus on Forms (FonFs) (Ellis, 2001). FonF had been defined as drawing learners' attention to linguistic elements as they incidentally occur during authentic communicative tasks with a paramount focus on meaning or communication (de La Fuente, 2002; Ellis & He, 1999; Long, 1991). Learners' overriding focus remains on processing the message they want to communicate, or the message in the input they are receiving, even though there is an occasional shift of learners' attention from meaning to linguistic structures. This shift may happen when learners attempt to solve a comprehension or production problem. Commonly, FonF can be initiated by the teacher or the learners themselves. Form-function mapping is the core feature of FonF instruction. That is, through exposure to examples of language use concentrating on meaning, learners notice the cues in the language and subsequently discern how to use the cues for specific functions. For example, awareness of the form '-s' subsumes the realization that '-s' designates more than one of the items specified.

FonFs instruction is concerned solely with the explicit focus on linguistic forms. This involves teaching discreet elements (i.e., grammar structures) through non-communicative and mainly decontextualized practice (Long, 1996). Traditionally, this can be accomplished during separate lessons in a sequence determined by syllabus writers, or a series of corresponding procedures

specifically designed for intentionally acquiring some target linguistic forms. In this type of instruction, learners' paramount concentration is oriented toward linguistic forms, though meaning is not excluded.

Theoretically, FonF can be connected to certain hypotheses: noticing (Schmidt, 1990), limited processing capacity (VanPatten, 1990), and pushed output (Swain, 1985). First, learners need to consciously notice forms and the meanings associated with the forms to convert the input into effective acquisition. Furthermore, for those learners who have a limited capacity for simultaneously processing form and meaning, they may concentrate on meanings rather than the form within an authentic communicative task. Pushed output is then essential to draw learners' attention to the form or a more syntactic processing mode than mere comprehension. Put simply, they need to be pushed to notice structures in the foreign language and modify their output. FonF also draws on a theory that emphasizes on interaction, which includes two constructs: negotiation of form and negotiation of meaning. These two constructs serve to draw learners' attention to form and meaning while they are communicating. Negotiation of form takes place when learners are attempting to communicate and their erroneous production has been corrected. Negotiation of meaning takes place when learners employ strategies for communication until successful comprehension is achieved. In an early study (Ellis, Tanaka, & Yamazaki, 1994), findings revealed that in terms of vocabulary acquisition, learners who were able to negotiate meaning of the input performed better than those who received unmodified input or simplified input and were unable to negotiate meaning. It could be concluded that when learners received an opportunity to negotiate meaning, they performed better in acquiring new words, because learners' cognitive processes of noticing and also noticing the gap between input observations and their own output were induced. Realization of FonF requires a task-based approach. Tasks can be input-based or output-based. In input-based tasks, learners are required to comprehend input in an attempt to achieve the task outcome. In this regard, some kind of nonverbal response may be involved. Input-based tasks can be designed in such a way that learners are only able to achieve the outcome if they have both noticed and comprehended the specific linguistic forms needed to achieve the outcome. Learners receive feedback on their nonverbal responses, which helps them to determine whether they have processed the input correctly.

The theoretical foundation of FonFs, on the other hand, can be identified as skill acquisition theory, which entails three stages. The first stage is acquiring declarative knowledge, which is to

understand particular linguistic features. The second stage is acquiring proceduralized knowledge, which is to know what to do with language data and put it into practice. The third stage is automatization of procedural knowledge, which is the ability to use language according to specific rules without thinking about them (DeKeyser, 1998). The transformation from stages one to three can be achieved through present-practice-produce (PPP; Ur, 1996), or practice of specific linguistic forms systematically and deliberately (Dekeyser, 2007).

Overall, FonF involves incidental learning while FonFs involves intentional learning (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002; Sheen, 2002). Intentional word learning is a way in which learners consciously make word forms to memorize the words along with their meanings. Incidental vocabulary learning, on the other hand, encourages vocabulary growth among students by avoiding direct focus on word learning activities, in such a way that the vocabulary growth becomes a positive by-product in the process of accomplishing other goals (Hulstijn, 2013; Teng, 2016a). The difference between the two modes of learning is the lack of deliberate attempts by the learners to learn or use a specific linguistic feature.

Ellis (2001) delineated a distinction between the two types of instruction. Students receiving FonFs instruction perceived themselves as learners of a language and the language as the object of study. On the other hand, students receiving FonF instruction considered themselves as language users and language was deemed as a tool or a means for communication. The distinction between FonF and FonFs has often been linked to the teaching and learning of grammar, and many previous empirical studies have been conducted mainly in the context of acquisition of grammar (e.g., Loewen, Erlam, & Ellis, 2009; Shintani, 2015). However, these two instructional approaches can be adapted easily to the teaching and learning of vocabulary. For example, FonF can be regarded as an occasional shift of learners' awareness from meaning to lexical items and the meaning that the items convey within a communicative task environment. This shift can be triggered when these lexical items are important for the comprehension or the completion of an authentic task. FonFs can be considered as teaching discreet lexical items in a linear, additive fashion, e.g., through a linear syllabus, a set of instructional materials, and relevant corresponding procedures designed to present and practice a series of lexical words. Similar to Ellis's (2001) view of grammar, the main feature of the FonF approach to vocabulary is the form-function mapping because the words are the tools for task completion while the FonFs approach treats the lexical items as the objects of study. FonF and FonFs have recently been clearly linked to the acquisition of vocabulary (e.g.,

Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2011, 2014; Shintani, 2013). It has been suggested that, similar to grammar, vocabulary teaching and learning benefit from FFI (Laufer & Girsai, 2008).

However, extensive research on the effects that FFI has on vocabulary learning has not received much intensified attention. One main reason is that many researchers have insisted that vocabulary can be sufficiently acquired through meaning-centered instruction, or that words can be acquired with very little focus on form (DeKeyser, 1998). However, many research findings have shown that learners have not necessarily noticed new words when merely being exposed to language input. Even though some have, guessing them was still difficult for the learners, let alone comprehending and memorizing the words (Laufer, 2005; Teng & He, 2015). Therefore, a realistic condition for sufficient vocabulary acquisition is massive exposure to the target language. This, however, is unlikely in a foreign-language learning environment. In addition, many empirical studies have revealed that the words that learners could acquire from exposure to texts without subsequent vocabulary practices was very limited (Pellicer-Sánchez, 2015; Teng, 2014; Webb & Chang, 2014). In this regard, the teaching and learning of vocabulary should incorporate vocabulary instruction through a method of FFI, rather than mere meaning-focused instruction. This lends value to exploration of vocabulary acquisition as a function of types of form-focused instruction: FonF and FonFs. In reviewing the relevant literature that follows, the focus is on previous empirical studies related to connecting the effects of different form-focused instruction approaches to different degrees of vocabulary acquisition.

Laufer (2006) measured the effectiveness of FonF and FonFs approaches in learning new L2 words by 158 high-school English learners in Israel. During FonF instruction, learners participated in a reading task and were required to answer comprehension questions for which comprehension of target words was necessary. During FonFs instruction, learners first received a list of target words with their translations and examples of usage and then completed two word-focused exercises. An unexpected test was conducted for which learners were required to provide the meanings for the target words in English or in their L1. The results showed significantly higher scores for learners in the FonFs group than those in the FonF group. She argued that form-focused instruction, particularly using the FonFs approach, is essential to help learners who are deprived of an input condition in developing depth of vocabulary knowledge. Similar results were also confirmed in Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat's (2014) study.

However, different results were found in a study by de la Fuente (2006), wherein university students who had learned basic Spanish were divided into two groups. For the FonFs group, the learners received 50 minutes of instruction consisting of explanations of the new words (presentation), controlled oral and written production exercises (practice), and a role-play performed in pairs (free production). Learners in the FonF group worked on a restaurant task and were able to negotiate the meaning of the target words for successful completion of the task. A discrete item oral production test was used to measure vocabulary acquisition. The results revealed that, although the two conditions were equally effective in the immediate posttest, the FonF group outperformed the FonFs group in terms of the delayed test results.

Shintani (2011) compared the effects of input-based instruction (FonF) and production-based instruction (FonFs) on the acquisition of a set of English concrete nouns by 36 Japanese children. Four vocabulary tests were conducted for measuring vocabulary acquisition, which included a multiple-choice listening test, category task test, discrete item production test, and "same or different" task test. Results from three tests showed that the learners in both the FonF and FonFs group developed a similar vocabulary knowledge rate. However, the FonF group outperformed the FonFs group in terms of the category task test.

Shintani (2013) expanded research in this field. A total of 45 Japanese children were recruited randomly and equally divided into three groups: two experimental groups (i.e., the FonF and FonFs groups) and one control group. The FonF group received a set of listen-and-do tasks that required the learners to comprehend the target words. The FonFs group received activities in line with present-practice-produce (PPP). The acquisition of productive knowledge of the target words (adjectives and nouns) was measured by a discrete-point test and a task-based test. The results demonstrated that learners in the FonF group outperformed their counterparts in the FonFs group in both tests. However, an advantage of the FonF approach in learning nouns was not detected.

The reviewed studies have produced mixed results, which was not surprising. This may be explained by the fact that the studies operationalized FonF and FonFs instruction in different manners. For example, when learners could engage in interaction in which they could negotiate target words in the FonF approach, a more significant effect was observed than through the FonFs approach. In addition, the difference in the effects of these two kinds of approaches was partly due to the learning difficulty of parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.). Therefore, the variances observed in applying FFI in vocabulary learning has called for more research.

A thorough search of relevant literature did not reveal any studies that have been conducted to specifically examine the FonF and FonFs approaches in learning phrasal verbs. This research was designed to explore acquisition of phrasal verbs using two different instructional approaches: FonF and FonFs. Such a comparison evaluates the process features of each kind of instruction and the learning products. Specifically, it examines whether EFL students benefit from attention to form occurring within an authentic task environment (FonF), or whether they benefit equally from mere exposure to decontextualized items (FonFs). The control group which received a set of traditional teaching activities without being exposed to any target words was also involved. This study addresses the following research questions:

1. Which instructional approach (FonFs vs. FonF) results in more newly acquired phrasal verbs?

2. What degree of difference exists between results from the three tests (word form recall, word meaning recall and usage) conducted for each condition?

3. How are the differences between FonFs and FonF expressed through the process features of the two types of instruction?

Methodology

Participants

This study involved 90 Chinese tertiary-level EFL students, from 20-22 years old. This study was conducted in three intact classes, in a college English course, at a university in Mainland China. Students taking this course followed the same curriculum requirements set by the department of College English Teaching. Participants did not receive any other English lessons other than attending two 50-minute lessons per week. They had each studied English for approximately seven years, and were all native speakers of Chinese. The participants were randomly and equally divided into three groups: two experimental groups (i.e., the FonF and FonFs conditions) and one control group. Following an internal four-skill language placement test, students were placed at a low proficiency level. Statistical analysis of the test results also showed that participants were similar in overall English proficiency at the time of the experiment ($p=0.69$). Therefore, it was assumed that no differences in learning ability between the three groups were expected.

A college English teacher with over 10 years of English teaching experience at college level was invited to instruct all three groups in this program. The instructor was familiarized with the

requirements of each group prior to the study. The author also observed four lessons in each group to ensure consistency with the respective instructional method. Instruction delivery by the same teacher ensured consistency in instructional goals among the three groups. There were no student dropouts during this program although they were told that they could withdraw any time.

Target Words

The target words in the present study comprised 20 phrasal verbs. A phrasal verb is a verb formed from two (or sometimes three) parts: a verb and an adverb or preposition. There are three main types of phrasal verb constructions, which depend upon whether the verb combines with a preposition, a particle, or both (McCarthy & O'dell, 2007). For example:

take after→She takes after her mother

think over→She should think it over

look forward to→I look forward to meeting you

There are two reasons for focusing on phrasal verbs. First, phrasal verbs are an essential component of English and often express a wide range of ideas. Unfortunately, phrasal verbs are often ignored in EFL learning, and most students tend to focus only on the verbs. Moreover, learning phrasal verbs is quite challenging and confusing for EFL students due to their idiomatic nature (Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Teng, 2017). One of the difficulties is that phrasal verbs can be literal or figurative in meaning, which implies that phrasal verbs cannot be understood based upon the meanings of the individual parts that stand isolated in a sentence (White, 2012). The phrasal verbs selected for this study were unknown to the participants (Appendix I). This unfamiliarity was confirmed in a pilot test in which 40 students of similar English proficiency who did not participate in the program were required to read these words and provide their meaning. Study participants were not asked to do this so as to avoid highlighting the target texts and words which would likely compromise the findings.

Measures

Many researchers defined lexical knowledge as the sum of interrelated sub-knowledges, which includes a word's pronunciation and spelling, morphological knowledge, knowledge of word meaning, collocational and grammatical knowledge, connotative and associational knowledge, and the knowledge of social or other constraints to be observed in the use of the word (e.g., Ringbom,

1987). Although a perfect test in measuring vocabulary knowledge should include evaluation of all of the mentioned sub-knowledges, administering such a test including all various aspects of lexical knowledge is impractical. In addition, students cannot be expected to develop a complete knowledge of a word after one or a few exposures to a word in an experiment. Therefore, researchers have tended to agree on the three basic facets of lexical knowledge: form, meaning, and usage (Nation, 2013). In light of this, acquisition of phrasal verbs was measured using three tests: form, meaning, and usage of phrasal verbs. All three tests were decontextualized tests. Although it could be argued that a more authentic way of measuring vocabulary is in context (Read, 2000), this was judged as unfeasible for the current study because students were expected to study and manipulate words in isolation after the five-week learning.

a). Word form recall test

This test was adapted from the Computer Adaptive Test of Size and Strength (CATSS) developed by Laufer et al. (2004). This test measured the participants' productive word form recall. In this test, participants were required to write down the target phrasal verb according to the given Chinese meaning. One example of a target phrasal verb is:

推迟(postpone) _____

   All 90 participants completed this test in one classroom in the form of paper-and-pencil. The time for finishing this test, as suggested in a pilot study, was set as 15 minutes. The author administered and rated the test. Any misspelled words were rated incorrect and were given zero points. Only correct spellings of target phrasal verbs were given one point. The instructions were provided in Chinese to ensure participants' understanding of what they needed to do for this test.

b). Discrete item word meaning recall test

This test was adapted from Shintani (2011). In this test, the author prepared a set of flashcards, presenting one target phrasal verb on each flashcard. This test required individual participants to orally provide the meaning of the target phrasal verb on each flash card. Six teachers who were not teaching the three classes were invited to rate this test. The author held a discussion with the six teachers about the procedures and requirements of this test prior to the study, and some possible correct answers. For example, 'postpone', 'delay' and 'defer' were all regarded as correct answers for the phrasal verb 'put off'. Two teachers were responsible for each group of students. One

teacher presented the flashcard and asked the students to provide the meaning for the phrasal verbs, which were displayed one by one. Another teacher acted as an assistant to record audio and take notes. The two teachers co-rated students' performances after the test. The participants obtained one point for each item correctly provided orally, irrespective of whether they provided answers in Chinese or English. Participants' answers were considered to be correct when they provided a similar meaning to the target words. Any incorrect answers were given zero points. Both teachers in each group reached a consensus as to the scoring for this test. Each student was given a maximum of 10 minutes to answer the 20 phrasal verbs questions. The total time spent completing this test by students in the FonFs condition was approximately 120 minutes. The total time spent by students in the FonF condition and the control group was approximately 150 and 90 minutes, respectively.

c). Usage of phrasal verbs

This test measured participants' knowledge and usage of phrasal verbs. In this test, participants were required to write down a sentence in English according to the given phrasal verb. For example:

Put off _____

   All participants completed this test in one classroom in the form of paper-and-pencil. The time for finishing this test, as suggested by a pilot study, was set as 30 minutes. Two teachers who were not teaching these classes were invited to rate the test. A sentence free of grammatical and spelling errors was given one point (e.g., "The manager decided to put off the meeting due to the unexpected storm"). If learners supplied a sentence with correct usage of the phrasal verb, but grammatical or spelling errors existed, they were given a half-point (e.g., "The school decide to put off the sports meeting."). Incorrect usage of the phrasal verb in a sentence was given zero points (e.g., "It is difficult to put off the clothes."). When differences arose between the two teachers, a third rater would be called upon. Final scores were determined based on majority opinion. As only 40 discrepancies out of 1800 responses were detected, inter-rater agreement in this test was found to be high (98%).

Research design

This study was conducted in regular class hours. Participants attended two lessons a week, for a total of five weeks. Each lesson lasted approximately 50 minutes. This study involved three groups receiving three different types of treatment:

a). Focus on Form condition

Participants in the FonF condition were exposed to the target phrasal verbs during reading tasks. Two target phrasal verbs appeared in a text of approximately 200 words that was written for and used in the current study. At least 96% of words included in each text were familiar to most learners (target phrasal verbs were among the 4% of unfamiliar words from texts), as verified in a pilot test in which 40 students of similar English proficiency who did not participate in the program were invited to underline any words that they did not know the meaning of. Study participants were not asked to do this so as to avoid highlighting the target texts and words to them which would likely affect study results. As suggested in Nation (2013), learners need at least a density of 95% familiar vocabulary to reach a reasonable comprehension of a text. The participants were required to answer five comprehension questions following the reading of each text. They were given options to answer the questions in their native language or in English. Answering these questions, to some extent, required comprehension of target words. Appendix II presents a text and the comprehension questions. Two comprehension questions required understanding of two target phrasal verbs: *run into* and *back off*. The other three comprehension questions, which focused on other words, were designed to divert learners' sole attention from the target words. Learners were encouraged to use a dictionary whenever they felt the need for it. On completion of the task, students and teachers checked the answers. Teachers also provided brief instructions for any questions posed by the students.

The reading task was designed in accordance with Ellis's (2003) definition of task: (a) included a gap, (b) learners oriented to focus primarily on meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, and (c) had a clearly defined outcome. The task in the present study was designed in such a way that the desired outcome could only be gained when learners were successful in comprehending the language input. For each lesson, the goal and the task procedures were provided in Chinese. However, the instruction was primarily in English, including some difficult explanations in Chinese.

Each lesson was set for completing a reading task. Overall, they completed two reading tasks in one week and 10 in five weeks. One text was used in each task, for a total of 10 different texts.

b). Focus on Forms condition

Before the commencement of each FonFs lesson, the instructor explained to the students the goal of the activities, which was to explicitly and intentionally learn some words. Six activities, which

represented three phases of FonFs—present-practice-produce—were designed for each lesson. The first and second activity served as the present phase. In the first activity, the teacher presented each phrasal verb with a synonym or definition. This may have provided students with a basic understanding of how each one is used. In the second activity, the teacher introduced the phrasal verbs in a specific context. For example, to present the phrasal verb "run into", the teacher would state, "Can you guess what happened to me yesterday? I ran into an old friend that I have not met for more than 10 years." The teacher then confirmed by asking students for the meaning of "run into". The third and fourth activities served as the practice phase. The third activity was associated with a worksheet listing some phrasal verbs. Students were required to match the phrasal verbs with their meanings given in a list. The fourth activity involved playing a word game. The teacher provided students with a synonym, for example, "postpone" and asked students to come up with the right phrasal verb, which in this case, would be "put off". The fifth and sixth activities served as the produce (i.e., free production) phase. In the fifth activity, each pair of students was given phrasal verbs that they must use in a conversation. Some students came up with a dialogue, wrote it on paper, and acted it out in front of the class. In the sixth activity, the teacher asked some students to prepare a presentation that included some examples of the phrasal verbs. Students were allowed to check relevant resources when preparing for this. The teacher provided feedback after each activity.

All six activities were conducted in each lesson. Five phrasal verbs were taught in each lesson, two of which were target phrasal verbs. The reason for including five phrasal verbs (two of which were target phrasal verbs) was because the treatment focused on a set of six activities, for which class time was limited for explaining more words, and focusing only on target words would make the words salient to participants. The teacher mainly used English for the activity instructions, while explaining some difficult terms in Chinese whenever necessary.

c). Control group (CG)

Students in the control group participated in a series of traditional teaching activities. For example, teacher asked students to read a text and complete some questions, as well as some exercises. Following this, students received feedback from teachers. However, the materials that the students used did not include any target phrasal verbs. Care was also taken to avoid using the target words in the classroom.

Procedures

The participants were randomly and equally divided into three groups: FonF group, FonFs group, and a control group. Classroom instruction began after obtaining consent from students, teachers and the dean of the department. After the treatment, all participants immediately took three tests without being allowed to have any materials at their disposal. The participants were not informed that they would receive tests after treatment. This was to avoid students attempting to commit the target words to memory in order to do well on the tests. The tests were taken in the order of word form recall test, word meaning recall test, and finally the usage test. This order was to prevent the former test from providing any possible hints to the latter test.

   The fifth FonFs and FonF lessons, which were in the middle of the program, were audio-recorded and video-recorded. The reason for collecting data during these lessons and not at the very beginning of the program was to ensure that the teacher was acquainted with the teaching styles and that the students adjusted to the classroom atmosphere and routines. The author transcribed the lessons and conducted a number of analyses of the lessons' process features according to the following criteria:

1. The total number of utterances produced by students and teacher during the lessons was calculated.

2. The quality of the student utterances was examined. In this regard, the students' utterances were examined whether they were teacher- or student-initiated. Teacher-initiated student utterances occurred typically when students responded to teacher elicitations in initiate-respond-follow-up exchanges. Student-initiated utterances occurred when students were engaged in private speech.

3. The number of phrasal verbs produced by the teacher in the FonFs and FonF lessons was calculated.

4. The nature of the comprehension and production errors that students made and of the teacher's corrective feedback on these errors was examined.

Data Analysis

The differences in the mean scores between the three groups (research question 1) and between the three tests (research question 2) were analyzed in a series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) with post-hoc Bonferroni adjustments for multiple comparisons (alpha level = .05). The

effect-size analysis served as a means to locate where these differences were situated among the three tests and groups.

Results

Research question 1: Which instructional approach (FonFs vs. FonF) results in more newly acquired phrasal verbs?

Table 1 presents the descriptive data for the scores from the three vocabulary tests achieved by learners in each condition. The maximum obtainable score for each test was 20.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics for the three groups in each test

	Post-test immediately after intervention			
	Min.	Max	Mean	S. D.
Word form recall test				
FonFs (n=30)	12	18	15.51	1.45
FonF (n=30)	10	16	13.52	1.42
CG (n=30)	0	2	1.12	0.81
Word meaning recall test				
FonFs (n=30)	10	15	12.52	1.44
FonF (n=30)	8	12	10.13	1.41
CG (n=30)	0	2	0.91	0.61
Usage of phrasal verbs				
FonFs (n=30)	6.5	10	8.55	1.38
FonF (n=30)	4	7.5	5.46	1.29
CG (n=30)	0	1	0.71	0.31

Note. Maximum = 20

As described in Table 1, means for the word form recall test were 15.51, 13.52 and 1.12 for FonFs, FonF and CG, respectively (SD = 1.45, 1.42, 0.81). Means for the word meaning recall test were 12.52, 10.13 and 0.91 for FonFs, FonF and CG, respectively (SD = 1.44, 1.41, 0.61). Means for the usage test were 8.55, 5.46 and 0.71 for FonFs, FonF and CG, respectively (SD = 1.38, 1.29, 0.31). FonFs learners managed to maintain the highest score in all three tests. The mean score of CG was lower in comparison to the mean score for the FonF condition in all three tests.

In order to answer the first research question, the scores obtained by the three groups for each test were analyzed using a series of repeated-measures ANOVAs with post-hoc Bonferroni

adjustment for multiple comparisons. For the word form recall test, ANOVA results indicated significant differences between the groups (FonFs, FonF and CG) in post-treatment test (F (2, 65) = 7.91, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.35$). Effect-size analysis indicated that the FonFs learners significantly outperformed both the FonF learners (Cohen's d = 0.62) and the CG learners (Cohen's d = 0.85). Likewise, the FonF learners outperformed the CG learners (Cohen's d = 0.81). For the word meaning recall test, ANOVA results revealed significant differences between the three groups (F (2, 65) = 8.21, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.36$). The FonFs learners significantly outperformed both the FonF learners (Cohen's d = 0.60) and the CG learners (Cohen's d = 0.82). In a similar vein, the FonF learners outperformed the CG learners (Cohen's d = 0.79). For the usage test, ANOVA results also revealed significant differences between the three groups (F (2, 65) = 7.56, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.41$). The FonFs learners significantly outperformed both the FonF learners (Cohen's d = 0.58) and the CG learners (Cohen's d = 0.78). Likewise, the FonF learners outperformed the CG learners (Cohen's d = 0.75).

Research question 2: What degree of difference exists between results from the three tests (word form recall, word meaning recall and usage) conducted for each condition?

In order to answer this question, the scores obtained from the three different tests in each condition were also analyzed using a series of repeated-measures ANOVAs with post-hoc Bonferroni adjustment for multiple comparisons. For the FonFs condition, ANOVA results indicated significant differences between the three tests administered immediately post intervention (F (2, 95) = 9.11, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.41$). Effect-size analysis indicated that students in this condition achieved significantly higher scores in recalling the word meaning than the word form (Cohen's d = 0.52) and the usage (Cohen's d = 0.69). Likewise, learners performed significantly better in recalling word meaning than producing it in a context (Cohen's d = 0.53). For the FonF condition, ANOVA results also revealed significant differences between the three tests (F (2, 95) = 9.52, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.49$). Students with the FonF guidance achieved higher scores in recalling word meaning than both the word form (Cohen's d = 0.50) and the usage (Cohen's d = 0.70). In a similar vein, they achieved better scores in recalling word form than usage (Cohen's d = 0.56). For the control group, ANOVA results did not reveal significant differences between the three tests (F (2, 95) = 2.02, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .08$). This suggests that students in the control group acquired very limited knowledge of word

form, meaning, and usage in terms of target phrasal verbs, and the limited acquisition they achieved did not differ significantly.

Research question 3: How are the differences between FonFs and FonF expressed through the process features of the two types of instruction?

Qualitative analyses were conducted to answer this question. Table 2 shows the total number of utterances by students and teacher during the fifth lesson for the FonFs and FonF conditions.

Table 2
The number of student and teacher utterances in the fifth FonFs and FonF lesson

Participant	Condition	
	FonFs	FonF
Student	300	271
Teacher	912	682
Total	1,212	953

As shown in Table 2, there were a total of 1,212 utterances during the FonFs lesson and 953 during the FonF lesson. In terms of teacher utterances, there were 912 and 682 in the FonFs and FonF conditions, respectively. With regard to student utterances, there was only a minor difference (300 for FonFs and 271 for FonF).

Table 3 presents the number of student- and teacher-initiated learner utterances in the fifth lesson for the FonFs and FonF conditions.

Table 3
Number of student- and teacher-initiated learner utterances in the fifth FonFs and FonF lesson

Utterance type	Condition	
	FonFs	FonF
Student-initiated	34	116
Teacher-initiated	155	25
Total	189	141

As described in Table 3, the difference was substantial as the vast majority of the student utterances in the FonFs lesson were teacher-initiated (155 utterances out of 189). This suggests the typical type of initiate-respond-follow-up exchanges during this lesson. On the other hand, the majority of

the utterances in the FonF condition were student-initiated (116 utterances out of 141). This shows the prevalence of social and private speech used by students during the instruction. The following two examples were typical exchanges from the FonFs group and FonF group, respectively.

FonFs lesson 5

    Teacher: For this sentence "How does Susan manage to get ___her fear?", can you tell me the correct word?

    Student: Get up.

    Teacher: No, "get up" can be used to mean "rise to one's feet." Here, it should be "get over," which means "recover from."

FonF lesson 5

    Teacher: What does it mean after you read this sentence "First, think about what you need and what you want from your new home. Perhaps you need to be close to your place of work because you don't drive. Perhaps you don't want to run into somebody you don't like."

    Student 1: "Run into."

    Student 2: Well.

    Student 3: "Run into" means "meet."

    Teacher: Yes.

    Student 3: Yes, "meet."

    Teacher: Actually, it is more appropriate to define it as "meet by chance."

    Student 3: Yes, "meet by chance."

    In this example, Student 3's first utterance is social in nature, as it constitutes an attempt to clarify the meaning required by the teacher. Students 3's other two utterances, as well as student 1 and 2's utterances, are private in nature. These utterances seem to be attempts to spontaneously rehearse the language associated with the performance of the task.

    Phrasal verbs produced by the teacher in the two conditions were also calculated. Although a dramatic difference was not detected, the teacher produced more phrasal verbs for the FonFs condition than the FonF condition (72 versus 51).

Finally, all instances in which the students in the FonFs and the FonF conditions demonstrated comprehension errors in the input for the target phrasal verbs or production errors in obligatory contexts were examined. Table 4 illustrates the relevant data.

Table 4
The number of errors made by students on phrasal verbs by type

Error type	Condition	
	FonFs	FonF
Comprehension	0	16
Production	21	0
Total	21	16

As presented in Table 4, all 21 errors that students in the FonFs condition made were related to production. On the other hand, all 16 errors that students in the FonF condition made involved a failure to comprehend the phrasal verbs in the input. This demonstrates the nature of the different types of instruction, as the FonFs condition was related to production exercises and the FonF condition was focused on reading comprehension.

The teacher's responses to these errors were then evaluated. In the FonFs group, the teacher corrected all of the students' production errors in the form of recasts for 10 production errors out of 21. For the other 11 occasions, the teacher corrected them in the form of prompts. For the recasts, learners' errors were corrected in such a way that communication was not obstructed. Within this context, the teacher repeated the error back to the learner in a corrected form. For the prompts, learners were requested to clarify or self-correct their errors in the process of communication, which provided them with opportunities to notice their errors. The teacher feedback in the FonF condition focused solely on students' failure to comprehend target phrasal verbs. Students simply followed the teacher's explanation and did not produce a phrasal verb in these corrective episodes.

Discussion and conclusion

The first research question examined and compared the contributions of each of the two types of FFI (FonFs and FonF) to acquisition of phrasal verbs. The test results indicated that the FonFs group outperformed the FonF group for the three tests. Overall, the present study provided empirical support for the advantage of FonFs instruction which caters to intentional learning and

emphasizes production, over FonF instruction which concentrates learners' attention on form while primarily focused on meaning. This finding is different from that of Shintani (2013), who proposed that FonF instruction was more effective than FonFs instruction in enabling learners to acquire the adjectives. Swan (2005) also argued that FonFs instruction lacked proactive syllabus design, and thus may be ineffective for the systematic teaching of new language, particularly when time is limited and out-of-class exposure is unavailable. However, one thing to bear in mind is that the effectiveness of FonFs and FonF instruction on vocabulary acquisition was affected by the types of words. For example, Shintani's (2013) study also revealed that there was no significant difference in the effects of the two types of instruction for learning nouns.

In addition, some previous studies had lent support to the effectiveness of FonFs instruction. For example, Laufer's (2006) study showed that the FonFS instruction yielded significantly higher results than FonF. In some recent studies (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2014; Teng, 2015), reading plus word-focused exercises yielded better results than reading comprehension only, regardless of the type of word knowledge. Therefore, the nature of lexical competence makes FonFs instruction indispensable to teaching and learning vocabulary. As meanings of phrasal verbs differentiate by imperceptible degrees, FonFs approach is important for teaching and learning phrasal verbs, particularly in developing depth of knowledge, improving the use of sophisticated phrasal verbs, increasing the speed of access to words, and developing strategic competence. I do not argue that FonFs instruction should replace opportunities to acquire words from input. I do believe, however, that it has a strong value in any learning context that cannot create sufficient input conditions for target language acquisition. This result lends support to the claims of skill-based theory (VanPatten & Benati, 2010), which was based on models of skill acquisition in cognitive psychology. This theory proposes that second or foreign language acquisition is learned in the same way as any other skill, for which practice is the key ingredient of language acquisition. This shows the importance of clear presentation of linguistic items followed by controlled and free production practice in learning an ability to use the items for communication. This also suggests the value of 'noticing' and 'pushed output', as discussed in the introductory section of this study.

The second research question explored the potential effects of the independent variables on the relative acquisition of the three knowledge dimensions of phrasal verbs (form recall, meaning recall and usage). Our findings show that the aspect of knowledge that benefited the most was meaning recall, followed by form recall and usage. In agreement with previous research (Eckerth

& Tavakoli, 2012; Rott, 2007), active word form recall seems to be more difficult than passive recall of meaning. However, this finding contradicts Teng's (2014) findings, which suggests that the acquisition order of vocabulary knowledge is form, meaning and usage. This inconsistency across studies may be partly due to the differences between test batteries employed. The form test was a recognition test in Teng's (2014) study while the form test was a recall test in the present study. As suggested by Schmitt (2010), recalling word form is more difficult than recognizing word form. The finding that producing phrasal verbs in a sentence is the least acquired knowledge aspect coincides with previous studies (e.g., Laufer, 2005; Nation, 2013; Schmitt, 2008). This shows that receptive and productive knowledge are separable, albeit interrelated, issues. This dichotomy has great ecological validity, as some learners in the present study understood the meaning of phrasal verbs, but they were not able to produce those items in their sentence writing. It appears that acquiring productive mastery of vocabulary is more difficult than acquiring receptive mastery. This suggests the difficulties involved in language production, as production may involve converting one message into form or converting multiple messages at once, then selecting one. However, caution must be taken when interpreting the test results. First, given the fact that the test measuring usage of phrasal verbs constituted the last part of the test battery, fatigue and anxiety may have played a role (Nation, 2006). Second, it is generally difficult to control cross-test effects. Finally, students are generally not tested immediately after the learning session in authentic learning situations, therefore, forgetting would be likely to occur (Peters, 2014), and retention scores might be lower than the lexical gains in the present study.

To explain why the FonFs condition was more conducive than the FonF condition to the acquisition of phrasal verbs, it is necessary to examine the process features of the FonFs and FonF lessons. It is found out that there was a dramatic difference in the sheer quantity of utterances produced by the teacher and the learners in the FonFs and FonF lessons. Although only a slight difference in the number of student utterances was detected, a dramatic difference in the number of teacher utterances was observed. This reflected a methodological difference between the two instructional approaches. One explanation is that students at this level were less able to concentrate on the input and thus it was quite difficult to notice the target phrasal verb formation and its function during FonF lessons. The teacher did not provide enough feedback for this instruction's guidance. On the other hand, the teacher provided more feedback for students in the FonFs condition, and

students were required to produce utterances in using target phrasal verbs frequently. However, their limited English proficiency may have strained their processing capacity.

There was also a dramatic difference between teacher- and student-initiated learner utterances detected in the FonFs and FonF lessons. A vast majority of the student utterances in the FonFs lessons were teacher-initiated, which implies a type of initiate-respond-follow-up exchanges in this condition. In contrast, the majority of learner utterances in the FonF lessons were student-initiated, which demonstrates the prevalence of students' social or private speech in this condition. Shintani and Ellis (2010) argued that acquisition is more likely to occur when EFL students have the opportunity to exercise some degree of discourse control. Thus, the FonF students benefited from the relative freedom in initiating utterances in English and they should have developed more acquisition of phrasal verbs. However, this was not the case in the present study. This can be explained because although students produced more student-initiated utterances in the FonF condition, they were not large enough to direct learners' attention to the function performed by phrasal verbs. In addition, most of the student-initiated utterances in the FonF condition were related to spontaneous repetition of teacher utterances. They might not have noticed the function of the target words, and even if they had noticed, ostensible noticing alone does not indicate that learners had automatically acquired the language (Venkatagiri & Levis, 2007). Students with a low proficiency level needed teachers to push them to notice the target words. This may explain the large amount of teacher-initiated utterances in the FonFs condition that promoted students to acquire the words.

The nature of the errors made by students in the FonFs and FonF groups was markedly different. The nature of the feedback provided by the teacher in the FonFs and FonF lessons was also markedly different. It is possible, therefore, that teacher feedback plays an important role in acquisition and that feedback on production errors is more helpful than feedback on comprehension errors. This contradicts Shintani and Ellis's (2010) finding that feedback on comprehension errors is more helpful than feedback on production errors. One possible explanation is that all but one of the students' production errors in their study were corrected in the form of recasts, which failed to elicit student understanding. However, in the present study, the teacher corrected in the form of recasts for 10 out of 21 production errors. For the other 11 occasions, the teacher corrected in the form of prompts. As determined by Lyster (2004), form-focused instruction was particularly beneficial when the teacher used prompts, as opposed to recasts.

In summary, although both types of instruction resulted in some acquisition of phrasal verbs, overall, the FonFs instruction appeared to have been more effective in promoting acquisition of this facet among low-proficiency level students. The pedagogical implications of the findings in the present study are worthy of consideration. First, clear vocabulary instruction operationalized as PPP exercises, could indeed be an appropriate and effective way to establish initial form–meaning connections of phrasal verbs in a classroom-based course. The present study adds to the growing body of evidence supporting this claim. The use of PPP exercises prompted learners to concentrate on the target item to be acquired. This is important for teaching phrasal verbs since some phrasal verbs are semantically opaque and consequently easily overlooked during reading (White, 2012). Although it is clearly not possible to teach all phrasal verbs by means of PPP exercises, it is evident that a number of phrasal verbs can be taught and learned explicitly. Second, it cannot be assumed that productive mastery would automatically follow from receptive mastery of phrasal verbs. In other words, merely experiencing receptive exposure does not appear to be enough to reliably lead to productive mastery. Additional productive exercises, in this regard, are essential for improving students' ability in using target words in sentence construction (Lee & Muncie, 2006). Finally, learning phrasal verbs is multifaceted. Solely introducing the meaning of new words is not enough to compel learners to notice the target lexical items, considering that the incremental nature of word learning and the various aspects of word knowledge that need to be mastered. As a solution, Nation and Gu (2007) suggested a four-strand approach: (1) meaning-focused input, (2) meaning-focused output, (3) language-focused learning, and (4) fluency development, with each strand being given equal emphasis. This approach provokes learning new information about target lexical items, and then provides for consolidation and enhancement of that knowledge, which teachers and material writers need to consider carefully.

Some limitations to the present study should be mentioned. First, phrasal verbs include at least two types: literal phrasal verbs—whose meaning is semantically transparent, as the meaning of the entire verb-particle combination can be derived from their semantic components; and figurative phrasal verbs—whose meaning is semantically obscure and has resulted from a metaphorical shift of meaning and the semantic fusion of the individual components. Idioms (an expression for which the meaning is different from the meaning of individual words in the expression) and phrasal verbs tend to overlap with other types of fixed phrases that exist in English. This may have effects on the acquisition outcome, but results due to distinction were not examined for the present study. Second,

as suggested by Teng (2016b), the assessment of vocabulary knowledge acquisition is difficult because a failure to notice grammatical functions might occur. A multi-dimensional approach, which measures more than various aspects of vocabulary knowledge, should be pursued to reveal even the smallest increment of acquisition of phrasal verbs. Third, the present study involved only Chinese EFL students with low levels of English proficiency. As suggested by Liao and Fukuya (2002), Chinese learners who had an advanced English proficiency level tended to use more phrasal verbs adeptly than learners with a low English level. This calls for more research involving learners of different English proficiency levels. Fourth, assessing receptive vs productive knowledge of vocabulary items were dealt together through artificial recall tests, not authentic, real-life tasks and this might not give an accurate picture of how EFL learners use phrasal verbs when speaking or reading a text with phrasal verbs in it. Finally, as participants were not required to take a pre-test as to avoid highlighting the target words to them. So, it may be impossible to ensure that all phrasal verbs were unknown to the participants. However, judging from the control group which did not show any significant improvement in the learning outcome, the results are convincible.

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Appendinces

Appendix I The 18 phrasal verbs used in the present study

1.   ruffle up

2.   chew out

3.   pass out

4.   storm over

5.   run into

6.   back off

7.   blow up

8.   put up with

9.   count on

10.   get by

11.   knock out

12.   pull over

13.   wear off

14.   put off

15.   get rid of

16.   let down

17.   lay off

18.   run out of

19.   get back into

20.   get over

Appendix II A sample reading text and comprehension questions.
Directions: Please read the following passage and give the best answer to each question in Chinese or English.

When deciding to buy your first home, you'd likely be excited and full of enthusiasm. However, you need to calm down and draw up a plan. You should take care to plan well and understand the process to avoid any unexpected problems.

Here are some things you'll need to consider to help you get started.

First, think about what you need and what you want from your new home. Perhaps you need to be close to your place of work because you don't drive. Perhaps you don't want to run into somebody you don't like. It may be that you want a large garden to satisfy your gardening hobby. Be sure to understand the differences between needs and wants as it's likely you'll need to give up some of your wants. You also need to accept your girlfriend's advice if you don't want her to break up with you.

Then, insist on using the internet. You'll need to make some decisions down the line and it will help you figure out the buying process.

If you do not intend to back off from your initial demands, you will normally need to contact a mortgage advisor to see how much money you can borrow.

Of course, there are many costs related to buying a home which may not be immediately clear to first-time buyers.

1. How do you understand the sentence 'Perhaps you don't want to run into somebody you don't like'?
2. What words can be used to replace 'back off'?
3. Inferring from the text, how can you draw up a plan when deciding to buy a house?
4. Can you think of one word to replace 'figure out'?
5. Can you think of a word opposite in meaning to 'give up'?

A Qualitative Research of the Difference in the Learning Styles between Chinese and Taiwanese English Major Students

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Abstract

This paper overviewed the qualitative research method of its relevance by analyzing the difference of learning styles between the English major students from Mainland China and Taiwan. The study was carried out from comparing two groups of 105 students in from of two universities on either sides of the Taiwan Strait: one from the Department of English in Aletheia University (AU) in Taiwan, and the other from the Faculty of English Language and Culture in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS) in Mainland China. Research was carried out with reference to the analysis table from Soloman and Felder's Index of Learning Styles (ILS). The aim was to uncover underlying differences and similarities in the learning styles of these English majors. The majority of participants from both sides were found as reflective, sensing, and visual

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learners; along the "Sequential/Global" dimension, however, students from Mainland China seemed to be sequential learners while those from Taiwan were global. It is hoped that the findings the study will provide some practical suggestions for cross-strait students to know about their preferred learning styles, and to strike a balance of each dimension of learning styles to meet their curricular demands better.

Keywords: English major students, differences in learning styles, Mainland China, Taiwan, qualitative research

Introduction

Driven by economic growth, China's ever-increasing global impact is presenting its people with a new epoch of challenges and opportunities. In the 21st century (Xinhua Daily, 2014), there has been an unprecedented and intense level of connection between Mainland China and Taiwan, maximizing bilateral economic growth through increased cooperation in various complementary and mutually advantageous industrial and cultural spheres. The continuously expanding scale of exchange and cooperation has created a demand for elite professionals who are well-equipped with human capital, including a comprehensive vision of globalization and localization and advanced intercultural communication skills. Effective education thus comes to the fore as a fundamental requirement, encouraging attention from officials and academics from both sides. Since 2007, relatively official channels for bilateral student exchange have emerged, marking the beginning of a wave of large-scale exchange and cooperation activities (People's Daily, 2013).

Therefore, as the exchange projects expand, educators from China and Taiwan should begin to pay more attention to the pedagogical challenges of encountering exchange students from the other side. As Liu (1997) mentions that there is no educational goal more important than that of cultivating a student into an independent, self-motivated and efficient learner. In addition to the educators' efforts, students' self- improvement deserves attention. Kroonenberg (1995) and Kinsella (1995) proposed that learners' preference of learning styles should be clarified, since they can learn more efficiently after identifying their natural learning styles. Students develop consistent reference patterns to their environment, so the many social and cultural differences between Mainland China and Taiwan may lead to subtle but significant differences in learning style and approach. Bearing this in mind, teachers may wish to enhance their focus on the respective learning

styles of exchange students. This pivot to an emphasis on individual learning styles can help students identify their own styles and methods, and help teachers find fruitful ways to teach in accordance with students' aptitudes and inclinations. (Chen, Zhang, Zhu, Bo, Wang, 2009)

Research questions of the study

To what extent are the learning styles of students from Mainland China and Taiwan respectively different? To what extent are the learning styles of young male students different from those of females?

The significance of the study

Uncovering and leveraging differences in learning styles can positively influence students' willingness and ability to assimilate knowledge presented by their teachers. This research focuses on providing a comprehensive understanding of these differences. Teachers can adjust their pedagogical practices accordingly; students can help themselves to recognize what methods suit them best, leading to self-motivated learning (Zhou, 2006).

Literature Review

Learning styles

Herbert Thelen, writing in 1954, was originally considered to be the first to discuss the concept of learning style, though this was later subject to debate (Chen et al, 2009). The definition of this concept in relevant literature varies. Tan (1995), a Chinese scholar, holds that a learning style is a consistent learning pattern and tendency that a student has formed through his long-term activities of learning. Renzulli and Smith (1978) believe that learning style refers to a preference that students may develop for one or more kinds of teaching methods or strategies during the interaction with their curricula and learning materials in specific learning activities. In Schmeck's (1988) opinion, a learning style is any pattern we see in a person's way of accomplishing a particular type of task. The 'task' currently at hand is education—learning and remembering in school and transferring what is learned to the world outside of school.

Whitehead's (2014) point of view is that people take in and process information in different ways. A learning style is the method a person uses to learn. After becoming familiar with a student's learning style, a teacher can use methods that maximize students' learning experience. Students

who recognize their individual learning styles can identify the study methods, environment, and activities that help them learn best.

Honey and Mumford's (1982) classification of learning styles, adapted from David Kolb's model, can be summarized as follows (See Table 1).

Table 1
Classification of Learning Styles

Learning styles	Attributes	Activities
Activist	Activists are those people who learn by doing. Activists need to get their hands dirty, to dive in with both feet first. Have an open-minded approach to learning, involving themselves fully and without bias in new experiences.	☐ brainstorming ☐ problem solving ☐ group discussion ☐ puzzles ☐ competitions ☐ role-play
Pragmatist	These people need to be able to see how to put the learning into practice in the real world. Abstract concepts and games are of limited use unless they can see a way to put the ideas into action in their lives. Experimenters, trying out new ideas, theories and techniques to see if they work.	☐ time to think about how to apply learning in reality ☐ case studies ☐ problem solving ☐ discussion
Reflector	These people learn by observing and thinking about what happened. They may avoid leaping in and prefer to watch from the sidelines. Prefer to stand back and view experiences from a number of different perspectives, collecting data and taking the time to work towards an appropriate conclusion.	☐ paired discussions ☐ self-analysis questionnaires ☐ personality questionnaires ☐ time out ☐ observing activities ☐ feedback from others ☐ coaching ☐ interviews
Theorist	These learners like to understand the theory behind the actions. They need models, concepts and facts in order to engage in the learning process. Preferring to analyzing and synthesizing, drawing new information into a systematic and logical 'theory'.	☐ models ☐ statistics ☐ stories ☐ quotes ☐ background information ☐ applying theories

Note: Reference is from Honey, P. & Mumford, A. (1982). *Manual of Learning Styles*, London: P Honey. Adapted from David Kolb's Model.

From Table 1 above we can draw a simple conclusion that the definition and classification of learning styles can differ from person to person, either subtly or sharply, and each style interacts with various elements of the learning experience (information being studied, environment, etc.) in important ways. Also, once one's learning style is formed, it tends to be relatively fixed and stable. Nevertheless, there is no absolute verdict regarding which learning style is the best or the worst. What matters instead is which kind of style suits the individual student and whether some aspects of other styles could be of help to him/ her. A consensus has arisen that there are three principle components of learning styles: individualization, steadiness and development. The first principle indicates that students have different learning styles. The second points out that a student's style tends to remain stable during a fixed and specific learning period, while the third posits that one's learning style could change and develop through time under different environmental influences. These principles alert educators that no fixed and immutable teaching pattern or method should be relied on for students under different courses, ages or genders.

Students unfamiliar with their own learning style may encounter unnecessary frustration at their lack of progress in their studies, assuming that they are simply unsuitable for a particular subject or field, or conclude that they are "not a good student". If they have discovered their own learning style and made some adjustments accordingly, this would tend to reduce uncertainty and anxiety. The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) is a scale developed to accurately measure individual learning styles. "The original LSI was a simple, nine-item self-description questionnaire (Kolb, 1976). In this version of the LSI, respondents are instructed to rank order four words in a way that best describes his/her learning style. One word in each item corresponds to one of four learning modes — concrete experience (CE: sample word, feeling), reflective observation (RO: watching), abstract conceptualization (AC: thinking), and active experimentation (AE: doing)." (Manolis, Burns, Assudani, & Chinta, 2013, p. 46)

Table 2
Relationship between Learning Styles

Behavior level	Diverging	Assimilating	Converging	Accommodating
Personality	Introverted	Introverted	Extraverted	Extraverted
types	Feeling	Intuition	Thinking	Sensation

Note: Reference is from Kolb & Kolb (2013).

Four Dimensions of Learning Styles of Felder-Silverman Model

According to Felder and Silverman (2014), there are four types of learning styles: active/reflective, sensing/intuitive, visual/verbal, and sequential/global. They describe the first dimension by stating that active learners "tend to retain and understand knowledge best by doing something active with it — discussing or applying it or explaining it to others", whereas reflective learners "prefer to think about it quietly first". But they also comment that it is possible to strike a balance between the two, for people may be active in some moments and reflective in others. The sensing/intuitive dimension categorizes students according to their preference for memorization or logic. Those primarily situated within the first group tend to like learning facts and solving problems by well-founded and fixed methods, while the latter are fond of innovation and studying the internal connections between things. Sensors are likely to exceed intuitors in relatively detailed tasks that require memorization; on the other hand, they tend to be less innovative and less adapted to abstract concepts and mathematic formulations than intuitors. The visual/verbal dimension distinguishes between students based on their usual approach to taking in and comprehending information and knowledge. Visual learners are inclined to make use of things they see, such as tables, pictures and videos; in contrast, verbal learners tend to prefer knowledge presented in written or oral form. The final dimension, sequential/global, emphasizes a logical sequence in gaining knowledge and solving problems. Sequential learners tend to proceed in proper order, with each step eliciting logically the next one. In contrast, global learners rarely earn their understanding step by step. A number of "jumps" in their thinking could be traced, which may allow them to suddenly "get it" after they have gather enough amount of information (the big picture) without focusing on the internal logical relation, but it may be difficult for them to explain how they did it. [1]

The four types of learning styles described above were a point of focus for this research. However, it neither necessary nor desirable to mechanically pigeonhole students in a rigid or deterministic manner according to the attributes listed in this classificatory scheme. As the study from North Carolina State University recommends, the results should offer an indication of an individual's learning preferences, or of a group of students' (e. g. a class) rather than a rigid division among groups. Other factors should be put into consideration. For example, a student's self-

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[1]Quoted from Felder, R. M., & Soloman, B. A. (2014). Learning styles and strategies, North Carolina State University. Retrieved October 9, 2014, from
http://www4. ncsu. edu/unity/lockers/users/f/felder/public/ILSdir/styles. htm

judgment should take precedence over the instrument results if that individual feels him- or herself incompatible with the assessment results. Besides, a student's suitability or unsuitability for a particular subject, discipline, or major is not reflected necessarily in the profile. It is no less than misleading to rigidly label students in this way, and can be traumatic for the student who takes this labelling for granted and uses it to shift his or her curriculum or career goals.

Method

The researcher employed a qualitative research approach to unpack the topic, conducting an analysis of unstructured information (mainly open-ended survey responses, interview transcripts and book references). Qualitative research chiefly places its focus on smaller samples rather than larger ones to acquire empirical backup for a research topic (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). In our particular case, the purpose of using a qualitative research is to attain insight into students' attitudes, behavioral preferences, concerns, motivations, and distinctive aspects of culture and lifestyle, thus scoping the variety of the learning style preferences of students from Mainland China and Taiwan. Convenient sampling, in-depth interviews, content analysis, and evaluation were among the formal approaches that were used in this survey. The major measurement tool for this research was the Index of Learning Style (ILS) questionnaire constructed by Felder and Soloman (1997). This was distributed to the two groups of students to respond to a series of 44 questions. Intricate and connective information can be excavated by collecting and analyzing this unstructured information. All in all, its goal is to probe the differences in learning styles between students of these two backgrounds. Insights into these differences in learning styles are used to offer practical suggestions for teachers to address these differences pedagogically and for students to better cope with their curricular demands themselves.

Narrative inquiry

In the field of studying teachers' development, narrative inquiry has been widely used, especially in EFL teachers' education and development. Narrative inquiry is a way of thinking about life. However, it is hardly possible to define clearly this term, as Denzin (1989) notes, "The terms of life history, autobiography, biography, life story and narrative define one another in terms of difference and every term carries a trace of the other terms" (p. 47). Narrative has been classified into first and second order (Carr, 1997). In the first order, the researcher is telling his or her story

or ontological narrative. In the second order, the research tells his or her account of other stories, showing and explaining the contrasts under different social and cultural settings. Blaikie (2000) stresses that meaning can stem from joint communication between research and its respondents, which constructs a social reality. In Letherby's opinion (2003), narrative can be served as data distilled from research in which life history, focus group, in-depth interview, biography or story telling can be exerted. According to Xu and Connelly (2008), narrative inquiry is defined as both phenomenon and method, first as a perception of the phenomenal world in which experience is objectified by story, but narrative inquiry is also (with reference to aspects of philosophy) more about the phenomena studied via method than it is about method.

In this context, storytelling can be treated as a medium facilitating sociological research, while allowing the researcher to tell others about themselves. The individual, with the help of the story he or she tells and the way the story is presented, can construct meaning which presumes validity (Berger & Quinney, 2004). Thus, auto-ethnography can be conceived as a form of narrative inquiry, in which the researcher as participant encases himself or herself with consciousness in the experiment and on his or her account, expounds on a phenomenon under investigation or survey. This method highlights the generation of the hypothesis stemming from the data when the research is processed (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In conclusion, this method can be viewed as a valuable methodological resource for professional psychology research and study (McIlveen, 2008).

Research Design (Adaption from J. Creswell)

The researcher studies and decides to use ILS.

⬇

The researcher recruits student respondents.

⬇

| The researcher hands out the questionnaires in printed and electronic forms. | ⇨ | (Data collection) |

Instant Feedbacks ⟺ Small talks ⟺ Literature Review

Data Analysis

⬇

The researcher puts the results in order.

⬇

The researcher looks through the data to get an overall sense of the results.

⬇

Data are categorized and divided according to dimension and gender.

⬇

Each category of the result is explained in detail to elicit practical suggestions.

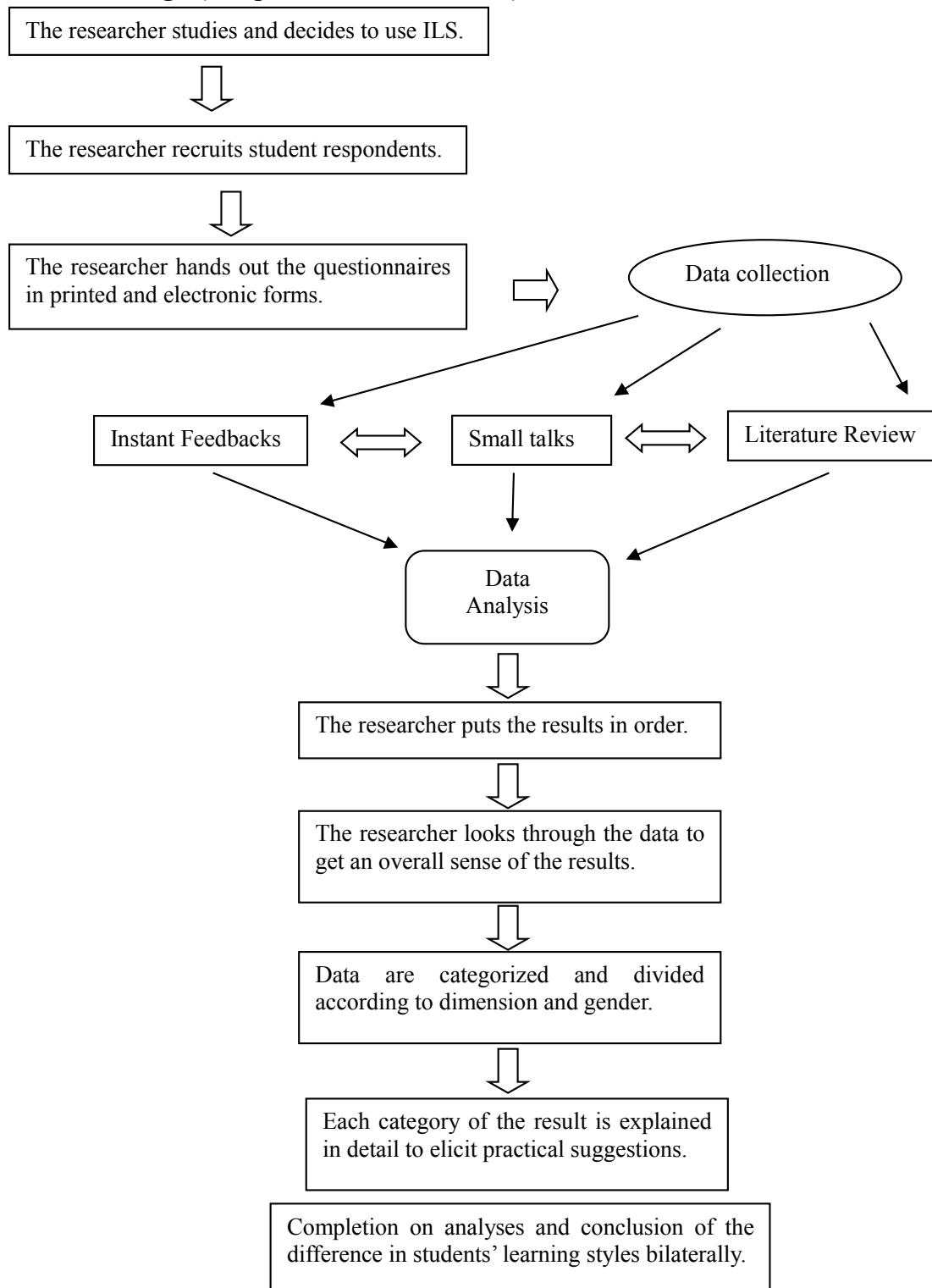| Completion on analyses and conclusion of the difference in students' learning styles bilaterally. |
| :-- |

Figure 1. Framework of research design

Note: Adapted from Creswell, J (2002), *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research,* p. 258. Upper Saddle River: NJ: Pearson Education.

Instrument
The Index of Learning Style (ILS) of Felder & Soloman
To test students' preference on learning style, Felder and Soloman (1991) formalized an *Index of Learning Style* model, which was modified in 1994 according to several hundred suggestions. The pencil-and-paper version of ILS was introduced in 1996, and in 1997 an on-line version was placed on the Internet for students, teachers or organizations to use free-of-charge. The latter will display the scores, results and the corresponding analyses about one's probable learning style immediately upon completion of the survey. This study employed the refined analysis table of Soloman to express which learning style dimension our target students may prefer. The interpretation of ILS results has been explained thus by Felder and Spurlin (2005):

> There are 11 forced-choice items attached to each learning style dimension, each item having two options (A or B) which respectively leads to one or the other category of the dimension (e. g., visual or verbal). Convenient for analyzing statistics, it applies a set of scoring pattern that counts "a" answers, guaranteeing the score of a dimension as an integer varying from 0 to 11. Taking the active-reflective dimension as an example, if we count the number of "a" response, 0-1 refers to a strong incline to reflective learning, 2 or 3 a moderate preference, 4 or 5 a mild one, 6-7 a mild preference for active learning, 8-9 a moderate incline and 10 or 11 a strong incline.

Participants
One of researchers is himself a participant in the study, being an exchange student at AU for half a year from GDUFS in Mainland China, and the other is a professor at AU. The purpose of this research is to seek some applicable pedagogical approaches and adjustment for those lecturers and professors who are facing the recent and growing trend of bilateral exchange of students across the strait, as a reference guiding them to probe questions regarding the differences between the learning styles of Taiwanese and Chinese students. The study was mainly conducted with two groups of students: 105 students from GDUFS, Mainland China and another 105 students from AU in Taiwan. It employed Felder and Soloman's analysis table on Index of Learning Style (ILS), which is a reliable and widely used questionnaire for exploring students' learning styles.

The majority of the 105 students from the English Department of AU in Taiwan were juniors from the same class, while the rest were seniors. Similarly, the majority of the 105 students from GDUFS in Mainland China (including one of the two researchers) were juniors from the same

class, while the remainder were from other junior or senior classes. Students at GDUFS were sent the ILS in electronic form by e-mail, which they sent back to the researcher after completing. Students at AU were provided with paper version of ILS to complete in class and return immediately to the researcher.

Reliability and Validity of ILS Scores

To provide the research reliability and validity, the ILS scores must be proven as reliable and valid. Researchers such as Livesay, Dee, Nauman and Hites (2002), Zywno (2003), and Seery, Gaughran and Waldmann (2003) have launched the evaluation on the test-retest reliability, the results of which are shown in Table 3 (below). For all the tables shown in this paper, A-R refers to the dimension of Active-Reflective learner, S-N to Sensing-Intuitive, Vs-Vb to Visual-Verbal, and Sq-G to Sequential-Global. In Table 3, $\triangle t$ indicates the time interval when informants took ILS test at the first time and they were invited to retest the ILS at the second time. WK and MO stand for week and month respectively.

Table 3
Test-Retest Correlation Coefficients

	A-R	*S-N*	*Vs-Vb*	*Sq-G*	*N*	*Reference*
4wk.	0804**	0. 787**	0. 870**	0. 725***	46	*Seery etal.*
7mo.	0. 73*	0. 78*	0. 68*	0. 60*	24	*Liveay etal.*
8mo.	0. 683**	0. 678**	0. 511**	0. 505**	124	*Zywno*

*p<. 05 ∗∗ p <. 01

The extent to which the responses to the items are correlated is called internal consistency reliability. Nowadays, Cronbach's coefficient alpha has been commonly used as a reference for testing reliability. Differences in the feasibility for alpha can be applied in the following two circumstances:

1. The quantity being measured is unchangeable, such as a test on the achievement of knowledge of a particular subject or the mastery of a skill;
2. The quantity being measured reflects an incline or an attitude.

Using ILS to probe into students' learning style should be classified as the second

circumstance, in that the result reflects a student's preference of his or her own learning style. These preferences in learning attitude and styles can undergo amorphous variation under different circumstances. If there is a very high level of internal consistency or a Cronbach alpha of 0. 8 or more, it is probable that the items are not testing different dimensions of the construct but simply repeating the variant of the same question. So Tuckman (1999) suggests that for the first circumstance, a Cronbach alpha of 0. 75 or higher can be the threshold to measure achievement; for the second one, a Cronbach alpha of 0. 5 or higher can be applicable to test preference and attitude. In this research, an alpha of 0. 5 was regarded as the standard criteria for the validity of ILS. Table 4 below shows the different results of Cronbach alpha coefficients calculated by four independent studies from Livesay et al. (2002), Felder and Spurlin (2005), Zwanenberg, Wilkinson and Anderson (2000) and Zywno (2003).

Table 4
Cronbach Alpha Coefficient

A-R	S-N	Vs-Vb	Sq-G	N	Source
0. 56	0. 72	0. 60	0. 54	242	*Livesay et al.*
0. 62	0. 76	0. 69	0. 55	584	*Spurlin*
0. 51	0. 65	0. 56	0. 41	284	*Van Zwanenherg et al.*
0. 60	0. 70	0. 63	0. 53	557	*Zywno*

Table 4 above shows that all of the figures except one transcend the criterion value of 0. 5; the lone exception of 0. 41 is the sequential-global aspect in Van Zwanenburg et al.,'s study. Also, three of these four studies have conducted factor analyses of ILS responses, applying a rotated principal component method; the results are presented in Table 5 (below). The analyses concluded that three dimensions could probably be granted independency, while the lone exception (sequential-global) shows a moderate degree of connection with the sensing-intuitive dimension.

Table 5

Interscale Correlations

	A-R	Sq-G	S-N
Sq-G	-0. 04[a]		
	0. 07[b]		
	0. 08[d]		
S-N	0. 03[a]	0. 48[a] , *	
	-0. 06[a]	0. 41[b] , **	
	0. 18[c] , **	0. 32[c] , **	
	0. 01[d]	0. 55[d] , **	
Vs-Vb	0. 03[a]	-0. 07[a]	-0. 06[a]
	0. 15[b]	0. 07[b]	-0. 04[b]
	0. 08	-0. 09[c]	0. 11[c]
	0. 18[d] , **	0. 03[d]	0. 03[d]

[a]Livesay *et al.,N*=242
[b] van Zwanenberg *et al.,N*=284
[c]Zywno，*N*=557
[d]Spurlin，*N*=584
*$P < 0. 01$
**$p < 0. 001$

From the research and results above, we conclude that this version of instrument (ILS) is reliable, valid and feasible.

Results and Discussion

From the outset, 70 questionnaires were sent out to each participant from the two different universities. It turned out that all 70 questionnaires were returned with validity, so the analysis of the result will be based on all these valid questionnaires. To display the results in a coherent fashion, charts and diagrams will be applied in the following sequence: first, participants' overall performance and the distribution of choices to the four different pairs of dimensions of learning styles from these two universities will be shown. These are followed by the difference in the distribution of choices of each pair of dimension of learning style between male and female students. GDUFS will be used as the abbreviation for Guangdong University of Foreign Studies

and AU for Aletheia University in the following charts and research analysis.

Table 6
Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Active/Reflective" of the Two Universities:

GDUFS	AU
Reflective 63 60% / Active 42 40% ■ Active ■ Reflective	Reflective 53 50% / Active 52 50% ■ Active ■ Reflective
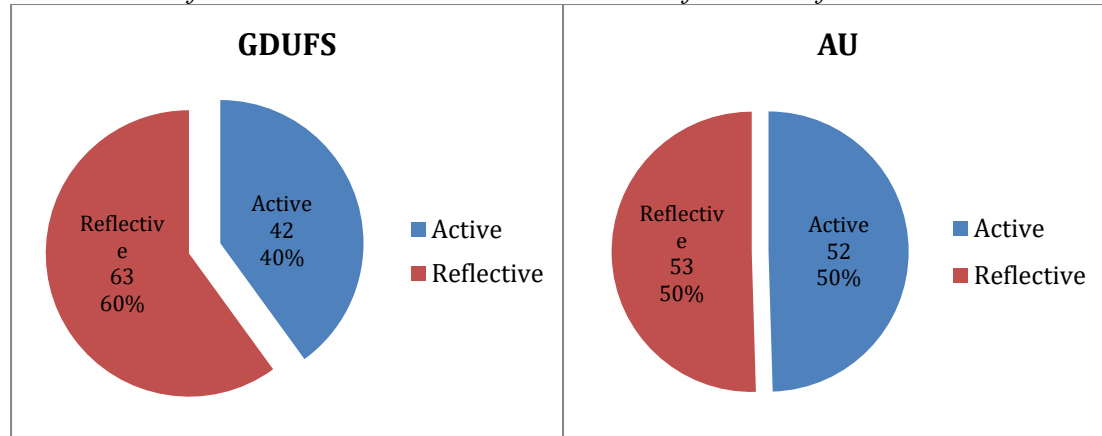
According to Table 6, AU students are nearly equally divided along the dimension of "Active/Reflective", while those from GDUFS are relatively more likely to be reflective learners. A subset of 42 students from GDUFS had the tendency of being an active learner while 63 were more reflective. In contrast, the results from AU were 52 and 53 students, respectively. These results suggest that the students from GDUFS were more likely than the students from AU to observe and reflect upon new information. Anecdotally, the results are consonant with the researcher's observations that when teachers ask questions in class at AU, the students' most frequent answer would be "I don't know." This suggests that AU students did not prefer to stand back and view experiences from a number of different perspectives, collecting data and taking the time to work towards an appropriate conclusion.

As all of the results of the valid questionnaires collected from those 210 students were shown in the preceding part in the form of charts and graphs. Analyses for these data concerning their own learning styles and respective probably instrumental recommendations for teaching and self-learning are presented below. As everyone is active sometimes and reflective sometimes, the goal of probing into students' inclined learning styles is to help them realize how to take advantage of both the innovative and integrated methods to widen their set of strategies that may be used for different subjects or studying circumstances. Learners who gravitate to one style can emulate the practices of the other and leverage this knowledge in concert with pre-existing learning characteristics.

From the graphs, in both universities over 50% of the respondents were found to fall into the dimension of reflective learners, while active learners still occupied a too significant share to ignore. Active learners tend to prefer to take in and comprehend information under the assistance of practices such as in-class discussion, explaining and definition and group work. Active learners prefer to be involved in learning by doing. They would like to try it out and see how it works. In contrast, reflective learners are inclined to spend some time to think upon new things before taking further steps. In addition, the latter prefer to work alone. It would be hard to sit still, doing nothing but taking notes for both learning styles, but especially difficult for active learners (Felder & Soloman, 2014).

As it would be uncomfortable for the former group to begin studying before they clearly determined their goals or methods, the latter may expend potentially excessive amounts of time considering what to do rather than taking concrete action (Felder & Soloman, 2014). So for teachers and professors in these two universities, it would be better to allocate nearly the same portion of time to the in-class group work and individual contemplation activities during a class period. Students should be randomly placed in groups with both active and reflective learners.

For the active learners, they could find classmates and set up a discussion group for asking questions, expressing solutions and opinions, and designing models or approaches for solving problems. Better outcomes may result if they consult their peers or instructors promptly for suggestions (Felder & Soloman, 2014). For the reflective learners, it is seldom recommended that they spend considerable time simply reciting materials. Reviewing at regular intervals the materials or information one has previously studied before would be an apt approach; during this one can develop questions that might emerge from these materials and potential applications for the knowledge. Taking more time to write summaries about class the subject matter may also help these students to grasp content efficiently and effectively (Felder & Soloman, 2014).

Table 7
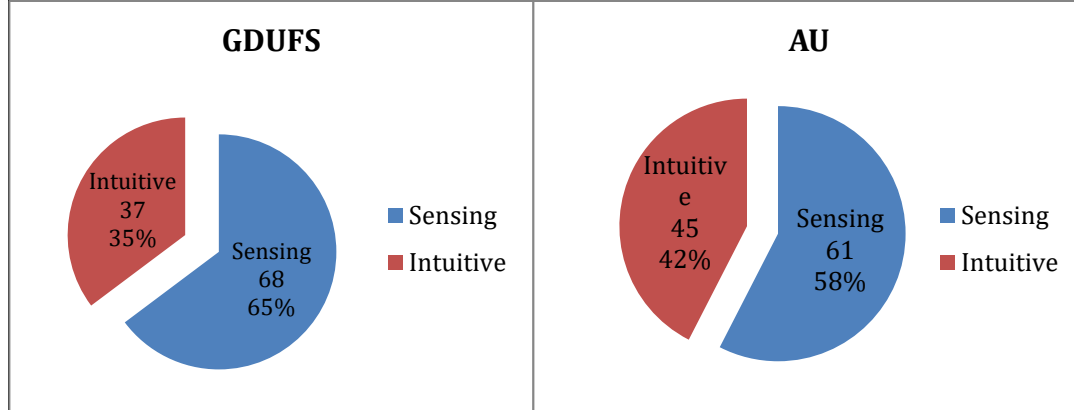*Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Sensing/Intuitive" of the Two Universities:*

Table 7 demonstrates that both GDUFS and AU have more "sensing" learners. A subset of 68 students from GDUFS had the tendency to be a "sensing" learner while 37 were more intuitive. Meanwhile, the relative subtotals of students from AU were 61 and 44 respectively. It is clear that in both the universities, the percentage of potential intuitive learners exceeds that of potential sensing learners by more than 15%. Drawing from the descriptions on a relevant website, these results might lead to the following conclusions:

> [AU students] might overemphasize intuition and might miss important details or make careless mistakes in calculations or hands-on work; on the other hand, [the students from GDUFS] might rely too much on memorization and familiar methods and do not focus enough on understanding and innovative thinking. Sensing learners tend to like learning facts; solving problems by well-established methods and dislike complications and surprises; intuitive learners like to discover possibilities and relationships, innovation and dislike repetition. Sensing learners tend to be patient with details and good at memorizing facts and doing hands-on (laboratory) work; intuitive learners may be better at grasping new concepts and are often more comfortable than sensing learners with abstractions and mathematical formulations. Sensing learners tend to be more practical and careful than intuitive learners; intuitive learners tend to work faster and to be more innovative than sensing learners. [2]

From the graphs, over 50% of the respondents in both universities were found to fall into the dimension of sensing learners, while intuitive learners still occupied too significant a share to for

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[2] Quoted from https://econlearningstyles. wordpress. com/sensing-and-intuitive-learners/

teachers to ignore. Sensing learners tend to prefer facts and areas of study that have tangible applications or connections to the real world. Solving problems with proven and well-established theories and methods, they are patient with details and good at memorization. However, intuitive learners have the tendency to be more innovative and inclined toward abstractions. They have a greater ability to probe into underlying relationships and possibilities, and dislike repetitive details that may leave them vulnerable to careless mistakes (Hausler & Sanders, 2014).

So this study recommends that professors and teachers who deal with students from both universities focus their courses on a sufficient blend of theoretical explanations and applicable practices in the real world. That is especially true in some subjects such as politics or history, which would tend to include numerous details and well-established facts for students to memorize. Also, teachers should be patient with intuitive learners as they tend to be impatient with details and may make careless mistakes (Felder & Soloman, 2014).

However, it is generally expected that a typical class will include both sensing and intuitive learners. For sensing learners, if they find they are in a class or lecture where contents are rather theoretical and abstract, they may benefit from asking classmates or the lecturer for concrete examples to which these theories can connect and be applied. Under no circumstance should they automatically reject any innovative solutions or views that are not explicitly given in the textbook. They should be encouraged instead to study the logic of these innovations and implement it in future practice as much as possible (Felder & Soloman, 2014). For intuitive learners, who potentially are not best equipped for tasks involving rote memorization of facts, theories or formulas, they are advised to try attempt to connect the theories and facts to their personal life experience, or find opportunuities to put those theories into use, which can strengthen their memorization or impression unconsciously and automatically (Felder & Soloman, 2014).

Table 8

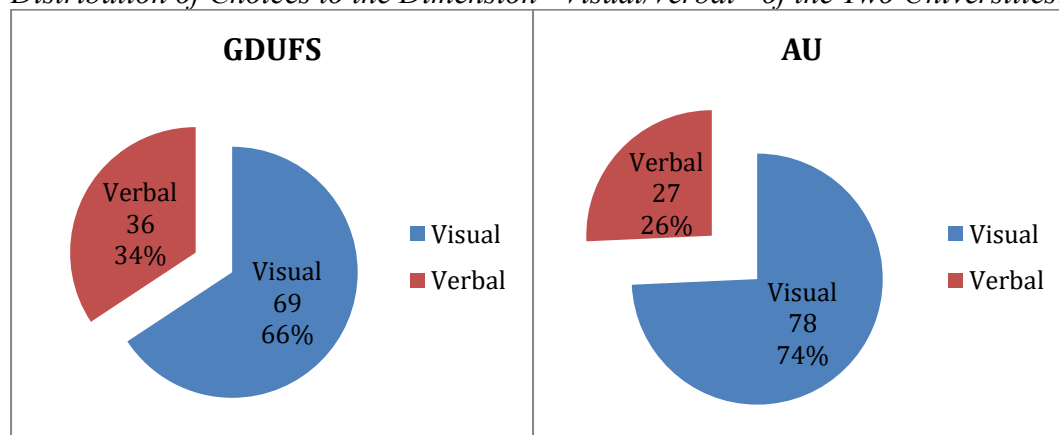*Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Visual/Verbal" of the Two Universities:*

Table 8 reveals that visual learners are more prevalent in both GDUFS and AU. A subset of 69 students from GDUFS had the tendency to be a visual learner, while the remaining 36 students were more inclined to be verbal learners. The subtotals for AU students were 78 and 27 respectively. It is clear that in both universities, the percentage of potential visual learners as much as doubles that of potential verbal learners, dominating the division among participants. The similar and nearly overwhelming percentage of visual learners in both the universities highlights that it is more important for them to "see" new information.

From the graph, a clear division could be noted in terms of the percentage of visual learners and that of verbal learners, as in the two universities nearly 70% of their respective respondents fell into the category of visual learners, sharply contrasted to verbal learners who only accounted for 30%. Visual learners prefer to master knowledge by visualizing it through graphs, charts, pictures, videos and so forth, and verbal learners prefer make textual materials, lectures or oral explanations (Hausler & Sanders, 2014).

So for teachers and professors in these two universities, they may be advised to focus more on using multimedia in English language teaching, which nowadays has contributed a lot to provide students a higher quality of teaching. (Susikaran & Phil, 2014). As Dr. Pandey (2014) says, there are three major underlying educational values and rationale of using multimedia to teach English in class, as follows:

1. It helps to raise level of interests of students as it promotes the interaction between the student and the teacher as well as other students.
2. It helps to further students' mastery of the subjects being taught as students can also

practice themselves after class wherever and whenever they want if they have the access to the materials displayed by the multimedia.

3. It helps to enhance their memorability.

In addition, it would save time to use multimedia in class as teachers will not need to spend unproductive time on writing on the blackboard. With the assistance of images and audio, teachers can enrich the curricular content for students. Audio-streaming satisfies only auditory learners; power point presentation satisfies the visual learners while flash animation and video satisfy learners of both the types (Parveen & Rajesh, 2014).

In a related conclusion, to take care of visual students, teachers should resort to multimedia as frequently and proficiently as possible. However, they should be careful not to turn themselves into merely a displayer of information, neglecting their own original role in instructing students and leading them into independent thinking. But it is also important to keep a proper proportion of written or printed materials, as these are still quite effective for presenting information to students and easy for them to review at their own time and pace. For visual learners, if they find themselves in a lecture-oriented class where oral or textual inputs dominate, they are advised to locate reference materials which contain graphs, diagrams or charts concerning the topic they are learning, or perhaps watch video from an Internet resource. One efficient and effective tool is mind mapping, which helps students visualize information by themselves, using their preferred way to illustrate the relationship of seemingly separate points of knowledge (Felder & Soloman, 2014). For example, they can use lines and arrows to picture a flow displaying how this step deduces the next point of information, or encircle a key major point with several subordinate and individual levels of information. This is similar to making a *Prezi*. For verbal learners, if they find themselves stuck in a class where information is displayed mainly by media such as video or Powerpoint, they are advised to take as many notes as they can in the class in case they forget what has been presented. Moreover, they are encouraged to summarize the outline of what they have seen in class, then to discuss the material with other classmates or even the teacher (Felder & Soloman, 2014).

Table 9

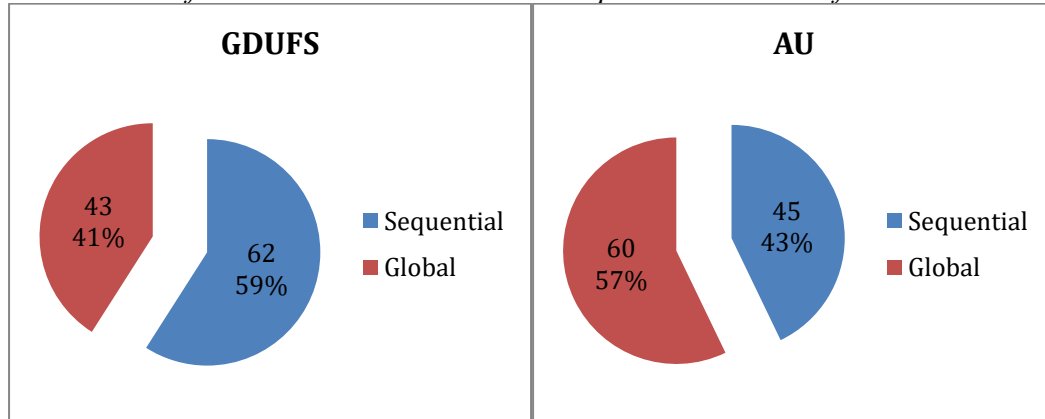*Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Sequential/Global" of the Two Universities:*

Table 9 shows that GDUFS has more sequential learners, while AU has more global learners. A subset of 43 students from GDUFS tended to be global learners, while 62 were sequential learners. The relevant numbers from AU were 60 and 45 respectively. Data varied here as there are more potential sequential learners from the sample from GDUFS while the respondents from AU fell into two halves with a close gap in percentage.

A sequential learner approaches learning and problem solving in a "systematic" manner. [GDUFS students] tend to like using a series of logical steps. They learn knowledge by asking the instructors to reorganize their class notes into a logical order and try to relate the subject material to a topic they have already known. [The AU students] will absorb information at random and then suddenly understand. They do not necessarily need all the individual steps laid out and they may have trouble explaining their process or structure from start to finish. This type of learner needs the big picture explained in order to understand. They learn by always asking the instructor to provide an outline of the big picture and trying to relate the subject to something they understand and skim the chapter ahead of time to get an idea about the big picture[3].

From the graph, it can be seen that in both the universities, the percentage of sequential learners and that of the global learners are in a relative equilibrium, with no sharp discrepancy between them. However, there is a small contrast between these two universities. For GDUFS, it was found to seemingly have more sequential learners, whilst for AU, it was found to seemingly have an equal

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[3]Quoted from https://econlearningstyles. wordpress. com/sequential-and-global-learners/

balance between sequential and global learners. Sequential learners are thought to be more inclined to learn step by step logically, which means the internal connection of each point is vital to their comprehension. Global learners learn more effectively by being exposed to the full extent of material before each separate piece of information can make sense to them logically and reasonably (Hausler & Sanders, 2014).

Therefore, for teachers and professors in both universities, focus should be placed on a reasonable allocation of time for detailed explanation for the materials or the inner relation of the solution and the brief introduction or inference of the coming chapter or piece of information which logically links to the present chapter or point of knowledge. In this way, sequential learners could be satisfied as they could learn step by step in detail and get the chance to understand why these pieces of information are connected to solve a problem, the same for global learners who would be unconsciously inculcated the basic theories and principles in detail, as well as given the clue of inner logic they need to foresee the big picture of what they are learning to master.

For sequential learners, if they feel lost trying to keep up as a teacher moves from one aspect of the topic to another while bypassing any detailed analyses of specific key points or the logical connections between them, they are encouraged to ask their tutor directly after class for a sequential procedure for understanding the topic discussed in class. A more direct but labor-intensive approach might be to use the overview provided in some reference book to determine an outline of brief logical connections between each point or step on their own, with help and suggestions from their classmates and teachers (Felder & Soloman, 2014).

Global learners, on the other hand, may need to construct a coherent and complete system of the subject before they are able to fully comprehend some of its specific details. This provides them with the necessary framework that helps them probe into details more effectively. For global learners stuck in a class where an overall introduction is given scant attention, before concentrating on comprehending a single item or detail, they should try to be exposed to a larger chunk of information related to this item or point of knowledge. They should, for example, ask the instructor for a more general discussion, and overview the whole chapter they are to learn rather than a single section of the textbook. They may need to construct a framework themselves; an example might include approaching a specific formula by conducting quick research into how this formula is deduced and to what circumstance it can be applied. These and similar strategies may help them grasp the big picture earlier and faster (Felder & Soloman, 2014). Finally, they should be self-

confident, reminding themselves with positive self-talk that they will at last comprehend the materials (Felder & Soloman, 2014).

Table 10

Comparison of the Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Active/Reflective" between Male and Female Students from the Two Universities:

Table 10 indicates that both males and females in GDUFS are more reflective, whilst students of both sexes in AU are more evenly divided between the two categories. In sum, female students from GDUFS are more active and reflective than male students. There is no significant sex-specific difference in the proportion of active versus reflective students from AU.

Table 11

Comparison of the Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Sensing/Intuitive" between Male and Female Students from the Two Universities:
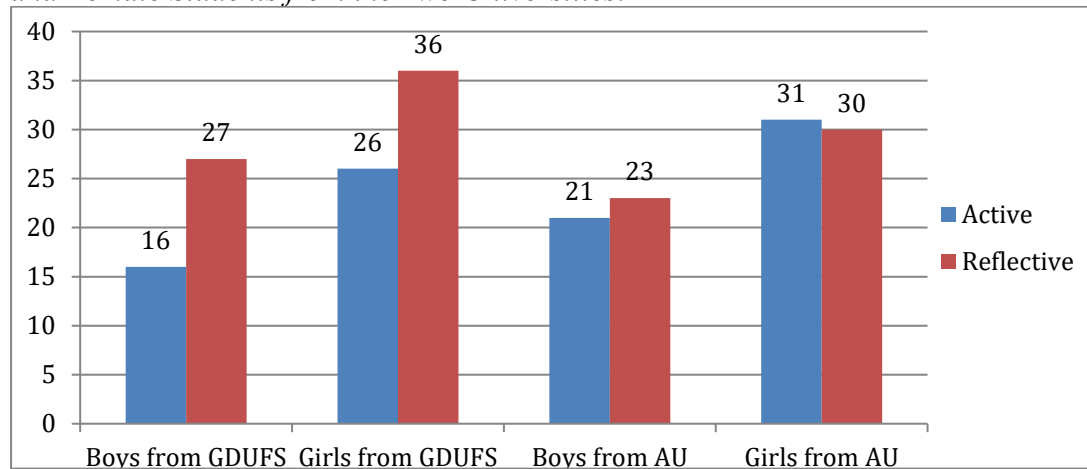
From the chart above, it can be indicated that there are more sensing learners in both GDUFS and AU. females in these two universities are characterized as sensing, and the proportion of intuitive learners in GDUFS is found close to that in AU. Felder and Soloman (2016) suggested that instructors supply specific examples of how the concepts and procedures apply in practice. If the teacher does not provide enough specifics, students should try to find some in textbooks or other references or by brainstorming with friends or classmates.[4]

Table 12

Comparison of the Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Visual/Verbal" between Male and Female Students from the Two Universities:
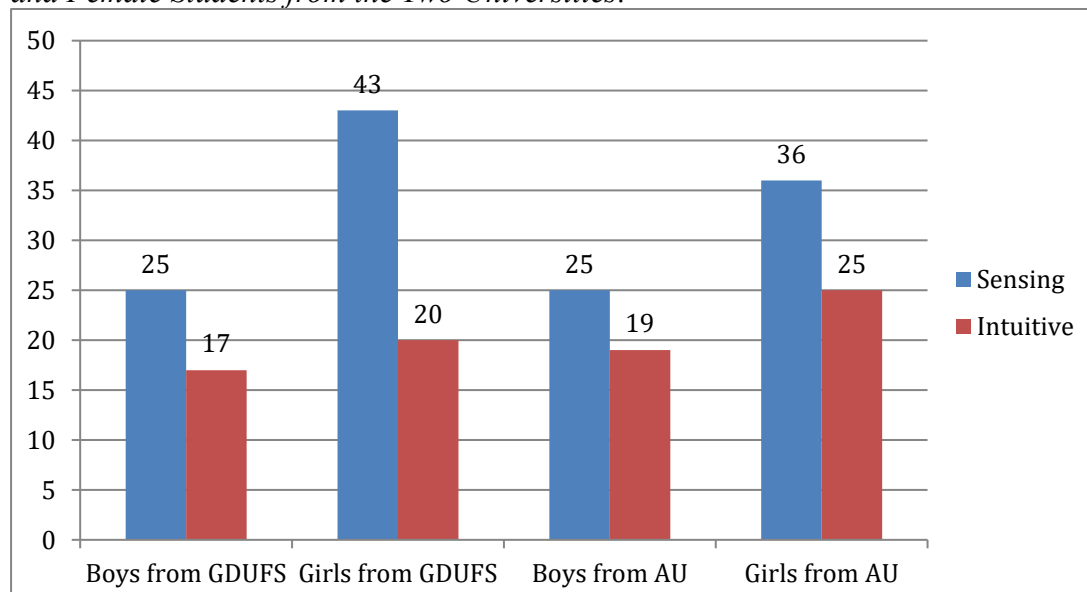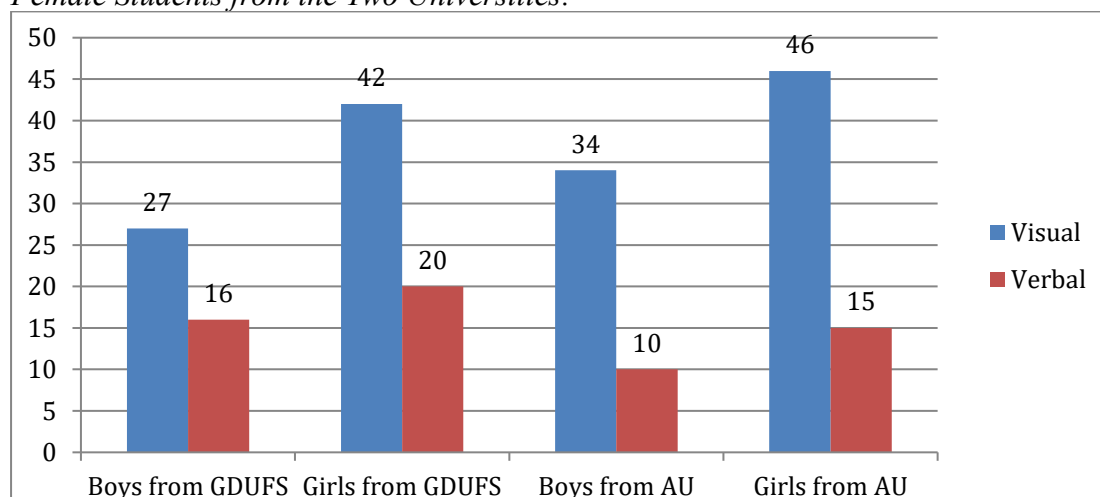

The chart above indicates that in both universities, the majority of both males and females are visual learners. However, the share of verbal learners is higher in GDUFS than in AU. This means teachers in both universities should pay attention to the teaching methods and tools they will use in the class, as multimedia can be a better channel for students in these two universities to receive and accept information. Felder and Soloman (2016) recommend that instructors consult reference books, and see if any videotapes or CD-ROM displays of the course material are available. Another strategy would be to prepare a concept map by listing key points, enclosing them in boxes or circles, and drawing lines with arrows between concepts to show connections. Color-code notes with a highlighter so that everything relating to one topic is the same color is also helpful.

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[4]Quoted from Felder and Soloman (2016) http://www4. ncsu. edu/unity/lockers/users/f/felder/public/ILSdir/styles. htm

Table 13

Comparison of the Distribution of Choices to the Dimension "Sequential/Global" between Male and Female Students from the Two Universities:
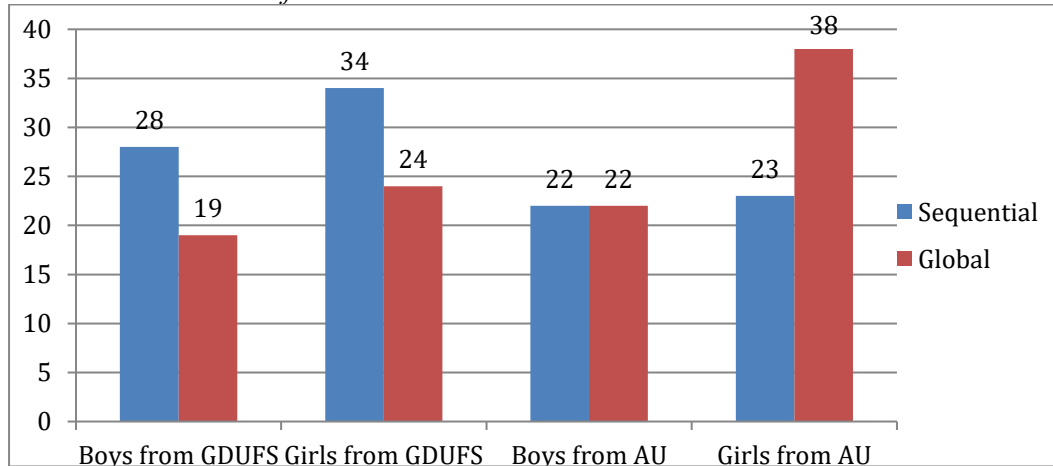

The chart above indicates that males and females in GDUFS are more likely to be sequential leaners; males in AU are display a nearly even proportion of sequential learners to global learners; and females in AU are more likely to be global learners. This implies that GDUFS and AU may benefit from different approaches in the selection of teaching methods and tools:

> Global learners need to see the bigger picture and how the new material connects to information they have already learned. Global learners work well with larger concepts or ideas but struggle with the details. You can help global learners by: Giving a short overview of the topic before jumping into the details. Drawing connections from specific details or information to the larger concepts. Having them work on problems or issues that encourage creative approaches rather than the application of a sequence of steps.[5]

Finally, after the results of the *Index of Learning Style* survey and were analyzed, the research found that three of the four dimensions showed a relatively balanced distribution, with one of two possible characteristics slightly prevalent in each dimension. For the dimension of "Active/Reflective", reflective style was the leading choice. For the dimension of "Sensing/Intuitive", sensing style took the lead. For the dimension of "Sequential/Global", sequential style got the leading choice. The exception to this rather balanced set of distributions was the dimension of "Visual/Verbal" where there was a gap of nearly 40% in the comparison of

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[5]Quoted from http://www. vaniercollege. qc. ca/pdo/2013/11/teaching-tip-ways-of-knowing-sequential-vs-global-learners/

the percentages of these two styles, with visual style as clearly the leading choice.

Comparison with other research on Taiwanese and Chinese students' learning styles

Wu and Alrabah (2009) conducted a survey of two groups of freshman students of EFL in Taiwan and Kuwait, one of whose goals was to discover students' preferred learning styles. Along with an additional dimension of being "closure-oriented" (not discussed in this paper) their research reveals that Taiwanese students in their sample displayed a preference for learning styles are visual, extroverted (i.e., active), intuitive, and global, while the results of this paper indicate a preference among Taiwanese students for approaches to learning that are visual, reflective, sensing, and global. Therefore, distinctions can be drawn here: Wu and Alrabah's finding of extroverted (active) and intuitive inclinations are not consistent with the reflective and sensing findings here. But the two studies agree in finding visual and global preferences for the Taiwanese students.

Secondly, Cynthia (1990) published findings about learning styles for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in the People's Republic of China (PRC) which can be compared with the findings in this research for students from Mainland China. After doing statistical analysis, Cynthia found that "*Chinese students prefer kinesthetic, tactile and individual learning as major styles. They consider visual and auditory as minor learning styles, while group learning was a negative learning style.*" In the major learning styles, the kinesthetic style differs from the reflective style found in this research, while the tactile style matches the sensing style in this research. Moreover, Cynthia found that the visual style serves as a minor learning style for Chinese students, while visual learners occupy a large portion of the respondents from Mainland China in this research. Another comparison comes from Chili Li (2012), whose investigation of Chinese students' styles at an English-medium University of Mainland China shows that "*A wide variety of learning styles was distributed among Chinese EFL students, a majority of them favoring tactile, kinesthetic and visual learning styles.*" (2012). As mentioned above, our finding of a reflective style fails to match Li's of a kinesthetic style. With respect to the sensing/intuitive and visual/verbal styles this paper's findings are congruent with Li's.

Conclusion

Implications/suggestions for educators:

First, as is shown in Table 10, except for female respondents from AU (whose number of active learners is greater than that of the reflective learners), all categories of respondents from both the universities exhibit a majority in the number of reflective learners in comparison with active learners. It should be pointed out that in both Mainland China and Taiwan, those choosing to study foreign languages in their university were more likely to have taken courses in the final two years of high school that focused principally on subjects that require recitation. (Concluded from interviews/talks with some local students in Taiwan and in Guangzhou by the researcher himself) So, students from the Department of English may be relatively poorly equipped to approach problems by applying innovative ideas or strongly logical thinking, as they have quite customarily applied the method of recitation in their study since their high school days. Besides, perhaps as an outcome of certain aspects of Chinese culture, it is quite normally the case that females outnumber males in any English Department in Chinese and Taiwanese universities. So, for the bilateral teachers and professors, they may have to pay more effort to try to inspire students to be active and aggressive in acquiring new knowledge, using novel auxiliary teaching methods like multimedia or role plays, explaining in detail and applying variants of one certain topic or item to guide students to use the theories or knowledge they have learnt to solve them. In addition, for active learners in study groups, the majority of members can be active learners, but reflective learners could also be included as they would sometimes provide more deliberate and reflective thoughts and ideas that might be valuable before proceeding on an active course.

Second, as is shown in Table 11, males and females from both the universities were found to be more likely to fall into the category of sensing learners than intuitive learners. As a result, when the teacher or lecturer assigns group work for the class, he or she could be a careful and deliberate to blend male and female students together reasonably, as to reach the goal that the sensing quality of students could be complemented by the intuitive quality of students. Teachers can also get specific inspiration from this research. To list a few specific examples, teachers could explain how a recently-enacted policy might affect the price of real estate; how problems left over by wars and history concerning about territory, languages and culture has shaped a certain society nowadays. In such a manner, teachers can inject other areas of inquiry and innovative problem-solving methods into their teaching, making it possible for sensing students to integrate the theories they have learnt

into possible real-world applications. Besides, to address the needs of intuitive learners, teachers can place more emphases on diversified views and solutions to one certain topic or question, guiding them to apply disparate theories or methods to which they have been exposed to tackle. They could also partner a sensing learner as an academic work partner who can promptly remind them of the well-established theories and check out the minor mistakes for them as intuitive learners may be prone to be careless.

Moreover, for intuitive learners,

3. As is shown in Table 13, a rather sharp comparison lies in the students from GDUFS concerning the amount of sequential learners, while only female of respondents from AU show the difference in the amount of style of global learners. Consequently, for teachers and professors of GDUFS, they may have to pay more attention to the detailed explanation toward some specific topics or points of information to show the layers of logical relationships step by step to the students. For sequential learners, the Internet has provided a revolution for education and study in the modern society, which provides convenience for individuals to reach the richness of resources of self-studying, no matter when or where. So, it is also recommended that sequential learners resort to the Internet to gain inspiration from other people's work, which is quite easy to access. One can even have an online discussion with others. The Internet should also come in handy as a powerful and convenient tool for global learners. If this is insufficient, they should consult their tutor for "customized" adjustments in how to cope with that subject. Every person has his or her preferred way to take in and process information (Jonassen & Grabowski, 1993). Teachers in universities which enroll exchange students from the other side of the strait should pay attention to the effectiveness of different teaching methods on helping students absorb information, due to the diversity of students' learning styles. So it is also hoped that these findings can help teachers better understand their students and adapt their teaching styles and methods to best fit each student's learning style. Finally, there are some useful education theories, studies and practices for learning that educators can keep in mind, such as Manolis et al (2013, p. 45) concluded that

The Experiential Learning Model is based on six propositions: 1. Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes. 2. Learning is a continuous process grounded in experience. 3. Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world. 4. Learning is a holistic process of adaptation. 5. Learning results from synergistic transactions between the person and the environment. 6. Learning is

the process of creating knowledge (Kolb & Kolb, 2006, p. 47).

In addition, Kolb & Kolb (2013) suggested some implications for educators such as:

1. Create learning spaces for experiential learning. 2. Respect learners and their experience. 3. Begin learning with the learner's experience of the subject matter. 4. Create and hold a hospitable space for learning. 5. Make space for conversational learning. 6. Make spaces for acting and reflecting. 7. Make spaces for feeling and thinking. 8. Make space for inside-out learning. 9. Make space for learners to take charge of their own learning (p. 20-23).

Limitation of this study:

There were two major limitations of this research. Firstly, the sample population for this research was drawn mainly from two universities, one in Taiwan and the other in Mainland China. Given such a small sample size, the results of this research may not be suitably applied to all students in Department of English in all universities in Taiwan or Mainland China. But it could serve as a reference for English teachers and lecturers to spark discussion and thought about their students' learning styles and the corresponding teaching methods to suit them. When necessary, they may wish to update and adjust their teaching methods. Secondly, this research essentially hopes to offer students some insights into their own learning style, and to guide teachers to cultivate a balance of each dimension according to the characteristics of students' various learning styles.

Future Research

The researchers noticed that a gap in the number of studies like this concerning the difference of learning styles between Taiwanese and Chinese students. As the scale of interconnection and academic exchange across the strait has enlarged in recent years, it would be helpful and important for the teachers and professors to have a view on the other side students' learning styles so as to make necessary adjustment to better fit them in teaching activities. It is hoped that there will be more and more relevant research conducted to enlighten scholars and professors from both the sides who face an impending increase in the number of exchange students. In recent years, it is common to exchange students between these two countries; this study represents the first step in examining the differences of individual learning styles between them. Research into learning styles has been hindered by the absence of a valid, reliable, and easy-to-use scale of questionnaires to assess learning styles. The ability to accurately and capably assess students' learning styles will

allow educators to concern students' learning styles carefully when designing curricula and pedagogy. By doing so, researchers may conduct an up-to-date questionnaire to probe specific questions on learning styles will be beneficial for future research.

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A qualitative study on factors influencing achievement of English language teaching and learning in Thai government secondary schools

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Abstract

This qualitative study explores primary factors influencing the achievement of English language teaching and learning in government secondary schools in Thailand. Based on typological analysis of the interview transcripts from school principals and head teachers of foreign language departments, the findings identify ten factors including school principals' vision and administrative policies, English as a medium of instruction, Thai teachers, foreign teachers, teacher professional development, students' learning behaviors, teaching materials and ICT, English language development activities, family support, and the Ministry of

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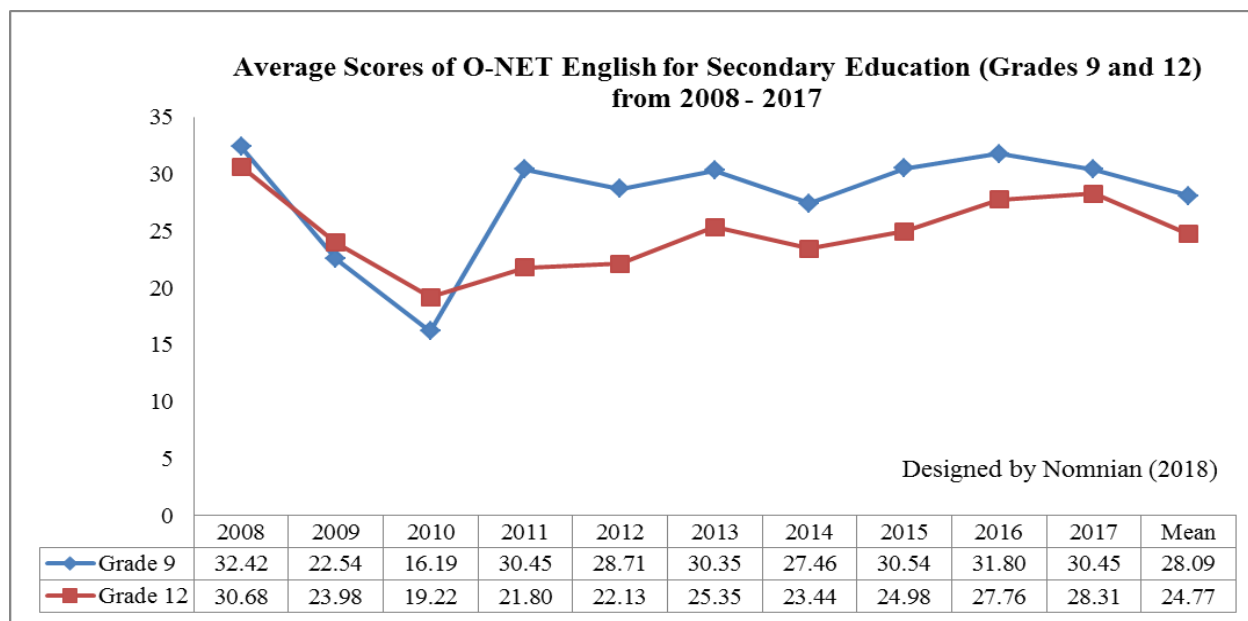Salaya, Nakhon Pathom, 73170,
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Education support, which are underpinned by socio-cultural and political influences to meet the targeted quality of English language teaching and learning at a national level. Although this study shows how interconnected these factors are in the selected schools, it may be a platform for other secondary schools to reflect on their existing resources and pursue new alternatives appropriate for the promotion of their students' English development. Though language education is a complex process, efforts from relevant parties such as the government, school principals, department heads, education experts, teachers, students, and parents are required to drive English development goals for the benefit of the nation as a whole. This study sheds light on existing challenges for the Ministry of Education in terms of what the government can do to enhance English language teaching and learning achievement in government secondary schools in Thailand.

Keywords: English Language Teaching and Learning, Thai Secondary Schools, Government, Qualitative Study

Introduction

In the Thai basic education system, the Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) under the supervision of National Institute of Educational Testing Service is considered as a high-stake and mandatory examination for Grades 6, 9, and 12 students. To a certain extent, it can assess school or educator accountability, enhance school competition, observe students' learning outcomes, evaluate education quality levels, and scale related educational standard criteria (UNESCO, 2014). In other words, the O-NET has been used as one of the criteria to evaluate the academic achievement of schools in Thailand. In this study, students from high achieving secondary schools obtained O-NET scores ranging from above average to relatively high, which is evidence of academically qualified schools. The English language proficiency of Thai secondary school students nationwide, however, has remained below the national minimum target of 50 points out of 100 for the past ten years (see Figure 1).

Average Scores of O-NET English for Secondary Education (Grades 9 and 12) from 2008 - 2017

Designed by Nomnian (2018)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	Mean
Grade 9	32.42	22.54	16.19	30.45	28.71	30.35	27.46	30.54	31.80	30.45	28.09
Grade 12	30.68	23.98	19.22	21.80	22.13	25.35	23.44	24.98	27.76	28.31	24.77

Figure 1. Average Scores of O-NET English for Secondary Education from 2008-2017

Data source: National Institute of Educational Testing Service

Figure 1 chronologically shows that the average scores of O-NET English for Grades 9 and 12 students were 28.09 and 24.77 respectively, which represent less than 50% target achievement. This figure offers a rather grim picture of the poor English proficiency of secondary school students in Thailand.

Designed by Nomnian (2018)

Average Scores of O-NET English in 2017 by Region

■ Grade 9 ■ Grade 12

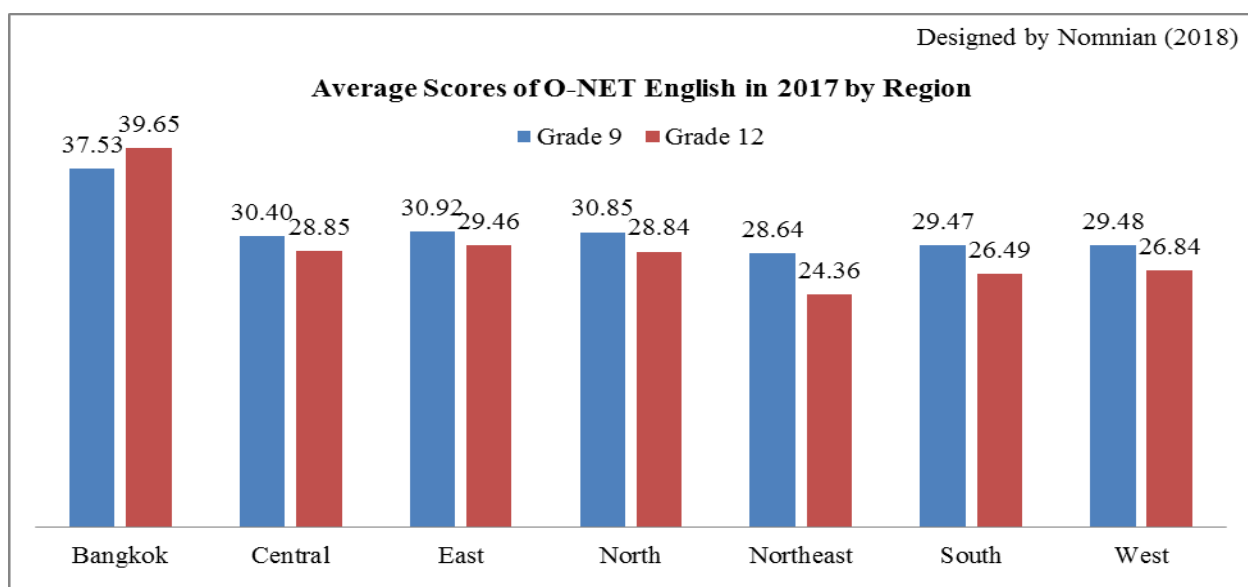| Region	Grade 9	Grade 12
Bangkok	37.53	39.65
Central	30.40	28.85
East	30.92	29.46
North	30.85	28.84
Northeast	28.64	24.36
South	29.47	26.49
West	29.48	26.84

Figure 2. Average Scores of O-NET English for Secondary Education in 2017 by Region

Data source: National Institute of Educational Testing Service

Based on the 2017 English scores by region in Figure 2, despite the fact that secondary school students in Bangkok scored higher than regional students, their English proficiency was lower than the national expected score of 50 points out of 100. This figure confirms that the national English proficiency among secondary school students in Thailand is under-achievement.

It has always been a daunting task for every government, through the Ministry of Education, to develop Thai students' English proficiency in order to meet national and international expectations especially as Thailand is part of ASEAN community where English is used as a *lingua franca* for socio-economic, cultural, political and educational purposes. The current government under Prime Minister Prayut Chan-o-cha has initiated a number of policies and campaigns to activate English use, skills and proficiency for all education levels in Thailand. Deputy Education Minister Teerakiat Jareonsettasin has introduced an alternative benchmark for English teaching and learning based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for Language. CEFR is an international standard for assessing teachers' and learners' English language competence. It is expected that by the end of Grade 9 (*Mathayom* 3) students should have reached A2 proficiency whereas Grade 12 (*Mathayom* 6) students should have reached B1 proficiency (Fredrickson, 2016). Maxwell (2015) believes that the target of A2 for Grade 9 are possible in schools that focus on English language learning; yet, the Grade 12 target of B1 proficiency is quite a challenge since the foreign language curriculum in Thailand has been unclear and implemented differently among schools, making attempts to raise English language standards across the nation a wasted effort.

According to OECD/UNESCO (2016), a large amount of investment in Thai education has not met its goals in that half of Thai students from disadvantaged backgrounds and those who live in rural areas do not acquire the basic skills required for their own success and the country's continued development. Kaur, Young and Kirkpatrick (2016), however, note that although a number of governmental initiatives and innovations by the Ministry of Education have been carried out, students' English proficiency has not improved; therefore, to a large extent, investment in English education in Thailand has not been well allocated for targeted outcomes.

There are, nevertheless, a number of successful secondary schools in Thailand that have continuously improved their students' English proficiency not only to meet the national standard criteria, but also to maintain the overall academic excellence expected of them by parents and communities. It is important to learn from other successful schools that have performed well

academically in terms of English language teaching and learning. To conduct a closer investigation, this research adopted a qualitative research methodology to examine factors affecting English learning and teaching underpinned by various sociocultural and political dimensions from the viewpoints of school principals and head teachers who have made successful efforts to establish academic excellence in their state-run secondary schools.

Literature review

There have been a number of studies regarding ways to enhance secondary school students' English language proficiency, particularly in Asian contexts. Drawing upon Spolsky and Sung's (2015) work on secondary school English education across Asia, there have been continuous efforts and changes to develop English language effectiveness in curricular and materials development, teacher training, evaluation, use of ICT, and use of English as an instructional tool despite bureaucratic difficulties and inability to fully develop and implement changes such as the recruitment of native-speaking teachers, equal access to learning for all, balanced use of mother tongue and English in class, and learner-centeredness. Li (2010), for instance, finds gaps between the national English language policy and its implementation in Chinese secondary schools where EFL teachers did not base their teaching on the national English curriculum, but rather questioned the objectives and requirements stated in the curriculum. This suggests that the national English language policy and curriculum should encourage greater teacher involvement in the process. Yulia (2014) shows that under-achievement of English language performance in Indonesia was due to teachers' lack of capacity in terms of their pedagogical and professional approaches, as well as the inadequate facilities of schools, which prevented students from meeting global, cultural and economic demands for proficiency in English.

Due to the expansion of the number of English-medium subjects in Asian countries such as Hong Kong, Korea and China, content-based instruction (CBI) allows English language learning to be more meaningful since English is used for real interaction rather than studied as the target object; so, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) can potentially strengthen students' English abilities (Choi & Lee, 2008). Furthermore, Zeng (2007) states that the widespread use of English and the increasing introduction of English to younger children has encouraged the implementation of bilingual programs and more EMI in Hong Kong secondary schools. It is, however, advisable for schools to adopt language policies and implementation methods that consider their socio-

cultural and linguistic setting and the resources available to them. Chanjavanakul (2013), for example, supports the use of both English and Thai in English-medium lessons because students tend to be more responsive to teacher questions in Thai rather than in English; so, the use of the students' mother-tongue during English-medium lessons helps to facilitate learning in certain situations.

In the context of Thai secondary schools, Darasawang (2007) observes that the school curriculum devised under the National Education Act 1999 employed learner-centeredness with a communicative language teaching approach that promoted project-based learning that allowed students to use English in a meaningful way by integrating aspects of students' cultural heritage into projects initiated for English studies. On the other hand, Darasawang and Watson-Todd (2012) argue that English language policy and practice is in conflict with the National Education Act, national education standards, the Ministry of Education's recommended textbooks and plagued by the Ministry's isolated initiatives, demand-driven changes in the types of schools, test washback, and decentralized decision making. Thomas and Reinders (2015) propose a task-based approach to language learning and teaching (TBLT) in Asia as governments view TBLT as a potential solution to flawed curricula that lack authentic and meaningful engagement in language learning and thereby failing to motivate students as a result. Nevertheless, some Asian countries have continued to encounter local constraints and have found it hard to implement TBLT in their own school contexts since TBLT involves curriculum reform, materials development, programme evaluation, and the setting of assessment standards.

Kitjaroonchai (2013) points out that there are major challenges to English language teaching in secondary schools in Northeastern Thailand, which include: students not using English in daily life; they are shy to speak; grammar and vocabulary are over-emphasized; English teachers are not qualified; and students are not motivated. As a result, teachers with positive attitudes toward English language could potentially generate positive attitudes towards language learning in their students, both inside and outside the classroom. By providing support outside the class, secondary schools offer opportunities for parents to volunteer and make decisions with regard to their child's language learning development, and create in their child a positive attitude toward English learning (Nomnian & Thawornpat, 2015). Effective schools build trust by recognizing, respecting, and addressing the needs of families and communities, and by promoting collaborations with them (Epstein et al., 2002; Setiasih, 2014).

Tayjasanant and Suraratdecha (2016) claim that the national exam system, students' dependence on teachers, and the lack of collaboration between families and community makes it difficult for both teachers and students to achieve language learning autonomy for the reason that, although secondary school teachers tended to support communicative language learning, the students themselves emphasized their need for academic and psychological support. Therefore, policies that can have a potential impact on Thai education include curriculum, student assessment, teachers and school leaders, and the use of information and communication technology (ICT) in education, all of which can promote effectiveness, equity and efficiency in the national education system, leading ultimately to positive outcomes that match the country's investment in education and socioeconomic aspirations (OECD/UNESCO, 2016).

The aforementioned studies describe the numerous efforts required of government and families to drive English language teaching and learning to improve Thai students' English achievement. Top-down language policies and bottom-up implementation and pedagogical practices interplay to create complexity in English language education, so a deeper understanding is needed of how the various factors influence different stakeholders -- school principals, head teachers, teachers, students and parents -- in terms of their roles and responsibilities. Without a proper understanding of these issues, English language teaching and learning in the state-run secondary schools will continue to fail to meet the expectations and needs of Thai students and their parents.

Research Methodology

This study presents a case study of a selected group of successful secondary schools that consistently perform well in the English national test (O-NET). Duff (2014) suggests that cases are normally studied in depth to gain insights into individual experiences, issues, perspectives, developmental pathways, or performance within certain socio-cultural, educational, and political contexts rather than discussing statistical patterns or trends from a larger sample or survey of a population. According to Creswell (2009), in contrast to the quantitative approach, qualitative research offers a way to explore and interpret the meanings of socio-cultural, economic and political issues and challenges. This study employed a qualitative research approach to reveal factors underpinning the lack of achievement of English language teaching and learning in Thai secondary schools. As Farnsworth and Solomon (2013) describe it, education is a multifaceted and

entwined system that requires qualitative research tools such as interviews that enable researchers to better comprehend the perspectives of educational practitioners in the field.

In this study, five school principals and one foreign language department head from six leading secondary schools were purposively chosen. Each school represented a particular region (i.e. Bangkok, Central, North, South, East, and Northeast) according to the following criteria: they had to be a government school under the Office of Basic Education Commission (OBEC) of the Ministry of Education, and they had to have recorded high O-NET English scores over the past decade. Human research ethics for this study were approved by Mahidol University Ethics Committee in Social Sciences (MUSSIRB.2016/024(B2)) prior to data collection.

Semi-structured interviews were employed with questions that addressed school background information; government policies, their implementation and challenges; English language teaching and learning practices, and successes; family support; government support; and further needs and recommendations. Each interview took an hour, was conducted in Thai, audio recorded, and then transcribed, translated, and cross-checked by the two researchers. Data analysis followed the typological analysis based on Ayres and Knalf (2008, p.900-901), who view typologies as categorization, rather than hierarchical arrangements, that allow researchers to discover emerging patterns of similarities and differences reconstructed into main types or categories. This study identified ten emerging issues that impact on the promotion of achievement in English language teaching and learning in Thai government secondary schools.

Findings

Based on transcripts of interviews with five school principals and a head teacher of the foreign language department of a leading secondary school in Bangkok, as well as five main provincial schools in five regions in Thailand, ten emerging factors were identified namely: school principals' vision and administrative policies, English as a medium of instruction, Thai teachers, foreign teachers, teacher professional development, students' learning behaviors, teaching materials and ICT, English language development activities, family support, and the Ministry of Education supports were identified. Each one will be presented and discussed as follows:

School Principals' Vision and Administrative Policies
The vision and administrative policies of school principals are vital in directing educational

practices and implementations carried out by teachers and students to meet national and school goals and objectives to enhance students' English language skills and competence.

Extract 1

I have 3-year and 6-year plans for short-term and long-term school development strategic planning. I need to foresee how English learning can be improved based on indicators like O-NET or our graduates being accepted for their academic achievements. I need to set up systematic planning for continuous development.

Extract 2

A clear administrative system shows a strategic mechanism that allows school principals to drive the curriculum and teaching and learning process more effectively. Strategies on teacher and ICT development and school connectivity are part of strategic planning that is very important for the school's achievement.

The two extracts above clearly show that school principals must have strategies to drive school academic achievement through continuous professional development, ICT, and connectivity with local sectors to gain partnerships.

Some secondary schools benchmark against international standards in order to be competitive within the ASEAN region.

Extract 3

I will produce graduates to be leaders in ASEAN. In order to do that, students must be competent in English, which is the global communicative tool. Students know that there are a lot of opportunities for them if they know English.

Extract 4

Our school has an international benchmarking standard. Students' targeted qualities are academic excellence being bilingual in Thai-English, up-to-date, creative, and socially and globally responsible.

Its English program has been one of the schools' success stories as it has not only promoted the students' English competency, but also their results have met the Ministry's requirements.

Extract 5

> *Our school initiated an English Program as part of celebrations for the school's centennial anniversary in 1999. It is the second school in Thailand to have established the program and students are now able to develop their English skills and proficiency from Grade 7. The program has been well received by parents.*

Extract 6

> *I am highly confident that our Grade 9 graduates are competent in English communication. English Program students are always encouraged to take different types of English tests like TOEIC, TOEFL, or the ones suggested by OBEC. They have done very well. Nowadays, students are quite fluent.*

It is, therefore, important for school principals to set academic targets including teacher development and ICT accessibility to enable academic staff and students to be proficient in English within certain timeframes.

Extract 7

> *We have an English development framework. Students need to achieve better than 50% in O-NET by 2017. We have set up a continual English teacher development plan so that our English teachers are knowledgeable, competent, and skilful in English. New teaching materials and ICT will be developed in the next 3 years.*

To sum up, school principals play a major role in establishing strategic developmental plans for school infrastructures including ICT that can be effectively utilized to accommodate the needs of teachers and parents whose goals aim at improving students' English communicative competence.

English as a medium of instruction

English, as a medium of instruction in most courses in an English Program (EP), is taught by foreign teachers. As a result, exposure to English for EP students is far greater than Thai program students and so EP students' English competence is much higher than their Thai program counterparts.

Extract 8

> *Our EP, physics, biology, and chemistry classes are taught in English by native speakers.*

Due to the global status of English, highly effective schools pay attention to the use of English as well as cultural diversity; thus, teachers and students must be aware of intercultural communication with foreign teachers.

Extract 9

> *Since English is a global language due to IT, transportation, and logistics, English communication is highly valued in our school.*

Extract 10

> *I would like our students to use English with speakers of different cultures because Thailand is a multicultural society. Therefore, our teaching also focuses on communication.*

Another interesting strategy for inducing teachers and students to use English is to let them experience first-hand on a study trip abroad. This helps acquaint them with real world use of English that can potentially be applicable for classroom communication.

Extract 11

> *Our teaching materials in science, maths, and computer studies are in English. I also think that it is important to have incentives for good teachers and students, who have a chance to go on a study trip abroad. They can use English in real life and this motivation helps them to use English for instruction.*

It is important for teachers and students to have a positive attitude toward using English in class and this allows them to be familiar with it, gain more confidence, and become more fluent. English as a medium of instruction will then be viewed as a natural way of teaching and learning without putting a burden on teachers or students.

Foreign teachers

Foreign teachers are viewed as valuable linguistic and cultural resources for secondary schools, particularly for the promotion of communication in English. Despite the fact that native-speaking

teachers are preferred, Filipino teachers are in demand for teaching mainstream subjects like maths and science.

Extract 12

> *Our school has 25 native speakers, particularly from America, England, New Zealand, and Canada.*

Extract 13

> *Filipino teachers teach science and maths because it is very difficult to find native speakers to teach these subjects.*

Accent is another issue to be considered as foreign teachers bring with them varieties of spoken English accents that may not be familiar to teachers and students. The recognized accent of Thai teachers of English is Thai.

Extract 14

> *Foreign teachers have varieties of English accents such as Filipino, African, and European. However, the English accent that our school definitely has is a Thai accent.*

Most foreign teachers are recruited on the basis of personal contact or through an agency. Yet, teachers' qualifications are debatable since they may not have appropriate teaching degrees. Most of them are not qualified English teachers. They may be paired with Thai teachers and attend teacher certificate courses in order to be eligible to teach in Thai schools.

Extract 15

> *There are two ways to recruit foreign teachers. Firstly, we hire an agency to recruit foreign teachers for our school. Secondly, we use personal contact with our existing foreign teachers. The second option is better because it is more convenient, but we need to ensure quality.*

Extract 16

> *Most foreign teachers do not have a teaching certificate. So, we need to develop their teaching professional standards for them.*

Extract 17

> *We have foreign teachers in both the Thai and English programs. Students in Grades 9 and 12 should be able to communicate in English. Foreign teachers will be coupled with Thai teachers so that students will stay up-to-date with lessons.*

Another issue borne from foreign teacher recruitment is budget allocation since foreign teachers are paid much more than local Thai teachers. Because of government regulations on salaries paid to foreign teachers, they are not permitted to take permanent positions since it depends on the school and whether it has sufficient budget. Thus, parents who would like their children to study with foreign teachers may need to pay extra for those suitably qualified.

Extract 18

> *We obtain resources to hire foreign teachers from parents. It is 30,000 Baht per term. Half of our budget is allocated to hiring qualified foreign staff. If we have highly qualified foreign teachers, our students will be competent. So, despite government regulations, if we can't pay a high salary to those qualified teachers, the teachers will move to another school.*

Foreign teachers are part of school success as students are motivated to communicate with them, and their having different varieties of spoken English can raise students' awareness of English as a global language. However, there are issues of recruitment and budget allocation that school principals need to overcome in order to attract highly qualified foreign teachers to be part of the school academic environment.

Thai teachers

Thai teachers who teach English are valuable resources in the class because they not only co-ordinate with foreign teachers, but must also teach grammar to address the grammar focus of the national exams.

Extract 19

> *Thai teachers are needed in the class despite the foreign teachers because Thai teachers emphasize English grammar for the test, but foreign teachers focus on communication.*

It is essential for Thai English teachers to be competent users of English, therefore, teachers with a degree in English are highly regarded since their qualifications can promote English language proficiency for students.

Extract 20

> *Our students are very bright. Teachers with a degree in English can ensure that our students master English competently. They can also develop their expertise in English.*

Extract 21

> *Our school prefers Thai teachers who are competent in English. In the future, I may not need foreign teachers at all because I do not want to lose economic advantage because of the cost of foreign teachers. Our Thai teachers were able to prepare students to win a project presentation in English in Penang. Our students here can present in English and compete in many countries like Japan and Singapore. Actually, I have noticed that Thai teachers can speak English, but they are shy.*

However, non-English-degree teachers are required to attend professional development training as a way to promote teaching expertise and language skills.

Extract 22

> *English teachers who do not have a degree in English are required to attend English training so that they will gain expertise in teaching.*

Thai teachers often take the opportunity of working with foreign teachers to overcome their shyness and start communicating with foreigners to create a more convivial working culture and be role models for students.

Extract 23

> *Our Thai teachers work in the same office as our foreign teachers. Thus, Thai teachers have a chance to improve their English communication.*

Thai teachers of English are necessary in English classes at Thai secondary schools because they can tutor students for English exams and liaise with foreign teachers. Teachers with a degree in English are preferred since they are more qualified than non-English-degree graduates.

Yet, these teachers must engage in professional development in order to gain more expertise

in teaching and English skills. Communication with foreign teachers helps Thai teachers practice their English in a convivial environment and lead students by example.

Teacher professional development

It is undeniable that teacher professional development is key to gaining more knowledge and the skills necessary for increasing effective English language teaching and learning. CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) is employed as a benchmark to assess teachers' English proficiency for further development.

Extract 24

> *Our school uses CEFR as the criteria to improve English teachers. We pay for the teachers to take the test; though some teachers are still at A1.*

Teacher training in provincial areas is normally provided by ERIC (Education Resources Information Center) and OBEC (Office of Basic Education Commission) so that local school teachers are able to gain intensive training without coming to Bangkok.

Extract 25

> *OBEC has spent a lot on teacher professional development. We are lucky that we have ERIC as an official training service provided for teachers at our school and for the whole province.*

Some schools also seek opportunities offered by universities located in their areas to send their teachers to be trained together with university lecturers. A large provincial school may formally collaborate with a local university on long-term curricula and instruction development.

Extract 26

> *We also send Thai English teachers to train with local universities that provide English courses during school holidays so that they can learn how to better improve students' English knowledge and skills.*

Extract 27

> *Our school has an MOU (Memorandum of Understanding) with a leading local university to develop the curriculum and instruction. This academic collaboration will enhance our school's academic performance.*

Foreign teachers are encouraged to develop teaching materials, are required to possess appropriate teaching qualifications, and have their teaching progress constantly monitored through mentoring and workshops.

Extract 28

> *Permanent foreign teachers act as co-ordinators with other foreign teachers who are encouraged to develop teaching materials. We also conduct a follow-up evaluation for their professional development.*

Extract 29

> *Foreign teachers who do not have a teaching certificate are required to attend training courses to become qualified. Then they need to attend several workshops and we monitor their progress continuously to ensure that they meet the standards.*

Teacher professional development provides a path to effective English teaching and learning for both Thai and foreign teachers. High achieving schools recognize the importance of teachers being life-long learners to obtain the best results as far as their students' English is concerned.

Students' learning behaviors

Students' learning behavior requires positive reinforcement from teachers who need to recognize their students' strengths and weaknesses in English; in so doing, their academic achievement can be fostered.

Extract 30

> *We are lucky to have smart students who pay attention to learning. We must give credit to these students whose accomplishments have led our school to achieve high academic recognition.*

Following the Singaporean teaching and learning model, some schools focus on the reading and writing skills deemed necessary for Thai secondary school students.

Extract 31

> *Our students are trained in the reading and writing skills that are emphasized in Singaporean schools. Students should be able to develop critical thinking skills, vocabulary knowledge, and sentence structures to write something in English.*

Extract 32

> *Students' writing skills are promoted by asking them to write a short story or a postcard.*

In terms of speaking skill, it is important for schools to create a friendly environment so that students become more confident in displaying their ability to communicate in English. Under the guidance of their teachers, some students from the Northeast have learned to mimic native English speakers' accents. This should be viewed as a positive development in encouraging them to speak more.

Extract 33

> *Students need to develop their speaking skill as they are still very shy and English is not used in daily life.*

Extract 34

> *I notice that some students in the Northeast are able to produce near-native English accents. If we give them a dialogue, they sound like native speakers.*

Students' learning behaviors play a significant role in their motivation to learn English with constant encouragement from teachers who monitor students' academic progress closely for effective results.

Teaching materials and ICT

High achieving schools emphasize the use of teaching materials and ICT in English language teaching and learning because they can significantly motivate students' language learning.

Extract 35

> *Our classrooms are fully equipped with IT facilities (e.g. projector and portable computer) and on-line learning media. Teachers are provided with a laptop. English teachers in particular are able to use on-line learning materials in their classes.*

Extract 36

> *Our school aims to develop ICT materials and Wi-Fi connection because our students are highly motivated when learning by way of foreign on-line media.*

It is, however, important to ensure that students and teachers use on-line media appropriately by developing and maintaining their ICT literacy skills so as to effectively maximize the utility of these powerful learning tools.

Extract 37

> *Nowadays, on-line and digital media are so important and influential that students can access information and develop their English. They must, however, know which ones are appropriate for their language learning.*

Extract 38

> *The Ministry of Education also has interesting on-line programs such as DLIT (Distance Learning Information Technology). We need to encourage our English teachers to develop their ICT literacy for English language teaching.*

Students can also gain access to on-line knowledge through their smart phones, which means they can learn English beyond the classroom given that they are ICT literate.

Extract 39

> *Students can quickly gain access to language learning materials via their smart phones.*

In this digital era, students and teachers increasingly utilize on-line materials for language teaching and learning. Nevertheless, developing ICT literacy and setting up fast and stable Internet connections can effectively promote positive outcomes for students' English proficiency.

English language development activities

Extra-curricular activities, including English camp and fieldtrips abroad, not only encourage students to use English authentically and meaningfully, but also promote life skills and strategies such as interpersonal communication and leadership.

Extract 40

> *Extra-curricular activities are not neglected in our school because they teach life skills for our students. Although some students have won many awards and have been accepted into medical schools, they must still join in these activities.*

Extract 41

> *OBEC aims to improve our academic performance. Extra-curricular activities, however, teach students to be well-rounded and improve interpersonal and leadership skills. Students develop both academically and socially. These skills are transferable to their daily lives.*

Extract 42

> *Our school provides an English youth camp for students to practice English in preparation for their role in the ASEAN Community.*

Extract 43

> *The English activities we set for our students aim to provide them with more exposure to English. The activities include a trip to Samui Island or neighboring countries like Malaysia or Singapore. There, they can then have opportunities to use English with locals.*

Recognizing the value of linguistically and culturally diverse contexts, teachers can take their students to Samui Island, where international tourists can serve as subjects with whom students can communicate. Neighboring countries like Malaysia and Singapore are reasonable alternatives to visit as they are multicultural and multilingual societies where students can increase their awareness of English as a *lingua franca* and exposure to the various accents they will encounter in intercultural communication.

Some schools provide extra English courses for students taught by native speakers on the weekend so that they can become more competent in conducting their research projects in English.

Extract 44

> *Our students write and present their research projects in English. They practice academic English. Our students at both lower and upper secondary levels have won the national competition in project presentation in English.*

Extract 45

> *On the weekend, we have writing and speaking courses taught by native-speaking teachers for our students.*

English language development activities are extremely valuable, and highly effective schools normally provide their students with plenty of English communication practice. As a result, students improve fluency and develop their life skills.

Family support

Parents, as their child's 'first teachers', need to cultivate academic growth very early on. Although schooling is part of formal education, family support can naturally foster and motivate their child's interest in English language learning.

Extract 46

> *We must accept that very few parents are good at English. However, they will find opportunities to improve their child by buying English media and enrolling them in tutorial schools. School has its main role in educating their child; yet, parents need to take part in developing their child's English as well. As a result, their child's English competence will be further improved.*

Regular parents' meetings are an important forum for teacher-parent exchanges of information regarding their children's academic progress and well-being, so that active parents can gain a better understanding of how to support their young learners' English language acquisition from teachers' suggestions.

Extract 47

> *Parents' meetings are held twice per term -- at the beginning of term and midterm. Five parents volunteer to be on a parents' committee. I think parents at our school are very competent in driving our school towards better academic achievement.*

Some schools provide opportunities for parents to be part of the school committee and value the parents' ideas and suggestions that can support academic progress.

Extract 48

> *There are four key parties, which include parents, students, the school committee, and the school's executive board, which need to listen to the opinions of parents and students in order to develop our curriculum, instruction methods, and administration.*

Extract 49

> *Since our students are good sources of input for us, parents are allowed to be part of the academic assessment committee who provide feedback on English language teaching for teacher development.*

In addition, the parents' association is a valuable group for raising funds to enhance the school's capacity to achieve academic excellence.

Extract 50

> *Parents donate funds to the parents association to improve teaching and learning in English, science, maths, and computer skills.*

As primary stakeholders in schools, parents are vital in promoting English achievement by taking part in the parents' association, meetings, school board, and child mentorship. School partnerships with parents are established through mutual agreement to create academic success.

The Ministry of Education support

There are key areas including budget, educational technology, and foreign teacher recruitment for which secondary schools need support from the government.

Extract 51

> *The Ministry of Education and Basic Education Service Area play roles in devising education policies and supervision procedures for school improvement to meet Thailand Quality Award standards.*

Extract 52

> *The current government focuses on English language teaching. English teachers must be competent in English. They can learn via on-line software programs like Echo English. Our school is very active and excited by the government initiatives.*

Extract 53

> *The government should support us by providing sufficient budget and effective ICT for learning through distance education.*

Recruiting foreign teachers seems to be the main challenge for schools, which strongly believe that the government should act as an agency to recruit highly qualified native speakers.

Extract 54

> *The government should find ways to recruit qualified foreign teachers and offer an appropriate salary range that can attract such teachers. Since the salary for foreign teachers is relatively low due to government regulations, it is difficult for schools to attract qualified foreign teachers. In addition, there should be more flexibility in foreign teacher qualifications in terms of teaching certificates.*

Besides teacher recruitment, teacher certification is problematic since it is compulsory for foreign teachers to attend training offered by Khurusapha (Teacher's Council of Thailand).

Extract 55

> *Foreign teachers encounter challenges such as visa extensions and work permits. Khurusapha (Teacher's Council of Thailand) also acts as a gatekeeper requiring foreign teachers to attend a Thai Language, Culture and Professional Code of Ethics for Foreigners Training course in order to be authorized to work in Thai schools. I think it is important to reconsider this obligation.*

Some schools believe that volunteer teachers can provide a solution to the lack of foreign teachers and promote English communication in the school environment.

Extract 56

> *The government should seek help from AUA Language Center, British Council, or volunteering organizations to recruit foreign teachers.*

Extract 57

> *Short- and long-term volunteer teachers can help schools to develop English for teachers and students who will be more confident in communication. These volunteers will probably not know Thai so teachers and students will have to communicate with them in English.*

The Ministry of Education not only monitors national policy implantation, but also provides appropriate support to schools. There are, however, issues regarding foreign teacher recruitment that need to be addressed for effective school administration.

Discussion

Based on the findings of this study, it is clear that two main groups of stakeholders -- top-down and bottom-up functional levels -- affect the achievement of English language teaching and learning in Thai government secondary schools. Top-down stakeholders include the Ministry of Education and school principals while their bottom-up counterparts consist of teachers, students, and families. Top-down parties are responsible for overall policy conception and implementation and the student outcomes at a national level that demonstrate how well schools have performed. In this study, principals in high achieving schools offer English program classes adopted EMI in mathmatics, science, and computer subjects as a way to expose students to more authentic use of English. Students have demonstrated a high level of English competence since most core subjects are taught in English by foreign teachers paired with Thai teachers who act as interpreter and co-ordinator when problems arise. Unlike Choi and Lee (2008) and Zeng (2007) who adopted EMI for English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom settings, Chanjavanakul (2013) suggests that the use of codeswitching between Thai and English in instructions in Thai EFL classrooms is still required to overcome Thai students' English language barrier.

This study shows that the Thai language remains a practical tool for enhancing students' understanding and that Thai teachers of English are still needed to facilitate meaning and coordination with foreign teachers. School principals who had established successful English program courses recruited more foreign teachers and also provided English learning materials via ICT and media as well as extra-curricular activities such as study trips abroad and English camps through which students excelled in English far more so than students in Thai programs. The roles played and responsibilities held by principals and head teachers at these schools were compatible with the recommendations provided by OECD/UNESCO (2016), which focus on academic achievement.

Like their top-down partners, bottom-up stakeholders comprising teachers, students, and families also play a significant part in students' positive outcomes when they work closely with students and provided them with academic and morale supports. In this study, Thai and foreign

teachers were crucial and required constant professional development in order to stay up-to-date with effective English language teaching methods and improve English proficiency in order to meet the Ministry's English requirements based on CEFR standards. Tayjasanant and Suraratdecha (2016) suggest that teacher training courses on learning autonomy would offer teachers new approaches to promoting independent learning for Thai students and move towards developing a more facilitative role for teachers that supports and monitors students' learning progress. Furthermore, CEFR requires both Thai and foreign teachers of English to be assessed on their English competence as a way to improve teacher quality and proficiency that will serve to benefit the progress of students. This study found that it is likely that an increasing number of Thai secondary schools will offer more English program classes as parents are able to observe for themselves the very real progress that their children are making. High achieving schools value parents' participation through parent associations and annual meetings which promote school and parent partnerships, and this fact correlates with Epstein et al. (2002), Setiasih (2014), and Nomnian and Thawornpat (2015), who identified the most effective schools as being those recognize, respect, and address parents' needs by promoting collaborations with them.

To sum up, these two primary stakeholders are embedded within an environment which is subject to socio-cultural and political influences that affect efforts to achieve a high quality of English language education at a national level. It is important to be aware that key issues -- including English as a medium of instruction, continuous professional development, ICT for English teaching and learning, recruitment of foreign teachers, and extra-curricular activities -- may vary from one school to another because of different resources made available to them. This study identifies some of the main factors that have impacted on the selected secondary schools' success in developing their students' English proficiency.

Conclusion

This study explores factors underpinning the achievement of English language teaching and learning in Thai government secondary schools. Based on the interview transcripts with school principals and head teachers of foreign language departments, the results reveal the interrelationship between top-down and bottom-up stakeholders and point to the need for stronger collaboration, with clear directions that anticipate and provide the necessary support from the Ministry to enable secondary schools to meet the national English development goals.

This study, although focused on Thai EFL educational setting practices, potentially offers a guide for other Asian EFL government schools directed at promoting better learning outcomes in English. Yet, it is important to note that language policies and practices are carried out for certain reasons at a particular point in time, and given that Thailand is currently undoing a degree of political turmoil in its transition towards popular governance, careful consideration is required from all parties, including top-down and bottom-up stakeholders, in order to gain a wide-ranging and honest picture of what the national curriculum for English language education should be based on.

This study may serve as an incentive for other secondary schools to reflect on their existing situations and search for innovations and alternatives that can reliably enhance their students' English communication skills. Despite the fact that education challenges have never been easy to meet, great efforts by stakeholders are required to maintain momentum towards educational excellence for the benefit of the nation as a whole. This study aims to shed light on what is being done in efficacious schools and what should be done to improve achievement in English language teaching and learning in government secondary schools in Thailand and Asia.

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Self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program: A solution to the challenges of large heterogeneous teacher-fronted classes

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Abstract

This paper discusses the efficacy of a self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program grounded in a dynamic usage-based (DUB) approach to second language teaching in overcoming a predicament faced by second/foreign language learners in a large heterogeneous teacher-fronted classroom – a strong affective filter. A DUB approach holds that frequency of input, scaffolding, and exposure to comprehensible authentic language input are important in achieving success in learning a second/foreign language. The self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program described in this

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paper provides individualised self-paced learning support through multiple exposures to comprehensible authentic language input and scaffolding, both instructional and visual. The stance taken is that the self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program grounded on the tenets of a DUB approach will offer learners the opportunity to learn at their own pace in an individualised anxiety-free private language learning environment, and this in turn will facilitate learner attainment of course goals.

Introduction/Background

English has long established itself as a global language (Crystal, 2003), and good English language instruction is therefore seen as imperative in many school contexts around the world. Most university programmes, too, have an obligatory English as a second or foreign language component. At the same time, English instruction presents a number of challenges in these contexts. Most important in this respect – much more so than for many primary and secondary school settings – have been argued to be the widespread phenomenon of second/foreign language anxiety in large heterogeneous teacher-fronted classrooms. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994, p. 284) refer to anxiety as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second [foreign] language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning." One reason for second/foreign language anxiety could be the differences among learners in age, personality, language aptitude (e.g., phonemic coding ability), cognitive and learning style, L2 proficiency, learner strategies, and motivation (Skehan, 1998). In turn, these individual differences that are all represented in large heterogeneous classrooms have been associated with a broad spectrum of variation in ultimate attainment (Birdsong, 2004; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; cf. Rimrott, 2010, p. 29). Huckin (2003, p.3) too argues that, "In general, a teacher-centered approach, no matter how specific, is unlikely to have the pedagogical effectiveness of a student-centered approach, especially in heterogeneous classes."

This paper discusses the teaching of English as a second language in large heterogeneous teacher-fronted classes at tertiary level in Sri Lanka. Some of the many pedagogical challenges that English language instruction in Sri Lanka presents are paucity of teachers arising from lack of

experience and lack of proficiency (Raheem, 2004), large classes (Karunaratne, 2009) due to limited resources, and diversity in terms of proficiency levels of the students (Perera, 2010) as a result of the admission policy of the University Grants Commission of Sri Lanka.[1] . In a setting such as this, achieving the goals of a language class is virtually impossible due in part to the challenges that teachers and learners have to encounter. From the learners' point of view, the better learners could dominate the weaker learners, which in turn could make them feel inhibited, disadvantaged, and inferior leading to second language anxiety. Krashen (2003) is of the view that high anxiety (a strong affective filter) can in fact impede language learning, for it prevents language input provided to the learners from being processed or in other words from becoming intake. Hence, he recommends that second language learning should take place in an anxiety-free environment. This necessitates English as a second/foreign language practitioners to create an educational setting in which learners learn the language in an anxiety-free environment (Jin, De Bot, & Keijzer, 2015). This paper proposes *a self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* (Irshad, 2015) anchored in a DUB approach to second language teaching in which learners learn at their own pace in a private learning environment as a solution to the pedagogical challenges faced in a large heterogeneous language classroom.

The Underlying Theory: A DUB Approach to Second Language Teaching

A DUB approach to second language teaching takes a holistic approach in presenting language constructions (also referred to as form-meaning mappings) with their syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and discourse elements synchronically in meaningful and real-life contexts (Verspoor & Hong, 2013). The fundamental concepts of a DUB approach to teaching a second language are as follows:

Frequent Exposure to Input

Over the years, many studies have investigated the importance of frequency for second language acquisition (SLA). Ellis (2002, p. 143) states that "the acquisition of language is exemplar-based.

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[1] To give an example based on the Management and Commerce study programme, in 2014/2015, 4,250 students gained admission to the national universities of Sri Lanka to follow courses in Management and Commerce. Of these 4,565 students, 1,220 students entered the Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce of the University of Sri Jayewardenepura, where the current study was conducted (Admission to Undergraduate Courses of the Universities in 2014/2015: University Grants Commission). A very high percentage of these students originated from the rural and educationally disadvantaged areas of the country with a wide discrepancy in their standard of English.

It is the piecemeal learning of many thousands of constructions and the frequency-biased abstraction of regularities within them." According to Langacker (1987, p. 59), abstraction of regularities happens through the process of "entrenchment". Langacker (1978, p. 100) refers to entrenchment as being the result of repetitions of cognitive events, that is, by "cognitive occurrences of any degree of complexity." Langacker (2008, p. 81; cf. Verspoor & Hong, 2013, p. 2) also elaborates that "learning" or "exposure" should "occur in meaningful context exchanges, approximating socially and culturally normal usage events." Thus, a DUB stipulates that if second language teaching is to be effective, it should focus on multiple exposures to conventional units (also referred to as linguistic constructions, multiword expressions, and formulaic sequences) in meaningful real-life contexts (or real life-like context).

Comprehensible Authentic Language Input

The proponents of a DUB approach to second language teaching also postulate that comprehensible and message-oriented input is a necessary and vital variable in building the second/foreign language learners internal linguistic systems (Gass, 2013; Van Patten, 2004). Van Patten and Benati (2010, p. 36) define input specifically as the language that "learners are exposed to, that is, language couched in communicative contexts that learners either hear or read" and distinguish it from language that […]

> […] the instructor might provide as models or examples of how to do something. It is distinct from language that learners process purely for its formal features. It is also distinct from the output the learners produce. (pp. 94-95)

Hong (2013, p. 18), in her study, refers to authentic materials as […]

> […] real-life language materials, not produced for pedagogic purposes (Wallace, 1992), but for real-life communication by real people. (Nuttall, 2005)

Tomlison and Masuhara (2010, p. 400) view authentic language as "designed not to transmit declarative knowledge about the target language but rather to provide an experience of the language in use." In this connection, Krashen's input hypothesis continues to assert its influence. The input

hypothesis strongly claims that, for SLA to take place, language learners should have exposure to comprehensible language which is authentic, interesting, and/or relevant, not grammatically sequenced, and includes language structures that are beyond their current level (i+1). Krashen, (1981, p. 57) recognises comprehensible language input as "the only causative variable in SLA." Krashen (1981) points out that for L1 or L2 acquisition to take place, early output and output correction should be avoided. Instead, the acquisition environment should be provided with plenty of understandable input, and in a relaxed learning context. In addition, it "must be abundant enough for the learner to abstract regularities from concrete exemplars of language use" (Zyzik, 2009, p. 14).

Scaffolding to get Meaning Across

Another factor considered to be crucial for second language development is scaffolding. Scaffolding is the guidance, support, and the necessary attributes provided to students, which according to Vacca (2008), can lead to increased motivation and successful learning. However, scaffolding can be a mammoth task, which can only be handled with instructional and visual scaffolding. Instructional scaffolding is referred to as "the systematic sequencing of prompted content, materials, tasks, and teacher and peer support to optimize learning" (Dickson, Chard, & Simmons, 1993, p. 12) while visual scaffolding is defined as the audio-visual learning aid provided to the learners (Herrell & Jordan, 2004) that helps remove the affective filter which results from understanding very little in class (Krashen, 1982).

Individualised Self-Paced Instructions

Research shows that self-paced instruction "improves performance and that students master the learning objectives in significantly less time than students in group-paced instruction" (Dalton, Hannafin, & Hooper, 1989; Fletcher, 1996; cf. Dobrovolny, 2006, p. 55). Self-paced learning promotes learner-centred learning in which learners assume greater responsibility for their learning--they have the advantage of determining the learning sequence, the pace of learning, and possibly the media. "For example, in a self-paced computer-based course, two students might begin the course on the same day but one may finish days ahead of the other" (Soyemi, Ogunyinka, & Soyemi, 2011, p. 704; cf. Irshad, 2015, p. 54). In other words, learners whose language proficiency is low can learn at their own pace while learners whose language proficiency is of a higher level

need not take the lessons in sequential order but progress through the lessons in a non-linear direction, thereby using the time spent in learning more efficiently (Soyemi, Ogunyinka, & Soyemi, 2011; cf. Irshad, 2015).

Reviews and Studies on Existing Computer Assisted Language Learning Programmes

Although computer-assisted language learning materials exist, they are either not consistent with the current model of communicative language teaching and cannot be considered completely self-instructional (Godwin-Jones, 2007) or do not provide holistic language learning in a systematic pedagogical approach supporting students at all stages of their learning process. The reviews and studies reported below serve as evidence of the preceding argument. Krashen (2013, p. 2; cf. Irshad, 2015) reviewed the commercial software that claims to promote a complete independent learning experience, *Rosetta Stone*, and concludes:

> *Rosetta Stone* does indeed present comprehensible input, but in the samples I have seen, the input is not very interesting, and a long way from compelling, hypothesized to be the most effective kind of input (Lao & Krashen, 2008). The approach is straightforward: the student hears a word or phrase and is asked to choose a picture that matches that word or phrase. Rosetta Stone then tells the user if the answer is right. As Nielson (2011, pp. 2-3) points out, "The authors (of *Rosetta Stone*) claim that 'by combining genuine immersion teaching methods with interactive multimedia technology, *Rosetta Stone* replicates the environment in which learners naturally acquire new language'. This claim is patently false. The *Rosetta Stone* interface simply presents learners with matching activities in which they guess or use a process of elimination to determine which words or phrases go with particular pictures. This pales in comparison with an actual "immersion environment" (Nielson, 2011, p. 6).

Lafford (2004, p. 32), who reviewed another computer software package, *Tell Me More* summarizes:

> *Tell Me More Spanish* is a technologically sophisticated multimedia program with high-end graphics and excellent speech recognition software that provides the learner multiple

opportunities to practice speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills and to gain knowledge about some isolated cultural facts. It is suited to the needs of individual learners, who are given a great deal of control over various elements of the program so they can forge their own learning path. However, the program's focus on pronunciation, structurally-based curriculum, mechanical exercises, decontextualized interaction, and use of culture capsules (mostly isolated from vocabulary and grammar exercises and listening, speaking and writing activities) causes this program to be out of step with modern communicatively-based views of task-based foreign language pedagogy -- views which are grounded in cultural authenticity and the notion of language as social practice.

Incorporating a DUB Approach into an Individualised Self-Paced Multimedia Computer Program

As described above, a DUB approach to second language teaching holds that frequency of input, exposure to authentic comprehensible input and scaffolding are important in achieving success in learning a second/foreign language. The overall aim of a DUB approach to second language teaching is for learners to fully understand the input provided and therefore help to consolidate the information for easy retrieval later. The question then becomes how to incorporate these factors into an individualised self-paced language learning environment for anxiety-free learning. It is argued that *a self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* (Irshad, 2015) designed using the software CourseLab[2] (www.courselab.com) developed by the Russian company WebSoft Ltd (© WebSoft Ltd., Russia), an e-learning authoring tool, can be a viable alternative to overcoming learner anxiety due to large heterogeneous classes, as it can be followed by learners in a private learning environment at their own pace while stimulating the same learning environment that a teacher-fronted classroom would have.

The design of the computer program is consistent for each scene. It consists of four stages: Watching the lesson, a pedagogical design, a quiz, and a report page. The design is meant to help

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[2] In order to create interactive e-Learning lessons in Course Lab 2.4. knowledge of programming language is not a requisite. What is required is a working knowledge of Microsoft Windows operating system and its basic functions. Learning modules created with CourseLab can be published on the internet, Learning Management Systems (LMS), and on CD/DVD-ROM. It can be easily transferred to any computer to ensure that the teaching programme is widely available. In addition, it is extremely adaptable and can be used for different levels of learner proficiency, for different learning resources and for different cultural or linguistic requirements.

learners focus not only on the learning but also on the strategies used in learning. A description of each part of the design is given below:

Screen design

There are three types of screen frames for this computer program. The first is the introductory screen. This screen offers an introduction to each lesson. The second type of screen is the lecture screen, which offers tabs that could be selected to choose different options for receiving information or a lecture on the content of the lesson. The third type of screen is the quiz screen, which depicts assessment questions for each of the lesson. Each screen has been further divided into three separate panels: a heading panel, an implemental panel, and a navigation panel. The heading panel contains the goal for each screen so that learners can understand easily what it is they are expected to do. The implemental panel, also called the working area, contains the main content of each screen, such as the video. There is also a pop-up window in this area which gives instructions to the learners. This pop-up window contains an audio button and explanations. Learners can choose to just listen to the sound or also have the instructions printed on the screen. In this way, the learners can train themselves to work increasingly more proficiently, eventually only having to listen to the audio instructions rather than read them as well. Consequently, learners will be able to work towards learning in an environment similar to that of a teacher-fronted classroom. The navigation panel, also called the toolbar, consists of a menu, a help button, a replay button, a progress bar, 6 step buttons, a back button, and a next button. The MENU button shows how many scenes there are in the course. The HELP button shows the instructions for each screen or course. The REPLAY button is to ensure learners have had sufficient exposure to the input. The PROGRESS bar displays the navigation options of the screen. The 6 STEPS button shows the scaffolding process the learners need to follow for each lesson. Figure 1 below depicts an example of the screen design. The screen has been designed to be consistent with other screens of the same nature in order that learners could easily recognise the purpose of each screen.
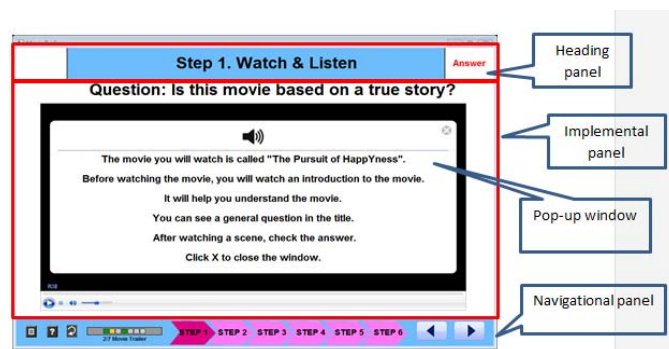
Figure 1: An example of the screen design

Pedagogical Sequence of the Self-Instructional Material-Centred Multimedia Computer Program

The primary resource used for the designing of the pedagogical materials is a movie divided into segments of 1-2 minutes duration. Movie segments were used because they contain authentic language and can be played and replayed as many times as necessary.

The instructional programme consists of 34 lessons and each lesson is accompanied by six steps that will help the learners understand everything, from a first, very generalised step, to very specific explanations by step 5.

The *self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* is designed to draw the learners' attention not only to the stimulus (or input) but also to the meaning and context of the input, in a repetitive fashion by using a variety of techniques including instructional and visual scaffolding six times in six steps in order to ensure that the learners understand the meaning of the input. With repeated exposure to the target language, learners subconsciously also gain grammatical and lexical proficiency that combines with the semantic knowledge that is explained in the instructional programme. This combined knowledge is then retrieved simultaneously when learners produce the language. This (multiple exposure to the target language), in conjunction with scaffolding in the form of explanations and meanings, facilitate the transference of the information from the sensory memory to the short-term memory and then the consolidation in the long-term memory.

The purpose of the six steps is as follows: Step 1 exposes the learners to the external stimulus or input. Step 2 delivers the stimulus to the working memory. Step 3 consolidates the stimulus with the addition of meaning. Step 4 stores the stimulus in the short-term memory. Step 5 encodes the

stimulus and transfers it to the long-term memory. Step 6 reinforces the information in the long-term memory and provides feedback on the entire process.

Step 1: *Watch and Listen*. Within the cognitive process, the attention of learners plays a major role. In order to draw the learners' attention, the stimulus needs to be comprehensible and interesting. The goal of step 1 is to help the learner understand what the lesson is about in a very general sense. The lesson is shown to the learners with a view to attracting their attention from the beginning and motivating them to concentrate on the tasks to come. In this screen, learners will see a title name and a question in the title. The purpose of this question is to activate the learners' thinking and deduction skills. In this way, their attention will be concentrated on seeking meaning rather than on unthinkingly receiving the input. In this step, the ANSWER button, pop-up window and SOUND button are of particular use to the learners in that they can manage the learning process through these buttons. Figure 2 shows an example of step 1.
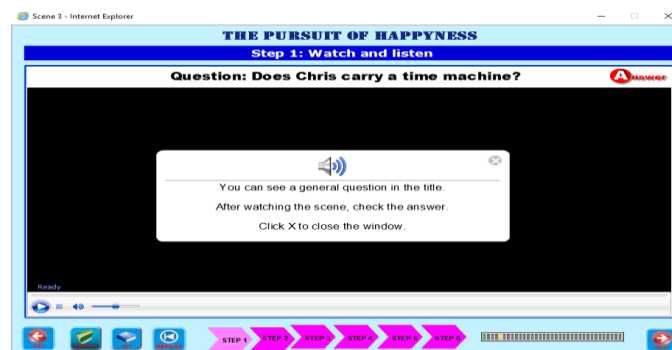
Figure 2: An example of Step 1.

Step 2: *Watch, Listen and Read*. The goal of step 2 is to make learners notice what the characters said. Subtitles in English are also provided. The subtitles in this step provide visual confirmation of the dialogue that the learners are hearing from the movie segment and more information to the sensory memories of the learners. Within the sensory memory, storage time is rather short while storage within the echoic memory (what a person hears) is often longer (Mastin, 2010; cf. Yi Liu, 2012). Therefore, amalgamating what the learners see and hear is more likely to be transferred from the sensory memory to the short-term memory, especially if the information is noticed by the learner. Figure 3 illustrates an example of Step 2.
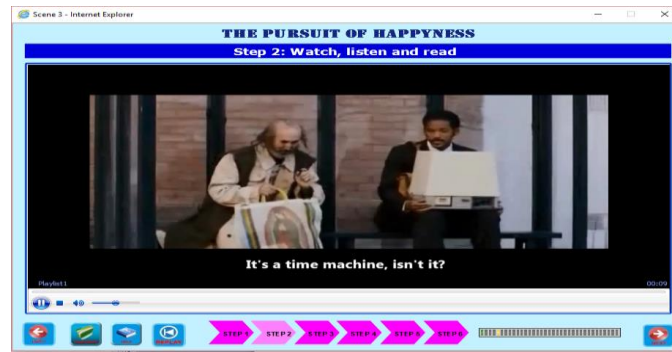
Figure 3: An example of Step 2.

Step 3: **_Focus on what the characters say_**. In step 3, the information is ideally transferred from the sensory memory to the short-term memory of the learners. However, the storage of information in this memory is only temporary and works on an immediate retrieval system (Clark, 2004; cf. Yi Liu, 2012). Thus, this step contains explanations of specific spoken and written words/phrases/lexical units/utterances/sentences considered difficult for the learners in the movie scene. The navigation panel allows leaners to choose what they wish to have explained and offers the opportunity for numerous repetitions of explanations. A sound button helps learners to listen to a real teacher giving an explanation; thereby, enriching the recognition and awareness skills of the learners. This feature also allows the computer program to cater to individual levels of proficiency: Some learners will not need explanations for certain utterances, whilst others will need full explanations, both aural and written.

In order to draw learners' attention to the cognitive processes that occur, an image-schema is also provided wherever possible to help the learners recognise the meaning of the words/phrases/lexical units/utterances/sentences effortlessly. In this way, the learners connect the linguistic form with the image that has been stored in their working memory, and they will then be better able to produce the lexical unit again in the future, for they have a full understanding of what it means (Chapelle, 2001). Learners also have the option to see the lesson again in order to review the scene and focus on the lesson. Figure 4 shows an example of step 3.

Figure 4: An example of step 3

Step 4: ***Watch, Listen, and Read.*** Look up words if necessary. Research shows that the information which is stored in the short-term memory can decay spontaneously, and therefore it needs to be repeated or rehearsed (Mastin, 2010; cf. Yi Liu, 2012). Similarly, the capacity of the short-term memory depends on the nature of the material to be recalled. It also depends on the individual, and the way in which the information has been reviewed (Mastin, 2010; cf. Yi Liu, 2012). Step 4 provides learners with the opportunity to visit the scene again to review all the expressions that the characters have used repeatedly and frequently. The aim of this step is to expose the learners to the input again through both reading and listening in order to increase the chances of the input being transported from the short to the long-term memory. The tooltips enable learners to get explanations and meanings of specific statements. If learners have forgotten the meaning or explanation of the specific sentences, they can move their mouse over the number which is located next to the sentence and a pop-up window with the meaning and explanation will appear. An example of step 4 is given in Figure 5.
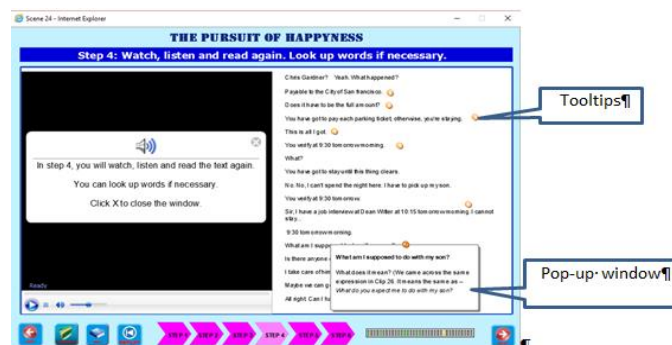
Figure 5: An example of Step 4

Step 5: ***Trying to understand everything***. In step 5, it is hoped that the information provided by the previous steps will have been transferred to the long-term memory so that the learners can retrieve it when necessary. This will have been achieved through meaningful associations in Step 3, the rehearsal in Step 4, and the semantic encoding in Step 5. In order to consolidate this information, the learners in this step review the scene again with no help or explanations. Figure 6 shows an example of step 5.

Figure 6: An example of step 5

Step 6: ***Quiz***. In steps 1 to 5, learners are only provided input but are not asked to produce. The goal in Step 6 is for learners to activate their knowledge. In step 6, they are given a quiz in order to stimulate the response process within the overall cognitive process of the brain. Figure 7 shows an example of Step 6.
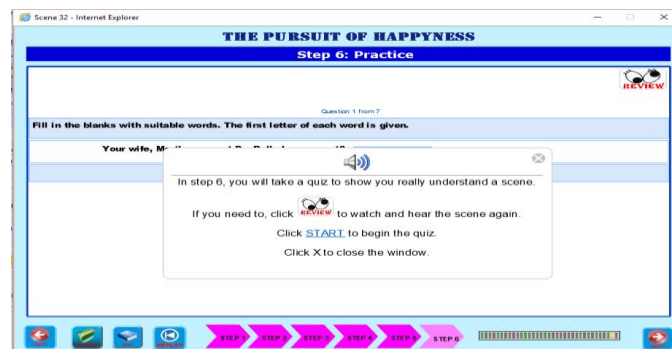
Figure 7: An example of Step 6

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Quiz Design: The purpose of this quiz is to examine whether learners have been able to identify the meaning of the character utterances in each scene. Thus, the features of the quiz are designed to develop the metacognitive awareness of the learners by helping them to set the goal (i.e. grade), plan the strategy (i.e. time, learning style), and monitor and reflect upon the outcome (i.e. result). In addition, the quiz encourages the learners to move to a new and improved zone of understanding as well as bring the learners closer to a state of communicative competence.

In the quiz screen, learners will see a pop-up window which gives them instructions. On the left side corner, there is a REVIEW button that gives learners (especially learners with low linguistic competence) cues or hints from the movie segment. This function contributes to the idea of effective scaffolding by reducing failure in the performance of the learners and therefore facilitating an anxiety-free learning process. Within the quiz window, there is a question bar on the top and a timer on the bottom. The question bar indicates the total number of questions. The timer shows the time limit for doing the quiz. Although there is a time limit for the learners in the quiz, the time limit has been set to ensure that learners are able to utilise their linguistic knowledge and have a sufficient amount of time to complete the qui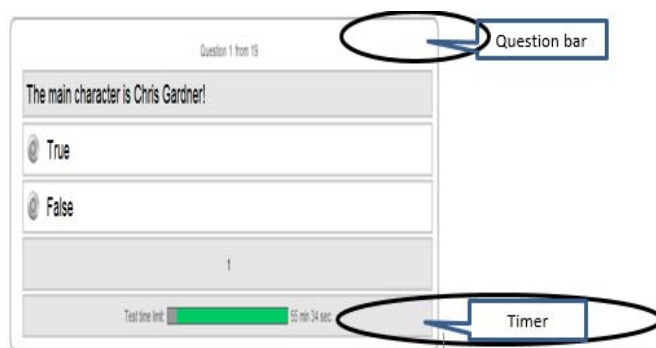z without feeling anxiety or pressure. There is also a function which allows learners to redo or save the test if they do not finish in time. An illustration of an example of a quiz window (with question bar and timer) is given in figure 8.

Figure 8: An example of a quiz window (with question bar and timer)

Report Page: An effective language learning programme should provide assessment and outcomes for learners to evaluate their learning process. In this section, learners are able to evaluate their own performance and understand areas which they did not perform on as well as other areas. Teachers are also able to pinpoint areas that need more work. The report page is divided into two sections: the raw score and the result area. The raw score shows the grade of the learners calculated as a percentage. The result area displays the feedback details such as individual point scores, correct

answers, and the relevant questions. The aim is for learners to understand whether they truly understood the input. No immediate feedback is provided for learners while they are doing the quiz. The purpose of this is to ensure that learners who suffer from anxiety are not negatively impacted by immediate feedback. If learners are not satisfied with their scores, they can redo the quiz. Figure 9 shows an example of a report page.
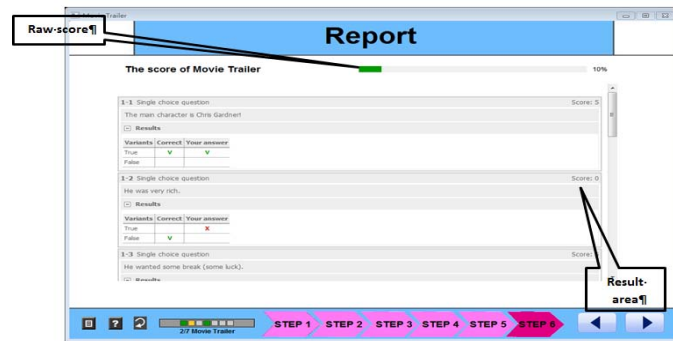
Figure 9: An example of a report page

Empirical Investigation: Students' Perception of *the Self-Instructional Material- Centred Multimedia Computer Program*

Prior to the adoption of the *self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program,* an experimental study was conducted over a semester to assess the students' perception of their respective learning environments (see below for details).

Research Questions

The main question that guided this study was: *To what extent do students who underwent the CBg (Experimental group) and PwPg (Control group) interventions positively or negatively view the treatment to which they were exposed?*

Research Design

The research design was chosen to assess the views of participants on two different interventions. The CBg participants followed *a self-instructional material-centred multimedia* (general English) *computer program* founded on the principles of a DUB approach to second language teaching (with a movie as the primary resource) in which the participants could learn in an individualised self-paced learning environment. The PwPg participants followed a teacher-directed general English course founded on the principles of a DUB perspective to second language teaching, by using a

PowerPoint-based multimedia format with a movie as its primary resource. The CBg and PwPg instructional programmes were very similar in that they consisted of a pedagogical sequence (described above) which was based on the tenets of a DUB approach to second language teaching (Verspoor & Hong, 2013); were both multimedia instructional programmes that provided authentic input; and the primary resource used in the creation of the two programmes was a movie.

The instructional programmes (CBg and PwPg) consisted of an introduction (the movie trailer) and 33 scenes (segments of 1-2 minute duration) of the movie (that was used as a primary resource to design the instructional material), and the design layout was consistent for each scene. Since the object of a DUB approach to second language teaching is that learners should understand everything (in this case everything that the characters in the movie utter), the movie segments were shown repeatedly to the students, and all the utterances were explained in detail; the rationale being that upon each viewing the students could focus on different aspects. Each movie segment was guided by the six steps outlined above in order to help the learners understand everything from the initial generalised step through to very specific explanations by step 5 and a quiz in step 6. For the CBg experiment, the PowerPoint based multimedia instructions of the PwPg condition were transformed into 34 e-learning lessons (modules) through CourseLab. In the case of the latter, a computer was assigned to each participant who worked at her/his own pace in an individual learning environment.

Method

Learner Participants

4 intact classes of undergraduates comprising of 155 students in total participated in the study. These 4 intact classes were assigned randomly to two conditions: 3 intact classes of 100 students in total to PwPg and one intact class of 55 students to CBg. With regard to written feedback, data of 6 participants of the PwPg condition and 4 of the CBg condition were eliminated from the analysis due to reasons of illegible handwriting, leaving ninety-four (94) texts of the PwPg and fifty-one (51) texts of the CBg respondents for quantification.

Measures

The participants were asked to provide their written feedback (views) at the end of the intervention – in Sinhala, Tamil, or English – on the strengths and weaknesses of the intervention they had received and thereby to evaluate the CBg and PwPg programmes. There was neither a time limit

nor a word limit imposed. The participants were requested to provide anonymous feedback and were given the assurance that their feedback would only be used for the purpose of the research, the ultimate objective of which was to develop English courses in Sri Lankan universities.

Procedures

The CBg and PwPg groups were allocated the same amount of course time, which was thirteen weeks (fifty-two contact hours in all). At the end of their respective intervention, written comments were obtained from the PwPg and CBg participants and quantified. Prior to the quantification of the written feedback, the parts of the text that were written in Sinhala of eight PwPg and fifteen CBg respondents were translated from Sinhala into English by the researcher (Even though there were Tamil speaking participants, there were no Tamil texts for translation). The texts were then input in a word processor verbatim using double spacing with a wide margin and given identification numbers.

The 145 (94 PwPg and 51 CBg) written comments of the PwPg and CBg participants were coded (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) by two independent coders. The coders were the researcher (coder A) and an experienced second language teacher (coder B), who was not involved in the research in any respect. Coder B was informed that the texts were written feedback obtained from the participants who took part in the investigation. She was neither informed nor aware of the different treatments to which the students had been exposed.

The coders first had a discussion on how they were going to undertake the coding. It was decided to initially conduct a thematic content analysis and identify the themes/categories that emerged and then label them before quantification for statistical analysis and qualitative interpretation. Only themes pertaining to the intervention provided were coded.

First, the two independent coders conducted a content analysis by reading the data several times. This was done for two reasons: to understand the data and to identify differences and consistencies. While reading, the coders marked the data by themes by colour coding them and made notes in the margin. This way, it was easier to identify the key themes and the sub themes. Then, a careful check was conducted to ensure overlapping or similar categories and all duplications were eliminated.

The themes that emerged were organised into positive and negative categories and subsequently given labels.

Eventually, the two coders, in unison, carefully examined the lists they had made. In case of inconsistencies, the two coders discussed and came to a compromise after verification of the original text. Some of the items had to be either relabelled or excluded after negotiation. Finally, after checking all of the sections of the data under each category, a reduced list of 33 variables with 15 variables denoting negative notions and 18 denoting positive notions was drawn up.

For analysis in SPSS 16.0, the written feedback data that were obtained from the CBg and PwPg participants were first turned into a matrix where the rows were the units of analysis (the respondents or the individual students who provided feedback. The respondents were assigned numbers 1, 2, 3….), the columns were the variables (the themes that emerged), and the cells were the values for each unit of analysis (respondents) on each variable (Bernard, 1996, p 10). The presence of a theme on each comment was coded as '1' and the absence of a theme on each comment was coded as '0'. The sum total of the variables that denoted negative and positive comments was obtained, and the difference between the two variables was considered the dependent variable for the test of significance.

Results

The number of participants that provided written feedback and the positive and negative themes that emerged are given in the tables below.

Table 1

Negative remarks on languages skills that have not received enough attention

Skill(s) Missing	CBg (n = 51) Frequency	PwPg (n = 94) Frequency
Need grammar	1	30
Need exam practice	0	15
Need focus on grammar and writing	0	15
Need writing practice	0	5
Need other skills than listening	0	2
Need speaking practice	16	3
Total	17	70

The PwPg group pointed out that grammar and writing practice was missing. The CBg group only seemed to miss speaking practice.

Table 2

Positive remarks about language skills that are well developed in the instructional programmes

Skills (well developed)	CBg (n = 51) Frequency	PwPg (n = 94) Frequency
Helps improve spoken English	6	27
Helps improve listening	10	26
Helps improve vocabulary	4	24
Helps improve pronunciation	2	13
Helps English overall	0	9
Helps improve reading	6	9
Helps improve writing	5	8
Helps develop presentation skills	1	3
Total	34	119

The PwPg group pointed out more often than the CBg group that specific skills were well-addressed, especially listening, speaking, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

Table 3

Positive remarks made about the respective instructional programmes followed

Overall impression positive	CBg(n = 51) Frequency	PwPg (n = 94) Frequency
Useful method	42	35
Engaging/Interesting	22	28
Better than textbook	5	6
Easy to learn	12	0
Can work at own pace	9	0
Continue the program	7	0
Low pressure	1	1
Not shy to learn	1	0
Helps develop personality	0	4
Total	99	74

The CBg group mentioned with an overwhelming majority that the method was useful and interesting. They also stated that the *self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* was engaging and easy to learn. About 18% referred to the advantage of working at one's own pace.

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Table 4

Negative remarks made about the respective instructional programme followed

Overall impression negative	CBg (n = 51) Frequency	PwPg (n = 94) Frequency
Too much repetition	0	21
Does not match course manual	0	12
Not completely useful	0	6
Too advanced	0	3
Total	0	42

22% of the PwPg participants were of the view that the instructional programme was repetitive and 13% felt that it failed to match the course manual. The CBg group did not make any such negative remarks.

Table 5

Negative remarks made about specific parts in the instructional programme

Other	CBg (n = 51) Frequency	PwPg (n = 94) Frequency
Cannot check correct answer	2	0
Want teacher also	4	0
Want translation	2	0
Need training in computer	1	0
Total	9	0

The CBg group mentioned a few things that were especially relevant for the *self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program*. 2 (4%) participants expressed that they could not check their answers; 2 (4%) requested that translation (probably of the text) be provided; and 1 (2%) mentioned that they needed more computer training. 4 (8%) students mentioned that they also wanted a teacher.

A box plot (Figure 10) shows the difference between the two groups (PwPg and CBg) with regard to the positive and negative comments expressed. The participants of the CBg condition were much more positive than the PwPg participants of the intervention they had undergone.
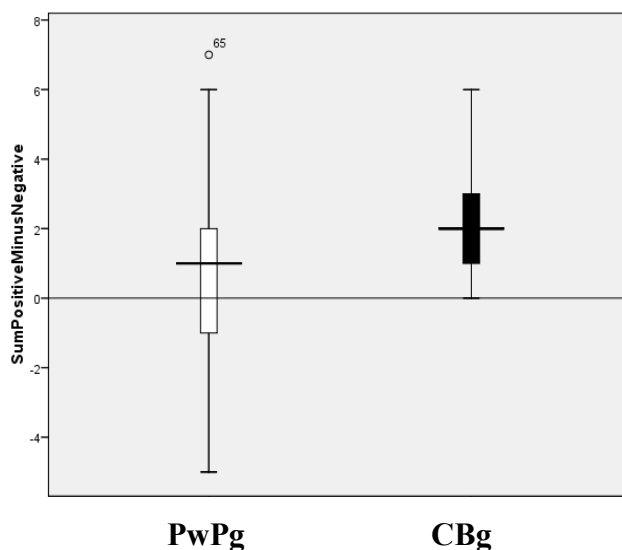
Figure 10: By condition difference between the positive and negative comments

The question that the study wanted to answer was how the students felt about the respective instructional programme they were exposed to.

The participants of the CBg group were significantly more positive than the PwPg participants of *the self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* (due to their perception of its utility and educational benefits) even though the two approaches were basically similar with the same movie and the same concept of repetition and scaffolded explanations.

With regards to the views expressed, about two thirds of the PwPg students felt that some skill or focus was missing; they were especially concerned about the absence of grammar and exam practices. This focus on specific sub-skills and the exam rather than the instructional approach as a whole could of course be due to what teachers in the PwPg condition had said unintentionally to their students. The PwPg teachers might have had doubts about the (PowerPoint based) instructional approach because they themselves were not familiar with this holistic approach to language development which did not explicitly prepare students for the exam. Moreover, the teachers might have repeated some steps more than once (see above for details of steps). At the same time, the PwPg students also pointed out the specific skills that were amply dealt with in the computer program such as listening, speaking, pronunciation, and vocabulary; points that the CBg participants did not even bring up. The CBg students only mentioned that they missed speaking skills. This makes sense, and we need to see if this can be addressed in the computer program or rather with the aid of the computer program.

While the PwPg group pointed out specific skills that were or were not addressed, the CBg participants found the course engaging, useful, and learner friendly especially because they could work at their own pace and recommended that *the self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* be continued. About 18% pointed out the advantage of working at one's own pace. The fact that the CBg participants commented more on the computer program as a whole and less on specific skills could be because their focus was not on the specific skills. However, if the comments made by 20% of the CBg participants with regard to the repetitive nature of the instructional approach and the 18% that mentioned self-paced learning are taken into account, it could be concluded that self-paced learning allows the student to focus on what she/he needs at a particular time at her/his own speed and not on what the teacher delivers/presents to the class. The fact that they were more positive also indicates that they may have been highly motivated, and this in turn could have impacted their learning outcomes.

Finally, the CBg group mentioned a few things that are especially relevant for the *self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* itself. A very low number pointed out that they wished to have their answers checked or a translation provided, and four participants mentioned that they also wanted a teacher. This method constitutes quite a change for the Sri Lankan students, away from the teacher-centred large classroom situations they had so got used to. This may well be what is reflected in these answers.

Conclusion/Implications

The research reported attempted to seek answers to issues faced by tertiary level second language learners learning the language in heterogeneous classrooms. A *self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* was proposed as a potential solution on the assumption that it would simulate a teacher-directed classroom learning environment, deal with heterogeneous large classes through individualised self-paced learning, and be instrumental in improving the English language proficiency of undergraduates.

Considering that the CBg participants perceive the self-paced computer based teaching positively suggests that *the self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* should be continued but adapted to meet the requests of the participants while giving them more time and space to get used to a radically different approach to learning/teaching English as a Second/foreign language. For example, the program itself could be expanded with pronunciation,

oral practice, and small group discussions based on the actual dialogues in the movie--they may repeat utterances (for pronunciation practice) or engage in actual conversations with the characters either online or offline. In line with the individual self-paced learning route set by the program, however, it remains important that students are not forced to produce output before they are ready to do so. The program should thus allow provisions for both the students who are ready to produce and those who need to focus on the input for a longer period of time.

This paper acknowledges the efficacy of a dynamic usage-based *self-instructional material-centred multimedia computer program* in overcoming learner anxiety in a heterogeneous teacher-fronted language class. The computer program provides individualised self-paced learning support to the learners through multiple exposures to comprehensible input and scaffolding (both instructional and visual scaffolding) through (general) questions at the beginning, explanation and paraphrasing of chunks (through the recorded voice of a teacher), pictures/illustrations, movie segments (both audio and video), multiple exposure to the segments, captions (onscreen text in the same language as audio), and review questions at the end of each module or scene. However, the generalizability of the results obtained is limited as the study was confined to the Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura. Additional research in other Faculties in the University of Sri Jayewardenepura and in other universities in the country and region could more accurately assess the efficacy.

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Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' self-correction of pronunciation problems and their strategies

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Bio data

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Abstract

This study explores 47 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' self-correction of errors and strategies for pronunciation. Based on the data analysis of interview, videos, activity designs, and reflections, this study includes the following major findings. First, the major pronunciation problems that the participants identified were "linking" and "stress." Second, the most popular self-correction techniques the participants employed were "watch the online pronunciation lessons" and "read aloud and practice the sound." Moreover, the participants relied on multimedia to learn knowledge of specific pronunciation features. Suggestions for better self-correction in pronunciation are provided.

Key words: drill practice, immediate feedback, mimic, read aloud, self-correction technique

Introduction

Language teachers can train their learners to become independent and autonomous learners, so

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learners can be empowered through ownership of their learning and life-long learning skills (Chen, 2008;

Yoshida, 2016). Before entering a university, Taiwanese EFL (English as a foreign language) learners have studied English for three years in elementary school, three years in junior high school and three years in senior high school. With this minimum nine-year English learning experience, they should be able to take control of their own English pronunciation learning for maximizing their English intelligibility and improving their oral skills.

Firth (1992) defines "self-correction" as the ability to correct oneself when a pronunciation error has been pointed out (p. 215). In addition to self-assessing their own performance, EFL learners, particularly English majors, should be trained to self-correct their pronunciation problems (Kazemi, Araghi, & Davatgari, 2013; Nikbakht, 2011; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014). English majors have more knowledge about pronunciation features and problems that they might encounter and why they happen (Yoshida, 2016). Self-correction can help EFL learners engage more actively in their own English learning process (Buchanan, 2004). So EFL learners can build up their own skills in listening, imitating, correcting, and monitoring their own pronunciation.

This study explores 47 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' self-correction of errors and strategies for pronunciation. The conceptual framework of this study was designed based on Kumaravadivelu's (2006) three principles "particularity, practicality and possibility" in order to evaluate their self-correction strategies. This study discusses the following three questions. First, what are the participants' perceptions of their pronunciation problems? Second, what kinds of self-correction techniques did these participants employ? Third, what were their attitudes toward these techniques? Suggestions for self-correction techniques and strategies for EFL college students are provided.

Literature Review

Explicit instruction on pronunciation has a significant effect on language learners' comprehensibility, especially in sentence-reading task*s* (Saito, 2011). Different techniques and strategies can be employed in teaching pronunciation, such as fluency-building activities, the use of multisensory modes, the use of authentic materials and the use of instructional technology (Celce-Murcia, Brinto, & Goodwin, 1996; Hişmanoğlu, 2006; Nikbakht, 2011; Osburne, 2003; Peterson, 2000; Ramirez Verdugo, 2006; *Seferoğlu, 2005*). Huang (2009) *suggested* the utilization of mnemonics in teaching pronunciation in EFL classrooms. Turkish participants in Seferoğlu's (2005) study used accent reduction software to improve their pronunciation through hearing

English sounds pronounced by native English speakers, practicing one chosen sound and recording it, comparing the sound and waveform of their own voice with those of the native speaker and practicing selected words and sentences. A multi-sensory approach, with the integration of visual pitch displays and access to native English speakers' pitch contour displays, was employed for Spanish learners to learn English intonation (Ramirez Verdugo, 2006).

Language learners may employ different pronunciation strategies to help themselves improve a specific dimension of pronunciation (Derwing & Rossiter, 2005; Haslam, 2010). Scholars have analyzed different pronunciation strategies employed by language learners, as shown in Table 1. These pronunciation strategies are not categorized, but Eckstein (2007) specifically categorized these strategies into four steps: input and practice, feedback and noticing, hypothesis forming and hypothesis testing.

Table 1
Pronunciation Strategies

scholars	strategies on pronunciation
Peterson (2000)	representing sounds in memory, practicing naturalistically, formal practice with sounds, analyzing the sound system, using proximal articulations, finding out about the target language pronunciation, setting goals and objectives, planning for a language task, self-evaluation, using humor to lower anxiety, asking for help, cooperating with peers, representing sounds in memory
Vitanova & Miller (2002)	self-correction of poor pronunciation, active listening to native pronunciation
Derwing & Rossiter (2002)	self repetition, paraphrase, volume, write, spell, slow rate, clear speech
Osburne (2003)	global articulatory gesture, local articulatory gesture or single sound, focus on individual syllables, focus on sounds below, the syllable-level, focus on prosodic structure, focus on individual words, focus on paralanguage, and focus on memory or imitation
Eckstein (2007)	input/ practice, feedback/noticing, hypothesis forming, hypothesis testing
Ingels (2011)	LTRRR (listening, transcription, rehearsal), LTA-RRR (listening, transcription, annotation, rehearsal)

Kumaravadivelu (2006) proposed three principles for teachers in choosing methods for language teaching and teacher education—particularity, practicality and possibility—as follows:

> Particularity seeks to facilitate the advancement of a context-sensitive, location-specific pedagogy that is based on a true understanding of local linguistic and social, cultural, and political particularities. Practicality seeks to rupture the reified role relationship between theorizers and practitioners by enabling and encouraging teachers to theorize from their practice and to practice what they theorize. Possibility seeks to tap the sociopolitical consciousness that students bring with them to the classroom so that it can also function as a catalyst for identity formation and social transformation. (p. 69).

Although Kumaravadivelu's (2006) three principles are proposed as guidelines for language teaching and teacher education, language learners can use these three principles to choose appropriate self-correction strategies and techniques to improve their pronunciation problems for self-correcting and autonomous learning (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). Moreover, both segmental and suprasegmental features should be the focus for instruction and self-correction, rather than isolated segments or words (Chela-Flores, 2001; Hişmanoğlu, 2006; Nikbakht, 2011; Vitanova & Miller, 2002).

Saito (2012) classifies pronunciation instruction into two types: focus-on-formS (FonFS) and focus-on-form (FonF). The former one refers to activities only in "controlled contexts (when practicing form is the only task)", and the later one both "controlled and communicative contexts" (i.e., when practicing pronunciation form while being involved in meaning-oriented communicative activities) (p. 845). Pronunciation exercises should be meaningful and balanced between controlled and communicative activities (Chela-Flores, 2001; Hişmanoğlu, 2006; Nikbakht, 2011; Vitanova & Miller, 2002), because FonFs tends to improve learners' pronunciation only at controlled level, while FonF enables learners to improve both a controlled and spontaneous levels (Saito, 2012). Kennedy, Blanchet, and Trofimovich (2014) also investigated the effects of pronunciation instruction on learners' pronunciation development and awareness among 30 adult learners of French as a second language. The study concludes that learners can develop more accurate and fluent pronunciation on both segmental and suprasegmental aspects through the pronunciation instruction with integration of form, meaning- and fluency-based tasks. Learners need to work toward using the pronunciation in activities similar to read

communication or real speech. Hence, learners need to work toward using the pronunciation in activities similar to read communication or real speech (Yoshida, 2016).

Twenty-eight undergraduate students in Chen's (2008) study were able to assess their own oral performance, making statements such as "I need to improve my pronunciation, especially the vowel /e/" or "I made some mistakes in /ɛ/ and /ei/." The current empirical studies on language learners' self-correction strategies for pronunciation are shown in Table 2. Ahangari (2014) compared and contrasted 45 Iranian participants' scores on pre- and post-tests on pronunciation. The study concluded that the pronunciation of the self-correction group improved more than the peer correction and teacher correction groups, because self-correction makes participants' mistakes more memorable and less likely to reoccur. Ingels (2011) analyzed 15 international teaching assistants' use of strategies for English suprasegmental features in their speech at a Midwestern university. Based on interviews, observations and oral recordings, Ingels (2011) concluded that the LTRRR (listening, transcription, rehearsal) combination was the most effective for lower proficiency learners, and LTA-RRR (listening, transcription, annotation, rehearsal) was the most effective for higher proficiency learners. Six ESL (English as a second language) learners in Le and Brook's (2011) study self-corrected their intonation by recording their speech, analyzing their pitch contour and comparing their speech to native speakers using *Praat* software. However, not all the learners could benefit from self-correction through the *Praat* software, because only the learners with basic knowledge of articulatory phonetics could understand the graphic feedback (Brett, 2004; Wilson, 2008).

Table 2

Studies on Learners' Self-Correction on Pronunciation

Scholar	Country	Participants	Method	Pronunciation focus	Major Findings
Ahangari (2014)	Iran	45 EFL	. Preliminary English Test (PET) . Story telling tasks	Oral production	. self correction group improved more
Ingels (2011)	The United States	15 international teaching assistants	. Interview . observation . oral recordings	suprasegmental features	. LTRRR as effective
Le & Brook (2011)	The United States	Six ESL	. pre-test . post-test 1 . post-test 2	intonation	. effects of Pratt

The above-mentioned empirical studies focused on pronunciation strategies and the technology used during the training. Based on Derwing and Munro's (2005) suggestions and Kumaravadivelu's (2006) three principles, the conceptual framework of this study is designed and revealed as shown in Figure 1. This study explores 47 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' activity designs and strategies for self-correcting their pronunciation problems. The participants learned the theoretical concepts of pronunciation features and instructional strategies and activities from English Pronunciation Instruction class. The participants identified their pronunciation problems. They set the goals and the foci. Based on Kumaravadivelu's (2006) three principles, they designed and employed the most appropriate pedagogical activities or strategies to self-correct their pronunciation problems.
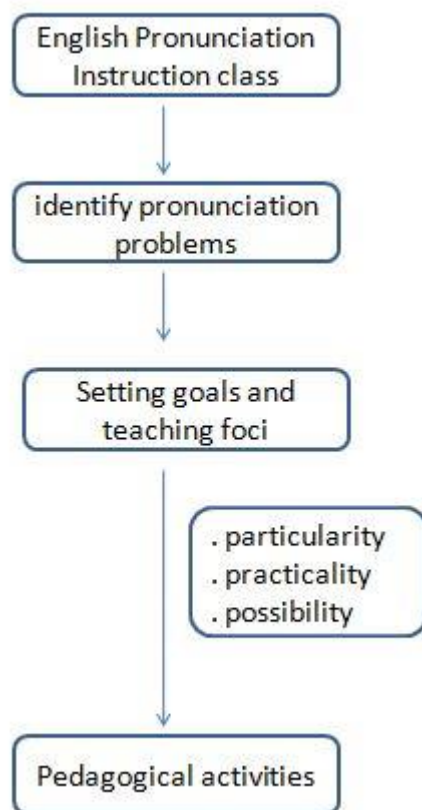
Figure 1. Pedagogical Activity Designs on Self-Correcting Pronunciation Problems

Method

A case study was employed in order to investigate a class in its entirety, and its aim was to understand the undergraduates' self-correction activities and strategies for pronunciation or related issues. Merriam (2009) defines a case study as "an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system" (p. 40). The bounded system is a single entity. In this study, the bounded system was English Pronunciation Instruction class and the unit of analysis was the participants' self-correction strategies.

Participants

A convenience sampling was employed in this study. During the 2014 fall semester, 47 participants in this study simultaneously enrolled in one English Pronunciation Instruction class in a teacher-preparation university in a northern city in Taiwan. Prior to this course, participants took Practice in English Pronunciation and English Phonetics, so they were equipped with metalanguage, such

as /b/ as voiceless bilabial stop. The participants included 41 females and 6 males with an average age of 21.6 years. The majority of the participants were seniors majoring in English Instruction (n=42), followed by one junior majoring in music, one senior in Education Technology and Learning, one junior in Education Technology and Learning, one student in the Graduate Institute of Education Technology and Learning and one senior in Early Childhood Education. The class met for 150 minutes each week during the period of the study.

Data Collection

The study was conducted during one semester, from September to December 2014. The data in this study included: (1) videos, (2) the participants' activity designs and reflections and (3) interviews. While the first two data sets were used to answer the first two research questions about pronunciation problems and self-correction techniques, the interviews were used to answer the third research question regarding the effectiveness of the techniques.

The "student diagnostic profile" (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992, p. 182) was introduced on the second week of this English Pronunciation Instruction class and participants used these two profiles to practice identified one of their classmates' pronunciation problems. After class, the participants were required to record their own speech for at least five minutes and to identify their pronunciation problems. Moreover, Kumaravadivelu's (2006) three principles were introduced on the second week of the course to help learners be familiar with the activity designs. Of all of the pronunciation problems, they focused on only one pronunciation problem and designed three activities to help themselves overcome this problem. They also had to videotape themselves doing pronunciation exercises. They had to write a reflection on their self-correction experiences. At the end of the study, the participants were put into groups of five and interviewed for 20 minutes. A semi-structured interview with an interview protocol as in Appendix I was employed in this study. The participants were divided into groups of four to five students and interviewed in late December. Each interview lasted for 30 minutes. The participants were asked about their rationale in designing the activities and the effectiveness of the self-correction strategies.

Data Analysis

All of the interviews and videos were transcribed, word-for-word, as a *Word* document and prepared for analysis. In order to ensure confidentiality, a pseudonym was assigned to each

participant. The analysis procedure was included the following steps: reading the data, organizing the data, assigning the data with tentative codes, identifying themes, patterns, and categories, testing the tentative hypothesis and argumentation against the dat. Direct quotations from participants were cited in this study to illustrate the participants' viewpoints. The data were coded and analyzed as shown in Figure 2.
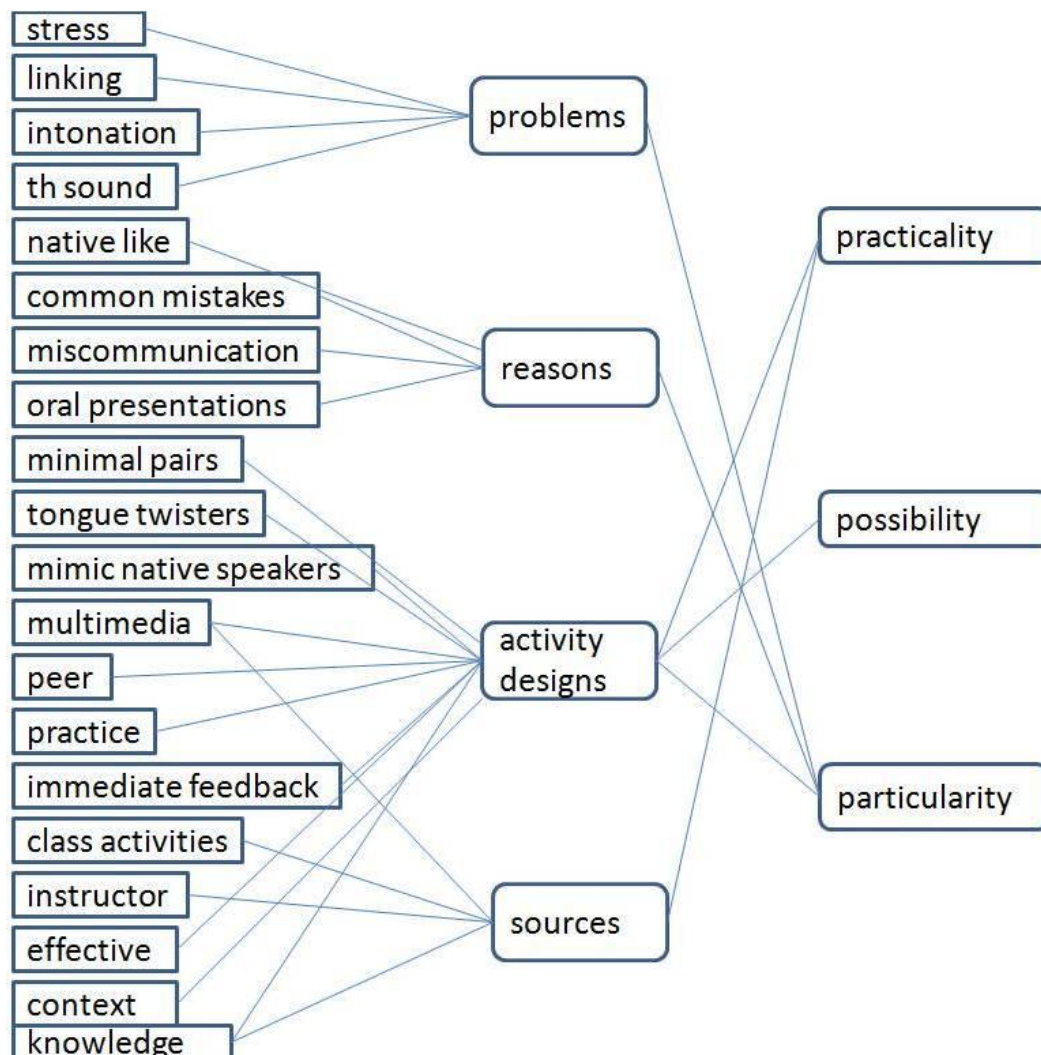
Figure 2. Data Analysis

To ensure the reliability of the data analysis, the researcher analyzed the data and discussed the findings with two colleagues who are also in the field of pronunciation instruction. Peer examination is another strategy for promoting a study's validity (Merriam, 2009). The two colleagues checked all of the findings drawn by the researcher and checked the data to ensure that

the findings were verifiable.

Analysis and Discussion

Based on the data analysis of the final projects, videos and interviews, three issues *were identified and are* discussed *here*: pronunciation problems, instructional strategies and activities, and the attitudes toward and effectiveness of the instructional strategies.

Pronunciation Problems

Suprasegmental phonological problems including stress (n=11) and linking (n=9) were the top pronunciation problems identified by participants. Segmental problems were the voiced and voiceless fricative dental *th* sound (n=6), vowels (n=5) and consonant clusters (n=5). Other pronunciation problems included intonation (n=4), /l/ vs. /r/ (n=3), fluency (n=3) and the glottal *h* (n=1). As for stress, five of the participants focused on word stress, and another six focused on sentence stress.

The above pronunciation problems are in accord with the findings identified by Avery and Ehrlich (1992), including word-final voiceless stop consonants (/p/, /t/ and /k/), /θ/ and /ð/, tense and lax vowels (i.e. /i/ vs. /ɪ/, /e/ vs. /ɛ/), word stress and linking. First, Mandarin Chinese voiceless stop consonants are never released in a final position; thus, when Mandarin Chinese speakers pronounce these consonants in a final position in English, native English speakers may have difficulty in hearing them. Second, Mandarin Chinese speakers often substitute either /t/ or /f/ for /θ/, or d for /ð/. Third, because tense and lax vowels do not exist in Mandarin Chinese, Mandarin Chinese speakers have difficulty in making a difference between the tense and lax vowels in English. Moreover, because Mandarin Chinese words consist of only one syllable, Mandarin Chinese English learners have difficulty in producing longer words in English with the appropriate stress. Mandarin Chinese students fail to link words, and they tend to say each word, one by one, with pauses between them (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992).

The top reasons that these participants chose to focus on one specific pronunciation problem resulted from "their salient and strange oral presentations" (n=18), "their common pronunciation errors" (n=11) and "their expectations on sounding native-like" (n=8). While Jane said, "[w]hen I read an article or give an oral presentation, I put the stress on the wrong syllable. My speech sounds weird," Patty said, "[w]hen I read an article or talk, I have a tendency to drop the final consonant,

such as /s/." Joyce said, "[l]inking is a common pronunciation problem for EFL learners, so I want to improve it." Carol also said, "Taiwanese EFL learners have problems with the voiced and voiceless *th* sound. So I want to improve it." Firth (1992) regards motivation as a crucial step for learners to develop the ability to self-correct, because learners should understand why accuracy in pronunciation and oral production is important.

Other reasons included: "my own recording" (n=4), "miscommunication" (n=4), "have better pronunciation" (n=1) and "monotonous speech" (n=1). Learners should develop a metalanguage that allows them to become more aware of their own pronunciation. Such an ability provides them with the opportunities and strategies to continue their pronunciation learning and practice beyond the classroom. They will be able to listen to the target language differently because they are more sensitive to English sounds and rhythms (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992).

Tina said, "[w]hen I put the stress on the wrong syllables or words, my interlocutors have to stop the conversation to check their comprehension." Lily also said, "I cannot pronounce long and short vowels accurately. I am often misunderstood by my friends." Accurate pronunciation affects learners' communication. Pronunciation intelligibility is the key to successful oral communication (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996).

Participants worked on specific pronunciation problems because they wanted to achieve one goal "to be native-like." While Vivian said, "I will be proud of myself if I can sound like a native when I speak English," Jack stated "I want to sound like a native. At the same time, my English will sound good if I can speak fluently."

Instructional Strategies and Activities

The most popular activity the participants tried was "watch the online pronunciation lessons," followed by "read aloud and practice the sound." These online pronunciation lessons were regarded as "explanations," referring to "descriptions and demonstration of specific pronunciation features" (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992, p. 215), so they were used to help participants review the features of pronunciation. Ann said, "[b]efore I improved my pronunciation problem regarding stress, I wanted to review how I should put stress on words and sentences." Similarly, Cheryl stated, "[b]efore I self-corrected my pronunciation problem regarding linking, I wanted to know different types of linking, and I practiced with the sound clips."

Example 1: Online Pronunciation Lesson

Objectives: Be able to identify the meanings and rules of word stress and repeat the examples provided in the video.

Videos:

(1)Word Stress and Clarification

http://www.rachelsenglish.com/videos/word-stress-and-clarification

(2) The Shape of a Stressed Syllable

http://www.rachelsenglish.com/videos/shape-stressed-syllable

I learned that stress isn't simply a higher pitch and a lower pitch. Take these two word examples "Yes-ter-day" and "Da-da-da." But actually, there's a swoop from one pitch to the next.

In Example 1, Ann watched two videos from the Rachel's English website. She realized that stress is not just a higher pitch or a lower pitch. Instead, she learned that stress is like a swoop from one pitch to another. Learners like Ann benefited from watching videos on the explanation and introduction of specific features of pronunciation. An explanation of how to produce certain sounds with the vocal organs or how to use pronunciation patterns appropriately can help learners (Maniruzzaman, 2008).

In their pronunciation learning, the participants in this study strongly believed in the maxim that practice makes perfect. Tina said, "[p]ractice is the best strategy for improving pronunciation. So the activities I designed were aimed at providing me with chances to practice these sounds again and again." Similarly, Wendy stated, "I can improve my pronunciation through learning, practicing and revising" and Kevin said, "I just practice saying these words and sounds ten times."

Example 2: Kevin's Pronunciation of Consonant Clusters

Kevin: text, text, text, text, text, text, text, text, text, text

Kevin: tasks, tasks, tasks, tasks, tasks, tasks, tasks, tasks, tasks, tasks

Kevin: tests, tests, tests, tests, tests, tests, tests, tests, tests, tests

Kevin: "Longer texts are presented for the test-taker to read in the native language and then translate into English, and those texts could come in many forms," the teacher said. And these sentences are today's tasks to practice at home.

In Example 2, Kevin wanted to practice consonant clusters, so he said three words, "text," "tasks," and "tests," for ten times each. Then, he formulated a long sentence and practiced saying

the sentence.

Some other popular activities included "imitation of the native speakers' pronunciation" (n=7), "tongue twister" (n=7) and "mark the pronunciation focus" (n=7). The participants thought that it was crucial to learn pronunciation from native speakers; for example, Vivian said, "[i]n order to speak English well, I have to use the online resources to listen to native speakers' pronunciation.

Example 3: Wendy's Imitation of a Native Speaker

Native speaker: Touch your hand on your throat and make sure you feel the vibration.

Wendy: (Put her hand on her throat)

Native speaker: [ð], [ð], [ð]

Wendy: [ð], [ð], [ð]

Native speaker: Here is the [ð] in the beginning of the some words, then

Wendy: [ðɛn]

Native speaker: thy

Wendy: [ðaɪ]

Native speaker: Here is the [ð] in the middle, mother

Wendy: [`mʌðɚ]

In Example 3, Wendy imitated the [ð] sound and its related words from the native speaker in the YouTube video. She practiced saying *thy*, *then* and *mother*. The integration of technology into pronunciation learning can provide learners with a private and stress-free learning environment (Hişmanoğlu, 2006). Learners like Wendy can access unlimited online input from native English speakers' pronunciation and practice the pronunciation at their own pace and time..

Example 4: Irene's Practice of a Tongue Twister

Irene: I thank my three brothers.

Irene: These three teeth hurt in my mouth.

Irene: They went with their mother to the theater

Irene: There are thirteen thin women there.

Irene: Thirty-three thousand people think that Thursday is their thirtieth birthday.

Example 4 is Irene's practice of a tongue twister to practice the *th* sound in several words, which included *thank*, *three*, *brother*, *these*, *three*, *teeth*, *mouth*, *they*, *mother*, *theater*, *thirteen*, *thin*, *thirty*, *three*, *thousand*, *Thursday*, *their*, *birthday* and *thirtieth*. A tongue twister is a sentence that is difficult to pronounce quickly and correctly. It is a useful idea to use pre-existing tongue twisters

or sentences that have been invented for learners, because tongue twisters include a lot of the sounds that learners need to practice (Harmer, 2012). Production activities, such as tongue twisters, can enable learners to test their metalinguistic knowledge and strengthen their physical domains (Saito, 2011).

Figure 3 shows Mandy's notes. She had a tendency to drop the final sound, and she marked the final sounds on *popped* and *decided* for *-ed*, *except* and *set* for *t*, *drop* for *p* and *closest* for *est*.

the finest universities in the world. I never graduated from college. Truth be told, this is the clos**est** I've ever gotten to a college graduation. Today I want to tell you three stories from my life. That's it. No big deal. Just three stories.

The first story is about connecting the dots.

I dropped out of Reed College after the first 6 months, but then stay**ed** around as a drop-in for another 18 months or so before I really quit. So why did I dro**p** out?

It started before I was born. My biological mother was a young, unw**ed** college graduate student, and she decided to put me up for adoption. She fel**t** very strongly that I should be adop**ted** by college graduate**s**, so everything was all se**t** for me to be adopted at birth by a lawyer and his wife. Exce**pt** that when I popp**ed** out they decid**ed** at the last minute that they really wanted a girl. So my parents, who were on a waiting list, got a call in the middle of the night asking: "We have an unexpected baby boy; do you want him?" They said: "Of course." My biological mother later

Figure 3. Mandy's Notes

The participants also tried other strategies, including "record their pronunciation and analyze it" (n=5), "practice through minimal pairs" (n=4), "look up words in the dictionary and find the pronunciation" (n=4), "shadowing" (n=4), "practice with friends" (n=3) and "use APPs" (n=2). Only one participant tried to correct her pronunciation through singing a song, and another participant beat the rhyme to help herself pronounce the word.

Figure 4 displays Iris' recording in the Speech Analyzer of the sentence: "I asked you to buy me a bunch of red roses."
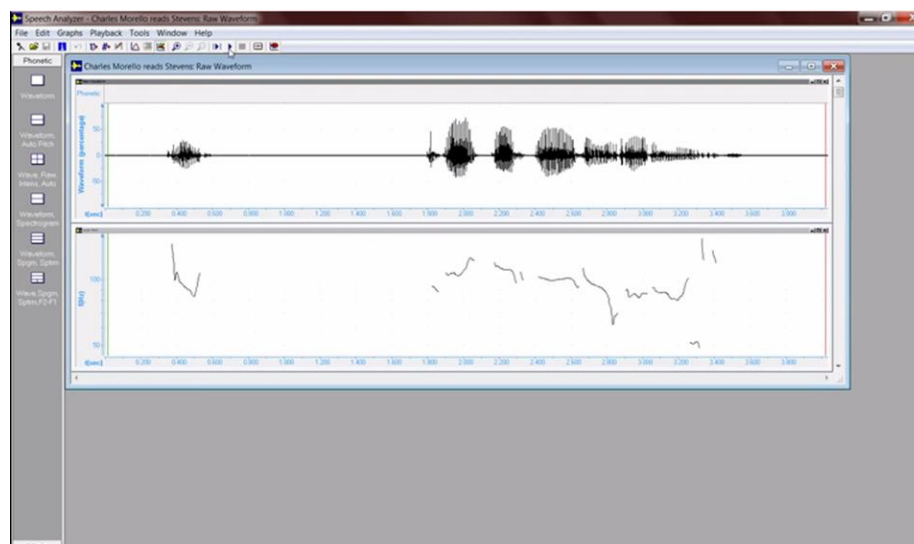
Figure 4. Iris' Recording

The integration of multimedia in pronunciation provides learners such as Iris with audiovisual feedback (as revealed in Figure 4) of the native English speakers in comparison with their own intonation patterns. Hence, multimedia and technology can help language learners to see the visual pitch displays and draw their attention to the structure of the speech and the function of intonation in communication (Ramirez Verdugo, 2006).

Figure 5 shows Yvonne's exercise using minimal pairs for *st-* and *t-*. She read words on the worksheets, such as *stool, tool* and *store, tore.*

stool	tool	steer	tear
store	tore	stair	tear
stall	tall	star	tar
stew	two	steam	team
stone	tone	stick	tick
stuck	tuck	stung	tongue

Figure 5. Yvonne's Minimal Pair Exercise

Minimal pairs, such as stool/tool and store/tore, as shown in Figure 5, are two words distinguished by a single different phoneme. However, the words in Figure 5 may not be good examples of minimal pairs. Minimal pairs are sounds that can be substituted for one another in words to cause a change in meaning, mostly in the closer place and manner of articulation, such as /θ/ contrasted with /s/ (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). However, minimal pairs can help learners only with listening to and pronouncing specific sounds. Levis and Cortes (2008) argue for contextualized minimal pairs with high frequency words for pronunciation instruction. Harmer (2012) supports Levis' and Cortes' argument, asserting: "Hearing the words in sentences…may be more helpful since they will be hearing the sounds in a natural context" (p. 66).

Figure 6 shows Helen's recording on a cellphone APP, pronouncing the phrase "Before breakfast." Her overall pronunciation was graded by this APP as 90 out of 100, and her pronunciation was 85 out of 100. While her intonation was 100, her fluency and volume were 89 and 96 out of 100, respectively. However, her pronunciation on [ə] was inaccurate. During the interview, Helen said that she practiced her speech and pronunciation through the APP again and again. Therefore, the integration of multimedia and technology into pronunciation learning can lead to autonomous pronunciation learning and can eventually improve learners' speech and

pronunciation (Hişmanoğlu, 2006).

Figure 6: Hazel's Recording on APP

With regard to the ideas for the activity designs, the participants were inspired by online resources (n=26, 55.3%), followed by the instructor and class activities (n=20, 42.6%). Jill said, "[m]y ideas came from the instructor and the activities demonstrated and practiced in class. I also got ideas from some websites, such as the BBC, YouTube videos or Rachel's English." Patty responded, "I got ideas from the instructor's activity designs. I learned that learners have to participate in activities in order to improve their pronunciation." While 14 participants got ideas from their classmates' sharing, eight participants designed the activities based on their past English learning experience. May said, "[t]he ideas on designing these activities came from my past English learning experience. I am used to drill practice." Yvonne answered, "[t]he idea of using tongue twisters for pronunciation exercises came from the last class project completed with other classmates in class."

With regard to suggestions and improvements for the activity designs, the top area that participants identified was "varieties of activities in context" (n=22), followed by "practice with peers to support each other" (n=18), "more assessment and immediate feedback from the technology" (n=13) and "appropriate APPs and resources with rich and authentic input" (n=8). Henry said, "[p]eer evaluation can be included, so my friends can help me to identify my pronunciation problems. With my friends, I can have perseverance to keep on improving my pronunciation." Mary stated, "I want to integrate more websites and APPs and try new activities, but not drills. I will not get bored in practicing pronouncing these sounds." Patty indicated, "I want

to record my sounds and have immediate feedback [from the computer]. I want to make my pronunciation exercises fun, like playing one game after another. I also want to talk with my friends so that we can help one another to identify the problems and correct them." Reflective pronunciation teaching and learning can help participants promote themselves to be self-regulated and independent learners of English pronunciation.

Baker (2014) analyzed five ESL teachers' cognitions, observed classroom practices, and their student perceptions to explore teachers' knowledge of second language pronunciation techniques. Activities dominated by these five ESL teachers and regarded as useful by their students were explanations and examples of pronunciation features, production practice, repetition drills, visual identification, and testing. Baker (2014) suggests, "The combined use of controlled activities with communicative activities can have a stronger positive impact on learner retention and automatization of grammatical structures than the use of mechanical activities or drills alone" (p. 154). Therefore, communicative tasks should be designed based on learners' linguistic level to practice particular sounds, particularly those that are not available in their mother tongue, such as /θ/ or /ð/, in case of Mandarin Chinese speaking learners (Nikbakht, 2011).

Kennedy and Blanchet (2014) claim that "learners who receive L2 perception instruction significantly improve in their perception and/or pronunciation of English" (p. 93). In order to develop language learners' autonomy over pronunciation learning and self-correction, learners can be provided with a personalized purpose for their own study and control over their own learning (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Lynch, 2001). Learners are encouraged to be engaged in their own learning process, so they can use their learning independently of their teachers by setting realistic and manageable goals and objectives on pronunciation features, trying useful communication strategies (i.e. retrieval strategies or rehearsal strategies), keeping reflective records of their pronunciation learning, or comparing their pronunciation before and after the practice (Lynch, 2001; Nikbakht, 2011; Oxford, 2000).

Attitude and Effectiveness

All of the participants had positive attitudes toward this self-correction exercise, and they regarded their activities as effective, but they needed more practice in the long run. Carol said, "[e]ffective but not efficient! After all, learning a foreign language takes time." Betty also responded during the interview, "[i]t would be more effective if I could practice for a long time." Examples 5, 6 and

7 show three participants' reflections regarding their evaluations of the effects of the activity designs on their pronunciation problems.

Example 5: Linda's Reflection

Linda: These activities can definitely help me to identify those two sounds. Because in real life, we do not have the opportunity to say the [l] sound or the [r] sound repeatedly all the time in a sentence or even in a paragraph, but we can practice through these activities.

Example 6: Shirley's Reflection

Shirley: I thought that this activity was very effective, because with those steps, from the most basics ones to the final stage, first through listening, then shadowing, reading the script itself, and finally, shadowing again, gradually helps to improve my fluency. I listened first to get a brief understanding of the speech, then I shadowed without the script for the first time to try my best to catch up with the speaker. Afterwards, I gave myself five minutes to read through the script carefully and check up on the words that I may struggle with when shadowing, before I actually do the shadowing again, without the script. This way, I gradually see my improvement in fluency, while maintaining good intonation, because the more practice I have in shadowing the same speech, the more thorough is my understanding of the speech. Indeed, the more familiar I was with the speech content, the organization of sentences and paragraphs, the different transitions used, the more fluent I became.

Example 8: Sharon's Reflection

Sharon: Practice makes perfect. I think there is no perfect method or way to improve pronunciation. The best way to improve it is to keep practicing with different strategies.

Although language teacher's correction may be faster or more effective, it fails to foster learners' independence (Ahangari, 2014). Language teachers should help learners develop strategies that allow them to self-correct (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Self-correcting pronunciation learning and teaching should be emphasized. Learners can use multimedia resources and online activities to record, practice and examine their pronunciation. Such self-correcting, self-monitoring and reflective practice can lead to better pronunciation learners (Hişmanoğlu, 2006). Kennedy et al (2014) recommend that digital media can help language learners to be exposed to target language, so learners can develop their pronunciation awareness by thinking about what they have learned or could learn about the pronunciation features.

Implications

This study analyzed 47 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' self-correction of errors and strategies for pronunciation. This study includes the following major findings. First, the top two pronunciation problems that the participants identified were those of stress and linking. The participants focused more on suprasegmental features "stress" and "linking," rather than individual and segmental sounds. They identified these problems based on their past English learning experience, particularly their oral presentation and speech. Second, the most popular self-correction techniques the participants employed were "watch the online pronunciation lessons" and "read aloud and practice the sound." The participants relied on multimedia to learn knowledge of specific pronunciation features. The participants also believed that "practice makes perfect," so they improved their pronunciation by mimicking the pronunciation of native English speakers and pronouncing the sounds and words again and again. The sources of their activity designs were online resources, the instructor and class activities. Third, the participants regarded their activities as effective, but they wanted to continue practicing for better pronunciation. For better self-correction strategies and activities, they would like to include a variety of communicative tasks, learning with and correction by peers, immediate feedback and appropriate multimedia.

To help learners to effectively self-correct their pronunciation problems, based on the findings from the data analysis and research studies (i.e. Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Vitanova & Miller, 2002), several elements should be included, as shown in Figure 7. First, learners need to understand the phonological concepts so they can first perceive them accurately. Second, learners need to be exposed to rich and authentic input, particularly from native English speakers, so they will be able to mimic it accurately and produce comprehensible output. Third, communicative tasks should be designed by learners to help themselves practice their pronunciation of sounds, and these communicative tasks and activities should be designed based on practicality, possibility and particularity. Next, learners can improve their pronunciation by practicing with their peers, and peers can provide them with constructive feedback on their pronunciation problems. Finally, in addition to peers, multimedia and technology can be integrated into self-correction, and such integration can provide learners with immediate feedback through visual and audio displays.
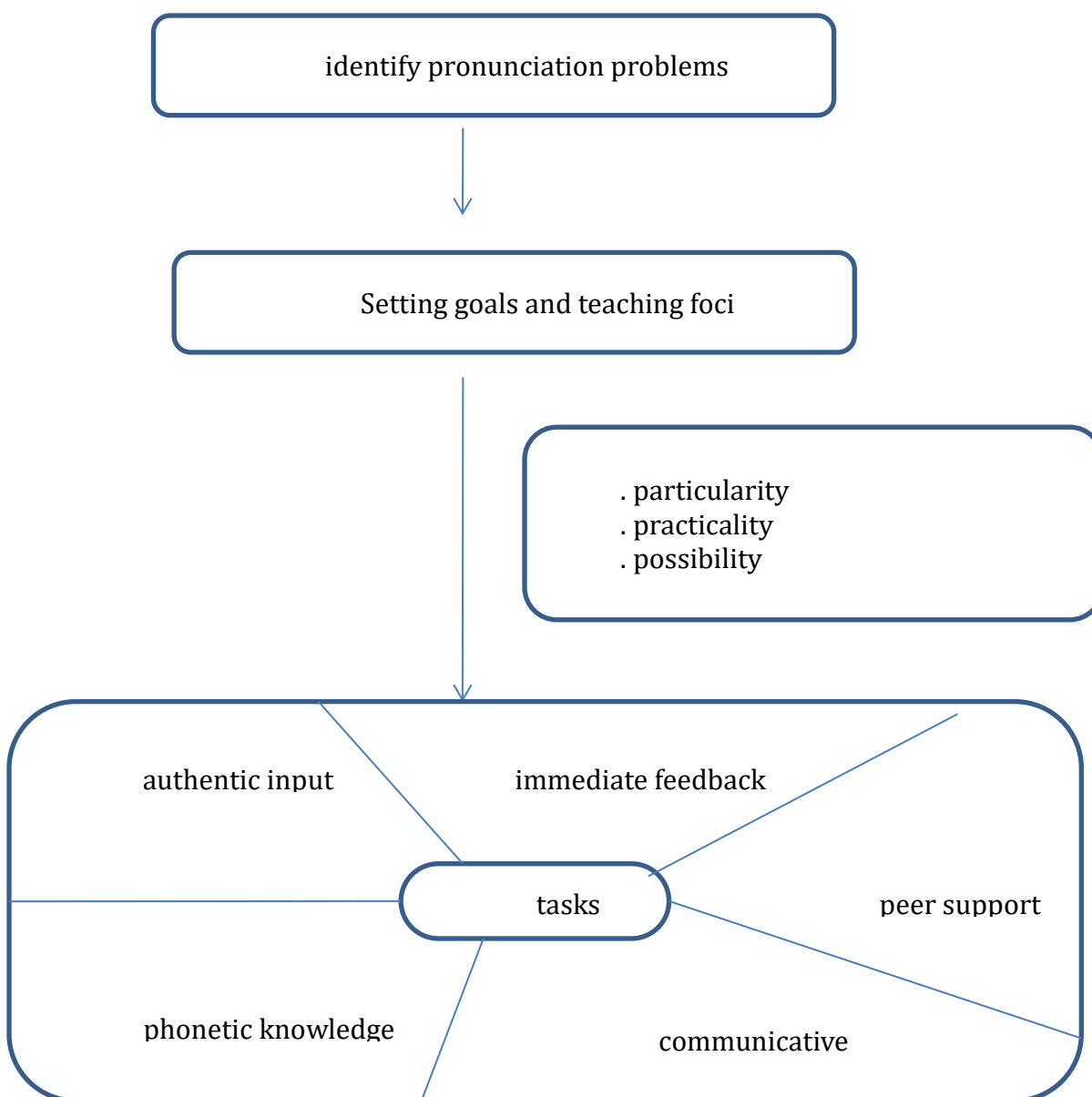
Figure 7. Elements for Effective Self-Correction on Pronunciation Problems

The diagram boxes contain:
- identify pronunciation problems
- Setting goals and teaching foci
- . particularity / . practicality / . possibility
- authentic input, immediate feedback, tasks, peer support, phonetic knowledge, communicative

Inclusion of Phonetic Knowledge

Although different kinds of phonetic knowledge such as features of pronunciation, physiology of pronunciation, articulation of vowels, manner of consonant articulation, place of consonant articulation, etc were introduced and reviewed in English Pronunciation Instruction class, only 11.9% of participants (n=5) used phonetic terms in their class projects, such as the *th* sound for "voiced and voiceless fricative dental" or *st* or *sp* for consonant clusters. The majority of the participants in this study majored in English Instruction, and they have the potential to become

English teachers in the future. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (2002) mandates that language teachers must understand the rules of the sound system of the target language, describe the articulation and phonological features of the target language, and diagnose their own and learners' pronunciation problems. In order to perceive the pronunciation features accurately, they must be equipped with phonetic knowledge and be aware of the phonological features and patterns of the target language, target language sound/spelling relationships, segmental and suprasegmental features, and dialectal variation (Morin, 2007; Vitanova & Miller, 2002). The phonetic knowledge can help them extract linguistic information of sounds and establish phonetic categories effectively (Saito, 2015).

Provision of Rich and Authentic Input

The participants' activity designs and interview data reveal that some of the participants in this study listened to native speakers' pronunciation online and mimicked their pronunciation. Native speakers are perceived by language learners to have a standard accent and pronunciation (Kelch & Santa-Williamson, 2002). EFL learners tend to have preferences for native speakers' accents and regard them as models to which they should aspire for (Sifakis, 2014; Timmis, 2002). Learners should receive a balance of description and demonstration of the pronunciation features that are appropriate for their English proficiency levels, so they will be able to pronounce the specific pronunciation points (Firth, 1992). However, exposure to native speakers' input may be an unrealistic goal in the EFL context. Therefore, the integration of technology and multimedia into pronunciation learning and teaching can provide learners with access to unlimited and authentic target language input (Le & Brook, 2011; Neri, Cucchiarini, & Strik, 2002; Seferoğlu, 2005). Learners can repeat pronunciation points simultaneously with native English speakers and imitate their gestures and facial expressions (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996).

Design of Communicative Tasks

Activities on pronunciation should not be limited solely to drill practice. In addition to the drill practice employed by Kevin, Firth (1992) suggested that learners should be given appropriate, different and adequate opportunities to practice the pronunciation focus so that they will be able to reach the appropriate target pronunciation. Therefore, various pronunciation instructional techniques and activities should be designed to help learners to develop effective target language

pronunciation (Hişmanoğlu, 2006). Learners with musical intelligence can try a song or use musical notation. Learners with visual intelligence can use wall charts on pronunciation features or a mirror to practice pronunciation.

The activities should have practicality, possibility and particularity. Learners should be engaged in a meaningful interchange of language beyond the word and sentence level. The tasks and activities should help to develop learners' strategies for pronunciation self-correction (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Seferoğlu, 2005). Communicative tasks such as information-gap or fluency square activities can help develop language learners' comprehensible pronunciation through exchanging information and monitoring their use of target language and pronunciation feature (Baker, 2014). Therefore, communicative tasks for learners should be designed to "help them to build automaticity and carryover" (Parker, 2000, p. 24). So language learners can naturally uptake and use the target features of pronunciation through these communicative tasks and activities (Saito & Lyster, 2012).

Support from and Learning with Peers

The participants in this study desired to have support from and learning with their classmates or peers in their pronunciation learning and correction. Learners may receive supportive and accurate feedback from their peers (Firth, 1992). Peer-mediated repeated oral reading interventions improved students' levels of reading, pronunciation and fluency (Tost, 2013). Peer responses and correction encourage cooperation and improve the learners' pronunciation (Ahangari, 2014; Tost, 2013), because peer correction of pronunciation fosters cooperation, which involves learners in working on, analyzing and discussing their pronunciation errors. Such learning takes place through social interactions and under collaborative learning environments (Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Vygotsky, 1978). Through engaging in communicative tasks with social and cooperative strategies, learners can scaffold one another's cognitive and linguistic development, improve their pronunciation, and develop their communication skills for the target language use situations (Lynch, 2001).

Although peer support and correction can foster language learners' autonomy in language learning (Ahangari, 2014; Sultana, 2009), language teachers must be cautious about the practice of peer correction in pronunciation teaching. Some learners may have difficulties in identifying their peers' pronunciation problems and it may lead their doubts about the validity and value of their

peers' comments and corrections (Ahangari, 2014; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Sultana, 2009). Teachers can use the guideline such as Avery and Ehrlich's (1992) "Different Categorizes of the Diagnostic Profile" and "Student Diagnostic Profiles" to train learners to be competent in peer correction.

Immediate Feedback Offered by Multimedia

Corrective feedback on pronunciation with explicit information can help learners be aware of the phonetic units of the target language input (Lyster et al, 2013). A few participants in this study used online resources or applications to record their pronunciation and receive feedback. The provision of learners with instant feedback can make pronunciation instruction more effective (Lee, Jang, & Plonsky, 2014). Multimedia and technology can provide learners with feedback automatically and instantaneously (Le & Brook, 2011; Neri et al, 2002). However, Lee et al (2014) warned that pronunciation instruction with the integration of technology yields smaller effects than solely provided by human, because technology without adaptability and perceptual accuracy fail to provide appropriate feedback. Learners can record their speech through *Praat*, and then, *Praat* can help learners with knowledge about articulatory phonetic to distinguish the visual patterns of their own speech in comparison to the target pronunciation (Bret, 2004; Le & Brook, 2011; Li, 2004; Wilson, 2008).

Conclusion

This study analyzed 47 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' interviews, projects and videos regarding their self-correction strategies for pronunciation problems. This study concluded that the major pronunciation problems that the participants recognized were suprasegmental including linking and stress. Second, the participants relied on multimedia to acquire knowledge of pronunciation features and engage in drill practices, such as mimic and read aloud. Five suggestions are provided for better language learners' self-correction strategies in pronunciation: rich and authentic input, immediate feedback, support from and learning with peers, designs of communicative tasks and the inclusion of phonetic knowledge.

This study has limitations. First, the sample was very small and this study focused only on 47 independent and motivated participants in one course. Secondly, the gender-skewed sample was another limitation. The majority of the participants were from the English Instruction majors and

they were female. The applicability of the findings results from the quality of the design and methodology of this study. In order to attain transferability, the triangulation of the data (activity designs, interview, videos) were collected, analyzed, and reported with sufficient precision.

This study is significant for its pedagogical implications. The activities designed by the participants and the suggestions for the effective self-correction of pronunciation problems offer pedagogical implications for pronunciation instruction and learning. First, learners can be trained to have self-consciousness when listening to their own speech and identify their pronunciation problems. Second, learners can become aware of the pronunciation features and the value of self-correction strategies. Third, learners can evaluate their oral speech and activities through self-reflection. Learners' English proficiency levels, the task (activity designs on self-correction), and the training may affect learners' expectations and needs on the instructor's feedback on their pronunciation (Hedgcock, 2005).

The learning and improvement of pronunciation may require a long time to become apparent (Derwing, Munro, & Thompson, 2008). Further study can address how learners' self-correction activities can lead to greater accuracy in the long term. Moreover, learners' progress in pronunciation should be checked more frequently and through a variety of tasks. Formative assessments should be designed to discuss whether certain self-correction activities have a significant effect on improvements in the learners' pronunciation.

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Appendix I
Interview Protocol

1. Why did you choose this specific pronunciation problem or error?

2. Explain your rationale on designing the instructional strategies/activities.

3. How did you get the ideas on these instructional strategies/activities (i.e. textbook, class activities, classmates, the instructor, additional reading, online resources)

4. What were the strengths and weaknesses of your instructional strategies/activities?

5. What would you do differently for the future lesson?

6. To what extent did you think these activities as effective in correcting your pronunciation problems?

Effects of Implementing a Learning Together Method (LTM) on Social Skills

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Bio data

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Abstract

The target of this research was to examine whether or not the effects of implementing the LTM improved eleventh graders' social skills in relation to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills. The quasi-experimental research was employed and the sample population was taken from two sections of eleventh grade at Yekatit 12 Preparatory School in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The LTM was implemented in the experimental group after the students had been made to have awareness about it. However, the control group participants were taught their lessons through the same method in which the elements and theoretical perspectives of the LTM were not appropriately practiced. Data were collected through questionnaire. Dependent t-tests were employed to test whether or not there were significant intra-group differences in social skills at 0.05 alpha level while independent samples t-tests were used to check if there were significant inter-group differences in the self-made social skills questionnaire at 0.05 alpha levels. The analyses of social skills pre-questionnaire of the inter-groups showed that both groups had similar backgrounds in practicing social skills at the initial stage of this research. Nevertheless, after the treatments had been given to the experimental research participants, the analyses of the data indicated that the experimental group outscored significantly (p<0.05) the control group on social skills post-questionnaire whose reliability was .82. This shows that the appropriate implementation of the LTM

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based on social interdependence, motivational and cognitive perspectives, and the elements of the method, i.e. positive interdependence, face-to-face interactions, individual and group accountability, collaborative skills and group processing brought about changes on the experimental group. Therefore, the major findings of this study reveal that the LTM enabled the research participants in the experimental group to show improvements in social skills.

Keywords: learning together method, social skills, theoretical perspectives

Introduction

Long and Porter (1985) as quoted in Berhanu (2000) argued that one of the main reasons for students' low English language achievements is that a teacher sets the same instructional pace and content for everyone by explaining a grammatical point, leading drill work, or asking the whole class oral questions. Moreover, Chekering and Gamson (1987) as cited in Bonewell (2000) said that learning is not a spectator sport, i.e. students do not learn much just by sitting in class, listening to teachers, memorizing pre-packaged assignments and talking out answers. In contrast to this, when they are actively involved in their groups, they talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences, and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves. To this end, Peter and Daniel (2002) stressed the significance of teaching students through the LTM.

Meyers and Jones (1993) explained that the LTM could provide students with opportunities for meaningfully talk and listen, write, read, and reflect on the content, ideas, issues, and concerns of an academic subject since the method, with regard to Johnson and Johnson (1978) as cited in Kirk (2005), is based on positive interdependence, face-to-face interactions, individual and group accountability, collaborative skills and group processing.

For the success of any LTM, Johnson, Johnson and Holubec (1993) argued that the five essential elements of the LTM, which have been stated above, have to be included in each lesson. The writers remarked that when all the elements are appropriately implemented in the teaching-learning process, the outcome is learning together. Thus, when the LTM is implemented, the experimental group participants' social skills in English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL) class in terms of communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution may be improved better.

Recent studies in the field of language teaching emphasize the importance of the learning

process and the central role of the students (Leila, 2010). The learning process and the central role of the students could be realized when students are able to engage in the LTM in Ethiopian schools (Abiy, 2015). Hence, Stevahn and King (2005) argued that by using the LTM, students learn better and develop a greater understanding of others with diverse social needs.

Despite the importance of the LTM, implementing it has been a challenge that many teachers find it difficult to accomplish (Cohen, 1994). A case in point in Ethiopia occurs because teachers do not often have a clear understanding about the method and how they can translate this method into practical classroom applications (Abiy, 2015).

Ambaye (1999) found that many teachers in Ethiopia lack the critical determinations of effective teaching; that is, they lack the pedagogical content knowledge and motivation although they are in the front line of education reform programmes. Ambaye further explained that teachers in the current training institutes of Ethiopia predominantly use traditional teaching methods that they are familiar to them perhaps even the ones that they themselves experienced when they were students at schools.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) also contended that traditional learning method that does not focus on the learning process and the central role of the students fosters competition rather than social skills. In this kind of method, Cuban (1983) stressed that 70% of the time is being talked by the teacher while the students are sitting and listening to their teacher passively without talking or engaging with their classmates. This might, according to Rutherford and Stuart (1978), result in students' attention decrease as lectures progress.

Marshal (1990) as cited in ICDR (1999) raised educational problems in Ethiopia by saying that teachers use only a small number of techniques, typically teachers' talk, question and answer and textbook assignments. Moreover, the students were heard when they complained about the LTM. They claimed that they are grouped to use it since the beginning of the academic year. Though this is a good initiation, the method is not always implemented in the teaching-learning process. Instead, the teachers ordered them to use it mainly for assignment purpose. However, the assignments that are supposed to be treated through the method are most of the time done by better students and the rest members put their names on the paper.

Definitions of the LTM

As to the definition of the LTM, Dutsch has the following to say:

> Cooperation is working together to accomplish shared goals and LTM is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and one another's learning. Within the LTM, students are given two responsibilities: to learn the assigned material and to make sure that all other members of the group do likewise. Thus, a student seeks an outcome that is beneficial to him/her and beneficial to all other group members. Dutsch (1962) in Brubacher, et al (1990: 69)

Moreover, Argyle (1991) as quoted in McConnell (1994:12) defined LTM by saying, "It is acting together in a coordinated way at work or in social relationships, in the pursuit of shared goals, the enjoyment of joint activity, or simply furthering the relationships".

The intent of the definitions given above is that learning together is a method in which students with different levels of abilities, attitudes, and backgrounds are active agents in the process of learning through small group structures so that they help each other maximize their own and one another's understanding of a subject. In this study, the researcher wanted to examine if the implementation of the LTM deemphasized competitive and individualistic learning rather than cooperation which encourages the experimental group research participants to work together and become successful in exercising social skills as a team in their class.

Rationales for Using the LTM in the EFL/ESL Classroom

Creemers (1994) and Moffet (1996) explained that the LTMenables students from a pluralistic society to overcome their prejudices against others from different backgrounds such as culture, learning style, religion, etc. In other words, the method provides students with opportunities to enhance inter-ethnic relations and learn to appreciate differences as their focus of attention is getting immersed when they learn their lessons with this method in EFL/ESL classrooms.

Slavin (1991), and Stahl and VanSickle (1992) argued that students found in very diverse school settings taught a wide range of social skills after completing the tasks treated through the LTM. Reticent students also get an opportunity to make new friends and familiarize different activities more easily through this method. Stenlev (2003) pointed out the positive effect of the LTM by saying that it is a democratic form of learning, i.e. every single student is required in many

different contexts to adopt an attitude and explain his or her own point of view. Stenlev further explained that students learn social skills like to listen to and respect each other, and every one can feel that they are at the centre at the same time. So, according to her, it is an excellent way of conducting communicative language teaching (CLT).

LTM versus Competitive and Individualistic Learning

Students' learning goals can be structured to promote LTM, competitive or individualistic efforts. Competitive learning situations are ones in which students work against one another to achieve a goal that only one or a few can attain, whereas in individualistic learning situations, the students work alone to accomplish goals unrelated to classmates, i.e. the students' goal achievements are independent. The result is to focus on self-interest and personal success, and ignore as irrelevant the successes and failures of others (Ames & Ames, 1985; Burden & Williams, 1997).

In contrast to individualistic and competitive learning situations raised above, Johnson and Johnson (1987) explained that the LTM, competitive and individualistic learning methods are important and should be used, but the dominant goal structure in any class should be the LTM because competitive and individualistic learning are primarily effective when they are used within a context of LTM.

Thus, the LTM which can be created by structuring positive interdependence among learners leads to outcomes. Brubacher, et.al (1990: 72) described, "Higher achievement, more positive relationship among individuals, greater social support, and higher self-esteem are the outcomes that seem more important than the many outcomes affected by the LTM." The listed outcomes are also illustrated in the figure given in the next section.
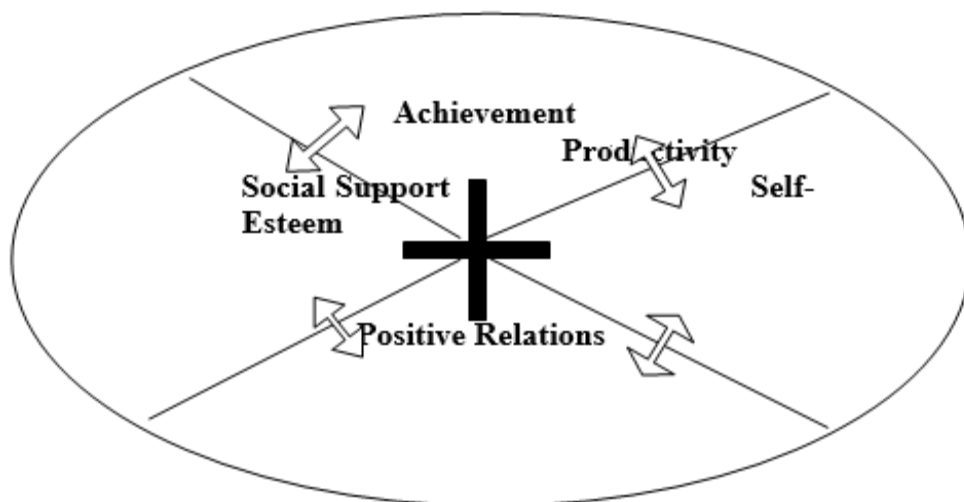
Outcomes of the LTM (adapted from Brubacher, et.al, 1990:72)

To put in a nutshell, students who are beneficiaries of the illustrated social skills in an EFL/ESL class help one another during the process of drafting, planning, translating, and reviewing their lessons together. In such class activities, team members try to make sure that each member has mastered the assigned task because the teacher randomly asks them to answer for the team. This kind of learning serves to harness competition for further cooperation amongst members of the teams.

The LTM in the Ethiopian Context

An endeavour has been made to realize the idea of the LTM in the Ethiopian schools since the new education and training policy (NETP) was effective as of 1994. Understanding the significance of English in empowering the quality of Ethiopian human power, the government of Ethiopia decided English to be one of the compulsory subjects for primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. Teaching English is directed to mastery of the four language skills namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing along with vocabulary and grammar. English is the medium of instruction for secondary and higher education, and it is also taught as a subject starting from grade one (Ministry of Education, 1994).

To this end, the NETP stressed the necessity to make use of appropriate method of teaching English which may help students communicate effectively. On the basis of this notion, English for Ethiopia Grade Eleven Teacher Guide indicates that if students work in pairs or small groups, they will learn together through cooperation and thereby express their thoughts more unreservedly than

when they respond individually to their teacher's questions. In other words, they can become active participants in the lessons instead of being passive listeners to other students' answers to the teacher's questions (Ministry of Education, 2003).

The Ministry of Education has employed English for Ethiopia textbooks in place of the old ones, i.e. English for new Ethiopia textbooks since 1996. The new English textbook is more student-centred than its predecessor. In this book, every attempt has been done to engage the students in meaningful and practical communicative activities which are conducted in pairs or small groups. In this way, the amount of time that each student spends on exercising the language is significantly increased when compared with the old English textbooks (Seid, 2012). As the new grade eleven English textbook integrates macro and micro skills, ELT teachers have commenced to practice the principles of the LTM.

Thus, it is possible to say that there has been an attempt to practice the LTM in the EFL classrooms at preparatory schools in Ethiopia. Nonetheless, there might not be research works that have shown the actual effects of implementing the LTM whether or not it fostered the social skills of eleventh graders at preparatory school level where this research was intended to be conducted.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this research was to examine whether or not an appropriate implementation of the LTM in line with the literature could improve the experimental group participants' social skills, i.e. communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution.

Hypotheses of the Study

Based on the research objective, the following hypotheses were devised:

Ho: There is no a significant difference between the mean scores of the inter-groups on social skills post-questionnaire with regard to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution.

Ha: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of the inter-groups on social skills post-questionnaire with regard to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution.

Methodology

Participants

In Yekatit 12 Preparatory School, in the 2014 academic year, there were six EFL teachers teaching eleventh graders in 18 different sections. Of these teachers, one was selected through simple random sampling and invited to participate in the research. The teacher taught two sections of eleventh graders and the participants in the two sections were given a social skill pre-questionnaire. Out of the 86 students in the selected sections, only 78 students responded appropriately to the social skill pre-questionnaire and thus only these were put into the experimental and control groups (39in each group). The experiment was carried out with the agreement of the classroom teacher, students, and the school directors.

To measure the participants' skills in social skills in terms of communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution, the results from the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire were compared. The effect size was measured using Cohen's d index of effect size formula to see how strong the relationship between the variables was (Cohen, 1988). Coe (2002) and Elis (2010) showed that the difference between two groups is calculated by subtracting the mean of one group from the other (M1-M2) and dividing the result by the standard deviation of the population from which the groups were sampled. Cohen (1988) showed the degrees of effect sizes as 0 - 0.20 = weak, 0.21 - 0.50 = modest, 0.51 - 1.00= moderate and > 1.00 = strong. The results and analyses of the questionnaire are provided in the next section.

Tasks and Materials

For the Teacher

The teacher that taught the selected sections was offered training on the LTM as his awareness of the method might have an influence on the results of the quasi-experimental research. The teacher was provided training for a week prior to the intervention with the definition of the LTM, elements of the LTM, the necessity of teaching social skills, teachers' and students' roles in an EFL class, kinds of the LTM, and the benefits and drawbacks of the LTM. The researcher gave training on the basis of his own knowledge of the LTM from the literature and experiences in teaching EFL classes. For the training, the researcher referred to the following books: What is Cooperative Learning? by Johnson and Johnson (1990);Cooperative Learning: The social and Intellectual Outcomes of Learning in Groups by Gillies and Ashman (2003) and Enhancing Social Skills through

Cooperative Learning by Booysen and Grosser (2008).

For the Students

Questionnaire as data gathering instrument is popular in many fields including communication, education, psychology and sociology. In this regard, Dornyei (2007) stated its popularity by saying that it is relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily accessible. Based on this, the researcher prepared the social skills questionnaire by adapting Booysen and Grosser's (2008) social skills in order to examine the research participants' communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills while learning English lessons through the LTM.

The aim of the social skills questionnaire was to gauge the experimental group research participants' social skills in their EFL classrooms. It comprised thirty-two items categorized into communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills. The items of the social skills questionnaire were given in a five-point likert scale and the research participants were asked to opt for "Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often or Always" on the basis of their own judgment as to how they exhibited the social skills listed in the questionnaire. The scores were calculated by adding each student's responses for each social skills item: 1 point for 'Never', 2 points for 'Rarely', 3 points for 'Sometimes', 4 points for 'Often', and 5 points for 'Always'.

The individual items of the social skills questionnaire were added to calculate an overall score for the dependent variables. That is to say, the scores for the items addressing the same target were summed up. Then, the data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics by comparing the results of the pre-post-questionnaire. To determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the inter- and intra-groups, an alpha level of 0.05 and null-hypothesis were used for analyses as the hypothesis was non directional. The descriptive statistics included means, standard deviations, and standard error means. On the other hand, the inferential statistics consisted of t-values, degrees of freedom and p-values.

The reliability of the social skills questionnaire was computed using the split-half (odd-even) method. As a result, the coefficient alpha reliability for the social skills pre-post-questionnaire was .82. The alpha .82 points out that the questionnaire had rationally internal consistency. This is adequate as George and Mallery (2003) suggest that a correlation of 0.7 is acceptable as it indicates approximately 50 percent agreement between the two sets of scores. Thus, the result indicates that

the social skills questionnaire could be administered to the main study.

Findings

Table 1
Independent Samples T-Test Results of the Control and Experimental Groups on Social Skills before Intervention (No=78)

Social Skills	Groups	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communication	Control	27.23	3.48	.562	-.513	76	.610*
	Experimental	27.44	3.19	.497			
Leadership	Control	26.08	4.91	.786	-.097	76	.923*
	Experimental	26.95	4.42	.707			
Group Management	Control	27.03	2.90	.464	-1.796	76	.076*
	Experimental	25.87	3.39	.543			
Conflict Resolution	Control	26.87	4.39	.703	-.227	76	.821*
	Experimental	27.49	2.75	.440			

*$p > 0.05$

Table 1 depicts the mean scores obtained by the control and experimental groups on social skills pre-questionnaire with regard to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills. As can be seen from the table, the mean scores of the control and experimental groups on the social skills pre-questionnaire in line with communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills are similar. The mean scores of the control group's communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills are 27.31, 26.23, 26.03 and 26.87 respectively whereas the mean scores of the experimental group's communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills are 27.69, 26.33, 27.31and 27.10 respectively.

As indicated in the table given above, there are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the control and experimental groups on social skills pre-questionnaire in connection with communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution at 0.05 alpha level. The statistics (t= -.513, df=76, p=.610; t=-.097, df=76, p=.923; t=-1.796, df=76, p=.076 and t=-.227, df=76, p=.821) depict that the two groups have similar social skills at the initial stage

of this research. The effect sizes of the skills listed above are also 0.12, 0.02, 0.40 and 0.06 respectively which reveal that the differences in the mean scores of the inter-groups in achieving their English lessons are insignificant. Thus, it is possible to conclude that both have similar backgrounds in using assorted social skills at the beginning of this research.

Table 2
Independent Samples T-Test Results of the Control and Experimental Groups on Social Skills Post-Intervention (No =78)

Social Skills	Groups	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communication	Control	27.26	3.16	.506	-3.855	76	.000*
	Experimental	30.80	4.58	.734			
Leadership	Control	26.95	2.90	.465	-3.216	76	.002*
	Experimental	29.15	3.15	.504			
Group Management	Control	26.41	2.17	.348	-5.791	76	.000*
	Experimental	30.08	3.30	.529			
Conflict Resolution	Control	26.92	3.45	.553	-3.559	76	.000*
	Experimental	29.49	2.85	.456			

*$p < 0.05$

Table 2 shows the comparison of the mean scores of the control and experimental groups on social skills post-questionnaire with regard to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills. The mean scores of the control group's social skills post-questionnaire in terms of the components listed above are 27.36, 26.95, 26.41 and 26.92, respectively whereas the mean scores of that of the experimental group are 30.80, 29.15, 30.08 and 29.49 respectively.

According to the table given above, the mean scores of the experimental group are higher than that of the control group in each component of social skills post-questionnaire results. The data given in table 2above, i.e. t=-3.855, df=76, p=.000; t=-3.216, df=76, p=.002; t=-5.791, df=76, p=.000, and t=-3.559, df=76, p=.000 represent communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills respectively. The results show that there are statistically significant differences between the mean gain scores of the control and experimental groups on social skills post-questionnaire in terms of each component mentioned above at 0.05 alpha level supporting the latter. In addition, the effect sizes for the listed components of social skills are 0.91, 0.73, 1.34 and 0.81 respectively which indicate that the differences between the two groups in performing social

skills were moderate and strong. Thus, it could be concluded that the experimental group showed a better performance than the control group on social skills post-questionnaire results. This improvement might show because of the implementation of the LTM which was based on the literature in the experimental group's social skills activities.

Table 3
Paired Samples T-Test Results of the Control Group on Pre-Post-Social Skills Questionnaire (N=39)

Social Skills	Tests	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communication	Pre	27.31	3.51	.562	-.075	37	.941*
	Post	27.36	3.16	.506			
Leadership	Pre	26.23	4.91	.786	-.772	37	.445*
	Post	26.95	2.90	.465			
Group Management	Pre	26.03	2.90	.464	.663	37	.512*
	Post	26.41	2.17	.348			
Conflict Resolution	Pre	26.87	4.39	.703	-.177	37	.860*
	Post	26.92	3.45	.553			

*$p > 0.05$

Table 3 reveals the mean scores obtained by the control group research participants on social skills pre-post-questionnaire in terms of communication, leadership, group management, and conflict resolution skills. The mean scores of pre-communication, leadership, group management, and conflict resolution skills are 27.31, 26.23, 26.03 and 26.87 respectively while the mean scores of post-communication, leadership, group management, and conflict resolution skills are 27.36, 26.95, 26.41 and 26.92 respectively. The figures indicate that the control group research participants got almost similar mean scores on the social skills pre-post-questionnaire.

The table given above also depicts a comparison of the mean scores obtained by the control group research participants on social skills pre-post-questionnaire. According to the table, the results (t=-.075, df=38 p=.941; t=-.772, dt=38, p=.445; t=.663, df=38, p=.512 and t=-.177, df=38, p=.860) show that there are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the control group on social skills pre-post questionnaire concerning communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution scores at 0.05 alpha level. The effect sizes for the components of social skills mentioned above are 0.01, 0.18, 0.15 and 0.10 respectively. These indicate that the control group brought trivial changes in performing the said social skills on pre-post-questionnaire.

Table 4
Paired Samples T-Test Results of the Experimental Group on Pre-Post-Social Skills
Questionnaire (N=39)

Social Skills	Tests		Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed
Communication	Pre		27.69	3.11	.497	-3.884	37	.000*
	Post		30.80	4.59	.734			
Leadership	Pre		26.33	4.42	.707	-3.225	37	.003*
	Post		29.15	3.15	.504			
Group Management	Pre		27.31	3.39	.543	-4.811	37	.000*
	Post		30.08	3.30	.529			
Conflict Resolution	Pre		27.10	4.59	.736	-2.787	37	.008*
	Post		29.49	2.85	.456			

*$p < 0.05$

Table 4 unveils the mean scores of the experimental group on social skills pre-post questionnaires. On the basis of the table, the mean scores of the social skills pre-questionnaire in relation to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution scores are 27.69, 26.33, 27.31 and 27.10 respectively whereas the mean scores of that of the social skills post-questionnaire are 30.80, 29.15, 30.08 and 29.49 respectively. From the data, it could be seen that the mean scores of the social skills post-questionnaire are higher than the mean scores of the social skills pre-questionnaire.

Furthermore, the paired samples t-test for equality of means (t= -3.884, df=38, p =.000; t= -3.225, df=38, p=003; t=-4.811, df=38, p=000 and t=-2.787, df=38, p=.008) discloses that there are statistically significant differences between the social skills pre-post-questionnaire at 0.05 alpha level on communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills respectively. The effect sizes of each component of the listed social skills are also 0.80, 0.75, 0.83 and 0.65 which show the presence of moderate differences in performing social skills pre-post-questionnaire. The experimental group participants almost showed the said social skills after the intervention. Hence, the differences might be attributed to the effects of implementing the LTM that enabled the experimental group research participants to mitigate communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution social skills

Discussion

As it has been discussed in table 2, the research participants in the experimental group

increased significantly their social skills while learning English lessons through the LTM, such outcomes were in favour of the literature contending the efficacy of the LTM in mitigating the students' social skills (Johnson and Johnson, 1990).

In the inter-group comparison, the experimental group gained significant differences with regard to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills (See Tables 2). Consequently, the null hypothesis that was already stated as there is no significant difference between the mean gain scores of the experimental and control groups on social skills post-questionnaire in terms of communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills was repudiated. This finding is in harmony with the study by Johnson and Johnson (1990) who claimed that students do not know instinctively how to interact effectively with others. Nor do interpersonal and groupsocial skills magically appear when they are needed. So, students should be taught social skills and motivated to use them. Thus, the LTM used in the experimental group seemed to offer the research participants the opportunity to exercise the different social skills while learning their English lessons in teams. That is why the research participants in the experimental group outperformed the research participants in the control group in displaying almost all social skills during the interventions.

The inter- and intra-group analyses of the social skills questionnaire results (see Table 2 and 4 respectively) revealed that the experimental group practiced social skills based on the elements and other basic essences of the LTM discussed in the literature. Furthermore, the results of social skills questionnaire can be interpreted from motivational and social interdependence theorists. In this regard, Slavin (1995) and Lewin (1948) argued that the LTM encourages students to make their classmates succeed contrary to competitive and individualistic learning methods.

The experimental group research participants outperformed the control group research participants in social skills since they were made to involve in supportive EFL classroom environment in which team members were offered academic supports that helped them keep on doing academic tasks. In addition, the implementation of the LTM enabled them to discuss, argue, present and listen to one another's notions in the process of accomplishing shared tasks into practice. In this manner, the LTM could avail the experimental group research participants familiar with social skills like communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills.

Conclusions

Based on the statistical analyses and descriptions of the findings of this study, the following conclusions are made in line with the research hypotheses of the study.

The social skills questionnaire results analysed through independent samples t-tests indicate that the experimental group significantly surpassed the control group. This occurred because the research participants in the experimental group were made to practice social skills through the LTM in which the elements of the method and its theoretical framework were incorporated. So, the experimental group participants were observed when they interacted frequently based on social skills that they had been taught while learning English lessons.

In other words, the social theorists like Vygotsky (1978) suggested that when students learn English lessons cooperatively using methods the LTM, they can operate within one another's zone of proximal development (ZPD). Cooperative goal structure motivates individual members achieve their respective goals. This kind of learning among the research participants in the experimental group would help them get social skills that are important in their classrooms and daily lives.

Thus, the null hypothesis, 'there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on social skills post-questionnaire regarding communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills' was discarded as the difference between the mean scores of the inter-groups was significant at 0.05 alpha level.

The experimental group significantly exceeded the control group on social skills post-questionnaire. On the basis of this finding, it is possible to conclude that the experimental group participants who had been taught the prerequisite social skills which encompass communicating, leadership, group management and conflict resolution could minimize problems in interpersonal relationships. This would enable them to be better than the control group research participants in social skills.

Thus, the null hypothesis that was stated as there is no statistically significant difference between the mean gain scores of the experimental and control groups on social skills post-questionnaire with regard to communication, leadership, group management and conflict resolution skills was repudiated as the difference between the mean gain scores of the inter-groups was significant at 0.05 alpha level.

On the whole, the LTM which was implemented in line with the literature has given opportunities to the experimental group research participants to review what they learn together,

i.e. peer criticism aids students sharpen their knowledge about their lessons. It also provides the students with the chance of evaluating their own work, demonstrating more confidence and decreasing their apprehensions towards learning different skills.

Implications for Implementation

The implication here is that to learn and use the LTM, it is relevant to create the opportunity for teachers to get the access to training on issues such as the theory and concept of LTM, elements of the LTM, roles of students and teachers in the LTM, etc. In addition, to enhance the effective implementation of the LTM, teachers should get the opportunity to work together and learn from one another. "Two heads are better than one," (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

The findings of the present study further show that the LTM helps students improve their social skills performance. Especially, in the course of learning together, students should be taught some social skills explicitly and be reminded to practice these social skills regularly. The present researcher would like to recommend that it is necessary to acquaint teachers with LTM. To do so, the results of this study could be disseminated to EFL teachers at preparatory school level to convince them to use the LTM for academic achievement and social skills performance of their students.

Implication for Further Research

In this study, the LTM was used in the experimental group to see its effect on students' social skills performance. However, there are of course many other outcomes that are in need further research. Moreover, the researcher did not examine the effects of other types learning methods on students learning. In future research, it would be interesting to focus on comparison between the effects of different models of learning on students' receptive/productive skills performance/ on students' intergroup relations. For instance, comparing Students Teams Achievement Division and LTM on students' productive skills could be a possible research area.

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Appendix 1Bahir Dar University

Department of English Language and Literature

Social Skills Questionnaire to be Filled in by Grade Eleven Students

Dear student, currently I am conducting a research in TEFL under the title: Effects of implementing the LTM on EFL Paragraph Writing and Social Skills of Eleventh Graders. The objective of this questionnaire is to examine whether or not the effects of implementing the LTM will palliate your paragraph writing and social skills. Read the following social skills given in each four categories carefully, and decide how often you display them in your classroom by placing a tick mark (√) in the appropriate box. The success of the study highly depends on your honesty in rating the items given in the social skills questionnaire. Thus, you are kindly requested to respond accordingly. You don't need to write your name.

Thank you in advance!

	Type of Social Skills	How often do you display?				
	Communication Skills	Always 5	Often 4	Some-times 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
1	I Initiate conversation around specific topic.					
2	I have the chance to express my ideas freely during pair or group work rather than teacher fronted class.					
3	I am volunteer to help peers with pair or group writing activities.					
4	I appreciate others during pair or group writing activities.					
5	I accept peers' ideas for group activities.					
6	I listen attentively to other group membe rs during discussions.					
7	I am respectful to members in my group when I give or take answer.					
8	Working in pairs or groups helps me receive useful feedback.					

	Leadership Skills	Always 5	Often 4	Some-times 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
9	I plainly inform group members what should be done after being in groups.					
10	I include everyone in the task.					
11	I create a supportive and cooperative atmosphere in the group					
12	I give group members appropriate directions while discussing the tasks.					
13	I make group members pay due attention to the tasks.					
14	I help group members be active participants during discussions.					
15	I make the overall interactions of group members enjoyable.					
16	I make group members raise one issue at a time.					
	Group Management Skills	Always 5	Often 4	Some-times 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
17	I demonstrate good turn-taking skills while discussing in group.					
18	I share ideas and/ or materials with other group members and interact with them cooperatively.					
19	I use an appropriate tone of voice in classroom during discussions.					
20	I stay on task while discussing pair or group writing activities cooperatively.					
21	While working in groups, I motivate all group members to contribute equally to the assigned task.					
22	I make group members finish class work and home work within the given time limits.					
23	I appropriately respond to questions raised by students from the group.					
24	I express my feelings appropriately to friends.					

	Conflict Resolution Skills	Always 5	Often 4	Some-times 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
25	I encourage group members when they have done something well.					
26	I encourage group members to evaluate ideas carefully before accepting or rejecting them.					
27	I end differences on ideas with my group members peacefully					
28	I get along with students who are different in abilities.					
29	I politely refuse unreasonable requests or points that come from group members.					
30	I control my temper when group members are angry with me.					
31	I respond appropriately to friendswhen bad things happen to me while discussing in pairs or groups.					
32	I evaluate the contribution of others in a constructive manner.					

Appendix 2

A LTM Lesson Plan Format for the Experimental Group

School's Name: Yekatit 12 Preparatory School

Grade and Section: 11^5 Subject: English

Topic: A reply to a formal letter

Unit: Two

Duration: 40'

Date: 22/04/07

Lesson Summary: Group members write a reply to a formal letter. They produce ideas through discussions on the basis of social skills and then compose apposite paragraph.

Instructional Objectives

At the end of this lesson, the research participates will be able to:1. Figure out the question in the textbook,

2. Generate ideas,3. Produce and share expressive writing through discussions and

4. Write expedient paragraph

Social Objective

At the end of the lesson, the research participates will be able to:

1. Use appropriate voice,

2. Take turns,

3. Use English to communicate

4. Use names,

5. Help each other and

6. Disagree peacefully

Group Size: 4-6 members per group

Assignment to Groups: Assign high, average and low achieving research participants to each group contingent on the pre-paragraph writing test and pre-social skills questionnaire results.

Materials: Textbook, worksheet and blackboard

Time Required: 40 minutes per period

Roles: Members will be assigned rotating roles during EFL paragraph writing activity. For this lesson, each group will be an/a:

1.Summarizer to make sure everyone in the group understands what is being learned;

2. Recorder to write down the group's decisions and to edit the group's report;

3. Encourager to reinforce members' contributions;

4. Observer to keep track of how well the group is cooperating and

5.Reporter to convey the group's ideas to another group or to the class.

Arranging the Room: Group members will sit in a circle and be close enough to each other to communicate effectively without disrupting the other learning groups. The teacher should have a clear access lane to every group.

The Lesson: Members in each team should read a paragraph writing activity given on page 108 (Appendix 3). Generate as many ideas as possible based on the nature of the question and discuss them together in each team in which members are assigned different roles. When they finish, write an appropriate paragraph and designate one of the group members to report the work to the class.

Positive Interdependence: One textbook per group (material interdependence) which is located on one table (environmental interdependence) will be employed; each group will compose an appropriate paragraph (goal interdependence) and each group member has a specific task (role interdependence).

Individual Accountability: Each group member is responsible for doing the given role. The teacher also intervenes and checks for understanding while monitoring and facilitating the group work.

Criteria for Success: Academic: The students should compose an appropriate paragraph in line with the elements of paragraphs.

Expected Behaviours of each student: staying with his/her co-operative group, actively participating and practising the skills of using appropriate voice, taking turns, following directions, using name, using English to communicate and helping one another.

Monitoring, Intervening and Processing

Monitoring: While the students are working on the writing activities in groups, the EFL teacher is monitoring as to how the students are performing the given task in the textbook and how they are displaying the social skills that they have already been taught. Sometimes ask a student to explicate what his/her group has agreed and recorded vis-à-vis the given writing task.

Intervening: When a group is obviously struggling, watch for a moment, and then intervene. Point out the problem and ask the group what can be done about it. This establishes the teacher's role as a consultant rather than an answer giver. What the group is going to do about this is a useful point in the cooperative goal structure. Suggest possible answers and/or ways to complete the task(s) they need to perform. Then, refocus the group on the task and move on.

Group processing: At the end of the lesson, allow 4-6 minutes for group processing.

Teacher's Name_____ Sign_____ Date _____

Dep't Head's Name_____ Sign_____ Date _____

Appendix 3

A Lesson Plan Format for the Control Group

Year: 2014G.C.Subject: English

Topic: Writing Government Health Leaflet

Grade and Section: 11^4 Duration of period: 40'

Date from 22/04/07

Objective: at the end of this lesson, the students should be able to write expository paragraph in the form of leaflet on behalf of the government.

TeaTeacher's Name _____Sign _____ Date _____

Date	Time	Contents	Teacher's Activity	Student's activity	Teaching Aids
Wednsday	40'	Writing government health leaflet	Introduction Revising the previous lesson introducing the new topic Presentation Giving note Group discussion Demonstration Lecture method Question and answer Field work Other -------------------- Stabilization Summarizing the lesson Answering students' question Other ----------------------- Evaluation Giving homework Giving group work Giving class work Asking question orally Other----------------------	Recalling the previous lesson Listening attentively Writing Following attentively Participating Asking questions Recalling the main points Doing the class work	Teacher's and student's textbook together with sample leaflet

Dept Head's Name_____ Sign_____ Date _____   Director's
Name _____Sign _____ Date _____

Appendix 4

Control Group Pre-Post Social Skills Raw Data

Stu-dents	COPRT	COPOT	LSPRT	LSPOT	GMPRT	GMPOT	CRPRT	CRPOT
1	25	25	31	25	27	24	25	24
2	26	26	32	27	26	27	29	26
3	29	25	31	22	31	25	29	25
4	31	28	26	27	27	24	30	24
5	26	24	17	27	25	27	30	24
6	31	23	30	29	29	24	27	24
7	32	28	26	30	30	25	29	25
8	29	24	25	23	27	25	23	22
9	30	30	24	27	25	25	16	21
10	23	24	25	30	26	26	19	19
11	32	23	29	21	29	22	29	26
12	30	30	29	27	23	25	27	26
13	25	25	33	25	32	24	32	27
14	27	29	23	25	26	25	30	27
15	24	26	27	24	26	24	24	23
16	32	26	25	24	31	24	32	26
17	21	27	22	26	24	24	17	22
18	26	30	14	29	22	25	24	23
19	24	26	26	24	26	27	24	23
20	30	29	24	26	26	25	20	20
21	29	26	24	27	23	24	24	23
22	22	24	31	27	31	26	32	30
23	27	27	27	26	32	27	32	28
24	26	25	27	30	28	27	31	30
25	29	25	32	29	28	25	30	26
26	22	25	26	21	30	21	29	26
27	24	24	31	26	27	26	29	26
28	31	25	24	26	26	22	25	24
29	25	30	32	25	22	24	21	25
30	18	24	21	26	23	25	23	22
31	30	25	31	27	33	25	29	25
32	24	23	29	27	24	26	29	26
33	30	30	29	26	30	25	32	29
34	27	24	12	25	26	26	22	24
35	32	24	23	25	29	24	30	25
36	30	26	20	26	24	22	24	23
37	30	24	24	22	26	23	28	25
38	26	24	30	24	28	24	32	26
39	30	28	31	25	26	26	30	27

Note: COPRT= Communication skills pre-test, COPOT= Communication skills post-test, LSRT=Leadership skills pre-test, LSPOT= Leadership skills post-test, GMPRT= Group management skills pre-test, GMPOT=Group management skills post-test= Conflict resolution pre-test, CRPOT= Conflict resolution post-test.

Experimental Group Pre-Post Social Skills Raw Data

Stu-dents	COPRT	COPOT	LSPRT	LSPOT	GMPRT	GMPOT	CRPRT	CRPOT
1	32	30	18	18	22	22	17	20
2	26	26	25	25	29	29	25	25
3	32	30	28	28	31	31	30	30
4	31	31	29	29	21	21	32	32
5	27	27	29	29	30	30	31	31
6	28	28	30	30	30	30	26	26
7	28	27	29	29	32	32	27	27
8	25	25	25	25	30	30	31	31
9	30	30	16	16	17	17	12	18
10	22	22	18	18	26	26	20	20
11	22	22	18	18	28	28	27	27
12	32	31	23	23	26	26	17	20
13	29	28	28	28	32	32	31	31
14	23	23	33	33	31	31	29	29
15	28	27	30	30	30	30	31	31
16	23	23	22	22	26	26	27	27
17	30	30	22	22	28	28	30	30
18	27	27	30	30	27	27	29	29
19	25	24	33	33	26	26	29	29
20	30	30	29	29	31	31	27	27
21	23	23	27	27	29	29	29	29
22	31	30	29	29	27	27	31	31
23	26	26	30	30	29	29	29	29
24	27	27	27	27	27	27	32	32
25	27	26	22	22	27	27	27	27
26	20	20	20	20	25	25	23	23
27	29	29	23	23	26	26	30	30
28	30	29	30	30	27	27	27	27
29	28	28	25	25	27	27	29	29
30	26	26	28	28	28	28	27	27
31	30	30	21	21	18	18	23	23
32	29	29	27	27	25	25	20	24
33	29	27	33	33	31	31	30	30
34	29	29	28	28	30	30	29	29
35	32	30	28	28	30	30	25	25
36	28	28	29	29	26	26	29	29
37	27	27	27	27	26	26	27	27
38	32	31	29	29	27	27	29	29
39	27	26	29	29	27	27	33	33

Testing task difficulty evaluating parameters and identifying gestures as a valid indicator

Renia Lopez-Ozieblo

Abstract

In second language acquisition, tasks based on various types of inputs are very popular. These inputs can be textual, aural or visual (or a combination of all three). Perceptions of task difficulty varies from student to student and assessing the complexity of the task can be a challenge to designers. This study investigates how ten Hong Kong participants, second language speakers of English, ranked the difficulty of three tasks based on different input modalities –textual, aural and visual. It also compares participants' rankings to those calculated through a number of parameters used to evaluate speakers' speech performance (Skehan, 2009; Robinson, 2011). In addition, this study explores the validity of new parameters based on gestures.

A meta-analysis of gesture studies confirms that gestures, movements of the hands and arms when speaking, are used by speakers to reduce cognitive load but also to help listeners understand the message (Hostetter, 2011). Different modality inputs might be imposing different cognitive loads, both in the processing of the information and in its transformation into speech/gesture. If there is a link between cognitive load and gesture, through studying gestures we might be able to find out more about the cognitive loads imposed by different modalities. Our hypothesis that there would be more gestures in the narrations of the more demanding tasks was confirmed by this study. This suggest that a gesture based parameter might be a good indicators of task difficulty.

Keywords: gestures; multimodal tasks; cognitive load; second language acquisition (SLA), evaluating parameters

Introduction

Task based language-learning developed during the late 80s (Candlin, 1987) as a more authentic and interactive approach to second language acquisition (SLA), teaching not just vocabulary and grammar but how to express and interpret meaning (Norris, 2016). Learners have different learning

styles, so tasks tend to combine input modalities, written text, aural and visual. The benefits of the various modalities, how their combination aids learning and how to identify the difficulties they present to the learner is an area still under study (Chen & Wu, 2015). Learners' perceptions of task difficulty seem to be related to how well they perform (Robinson 2011), with general patterns indicating that lower performances are related to higher cognitive-demand tasks (Norris, Brown, Hudson & Bonk, 2002). However, there is a misalignment of task designers and learners' perceptions of task difficulty (Elder, Iwashita, McNamara, 2002) and despite a number of studies manipulating various task factors, the difficulties imposed by the cognitive demands of language tasks are still debated (Lambert, Kormos & Minn, 2017; Révész Révész, Michel & Gilabert, 2016; Robinson, 2011; Sasayama, 2016; Skehan, 2009). In this study, we explored the cognitive demands imposed on second language speakers by different modalities of input. The tasks are three narrations based on input in three different modalities: a written text (textual), an audio (aural) and a video (visual). We investigated the validity of various well established measures used to evaluate the performance of language students, and thus the difficulties imposed by the tasks, and two new ones based on gestures.

After decades of discussion as to the function of gestures, whether communicative (for the interlocutor) or cognitive (for the speaker), there is now enough evidence of gestures aiding both functions. In a meta-study of gestures, Hostetter (2011) concluded that iconic gestures (of a representational nature) aid the interlocutor with the comprehension of spatial and motor ideas, whether scripted or spontaneous. On the other hand, production of gestures also helps speakers in tasks of comprehension, memorization and learning. Gestures co-occurring with speech are thought to lighten the cognitive load (Goldin-Meadow 2010), in particular if the content, or the input, is of a spatial nature (Kita & Davies, 2009). So far in language studies, gestures have not been integrated with other linguistic measures to determine task complexity (studies tend to focus on gestures alone). Therefore, we sought to identify whether they could be valid indicators of task difficulty.

Cognitive load

Cognitive load is a theoretical concept that refers to the demands on working memory to select, organize and integrate new information into an existing knowledge base (Mayer & Moreno, 2003). Cognitive load theory (Chandler & Sweller, 1991) is a framework that relates to working memory

and its relationship with long term memory in learning and problem-solving (Diao, Chandler & Sweller, 2007).

Working memory theories are based on Baddeley and Hitch's model (1974). This states that immediate, working memory is a set of systems that includes two independent processors for words (both written and verbal) and visual information. These have coding, storing and retrieval capabilities that are orchestrated by a central executive function (see Baddeley, 1999 for a thorough explanation). The two verbal and visual systems are known as the phonological loop and the visuo-spatial sketch.

Learning styles are not a limitation as to what can be processed from a specific modality (Miller, 2001). Preference for one learning style or another means the recoding of the input into the preferred modality. A visualizer will just transfer the verbal content into imagery, and a verbalizer the images into words for further processing. Mayer and Massa (2003) point out that the various categories of learning styles often refer to different elements: cognitive ability (low or high spatial abilities to do something); cognitive style (whether thinking in images or words, related to the processing and representation of information); and learning preference (whether the learner prefers the data to be presented as text or graphics). Although a number of studies report enhanced students' performances when the modality of input matches their learning style (Ford & Chen, 2000; Surjono, 2015), Mayer and Massa (2003) point out that it is still not clear how these various elements relate to multimedia learning.

2.1. Assessment of cognitive load

The cognitive load cannot be directly observed and needs to be assessed in terms of its components, mental load, effort and performance (Diao, Chandler & Sweller, 2007). The most accurate measure of cognitive load is given as a combination of mental effort, which refers to the cognitive processing involved in the task, and performance which can be measured by additional post-tasks that test right answers. Mental load relates to the difficulty of the context and the task.

The complexity of the task is not a strict measure of the cognitive load imposed, as there are idiosyncratic factors that affect cognition efforts. The cognitive demands of a task go beyond its modality and complexity, needing to take into account the individual learner's skill and experience (Révész, et al., 2016). Methods of assessing cognitive load can be direct and indirect, subjective or objective. Objective direct methods include eye tracking, fMRI and dual-tasks (where participants have to remember a string of numbers or a similar memory task). Indirect methods measure the

effort the task requires from the participant via changes in physical indicators, such as cardiovascular changes, pupil dilation, or electrical activity in the brain. Subjective methods include those where the participant self-reports levels of stress or effort, often using Likert-type scales, or provides verbal reports. Subjective evaluation methods are non-intrusive and as they have been found to be valid they are widely used to measure task effort (Kollöffel, 2012; Kruger, Hefer & Matthew, 2014; Nesbit & Hadwin, 2006; Paas, Tuovinnen, Tabbers & Van Gerven, 2003; Révész et al., 2016; van Gog, Paas, van Merrienboer & Witte, 2005).

In second language acquisition, two hypotheses have been proposed to identify the factors related to the complexity of tasks and thus their potential difficulty to the learner, Skehan's (2001, 2009) trade-off and Robinson's (2011) cognition hypothesis. Both, although differing in the processes contributing to complexity, predict an impact on the quality of the language produced with either more demanding (Skehan, 2001) or more complex tasks (Robinson, 2011). Skehan (2009) bases his speech processing modal on that of Levelt's (1993) where speech is first conceptualised at the Conceptualizer module, then formulated at the Formulator and finally articulated. Furthermore, Skehan (2009) contends that each element –complexity, accuracy, fluency– will be developed at the expense of another, placing more or less strain on the Conceptualizer or the Formulator modules. The manipulation of information will tax the Conceptualizer; rarer lexical items will result in more errors, taxing the Formulator; however, clear macrostructure will result in fluency and accuracy as the Conceptualizer is hardly used.

It is understood that although task complexity does not equate with cognitive load, the difficulty experienced by the student in completing the task does. The complexity, accuracy and fluency of the language produced during these tasks is analysed to obtain an indication as to the difficulty imposed by them (Skehan, 2009; Skehan and Foster, 1997). This can be achieved by measures such as the number of pauses, disfluencies and repairs, measuring correction; the speed of delivery, measuring fluency; and the number of clauses, words in each clause and variety in the vocabulary used (token type ratio) measuring complexity (Chen, Ruiz, Choi, Epps, Khawaja, Taib, Yin, & Wang, 2012; Khawaja, Chen & Marcus, 2010; Gilabert, Barón, & Levkina, 2011; Robinson, 2011; Skehan, 2009).

Gestures might be used as an additional measuring parameter. The heavier the cognitive load imposed by a task (intrinsic load) or the modality of the input (extraneous load) the harder the processing of the data would be. This in turn would mean the involvement of more working

memory elements (germane load) such as visuo-spatial and verbal. Cognitive load might be imposed by the challenges found in understanding the events, at the Conceptualizer level, or in processing input into output, at the Formulator level. Although the processes leading to gesture production in these two cases might be different (conceptualization and formulation) the overall result is expected to be similar, a higher gesture rate.

Gestures

Gestures –for the purposes of this study: intentional movements of the hand and arms co-occurring with speech– are a type of kinesthetic movement that has been found to facilitate learning (Goldin-Meadow, 2003), as well as to aid recall in enacted sentences (Engelkamp & Cohen, 1991; Engelkamp & Zimmer, 1985; Toumpaniari, Loyens, Mavilidi, Paas, 2015).

Most gesture scholars defend a thought-gesture-speech-link. Either the thought is developed as the gesture and the speech are generated (Lopez-Ozieblo & McNeill, 2017; McNeill, 2015), or speech and gesture are processed independently, but combined at the thought level (Kita, 2000). Trofatter, Kontra, Beilock and Goldin-Meadow (2015) suggest that gestures generate mental images –rather than reflect them– grounded on the embodiment of physical properties (movement or aspect), and it is these that influence the thought. An alternative theory advances that gestures are the result of a process unrelated to that of speech and are mostly used to aid lexical retrieval (Rauscher, Krauss & Chen, 1996). In cases where speakers are experiencing lexical retrieval issues more gestures have been observed (Beattie & Shovelton, 1999; Frick-Horbury and Guttentag, 1998), however, these gestures are both for the benefit of the speaker and for the interlocutor, as they also indicate that the floor is still taken.

One of the earlier defenders of the gesture-thought link and the cognitive role of gestures was also Baddeley, who together with Hitch developed the working memory model mentioned above (1974). Baddeley proposed that gestures activated mental images in working memory (1986). It is thought that gestures lighten the load on the working memory, even if not referring to the physical environment. Speakers create a mental model of a real object which the gesture helps make present by simulating some of the salient physical features of the object (Ping & Goldin-Meadow, 2010), it is a process akin to the creation of metaphors. According to Hostetter, Alibali and Kita (2007) in conceptualizing, the mental image the speaker holds is broken down and reorganized into smaller chunks (of more salient features). By gesturing, these salient features are externalized, decreasing

the working memory load and allowing for other information to be processed (Wagner, Nusbaum & Goldin-Meadow, 2004). The effect is an overall reduction in working memory load. Thus, harder tasks will elicit more gestures, as a means of coping with the overall cognitive load.

It would seem that there are a number of reasons that might lead a speaker to gesture more, but all indicate more complexity, either as the idea takes shape or the speech is planned. If more demanding tasks, either because of conceptualization or formulation issues, lead speakers to gesture more, then gesture rates could be a good indicator of the difficulty of the task.

The study

This study investigated (i) the difficulty of three narration tasks, based on three different modalities of input: textual, aural and visual, as perceived by the participants and (ii) the adequacy of various parameters used to identify the difficulty differences between the three tasks. In addition to more traditional linguistic measures we sought to identify whether gesture-based parameters would be adequate to also evaluate task difficulty. The participants were ten university students from Hong Kong, in all cases English –the focus of this study– was their second language (L2). First the study identified the task modality that imposed the greatest difficulties on participants, as self-reported by the participants (an indication of the cognitive load imposed by the task). Then we focused on analysing the data using various traditional linguistic and gesture-based evaluation parameters to establish the match between the self-reflected difficulty rankings and those calculated. This allowed us to identify the most adequate parameters to give an indication of the difficulty of the tasks.

4.1. Participants

The data collection was based on convenience sampling, which was found to be a feasible option for a pilot study despite its limitations (Farrokhi and Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, 2012). Twelve students at the researcher's place of work answered calls to participate in this study, some of them already known to the researcher. Two participants were rejected as their mother tongue was Mandarin, not Cantonese. All were students at an English medium university in Hong Kong raised in a bilingual environment (Cantonese/English). All participants had attended an English medium secondary school and some had also attended an English medium primary school; their level of English was C1 or above –on the proficiency scale of the Common European Framework of

Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001)– a requirement of their courses. Sixty per cent were female and all were under 25 years old.

4.2. Procedure

The participants were given stories in different modalities, a text, an audio and a video, and were asked to narrate them. In all three cases the speaker had to read, hear or watch approximately three minutes of input and then recount the story with as much detail as possible. In all cases the narration took place immediately after each type of input was given. Following the narrations, participants were asked to reflect on the tasks and report which had been the most difficult and why. Participants were allowed to read, listen to or watch the input as many times as necessary but there was no preparation time. Similarly, they were allowed to narrate the stories for as long as necessary. This was done to minimise variables relating to communicative stress, (Skehan, 2001) and resource depleting factors (Robinson, 2011).

In order to relate this study to existing gesture studies, for the audio and video the *Tweety and Sylvester* stories (a television cartoon) were used. In these stories Sylvester (a cat) is trying to capture and eat Tweety, a bird living with his owner (Granny). Based on the gestures work pioneered in McNeill's lab (http://mcneilllab.uchicago.edu/), we selected the first half of the *Canary Row* episode (Freleng, 1950) for the muted video input. The aural story was based on a similar *Tweety and Sylvester* episode scripted by the research team. The written texts were versions of the fable of *The Lion and the Mouse* by Aesop (n.d.) downloaded from the internet. All stories had been designed to be of a similar length and to contain a similar number of words, characters and events.

The procedure and general objective of the research was explained to participants and their consent obtained, although we did not specifically mention we were investigating measures of cognitive load such as gestures or recall capabilities. Each session was video-recorded and the speech and gestures in the recordings were transcribed. *PRAAT* (a speech transcription software) was used to note down the speech, which was added to *ELAN,* a multimodal transcription software allowing for frame by frame analysis of gestures, where the gesture transcription was carried out.

4.3. Analysis

Each participant narrated three stories in English, therefore a total 30 narrations of various lengths were transcribed and analysed, and the comments from the 10 interviews were recorded and noted down (but not transcribed). The data from *ELAN* was then analysed using *WordSmith* (a

Corpus analysis software) and *Excel and JASP* (statistical tools). From the speech transcripts, we manually calculated the number of events recalled, clauses and interruptions, other elements were calculated with *WordSmith*. From the gesture transcripts we manually calculated the total number of gestures produced. Manual calculations were repeated by a second researcher and disagreements were discussed until all issues were resolved.

A number of measures were chosen to evaluate accuracy, fluency and complexity, as indicators of task complexity (Robinson, 2011; Skehan, 2009). The selection was based on results from previous studies (Khawaja, Chen & Marcus, 2010; Gilabert, Barón, & Levkina, 2011). The full list of parameters is given in Table 1 and explained below.

Table 1. - List of evaluating parameters

Features Measured	Parameter	Manual / computed	Task complexity element measured
Recall	% events narrated	Manual	Accuracy
Speech rate	clauses/minute	Manual/computed	Fluency
Speech rate	tokens/minute	Computed/computed	Fluency
Lexical density	tokens/clause	Computed/manual	Complexity
Lexical density	type/token	Computed/computed	Complexity
Token complexity	word mean length	Computed	Complexity
Disfluency	eh/token	Manual/computed	Fluency
Disfluency	interruptions/token	Manual/computed	Fluency
Gesture rate	gesture/token	Manual/computed	Complexity?
Gesture rate	gesture/clause	Manual/manual	Complexity?

For each feature measured we aimed to find two evaluating parameters (not always possible), these are described below:

Percentage of events narrated: each story was divided into salient events. The number of events mentioned was noted and calculated as a proportion of the total number of events.

Number of clauses per minute: the transcripts of the narrations were divided into clauses, following the definition provided by Robinson (2011). Repairs were not double counted. The number of clauses was divided by the length of each narration.

Number of tokens per minute: number of words divided by the length of each narration, including interrupted words, and fillers such as 'eh/ehm', 'you know', etc.

Number of type of tokens per total number of tokens (token type ratio): the number of different types of words, including interrupted words, and fillers such as 'eh/ehm', 'you know', etc. divided by the total number of words in the narration.

Word mean length: the average number of letters in each word.

Number of 'eh/ehm' fillers per number of tokens: only fillers 'eh/ehm' ('uh/uhm', 'ah/ahm' and similar) were taken into account for this count. Other expressions such as 'you know', 'I guess' were not included in this study.

Number of interruptions per token: number of mid-word and end-of-word interruptions (signalled by a closing of the glottis) divided by the total number of tokens.

Number of gestures per token and per clause: arm and hand movements co-occurring with speech divided by either the number of words or the number of clauses. We excluded adaptors, hand and arm movements that answer a physical need.

It was expected that the easiest the task is for the participant, the better their speech would be, in terms of complexity, fluency and correction. Therefore, the three tasks were ranked as either 1 = easiest, 2 = in the middle, 3 = hardest, according to the results from each measurement taken. For example, speed of speech, 'number of tokens per minute', is assumed to be higher with easier tasks. Therefore, for the results in the example given in Table 2, the easiest task seems to have been the text based one and the hardest the aural based one. The percentage difference between the highest and lowest values, as a percentage of the lowest value was calculated, 16% in this example. We compared the self-ranking difficulty, as reported by participants, with the results from our calculations. In this example, our calculated results match the self-ranking. For each measuring parameter we noted the number of matches, in this case three, and tested the correlation between self and calculated rankings.

Table 2 – Example.

Task	Tokens /minute	% difference (Highest-Lowest)/Lowest	Calculated ranking (1=easiest)	Self-ranking (1 = easiest)
Text	148.90		1	1
Aural	128.35		3	3
Video	144.47		2	2
		16%		

Results

During the interview, participants had been asked to order, by level of difficulty, the three tasks, all narrated in English. Six participants (60%) agreed that the text based one was the easiest task. The video task was the second easiest for most participants (60%) and the audio based task was the hardest for half of them (50%). However, three participants (33%) also ranked the text task as the hardest one and also three (33%) ranked the video as the easiest one (see Appendix 1).

We added up the numerical values of the difficulty ranking given to each task (1, 2 or 3) by the students and as analysed. Students self-ranked the audio as being the hardest task, with a total compounded value of 22 (out of 30, the maximum value if all ten participants had scored the same task as being the hardest with a 3) and the text the easiest (with a value of 17). When adding the ranking values for each task by parameter we found that seven out of the ten parameters also indicate the text was the easiest task. Just one parameter, 'word mean length', indicated it was the hardest. Five parameters suggested the audio was the hardest task and two parameters, 'type token ratio' and 'word mean length', identified it as the easiest. Six parameters indicated that the video task was in the middle in terms of difficulty. With the parameter 'tokens per clause' all three tasks showed the same degree of difficulty. The values for the parameters 'percentage of events related' and 'gestures per token' showed the largest differences between the tasks.

Appendix 1 shows the ranking of each task, according to the observations made and comparing these with the self-rankings given by each participant, matches are shaded in grey. As can be observed, out of the 30 measurements (three per participant for ten participants) only three of the parameters provide over 50% matches between the self and calculated ranking. These are 'eh per token' (17 matches, 57%), and 'gesture per clause' and 'percentage of events related' (both with

16 matches, 53%). 'Clauses per minute', 'tokens per minute' and 'gesture per token' all had 13 matches each (43%). All other parameters gave under 30% matches.

Out of the ten parameters calculated, the average number of matches for each participant was 3.8. For each task at least three of the values calculated agreed with the self-ranking. This was the case for all participants, except for Participant 9 where the matches were just one or two per task.

The significance of these matches was statistically tested by running a Spearman's correlation between the calculated rankings of the parameters and the self-rankings. Only the 'eh per token' parameter showed a significant strong positive correlation with the self-ranking values (rho = 0.542, p = 0.002). The two gesture based parameters gave non-significant medium strength correlations. Other parameters were neither significant nor correlated (see Table 3).

We also tested the correlation between the various parameters, in particular we were interested in a possible correlation between disfluencies, fillers or interruptions, and gestures. A strong correlation would indicate that the gesture might be aiding speech production at disfluencies. There did not seem to be a correlation between 'eh per token' and 'gesture per token' and 'gesture per clause' (rho = 0.048 and 0.000, p = 0.803 and 1 respectively), although there is a non-significant medium correlation between 'interruptions per token' and 'gesture per clause' (rho = 0.350, p = 0.058).

Table 3 – Spearman correlation matrix.

		% events related	clauses/ minute	tokens/ minute	tokens/ clause	type/ token	word mean length	eh/ token	interruptions/ token	gesture/ token	gesture/ clause
Self-ranking	Spearman's rho	0.001	0.109	0.166	-0.248	-0.090	-0.126	0.542 **	-0.188	0.284	0.286
	p-value	0.997	0.567	0.382	0.186	0.635	0.507	0.002	0.319	0.129	0.125
eh/token	Spearman's rho							—	0.100	0.048	0.000
	p-value							—	0.599	0.803	1.000
interruptions/token	Spearman's rho								—	0.243	0.350
	p-value								—	0.196	0.058

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

A Pearson test to evaluate the correlation between gestures and the number of clauses and gestures and the number of tokens indicates that there is a strong positive correlation in both cases (see Table 4).

Table 4. Correlation matrix for 30 pairs of values in each calculation.

		No. tokens	No. clauses
Gestures	Pearsons' r	0.914***	0.848***
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001

When comparing the results for the three tasks for each participant the variations measured were also very high. Variations of over 100% between the calculations of the easiest and the hardest tasks were observed in four parameters (see Appendix 1). This suggests considerable complexity differences between the tasks, at least for some students, as measured by those parameters. Other possibilities are an error in the transcriptions or calculations, however unlikely as data and calculations were all double-checked or perhaps, and more likely, outliers. A larger sample would clearly show the outliers, which we suspect, but cannot confirm, and strengthen the validity of the statistical test.

Discussion

The text based task seemed to be the easiest for this group of participants. From the feedback given by students, a number of possible reasons might explain this. Within their education systems participants were all used to processing textual, rather than visual data. Participants confirmed having studied in schools where up to one fourth of class-time was spent reading texts. Another reason might have been that this was a known story to participants and so they found it easier to recall. Finally, the reason that most participants gave was that in the textual task they were also provided with the tools to communicate the story, the words, making their task much easier. To counteract this ease, it might be significant to note that the text based task was the first one that all participants undertook, meaning there might have been some anxiety or uncertainty issues, raising the affective filter.

The audio task was reported to be the hardest, probably because it is seldom that we need to process data on speech alone, without any contextual or other nonverbal signals and these participants had not been drilled in audio tasks. Although some of the participants reported having

difficulties with the accent (slight Irish accent) it did not seem to be a common issue. As with the textual modality, the aural one also provided the participants with the tools to create the narration, many using the same tokens and expressions that had appeared in the audio.

The video modality, played without sound or subtitles, had the added difficulty –aside from having to remember the story, common to all three tasks– of having to generate the words in order to narrate the events. In the case of the video tasks, participants need to remember, understand and translate the concepts into words. In the case of the text and audio based tasks there is no need to understand, as long as participants are able to remember the words and repeat them in the same order. Despite these difficulties, 60% of participants considered this task the second easiest.

From the results and analysis, it would seem that the parameters 'eh per token', 'gesture per clause' and 'gestures per token' are the most useful ones to estimate the levels of difficulty imposed by these tasks. Out of the ten parameters two were gesture based and they are also two of the best performing ones.

The potential correlation between interruptions and gestures might indicate that the gesture is being used to help with speech formulation, however the lack of such a correlation between fillers and gestures suggests otherwise. The strong correlation between gestures and tokens and clauses indicates there is a relationship gesture-speech, but it is not possible to conclude whether the link gesture-speech is related to the gesture helping to formulate the speech or whether together with the speech it externalises the concepts. Further research investigating the type of gesture is recommended to clarify this point.

Although the parameter 'eh per token' seems to be a good indicator of task difficulty, it is likely that our results would show an even stronger correlation should we had included other fillers such as 'you know', 'and', 'actually', etc. These were not taken into account due to the complexity of identifying them as fillers or as a necessary part of the content. We observed that the use of 'eh' and 'ehm' might be slightly different, 'eh' perhaps signalling less complex difficulties (as suggested by Fox-Tree and Clark, 2002). Gestures might also be used differently with these two types of fillers, an area worth further exploration.

The parameter 'percentage events narrated' showed a surprisingly low statistical correlation, despite there being a relatively high percentage of matches between the self and calculated difficulty rankings. A larger sample might clarify this issue.

Parameters relating to the number of tokens per clause, ratio of token type and word mean lengths might have been skewed by the input itself, both the textual and aural tasks gave words and expressions that were often repeated by the participants. It is very likely that the weak correlations observed might be related to these interference from the input. To evaluate their strength as evaluating parameters, the study could be repeated using just textual and aural inputs and measuring the percentage of tokens that participants repeat from these.

Neither 'clauses per minute' nor 'tokens per minute' seem to be good indicators of difficulty. Perhaps a more reliable indicator would be lexical density, not tested by this study, excluding fillers and functional words in measuring tokens.

'Interruptions per token' also showed not to be a very reliable indicator. Research points out to a difference between mid-word interruption and end-of-word interruption, and whether the interruption is filled with a filler –eh, ehm– or followed by a pause (Lopez-Ozieblo, 2017, Seyfedinipur, 2006). Interruptions might signify errors but they also indicate a re-planning of the message, not necessarily because it was wrong, but because the speaker thought it inadequate. A better parameter might be just repairs, rather than interruptions (as suggested by Gilabert, Barón, & Levkina, 2011).

Conclusion

This study sought to identify the validity of existing and new evaluating parameters in identifying second language task difficulty, and so to indicate how the cognitive loads might have varied in these. The two objectives of the study were (i) to assess how input modality affects the difficulty of language tasks and (ii) assess the validity of parameters used to evaluate task difficulty, including new ones based on gestures. The three tasks were narrations based on inputs that were either textual, aural or visual. Ten Cantonese speakers of English as their L2 participated in the study. Participants' rankings of the difficulty of each task were correlated to the calculated values from the parameters tested and the correlations further studied.

The three tasks presented slightly different speech processing issues by reason of the differences in modality of input. All tasks had a clear macrostructure, therefore the stress on the Conceptualizer should have been similar. All three tasks presented the same number of characters. The audio and text based tasks provided the words in the input, therefore also minimising the stress on the Formulator (Skehan, 2009). The video task, on the other hand, would have taxed the Formulator,

as no words were provided in the input. It might have also taxed the Conceptualizer in that the events described could be interchangeable, therefore an effort had to be made to remember the sequence of events. We expected more speech issues —disfluencies, slower speech, less complexity— in the video based narration, but also more gestures due to the connection between gesture and visual processing (Baddeley, 1986) as well as the increased load on the Conceptualizer (Wagner et al., 2004). These expectations were only confirmed in the results from participants who reported the video-based task as being the hardest. Overall, more gestures were observed in all the tasks that had been ranked as the hardest. This suggests that gestures are not just the result of visual input. From an educational point of view, these results indicate that teachers in this context, higher education in Hong Kong, should provide text based input to ease the learning process. On the other hand, industry requires processing of non-textual data on a daily basis and reporting based on aural input and visual assessments. Lack of training in these skills might provide an explanation for our results and so aural and visual input based tasks should also be part of the curriculum.

Our results suggest that most individual parameters tested might not be very reliable indicators of task difficulty levels. From a statistical point of view, only the evaluating parameter 'eh per token' provided values strongly correlated with the difficulty self-ranking values. However, when we analysed the other evaluating parameters, we observed that 'percentage events related' and 'gesture per clause' might also be adequate parameters. It is strongly recommended that the study is repeated with a larger sample to identify whether the correlations of these two other variables might also prove to be statistically significant.

It was expected that gestures could be an accurate measure of the difficulty of the data, as difficulty imposes a heavier cognitive load and gestures have been confirmed to ease that load. It is not clear from our study whether these gestures are generated together with the speech at the Conceptualizer (Lopez-Ozieblo & McNeill, 2017) or whether they activate the Formulator, Lexical Retrieval Hypothesis (Rauscher, Krauss & Chen, 1996). Rauscher, Krauss and Chen's hypothesis (1996) suggests that gestures facilitate access to the lexicon, therefore they would be aiding the Formulator or even the Articulator. In this study, our second language speakers are presumably not struggling to conceptualize the idea if the language has been understood (as the macro-structure of the stories were given to the participants). As the words were already given in the textual and aural tasks, there should be a reduction of complexity in these two tasks, compared to the video one, and if anything fewer gestures altogether, as neither conceptualizing nor formulating was particularly

taxed. However, participants might still have formulating and articulation issues as they are requested to use the L2 to narrate the stories.

If gestures are used to aid speech processing we could expect to see more gestures together with disfluencies. This did not seem to be the case, there is no correlation between 'eh per token' and either gesture parameter, although there is a potential correlation between 'interruptions per token' and 'gestures per clause'. It would seem that at least some of the gestures might be helping ease the cognitive load, rather than just priming speech, thus giving an indication of the complexity of the task.

As our inputs were in either word based or visual based modalities we cannot comment on Baddeley and Hitch's (1974) dual processing theories. In all tasks one of the processors, the one coding verbal data or the one coding and retrieving images, would have been at work. It is suggested that future studies combine input modalities and compare the use of gestures with single-modality-input narrations.

Aside from the small sample size, the number of cofounding variables that we did not control for is a key limiting factor in this study. In particular, the content of the stories, although we tried to design the stories to be as similar as possible in terms of number of characters, number of events and potential imagery created by them. After the debriefing sessions with the participants, it became obvious that they considered the video story as more complicated because the events were interchangeable, a factor we had missed. Another limitation is that fillers were counted as tokens. It was difficult not to do so, as gestures might also occur during these. Therefore, eliminating fillers would have meant eliminating the gestures co-occurring with them. Clearly, further research is needed to identify the relationship between the fillers and the gestures and whether these serve a lexical retrieval function or a conceptualizing one.

Despite all of the limitations, this pilot study has been useful to highlight the possibility of using gestures for second language performance evaluation. Although most of these ten parameters did not perform very well individually, together they did match the overall difficulty self-rankings given by participants. When measuring the difficulty of tasks based on multiple modalities, the best basket of evaluating parameters might be a combination of the stronger correlating parameters, together with those identified as strong matches manually. Our recommendation would be: 'eh per token', 'gesture per clause' and 'percentage events related'. Further testing of the adequacy of these parameters is underway by the researching team.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix 1 - Results

Participant	Task	Self-ranking	% events related	clauses/minute	tokens/minute	tokens/clause	type/token	word mean length	eh/token	interruptions/token	gesture/token	gesture/clause	Matches*
1 F	text	1	2	1	1	1	2	3	1	1	2	2	5
	aural	1	1	3	3	3	1	2	3	2	1	1	4
	video	1	3	2	2	2	3	1	2	3	3	3	1
2 F	text	1	1	1	1	3	2	3	2	1	2	2	4
	aural	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	3	3	3
	video	2	3	3	3	1	3	1	1	3	1	1	0
3 M	text	3	1	3	1	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	5
	aural	2	3	2	3	3	1	1	2	2	3	2	4
	video	1	2	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	5
4 M	text	1	1	3	2	1	3	2	2	2	1	1	4
	aural	3	3	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	6
	video	2	2	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	4
5 F	text	1	1	1	1	3	2	2	1	2	1	1	6
	aural	3	3	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	3	3	3
	video	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	4
6	text	3	1	1	1	3	2	2	3	1	1	1	2

M	aural	1	3	3	3	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	3
	video	2	2	2	2	1	3	1	2	2	2	2	7
7	text	1	1	1	1	3	2	3	1	2	1	1	6
M	aural	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	3	3
	video	3	1	2	3	2	3	2	3	1	2	2	3
8	text	2	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	5
F	aural	3	1	1	3	3	1	1	3	2	3	2	4
	video	1	3	2	1	2	3	2	1	3	2	3	2
9	text	3	1	2	1	1	2	3	2	1	2	2	1
F	aural	1	3	2	2	2	1	2	1	3	3	3	2
	video	2	2	1	3	3	3	1	3	2	1	1	2
10	text	1	1	1	1	3	1	3	2	2	1	1	6
F	aural	3	3	3	3	1	2	1	1	1	2	3	4
	video	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	1	2	6
Matches calculated-self		16	13	13	6	6	6	17	8	13	16		
% matches calculated-self		53%	43%	43%	20%	20%	20%	57%	27%	43%	53%		
% difference (highest-lowest /lowest value)**		85%	90%	40%	15%	59%	8%	179%	147%	122%	126%		

Added value of given ranking values (text)	17	**12**	**16**	**12**	20	20	*27*	**19**	**16**	**14**	**15**
Added value of given ranking values (aural)	22	*24*	*22*	24	20	**12**	**15**	*21*	22	*27*	*26*
Added value of given ranking values (video)	18	22	20	24	20	*28*	16	20	22	17	19

Note: in grey the cases were the self-ranking matched the ranking according to the calculations.

* Number of matches between the calculated rankings and self-rankings

** These highest and lowest values refer to the actual measured values for each parameter (not given in this table, for further information on these please contact the author).

Exploring University EFL Learners' Experiences and Attitudes towards Using Smart Phones for English Learning

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Abstract

The current study aims to investigate university EFL learners' experiences of using their smart phones for developing language-learning skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) as well as their attitudes concerning smart phones use for learning English. The participants of this study were 603 students (males= 285; females= 318) enrolled in different majors of study (English, Health, Social and Applied Sciences). The researcher used questionnaire and interview tools to collect the required data. The findings of this study show that all participants have used their smart phones for developing language-learning skills. They report that the most frequently learned skill acquired through smart phones is listening, while the least frequently learned skill is writing. Both male and female learners have positive attitudes towards using smart phones for learning English. Even so, female learners were more positive than male learners and the difference between genders was statistically significant, which means that gender is a significant variable.

Key words: MALL, language-learning skills, smart phones.

Introduction

Today, language-learning world cannot be restricted to limited hours in the classroom. When knowledge is accessible through the Internet, learning a language becomes easier. Since learners, in the EFL context, have limited class time and do not have much exposure to a foreign language, technology has affected the processes language learning and teaching positively (Kim, 2012). Taj et al. (2016) mention that over two billion people use mobile phones and that the "ubiquitous

nature of connectivity has drawn the interest of time and place constraints" (p. 76). Abdous et al. (2009) state that the availability of mobile phones, tablets and multimedia players has changed the methods of teaching foreign language and current language learners' strategies of learning. Nowadays, learners consult their smart phones more than their instructors, and only when they cannot find the information on the screens do they seek help from their instructors (Viberg & Grönlund; 2012). Therefore, smart phones offer good opportunities for learning language at any time and any place. This paper researches mobile assisted language learning, especially when it comes from using smart phones for developing language-learning skills as well as learners' attitudes towards using smart phones for learning English.

Literature Review

Mobile Assisted Language Learning

Since 1996, when Chikering and Ehrmann coined the term Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), a tremendous growth has been recorded for mobile phones. Recently, this term has been associated with mobile phones, whereby ubiquitous access, friendly interfaces and improved data storage and retrieval capabilities are considered a good platform for learning a language. Valarmathi (2011, p. 2) describes MALL as an approach to language learning that is assisted by using a handheld mobile device. He writes, "MALL is a subset of both Mobile Learning (M-learning) and Computer-assisted language learning (CALL)". Mobile assisted language learning involves using mobile devices such as cell (mobile) phones (including the iPhone or iPad.), MP3 or MP4 players (e.g., iPods), and personal digital assistants (PDAs). Through these mobile devices, learners are able to access the materials of language learning and to communicate with their teachers and peers at anytime and anywhere. Similarly, Yang (2013) generally regards MALL as a burgeoning subdivision of CALL.

Studies on Mobile Assisted Language Learning

In this section, studies conducted on the use of smart phones for language learning will be reviewed. This is because the current study focuses on the students' attitudes towards using smart phones for learning a language and the use of smart phones for developing the language-learning skills.

Thornton and Houser (2005) study using mobile Short Messages System (SMS) for learning English vocabulary among Japanese university students. The participants had positive attitudes towards the way of learning vocabulary.

Lu (2008) investigates the use of SMS for learning vocabulary. The finding of this study shows that the participants hold positive attitudes towards using mobile phones for learning English vocabulary.

Kim (2012) explores the effects of SMS for vocabulary learning in a study involving 87 university students. The participants were divided into four classes. Two classes were for high-level students and two classes for low-level students. Within each class level, students were divided into an SMS group and traditional group. The findings of the study show that the SMS groups outperformed the traditional group. In addition, the participants had positive attitudes towards this method of English learning.

In a recent experiment, Kim (2012) examined 87 University learners use of smart phones to measure the effect of SMS in vocabulary learning. The results showed that there was a significant effect in using SMS for learning vocabulary.

Solieman, Ismail and Mustaffa (2013) assess the attitudes of 25 postgraduate ESL Malaysian learners towards the acceptance of MALL. Positive attitudes were found in the participants' responses. MALL was regarded as a convenient and practical learning method that enhanced English learning.

Ghrieb (2015) investigates the attitudes of 90 students and 7 teachers of English, at the University of Mohamed Kheider-Biskra towards the effectiveness of MALL. The researcher used a questionnaire to collect the required data. The findings of this study show that all participants had positive attitudes. Speaking, listening, reading and vocabulary skills were enhanced through mobile phones. Mobile phones were not the preferred method of developing writing skills.

Barakat (2015) conducts a study to examine the attitudes of 53 male and 47 female university students towards the use of smart phone applications in learning English. The participants were registered in the General English requirement course at the Community College, Ghaza. A questionnaire was used to gather data. The study's findings show that positive attitudes were found towards using smart phones for learning English. Barakat recommends that both learners and teachers need to be more aware of smart phones' beneficial applications for language learning.

Davie and Hilber (2015) investigate the attitudes of 68 undergraduate students studying engineering at the South Westphalia University of Applied Sciences towards using mobile phones for studying English vocabulary. The researchers made use of a questionnaire and an interview to collect data. The results of the study reveal that the use of mobile phones for learning a language is beneficial. They recommend more studies on the use of mobile phones for learning languages.

Bezircilioğlu (2016) studies the attitudes of 60 prep school students and teachers at the Izmir Institute of Technology towards using mobile phones for learning English. The researcher used an open-ended questionnaire to collect data. The results show that learners used mobile phones to study vocabulary and for translation. The study finds positive feedback towards using mobile phones for learning English among both learners and teachers.

Saidouni and Bahloul (2016) conduct a study of 18 master's students and 14 English teachers at Banta 2 University. A questionnaire and an interview were used to gather the data. The findings showed positive attitudes towards using MALL for teaching and learning English. The participants reported that MALL increased their motivation to learn English. Listening, speaking and reading skills were considered among aspects that mobile phones could help learners to learn. The participants showed their willingness to use mobile phones for learning English. Regarding writing skills, their participants reported that this skill was the least frequently addressed via mobile phones. Positive attitudes were found among learners towards using mobile phones for learning English.

The Importance of the Study

As smart phones are widely used among university learners, there is still a lack of studies that explore developing language-learning skills through mobile phones among EFL learners. Davie and Hilber (2015) assert that more studies on smart phones use for language learning are needed. Therefore, this study will contribute the body of research in this field.

Research Questions:

1- In terms of gender, what is the most and least frequent language learning skill (writing, listening, speaking or reading) that students prefer to learn through smart phones based on their previous experiences?

2- Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female students in terms of their previous experiences of using smart phones for language-learning skills?

3- What attitudes do male and female learners have towards using smart phones for learning English?

4- Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female learners' attitudes about using smart phones for learning English?

Methods

Participants

The participants of the current study consisted of 603 male and female university EFL students. The participants were registered in the majors of English, Health, Applied Sciences and Theoretical Sciences at Majmaah University, Saudi Arabia. The participants were randomly selected from across different university levels, majors and Grade Point Average (GPA). According to Brown (2001, p. 72), "each individual in the population must have an equal chance of being selected". The following table shows the demographical information of the participants:

Table 1: Analysis of Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Demographic Information		Frequency	Percentage (out of 100%)
Gender	Male	285	47.3%
	Female	318	52.7%
GPA	Less than 3.5/5	207	34.3%
	More than 3.5/5	396	65.7%
LEVEL	First-fourth	479	79.4%
	Fifth-eighth	124	20.6%
Field of Study	English	160	26.5%
	Theoretical Sciences	153	25.4%
	Applied Sciences	226	37.5%
	Health	64	10.6%

Data Collect Tools

The current study made use of both quantitative and qualitative methods to gather the needed data. The closed-ended questionnaire represented the quantitative method. It consisted of the following parts: the first part concerned participants' demographic information (gender, level of study, GPA and major). The above Table 1 shows the first part of the questionnaire. One item in the first part of the questionnaire was added to ensure that all participants had used smart phones for learning English. All participants reported that they had used their smart phones for learning English.

The second part consisted of 20 item divided into five categories concerning the participants' experiences and attitudes towards smart phones. Four categories are to assess students' previous use of smart phones for language-learning skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing). Each of these categories consisted of three items. The last category was for assessing their attitudes towards using smart phones for learning English. The following Table 2 shows the questionnaire items:

Table 2: Questionnaire Items

Statements		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Previous Use of Smart Phones for Language-learning skills						
Listening	1- I listen to English audios on my smart phone.					
	2- I watch English recorded programmes on my smart phone.					
	3- I watch English news on my smart phone.					
Speaking	4- I speak with my colleagues in					

	English on my smart phone.				
	5- I speak with my teacher in English on my smart phone.				
	6- I speak with my friends outside of university in English on my smart phone.				
Reading	7- I read short English stories available online on my smart phone.				
	8- I read simple English stories through by my smart phone.				
	9- I read English SMS on my smart phone.				
Writing	10- I send English SMS to my university colleagues.				
	11- I send English SMS to my friends.				
	12- I send English SMS to my teachers.				
Attitudes towards using smart phones					
13- Smart phones help in learning listening skills.					

14- Smart phones help in learning writing skills.					
15- Smart phones help in learning reading skills.					
16- Smart phones help in learning speaking skills.					
17- Smart phones help in learning pronunciation.					
18- Smart phones help in learning vocabulary.					
19- Using smart phones increase the quality of learning and teaching English.					
20- The use of smart phones is beneficial for learning a foreign language.					

With regard to our qualitative method, interviews were conducted with six students from across different levels and majors. When the researcher administered the questionnaire to the participants, he put optional items to write his/her phone number and email if the participant was willing to participate in the interview. The interview focused on how and when students make use of smart phones for learning English as well as the advantages and disadvantages of this method of learning. Each interview lasted between five to seven minutes and was conducted by phone. The following questions were the main ones in the interview:

- Have you used your smart phone for learning English?
- What do think about using smart phones for learning English and to what extent has it helped you improve you learning skills?
- What are the most and least frequent learning skills you prefer to address via your smart phone?
- How do you see the benefits of using smart phones for learning English vocabulary and what was your experience?
- From 1 to 10, rate your experience of using smart phone for learning English.

The researcher recorded the interview on his mobile phone after getting the consent of the participants. Then he transcribed the interviews' main and related answers to the current research.

Validity

To ensure the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher consulted two experts in the field of Applied Linguistics before the commencement of the study. Their suggestions have been taken into consideration.

Reliability

The researcher conducted a pilot study with 29 students from different majors and levels, similar to the current study, before conducting this study. Then, the reliability test was assessed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) v16. The value of the Cronbach Alpha indicated that the questionnaire was suitable to be used. The following Table 3 shows the result:

Table 3: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.812	20

Ethical Considerations

Before conducting the current study, consent was obtained from the university. Then, participants' consent was obtained. They were informed that participation in the study was optional. They were not asked to give any personal details to ensure anonymity in the questionnaire.

Findings and Discussion

The current study aimed to investigate male and female EFL learners' experiences and attitudes towards using smart phones for learning English. These results will be divided into two parts. The first part will present the findings of students' previous experiences of using smart phones with regard to language-learning skills (writing, reading, speaking and listening). The second part will deal with the learners' attitudes towards using smart phones for learning English.

Part 1: Learner's experiences of using smart phones for language-learning skills

To assess the participants' previous use of smart phones for learning English especially language-learning skills, descriptive statistics was used to assess their responses with regard to this issue as shown in the following table:

Table 4: Participants' previous use of smart phones for learning English

Skill	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig.
Listening	Male	285	3.66	1.13	.353
	Female	318	3.73	1.06	
Reading	Male	285	3.64	1.22	.867
	Female	318	3.67	1.12	
Speaking	Male	285	3.11	1.24	.697
	Female	318	3.10	1.19	
Writing	Male	285	3.02	1.28	.372
	Female	318	2.93	1.20	
Total	Male	285	40.31	11.01	.981
	Female	318	40.33	10.21	

It is obvious that both male and female learners agreed that they used their smart phones for developing language-learning skills. The mean scores shown in Table 4 above indicate that both groups reported that they agree with statements related to previous use of smart phones. Regarding the preferences, both male and female learners reported that they agreed that writing skills were the least frequent learning skills when it comes to learning with smart phones (male= 3.02; female=2.93). When it comes to the most frequent learning skill that has been learned with smart phones, there was agreement between the male and female responses. Both male and female learners considered listening skills to be the most frequent learning skill that had been learned through their smart phones (female = 3.73; male = 3.66). Interestingly, the results were the same for speaking and reading skills. Both male and female learners agreed that the second most frequent learning skill is reading, and the third one is speaking.

However, there are no significant differences in the use of smart phones between male and female learners in each learning skill. This finding agrees with those of Ghrieb (2015); Ghrieb finds that listening, reading and speaking skills can be learned via mobile phones, but writing skill is different. This result also agrees with the study of Saidouni and Bahloul (2016), who find similar results with their students.

From the above findings, the following research questions can be answered:

1- In terms of gender, what is the most and least frequent language-learning skill (writing, listening, speaking or reading) that students prefer to learn through smart phones based on their previous experiences?

Across all male and female learners' responses, the most frequently learned skill was listening. Writing skills were the least frequently learned skill for both male and female learners.

2- Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female students in terms of their previous experiences of using smart for language-learning skills?

Table 4 shows that the t-test results revealed that the differences between male and female learners in each language learning skill are not significant. This finding indicates that gender is not a significant variable when it comes to using smart phones for developing language-learning skills.

Part 2: Learners' attitudes towards the benefits of using smart phones for learning English

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistic results of learners' responses with regard to their attitudes concerning the benefits of using smart phones for learning English in general, and for developing language-learning skills more specifically.

Table 5: Learners' beliefs concerning the benefits of smart phones for learning English

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Using mobile phones increases the quality of teaching English.	Male	285	3.85	1.212
	Female	318	4.03	1.032
Mobile phones assist a student in learning listening skills.	Male	285	4.12	.993
	Female	318	4.29	.816
Mobile phones assist a student in learning vocabulary.	Male	284	4.16	.981
	Female	318	4.31	.809
Mobile phones assist a student in learning speaking skills.	Male	284	3.92	1.115
	Female	318	4.11	.930
Mobile phones assist a student in learning reading skills.	Male	284	3.89	1.155
	Female	318	4.06	.987
Mobile phones assist a student in learning writing skills.	Male	284	4.07	1.006
	Female	318	4.17	.862
Mobile phones assist a student in learning pronunciation.	Male	284	3.91	1.135
	Female	318	4.00	1.017
Mobile phones assist a student in learning English generally.	Male	284	3.95	1.090
	Female	318	4.17	.938

From Table 5, it is very clear that both male and female learners agreed that using smart phones assists in learning all language-learning skills and increases the quality of teaching English. Surprisingly, both male and female learners stated that smart phones could help in learning vocabulary better than other language skills. However, when it comes to pronunciation, both male and female learners agreed that learning pronunciation through smart phones is less effective than using smart phones for vocabulary. This finding agrees with Ghrieb (2015), who finds that vocabulary is one of the aspects of learning a language that can be learned through smart phones. Both male and female learners considered mobile phone use as positive for learning English (female= 4.17; male= 3.95). This finding agrees with many studies that find using mobile phones

is positive for language learning (Barakat, 2015; Bezircilioğlu, 2016; Ghrieb, 2015; Kim, 2012; Lu, 2008; Saidouni&Bahloul, 2016; Solieman, Ismail &Mustaffa, 2013; Thornton & Houser, 2005).

The above results and discussion answer the third research questions, which says:

3- What attitudes do male and female learners have towards using smart phones for learning English?

Both male and female learners reported that using smart phones for developing language-learning skills and learning English in general is beneficial. They considered that using smart phones increases the quality of teaching English.

However, it is clear that female learners were more positive than male learners, as shown in the table below:

Table 6: Learners' attitudes towards using phones for learning English.

Overall Attitudes concerning using phones for learning English	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig.
	Male	284	31.88	7.235	.019
	Female	318	33.13	5.765	

The overall mean of males' attitudes is 31.88 (SD= 7.23), while the overall mean of females' attitudes is 33.13 (SD= 5.76). The P value is .019, which indicates that the difference between male and female learners' attitudes about using smart phones for learning English is significant. This means that gender is a significant variable when it comes with attitude.

The above result answers the fourth research question in the current study:

4- Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female learners' beliefs about using smart phones for learning English?

The differences between male and female learners are statistically significant in favour of female learners.

Interviews results

In this section, the main answers of the interview questions are presented. The main aim of conducting interviews was to enrich the quantitative data.

- Have you used your smart phone for learning English?

All participants confirmed that they have used their smart phones for learning English.

- What do think about using smart phones for learning English and to what extent has it helped you improve you learning skills?

They reported that several applications have been used for learning English such as TV programs, YouTube, Cambly, Oxford Stories, Google, English Learning websites and the BBC. They confirmed that smart phones have helped them learn English.

- What are the most and least frequent learning skills you prefer to use by your smart phone?

All participants agreed that listening was the most frequently learned skill using their smart phones and writing was the least frequently learned skill. This finding confirms those of the questionnaire.

- How do you see the benefits of using smart phones for learning English vocabulary and what was your experience?

Students reported that smart phones offer different translation applications from which they can learn new vocabulary. Only one student reported that he did not use his smart phone for learning vocabulary.

- From 1 to 10 rate your experience of using smart phones for learning English.

Four students assessed their experience with smart phones at 8/10. The rest rated their experience at 9.5/10. All these answers indicate a positive experience of using smart phones for learning English. There was an agreement between students' responses in the questionnaire and students' answers in the interview.

Conclusion

The aims of the current study were to investigate the previous experiences of EFL learners with regard to using smart phones for developing language-learning skills and to assess the participants' attitudes about using smart phones for learning English. Both male and female learners reported

that they had used smart phones for learning language skills. Listening skillwas the most frequently learned skill through mobile phones, while writing skillwas the least frequently learned skill through smart phones. The participants reported positive attitudes toward using smart phones for learning English. However, female learners were more positive than male learners and the difference between them was statistically significant, which indicates that gender is a significant variable.

It is recommended that there is a need for more studies on the benefits of using smart phones for developing language-learning skills in different contexts and stages of education. By doing so, it should be possible to generalise the findings. Also, it is recommended that teachers of English should encourage their learners to make use of their smart phones when learning English and to identify the factors that obstruct implementing this approach of learning and help students overcome them.

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University Students' Attitude towards English as a Medium of Instruction in Russian Higher Educational Institutions

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Abstract

With the increasing number of university programmes in English, the issue of the ways of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) implementation is getting rather topical. More and more content-based teachers in Russian universities are using English as a medium of instruction for courses that are not related to English language learning. In short, EMI has become a global brand for

universities that choose the strategic vision for internationalization of their programmes. The present study was conducted to investigate the attitude of students learning through EMI. Classes were taught two hours per week during two 16-week terms a year. The data obtained have revealed the benefits and limitations of EMI learning in higher education based on students' perception. The results showed that it is a powerful way for students to achieve their future professional goals through the experience in communication within their field of study using English. The findings also suggested that most students were aware that learning English through the discipline was one of the most effective ways to improve their language skills and to deepen their discipline knowledge. The suggestions provided in the present paper may shed light on the perspective of effective integration of EMI courses at universities and pave the way for effective language policy decisions.

Keywords: English as a Medium of Instruction; higher education; students' perception

Introduction

Nobody would deny that English is a language of globalization and internationalization. Higher educational institutions nowadays are affected by internationalization of English to a great extent. English has become the main lingua franca for research networking, scientific and professional communication across different cultures (Crystal, 2004; Nunan, 2003; Perez-Llantada, 2012). Universities worldwide tend to offer more and more English-medium courses to gain global status and attract more international students, as well as conduct international research. So, English is also the language of scientific communication and is considered to be "a symbol of modernization" (Kachru, 1985, p. 16). Nowadays non-native speakers of English exceed the number of the native speakers (Kaur, 2014). In other words, English is a necessary tool for higher education institutions to collaborate and to put forward more internationalization (Chen & Kraklow, 2014). Therefore, the use of English as a medium instruction in educational programmes of universities has become a strategy which helps them to integrate into a globalized world and to prepare their students to meet the demands of the global market (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011). Because of the phenomenon of globalization and internationalization, Russia, as many other countries, where English is not officially used, has adopted diverse educational policies that aim to support students in acquiring higher levels of English proficiency and preparing them for better leadership positions

and job opportunities in the global market. Involvement in the global economy competition encourages Russia towards putting a stronger emphasis on English education administered by the Ministry of Education at primary and secondary schools.

Most of Russian university students (both local and international) positively view the learning of English and are highly motivated to learn it. In Russia English as a medium of instruction is a very critical topic and specific trend in tertiary institutions. English-medium instruction has been adopted in all top universities of Russia both for the international and for local students. It was introduced to enhance universities' visibility, image and to secure domestic and international university rankings. All of the abovementined shows how important it is to explore the attitudes and preferences of students in order to make the teaching-learning process more engaging and effective. The results of the study are essential for education policy-makers, especially language policy-makers at Russian tertiary education institutions. They might be also critical for worldwide universities which have chosen the way of internationalization and globalization.

Literature Review

English as the Medium of Instruction (EMI) is now extensively used in higher education worldwide. Anne Wiseman and Adrian Odell identify the **reasons** why more and more universities choose English as the language of instruction: it is the 'lingua franca' of their country, EMI is an opportunity to attract a wider range of students, EMI learning makes students more employable in a world where a quarter of the population speaks English (Wiseman & Odell, 2014). Elena Frumina and Richard West note that "more and more Higher Education Institutions are embracing or expanding their international work such as dual degree programmes, academic faculty exchange, student recruitment and joint research" (Frumina & West, 2012). According to the authors, courses delivered partly or wholly in a foreign language aim at attracting foreign students and improving the ranking of Russian universities.

Implementation of EMI in higher education plays a vital role in multilingual classroom environment and meets the needs of both students and lecturers. However, benefits and challenges of its wide applications need deep studying in regard to participants' linguistic competence, motivation and needs to make this process effective.

The following ***benefits*** of EMI have been pointed out in previous research: fostering international relationship, developing presentation skills, developing advanced English skills, enhancing educational achievements and access to higher education, and increasing the chance of upward social and economic mobility (Evans & Li, 2018), improving students' academic language, providing with direct access to original materials in English rather than their translated versions, increasing cultural tolerance, promoting participation in international academic events (Zare-ee & Hejazi, 2017).

Factors that can affect the effectiveness of EMI implementation are attributed to cultural, social, academic, technological and economic reasons (Zare-ee & Hejazi, 2017). Julie Dearden considers the ***limitations*** of EMI in non-native education environment such as teachers' low linguistic preparation, lack of appropriate support from the universities, insufficient organizational and pedagogical guidelines which might lead to effective EMI teaching and learning, diversity of students' backgrounds and language proficiency levels. These challenges are common at most educational institutions teaching subjects through the medium of English in a generally non-English speaking environment (Dearden, 2014).

Previous research has investigated the participants' attitudes towards implementing EMI at universities. In particular, Da-Fu Huang (Huang, 2015) has studied the students' perception of EMI courses. The author has elicited the ***suggestions*** from the students concerning possible improvements of applying EMI: providing EMI courses to choose from, using various explanation approaches to help students better comprehend the learning points, motivating students by providing interesting and comfortable learning conditions, including sufficient practical exercises. The author emphasizes that multinational classes promote learning motivation. Nurcihan Basibek, et al. (Basibek, et al., 2014) have devoted their research to lecturers' perception and revealed that in spite of generally positive attitude to EMI, lecturers find it reasonable to offer some courses both in English and native languages electively and to improve necessary (including interactive) skills needed for lecturing in English by attending specialized training courses for language, communication and pedagogical support. Teresa Morell, et al. (Morell, et al., 2014) believe that support system must be developed and English for specific purposes (ESP) must be introduced into the curriculum and interaction in tutorials and classwork may also be required in English.

Materials and Methods

We are presenting the results of an empirical study of 55 students from National Research Tomsk Polytechnic University. This questionnaire-based research was conducted among third-year engineering students. The survey measured quantitative aspects of EMI in relation to students' perception, outcomes and self-evaluation.

The survey aimed to investigate Russian students' perception of EMI courses. The questions focused on their motivation to study academic subjects in English, self-assessment of EMI courses outcomes, benefits and challenges of EMI learning.

Table 1. Questionnaire 1

Which features of EMI can you evidence? (Tick as many as apply)
1.   EMI reinforces my intercultural communication.
2.   EMI learning involves additional load (e.g. translating scientific vocabulary).
3.   It is difficult to express myself within EMI courses.
4.   EMI improves my academic English.
5.   EMI contributes to my English proficiency.
6.   Engagement in EMI courses enhances my future employment prospects.
7.   Engagement in EMI courses contributes to my participation in academic exchange programmes.
8.   EMI increases my willingness to speak in the target language.
9.   My language proficiency is sufficient to understand the content of EMI courses.
10.   I am satisfied with the structure and organization of EMI courses.
11.   EMI learning is mostly positive experience.
12.   EMI learning is mostly negative experience.

Table 2. Questionnaire 2

1.   What are the most valuable components of EMI learning?
2.   What are the least valuable components of EMI learning?

3. What improvements in your EMI courses would you suggest?

Results and Discussion

With regard to overall attitude to EMI learning, most of the respondents, 46 (84%), assessed it as mostly positive experience, 6 (11%) – mostly negative experience, 3 respondents (5%) were uncertain whether to identify it as positive or negative. 26 students (47%) admitted that EMI learning reinforces their intercultural communication. Meanwhile, 36 students (65%) reported that EMI learning involves additional load and 21 (38%) found it difficult to express themselves within EMI courses. 38 (69%) respondents have improved their academic English. 35 students (64%) reported that EMI contributes to their English proficiency. 32 (58%) stated that engagement in EMI courses enhances their future employment prospects. 17 (31%) respondents evidenced that engagement in EMI courses contributes to their participation in academic exchange programmes. 33 respondents (60%) documented that applying EMI increased their willingness to speak in the target language. 30 (55%) claimed that that their language proficiency is sufficient to understand the content of EMI courses. 30 (55%) are satisfied with the structure and organization of EMI courses.

The respondents indicated that the most valuable components of EMI learning were:
- speaking;
- learning scientific vocabulary;
- interaction;
- creativity;
- developing presentation skills;
- listening;
- explanation of terms;
- studying grammar;
- reading technical literature;
- variety of classroom activities;
- communication with native speakers.

At the same time some respondents mentioned the following components of EMI learning as the least valuable:

- dictations;

- reading sentences;

- the electronic course;

- games;

- watching video;

- too much theoretical knowledge in comparison with its practical implementation;

- advanced studying of grammar.

The respondents have suggested the following improvements in EMI courses:

- allocate more academic hours to EMI courses;

- divide learners into groups according to their language proficiency;

- include more speaking activities;

- arrange more interaction between students and the teacher;

- introduce team-work with international students;

- pre-teach subjects in native language;

- apply individual approach;

- watch films in English (with English subtitles);

- include listening activities with discussions;

- provide professional literature in English;

- practice abroad;

- show more creativity in preparation of assignments;

- implement more active assignments;

- include more interesting topics for discussion;

- deliver more information;

- opportunities to participate in academic exchange programmes;

- revision of terms;

- improve lecturers' language proficiency;

- set more home tasks;

- study authentic scientific articles;

- invite native speakers;

- conduct quizzes, games, contests.

The results of the questionnaires analysis confirmed that students view EMI learning as mostly positive, it contributes to students' English proficiency including academic English, encourages them to speak in the target language, and also enhances their future employment prospects. More than half of the respondents reported that they were able to understand the content of EMI courses and satisfied with the structure and organization of EMI courses.

The study has also revealed several limitations. In particular, according to the students' perception, EMI courses reinforce intercultural communication or contribute to their participation in academic exchange programmes to a small extent. This can be the result of choosing inappropriate teaching strategies. Besides, the study revealed insufficient attention paid to students who fall behind, taking into account that almost half of the learners that participated in the survey experienced difficulties in content learning in English.

The results of the data analysis demonstrate that most of the students' suggestions refer to innovative approach to EMI, indicate the need for authentic material, wider introduction of academic exchange programmes and involvement of native speakers, implementation of classroom interaction techniques, group division as well as higher teachers' language proficiency. The data obtained tends to suggest that in order to improve the level of students' academic performance there is a great demand for expanding the opportunities for international interaction, pre-teaching a subject in their native language, applying individual approach and providing assistance to low-performing students. The survey results also allow us to conclude that EMI courses need to be focused more on developing productive skills.

Conclusion

In this paper, the authors have presented the attitudes of Russian non-English bachelor students at National Research Tomsk Polytechnic University towards the use of EMI learning strategy. More than half of the participants expressed their positive attitudes towards its use in their programmes. To summarize the results of the findings, EMI learning has proved to be a powerful way for students to achieve their future professional goals through communication in English within their field of study. It is necessary to note that the ultimate goal of EMI programmes is allowing students to acquire both the content and language, not sacrificing one for the other. The present study proves that students are likely to maximize benefits from EMI classes as they

improve their English proficiency and increase their background knowledge. Therefore, realistic school policies should be implemented for students to be more frequently exposed to both English and the subject content. While this study covers only a small group of students and instructors with a limited questionnaire, its results and implications can be added to the growing body of knowledge in the area of EMI programmes. Further research into this field, especially the long-term effect of EMI programmes and in-depth interviews with the participants would significantly help to expand our comprehension of how content and language can be learned simultaneously.

Acknowledgement

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Saudi Female EFL Learners' Perceptions of Their Language Learning Experiences: A Metaphor Analysis

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to explore how Saudi female EFL college students translate their experiences in learning English into metaphors and what implications such metaphors have about foreign language learning. Pursuing the deep insights that underlie metaphorically used language, the study elicited metaphors from 30 Saudi female English majors by asking them to complete an English sentence stem: "English language learning is like . . . because . . ." The participants also took part in a semi-structured interview in which they were asked to clarify their metaphors and relate them to an actual English learning experience. The data were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively to find out what the most dominant conceptual metaphors about English learning are and how frequent each metaphor is. The results are relatively similar to those of previous metaphor analysis studies conducted on language learners. The study concluded that English learning is described as A NECESSITY, SKILL, ADDICTION, FINANCIAL INVESTMENT, NEW EXPERIENCE, ENTERTAINMENT, JOURNEY, MAGNITUDE, REBIRTH and CHANGE. Moreover, the findings reflected the participants' beliefs about foreign language learning manifested by a tendency towards behaviorist and learner-centered approaches towards language learning.

Keywords: metaphor analysis, linguistic metaphor, conceptual metaphor, foreign language, English

Introduction

As noted by some researchers (Ellis, 2008; Farjami, 2012), the way students perceive the foreign language they are learning is of high value to providing insights into language teaching and learning problems and has a huge impact on the way students approach that language, the strategies and techniques they adopt to learn it, their motivation and eventually their resulting language proficiency. Proceeding from this assumption, the present study seeks to obtain an

elaborate understanding of these perceptions through metaphor which is, according to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), first, "pervasive in everyday life, not just in language, but in thought and action" (p. 3), second, a direct window to one's conceptual system. Influenced by such an approach to metaphor, namely, the cognitive linguistic approach, a considerable number of studies has been carried out exploring beliefs, attitudes and perceptions about education related concepts through the analysis of metaphor. However, most of these studies have focused on conceptions about teachers, teachers' prior knowledge, and teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning (e.g., Arslan & Cinkara, 2016; Farrell, 2006; Kalra & Baveja, 2012; Lin, Shein & Yang, 2012; Simsek, 2014; Theado, 2013). Therefore, "the majority of [metaphor analysis] studies focused on the metaphors produced by the teachers not the language learners themselves" (Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008, p.192-193) which leads to unwittingly ignoring what students experience in learning a foreign language. Even those studies which targeted metaphors developed by learners aimed at investigating learners' conceptions about teachers (e.g., Kesen, 2010; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008) with little attention directed to those learners' experiences in learning the target language in spite of the fact that students are as vital an organ in the body of education as teachers are in the sense that their beliefs and learning experiences are significant to the success of the educational process. Moreover, very little metaphor research has been conducted on Saudi EFL learners, not to mention metaphor analysis studies despite the increasing interest in EFL learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia.

Motivated by the little literature available on metaphors produced by EFL/ESL learners on the one hand and the lack of metaphor analysis studies on Saudi EFL learners on the other, this study aims to (a) explore the linguistic metaphors that Saudi female EFL college students develop to describe their experiences in learning English; (b) find out what conceptual metaphors underlie the linguistic ones.

In short, the study raises two research questions:

1. What linguistic metaphors do Saudi female EFL college students develop to describe their experiences in learning English?
2. What conceptual metaphors underlie the linguistic ones?

This study exerts its value from the prospect that it will provide valuable insights into how learners view English, what attitudes they have toward it, what motivates them and what difficulties they encounter learning it through the metaphors they would develop to describe it.

Therefore, "[w]hen teachers are aware of learners' beliefs and subjective impressions related to foreign language learning, they can adjust the instructional material and activities accordingly and bring about more learner-centered teaching" (Farjami, 2012, p. 94). In short, the findings of this study will contribute to the English language learner pedagogy as well as motivation research and attitude studies. Moreover, due to the few metaphor analysis studies conducted on EFL/ESL learners to explore their beliefs and views about language learning, this study is believed to add to the existing literature on learner conceptualization of foreign language. Finally, because little metaphor research has been carried out on Arab EFL learners in general and Saudi EFL learners in particular, the present study is believed to be a pioneer in the Arab and Saudi EFL context in adopting metaphor analysis as a qualitative research method for the purpose of exploring learners' conceptions about English.

Literature Review

Metaphor Revisited

Broadly speaking, when metaphor is summoned, two competing approaches are considered. One that is greatly affected by Aristotelian rhetoric and, therefore, based on the notion that, first, the essence of metaphor is a transfer of meaning which takes place when a particular object is not called by its original name, but instead, by a name that belongs to another. Accordingly, metaphor is a matter of words; a linguistic phenomenon and a sign of extraordinary linguistic ability. Second, metaphor is a deviation from literal language due to the previously mentioned meaning transfer which is the cornerstone upon which metaphor stands. Third, metaphor is based on analogy in the sense that there should be an underlying resemblance between two things that would allow for the meaning transfer to be made (Gibbs, 1994). Viewing metaphor as totally linguistic, the traditional rhetorical approach pays no heed to the cognitive basis of metaphor nor the means by which language users process and make sense of it (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010). These aspects of metaphor make up what is now known as the traditional approach to metaphor.

The cognitive linguistic approach, on the other hand, manifested by conceptual metaphor theory, views metaphor through a completely different lens. Instead of being a matter of language or a figure of speech created by means of analogy, it is rather a matter of thought and reason. According to Lakoff (1993), metaphor should be defined as "a cross-domain mapping in the conceptual system" (p. 203), thus, "[t]he language is secondary, [t]he mapping is primary" (p.

208). In other words, two conceptual domains are identified; one is understood in terms of the other. For example, in the often cited metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY, the two conceptual domains are LIFE and JOURNEY wherein life is understood as if it were a journey (Kovecses, 2010). Consequently, a metaphor is created when "an item of one domain of meanings is transferred into another domain of meanings based on the similarity the language user identifies between the two items" (Fabian, 2013, p. 1026). Such a view makes metaphor out to be of a systematic nature which dictates that language should respond to the mode of thought in the sense that any mapping is a fixed pattern of conceptual correspondences across domains. Therefore, in LIFE IS A JOURNEY, a person leading a life corresponds to a traveler. Such systematicity states that because life is conceptualized as a journey, linguistic expressions such as *I'm at a crossroads in my life*, and *he's without direction in his life* exist (Lakoff, 1993).

The fundamental assumption that underlies this approach is that metaphor is "a major and indispensable part of our ordinary, conventional way of conceptualizing the world, and that our everyday behavior reflects our metaphorical understanding of experience" (Lakoff, 1993, p. 204). Moreover, metaphor is the product of a set of mappings between a source domain and a target domain. The target domain refers to the entity that is being discussed, it is equivalent to tenor in the traditional approach whereas the source domain, as the term indicates, refers to the source of the metaphorical expression which makes it equivalent to vehicle; the image used to describe the target (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010). Simply put, metaphor consists of two conceptual domains; one is interpreted in terms of the other.

Given its deep interest in the cognitive foundation of metaphor, conceptual metaphor theory distinguishes between linguistic metaphors (also called metaphorical linguistic expressions or linguistic expressions) and conceptual metaphors. Kovecses (2010) claims that while linguistic metaphors refer to words or expressions that belong to the language or terminology of the more concrete domain (source), conceptual metaphors, on the other hand, refer to the domain underlying a particular set of linguistic expressions used to describe another more abstract domain (target). In other words, linguistic metaphors should be viewed as ways of talking about some concept. Such metaphors also happen to be manifestations of the conceptual ones which in turn should be viewed as ways of thinking.

Metaphor as a Research Tool

In an article entitled *Why Metaphors Are Necessary and Not Just Nice*, Ortony (1975) outlines three hypotheses about metaphor: compactness, inexpressibility and vividness. The compactness hypothesis states that when a metaphor is created, multiple specific meanings are compacted with the least of words; "without the need for the message to explicitly spell out all the details" (p. 47) and without listing all the implications a metaphor invokes. Furthermore, literal language might fall short of the expressive demands of some ideas and experiences which makes metaphor a necessary alternative making up for such a shortcoming in the sense that it has the capacity to capture and express what otherwise would be inexpressible, hence, the inexpressibility hypothesis. Finally, the vividness hypothesis is concerned with "the emotive force of metaphor" (p. 50), that is, the fact that metaphor appeals to the emotive, sensory and cognitive aspects of experience brings about vividness and richness of detail.

The cognitive linguistic view has bestowed upon metaphor the privilege of fundamentally being a matter of thought, not language (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003), therefore, metaphor grants access to a conceptual system and ways of thinking. Accordingly, it can be claimed that metaphor has salient characteristics that has made it a good candidate for examination and exploration to detect how language speakers make sense of what they see and experience around them. These characteristics include the notion that metaphor is universal in the sense that not only is it a linguistic phenomenon but also a conceptual, cognitive, psychological and philosophical one as it has entered and contributed to such fields (Zhang & Hu, 2009). Also, metaphor "is an omnipresent principle of human languages and makes abstraction possible, therefore it is a must to think in metaphor" (Zhang & Hu, 2009, p. 79). The notion of universality is as well evident in that many different unrelated languages share some metaphors from the domain of emotion and other abstract concepts such as HAPPINESS IS UP and TIME IS MONEY (Kovecses, 2008).

Due to its systematic nature, metaphor is believed to provide significant insights into how language users think and make sense of their experiences considering the fact that "[i]t is a system of metaphor that structures our everyday conceptual system, including most abstract concepts, and that lies behind much of everyday language" (Lakoff, 1993, p. 204). Additionally, because language systematically responds to thought, it is no coincidence that linguistic expressions like *attack a position*, *strategy*, *indefensible*, *new line of attack*, *win*, and *gain ground* mean what they mean when they are used to talk about argument. It is simply because argument is conceptualized

as war that the vocabulary used to discuss it belongs to the domain of war. Accordingly, the best way to understand the metaphorical nature of these concepts is to study the linguistic expressions indicating them (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003).

Another reason why metaphor is adopted as a research tool to examine views and beliefs as well as represent experience is that "so many of the concepts that are important to us are either abstract or not clearly delineated in our experience" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 115) but with the assistance of metaphor, such concepts can be simplified, clarified and understood in terms of other clearer terms (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). Therefore, a quite abstract concept such as learning a foreign language will be made more tangible and simpler if it is to be understood in terms of a more concrete concept.

In the field of education, metaphor is favored over other data collection methods owing to the fact that metaphor is much less direct and more implicit which might encourage participants to articulate their opinions and views more freely than they would do with other direct methods (Fabian, 2013). In other words, the main reason why metaphor serves as a good investigatory tool of one's education-related views is that the highly efficient research instruments such as questionnaires and interviews are not fully guaranteed to provide reliable results due to "the fact that when the possibility of losing face emerges during the research, some educated subjects, like teachers themselves, tend to respond in a way which meets the expectations of the environment towards the ideal professional model rather than to reveal the real situation" (Atkinson et al., 2001; as cited in Fabian, 2013, p.1026). Such an argument is also supported by Ellis (2008) who identifies two reasons why metaphor is believed to yield more reliable data than questionnaires or interviews. First, participants might not report their beliefs accurately, but instead, report what they think the researcher wants them to say. Second, self-report instruments assume that participants are aware of the beliefs they hold about the examined concept but unfortunately "some beliefs lie below the threshold of consciousness or cannot be easily and directly expressed" (p. 13). This is where metaphor fits in armed with its salient features: universal, ubiquitous, systematic, and implicit. All these features have made a good research tool out of it.

Conceptions of Foreign Language Learning

In an early study conducted by Thornbury (1991), three common metaphors about language and language learning were identified. These metaphors depict language as a puzzle, a machine and a journey. The participants used linguistic expressions such as *I got lost in the amount of*

information, *you start to see how it falls into place* and *I couldn't process it.* Cortazzi and Jin's (1999) comprehensive study was carried out to investigate the sort of metaphors teachers and students use to refer to learning and language among other education-related concepts. The study was conducted on 128 UK primary teachers, 140 British undergraduate students taking primary education courses, and 140 British undergraduate students of communication studying English linguistics. Cortazzi and Jin employed a collection of research tools including interviews in which participants were asked to provide narratives about the examined concepts. Metaphors were also elicited by asking the participants to complete a sentence stem: 'Language is . . .' The study generated a variety of metaphors about learning depicting it as A CLICK as manifested by expressions like *it just clicked together* and *it's clicked in his mind*. Also, LEARNING IS LIGHT exemplified by linguistic metaphors such as *the light dawns*, *her face lit up* and *he's seen the light*, LEARNING IS MOVEMENT reflected by *she came from nothing*, *she's gone* and *this sudden lap*, LEARNING IS A JIGSAW as in *the pieces came together*, *it all sort of came into place*, and LEARNING IS TAKING as in *he suddenly picked it up*, and *it takes the thing into its head*. Similarly, language was described as AN INSTITUTION, FINANCE, A JIGSAW PUZZLE, DEPTH OR CHANGE, NATURE, LEISURE, TOOL, JOURNEY, RELATIONSHIPS, and BUILDING.

Seeking to analyze spontaneous metaphors developed by six learners, Ellis' (2008) study yielded five conceptual metaphors: LEARNING AS A JOURNEY manifested by metaphorical expressions such as *get hopelessly lost*, LEARNING AS A PUZZLE reflected by *cracking grammar*, LEARNING AS SUFFERING as in a *shock to my system*, LEARNING AS A STRUGGLE indicated by *literally pulled to pieces*, and LEARNING AS WORK reflected by *extra work paid off*.

Examining metaphors for the language learning theories they imply was one of the objectives of de Guerrero and Villamil's (2002) prominent study. Through elicitation, the study produced multiple metaphors about language learning according to which language learning is viewed as moving toward a goal, receiving guidance, support and orientation, receiving input and processing information, change and advancement, growth and development, resisting change, constructing knowledge, being shaped, making errors and being corrected, exercise, practice and hard work.

Conducted on a large number of participants, Farjami's (2012) study aimed at exploring the beliefs that learners hold about English as a foreign language. Following metaphor elicitation

methods, the study concluded that foreign language is viewed as SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY, LIGHT, ENTERTAINMENT, MACHINE, BABY EXPERIENCE, FOOD AND COOKING, and CONSTRUCTION WORK, JOURNEY, MUSIC, EXPLORATION, FIGHT and ARTS.

Surprisingly, the findings of the reviewed studies converge in many ways in spite of the fact that these studies were conducted in different contexts on subjects learning different foreign languages. Furthermore, different and various data collection methods were used in each of these studies including forms, interviews, self-reports, and questionnaires. Yet, the findings are relatively similar as more dominant themes emerged such as those describing language learning as a JOURNEY, PUZZLE, LIGHT, ENTERTAINMENT, INFORMATION PROCESSING, INPUT AND OUTPUT and CHANGE. Such a convergence in the findings supports Kovecses' (2008) claim that some metaphors are universal in the sense that they describe certain concepts across different cultures and contexts in similar ways.

Methodology
Participants

The present study was conducted on 30 Saudi female college students majoring in English aged between 19-25 mostly in their senior year or in the advanced levels at a Saudi University. English is their first foreign language experience. Because there were some criteria considered in selecting the research participants including the participants' age group, level of education, level of language proficiency, purposeful sampling was the most suitable method for investigating the research problem. The reason why the researcher limited the eligibility of participation to senior and advanced level students was that such students are more likely to be able to reflect on their four-year learning experience as English majors. Additionally, one of the criteria considered in selecting the participants was that they should have a good command of English for the sake of providing analyzable data.

Research Instrument

The process of data collection went through two stages: (a) getting the participants to develop linguistic metaphors by filling out a form in which they were asked to complete a sentence stem: "English language learning is like . . . because . . . " and (b) interviewing the participants to ask

them follow-up questions regarding the metaphors they had developed. The interviews included two main questions:

1. Why did you choose that metaphor to describe your English language learning experience?

2. What is it that you have experienced as an English language learner that made you choose that metaphor?

The interviews served as a metaphor checking process; a procedure used in some metaphor analysis studies (e.g., Bauer, 2012; Davis, 2009). This method is basically utilized to maintain the validity and reliability of the gathered information and to minimize potential researcher bias. The first question is concerned with checking the researcher's understanding and interpretations of the produced metaphors against the participant's intention and perception of the target concept, "English language learning", whereas the main purpose of the second question is to make sense of the metaphor provided in relation to an actual learning experience to assist the researcher with detecting the resulting entailments and implications.

It took most of the participants 10-15 minutes to develop a metaphor. The task was not particularly difficult as they were familiar with the concept of metaphor. One day after the forms were filled, the participants were interviewed answering the two main follow-up questions. The researcher might have added other questions depending on the participants' responses. Such questions were asked for more clarification about the similarities between the metaphor provided and language learning.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data, the study benefited from many of the frameworks and procedures developed in the field of metaphor analysis, namely, Cameron and Low's (1999), de Guerrero and Villamil's (2002) and Armstrong's (2007). Accordingly, the analysis went through the following steps:

1. Identifying the linguistic metaphors that the participants produced.
2. Identifying the source and target domains of each linguistic metaphor.
3. Mapping the knowledge of the source onto the target.
4. Grouping the similar linguistic metaphors into potential conceptual ones.
5. Developing conceptual metaphors from the linguistic ones.
6. Identifying the metaphorical entailments of each conceptual metaphor.

The forms yielded 30 analyzable linguistic metaphors. The data were analyzed qualitatively as well as quantitatively: qualitatively by identifying the conceptual metaphors underlying the linguistic ones, quantitatively by providing the frequency of use of each metaphor (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

Table 1 below provides an illustration of how the metaphor analysis was conducted from identifying the linguistic metaphors, finding out the correspondences between the source and target to extracting the conceptual metaphors and their entailments. Such a detailed procedure for analyzing elicited metaphors was proposed by Bauer's (2012) study in which she followed the procedure of metaphor analysis developed by Armstrong (2007).

Table 1

Metaphor Analysis Procedure

1. **Conceptual Metaphor:** ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A SKILL.	
Source Domain: *Baking*	**Target Domain:** English language learning
Source knowledge mapped onto target: • It cannot be mastered without a considerable amount of practice. • The theoretical instructions alone never help. • It takes a lot of hard work and time.	
Source Domain: *Drawing*	
Source knowledge mapped onto target: • It is art (language learning is art). • One must have a passion for it (motivation). • It comes in many shapes and forms (many linguistic fields: syntax, semantics, and phonetics). • It takes a lot of practice.	
Source Domain:	

Learning how to dance in the rain.	
Source knowledge mapped onto target: • Not everyone can do it. • It takes a lot of time and practice. • It is difficult at the beginning.	
Metaphorical Entailments of ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A SKILL: • It requires a lot of practice. • It takes a lot of time. • It is difficult at the beginning. • One cannot be skilled in something unless he/she is passionate about it.	

Results and Discussion

Conceptions about English Language Learning

The metaphor analysis yielded ten conceptual metaphors:

1. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A NECESSITY.
2. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A SKILL.
3. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A FINANCIAL INVESTMENT.
4. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A JOURNEY/SAILING/TRAVELING/A MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION.
5. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS ENTERTAINMENT/FUN/A CHALLENGE.
6. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS ADDICTION.
7. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS MAGNITUDE/DEPTH.
8. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A NEW EXPERIENCE.
9. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS REBIRTH.
10. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS CHANGE.

Table 2 below lists the linguistic metaphors obtained from the forms and the resulting conceptual ones. Since identifying conceptual metaphors involves inference, it is imperative that the LMs from which these CMs were derived be listed. This strategy ensures the validity of the analysis and results as it shows how a group of LMs indicate a CM (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Such a procedure is also supported by many eminent researchers in the field such as Cortazzi and Jin (1999), de Guerrero and Villamil (2002) and Armstrong (2007).

Table 2

Linguistic Metaphors and Resulting Conceptual Ones

Sentence stem: **English language learning is like . . .**	Because (reasoning)	Conceptual metaphor
a lamp in the darkness	Nowadays we use in [sic] English in our daily life. It's an international language.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A NECESSITY
an important needing[sic] Food/water	We need it and use it in our daily life.	
Baking	You learn best by practice not by studying.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A SKILL
Drawing	You have to try, practice, and there must be patience and desire.	
learning how to dance in the rain.	At first, it would be hard and maybe a little bit uncomfortable and most of us would feel anxious about it and will get wet. But through time, learning and experiencing it and how to get used to it, mostly would be way more easier [sic] and perhaps, some of us might find a way to make that dance more interesting or fun to be experienced and learned.	
investing money and saving it for future.	The language will help the learners outside their zone when they travel and encounter the English culture.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A FINANCIAL INVESTMENT
passport to the world	If you want to know about [sic] country or culture, you need to know the language of that	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A JOURNEY/SAILING/

	country. Language is the first step to know the world.	TRAVELING/A MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION
a ship that stops at every island it passes the way	Learning is acquiring what you love without intentions with some difficulties.	
walking in a slightly or very dim [sic] lighted tunnel but there is a very bright light at the end	As I was learning, the small achievements like learning new difficult word [sic] was the dem [sic] light but in the end as I consider myself became competent in the language that was the bright light at the end.	
challenge	We have to challenge ourselves even when we face a lot of obstacles especially at the beginning when we try to learn the language.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS ENTERTAINMENT/FUN/A CHALLENGE
collecting pices [sic] of one puzzle.	It has different [sic] pieses that complete each one to form one bigger picture.	
an adventure for me	Every day I discover a [sic] new things and I try to use it in my everyday life, also because I make friends with foreign people to improve my language and that is interesting to me.	
complex game	No matter how hard you work, you have fun when you do.	
play a game	Learning is interesting and quite difficult.	
reading a new novel	When you put it down, you keep wanting more.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS ADDICTION

an ocean	Learning a language itself has a lot of difficulties one faces and a lot of information requires [sic] to learn a language.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS MAGNITUDE/DEPTH
unlimited world	It has a lot of rules and words and we faces [sic] problem [sic] with these rules and words.	
Ocean	It consists of many vocabulary and rules, it's unlimited and every day there is [sic] new word invented.	
looking at space	It is wild, huge, endless and there are new things that will be discovered.	
opening a wide windo [sic] from your own small spaced room to a whole world	When we acquire a language it shorten [sic] the distance and open to us a new source of knowledge and a new way to understand another [sic] cultures, history and a new view to the world.	
a big world of exchanging knowledge and culture	It help [sic] us communicate with all kinds of people.	
moving to a whole new country	Every day I encounter new words or a different use of a word I already now [sic], I've met new people from all over the world with different experiences and cultures.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A NEW EXPERIENCE.
eating Chinese food	When you ete [sic] it you will discover [sic] new flavor in every spone [sic] the same with learning English you will	

	discover new thing [sic] in the world and yourself and unexpected and funny things.	
visiting a new country	It is weird, exciting, beautiful, interesting and you cannot get enough!	
entering a whole new world	It has its own people and their special communication between each others [sic] that has no limits, so its [sic] an endless world.	
a new world	It is a new culture and it is the first language in the world.	
a new born baby	It's a new language new vocabulary that we try to figure out and go deep on [sic] it.	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS REBIRTH
baby steps	I develop with each step I take.	
staying at a relatives [sic]house as a child	When you stay at their house, you will have to follow their rules, behiveaurs [sic], the way they speak and think. You might even keep these with you once you go back to your home (first language).	ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS CHANGE
having new characteristics	It opens the mind to think of new ideas and to be involved with other communities.	

The beliefs that the participants hold about language learning played an essential role in the way the metaphors were produced. Some of the data displayed a tendency towards a behaviorist approach to language learning by describing the process of learning as being dependent on practice, imitation and trial and error. So *baking* is similar to English learning because both involve

a lot of practice. Such an entailment of baking indicates the idea that as far as language learning is concerned, the theoretical instructions alone are useless. This was explicitly stated by one participant who said, "I can't be good unless I practice . . . I've learned the basics like rules and everything but you can't use that in everydays [sic] life." Trial and error as a learning strategy was also considered as one of the requirements of language learning. Therefore, learning is described as drawing because "you have to try so many strategies till you get the final good, you know, photo and try so many colors until you hit that right color." Beside practice and trial and error, imitation is another learning method the data considered as expressed by one participant; "I learned by imitation. You need to imitate native speakers."

Likewise, one of the entailments of *a sailing ship that stops at every island* is the belief that a voyage usually has no carefully planned itinerary just like how a learner might acquire linguistic knowledge without planning or intending to. Such a view about learning is what the participant mentioned saying, "because I think I learned without any plans" as opposed to those who described language learning as a complex game because both have varying difficulty levels; only when a learner/gamer passes one level, he/she is qualified to move to the next. This metaphor reflects the idea that learning should take place based on priority. The entailments of *baby steps* are no different from *complex game* as they both point to the fact that learners are supposed to start from mastering the basics then work their way up to the more complex aspects of language.

The data also showed a tendency towards a learner-centered approach to language learning. In other words, the beliefs that many of the participants have about learning suggest that they find themselves accountable for their own learning. Very few participants referred to their teachers as the primary source of knowledge or as a determining factor in their failure or success. Therefore, one of the reasons why English learning is *a complex game* is that a gamer who is totally responsible for winning or losing is the same as a learner whose success or failure depends on how hard he/she works. In other words, "it depends on the learner himself, how many scores he gets in that learning." Other participants explicitly stated that their teachers had little to do with their learning, "I took a path on my own hands to learn [sic] language and didn't depend on the teacher." The learner-centered approach was also evident in the ways the participants talked about their learning experiences and the strategies they adopted to acquire the target language. For instance, elaborating on the sources of learning she depended on, one participant said, "I learned everything by practicing, by listening to English, by shadowing conversations I hear in video games, in TV

shows and everything. In school, like, yes I've learned the basics, like, rules and everything but you can't use that in everydays [sic] life."

In addition, a focus on either the structural or functional aspects of language emerged from the data. Thus, metaphors like *collecting pieces of one puzzle* showed awareness of the structure of language as being a whole composed of different elements. These pieces stand for the various branches of linguistic knowledge: semantics, syntax, and basic language skills. When English is described as *the ocean* or *unlimited world*, foreign language is recognized for its structure such as the vastness of vocabulary and grammatical rules just as much as the basics in *baby steps* are learning single words, spelling, pronunciation and reading. The remainder of the data, on the other hand, focused on the functional aspects, that is, how English is used for communicative purposes. So, learning English is A NECESSITY because of the communicative potential it has. In other words, learning English facilitates communication with other cultures and grants access to sources of knowledge one otherwise would not have. Therefore, metaphors like *a big world of exchanging knowledge and culture*, *opening a wide window*, *moving to a whole new country*, and *a passport to the world* all view language as a means of communication rather than a set of grammatical rules and vocabulary items.

To situate the current study within the existing literature about learner conceptualizations of foreign language, this section will compare its findings to those of the most prominent studies in the field, namely, Cortazzi and Jin's (1999), Ellis' (2008), de Guerrero and Villamil's (2002), and Farjami's (2012). Generally, the results of the present study displayed convergence to those of the previously cited ones in many ways, whether in the produced linguistic metaphors or the resulting conceptions about language. First, the resulting linguistic and conceptual metaphors corresponded to many of those obtained from Cortazzi and Jin's study, that is, both studies concluded that language learning is A JOURNEY exemplified by motorway and mystery tour in the case of Cortazzi and Jin's study and ship and walking in a tunnel in the present study. Likewise, in both studies, when language is depicted as the sea or the ocean, it is to indicate its depth and magnitude. Also, both studies view language as FINANCE/FINANCIAL INVESTMENT manifested by expressions like money, stock exchange and investment. Yet, there are other similar metaphors but with slightly different entailments. For instance, according to the present study, language learning is solving a puzzle mostly because it is just as interesting and enjoyable whereas it is a

jigsaw puzzle in Cortazzi and Jin's study because of the integrity of language reflected by the expression the pieces fit together.

The current study identified three of the five conceptual metaphors developed by Ellis' (2008) study. Despite the different methods of collecting the data, both studies concluded that language learning is conceptualized as A JOURNEY implying the same entailments of making progress, impediments to progress, obstacles and adversities and finally reaching the destination. Another similarity in the findings is that the challenging aspect of learning a language is highlighted by metaphors describing it as STRUGGLE in Ellis' study and A CHALLENGE in the present study. Even though both studies might be similar in the metaphors produced, each yielded some divergence from the other. While language in the present study was described as a puzzle to emphasize the aspect of ENTERTAINMENT involved in solving it, in Ellis' study learning was conceptualized as a PUZZLE, based on the linguistic expression cracking grammar, to point to the baffling nature of grammar.

Compared to the conceptual metaphors outlined by de Guerrero and Villamil's (2002) study, the current study corresponded to three of them. Thus, both studies concluded that language learning is moving toward a goal or a JOURNEY. Similarly, the notion that language learning is CHANGE or development was highlighted by both studies. Practice is another way of viewing language learning shared by both studies. The idea that language learning requires a lot of practice was expressed in the current study under the CM category, SKILL, considering the fact that one of the basic entailments of something being a skill is the hard work and practice required for it. However, de Guerrero and Villamil's findings included other conceptions about language learning that were not concluded by the present study such as the idea that learning is information processing or receiving input and producing output.

Finally, it should be noted that the findings of the present study are very similar to those of Farjami's (2012) as most of the conceptual metaphors developed by the results were expressed by Farjami's. Despite being formulated in various ways, both studies reported the same conceptions about foreign language learning. Therefore, describing language learning as BABY EXPERIENCE conveys the same perceptions about language that REBIRTH implies in that both invite similar entailments evident in the idea that a learner is like a child learning their first language. Likewise, when learning is viewed as CHANGE in this study, it is compared to IDENTITY RENEWAL in Farjami's which cogently expresses the same view about foreign

language that it brings about change in a learner's character. In short, most of the conceptions about foreign language reported by the current study including ENTERTAINMENT, JOURNEY, SKILL, and NEW EXPERIENCE were part of the results obtained from Farjami's study. A potential explanation for this convergence could be attributed to the large sample on which Farjami's study was carried out. Another way to explain the remarkable similarities among the findings of most metaphor analysis studies on language learners draws upon the claims of conceptual metaphor theory, namely, the notion that human experience is partly universal as some concepts are perceived in similar ways across various cultures (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; Kovecses, 2008).

Frequency of Linguistic and Conceptual Metaphors

The quantitative aspect of the analysis is concerned with identifying the frequency and percentage of the linguistic metaphors as well as the percentage of the conceptual ones. Such a procedure was performed with the assistance of Excel. As shown in Table 3, there are more common notions about foreign language learning than others. NEWNESS, for example, was very frequent in metaphors like *a new world*, *moving to a whole new country*, *visiting a new country*, *entering a whole new world*, *new characteristics*, *a new born baby*, and *new novel*. So was the theme of DEPTH and MAGNITUDE exemplified by the following metaphors: *an ocean*, *a world*, *country*, *a big world*, and *a wide window*. In spite of expressing the same notions about language, the generated metaphors tackled various aspects of the comparison. Thus, when English learning is viewed as the *ocean*, it is because of the countless vocabulary items and grammatical rules learners have to internalize. Alternatively, English language is like the *ocean* because no one can get to the bottom of it no matter how many levels they pass or how many courses they take. There is always something new to learn. Similarly, language is compared to *an unlimited world* because of the unlimited number of grammatical rules and words one has to learn. English is *a new world* to others for it has its own rules, traditions, and culture. As some themes were very frequently expressed, others were far less frequent such as ADDICTION and FINANCIAL INVESTMENT which were only expressed by one participant for each. Table 3 below shows the frequency and percentage of each linguistic metaphor as well as the percentage of each conceptual one.

Table 1

Frequency of Linguistic Metaphors and Percentage of the Conceptual Ones

Conceptual metaphor	Linguistic metaphor	Frequency of (LM)	Percent of (LM)	Percent of (CM)
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A NECESSITY	*Lamp in the darkness*	1	3.33%	6.67%
	An important needing (food and water)	1	3.33%	
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A SKILL	*Baking*	1	3.33%	10%
	Learning how to dance in the rain	1	3.33%	
	Drawing	1	3.33%	
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A FINANCIAL INVESTMENT	*Investing money and saving it for future.*	1	3.33%	3.33 %
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A JOURNEY/SAILING/ TRAVELING /A MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION	*Passport to the world*	1	3.33%	10%
	Ship that stops at every island that passes the way	1	3.33%	
	Walking in a slightly or very dim lighted tunnel but there is a very bright light at the end.	1	3.33%	
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS ENTERTAINMENT/FUN /A CHALLENGE	*Challenge*	1	3.33%	16.67%
	Adventure	1	3.33%	
	Playing (a complex game)	2	6.67%	
		1	3.33%	

	Collecting pieces of one puzzle			
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS ADDICTION	Reading a new novel	1	3.33%	3.33%
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS MAGNITUDE/DEPTH	Ocean	2	6.67%	20%
	Unlimited world	1	3.33%	
	A big world of exchanging knowledge and culture	1	3.33%	
	Looking at the space	1	3.33%	
	Opening a wide window from your own small spaced room to a whole world	1	3.33%	
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A REBIRTH	A newborn baby	1	3.33%	6.67 %
	Baby steps	1	3.33%	
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS A NEW EXPERIENCE	Moving to a whole new country	1	3.33%	16.67 %
	Visiting a new country	1	3.33%	
	Entering a whole new world	1	3.33%	
		1		

	Eating Chinese food	1	3.33%	
	A new world		3.33%	
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IS CHANGE	Visiting a relative's house as a child	1	3.33%	6.67%
	Having new characteristics	1	3.33%	

Pedagogical Implications

Considering the various metaphors that the participants developed to describe English language learning and the conceptions and implications underlying such metaphors, the following pedagogical recommendations should be made:

1. Because foreign language learning is a SKILL, instructional materials should place a high value on practice and adjust classroom activities in a way that would allow learners to adequately practice the target language.
2. As the data highlighted communication as the major benefit and advantage of learning a foreign language, cross-cultural communication skills should be an essential element in any foreign language curriculum.
3. As the data showed a tendency towards a learner-centered approach, more student involvement in the academic decision making processes (syllabus design, assessment methods) is recommended.

Directions for Future Research

Despite the efforts made to avoid any potential methodological issues in the research design, the present study does not come without limitations. First, this study was conducted only on female English majors due to limited access to male participants. This might have affected the results in the sense that they might have been more comprehensive and inclusive if the study had targeted both male and female participants. Second, the data were collected from a relatively small number of participants studying at one university. Finally, the eligibility of participation was restricted to

senior college students. A bigger sample composed of English majors from all levels would have yielded more comprehensive and varied themes about language learning.

Considering the limitations of this study as well as the fact that the widespread interest in the cognitive potential of metaphor has remained blind to the Arab EFL context, more metaphor analysis studies should be conducted on both Arab and Saudi EFL learners and teachers. Furthermore, future research situated in the Saudi EFL context should include both male and female learners in different levels. The effect of gender on metaphor production is another significant inquiry that should also be investigated. At the methodological level, metaphor analysis studies in this context should consider varying the data collection methods and gather both spontaneous and elicited metaphors in written and spoken discourse. Other gaps and flaws in metaphor analysis as a qualitative research method should be addressed and resolved such as the demand for an explicit procedure for metaphor identification and a uniform method for metaphor analysis.

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Demotivational Teaching Practices in EFL classroom: Perceptions of English among Indonesian Learners

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Bio data

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Abstract

This study aims at identifying (1) the types of demotivating teaching practices in EFL classroom in Indonesia, and (2) the most frequently demotivating factors mentioned by the students. There were eighty four English learners as participants of this research. There were sixty-two students from senior secondary school and twenty two students from junior secondary school in 2015/2016 academic year. The instrument of this research is questionnaire of 24 5-point Likert type questions about demotivation which contains four factors. Those factors are the demotivating English teachers, demotivating material, demotivating classroom management, and demotivating method. This study reveals that all four factors and their items become demotivating teaching practices in the classroom setting, and the top ten items that would cause students demotivation were: (1) The teacher does not encourage students to participate in the classroom activity, (2) The teacher is miserly in scoring, (3) The teacher does not stimulate students to communicate in English, (4) The teacher is not friendly, (5) The number of students in the classroom is too large, (6) The teacher tends to teach, without considering students' learning outcomes, (7) The teacher is unconscious and is not energetic, (8) Learning topic examples does not fit with students' interest, (9) The

teacher cannot manage the class well, and (10) The teacher does not approach the students proportionally.

Introduction

There are some influential factors contributing to the achievement of learning outcomes. One of those factors is students' motivation. If students have high motivation, they will achieve the curriculum target or learning outcome. Motivation in the EFL classroom is formed by a wide variety of aspects, such as culture and religious values (Sahril, 2016). Motivation is also influenced by biological drive (Shell, 2010).

In Indonesia, English is taught at secondary schools to tertiary level as a mandatory subject, and currently some elementary schools place English as a local content and becomes compulsory subject. Even though, students have learned English for approximately ten years, they have low English proficiency. Bellen in Weda (2010) states that English proficiency of secondary school graduates was very low. Accordingly, Nur in Weda (2010) reports that the result of the teaching of English in Indonesia has long been considered unsatisfactory. Students' low English proficiency is influenced by many factors. One of those factors is students' demotivation. Students are not interested to be involved in the teaching – learning process. This is because, the teacher does not employ good characteristics in the classroom. Weda (2015) argues that the students strongly agree if the teacher explains the lesson objective clearly, gives clear explanation, motivates the students to be active in learning process or classroom discussion, be relaxed, and he or she is well prepared. Students become demotivated and lost their motivation to study because many influencing factors. Teacher, lecturer, and the educational policy maker who do not design interesting and motivational teaching practices in the classroom setting could be the main factor. The teacher is usually not well prepared, teaches in monotonous teaching method, cannot explain the material clearly, not moderate, boring, and does not have sense of humor. The teaching topic could also be monotonous and it does not arouse students' attention to take role in the teaching – learning process. The classroom management also contributes to the low learning outcome. This is because the classroom is too large and students do not concentrate to follow the lesson.

Nowadays, an increasing number of researches have been conducted on demotivation. Some of those studies are as follows:

Dörnyei, Zoltán & Ushioda, Ema (2011) stated that 'demotivated' learner is someone who was once motivated but has lost his or her commitment/interest for some reasons. Similar to 'demotivation,' Dörnyei, Zoltán & Ushioda, Ema (2011) also speak about 'demotives,' which are the negative counterparts of 'motives:' a motive increases an action tendency whereas a demotive decreases it. They also argued that negative teacher behaviors were perceived as central to students 'demotivation' and this is fully consistent with the results obtained in the L2 field, as illustrated in Ushioda's investigation (1998) as cited by Dörnyei, Zoltán & Ushioda, Ema (2011). Ushioda asked the participants to identify what they found to be demotivating in their L2-related learning experience. As Ushioda summarized, almost without exception, these demotivating relate to negative aspects of the institutionalized learning context, such as particular *teaching methods* and *learning tasks*.

Kikuchi, Keita & Sakai, Hideki (2009) reported that, by using factor analysis, five factors were extracted: (a) Course Books, (b) Inadequate School Facilities, (c) Test Scores, (d) Non-communicative Methods, and the Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles.

There are two main research questions in this research, they are as follows: (1) What are the types of demotivating teaching practices in EFL classroom in Indonesia? and (2) Which demotivating factors are the most frequently mentioned by the students?

The intriguing issue makes this research unique or different from other previous studies that have investigated demotivating issue in learning and teaching context is the questionnaire designed by the author. The questionnaire covers all crucial aspects in the classroom setting, ranging from the teacher's classroom management to his or her method employed in the classroom setting.

Literature Review

What is Demotivation?

Dörnyei in Sakai, Hideki & Kikuchi, Keita (2009) defined demotivation as "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action".

Dörnyei, Zoltán & Ushioda, Ema (2011) argued that demotivation concerns with various negative influences that cancel out existing motivation and they gave some hypothetical examples as follows:

- Jack became demotivated to learn Spanish after his language class was split into two groups, the more and the less able ones, and he found himself among the 'slow' students.
- Jill lost her commitment to French when she did not understand something and the teacher talked to her in a rather brusque and impatient manner.
- For Ruper the final straw was when he suffered an embarrassing experience of having to speak in front of the class.

Related concept to 'demotivation' is 'amotivation.' Deci and Rian as cited in Dörnyei, Zoltán & Ushioda, Ema (2011) argued that amotivation refers to relative absence of motivation that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual's experiencing feelings of incompetence and helplessness when faced with the activity.

According to Vallerand's overview as cited in Dörnyei, Zoltán & Ushioda, Ema (2011), amotivation can have four sources and people are amotivated because:

- They think they lack of the ability to perform the behavior ('capacity-ability beliefs');
- They do not consider the strategies to be followed effective enough ('strategy-beliefs');
- They think the effort required to reach the outcomes is far too excessive ('capacity-effort beliefs');
- They have the general perception that their efforts are inconsequential considering the enormity of the task to be accomplish ('helplessness beliefs').

Demotivational research findings

Christophel and Gorham in Dörnyei, Zoltán & Ushioda, Ema (2011) reported that approximately two-thirds of the reported sources of demotivation in their studies were 'teacher-owned,' that is, the lack of motivation that was attributed to what the teacher had done or had been responsible for. They also presented a rank order of the frequency of the various demotives mentioned by the students. The first five categories were as follows:

(1)   Dissatisfaction with grading and assignments.

(2)   The teacher being boring, bored, unorganized and unprepared.

(3)   The dislike of the subject area.

(4)   The inferior organization of the teaching material.

(5)   The teacher being unapproachable, self-centered, biased, condescending and insulting.

Sakai, Hideki & Kikuchi, Keita (2009) showed in their study that learning contents and materials as well as test scores were demotivating factors for many Japanese high school students, especially for less motivated learners. In other words, lessons that focused on grammar, those that

used textbooks including long or difficult passages, and obtained low test scores were all perceived as strongly demotivating for those learners.

Sugino & Toshiko (2010) revealed that the least motivating items are related to teaching material and discrepancy in student abilities through many responded that 'No consistency in curriculum with clear goals' would demotivate students. The results also showed that culturally specific and school specific factors may lead to demotivation as well.

Demotivating teaching practice also occurs in the teacher side. Sugino's (2010) pilot study identified five factors that may demotivate the teachers: students' attitudes, teaching material, teaching method, working conditions including facilities, and human relationships. Sugiono's study results showed that students' attitudes, such as sleeping in class and forgetting homework, were the most crucial factors for demotivating teachers. The results also showed that culturally specific factors such as a lack of student participation and students' speaking to one another in Japanese are factors that cause frustration in native speaker teachers.

Method

Participant

To explore demotivating factors in the EFL classroom practices, the author conducted research on this topic at secondary school and university in Indonesia. There were eighty four English learners as participants of this research. Sixty two of the participants are senior secondary school students, *SMA Negeri 7* Makassar Indonesia in 2015/2016 academic year, and twenty two students are from junior secondary school, *SMP Negeri 36* Makassar in 2015/2016 academic year. This is revealed in table 1.

Table 1. Participants' Information

School Level	Major	Grade/Semester	N	Gender
Senior Secondary School	Mathematics and Natural Sciences	2nd Grade	62	24 males, 38 females
Junior Secondary School	-	3rd Grade	22	10 males, 12 females

Instrument

The instrument of this research is questionnaire of 24 5-point Likert type questions about demotivation (see the appendix). All Likert scales were scored from 5 (strongly agree), 4 (agree), 3 (Neither agree nor disagree), 2 (disagree), 1 (strongly disagree).

Procedure and Analysis

The questionnaire items were written in Indonesian. This means to give opportunity to students from secondary school to respond the questions easily. The data obtained from the questionnaire is then tabulated and analyzed using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics Version 20 to see descriptive statistics.

Results and Discussion

Demotivating factors in EFL Classroom for secondary school students

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics results for each item (item no. 1 – item no. 24). From the results, it is clearly identified that most of the means were higher than 3.00. This analysis based on the students' perception towards questionnaire items in the study. This study revealed that in the first factor related to students' perception on the demotivating English teachers, the items 'The teacher does not encourage students to participate in the classroom activity,' 'The teacher is miserly in scoring,' 'The teacher does not stimulate students to communicate in English, 'The teacher is not friendly, 'The teacher tends to teach, without considering students' learning outcomes,' and 'The teacher is unconscious and is not energetic,' demotivate the students the most. Table 2 reveals the mean differences of the students' perception on the demotivating teaching practices (DTP).

Table 3 shows the results of the questionnaire items related to students' perception on the demotivating materials. The mean differences of the students' perception are presented ranging from the highest to the lowest. The items are 'Learning topic examples do not fit with students' interest and environment,' 'Material is not varied,' 'The exam questions given are not suitable with the material explained,' and 'The teacher does not offer various materials which stimulate students' English skill.'

As revealed in Table 4, the results of the items related to students' perception on the demotivating classroom management showed that ' The number of students is too large,' 'The

teacher cannot manage the class well,' and 'The classroom rule is too strict, far from democratic practices' are demotivating teaching practices in EFL classroom dealing with the classroom management.

Therefore, table 5 presents the students' perception on the demotivating method. The mean differences of the students' perception dealing with the demotivating method in the classroom setting were employed by the teachers which demotivate students to learn English as a foreign language (EFL). Those questionnaire items ranging from the highest to the lowest are as follows: 'The teacher does not approach the students proportionally,' 'The teacher does not use learning aids, such as LCD, and other learning aids,' 'The teacher does not give opportunity to students to interact with their classmates,' 'The teacher explains material monotonously,' and 'The teacher focuses on the grammar.'

The overall results revealed that the top ten items that would cause students' demotivation were: (1) The teacher does not encourage students to participate in the classroom activity, (2) The teacher is miserly in scoring, (3) The teacher does not stimulate students to communicate in English, (4) The teacher is not friendly, (5) The number of students in the classroom is too large, (6) The teacher tends to teach, without considering students' learning outcomes, (7) The teacher is unconscious and is not energetic, (8) Learning topic examples do not fit with students' interest and environment, (9) The teacher cannot manage the class well, and (10) The teacher does not approach the students proportionally.

The chart 1 below illustrates the top ten items in the study which points out the demotivational teaching practices in the EFL classroom in Indonesia. The first rank was placed by DTP-2: The teacher does not encourage students to participate in the classroom activity, under the demotivating English teachers. The second rank was placed by DTP-8: The teacher is miserly in scoring, under the demotivating English teachers. The third rank was placed by DTP-9: The teacher does not stimulate students to communicate in English, under the demotivating English teachers. The forth rank was placed by DTP-10: Th teacher is not friendly, under the demotivating English teachers. The fifth rank was placed by DTP-19: The number of students in the classroom is too large, under the demotivating classroom management. The sixth rank was placed by DTP-7: The teacher tends to teach without considering students' learning outcomes, under the demotivating English teachers. The seventh rank was placed by DTP-11: The teacher is unconscious and is not energetic, under the demotivating English teachers. The eight rank was

placed by DTP-12: Learning topic examples do not fit with students' interest and environment, under the demotivating material. The ninth rank was placed by, and the tenth rank was placed by DTP-17: The teacher cannot manage the class well, under the demotivating classroom management, and the tenth rank was placed by DTP-22: The teacher does not approach the students proportionally, under the umbrella of demotivating method.

From this information, it is argued that lots of demotivating teaching practices in the classroom setting come from the teachers, followed by classroom management and teaching method.
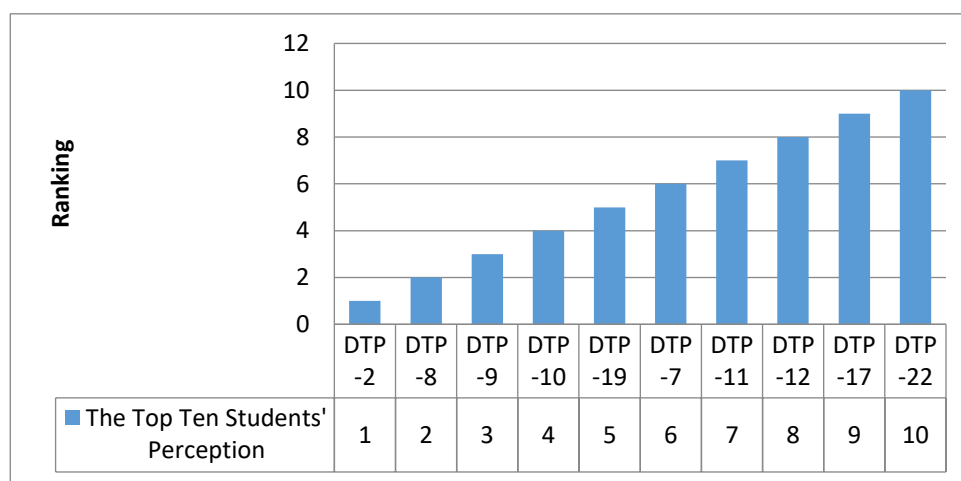
Chart 1. The Top Ten Students' Perception in the Study

Table 2. Students' perception on the demotivating English teachers (N= 84)

Code	Demotivational Teaching Practices	M	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
DTP -1	The English teacher cannot explain material clearly.	3.1786	.90728	1.2	20.2	47.6	21.4	9.5
DTP -2	The teacher does not encourage students to	3.7262	.96131	4.8	6.0	16.7	57.1	15.5

	participate in the classroom activity.							
DTP-3	The teacher is not creative to present the material.	3.0476	.84888	2.4	20.2	53.6	17.9	6.0
DTP-4	The teacher does not give feedback to students' assignments.	3.1905	1.09188	4.8	20.2	42.9	15.5	16.7
DTP-5	The teacher only gives opportunity to certain students to ask, answer, and comment.	3.1905	.91146	2.4	17.9	46.4	25.0	8.3
DTP-6	The teacher is not fair to evaluate the students' task.	3.2857	1.04791	2.4	20.2	40.5	20.2	16.7
DTP-7	The teacher tends to teach without considering students' learning outcomes.	3.3810	1.00486	3.6	14.3	35.7	33.3	13.1
DTP-8	The teacher is miserly in scoring.	3.5476	1.06878	4.8	8.3	35.7	29.8	21.4

DTP-9	The teacher does not stimulate students to communicate in English.	3.5238	1.16656	9.5	2.4	38.1	26.2	23.8
DTP-10	The teacher is not friendly.	3.4405	1.17557	7.1	11.9	33.3	25.0	22.6
DTP-11	The teacher is unconscious and is not energetic.	3.3810	.99280	6.0	13.1	41.7	26.2	13.1

Table 3. Students' perception on the demotivating material (N= 84)

Code	Demotivational Teaching Practices	M	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
DTP-12	Learning topic examples does not fit with students' interest and environment.	3.3810	.99280	0	20.2	38.1	25.0	16.7
DTP-13	The teacher does not offer various materials which stimulate students' English skill.	3.0833	1.03211	7.1	19.0	40.5	25.0	8.3
DTP-14	The exam questions given are not suitable with the material explained.	3.1429	1.05446	6.0	16.7	48.8	14.3	14.3
DTP-15	Material is not varied	3.2976	1.19012	8.3	14.3	36.9	20.2	20.2

Table 4. Students' perception on the demotivating classroom management (N= 84)

Code	Demotivational Teaching Practices	M	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
DTP-16	The teacher tends to dominate the classroom.	3.1429	.92023	7.1	7.1	57.1	21.4	7.1
DTP-17	The teacher cannot manage the class well.	3.3810	1.21144	8.3	16.7	22.6	33.3	19.0
DTP-18	The classroom rule is too strict, far from democratic practices.	3.3333	1.06797	4.8	15.5	36.9	27.4	15.5
DTP-19	The number of students in the classroom is too large.	3.4167	1.24386	8.3	15.5	26.2	26.2	23.8

Table 5. Students' perception on the demotivating method (N= 84)

Code	Demotivational Teaching Practices	M	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
DTP-20	The teacher focuses on the grammar.	3.2024	.99128	2.4	22.6	38.1	26.2	10.7
DTP-21	The teacher does not give opportunity to students to interact with their friends.	3.2619	.90672	2.4	14.3	47.6	26.2	9.5
DTP-22	The teacher does not approach the students proportionally.	3.3810	.98059	3.6	14.3	33.3	38.1	10.7
DTP-23	The teacher does not use learning aids, such as LCD, and other learning aids.	3.3095	1.05255	8.3	10.7	31.0	41.7	8.3
DTP-24	The teacher explains material monotonously.	3.2619	1.15246	9.5	13.1	33.3	29.8	14.3

Discussion of findings

As stated in the results of the study, there were top ten items that would cause students' demotivation from four different factors. The first factor dealt with students' perception on the demotivating English teachers, item 'The teacher does not encourage students to participate in the classroom activity' places the highest rank with mean score 3.7262. This means that the teacher as

a facilitator in the classroom setting needs to encourage students to participate in a wide variety of classroom activities.

The second rank placed by item 'The teacher is miserly in scoring' with mean score 3.5476. This means that the teacher should avoid unfairness in giving score to his or her students. The third rank was item 'The teacher does not stimulate students to communicate in English' with mean score 3.5238. This illustrates that the teacher fails to arouse students to express their ideas in English. In order to overcome this problem, teacher is expected to be hard working to create good atmosphere and encourage his or her students to communicate well in English. Item 'The teacher is not friendly' with 3.4405 shows that the teacher is unfriendly in the classroom and he or she should be friendly to maintain good interaction with his or her students. Item 'The teacher tends to teach without considering students' learning outcomes' and 'The teacher is unconscious and is not energetic' respectively with mean score 3.3810. This means that learning and teaching success depends on the learning outcomes, therefore the teacher should consider the learning outcomes and the teacher hopefully be energetic or enthusiastic.

The second factor, students' perception on the demotivating material, item 'Learning topic examples does not fit with students' interest and environment' with mean score 3.3810. This reveals that the topics should be interesting and talks about students' interest and environment. The third factor, students' perception on the demotivating classroom management, item 'The teacher cannot manage the class well' with mean score 3.3810. This means that the teacher should manage the class well. This is because the teacher is a manager in the classroom, so that he or she should be a good manager. The fourth factor, students' perception on the demotivating method, item 'The teacher does not approach the students proportionally' with mean score 3.3810. This means that the teacher should approach students without seeing their different social background.

Conclusion

From four factors of demotivating teaching practices in EFL classroom, namely demotivating English teachers, demotivating materials, demotivating classroom management, and demotivating methods employed by the teachers, the study reveals that all four factors and their items become demotivating teaching practices in the classroom setting, and the top ten items that would cause students demotivation were: (1) The teacher does not encourage students to participate in the classroom activity, (2) The teacher is miserly in scoring, (3) The teacher does not stimulate

students to communicate in English, (4) The teacher is not friendly, (5) The number of students in the classroom is too large, (6) The teacher tends to teach, without considering students' learning outcomes, (7) The teacher is unconscious and is not energetic, (8) Learning topic examples does not fit with students' interest and environment, (9) The teacher cannot manage the class well, and (10) The teacher does not approach the students proportionally.

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Integration of Critical Thinking Approaches in Thailand University Classrooms: Perceptive Analysis

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Abstract

Critical thinking, both for learning and instruction, is one aspect of 21st century skills to be developed among students and instructors as well. This paper aimed to explore Thai learners and instructors' attitudes toward critical thinking employed mainly inside their classrooms in a university setting. The participants of the study included 200 university students taking various English classes and 20 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers who have been affiliated in different faculties at Rajamangala University of Technology Lanna Chiang Mai, Thailand. Results

revealed that students have no adequate information about the term 'critical thinking' being imparted in their classes. Moreover, the students believed that they need more critical thinking tasks and approaches in their classrooms as preparation when they go out to the real world. As for the instructors, the integration of critical thinking in the classroom is perceivably not easy. The instructors have sought some trainings and workshops to boost their skills in integrating critical thinking activities and tasks inside and even outside of their classrooms. Though there is a lack of skills in understanding words or phrases among students tending them not to fully think critically on a subject matter, the instructors confidently related that it is their utmost responsibility to include critical thinking activities or approaches in any specific field of studies. This paper can strongly contribute to university's English for Specific Purposes (ESP) curriculum design helping students to boost their critical thinking ability both academically and professionally for them to deal with challenges and difficulties that they may encounter in their respective workplaces after they graduate.

Introduction

In language learning, critical thinking is a skill, whether academically or even in daily life setting, which gives meaning using a target language to explain, discuss, argue, or even show or present processes. It also involves giving solutions to certain problems—how to make them easier to understand, find resources at the very least to improve situations or conditions. The term alone involves thinking as its core, but it does not stop here. It connotes a critical disposition which encompasses even more careful evaluation, analysis, and interpretation of ideas and concepts. In the 21st century, critical thinking has been one of the most popular ideas in language learning and teaching. Chamot (1995) related that there should be a higher form of thinking which is critical thinking in language learning and teaching. For English Language Learners (ELLs), critical thinking is regarded as a set of skills needed for learning especially in Asia. Though the comparison between Western and Asian learners when it comes to critical thinking varies because mainly of culture favoring Westerners as more experienced in thinking critically, it is still a skill that is needed for learning and even more beneficial after finishing studies in the four corners of a classroom. The practice of critical thinking happens in classrooms, and the application should be more emphasized

when learners go out of universities. Zare (2015) stressed that critical thinking should be one of the goals of education in the 21st century. He reiterated that critical thinking is not only be a responsibility of learners but also to instructors and experts with a well-organized objective of integrating and showing critical thinking approaches in teaching or into curriculum mapping and planning (Long, 2003) to help ELL's critical thinking skills. With the communicative language learning and teaching, a target language may be an obstacle to one's expression of critical thinking. The Ministry of Education (2004) of Thailand once aimed to have an education in Thailand with learning environments which cater for the need of students for national and global purposes. Education should enable Thai citizens to perform efficiently where technological innovations have occupied most of the industries. For this reason, a growing concern of education reform is to reinforce intellectual health among Thai students. This aim has been brought over the years, but still the country is facing turmoil in education, not only in English but most of its core subjects. In Thailand, being one of the countries in Asia with the least English proficiency (EF EPI, 2017), the integration of critical thinking approaches in classrooms is really a challenge both for ELLs and teachers and experts in EFL. To shed more light on this issue, this paper aims to study:

1. How do instructors incorporate critical thinking approaches in their classrooms?
2. How do learners perceive the integration of critical thinking tasks from the instructors and curricula?
3. How does English affect the instructors as they integrate critical thinking approaches and the learners as they practice these critical thinking tasks from instructions?

Related Literature

Critical thinking may not be easy in EFL classrooms in university. It could be assumed that learning and teaching with critical thinking involve a lot of effort. Various authors and educators have delved into the nature of critical thinking in EFL classrooms.

Definition and Context

Critical **thinking** is a concept used in various practices of learning, thought, and analysis that transcends memorization. Paul (1987) stated that critical thinking is learning how to ask and answer with analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The Glossary of Education Reform (2013) added, "Critical thinking is an umbrella term that may be applied to many different forms of learning acquisition or to a wide variety of thought processes. In its most basic expression, critical thinking occurs when

students are analyzing, evaluating, interpreting, or synthesizing information and applying creative thought to form an argument, solve a problem, or reach a conclusion." Also, Sternberg (1987) defined critical thinking as cognitive processes, strategies, and representations people use in problem solving, decision-making, and learning new insights and ideas.

With regards to the previous term, Ennis (1987) categorized fourteen separate facets of critical thinking. According to him, critical thinkers have a tendency to

- Seek a clear statement of the thesis or question;
- Seek reasons;
- Try to be well informed;
- Use and mention credible sources;
- Take into account the total situation;
- Try to remain relevant to the main point;
- Keep in mind the original or basic concern;
- Look for alternatives;
- Be open-minded;
- Take a position (and change a position) when the evidence and reasons are sufficient to do so;
- Seek as much precision as the subject permits;
- Deal in an orderly manner with the parts of a complex whole;
- Use one's critical thinking abilities;
- Be sensitive to the feelings, level of knowledge, and degree of sophistication of others.

With these definitions and contexts, this paper adapted some ideas to be integrated in the formulation of questions for the students and teachers who participated in the study.

Critical Thinking Vis-à-vis Learning and Teaching

The well-acclaimed Bloom's Taxonomy theory explained that thinking skills enable students to turn their experience into learning. There is a need to focus on 'knowing how', rather than 'knowing what': learning how to learn. In Thai context, rote learning has been more practiced rather than experiential learning. Burapatana (2006) firmly stated that in Thailand, "teaching and learning is still a routine and repetitious method of transferring knowledge, and learners have no opportunities for training in analytical thinking, self-expression acquiring knowledge themselves." This has been

affirmed recently by Coconuts Bangkok (2016) mentioning that Thai students lack critical thinking skills and discipline.

In this regard, the roles of teachers in integrating critical thinking in their classrooms have to more defined. Asgharheidari & Tahriri (2015) believed that it is an important part of their job as a teacher to increase learners' critical thought. Integrating critical thinking task is not a matter of teaching isolated abilities but it is supposed to be making appropriate use of concepts, standards, and procedures. According to Halpern (1998), critical thinking is mainly the concept of using cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of desirable final results.

Malmir & Shourcheh (2012) believed that students may not have enough thinking skills to handle the problems they may encounter on a day-to-day basis that is why critical thinking should be integrated in learning. As to critical thinking being included in curricula, a study from Stapleton (2011) about Hong Kong high school teachers stated positive support for the integration of critical thinking in the curriculum, while showing a tendency for training on how to teach or facilitate critical thinking.

Critical Thinking Vis-à-vis Language Learning

Critical thinking in EFL context might have begun to be popular in the early 1990s (Day, 2003). However, there have been some researches refuting this idea that critical thinking in the ESL/EFL context was introduced in 1970s.

For some papers that sought critical thinking pedagogies using English, there are several among these to have proven the association between critical thinking and English language. Zare (2015) stated in his paper that critical thinking and its elements has to be vitally observed in teaching English for communication because it doesn't only focus on form but also its meaning. He further added, "Thinking critically in language learning is about using the target language to make meaning." Asgharheidari and Tahriri (2015) claimed that the ability to think critically is a vital and necessary skill that language learners need to develop for their academic and social success. Not only in the speaking and listening skills, Barnawi (2011) said that looking for a place for critical thinking and self-voice in teaching English writing for college could give a chance for students to express themselves more responsibly and include their viewpoints into their articles. In addition, he said that students "will be able to better examine the logical relationship among statements or data and then draw a conclusion from multiple premises." At some point in the argument of critical thinking versus language learning or teaching, various educationalists understand the need of

improving critical thinking skills in learners and discovering effective ways for teaching these skills is considered as one of language teachers' responsibilities (Bracken, Brown, & Feng, 2009). English language teachers have pivotal roles in the development of critical thinking skills among students or learners.

Meanwhile, Lantolf (1993) said that studying EFL exercising critical thinking is really a big challenge for English language learners. This is being attested by Kramsch and Lam (1999) believing that the process of critical thinking in EFL involves translating of ideas from the original language to the language of the learners. It encompasses not only language but also identities.

Again, Zare (2015) strongly emphasized that language learners empowering their critical thinking skills and abilities is one great achievement in education of the 21st century.

Methodology

Context

Using both qualitative and quantitative approaches, this paper examined the integration of critical thinking tasks and pedagogies from teachers in university setting. RMUTL offers five English subjects as parts of the general education curricula: English for Communication, English for Everyday Use, English for Academic Purposes, English for Career, and Technical English. These subjects are categorized from the least to the advanced level. In these subjects, parts of the syllabi contain activities and tasks fostering critical thinking skill. The syllabi also include some Problem Based Learning (PBL) activities which challenge the students to think critically. Among the 6 campuses (Chiang Mai, Chiang Rai, Nan, Lampang, Tak, and Phitsanulok) of RMUTL, Chiang Mai serves has the highest number of students, thus, the validity of this paper is more reliable to get students from Chiang Mai.

Population

The main participants were 200 students from the different faculties of RMUTL Chiang Mai. These students were randomly chosen to answer a set of questionnaire with the subject of critical thinking tasks and approaches in their English subjects. Furthermore, there were also 20 English lecturers of RMUTL who participated in this study. They were also given a set of questionnaire with statements and questions about the integration of critical thinking tasks and approaches inside their classrooms.

Instrumentation

A set of questionnaire was distributed to students assessing their perception towards the integration of critical thinking in their classroom. The questionnaire was printed in Thai and English for the students to understand clearly about the subject matter. The questionnaire was designed using a 5-point Likert scale adopted from Asgharheidari and Tahriri (2015). Also, a set of questionnaire was also given to the teachers using a 5-point Likert scale to gather data about critical thinking approaches in their classrooms. Additionally, the questionnaire for the teachers contained open-ended questions for them to answer.

Data Collection

The questionnaires were distributed to students and teachers before the finals week of Semester 2 Academic Year 2016-2017. The data gathered were analyzed using SPSS, mean, standard deviation, and content analyses. In the questionnaire, it must be noted that critical thinking was thoroughly defined and sample tasks and activities were mentioned so the students could understand more of the context of critical thinking approaches inside their classrooms.

Results

The results of the study were divided into two categories: the first set of interpretation establishes the perception of students towards the integration of critical thinking tasks and approaches. It is followed by the teachers' arguments concerning their roles and perceptions as facilitators and mentors inside the classroom in relation to critical thinking and English.

Perception of Students

In this part, perceptions of the students are categorized into 5 groups.

1. *Students' Knowledge about Critical Thinking*

For most of the students who participated in this study, they have heard the term critical thinking very much rarely. It could be explained that RMUTL students have limited understanding of the terms and concepts of critical thinking applied in their classes or in their classroom.

Table 1. Understanding of the term 'critical thinking'

	Mean (SD) n=200
I clearly understand the term " critical thinking"	2.57 (0.44)

Regardless of their genders and levels in the university, it was revealed that half of the students who participated in this study have ideas about critical thinking, whereas almost half of them are not sure of what critical thinking is as a concept. It could also be noted that Thai students need to be more exposed to the idea or concept of critical thinking in classrooms. It could also mean that explanation or understanding of the term or concept 'critical thinking' is less informed in the classroom before the students go on with their subject. With a mean of 2.57 among 200 students, it is likely believed that students need more understanding on the nature and rationale of critical thinking in their classroom.

2. Student's Perception towards Teacher's Approach to Critical Thinking

Table 2. Teachers' role in integrating critical thinking in classrooms

	Mean (SD) n=200
My teachers apply critical thinking in most activities in my classes.	1.94 (0.11)

Students feel that their teachers don't apply critical thinking activities into their subjects much and they want them to do so to help them be prepared to face challenges in the real world. This data, with only 1.94, it could only show that teachers of English somehow don't incorporate critical thinking approaches in their classrooms. Consequently, in a Thai classroom setting, most Thai teachers just rely on books. From students' books to workbooks, some teachers effortlessly offer only the content of the books to the students. This was attested by some comments being gathered at the end of the questionnaire written in their vernacular language.

Table 3. Activities and tasks involving critical thinking

	Mean (SD) n=200
Activities that are conducted in EFL classroom enhance my critical thinking, and those are attractive for me.	2.35 (0.11)

Tasks and techniques that are employed by English teachers seem not to foster critical thinking skill among students. Least, there might have been some but those are not striking for them. Looking at Table 3, not even half of the participants answered that they did not see critical thinking enhancement in the activities or tasks inside an English classroom being used by teachers if there were any. Among students, there might have been some distaste of what might have been happening in critical thinking tasks inside their classrooms.

3. Students' Perception Towards English Vis-a-Vis Critical Thinking

Table 4. Critical thinking's association to English

	Mean (SD) n=200
Learning critical thinking through English is a difficult task for me.	4.12(0.26)

English is already difficult in learning. Consequently, it is difficult for students to understand lessons even with critical thinking integration approaches.Students feel that during critical thinking discussion activities in class sometimes they have some ideas and suggestions, but they don't know how to express the ideas in English. Table 4 shows a staggering 4.12 mean indicating that the intricacy of the language seems to be a hindrance for critical thinking enhancement among students. For some, making some judgments is difficult since English is a barrier in understanding a thought.

4. Students' Perception on the Integration of Critical Thinking Activities or Tasks to Subjects or Curricula in University

Table 5. Critical thinking tasks integration in course curricula

	Mean (SD) n=200
There should be more critical thinking tasks and approaches in English subjects in RMUTL.	4.60 (0.50)
Practicing critical thinking skills will be useful for me to deal with problems in workplace.	3.02 (0.46)
It is important for me to learn how to construct my own point of view through activities in EFL classroom.	3.87 (0.51)

Students feel that there should be more critical thinking tasks to be included in their subjects. They have high regards toward the inclusion of critical thinking inside the classroom or in their English subjects. It may not only for communication purposes, but some have believed that critical thinking is also beneficial for future purposes like in giving opinions or even when they work in companies. It could be claimed that practicing critical thinking inside or outside the classroom has a great impact for students.

5. *Students' Culture Vis-à-Vis Critical Thinking*

Table 6. Culture and its effects to students' critical thinking skill

	Mean (SD) n=200
I want to learn and improve my critical thinking skill because I believe that I will benefit from it in the future.	3.25 (0.37)

Thai students culturally are not accustomed to asking questions to teachers for clarification or even for deeper understanding of thoughts. Students seem not to verify sources used by teachers. They just receive any information fed to them by their teachers. After learning, students normally don't read additional information about a subject in English. However, in the questionnaire asking if the students would be willing to improve more on their critical

thinking skill, over half of the population has answered that they would like to get more experience about critical thinking tasks in the classroom because they have believed that these tasks may benefit them in their future jobs or careers.

Perception of Teachers

In this part, perceptions of teachers are also categorized into 5 groups.

1. Teacher's Perception about Critical Thinking

RMUTL English teachers believe that it is their responsibility to feed more critical thinking tasks among students learning English. Critical thinking tasks are not easy especially for Thai teachers holding English classes. Since English is not their main language for a daily basis or s a mode of teaching mostly in their classes, the struggle among teachers of English has been on-going over the years. For near-native and native English speakers, it is a little bit easier for them to integrate critical thinking approaches.

2. Teacher's Perception on the Ways and Effects of Integrating Critical Thinking Tasks and Approaches to their Classes

Though teachers believe that critical thinking is necessary for work especially for those who will work in companies and school or universities, still they need to harness their skills in integrating critical thinking tasks and approaches in their classes. Most likely, according to some teachers, hands-on learning is important for students especially in engineering and other technical fields. Teachers believe that including critical thinking tasks to their classes could open the students' mind to think more of possible ideas toward a subject matter which is really one of the aims of integrating critical thinking inside or outside classrooms.

3. Teacher's Perception about Student's English Ability towards Critical Thinking

Table 8. *Teacher's Perception about Student's English Ability*

	Mean (SD) n=20
Students' English proficiency is proportional to the incorporation of critical thinking activities by the teachers.	2.02 (0.49)
Thai students are generally good at critical thinking even in English instructions.	2.44 (0.44)

Table 8 shows that less than half of the teachers' population who participated in this study answered that students' skill in English is not enough to be used in critical thinking tasks in their classes. Teachers believe that students must have at least basic to intermediate level of English for them to be able to understand more about critical thinking tasks and approaches. Teachers perceive that critical thinking stops for students after ideation. It is difficult for students to state their opinion and judgment because of their lack of English communicative skills. Teachers think that Thai students seem not to have much willingness in searching for more understanding about a subject matter.Thus, according to teacher, their students must have higher skills to understand more about critical thinking tasks and approaches being implemented in their classes. Lastly, teachers think that most students stop learning when they get out of their classrooms.

4. Teacher's Perception on the Integration of Critical Thinking to Curricula

Table 9. *Teacher's perception on the inclusion of critical thinking tasks in curricula*

	Mean (SD) n=20
It is necessary to include critical thinking into curricula.	4.76(0.69)

A staggering 4.76 mean indicating a highly favored suggestion among the teachers of Western Language and English for International Communication Departments in the university to integrate more critical thinking tasks for teaching general and major subjects in English. There is a need for students to be more aware of the world around them and give their opinions, comments, analyses, and suggestions toward these events using English language. There is a need for students to talk about subjects and themes that are not being read inside classrooms. Teachers suggest that the curricula for juniors and seniors should boost more on analysis, evaluation, and explanation

5. Teacher's Need to Enhance their Skills in the Integration of Critical Thinking Approaches to their Classes

Table 10. *Teaching aid for critical thinking pedagogies*

	Mean (SD) n=20

EFL teachers need more training on how to impart critical thinking approaches in their classes.	4.89 (0.56)

A large number of 4.89 mean in Table 10 insisting that teachers of English need more trainings and seminars to boost their skills in the integration of critical thinking approaches in their classrooms. Teachers have sought seminars and workshops on how to integrate critical thinking approaches to their students, but still they need more. Furthermore, they have commented that they need support from their superiors in the university. Lastly, they think that books being used in classrooms should have more tasks and approaches encouraging critical thinking.

Conclusion

There is a need for students learning English to practice more critical thinking tasks and approaches in the classroom for them to be competitive in the real world. Students should be more exposed to critical thinking tasks, approaches, and pedagogies. Not only students, but also English teachers need more exposure on critical thinking approaches for them to be able to integrate these methods in their classes.

In addition, curricula in English subjects in university should include critical thinking tasks and approaches. It may be a crucial work for the curriculum development team in a university but students insist that critical thinking must be integrated in tasks conducted or facilitated by a teacher in a classroom. Moreover, materials for English learning should be well-chosen by deans or teachers.

Culturally, Thai students should revolutionize language learning using critical thinking approaches.

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Learning Individual's Development as Function of Productive Assessment

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Abstract

The paper provides arguments in favor of transforming current assessment instruments in compliance with the methodology and social demand reflected in the goal of foreign language teaching at non-linguistics universities, where the primary object to guide and assess should be flexible educational environment in progress. In that way, intercultural foreign language professional communicative competence proves to be both a tool for providing the necessary educational context and a goal to achieve by means of fostering the context produced. The research is aimed at creating for the productive assessment strategy based on several educational

instruments, with a focus on Foreign Language Profile of Profession, which provides a common framework that is context-free and context-relevant at the same time.

Due to such methods of research as prognostic simulation and experimental teaching-and-learning the authors collected data connected with the system of evaluating students' progress by means of productive assessment. The research results indicate the high importance of the above change of a student's status in pedagogical guidance due to the corresponding shift in assessment procedures, which now acquire a new function – that of a learning individual's personal, social and vocational development. Therefore, pedagogical guidance as a form of collective interaction is also seen as a totally new phenomenon evolving into a learning individual's psychological function.

Keywords: productive assessment instruments; educational environment; intercultural foreign language professional communicative competence; individual's development; productive-learning-activity approach, pedagogical guidance.

Introduction

In the 21st century, with its globalized professional communities, professional intercultures have become a new dimension of expertise that is enhanced by individuals belonging to the same sphere of activity / work but representing different linguocultures. People prepared to operate in that dimension not only bring their knowledge and enthusiasm to share with their counterparts from all over the world, but also get the benefit of gaining access to cutting-edge science and technology (Cheah, Chen, Ting, 2005); new practices and ideas, of personally contributing to their professional interculture's development and spreading it across their social community. In many cases, foreign languages are an apt tool to effectively master that dimension (Sergeyeva, Voskrekasenko, 2016).

With the opportunities that the learner-centered approach to teaching offers, and the growing role of foreign languages in developing one's professional expertise, Foreign Language as a subject of the university curriculum shows sufficient potential to become the system-forming component of non-linguistics students' vocational training and an inalienable instrument of their evolving into real professionals in the field of their motivated choice. One thing that seems to hamper the teaching-and-learning process is the discrepancy between the explicit teaching goals worded in the terms of the learner-centered approach, and the currently used assessment instruments, which originate in the teaching paradigms of the past.

This article focuses on providing arguments in favor of transforming present-day assessment instruments in compliance with the current methodology and social demand reflected in the goal of foreign language teaching at non-linguistics universities. The approach is expected to result in assessment procedures becoming a factor of a learning individual's development, not merely a matter of obtaining statistics on students' satisfying a subject-related set of pedagogical demands. The prospects are based largely on the recent findings of language pedagogy, namely regularities associated with the needs of the coming generation of professionals in the globalized environment of the 21st century (Yarotskaya, 2016, p. 209–213). Those that are core to this research state:

in the information-and-communication society of the 21st century, non-linguists' vocational training gains in efficiency when from the first days of study at a university / higher educational institution, a foreign language underlies the process of a student's 'acculturation' in the profession of his / her motivated choice;

if teaching foreign languages to non-linguistics students proceeds from the specific character of the target profession rather than a language system to master, students tend to reconsider the status of a foreign language in their educational trajectory: they soon begin to see it not as merely a means of solving profession-relevant problems but also a full-value object to study;

non-linguists' vocational training gains in efficiency if students' language-related professional competence is developed with priority given to the personal-motivation component of professional outlook-and-thinking (professional consciousness); students' secondary linguo-cognitive basis of inter-cultural professional communication takes shape along with the growing awareness of their language-related professional needs;

non-linguists' vocational training gains in efficiency if the prioritized personal-motivation component of professional consciousness is rooted in students' forming personal opinions, developing professional attitudes, acquiring adequate values, as well as learning to see and anticipating the key targets in the relevant area of professional expertise with regard to the professional interculture's development;

non-linguists' vocational training gains in efficiency if the dominant factor of the educational process, along with a student's creativity, is his / her forming an ability to make a motivated choice about the trajectory of individual profession-related development in the relevant globalized context;

non-linguists' vocational training gains in efficiency if the model of their acquiring intercultural foreign language professional communicative competence is designed as a scenario of a student's gradually developing a sense of professional identity / finding 'the professional self' as one of the teaching goals and learning outcomes; the efficiency of this work rises when:

o   all the actors of the educational process (a professor, students in group and individually) are active and equal participants,

o   pedagogical guidance gradually gives way to learners' guidance (in group and individually),

o   all the actors of the educational process are involved in task-setting, recurrently reconsidering immediate goals in view of shifting actualities worldwide, searching for relevant information and selecting material to master, as well as assessing the results obtained in group and individually.

The above statements were used in our research as a framework to design a model of productive-learning-activity approach to pedagogical guidance and specifically to the assessment of foreign language vocational training outcomes, which the article covers.

Literature review

Analysis of recent research devoted to the problems of pedagogical guidance, in particular to testing, monitoring, and assessment instruments used in education, shows that among the most investigated topics are those of

pedagogical guidance in the system of developing education,

the system of assessment means used to enhance the quality of training,

achievement tests in education,

assessment as a means of estimating the outcome quality of training in the system of primary and secondary vocational education,

developing the systems of assessing the quality of vocational training.

Foreign authors' research of the problems in question of assessment (Alderson, 1995; Anderson, 2001; Bachman, 1990, 1996, 2002; Burgess, Head, 2006; Bond, 1996; Brian, 2005; Byram, 1997; Douglas, 2010; Kohonen, 2003; Scharer, 2005, 2006, 2007; Spolsky, 1975; Weir,1995,2005 and others) mostly focuses on similar educational topics, which confirms the general trend in the development of pedagogical assessment instruments. As things stand, many

authors consider testing to be an effective means of pedagogical assessment in terms of creating a situation when a student derives a satisfaction from his / her study (Ur, 2009). On the other hand, the efficiency of testing may be taken into account only in case of its validity (Douglas, 2010; Bachman, 2002; Brian,2005; Weir, 2005), which makes the process of constructing a test and searching for appropriate means of assessment rather complicated (Alderson, 1995). Bachman and Alderson (2004) consider writing to be one of the most difficult areas of language to assess. They note various factors which complicate the assessment process but believe that serious problems arise because of the subjectivity of judgement involved in rating students' writing. Therefore, language testing professionals (e.g., Anderson et al.,2001; Weir, 2005) suggest constant training and routine double scoring in order to achieve an acceptable level of reliability. Research also supports the view that scorers' reliability can be improved considerably by training the raters (Douglas, 2010; Weigle, 1994) though it cannot completely eliminate the element of subjectivity (Weir, 2005; Wiseman, 2012).

In teaching foreign languages to non-linguistics students, along with the above tendencies, growing attention is given to systemically assessing overall intercultural foreign language professional communicative competence (IFLPCC) (Byram, 1997; Khomyakova, 2011; Vonog, 2017; Yarotskaya, 2016, etc.) and its individual aspects, namely to testing linguistic competence (Bachman, 1990; Pavlova, 2003), profession-oriented oral foreign language skills (Galustyan, 2010), self-assessment (Little , 1991; Scharer, 2005, 2006, 2007) as well as to computer testing (Bejar, 1980) and mobile assessment means (Titova, 2017). Among conclusions particularly relevant to our research are those concerning the use of profession-oriented situations and students' creative work (Khomyakova, 2011; Yarotskaya, 2016; Yevdokimova, 2007) as instruments of assessing IFLPCC. Promising results were obtained in connection with alternative methods of evaluation in teaching foreign languages to students of engineering majors (Matienko, 2009; Vonog, 2016), flexible evaluation criteria to differentiate between C 1 and C 2 profession-oriented levels of the European Language Portfolio (Yarotskaya, 2013), as well as to a new productive-learning-activity approach to pedagogical guidance and specifically to the assessment of foreign language vocational training outcomes (Vonog and Yarotskaya, 2017; Yarotskaya, 2016). The above experience in using assessment means in the educational process has been digested by the authors of this article to propose a productive assessment theory adequate to effectively guide the learner-centered process of developing IFLPCC in non-linguistics students.

Method

The work relies on such well-established methods of pedagogical research as prognostic simulation and experimental teaching-and-learning, complemented by accumulation, measurement, and analysis of relevant literature sources, experimental data, questionnaires, interviews, testing, and purposeful observation of the processes involved.

The methodological underpinning of the research that the article covers embraces *Vygotsky's cultural-historical theory*, which emphasizes the role of collective activity in the development of an individual (Vygotsky,1956), the ideas of *competency-based learner-centered teaching* implemented in *productive education theory* (Kraevskii V.V. and Khutorskoi A.V., 2007) and the higher education language pedagogy principle of *internationalization of non-linguists' vocational training* (Yarotskaya, 2016). The principle as a focused scientific theory in practice presupposes the method of purposefully providing educational contexts for students' vocational development, with a foreign language being a major resource in shaping non-linguists' professional outlook and thinking in the globalizing world. The aim is to prepare the coming generation of graduates for the challenges of the new world through their acquiring tools of systemic poly-perspective reflective thinking about their professional area of expertise, which is a necessity in a time of change. The possibility comes true through placing greater emphasis on the personal-motivation component of professional outlook-and-thinking development as a first priority that underlies IFLPCC.

For that purpose, experimental group students were provided with various opportunities to gradually unfold and master the broad globalized context of relevant professional areas of expertise in the course of foreign language learning. Included were contexts representing the interrelated development of various professional domains with emphasis on the 'human' dimension of the subject students major in, various social and cultural contexts perceived on several linguo-cognitive bases, as well as various educational contexts.

The underlying psychological mechanism used for developing students' professional outlook and thinking was 'the dialogue of meaningful senses' in the process and as a result of a purposefully encouraged poly-perspective individual reflection of the basic dimensions of students' professional area of expertise, namely: national-cultural, sociocultural and intercultural spheres. Their interaction led, and generally leads, to creating meaningful, from the language

pedagogy viewpoint, senses of mastering the linguo-cognitive space of professional intercultures. The approach made it possible to ensure students' awareness of the value of their major's intercultural aspect, as well as its key development tasks in the globalized context.

Analysis (discussion)

Vygotsky's ideas that an individual's functions start taking shape in group activities as interpersonal relationships and further develop to form psychological functions (Vygotsky, 1956, p. 145), along with the discovered regularities of effective pedagogical guidance in higher educational institutions (Yarotskaya, 2016, p. 209–213), made it possible for us to design a model of pedagogical interaction in the form of productive cooperation of all those involved in the teaching-and-learning process: that of a university professor with a group of students as a collective actor of the process, and of the professor with individual members of the group, as well as students between themselves inside the group. Thus united, all the participants in the group activity were supposed to work together to contribute to a poly-variant educational environment that was undergoing constant change to cater for the growing personal, social and vocational development needs of the participants.

In that format, the object to guide is not the traditional learning individual with his / her target skills to develop, but the flexible educational environment in progress; it is not only being created but also being controlled by all the actors of the process. In that way, IFLPCC proves to be both a tool for providing the necessary educational context and a goal to achieve by means of fostering the context produced. Apparently, pedagogical guidance begins to function as an instrument of a student's productively transforming and in that way designing the educational environment, part of which that student is. Therefore, in this case, we have every reason to say that transforming, or developing, an object, at the same time, means being transformed / developed.

The logical outcome of the above change of a student's status in pedagogical guidance is the corresponding shift in assessment procedures, which now acquire a new function – that of a learning individual's personal, social and vocational development. The shift is primarily associated with a new set of pedagogical priorities seen as objects to assess in the course of studies. They are no longer traditional, or regular must-meet, targets – knowledge and skills for students to master; in the new language pedagogy, those traditional must-meets merely serve as functional components – something necessary but not sufficient for a developing individual. The actual targets

to meet are the overall characteristics of a collective (just as individual) product – an educational environment made up of a series of educational contexts created and enhanced in the teaching-and-learning process. The contexts include both object- and subject-oriented phenomena. The former are associated with the outer educational contexts (teaching aids and techniques, background learning-and-teaching conditions, situations, etc.), while the latter mostly deal with a learning individual's inner enrichment (getting new knowledge, skills, emotions, attitudes, values, and, generally, experience resulting in new competences) that later exteriorize to transform the environment. That constitutes the fundamental dialectics of the pedagogical process.

The characteristics to assess broadly include:

the environment's capacity to increase students' motivation and interest in the studies as well as their autonomous work abilities;

a student's personal above-target contribution to his / her summative educational product – the so called individual addition to the must-meet core targets set;

adequacy of the actual educational product for the one planned as a teaching-and-learning goal.

Technologically, the productive assessment strategy is based on several educational instruments, such as *the European Language Portfolio* (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001), *the Foreign Language Profile of Profession*, project and mobile technologies. In tight combination, they have given rise to a specialized *project-and-revision-of-professional-identity technology*, named for the sake of convenience *project-and-revision technology* (Yarotskaya, 2016, p.149–195). Integrated into the new pedagogy of both formative and summative assessment are methods of problem-based teaching and learning, learners' research techniques, including dialogue-type research in the professional domain, and business role-plays. The instruments are used to form a poly-variant space of collective interaction of all those involved in the educational process. The shared strategic goal (and the broad primary object to assess collectively) as a moving target is in fact an evolving image, or model, of a professional, in ongoing collective (just as individual) elaboration, thus being both socially and personally relevant. The designing process operates through recurrent revision of the model (image) in individual and collective formats in the course of students' mastering the globalized context of their major. In this way, students get acquainted with different culture-specific trends in the profession of their choice, compare them, assess detected prospects and their

own aptitude, decide on further trajectory of their profession-related training. They may as well choose additional autonomous courses, including language training to improve their IFLPCC as a means of harmoniously integrating into their professional interculture. Such courses provide a wide variety of development opportunities and cater for any individual needs (Vonog, 2016).

Thus, at any stage of profession-related development, students have every opportunity to deal with professionals' previous experience in relevant fields, just as much as with actuality and possibility, because they are encouraged to analyze the prospects of the target profession in the globalized context, discuss them in group, think of their own preferences and appealing vectors of individual development. Those reflections, observations and ambitions are expected to find their way to a specially designed 'the professional self' portfolio (profile), which, in fact, is a tool to recurrently design, assess and update an individual image of a professional to pursue in the course of studies and to check their aptitudes against.

As things stand, *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* alone is not sufficient to satisfy users and learners of language who have other than language-related tasks to accomplish. To bridge the gap we suggest using the European Language Portfolio (the ELP) in combination with another highly effective collective tool to be actually worked out by students themselves – *the Foreign Language Profile of [their] Profession*. The underlying idea of the approach is that students should not get anything ready-made. They should understand exactly what they are doing and why, and what other things they have to do to achieve the aims they pursue – they actually choose to pursue – in learning a profession-related foreign language and cross-cultural understanding.

Broadly outlined, the educational procedure involves several stages.

To begin with, students are encouraged to carry out research in English to find out any new (and interesting) information about the subject they major in. They are free to use any available sources and to rely on their experience or that of other people. They are also recommended to analyze relevant professional domains, their development prospects in different parts of the world, as well as foreign language needs that people of the target profession are likely to have. In class, the professor and the group share and discuss the results of that investigation, specify them in the form of profession-related contexts, corresponding competences, with a special emphasis on foreign language skills, relevant knowledge and cross-cultural understanding. They also decide on the exact shape of the chart for the Profile and enter those specifications on the chart. It is advisable

to leave blank boxes to complete later on because students' knowledge of their professional domain is sure to grow in time in the course of their studies at the university. Obviously, the specifications of profession-related foreign language skills and relevant levels of culture awareness are at that moment to a first approximation only because students are not prepared for more yet, and it is a matter of principle not to bore students with anything they do not quite understand. It is also very important to show to them that the professor relies on their initiative but at the same time has a pedagogical understanding of things – of what should be done and how. That is why all discussions should be arranged in such a way as to guide students towards some form of a pedagogically sound compromise ('the Socratic method'). Any new and relevant information, further experience and students' reflections brought into the classroom throughout the course of studies should find their place in the chart and, if possible, give rise to general discussion.

All the while, students are usually encouraged to refer to the ELP to assess the level of their IFLPCC to see what distance they have to go to achieve their aims. They also elaborate on the Profile to make it a working instrument of their profession-related development, and primarily an assessment tool to see what has been achieved, to outline a new plan of action, and, if necessary, to make all the necessary amendments in the Profile. The procedure is expected to become their common practice used not only in group activities, but also individually – when achieving alternative objectives or choosing alternative trajectories to lead them to collectively (just as individually) set aims. Given below is a template of the instrument in question, with blanks for students to fill in.

The foreign language profile of profession

Section I. Professional Area of Expertise. Occupation. Person

Professional Area of Expertise

Professional Area of Expertise (as viewed in different cultures):

<…>

Professional Area of Expertise with reference to other professional areas of expertise:

<…>

The 'human' dimension of Professional Area of Expertise:

<…>

Present-day Occupational Contexts

Occupations within Professional Area of Expertise:

<…>

Occupational contexts within Professional Area of Expertise:

<…>

Assessing professional and occupational prospects:

<…>

Section II. Professional Needs within Professional Area of Expertise (Table 1)

Occupational Contexts in the Globalizing World:

<…>

Professional Competences:

<…>

Road map:

<…>

Table 1. Professional needs within professional area of expertise

Occupational Contexts in the Globalizing World	Professional Competences			
	Important knowledge	Important skills	Important personal qualities	Commentary (relevant experience, etc.)
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
etc.				

Note 1.

Along with the learner-centered development perspective outlined above, a university foreign language course is to meet the current standards set for higher education institutions. Thus, after completing a course of studies in a foreign language, a student is expected to:

Know:

culture-specific features of mentality, ideas, attitudes, values of target language native speakers;

basic facts, realities, names, sights, traditions of the country / countries of the target language;

basic phonetic, lexical, grammatical, stylistic features of the target language, as well as its differences from the native language;

native speakers' behavioral models and current picture of the world;

the most important parameters of the language of their major;

basic differences in written and spoken language;

Be able to:

produce oral and written texts that are adequate in any particular situation;

realize a communicative intention in order to influence a partner;

take part in a dialogue / polylogue, produce monologue statements within familiar topics;

adequately render the content of written or audio texts;

express opinions, assess actions and argument decisions;

understand foreign language audio texts (both monologues and dialogues), with a level of understanding depending on the communicative task;

use well-established strategies for working with authentic texts of different nature;

modeling on the target language authentic text structure, produce foreign language texts of different genres within a set list of topics;

use compensatory skills in foreign language communication;

act as an intercultural mediator;

Master:

various strategies of communication;

methods of project work (depending on the level of language training);

basic strategies of autonomous educational and cognitive activities;

Internet technologies for choosing optimal modes of obtaining information;

presentation techniques to effectively introduce information;

research technologies for project work.

Section III. My Professional Profile

My Choice

(a)   The job / jobs I am interested in:

<…>

(b)   The competences I need:

<…>

(c)   My road map:

<…>

Diary

<…>

My Personal Development

(a)   Starting level

<…>

(b)   Achievement level:

<…>

Note 2.

The starting level is identified by means of a placement test and a self-assessment check list. According to Association of Language Testers in Europe (*Setting standards, sustaining diversity)* statements for general overall ability (giving six levels from A1 to C2), students have clear statements of ability against which to measure themselves. In most groups of students, the command of English corresponds to A2 / B1. It means that in *listening and speaking* they are able to express simple opinions or requirements in a familiar context. In *reading* they are able to understand straightforward information within a familiar area. In *writing* students are able to complete forms and write short and simple letters and postcards.

The achievement levels are identified by means of intermediate / final tests and a self-assessment check list. The level may vary and usually ranges from B2 to C1.

Shift in Perspective:

<…>

Commentary:

<…>

The Foreign Language Profile of Profession provides a common framework that is context-free (generalizable) and context-relevant (transferable) at the same time; it is based on present-day theories of language competency and is accessible to practitioners worldwide.

Results

The problem of differentiating between C1 and C2 levels of the European Language Portfolio has been in the focus of pedagogical interest for a few years now (Schärer, 2012), but no solution has been found so far to adequately meet the needs of non-language specialists. It is not only that any attempt to establish levels of proficiency is to some extent arbitrary, and adopted levels should be adequate to show progression in different sectors (but should in any particular context not exceed the number of levels between which people are capable of making reasonably consistent distinctions), the matter is that a common framework should be context-free (generalisable) and context-relevant (transferable) at the same time; it should be based on present-day theories of language competence, and be accessible to practitioners (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment,*2001). Moreover, those levels only reflect a vertical dimension and take only limited account of the fact that learning a language is a matter of horizontal as well as vertical progress (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment,*2001).

Heterogeneity of professional needs in specific professional fields adds to the variety of determining factors and makes any single model, that we seek to construct, too general to be an efficient educational instrument applicable to all particular contexts. Thus, a possible way out is to start with a model specific to one professional domain.

As things stand, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment,*2001) alone is not sufficient to satisfy users and learners of language who have other than language-related tasks to accomplish. This article presents the author's idea how to bridge the gap using the European Language Portfolio (the ELP) in combination with another highly efficient collective tool to be worked out on the basis of the ELP by students themselves – the Foreign Language Profile of their profession. The data collected in a series of specially conducted experiments show that this approach results in increasing students' motivation and interest, improving their self-study abilities as well as achieving practical goals set in the syllabus. When practiced in the classroom, it resulted in establishing a criterion that allows any user to make a reasonably consistent distinction between the two levels.

The underlying idea of the approach is that students should not get anything ready-made. They should understand exactly what they are doing and why, and what other things they have to

do to achieve the aims they pursue – they actually choose to pursue – in learning a foreign language and cross-cultural understanding.

The ELP meant for general purposes was used by three groups of students as a sort of reference book to help them devise the foreign language profile of their profession and elaborate it in the course of their study at the university and, hopefully, further on – in a life-long perspective.

Within that educational model, differentiating between C1 and C2 levels came as a natural by-product of solving other educational problems. In fact, the solution was prompted by students themselves, which means that for them it is an apt tool, easy to apply.

The educational procedure involved the following stages.

To begin with, we asked our students –our first-year students – what they knew about their future profession and encouraged them to carry out their first student's research in English to find out further information about the subject they were going to major in. They could use any available sources and were expected to make a detailed description of their professional domain in a form of a chart specifying the range of foreign language needs that people of their profession are expected to have.

In class, we discussed the results of their investigation, specified them in the form of foreign language skills and relevant knowledge with a special emphasis on cross-cultural understanding, decided on the exact shape of the chart for the Profile, and entered those specifications on the chart. We agreed to leave blank boxes to be filled in later on because our knowledge of their professional domain was sure to enlarge in time in the course of their study at the university. As to the target level of foreign language command and cross-cultural understanding, the students had no difficulty here, as the answer seemed evident to them. As they put it, in every context of your professional domain, you should be as good as a native-speaker of your profession, or even better thanks to additional cross-cultural understanding acquired in the course of study.

So we were unanimous in qualifying the top level (which is, in fact, C2) as that of coordinative bilingualism and biculturalism within the framework of their professional domain. Moreover, and not without reason, the students did not see sense in describing that level in detail because in that case all professional contexts should be included, which is practically impossible as in time contexts tend to develop and grow in number; thus, a true professional is bound to develop to meet the growing standards of their profession. And that is a life-long perspective.

It goes without saying that we specified the foreign language skills and relevant levels of culture awareness to a first approximation only because at that stage the students were not prepared for more, and for us it is a matter of principle and high priority not to bore students with anything they do not quite understand. It is also very important to show to them that that we do rely on their initiative. Of course, we have our pedagogical understanding of things – of what should be done and how – that is why all discussions should be arranged in such a way as to guide them towards some form of a pedagogically sound compromise.

All the while, the students were encouraged to refer to the ELP to assess the level of their foreign language communicative competence to see what distance they had to go to achieve their aims. Thus, we had the starting point, which was approximately A2 plus, and the top level – that of coordinative bilingualism and biculturalism within the framework of their professional domain (which we qualified as C2) – and a few stages in-between.

Those in-between stages can only be described in terms of subordinative bilingualism and biculturalism, and since the degree of subordination may by different, quality criteria have to be introduced to differentiate between the stages leading to the top level. Here it is necessary to grade the professional contexts and relevant foreign language skills and levels of culture awareness. The hierarchy is the foundation of the Foreign Language Profile of the Professional Domain.

Every now and then, our students referred to the Profile to assess what had been achieved, to outline a new plan of action, and, if necessary, to make all the necessary amendments in the Profile, and in time the procedure became their common practice. They used it not only in their group work guided by a professor, but also individually – when achieving alternative objectives or choosing alternative trajectories to lead them to collectively set aims.

In this way students do not only take the initiative to structure their foreign-language-and-culture learning process, they also take responsibility for doing so. That brings about fundamental transformations in the learning individual and restructures the entire teaching activity. And each student has got an educational aim to pursue – an aim developing in a life-long perspective. The data collected in a series of specially conducted experiments, with the total number of participants reaching 410 persons (for details refer to: (Yarotskaya, 2016)), definitely show that this approach to productive assessment leads to increasing students' motivation and interest, improving their self-study abilities, developing their professional identity, as well as achieving practical goals set in the syllabus with top results. All the graduates that took part in the final stage of experimental teaching-

and-learning (49 persons) proved highly competitive at the labor market and purposefully chose to work with foreign languages.

Table 2 is a random sample of students (one of the experimental groups) reproduced here to illustrate the achievement results of the participants in the experiment (Yarotskaya 2016, p. 208).

Table 2. Results of Intermediate and Final Examinations in Experimental Group 6

(Major: Document and Records Management)

Term / Student	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	English language state examination
G. L.	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
G. V.	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
G.K.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Z. A.	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
K. P.	2→3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	5
M. O.	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
M. E.	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
N. Y.	2→3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5
S. T.	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5

Note 3.

In the table, *2* stands for *poor results*, *3* stands for *satisfactory results*, *4* stands for *good results*, *5* stands for *excellent results*; *2→3* is used to show that a student was given a second chance to take the examination a month later and passed it with a satisfactory mark.

That experience encouraged us to prepare a new concept workbook for English language learners majoring in electronic document and records management (master's degree) (Yarotskaya, 2017) and to initiate work on a foreign language training program designed to meet the specific needs of students majoring in engineering sciences, with reference to their professional 'picture of the world' and way of thinking (Vonog and Yarotskaya, 2017).

Conclusion

Within the framework of productive education theory, the new productive-learning-activity approach to pedagogical guidance and specifically to the assessment of foreign language vocational training outcomes proves an important factor of a learning individual's personal, social and vocational development; it is conducive to evolving from pedagogic guidance to a learning individual's self-control and collective guidance of the learning process. In this way, students do not only take the initiative to structure their foreign-language-and-culture learning process, they also take responsibility for doing so. That brings about fundamental transformations in the learning individual and restructures the entire teaching activity, with each student having an educational aim to pursue – an aim developing in a life-long perspective.

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Multiculturalism and Conflict Reconciliation in the Asia-Pacific

K. Shimizu and W. S. Bradley. NY: Palgrave Macmillan, 2014. Pp. V + 237.

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An exploration of theoretical and pragmatic inquiries into conflicts and confrontations in the Asia-Pacific region takes central stage in this book. Thus, the Afrasian Research Centre at Ryukoku University in Kyoto in conjunction with the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (MEXT) aims to provide analysis and suggestions for possibilities of conflict resolutions. The book is divided into three foci on multiculturalism: theories, language, and migration and citizenship.

In chapter 1, *Shimizu* and *Bradley* try to move beyond the reductionist dichotomy of models of culture and civilization between West and East (p. 3). They also analyze issues related to migration, language, and politics in Japan in the Asia-Pacific. Referring on the Arendtean (from Hannah Arendt- A German-born American political theorist- whose works deal with the nature of power and the subjects of politics) understanding of the public (p. 4), the authors draw on theoretical perspectives in an attempt to expand horizons across different disciplines and research areas from regional studies to international relations to social sciences to power relations.

Following the introduction, chapter 2 starts with *William Bradley*'s focus on multiculturalism coexistence and its development in Japan against the background of global retrenchments over multiculturalism (p. 21).

In chapter 3 *Takumi Honda* outlines the discourses of multiculturalism in the US regarding immigrants from Japan during the Second World War. The mainstream multiculturalist discourse in the US has continuously been producing the story of 'what it is to be an American' (p. 57). Thus, the essentialist idea of ethnicity on the basis of a comparison between 'native-born Americans' and 'Japanese immigrants' is insinuated. As *Honda* puts it, in order to promote discussions of multiculturalism in the circumstances surrounding immigrants, it is necessary to pay careful

attention to ensure that the discussions are not oriented towards the integration of difference but rather toward the diversification of identities (p. 59).

In chapter 4, *Lee Gunderson* analyzes multiculturalism related to teaching and learning in classrooms with students who have various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. He strives to develop a model of inclusion/exclusion, where students' first cultural features differ from or match those of the classroom. However, I assert that what seems to be needed in developing such a model is the consideration of the urban-rural differentials in forming culture and perceptions of teaching and learning among immigrant students.

Part two begins with chapter 5, by *Kosuke Shimizu*, which targets the relationship between the English language and international relations as an academic discipline. *Shimizu* explains how language easily becomes a device in service of modern politics, while containing the potential for transformation and diversification of the perception of the contemporary world. Kachru (2006) rightly talks about 'English as a commodity, with immense value in the international language market.' While English has been treated as a commercial commodity by Teaching industry, economic globalization and political relations seem to have brought about other forms of language commodification.

In chapter 6, *Toshinobu Nagamine* takes up the MEXT's announcement of a new policy in 2009 to mandate that high school English teachers conduct all classes in English. He contends that there is no doubt that the new policy is adding to the pressure on both pre-service and in-service teachers. The lack of dialogue between policy makers and teachers is deleterious because local teachers are deprived of their voices when translating an imposed policy into practice.

In chapter 7, *Mitsunori Takakuwa* contends that in compulsory education in Japanese public schools, English is the de facto foreign language. However, English does not take central stage in the lives of the majority of Japanese people. Rather, there are slightly greater chances for them to use other foreign languages given that Japanese society is becoming more diversified with 'internal internationalization'.

Part three begins with chapter 8, in which *Rieko Karatani* focuses on female overseas workers in Britain. *Karatani* argues that the benefits of 'global householding' in the developed countries are reaped at the expense of damage by 'global dehouseholding' in the developing countries. Given the inadequate social welfare systems and unguaranteed security in the developing countries, what

seems to be lacking is the need to take heed of the medical and work conditions and mistreatments that are highly likely to pose threats to female overseas workers' health in the host countries.

In chapter 9, *Maria Reinaruth D. Carlos* takes up the issue of contemporary migration. She argues that the movement of Filipino nurses is profoundly affected by various factors in the host and intermediary countries, clarifies the difficulties of host countries in providing stable environments for immigrants and draws on multiculturalism to analyze attempts to provide alternative policies for the new circumstances resulting from lack of stable environments.

In chapter 10, *Shincha Park* examines dual nationality in the Asia-Pacific region, with particular attention to South Korea. He reveals that recent policies in the region are based on rather different perceptions of dual nationality. Although it is categorical that economic and political interests are the strong driving forces behind the recognition of dual citizenship, attitudes toward dual citizenship vary between states depending on their political, economic, historical, social, and cultural background (p. 204).

In chapter 11, *Julian Chapple* introduces Japan's global human resources policy enthusiastically put forward by MEXT. This is an attempt to promote changes in Japanese society to make it more outward-looking. In my view, global *jinzai,* as players for 'corporate Japan' (p. 225), should encompass and reevaluate all facets of social fabric including, but not limited to, business structures and education system. The long-standing traditional group model is unlikely to support, or lead to, the creation of such human capital, because the world today is far more complex than what textbooks offer.

This book is invaluable as it provides a useful theoretical analysis of multiculturalism, a clarification of the role of language policies and language education in constructing a space for negotiation among those with different cultural backgrounds, and an insight into how formal negotiations can contribute to creating a hybrid culture that is more accommodating to other cultures and identities. Even so, the book could have expanded the discussion on ways of fostering a sense of global citizenship as a liberating leverage to allow space for imposing the 'power of reception' (Bourdieu, 1977)- the power new comers use to be welcome or accepted in a new community- for those who were forced to toe the line in the essentialized picture of multiculturalism.

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Team Teaching and Team Learning in the Language Classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT.

A. Tajino, T. Stewart & D. Dalsky (eds.). New York, NY: Routledge, 2016. Pp. xx + 216.

Reviewed by Rurik Tywoniw, Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA

In this collection of studies, Tajino, Stewart, and Dalsky attempt to reframe the practice of team-teaching in language teaching, common to the East Asian/Pacific region. The rise of institutionalized team-teaching between native English speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs), motivated by a perceived deficit in either teaching-team member, has occurred alongside discussion on what roles each of the teachers fill. Previously, calls have been raised for the empowerment of NNESTs (Medgyes, 1992), calling the deficit-model of team-teaching into question. There has also been confusion in defining roles among NNEST/NEST teaching teams (Kumabe, 1996). This volume addresses these concerns by adopting a perspective informed by Sociocultural Theory (SCT), which assumes that social interaction is the basis for learning and mental function, and emphasizes relationships and collective development. This perspective advocates collaboration and collegiality, for which team teaching is intuitively suited, and a shift in focus away from competition and deficit-modelling. This volume should be of interest to anyone new to the institutionalized team-teaching environment in East Asia, or looking for a new perspective on operationalizing team-teaching.

The volume is divided into three sections. The first section, "Characterising ELT collaboration and innovation," explains the need for collaboration in ELT, and how relationship-building through collaboration can be an end unto itself. From this, the second section of studies, "Team teaching collaborations," highlights examples of team teaching NNEST/NEST and content-language teaching pairs in practice framed by SCT. The third section of studies, "Collaborative innovations beyond team teaching," further expands the scope of team teaching and learning, drawing on ELT and SCT to present tools for enhancing and expanding classroom and out-of-class learning.

In the first section, the authors explain failures in team teaching as failures to establish goals as a team of teachers and learners. Team teaching has been widely practiced, though poorly defined

in terms of roles and goals of the team members. Stewart's opening chapter specifically highlights the need for innovation and collaboration in ELT. Chapter 2, by Tajino & Smith, draws theoretical foundation from the previous work, Tajino & Tajino (2000). They explain the different ways teaching and learning duties can be distributed in a dialogically oriented classroom, so team-teaching can go beyond "two separate solo performances" (Tajino, Stewart, & Dalsky, 2016, p. 24) by the teaching team. Here, team-teaching brings learners and teachers together as transmitters of intercultural knowledge. The first section presents the theory for improving the social aspect of the team-teaching classroom.

The studies in section two resonate with Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) professionals in secondary education in East Asia. Yoshida's chapter 3 shows how the SCT framework can highlight positive aspects of classroom team-teaching in Japan and inform direction for the practice. In chapter 4, Davison covers the range of perceptions about team-teaching between language and content teachers in Hong Kong. Perry's chapter 5 describes the Peace Corps training practices and its approach to team teaching. Chapter 6, by Bolstad and Zenuk-Nishide, takes a critical approach to Japanese team teaching, and describes a class for in-service Japanese English teachers to prepare them for successful team-teaching and goalsetting with a NEST assistant. Chapter 7, by Fan and Lo, examines how Hong Kong students' performance in content-based instruction classrooms improved after increased collaboration between their language and content teachers. The studies in this section advocate for collaboration, and are a showcase of team-teaching as it is currently practiced. This section can be taken as an overview for preservice teachers and those new to the East Asian ELT environment and team-teaching practice.

The third section expands its focus to the university context, and explains modern approaches to teacher development and collaboration. Chapter 8 presents Edge and Attia's autobiographical narratives of digital-age collaboration for cooperative teacher development. Stewart's chapter 9 recounts the development of an entire EFL curriculum at a Japanese university built around collaboration and team-learning. In the same university setting as chapter nine, Rehorick and Rehorick's chapter 10 presents collaboration between subject and language teachers in this unique context. They chronicle the effort to foster autonomous learning among their students using teaching practice which is multi-modal and oriented around all participants. Few studies have bridged the gap between SCT and autonomous learning as this one has. Chapter 11, by Dalsky and Garant, shows how international, digital communication was implemented to bring Japanese and

Finnish classrooms together for enhanced team-learning. Chapter 12, by Nguyen, closes the volume with an activity theory examination of case studies of novice ELT teachers in the Vietnam ELT community. In all, the theme of the third section is modern collaboration for development amongst teachers and students.

While explaining collaboration for ELT development is an important goal in its own right, it is too broad to be afforded sufficient attention within the scope of this short volume, which attempts to connect all ELT collaboration to reframing team-teaching. This book's first section's goal of presenting feasible improvement for team-teaching practice is less apparent in chapters which provide teacher development advice, but do not mention team-teaching remediation in a way in-service teachers may expect or find useful. Thus, the book is not a cookbook for successful team-teaching, and in-service teachers will not find quick resolution for the real team-teaching challenges they face. A more cohesive and satisfying volume would either focus on practical improvements for team-teaching pedagogy, or else on surveying ELT collaboration and its various modes, including team-teaching.

The strength of the book is its constant intercultural, inter-community collaborative approach, showing how we should envision modern language learning communities. Instead of divided by its branching communities, the ELT field can benefit by drawing on its diverse roots through collaboration and team learning. Anyone interested in situating institutionally-mandated team teaching practices into a modern, socioculturally-informed framework for teacher and learner development can gain some insight from this book. SLTE educators and pre-service teachers new to East Asian team-teaching contexts will at least be better informed about the very real challenges and opportunities presented to language teachers charged to work as collaborators.

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