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Foreword

Welcome to the September issue of Asian EFL Journal in 2020, which contains 3 articles and 2 book reviews written by teachers of English as a Foreign Language and researchers in the field. These three articles include topics that deal with ideologies of English and English teaching, critical literacy, incorporating technology in EFL classes. The book reviews were focused on quantitative and qualitative research methods in linguistics, team teaching in Japan and its relevance to socio-political and national policy issues and pedagogical dynamics.

The featured articles in this volume were written by Linh T. Thao Nguyen (Vietnam Maritime University, Vietnam) and Yuah V. Chon (Department of English Education, Hanyang University, South Korea); Benedict C. Totanes (Taguig Science High School/Philippine Normal University) and Arceli M. Amarles (Philippine Normal University); Simon Park (Asia University, Japan) and Mengjiao Wu (Asia University, Japan & Shanghai Maritime University, China). The book reviews were prepared by Martin Andrew (Capable New Zealand, Otago Polytechnic, Dunedin, New Zealand); Thiri Soe (Graduate School of International Cultural Studies, Tohoku University, Japan).

In *Ideologies of English and English Teaching in Vietnamese Private Language Institutions' Facebook Adverts*, Linh T. Thao Nguyen and Yuah V. Chon examined the English language ideologies and English language teaching ideologies in Vietnam's private language teaching sector by analyzing promotional discourse posted in social media platform. Their analysis is based on 50 advert posts on Facebook and interview sessions with foreign language center's owners and parents who enrolled their children in the provided courses. The findings showed that there is evidence of (1) linguistic imperialism conveyed through the belief of English as a necessitation, (2) native-speakerism, and (3) whole-person development goal as influenced by globalism. It is suggested that as the language institution's promotional discourse could be in accordance with the local context of ELT, some transformations should be performed within the Vietnamese ELT tradition to ensure equality among language learners.

In *Critical Scaffolding Method: A Proposed Instructional Strategy on Critical Literacy in Reading English Literary Texts*, Benedict C. Totanes and Arceli M. Amarles investigated the K-12 Curriculum, English Language Teaching and pedagogical application of critical literacy in the Philippines. Their study presented an integrated

concept of different models towards creating a design fit for L2 learners. It resolved to provide teachers a baseline tool to develop their own critical pedagogy and techniques. Lesson exemplars were executed and piloted with Grade 12 students. Based on the findings drawn from the observations and series of validation, a newly framed teaching strategy has been formed. The strategy is coined as ‘Critical Scaffolding Method’ and divided into four phases: (1) Tapping the Learners’ End, (2) Overseeing Students’ Thinking, (3) Thinking about Thinking, and (4) Supplying Critical Task.

The focus of the article *Instagram as a Learning and Motivational Tool for Freshmen English Classes at a Private Japanese University* by Simon Park and Mengjiao Wu was on the usage of Instagram in freshman English classes at a Japanese university in order to motivate students and improve target grammar and vocabulary. The study argued that Instagram usage can increase student motivation and has the potential to improve long-term English proficiency. Their paper recommends follow-up studies that focus more on communicative ability rather than traditional assessments. This has implications for language teachers who are interested in incorporating technology into their classes, which may contain students with low motivation and confidence in their abilities.

Martin Andrew prepared a book review on *Globalisation and its Effects on Team-teaching*, by Naoki Fujimoto-Adamson. Cambridge Scholars, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom, 2020. pp. viii + 268. The book investigates an in-depth understanding of local socio-political and national policy issues, the pedagogical dynamics and sociolinguistic complexities of team teaching in the context of Japanese Junior High Schools.

Thiri Soe wrote a book review on *Quantitative Research Methods for Linguists: A Questions and Answers Approach for Students*, by Dave Pollard, Garry Plappert, Gertrud Reershemius, Sarah Hayes, Tim Grant, and Urszula Clark. Routledge, New York, 2017, pp. xi +152. This book is about the fundamental background for conducting quantitative research methods in the linguistic field particularly for beginners. It guides to the right track of performing a well-planned quality research with the procedures from the beginning until the last stage of writing.

In this issue the Asian EFL Journal continues its effort to promote research on EFL teaching and learning, to inform and update the readers about the recent developments in the field.

Sviatlana Karpava, Ph.D.

Production Editor of The Asian EFL Journal, September 2020

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Ideologies of English and English Teaching in Vietnamese Private Language Institutions' Facebook Adverts

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Bioprofiles

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Abstract

This study examines the English language ideologies and English language teaching ideologies in Vietnam's private language teaching sector by analyzing promotional discourse posted in social media platform. The data collected include 50 advert posts on Facebook and interview sessions with foreign language center's owners and parents who enrolled their children in the provided courses. Adopting critical discourse analysis as the methodological approach, the study investigated the interrelationship between the Facebook advert discourse and English ideologies. The findings showed that there is evidence of (1) linguistic imperialism conveyed through the belief of English as a necessitation, (2) native-speakerism, and (3) whole-person development goal as influenced by globalism. It is suggested that as the language institution's promotional discourse could be in accordance with the local context of ELT, some transformations should be performed within the Vietnamese ELT tradition to ensure equality among language learners.

Key words: ideologies of English, critical discourse analysis, promotional discourse

1. Introduction

As a country from the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1985), Vietnam has witnessed the rapid development of English language learning and teaching since 1986, when the country started its economic renovation and economic integration. According to the National Foreign Languages 2020 project, issued in 2008, English is adopted as the compulsory foreign language in the national education system from elementary to tertiary level, and by the end of elementary school, students have to accomplish level 1 in the 6-level foreign language proficiency framework, which is equal to A1 level of the CEFR (MoET., 2008b). Besides, in Vietnam, English “does act as a gatekeeping tool in the society” (Le Ha, 2005, p. 40) as the job market puts priority on foreign language skills whether they are necessary or not, and it is difficult to apply for a position in both governmental offices and private companies without some kind of language certificate. It can be assumed that the effects of neoliberalism and

globalization has emerged in Vietnamese society (Bui & Nguyen, 2016), and under such circumstances, there seems to be a growing discrimination between English and other languages, which might contribute to linguistic imperialism (Canagarajah, 1999; Phillipson, 2012). Besides, concerning the role of English in other Expanding Circle countries, some researchers have highlighted the problems attached to the ideologies of Standard English (Kobayashi, 2011; Pan, 2011; Xiong & Qian, 2012), and there is a need for further research to clarify this phenomenon in Vietnam.

Due to the profound importance of the English language, it is not surprising that a growing number of Vietnamese parents want to send their children to English classes from an early age. In order to meet this demand, private language institutions have been founded throughout the country, with an average number of more than 200 institutions reported unofficially in each major city. It is notable that, although named as foreign language institutions, almost all of these centers offer English courses, with other foreign language courses as the minority; thus, in this paper, language institution, English institution, and language center are used as equivalences. As business entrepreneurs, these institutions make use of a variety of media channels to promote their products, i.e., English language courses. Among the advertising methods, the use of Facebook pages, the second most popular social network in Vietnam after Youtube (Vtowns, 2017), seems to be the most beneficial due to its low cost, high interactivity, and huge number of users – potential customers. Based on the view of discourse as the social construction of reality, the world we live in shapes and is shaped by discourse practices (Paltridge, 2012). Therefore, advertising discourses produced by private institutions, one type of which is mentioned above, are believed to reflect and, to some extent, shape people's beliefs and understanding of such social practices as the English language itself and the learning and teaching of English language (Pennycook, 2013).

The major goal of this study is to delve into how the ideologies related to English and English teaching and learning, exert their influence on and, simultaneously, are conveyed in the relevant promotional discourse. Another significant contribution of this study is its focus on the social network as an increasingly prevalent field of social interaction and on how it works as a platform for promotional discourse to be spread

and received among stakeholders. In order to achieve these goals, Facebook adverts of English language courses for children published by a number of private language institutions in Vietnam were collected and critically analyzed. The specific research question to answer is ‘what are the underlying ideologies of English and English language teaching in Vietnam?’

2. Literature Review

Ideologies and language ideologies

Ideology is a complicated and rather abstract term as it condenses a lot of different aspects of human world; therefore, it is obvious that there are a number of different definitions across a variety of disciplines. A general and dictionary-based definition of ideology relates it to the notion of “idea”, or a “set of beliefs” (“Ideology,” 1997, p. 770); however, theories of ideology provide much more intricate explanations.

In its long history of conceptualization, one of the most popular definitions, or rather perspectives, of ideology is credited to Marxism theory, in which Marx and Engel referred to ideology as “the distorted beliefs intellectuals held about society and the power of their own idea” (Eyerma, 1981, p. 43). Similarly, Gramsci, Hoare & Nowell-Smith (2008) argued that ideology is closely related to hegemony since it is how people, particularly the bourgeoisie, “acquire consciousness of their position.” From these points of view, the notion of ideology is quite restricted as it incorporates negative attitude and behavior of falseness, and it also involves a limited group of people, the intellectuals and the bourgeoisie. However, it is appreciated that Marxism viewpoint claims ideology to be not neutral by displaying a link between ideology and power, in this case, the power of the intellectuals, and this perception offers a basis for further understanding of the term. For example, the connection between ideology and social power is emphasized in Thompson (1990, p. 7)’s argument, which considers ideology as “meaning in the service of power”, and a tool to maintain domination.

A different perspective was introduced by Van Dijk (2006, p.117), who proposed that ideologies are “not necessarily negative” and “not necessarily dominant” although they might “define resistance and opposition”. It means that while ideologies could

imply the effect of hegemonic practices that lead people to a certain way of behavior, they also neutrally show a certain viewpoint toward the society. Van Dijk's theory of ideology also highlights the triangulation of society, discourse and social cognition, in which ideologies function as "frameworks for organizing the social cognitions shared by members of social groups, organizations, or institutions" (Van Dijk, 1995). In this sense, ideologies can be expressed and reproduced by the group members as they are taking part in social practices, in a process of production and reproduction (Rivkin & Ryan, 2004). The current study adopts this perspective on ideology since it aims at investigating the sociocultural relationship between ideology and discourse; and as proposed by Thompson (1990, p. 24), in order to analyze the operation of ideology in a certain context, it is necessary to investigate "how the meaning mobilized by mass-mediated symbolic forms is understood and appraised by individuals, who...receive media messages and incorporate them into their lives."

As complicated as it is, when ideology is related to people's use of language, it is seen as "a cluster concept, consisting of a number of converging dimensions" (Kroskrity, 2004, p.501). Language ideology has been mentioned by using many different concepts across different disciplines, such as grammatical ideology (Kroch & Small, 1980), standardization ideology (Milroy & Milroy, 1985). Among these many concepts, Silverstein (1979, p. 193) asserted that language ideologies are "any sets of beliefs about language articulated by the users as a rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use." Woolard (1998, p. 4) and Rumsey (1990, p. 346) put more emphasis on the community aspect of language ideologies since the two scholars refer to them as "self-evident ideas and objectives a group holds" and "shared bodies of commonsense notions" regarding language and its roles. A more detailed description of language ideologies offered by Jaffe (2009, pp. 390-391) incorporates not only the ideas of the particular language itself, but also the sociocultural factors such as the "values and meanings attached to particular codes", "hierarchies of linguistic value," and "the way that specific linguistic codes are connected to identities and stances". Despite a collection of definitions, a key point to remember is that "the term tries to capture..., the implicit and usually unconscious assumptions about language and language

behavior that fundamentally determine how human beings interpret events” (Tollefson, 2007, p. 26). Therefore, the interrelationship between language and the society can be disassembled by analyzing language ideology. In particular, language ideologies reflect, direct and shape people’s choice of language, their attitude towards a specific kind of language, and also the activities of teaching and learning the language. Through this lens, it is believed that the social meaning of English language in such an expanding circle country as Vietnam can be thoroughly identified.

In English teaching and learning literature, the notion of ideologies has attracted increasing attention. The inclusive starting point for the research of this topic is conveyed through Benesch (1993, p.705)’s assertion that “all forms of ESL instruction are ideological.” Among the developing collection of studies, some researchers address the dominance of English all over the world with regard to distinct context in different countries, such as Japan (Kubota, 1998), China (Pan, 2011), Iran (Mirhosseini & Samar, 2015). In terms of the type of data used for analyzing English ideologies, many studies look into the national education policies as it is believed that there are always a certain set of ideologies embedded in states’ governance. Textbooks are also a station for embedded English ideologies since they can implicitly bear the native country’s culture and beliefs (Xiong & Qian, 2012). Researchers also pay attention to teachers’ (Modiano, 2001) and parents’ perspectives (Lee, 2016) when they teach the language and let their children learn the language. It is noticeable that many of these research point at neo-liberalism and imperialism as the underlying ideologies for the widespread of ELT, but in order to conclude whether the similar ideologies exist in other ELT and EFL contexts, there is a need of further examination.

English ideologies in Vietnam EFL context

The status of English language in Vietnam has undergone major changes throughout the country’s history of revolution and development, whereby it has been closely related to the socio-political and economical settings. After experiencing an unstable popularity during war time, English started to become a favorable foreign language in the late 1980s as Vietnamese government launched a major economic reform called

Renovation (Doi Moi). This helped the country timely response to globalization by encouraging private business and attracting foreign investment. In education, the government adopted the policy of socialization, through which both state and private institutions have been given chance to develop. Accordingly, the demand for English learning and teaching in Vietnam has significantly increased (Nguyen, 2012), which was responded by the government's ambitious National Foreign Language Project 2020, issued in 2008. The major goal of the project was to improve the average foreign language competence of students at all levels with the view to assist their competitiveness in the domestic and international job market. Despite its failure because of the unrealistic goals and strategies (Bui, 2009; Nguyen, 2012), Project 2020 has partly contributed to the privilege status of English in Vietnam.

Despite its significance, English ideology in Vietnam EFL context is an underexplored research area, being briefly mentioned or discussed in few studies. On examining and comparing language policies in Vietnam and Nepal, Phyak & Bui (2014) claimed that globalization and neoliberalism nourished the privatization of education and offered the private sector a growing power in promoting the English-only policy in both countries, yet how the private institutions employ this power remains an open question. Besides, some researchers pointed to the problems of standardized English and native-speakerism in Vietnam. On his qualitative research investigating teacher's perspectives on which culture to be targeted in English teacher education programs, Doan (2014, p. 89) found that there was a co-existence of two opposite views related to native speakerism. One group of lecturers believed "English was so closely attached to the culture of its native speakers", whereas the other realized "cultural differences in English use according to who is speaking." Meanwhile, according to Bui (2013), the standardized English policy distanced minority students from education and socio-economic opportunities.

It is noticed that there is a lack of research directly investigating the ideologies of English language and English learning and teaching in Vietnam. Of the few studies mentioned about, public policy and state governance was taken into consideration while neglecting the current conditions of the private sectors.

Critical discourse study and Advertisement discourse

From the above discussion on ideology, it is clearly seen that ideology has an intimate relationship with discourse practices. This relationship is an interactive one, in the sense that ideologies shape and direct discourse, while at the same time, they are realized and reproduced by discourse (Fairclough, 2001; van Dijk, 2001). Hence, a critical discourse analysis (CDA) perspective is needed to examine underlying ideologies because the assumption of CDA is that “discourse is socially constitutive as well as socially shaped,” (Fairclough, Mulderrig & Wodak, 2011, p. 358), which is in accordance with the scholars’ assumptions of ideologies. In addition, the reason why a non-critical approach to discourse analysis might not be adequate in this case is that a description of discursive practices cannot show “how discourse is shaped by relations of power and ideologies” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 12). Van Dijk (1993, p. 253) also highlights the benefits of CDA to the society by stating that it can reveal the role of language in “the (re)production of dominance and inequality.” As a result, it is expected that the knowledge and awareness of the impact of ideologies on discourse can lead the discourse practice to a more socially just and equal direction.

Due to its aims and roles, CDA is often performed on media discourse, such as newspaper articles, television programs, advertisements. In this information-blooming and consumerism era, advertisement has become one of the most frequently detected discourses in the society; it can be easily found everywhere in different forms. Thus, “advertising has actually provided models for consumer needs, values, tastes and behavior” (Fairclough, 2001, p.171), and at the same time, it reflects those trends and values of the society. The interesting fact is that the promotional discourse exceeds the group of common merchandised products to include the advertising of educational products. For example, advertisements were used as data for analysis in Fairclough (1993)’s research on how universities in England, as sellers, sell their courses and degrees to consumers – students; the finding was that those prospectuses which were designed with a promotional goal helped attracting more students. In recent years, with the development of information technology, Internet-based advertisement is also

growing, and it changes the approach used by marketers from a “we talk, you listen” approach to a ‘you talk, we listen’ approach (Eisenberg, 2009, p.139). In other words, the highly interactive characteristic of the Internet sources increases the involvement of consumers in the product producing and promotional process. Thus, consumers seem to have more freedom in using Internet-based adverts as references when making purchase decision. In her research, Chang (2004) considered web-based adverts of language schools as one of the data sources to identify ideologies of English teaching and learning in Taiwan.

However, it is observed that social network remains a new site of research to explore English language and ELT ideologies. In comparison to other Internet websites, social networks such as Facebook are even more consumer-controlled, since consumers can immediately express their experience, feeling and beliefs towards a certain product, using commenting feature. From the sellers’ perspective, social networks could be a highly beneficial advertising tool because the potential consumers’ information and contacts are handily provided with just a few clicks; also, it is convenient to lead the customers to intended impressions and beliefs. As a result, the interrelationship between ideologies and society should be more revealing in such contexts. Specifically, considering Facebook adverts of English course for children, the producers of these adverts, i.e., the language centers, can be considered as the experts and powerful institutions who are trying to create a positive image of their courses, thus implicitly impose some certain positive ideas and beliefs of English language and their English teaching on the potential customers, i.e., the students’ parents and the students. On the other hand, the customers, who appear to be less knowledgeable and need to be informed, need to accept these ideas and beliefs in order to comprehend the advert discourse (Fairclough, 2001). According to Van Dijk (1995), if these implicit ideas and beliefs are frequently introduced and processed in the discourse, after a long-term period of socialization, they would be acquired as ideologies by the members of the society. Therefore, it is necessary to make explicit the implicit ideas buried under the commercialized information about English and ELT in order to raise people’s awareness of possibly mystified assumptions and ideologies.

3. Method

Incorporating the methodological approach of CDA, this qualitative research drew on two sources of data: one including fifty Facebook advertisement posts promoting English courses for children at private language centers, and the others were interviews of three language center owners and three parent participants. Data collection and analysis procedures are described in details in the following sections.

Data collection

Advertisement posts on Facebook

In comparison to other channels, such social media tools as Facebook pages offer less expensive advertising opportunities (Dehghani & Tumer, 2015) and higher interactivity (Dix, Ferguson, Logan, Bright & Gangadharbatla, 2012); therefore, along with the remarkable expansion of private language institutions in Vietnam, the number of Facebook pages owned by these institutions increases accordingly. In order to randomly collect the advertising posts published by the English language centers, the researcher inserted such key words as “English courses for children,” “English/ foreign language center” (in Vietnamese) to search for the pages, then scanned through the detected pages to identify advertising posts. It is necessary to explain that, within the scope of this study, only English courses for children are focused due to their popularity and significant number, which reflects the fact in Vietnamese society that parents are increasingly interested in improving their children’s ability to use the language, and they tend to entrust this task to private centers instead of to schools (Le, 2011). Besides, it is notable that the target audience of the posts, though not explicitly identified, was parents. Although they were not the potential learners, it was obvious that they would be the one who paid for the courses.

In order to ensure homogeneity, those posts which are significantly longer or shorter than the majority were excluded. The timeframe was also limited to the two years of 2017 and 2018 to make sure the contents are not outdated. After the searching process, 50 posts, from 157 to 248 words in length, were collected. All the posts were

written in Vietnamese with some scattered use of English words and phrases, mostly related to English learning and teaching, e.g.: phonics, level, Movers, Flyers. It is notable that some of the posts were accompanied by photos and pictures, but these photos and pictures either displayed a shorter but identical form of the adverts, like flyers, or illustrated content which was irrelevant to the course. Therefore, the photos were not included in analysis. Besides, some emoticons were used, yet with the general purpose of making the posts become more appealing rather than conveying any message; thus, they were also neglected. In short, a multimodality discourse analysis is believed to be unnecessary in this case.

Interviews

Three foreign language center owners and three parents were invited to take part in online semi-structured interview sessions. The center owner interviewees were selected by using convenient sampling, and the Facebook adverts of the three centers were also included in the analyzed text data. All three center owners, two males and one female, worked simultaneously as the manager of the business, and two of them used to take or were taking the teaching and content developing tasks. The three centers were founded around 3 to 5 years ago and they mainly aimed at children. They also offered certificate courses for adult learners on demand.

Parent participants (two females and one male) were approached by using private Facebook messages. Initially, those parents who left their comments under the language center's advertisement posts were considered potential interviewees. Only three persons responding to the invitation messages came into contact with the researcher and agreed to attend online interview sessions.

All the interview sessions were conducted by using synchronous instant messaging as most of the participants were not willing to do voice chat or meet face to face. The interviewees' identities were kept anonymous.

Data analysis

The researchers adopted critical discourse analysis as the methodological approach,

which means the data was not examined within any set CDA framework; rather, it was investigated from the CDA perspective with regard to the assumptions of the interrelationship between discourse and ideologies discussed above. Accordingly, the data analysis procedure mainly involved theme extraction, and the emerged themes were interpreted within the relevant social contexts to explore the underlying ideologies.

The fifty Facebook adverts were analyzed through coding procedures, based on grounded theory method. The emerging patterns were first arranged into different categories with detailed calculation of frequency; the categories were then grouped into different themes. Since the themes were seen as the evidence of the underlying ideologies, they were interpreted in terms of relevant ideologies. The coding process was performed without translating the data into English to ensure the originality of meaning; the English excerpts were then used for the purpose of illustrating and discussing the result. The emerged themes and sub-themes were checked by two of the author's colleagues, whose comments were carefully considered for modification and interpretation.

Interview data was used as the supplementary source for interpretation of the text data. Based on the emerged themes in the advert collection, guided interview questions (Appendix 2) were composed. The interview content was then analyzed in accordance with the themes to provide additional explanation and clarification for the findings.

4. Results and Discussion

As the result of the coding process, 14 thematic notions were deduced after some of them had been deleted due to low frequency (under 20%) or subtle relation to beliefs and ideologies. The list of sub-themes, definitions and examples of each sub-themes, and their frequencies are provided in Appendix 1. The sub-themes were then analyzed and categorized into three main themes, which reflect the major ideologies of English and English teaching in Vietnam, yet the remaining question is that which broader ideologies they reflect and are built upon.

English as necessitation – Linguistic imperialism

One of the most frequently expressed beliefs about the English language found in the data views English as an essential language in the society. This view is conveyed through the repeated claim that English is a global language, and it is the key to the children's future success.

Many different expressions are used to denote the global aspect of the English language. In some texts, the word “*global*” was used directly to describe English, normally attached with such phrases as “*widely used all over the world*”, and “*the most popular*”. For example, one institution stated in their post that “*English is the most popular language all over the world*”, another claimed that “*English helps the children step out to the world*”. Other institutions stated this point in a more indirect manner, by linking the language to “*international education*” and the purpose of study abroad. Interestingly, the term “*global citizens*” was employed in a number of adverts to contribute to the importance of English. Although this term was not clearly defined and explained, the adverts assigned good English skills as the indispensable characteristic of a global citizen.

Approximately, one third of the Facebook posts related learners' future success to their English skills. In all of these instances, the two words “*success*” and “*future*” are directly used without describing what success really means or what kind of success people should expect. The following excerpt is a typical example of this idea:

“Your kid will have more opportunities to get success in future life: English opens many more doors for us, everyone knows this...Early exposure to English and modern global culture helps your kid build better direction for life and future at a young age.”

By using the further stress of “*everyone knows this*,” the author of this text seems to force the readers to accept what was said as fact, representing the common and widely believed idea.

The interviewed center owners shared the same purpose of deliberately highlighting the global aspect of the English language in order to attract potential learners. One of them justified the idea by saying “*you can hardly do anything these days without English, that's why there are so many English classes and centers like*

this.” Another strongly emphasized his ambition in operating the center, claiming that “*what I want to do is to bring the kids a good chance to access to a brighter future which they cannot reach if they just follow mainstream education.*” It is also noticeable that all three center owners shared the same viewpoint that the content pointing towards the global aspect of English was deliberately used to make the adverts be “*attractive and catchy*” to the readers.

In short, by addressing English language as necessitation in the global era, the writers of the text established a close relationship between learners’ learning the language and their well-being in the society; also, the value of being successful is emphasized as the ultimate goal in a person’s life. This assumption, simultaneously, means that one cannot survive as a member of the modern society without achieving the skills of English. Parents showed their acceptance and agreement with this view by enrolling their children into the promoted English courses. A mother said: “*I only want to bring her [the child] the best thing to prepare for her future...Everyone needs English to get a successful career*” while another claimed: “*At his [the child] time, doing business or travelling to foreign countries will become normal and easy. Surely, he needs English to communicate.*”

The conviction of English as necessitation might be associated with the ideologies of linguistic imperialism, proposed by Phillipson (2012) as “the transfer of a dominant language to other people”. From such point of view, linguistic imperialism causes the widespread of English language and English language teaching all over the world. However, Phillipson’s viewpoint was criticized by other theorists for its possibility of “exaggerating the imperialist designs” (Canagarajah, 1999, p.406). Besides, although the English language is regulated as official foreign language to be taught in Vietnamese education system and expected, instead of being imposed, to become a second language in the future, the linguistic imperialism ideologies seem not to adequately reflect the context of ELT in the country. In the past, English had never been a widely accepted language in Vietnam, even during the period of US colonization, and just a few decades ago, the foreign language taught at schools was Russian (Van Van, 2010). Thus, it seems to be more sufficient to explain this importance of English

language in Vietnam by referring to the impact of globalization, in which economic development of a country is assisted by the language. Nevertheless, the belief of necessitation might lead people to the assumption that one cannot accommodate in the modern society and get success without English, which should not be readily accepted.

Native speakerism

Native speaker and native English were considered a standard for some aspects of a language course at private institutions. This standard was applied on the image of ideal EFL teachers, the course programs and textbooks, the focus on communication and pronunciation, and the aim of guaranteeing international standardized test certificate.

It is not too surprising to find 84% of the adverts mentioned the institutions' recruitment of native speakers for major teaching positions. However, the difference is that, while some centers referred to this group of people by clarifying the teachers' nationality (British, American, and Australian), others make the term become more confusing by calling those people "*foreign teachers*", "*native teachers*", or in some case, "*Westerners*." The institutions also made their advertising more appealing by identifying how many per cent of the course' lessons were going to be taught by the native speakers, which was normally 100%, 75%, or the least of 50%. However, it is also noticeable that the native speakers' qualification as professional language teachers was much less frequently mentioned by only 7 out of 42 centers who claimed they had native teachers. Furthermore, there is also a contrast between the credibility of native speakers and nonnative EFL teachers. The native teachers could be highly appreciated by their simply being native, while nonnative speakers were always described using a wide range of adjectives, such as "*experienced*," "*enthusiastic*," "*child loving and caring*." Especially, the qualifications of these Vietnamese teachers were also measured by the native or international standard. The following excerpt shows this difference the most clearly:

"About XXX English School:

✓ Native teaching staff

✓ *Vietnamese teachers who have experience working at international schools, embassies, and NGOs...They all have international certificate to teach English as a foreign language.*” (Ad. no. 13)

An important point to notice is that center owners and parents shared different opinion about the role of native teachers. All three center owners, who themselves were teachers, believed that native teachers were not necessarily better than Vietnamese teachers, with one complaining, *“It is unfair for our (Vietnamese) teachers. They are good, but parents just don’t have faith.”* Despite this belief, the owners all agreed that they had to recruit native speakers and, in some cases, foreign teachers who were not from English-speaking country but had a ‘Western look’, especially for children courses, because that might help *“demonstrate the value and advantage of our center.”* Meanwhile, parents seemed to build a strong favor of foreign teachers. A mother affirmed that *“English should be taught by foreigners because they surely know the language better,”* and another said *“I send my child to this center because my friends said they have good Western teachers.”* Interestingly, the parents also used such phrases as *“Westerners,” “foreigners,”* and even *“white skin teachers”* to refer to those teachers whom they believed to be *“native”*.

Another impact of ‘nativeness’ could be seen in the description of the course’ program and textbook. When promoting about their courses, half of the language institutions briefly described the provided course books or course programs, which were all published in the native countries, or customized based on some international programs. Since the courses aimed for kids and children, the course books were some popular ones, such as *Family and Friends* (Simmons, Thompson & Quintana, 2009), *MacMillan Science* (Glover, 2011), *Our Discovery Island* (Miller & Morales, 2012), published by Oxford University Press, MacMillan, Pearson. Some centers seemed to aim at creating their distinguished brand name by adding some instances of customization into their programs, but in such cases, the materials were still native-based. For example, it was written in one Facebook advert that *“Course book is*

designed by XXX (center's name), basing on the famous Everybody Up published by Oxford"; there was only one case where the course program was claimed to be composed by the center themselves, yet it was "*specially designed to meet international standard*". Explaining why such imported textbooks were the prevalence among English centers, an owner said the use of ready-made syllabus not only helped save "*time and effort*" but also acted as a "*strength and an attractive point*" that appealed to potential customers. By repeatedly emphasizing the use of the native English language programs, the institutions made this 'nativeness' become a prestigious quality of their courses, which seems to imply that internationality and native-made should be the only standard to evaluate an English course. This message seemed to be well received by parents as they claimed that despite their lack of English language knowledge, they were still in favor of those institutions exploiting textbooks and programs from "*famous foreign publishers*." One parent even claimed that "*as long as it is not the textbook at school, the ones written by Vietnamese, that's fine*."

The influence of 'nativeness' is also revealed through the focus on communication and pronunciation in the course program. English teaching in Vietnam has been widely affected by the traditional teaching method and the focus on grammar and vocabulary. Although communicative language teaching was introduced and applied to the curriculum, most mainstream schools and a large number of school teachers still put much emphasis on grammar. However, students and parents are still aware of the importance of conversation skills and consider 'being able to communicate' the ultimate goal of English study. Two parent interviews described a successful English learner as someone who "*can speak English confidently and fluently*," without mentioning any other skills. Consequently, in order to accord themselves with the public's perception, instead of discussing about grammar knowledge or the four specific language skills in their adverts, most centers referred to "*conversation skill*" and "*pronunciation*" as the specials of their course. It is likely that the private centers wanted to distant themselves from the mainstream English teaching in this aspect, which might help them build a more outstanding position. For example, one center asserted that:

“Most importantly, the course concentrates at assisting the children to maximize the effective communication ability in English.” (26)

Pronunciation was also frequently highlighted, accompanied by “*accurate*” or “*native-like accent*”. Especially, one advert employed this phrase, “*having a sexy English accent*” (12), with the word “*sexy*” in English instead of Vietnamese, to make the lines become more attractive. One point to notice is that there seemed to be no discrimination between British English and American English accent among these language centers, since they only used general term, such as native accent or English accent. One of the parents justified this favor of communication skills and pronunciation by claiming that she was not “*capable of checking my child’s written skills,*” so she could only evaluate the child’s progress and the quality of the course by listening to the child’s English speaking. Another parent said it was from the “*media*” that she took the idea of the importance of fluent communicative skills and a native-like pronunciation.

Although the English language course adverts analyzed in this paper were concerned with young learners, around a third of them still adopted test or certificate as the guarantee for the centers’ teaching quality. This might partly be due to the heavily test-oriented tradition of Vietnamese education (Hiep, 2007); however, it was observed that instead of performance at schools, international proficiency exams were the preference. The following excerpt underlined this outcome:

“The outcome guarantee for primary school students is Cambridge international certificate (Starters, Movers, Flyers) and TOEFL primary.” (34)

Some centers even used the trial exams for these certificates as a bonus for their courses, as in “*the children will be given chance to take a trial exam for international certificates*” (9). If the course aimed at children of younger age (3-5), it was expected to help them “*build firm foundation, in preparation for international standard English exam*” (16). Thus, this certificate-oriented guarantee shows an effort of escaping the school system, in which students’ performance is measured by using tests designed by school teachers instead of standardized tests, and it also once again puts emphasis on the international and native English as standard for the English language learning and teaching process. Along with their favor of these international certificates, parents also expressed their

distrust in the mainstream English teaching as the children would not receive “*reliable evaluation and widely recognized certificates*.”

Holliday (2006) defined the ideology of native-speakerism as the beliefs that “‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology.” Accordingly, from the collected data, native-speakerism influences not only the image of an ideal EFL teacher, but also the program design, course book selection, and the teaching outcome. Firstly, it is observed that this ideology not only creates the image of native teachers as superiority, but also leads to some kind of inequality between the native and nonnative teachers. Remarkably, native speakers in Vietnam are also confusingly synonymized as foreigners or Westerners, despite their nationality. In addition, native speaker’s language is seen as the only purpose, method, and result of the language study. Similar situation was reported in many other countries, especially such Asian countries as China (Wang, 2015), Taiwan (Wu & Ke, 2009), Japan (Hashimoto, 2013). Needless to say, the ideology of native-speakerism has been extensively criticized, especially “within the notion of English as an international language” (Hyland & Wong, 2013) because it does not take the multiple social and cultural background and identities of EFL learners into consideration.

Whole-person development – Globalism and neoliberalism

Another coincidence in the majority of texts is the allusion to whole person development as a result of English language learning, which means the learners might not only advance in their language proficiency but also develop many other skills and abilities. The phrase “*whole-person development*” was directly used in some adverts, while it can be referred to by using more specific properties; therefore, the author decided to use the term to name this theme.

The whole person development, including language development and other aspects of human ability, was linked to the notion of “*critical period*” in a number of adverts. The term critical period, if used, was directly quoted in English, or it was possibly replaced by such synonyms as “*golden period*”, and “*suitable age range*” in

Vietnamese. It is remarkable that the claim of this critical period was often supported by the use of credible authority; nevertheless, this authority was always generally referred to as “*experts*” or “*scientists*”. The following excerpt is a representative of this point:

“According to the research of many leading scientific institutes all over the world, 3-6 is the golden age range for kids to study language and develop their mind.” (41)

However, the ironic fact is that this critical period differs from text to text, one claimed it to be from 4-10, others from 3-7, yet the fundamental, and, according to the center owners interviewed, the common purpose of mentioning this period is “*to persuade the parents to let their kids study English as soon as possible.*” Although this claim has some certain scientific evidence to support, the confusion caused by the vague use of authorial creditability and the difference in information leads to the questioning reliability of such. Despite this fact, all three parent participants said they registered their children to English courses because “*it is the best to start learning English at early age.*” One interviewee stated that “*it shall be too late to wait until my kid starts learning English officially at school*” although in Vietnam, English is an optional subject but commonly chosen by a majority of primary schools to teach since grade 1.

A wide range of skills and ability was assumed to be the benefit of language learning. The courses were advertised to be able to “*help students to exploit 100% of their imagination*” (42), “*stimulate children’s thinking capacity, intelligence and wholly develop their linguistic ability*” (46), or “*nurture the children’s confidence skill, systematic thinking, and critical thinking*” (12). It is difficult to say whether these commitments can be considered scientifically reliable or whether language learning can lead to such results; however, the emphasis on these aspects in the advertisement discourse might either has its root from or boost parents’ belief in the importance of English learning for the child’s development.

The beliefs on whole-person development could also be seen as a result of globalism ideology. It is rather challenging to trace the notion of ‘whole-person development’, but within the local situation of Vietnam, this is a frequently used term

in many documents, especially in educational and policy scripts. English language learning “has gained prominence as a consequence of the decision of the Vietnamese government to implement the ‘doi moi’ (renovation process) in 1986” (Hang, 2009, p. 139). Specifically, whole-person development is an educational strategy proposed by Vietnamese government in the period of industrialization, modernization and integration (Pham, 2001). This might partly explain why the term is applied in the education-related advertisements, and also reveal the impact of globalism on this issue. In other words, a person should acquire a wide range of knowledge and skills in order to promote the country’s economic development and integration to the world. Besides, ‘whole-person development’ could also be framed within the notion of neo-liberalism. According to Bernstein, et.al. (2015, p. 6), in light of neo-liberalism, English language is considered a “commodified, technicized skill,” which can be acquired by “individuals as human capital.” This ideology could be further emphasized by the context of this study, in which the foreign language centers are not genuine education institutions, but should also be seen as businesses operating in a ‘foreign language’ market with the aim of providing learners with the English language commodity. Furthermore, the achievement in learning English language is considered a success and implies wants of each individual, thus, represents a neo-liberal value. The existence of this ideology and the promotional influence of the private sector in Vietnam EFL context were also supported by Phyak & Bui (2014, p. 105), who further claimed that it would “clearly poses unprecedented risks and costs to educational quality and equality.”

5. Conclusion

By critically analyzing adverts of English language course for children published in the social network, Facebook, the current study has investigated several beliefs and ideologies which are related to the English language and English language teaching in Vietnam society. It is noteworthy that in this study, Facebook, an increasingly well-known social media, was considered a resource for data collection, a background for ideologies to unfold and be received, and also, a platform to perform research activities.

The findings of the study revealed that the advert discourse seems to display, and at the same time, be affected by such ideas of English as necessitation, native speaker as standard, and whole-person development. Further discussion suggests that this advertisement discourse might reflect and reproduce the ideologies of native-speakerism and globalism in Vietnam education setting.

Since every kind of discourse possesses the function of ideologies reflection and reproduction, it is important that people should be aware of the underlying assumptions of the texts they are exposed to. In this specific case, parents and students, the readers of the adverts, need to be given chance to understand the language institutions' intention and hidden messages in order not to misguide the English learning process. Because the language institution's promotional discourse could be in accordance with the context of ELT in Vietnam in general, some transformations should be performed within the Vietnamese ELT tradition. Firstly, the discrimination between native and non-native teachers needs to be erased; instead, focus should be equally put on qualification and ability of any teacher. In order to promote this equality, the education authorities shall play a more significant role in regulating the private sectors, and parents should be provided with relevant information to be able to make wise choice against the 'native speakers' trend. Secondly, the use of materials and design of programs should take into consideration the distinctive and local background of the students instead of only serving the international test oriented standard. Thirdly, the mismatch in the teaching aim and method between schools and private institutions should be carefully dealt with because it is likely to prioritize some groups of students, those who have the financial support to take extra courses, to others, those who cannot afford private institution lessons. It is important to note that, according to as McKay (2009, p. 38), "this economic divide in access to English is often reinforced by Ministries of Education themselves," which means the government's policy in fostering English teaching and learning might play a certain role in the current inequality and mismatch.

As complicated as it is, the issue of ideologies has not been adequately and fully discussed within the scope of the study as data was collected from limited sources.

Further research should employ different types of discourse to build a more thorough look into this problem, for example, both parents and students who are taking or intend to take the English course can be interviewed for their perceptions, or at the macro level, Vietnamese policy of ELT can also be analyzed.

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Appendix 1

Descriptions of Themes and Subthemes

Sub-themes	Description	Example	Frequency
Theme 1: English as necessitation			
English as global language	English is mentioned as a global language, international language, or a language used for study abroad in foreign countries	(1) (*) <i>English is the most popular used language all over the world</i> (14) <i>English is the official language for those students having intention to study abroad</i>	18/50 (36%)
English for success	English is the key or one of the requirements for the learners to get success in the future	(30) <i>the course helps the students to maximize their inner ability and brings more opportunities for success to Vietnamese learners.</i>	19/50 (38%)
Theme 2: Native speaker orientation			
Native/ foreign teacher	English teachers are described as native speakers, foreigners or Westerners	(2) <i>Native speaker plays the main role in the classroom.</i> (5) <i>100% foreign speaker course</i>	42/50 (84%)
Experienced nonnative teacher	Vietnamese teachers who have a wide range of experience, especially in teaching English for children	(9) <i>Vietnamese teachers are college graduate, having certificates and experience to teach English for children</i>	10/50 (20%)
Native programs/course books	Programs and courses are published and developed by English-speaking countries	(20) <i>The course books used is English World, the newest one by Macmillan educational organization - UK</i>	25/50 (50%)
The focus on conversation and pronunciation	Conversation and pronunciation are directly mentioned as the aim for development in the course	(19) <i>Going to XXX English Center, the children will: pronounce as accurately as native kids; be able to communicate with foreigners</i>	26/50 (52%)
Test/certificate guarantee	International test and certificate achievement is guaranteed as the outcome of the course	(25) <i>(This course) sows seeds and develops the child's English ability to achieve the different levels of the Cambridge YLE certificates (Starters, Movers, Flyers)</i>	15/50 (30%)
Theme 3: Whole person development			
Critical period	Critical period, golden period are used to define the period of time when children should get the most advantage of their language study	(27) <i>3-9 is the golden period when parents can help your children to develop intelligence, especially English ability</i>	15/50 (30%)
Soft-skills, talent, creativity, critical thinking development	These skills are claimed to be achieved by students throughout the course	(13) <i>Develop the 4 skills: collaboration, creativity, critical thinking and communication through a multi-dimensional English space</i>	26/50 (52%)

(*) the number indexing a text after coded

Appendix 2

Advertisement sample

(sample 3)



[Translation: DISTINGUISHED PARENTS, PLEASE QUICKLY REGISTER THE TRIAL COURSE FOR YOUR CHILDREN

♦♦♦ TO ENJOY THE BIGGEST BENEFITS EVER

♦♦♦ TO LET OUR CHILDREN EXPERIENCE THE CURRENTLY NEWEST, MOST ADVANCED, AND MOST MODERN TEACHING METHOD

☀️ XXX English Centre System – English expert for children aged 3-17 years old

Wholly English training through cultural, artistic and sport activities.

☀️ Applying the 21st century thinking method, with the 4C golden rule to help students acquire and develop the four necessary skills in the 21st century.

⚡	✂ CONFIDENCE	–	SỰ	TỰ	TIN
⚡	✂ COOPERATION	–	SỰ	HỢP	TÁC
⚡	✂ COMPETENCE	–		KỸ	NĂNG
⚡	✂ COMBINATION – SỰ KẾT HỢP				

☀️ 100% of the XXX lessons are designed in the form of activities, integrated with practical applications (music, storytelling, presentations, MCs, plays, performances, crafts, fine arts, design ...).

🏆 Offsite activity after each unit is XXX's exclusive training methodology.

🏆 One-page project: a project that summarizes the knowledge of each unit in a single page.

🏆 With the goal of students' wholly development as the most important mission and responsibility, the skills courses and extracurricular activities are held regularly at XXX, to improve students' soft skills.

Through this method, English will become a tool for students to develop comprehensively in five aspects: cognitive, physical, language, emotional - social and aesthetic, so that students can achieve success not only at school but also prepare for the future.

☀️ Native teachers play the leading role in the classroom, Vietnamese teachers support the teaching process. XXX prides itself on 100% native English teachers with qualifications, international certificates (TEFL, TESOL, CELTA) and pedagogical teaching experience for children.

-Vietnamese teachers have good pedagogical skills, they are bachelors and masters with a lot of teaching experience, enthusiasm, dedication, love for the job, and love for the children.

☀️ International-quality facilities with specially designed classrooms suitable for each student group, ensuring the best conditions, stimulating students' learning desire.]

Appendix 3

Semi-structured interview guidelines

Language center's owner interview

Why do you decide to establish and operate a language center?

Can you describe the teaching staff at your center?

Can you describe the programs you offer for young learners?

What values do you want to bring to your learners?

What advertising channels do you use? Which one do you think is the most effective? Why?

Parent interview

Why do you decide to enroll your child(ren) in an English course at private center?

What did you do to search for a suitable course for your child?

Can you describe the course your child is taking?

What values do you want your child to get from the course?



Critical Scaffolding Method: A Proposed Instructional Strategy on Critical Literacy in Reading English Literary Texts

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Abstract

The K-12 Curriculum in the Philippines, particularly in the area of English Language Teaching, adheres to the pedagogical application of critical literacy. Some of the core competencies require an inclination of critical dimensions. Several studies reveal that critical literacy has been studied extensively since the 1980s in L1 communities; however, it has been less manifested and applied in class discussions among L2 countries. In line with this, the present study proposes an instructional strategy on critical literacy in reading English literary texts. It presents an integrated concept of different models towards creating a design fit for L2 learners. It resolves to provide teachers a baseline tool to develop their own critical pedagogy and techniques. Lesson exemplars were executed and piloted with Grade 12 students. Based on the findings drawn from the observations and series of validation, a newly framed teaching strategy has been formed. The strategy is coined as ‘Critical Scaffolding Method’ and divided into four phases: (1) Tapping the Learners’ End, (2) Overseeing Students’ Thinking, (3) Thinking about Thinking, and (4) Supplying Critical Task.

Keywords: Critical Literacy, Critical Scaffolding Method, Instructional Strategy, English Literary Texts

Introduction

In a formal classroom setting, a lot of approaches to teaching literature and reading have been bombarding the education field. Many teaching strategies have been used to further increase the motivation and the engagement of the students in the reading process. However, there has been an increasing gap to make learners “learn to love books” and employ challenges to the text they read. As Luke (2000) once mentioned, there is a tendency that books can bring knowledge into distortion and delusion. Through the aid of critical literacy in class discussion, learners can “examine both the personal and social contexts of events, discourses and practices” (Fajardo, 2016).

Bishop (2014, p.53) mentioned, “Critical literacy seeks to interrogate the historical and contemporaneous privileging of and exclusion of groups of people and ideas from mainstream narratives.” This notion actually centers on capitalizing – less emphasis on text’s theoretical impetus – the needs for questioning and consistent skepticism to further prove the reality of the texts. Critical literacy creates a boarder identity to nurture one’s economic, socio-political, and intellectual capacities; thus, the development of critical expressionism as a more encompassing type of critical response (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2020) and critical media literacy (Elmore & Coleman, 2019). To aid its integration in class, a report showed that scaffolding could help in developing students’ critical reading performance (Thomas, 2018).

Critical literacy provides numerous benefits: promoting alternative readings and resistance to a text among children (Ferrarelli, 2007), involving students to the politics of daily life within a life which is contemporary (Bishop, 2014), developing readers’ opportunity to examine and deal multiple perspectives (Gregory & Cahill, 2009) as included in a democratic society, ensuring meaningful family literacy practices (Schoorman, Zainuddin, & Sena, 2019), and providing enjoyment and engagement to literary study among students offering them to contest and resist the texts they read (Locke & Cleary, 2011). Critical literacy involves learners to inclusive and exclusive processing in social fields (Luke, 2000), humanizes learners who share no similar privileges, and promotes pursuit to an equitable world (McClung, 2018). Thus, critical literacy is believed to be a vital and very significant part to the balanced literacy program in institutions (Sandretto & Critical Literacy Research Team, 2006).

This reality on the context of L1 community of learners contributes much benefit as compared to that of the L2 community. The problem on critical literacy among students has been affecting the way they react to texts. For many decades in L1 community, critical literacy integration in lessons has been developed and garnered much educational researchers; thus, giving much opportunity for students to be active readers across ages (Exley, Woods, & Dooley, 2014; Guthrie, 2004). Hence, the present study attempts to integrate critical literacy development among learners in classroom setting, and makes its applications less filtered (Krashen, 1988) allowing the students to use their own voice in

an environment or space convenient for them as manifested in the classroom venue (Janks, 2013). In this notion, metacognitive reading strategies are being integrated which likewise considered as important elements honed dependent even to the profile variables not only of students, but also of the reflective thinking of teachers (Roohani & Haghparast, 2020). As presented by Pascual (2019), the more exposure to reading materials, the more metacognitive reading strategies are being utilized. Specifically, the teacher respondents utilized global, support and problem-solving reading strategies. It is interesting to note that students may likewise vary on their sense of using reading strategies when being indulged to critical pedagogies deployed in classroom.

Literature Review

Critical literacy in ESL and EFL communities

In the light of this critical literacy for the context of L2 community, this paper aims to produce an instructional strategy on critical literacy in reading English literary texts. The instructional material is then proposed towards the serious integration of 21st century pedagogical approach in the Philippine setting.

Fajardo (2015) reveals that critical literacy has been studied extensively for four decades since the 1980s in varied contexts of schooling, vocational, higher and adult education in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. However, the application of critical literacy in countries whose native language is not English seems to have become evident only at the beginning of the 21st century. This notion gives much light on the need of critical literacy inclination to the L2 class interactions. In the Philippines, due to its conservative cultural nature, people have fewer tendencies to incline critical literacy since social issues are said to conform to normative measures and traditional ideologies. This fact seemed true in the context of Arab teachers as revealed from a study indicating that Arab teachers were aware of the obstacles and challenges of critical pedagogy employed in classrooms; though teachers showed great enthusiasm (Raddawi & Troudi, 2018).

Furthermore, Van Sluys, Lewison, & Flint (2006) purported call to action in improving the process in studying about the critical literacy in the classroom and the three

primary considerations to undertake for its development. They proposed to have more in-depth integration of theoretical and methodological tools in analyzing. Second, it also had been mentioned to investigate on the conflict and corroboration of the findings from various related researches. Thirdly, there is a need for more engaging dialogue with colleagues and researchers about their experiences and practices to expand the lenses of analysis.

Critical literacy and scaffolding

The present study purports to adopt a scaffolding technique in teaching critical literacy among L2 learners. Since teacher support is needed in any forms of learning experiences, it is vital to integrate the principles of scaffolding in the light of teaching critical literacy (Hassan, 2015; Vygotsky, 1978; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976).

Recent studies promote the use of scaffolding in the learning experiences and development of learners. Positive feedback on scaffolding technique was emphasized in terms of promoting engagements and learning enjoyment among students which highlighting task value, mastery goals, belongingness, emotion regulation, expectancy of success and autonomy (Low & Robinson, 2015). These general results are supported specifically by the findings of Anandaraj & Balamurugan (2018) that involves changing level of support for learning. In fact, they found out that through this strategy, learners can explore and enhance their own styles of learning which can make them learn mathematics in a more meaningful way.

Moreover, the use of scaffolding shows a great utility in improving the speaking ability of the EFL learners (Ginaya, Nyoman Rajin, & Putu Somawati, 2018). As shown in the administered pre-post test results, scaffolding technique has also been proven to have significant potential to help students improve their English-speaking skills. It was concluded that the set of communicative activities designed in this study said to have supported the improvement of the learners.

Thomas (2018) stressed that even facilitating critical reading requires magnifying students' cultural capital and implementing scaffolds for facilitation. Furthermore, Bobkina & Stefanova (2016) proposed a critical literacy-based approach in teaching

which used a reader's response lens framed into four-fold model: situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing and transformed practice. Another study also aimed to suggest a strategy to promote critical literacy experience in class. Hassan (2018) used the linear method: read, note, answer, ask, summarize, and write. In this method, modeling and scaffolding played a fundamental contribution to critically discuss a certain literary text. Given that the learners were non-native English speakers, they were trained to deconstruct the texts and closely examine the social issue being discussed. Moreover, there has been a huge scale of development in studying critical literacy in EFL classroom as well. Kuo (2014) found out that the critical-literacy-led activities enhance the students' roles as social agents. It was highlighted that critical literacy in Taiwan merited more attention as an added competence aside from the four traditional language skills.

Since critical literacy has been an added dimension in L2 English language teaching from early 2000's, the present study gives a novel method of teaching in the Filipino context. Furthermore, scaffolding and critical literacy demand a serious integration for reading and teaching in class discussion (Fajardo, 2016; Thomas, 2018).

Frameworks for critical pedagogy in the Philippines

Local studies (in the Philippine context) on critical pedagogy have been given much attention as a new and young discipline to consider. There are a lot of teaching models being proposed locally. Two of the prominent pedagogical frameworks are the infusion technique in critical thinking into English Language Teaching (Lopez, 2010) and the PDRS or Planning, Doing, Reviewing, and Sharing (Campano, 2010).

Lopez (2010) designed a framework that can be adopted by the ELT experts and educators to infuse critical thinking in the lesson development, and also employable in other disciplines other than the field of languages. He introduced the Infusion Pentagon Model which is composed of five interrelated components (language, critical thinking, thinking strategies, text forms, and social issues). This matrix enhancing the critical stance of the learners would have indispensable interconnections to one another. In sum, the model gives ten (10) infusion pairs for critical pedagogy: Language and Critical Thinking, Language and Text Forms, Thinking Strategies and Social Issues, Thinking Strategies and

Text Forms, Thinking Strategies and Critical Thinking, Social Issues and Text Forms, Social Issues and Critical Thinking, and Text Forms and Critical Thinking. Moreover, the infused lesson plan framework for critical thinking in ELT is subdivided in seven parts: *thinking opener* or the introductory part for critical thinking content, *input* or the text presentation stage, *thinking vocabulary* or the unlocking of unfamiliar words (mainly to address the needs of the L2 learners), *thinking actively* or the teacher prompts for thinking, *thinking about thinking* or the metacognitive or the distancing activities for learners, *applying your thinking* or the transfer activities, and *reinforcement thinking task* or the written performance as output to be done at home. This type of pedagogy promotes the development of material for teaching thinking and enables the learner to improve in the language of cognition. Likewise, the further enhancement of communicative approach to learning the language (Canale & Swain, 1980) would be given a more contemporary feel to the language development of the child.

Another framework that augments critical thinking and literacy is the PDRS (Campano, 2010). This experimental research delves on the evaluated and categorized responses from one-group respondents who undertook pre-test-post-test design through the selected word processing and spreadsheet activities. In this series or cycle of activities, the students were prompted to such challenging avenues for active exploration, choice and autonomy, and authentic feedback that promote 21st century skills. In the conduct of PDRS strategy, the results in word processing activity showed a “good” performance rating in the post-test results; likewise, it yielded a highly significant difference ($t = -19.00, p < .000$) between the pre-post test scores of the group. On the one hand, spreadsheet activity gave a significant difference at $t = -18.87 (p < .000)$. In this framework for critical pedagogy, the ‘SHARING’ part as the other purpose of the study (for collaborative learning) had contributed to the enhancement of the students’ performance for they got to be engaged in friendly critiquing and garnered constructive comments for the enhancement of their outputs.

Another literacy framework was developed in Far Eastern University Manila in terms of the reading program among freshmen. The integration of study of literature and language has been further developed in this study (Reoperez, 2009). Looking at the

framework of the program, it could also be functional in relegating the process for teaching critical literacy in English; thus, the advent of critical pedagogy (Luke, 2012). Likewise, the advancement of technology used in the program magnifies a big role of upholding the digital culture of the study, thus, making it a relevant teaching program. As Alvermann (2001) reiterates individuality in literacy instruction among teenaged learners, instructional programs are opted to develop the occurrence of social practices, the promotion of formal and informal literacy by considering the learners' interests, and the capability of the learners about the multiple text forms.

One important interest as for the study is the actual implementation of the principles in critical pedagogy in the classrooms. Valdez (2012) purports that through the use of meaningful texts and tasks that sensitize the learners' awareness on the use of language to counter existing discourses of dominance, critical pedagogy in the context of classroom would gauge learners to be more posed in problems imparted by texts and use them to a wider context of the society (Freire, 1972; Freire, 1996; Luke, 2012). In this study, the existing dilemma between the opposing forces of women's struggle for independence and subjective responsibility was delved deeper. This method was used to know the respondents' own voices as for the social issue that was prominently discussed. They were instructed to do a poster essay after the delivery of instruction done by the researcher. In this manner, it instigated various insights and categories that realized critical pedagogy in ELT classroom. Different posters were delved into content analysis giving much of variations in the interpretation of the essay given to them.

Gender politics have been given much of study in this regard allowing the students to have meaningful samples of critical social queries and intricacies which highlight some of economic, social, and cultural tensions. Moreover, the poster essay task also contributed to the direct manipulation of multi-literacies and multi-modal forms in learning. Yet, one platform for assessing critical stance among students was further examined in this study leading to the question if other important classroom documents like syllabus, writing requirements (essays, written exercises), and tests serve as counter discourses too. Question on the other learning mode as to assessing critical literacy also offshoots a research interest to study. In the light of promoting critical pedagogy in ELT classroom

for L2 community (like the Philippine setting), the present study indorses a prototype lesson on critical literacy in English in engaging students with different problem posing tasks.

Research Objectives

This paper proposes an instructional strategy on critical literacy in reading English literary texts. It presents an integrated concept of Valdez (2012), Lopez Infusion Pentagon Model (2010), Campano PDRS (2010), Vasquez & Egawa's Inquiry Cycle (2002), McLaughlin & Devoogd (2004), and Van Sluys et al. (2006) as a classroom task for the students' 21st century classroom engagement. Primarily, the research paper aims to:

- A. design an instructional strategy on critical literacy in reading English literary texts;
- B. develop a set of lesson exemplars based on the designed instructional strategy; and,
- C. validate the developed lesson exemplars.

Methodology

Research design

The present study centers on the development of an instructional strategy on critical literacy in reading English literary texts. It seeks to integrate descriptive features of the stipulated underpinnings and the lesson development framework. Thus, the paper seeks to employ descriptive method of research. Likewise, it involves synthesizing the K-12 Curriculum standards and competencies to the critical literacy standards (McLaughlin et al., 2004; Sandretto & Ledington, 2010; Van Sluys et al., 2006).

Utilization of a systematic review process is used to further the development of the critical scaffolding method/strategy. Newman & Gough (2020) reiterate the emerging process of adaptable systematic review: (1) developing research question, (2) designing conceptual framework, (3) construction selection criteria, (4) developing search strategy, (5) selecting studies using selection criteria, (6) coding studies, (7) assessing the quality of studies, (8) synthesizing results of individual studies, and (9) reporting findings.

Sampling and participants

The sample participants were grade 12 students drawn from sections currently handled by the teacher-researcher. This was in the form of convenience sampling since the nature of selection was accidental. The sample was composed of 20 to 30 students to have a meaningful share of insights and interactive discussions. In this regard, only a single-group of students was piloted by the teacher-researcher. They were heterogeneous classes from the Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) and Accountancy and Business Management (ABM) strands with general weighted average ranging from 85 to 91.

The students ranged from the age of seventeen to eighteen years old, considered as volunteer participants with duly accomplished consent and assent to be part of the research sample. Their personal profiles were kept confidential and the pertinent information of each student was kept to prevent untoward display of their regarded opinions, however, kept as indispensable data to enrich the research development.

Research procedure

The first step of this research endeavor was the conduct of an adapted systematic review of “existing research using explicit, accountable rigorous research methods” (Gough, Oliver, & Thomas, 2017 p. 4). Varied approaches to appraising studies have been observed due to iterative and exploratory methods that emerge in different fields (Newman & Gough, 2020; Pati & Lorusso, 2018; Torres-Carrión, Aciar, González-González, & Rodríguez-Morales, 2018).

Following the systematic searching and filtering (Pati & Lorusso, 2018), the present study deployed content analysis of different existing frameworks for critical pedagogies. The five teaching models as inputs to the proposed instructional strategy were: Infusion Lesson Framework of Lopez (2010); P.D.R.S. (Plan It, Do It, Review It, and Share It) by Campano (2010); lesson planning guide (McLaughlin & DeVoogd, 2004); Inquiry Cycle of Vasquez and Egawa (2002); and a qualitative study integrating critical literacy by Valdez (2012). The content analysis involved three phases. The first phase was the

selection of the indispensable manuscripts or the research models as bases of the instructional framework. The second phase involved coding of the salient features or the activities being stipulated in the instructional models. In this phase, the recurring themes were being identified. The third phase was the inter-coder reliability process where the codes had been evaluated and counter-checked for consistency and validity; thus, maintaining the coding accuracy. Three experts served as reviewers who “systematically identify and record the information from the study that will be used to answer the review question. This information includes the characteristics of the studies, including details of the participants and contexts” (Newman & Gough, 2020). Based on the designs formulated from the different critical literacy-based studies, the researcher formulated an instructional strategy suited for L2 community of language learners.

After designing the instructional strategy, it was validated by three experts to assess its effectiveness and usability. The lesson exemplars were validated by experts of the field; thus, modifications and improvement were stipulated as advised. A range of at least three to five third party experts had evaluated the lessons. The researcher conducted five critical literacy-based lesson exemplar sessions in the lesson development of every narrative text discussed. He made use of the proposed instructional strategy with four phases. In selecting the texts, criteria set in a Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) is adapted to foster engagement through conceptual themes, hands-on experiences, self-directed learning, interesting texts, classroom discourse, and time for extended reading (Guthrie, 2004). The featured texts for demonstration involved themes on abuse, computer addiction, gender inequality and culture discrimination to encourage a more enticing learning environment, and to lead reader’s discovery more often (Bolaños, 2011).

The teacher-researcher provided learning opportunities where the learners developed and enhanced their critical literacy through problem posing tasks and classroom activities that challenged the texts. The reading materials were also selected based on the students’ own skills, abilities, and dispositions that may be a concrete manifestation of acknowledging students’ diversity (Fajardo, 2016).

Originally, pilot testing was planned to be done within the school calendar; however, due to the scheduled activities for the first graduation of SHS in the school locale, the

execution of the lesson exemplars was done right after the year-end activity of the school. Thirty (30) students agreed to join the research conduct. There were ten (10) male and twenty (20) female grade 12 respondents. Assent and consent forms were given prior the implementation of the lesson exemplars. An orientation – one-week before – was held to discuss the background and the confines of the study. Since the implementation was done during summer vacation, the students were simultaneously processing their college requirements and scholarship pursuits. Only twenty-six (26) students were able to attend the five-session implementation process.

Before the actual implementation of the lesson exemplar, the researcher had conducted an orientation day or a debriefing session for the student respondents to be totally informed about the research conduct. Letters of consent and letter of assent had been administered to the students. Their respective parents were asked for their permission allowing the students to participate. It was, likewise, ensured that the data collated upon the lesson execution and the participation of the respondents had solely served its purpose. The researcher allotted one to two days for the guardians to read through the letters given. Reply slips were collated and checked if complete numbers of the parent-guardians had submitted their responses; otherwise, the conduct of the lesson exemplar had not been pursued. This process was taken as the initial protocol observed as regards the ethical consideration for research implementation.

In addressing the legality issue of the students' participation in the study – since they included minors and eighteen-year old students – assent and consent from the participants was obtained as well, which included a short background of the research study and its purpose, rationale of student participation, nitty-gritty details of the effect that the research conduct may give the students – time, effort, required outputs, commendation certificates, and additional grades herein. Moreover, the responses of the parents and their approval to the student participation were included in the form. For participants who were eighteen and above, consent forms were also given, but with some parts significantly modified.

This research study had covered an improvisation of the performance of the students and the development as per the critical literacy skill in English. To give acclamation for

the students' related expenses and amount of participation, the teacher-researcher provided incentives in the form of commendation certificates and additional grades for their subject-related course. Since the nature of the lesson integration was aligned to the core subjects for English, their additional points were stipulated therein.

The proposed instructional strategy underwent lesson validation through the help of experts, document analysis, observation, interviews, and assessment tool validation. In the validation phase of the prototype, the researcher administered a triangulated assessment of the material adapted from the peer assessment rubric, self-assessment tool (Sandretto & Ledington, 2010), and critical literacy assessment tool (Van Sluys et al., 2006).

The process of lesson validation involved two phases. The initial phase was done to ensure editing and lapses to be resolved before the lesson execution/ pilot testing. The instrument was in the form of dichotomous (YES-NO) format. Comments and suggestions were also postulated herein to ensure that the validators would give specific recommendation for the improvisation of the lesson exemplars. Second involved synthesis of the stipulated recommendations to further develop and improve the content of the lessons integrated and patterned from the proposed instructional strategy. There were four major topics that composed the lessons. Few critical commentaries had been revisited, so as to comply with the needed requirements and criteria for the development of the strategic and pedagogical approaches into making effective critical-literacy based lesson exemplars.

Through a critical literacy-based content analysis, the researcher assessed the outputs of the student respondents. To triangulate the existing results and validation, student assessment was administered every after the lesson demonstration. The participants were given five (5) to ten (10) minutes to evaluate the demonstration using a four-construct critical literacy dimension tool (Sandretto & Ledington, 2010 as cited from Sandretto & Klenner, 2011; Van Sluys, Lewison & Flint, 2006).

As for improvement and future inventiveness of the conduct of the lesson, the expected recommendations and conclusive findings of the study furthered more enhancements to the utilization of the critical pedagogy. These signify the continual progress since future researchers may adopt the study to further revisit and improve.

Results and Discussion

The present study deployed the direct content analysis where the framed step-by-step teaching method is determined based on existing teaching models or strategies. To resolve the first objective of this study, the process *“is to begin coding immediately with the predetermined codes. Data that cannot be coded are identified and analyzed later to determine if they represent a new category or a subcategory of an existing code. The choice of which of these approaches to use depends on the data and the researcher’s goals”* (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1282). Four major concepts were extracted from the existing models and studies on critical literacy. It was seen in the paradigms proposed by various researchers that teaching literary text with a critical literacy stance commonly involves: (1) ‘Setting the learners’ norm and culture or assessing what the students already know’, (2) ‘Scaffolding the learners’ critical stance’, (3) ‘Reinforcing the learners’ critical stance’, and (4) ‘Supplying critical task for learners’. These were the recurring themes that had been stipulated in the coding process.

Themed categories as distinct features to the proposed instructional strategy

This phase of the content analysis presents the underlying codes of the big ideas drawn from the existing teaching models. The categorization shows more definitive elements in each part of the proposed instructional framework.

Salient features of the category 1 (‘T’)

Through the consolidated data culled from the linear set of activities – the analyzed research papers and models of framework for teaching critical literacy – there is a slight difference in setting the classroom mood; this involves invitation to inquiry by breaking the commonplace in the class discussion. In one study, the teacher encouraged the students to speak and process the reading material with the students through allowing them to form ‘U-shape’ discussion so as the mechanism of refuting and supporting author’s claim would be made possible in a welcoming environment (Valdez, 2012). In addition, Campano (2010) posited that 21st century learning environment is needed to promote the key skills in learning, though his study primarily focused on collaborative learning among

future teachers in enhancing their critical thinking skills in selected word processing activities.

According to Vasquez et al. (2002), to put a critical edge in the curriculum it is vital to realize how to initiate engagements which further tackle the shared experiences of learners encompassing their personal anecdotes, choices, influences, and personal ideologies. More than motivating the students to learn, the teacher must inject engaging activity at hand to unpack the assumptions and beliefs of the students. It was also reiterated that a careful selection of potential resources should take place. Teachers create opportune engagements and resource or texts/ selections for the students to see multiple perspectives and alternative viewpoints to a social issue.

Salient features of the category 2 ('O')

Based on the coded themes, the process of putting critical edge on the curriculum involves a significant participation of teacher-facilitator. There needs to have a use of meaningful conversation – it may involve demonstrations and read-aloud techniques in facilitating reading activity. Likewise, McLaughlin, & Devoogd (2004) proposed bookmark techniques that can help reinforce and differentiate the reading experiences of the learners. In this part, learners are being '*scaffolded*' or guided on the reading of the text.

Learners are being challenged to mark up the confusing parts or the interesting scenes they may get from the text being read. In this part, through the guide questions stipulated in the reading activity, language-and-text forms infusion takes place where students are challenged to reflect on the varying contexts of political, social, moral, scientific and cultural essence of the materials being read (Lopez, 2010). Moreover, through the invitation to inquiry that happens in the reading experience of the students, the infusion of text forms and critical thinking happens where a learner can judge reasonably whether the socio-political information given in text forms are accepted or rejected.

Salient features of the category 3 ('T')

Vasquez & Egawa (2002) postulated applying questions, tools, and methods of inquiry in the process of putting critical edge in the curriculum. In this stage, the learners, with the help of the teacher, analyze the text through a critical task while discussion is at hand. Campano (2010) posited that active exploration could happen in an opportune time when students think critically and collaborate meaningfully with others. In applying critical literacy in the class discussion, active exploration likewise occurs when the students are being tasked to critically interrogate the texts to further tackle social issues and integrate their personal voices and values where language is being infused to social issues; thus, generating critical questions and connecting serious topics for peer discussions (Lee & Gray, 2019).

Lopez (2010) reported that language is the vehicle towards expressing social issues that is why meaningful conversation in the class gauge much more sharing and free expression to share thoughts and ideologies. Through this mechanism the infusion of social issues to text forms, critical thinking and language come into play. This notion supports that ‘critical thinking of an individual is best at work when he/she deals with social issues that directly affect his/ her life’ (Lopez, 2010, p. 137). McLaughlin & Devoogd (2004) suggested strategies to employ critical literacy reinforced in class discussion. They introduced problem-posing tasks which include questions toward building equity from any socio-political issues that are being delved in class. Furthermore, to capitalize on the critical edge of class discussion, alternative texts and switching elements are also being presented. The reading strategy involved ethnic, gender, setting, theme, relationship and clothing switches.

Salient features of the category 4 (‘S’)

The end-goal of a ‘critical’ lesson, program or curriculum is the creation of organized and shared output towards building equity. Learners must have displayed their ideas, plans, knowledge through an artifact made representing the main thrust of the conversation happened. Vasquez & Egawa (2002) as published in the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) gave suggestive measure to promote sharing of thoughts through a ‘Graffiti’ wall where participants are asked to jot down comments, questions, connections,

and issues that are raised during meeting. They likewise proposed the idea of Reflective Action Plan so as to take new action towards realizing future directions or individual learning activities employed by the teachers.

P.D.R.S. as proposed by Campano (2010) involved the sharing mechanism among the students. In this critical thinking process, the learners shared and received constructive and authentic feedback from peers. Moreover, analyzing the text through a critical task also helps the learners to evaluate and judge the text based on their own voice. Valdez (2012) conducted a Critical English language teaching to investigate critical pedagogy. He used poster essay as a task which the college students needed to do. Students gave varied interpretations of the text and creative strategies in understanding the text being read. Through the activity, they were able to show their personal voices and ideologies about the social issue, use language as an instrument to challenge oppressors of the marginalized, and engage meaningful dialogue with the text by attacking the text and the beliefs underlying therein.

By employing the critical task which focused on gender politics, the students have involved in a significant social, economic, and cultural inquiry towards critical literacy development. Furthermore, the infusion of thinking strategies to language, texts and social issues is being taken at hand (Lopez, 2010). Through the '*critical*' task, the learners are challenged to find different ways on looking at a situation instead of being confronted and confined with only one perspective; likewise, being able to look into more issues underlying in text forms which may be political, economic, technological, moral or cultural. Deploying the critical task generally invites the learners to voice out their own power through a tangible effort.

To synthesize, the newly introduced strategy in teaching critical literacy was framed into four different parts or abbreviated as '*T.O.T.S.*': (a) Tapping the Learners' End, (b) Overseeing Students' Thinking, (c) Thinking about Thinking, and (d) Supplying Critical Task. The first part (Tapping the Learners' End) focuses on setting the classroom mood, planning stage, thinking opener, inputting, thinking vocabulary, initiating engagements and resources. Secondly, a class discussion transitions to the guiding process of learning and teaching critical literacy (Overseeing Students' Thinking) where the reading process

is executed and facilitated. Likewise, there comes the active thinking engagement, demonstration and invitations to inquiry or the initial step on text-questioning. The third process is the 'Thinking about Thinking'. This is where the extension of text interrogation happens. Moreover, the metacognitive processing is established and facilitated by the teacher where opportunities for sharing and thought organization are to be done. Lastly, the stage of reflective thinking, text analysis and thinking application is then to be reinforced. This is the stage of 'Supplying Critical Task'.

Development of lesson exemplars using the proposed instructional strategy

Lesson 1 was patterned into developing and engaging the students with the different Switching Strategies. The field expert commented that Lesson 1 did not seem to align with the goals of critical literacy. Other than the question about exploring how the text would differ if the characters were of the opposite gender, the other criteria for critical literacy were not followed. She added, "Critical literacy is about guiding students to explore different perspectives to understand the marginalized point of view. It explores socio-political issues which are relevant to students' lives which lead towards discussion about power relationships between or among groups. It explores how certain characters in the story are positioned which reveal the biases and prejudices of the author. It enables students to think of alternative ways of thinking and doing in order to disrupt the status quo of oppression and abuse of power as reflected in the text and our society."

Lesson 2 was noted to be an interesting plan for teaching and improving critical literacy skills of the learners. The lesson allowed the students to be active participants in terms of taking opposing point-of-views in the topic, gender inequality. However, the activity on the round table discussion was advised to be student centered. Instead of the teacher reading or re-telling the story, the students were advised to do the task in order to ensure a learner centered pedagogy.

Lesson 3 focused on "Character Modification". This session allowed the students to use their personal voices and own powers to modify the selected characters in the story. During the experts' evaluation, it was re-emphasized to align the questions regarding exploration of alternative perspectives as inclined to the goals of critical literacy.

Suggestion was reiterated on reading much literature about the firm alignment of the lesson plans to the critical literacy objectives.

One added, “There is a good use of comparing-contrasting techniques as a lead-in activity to the lesson. How can the lesson be drawn back to the reality that people have to eventually mature? Doesn’t the word “flicker” have any bearing on the changes in characterization?” Another set of critical literacy questions was suggested: (a) How are you empowered and at the same time marginalized when you participate in online games? (b) Who benefits when you play online games? Who loses? (c) What power relations exist in online games? Who dominates whom?

Lesson 4 went back to reinforcing the switching strategies to the learners – ethnic and setting switches. According to the specialist, “This lesson plan is able to provide opportunities for Lewison, Flint and van Sluys’ critical literacy framework to be used completely.” All of the validators seemed to agree that both the material and the activities in the lesson were suitable for the application of critical literacy. Likewise, the material was contextualized where the students are familiar with and have numerous ideas about it because the setting was a place in the Philippines. Moreover, the activities allowed the students to have their special place in the lesson.

The last session was the culminating activity where all the critical tasks were aimed to be presented and evaluated by the class. Though one validator would not consider the last session as a critical literacy session, the other three seemed to realize the importance of culminating activity after series of critical-literacy based lessons. According to one of the validators, “This part is good because it allows the students to give the summary of the lessons discussed in a week through differentiated task. The teacher can also give more challenging tasks that are suited for their level.” However, it was pointed out that there should be a clear description on the task that the students needed to do. Question raised, “Do they need to turn in a portfolio or perform?” In the light of capitalizing the goal of the fifth lesson, one validator recommended that this be closely related to the conclusion of the lesson from the previous session. The students may forget that the session covered the points discussed from the first lesson, and they may result in cramming, thus, the possibility of them getting stressed out and/or delivering subpar outputs.

Another optional activity for improving the fifth lesson exemplar was given by one of the validators. It was recommended that the students be asked to find two texts which describe Manila using two different perspectives. One may be biased for Manila and the other against it. Students determine the biases and prejudices of the author through critical language awareness. In whose interest does the writer serve in such representation of Manila?

The validation process of lesson exemplars

The third objective that the researcher aimed to satisfy is the validation process of the lesson exemplars framed on the proposed critical literacy framework. In this stage of the study, two validation processes and document analysis had been conducted to further triangulate and evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed method. The adapted validation tools accentuated four dimensions: (a) Disrupting the Commonplace, (b) Considering Multiple Views, (c) Focusing on Socio-political Issues, and (d) Taking an Active Role (Sandretto & Ledington, 2010 as cited from Sandretto & Klenner, 2011; Van Sluys, Lewison & Flint, 2006).

All suggestions given were followed before the execution of the lesson exemplars. The final lesson exemplars were given back for the approval of evaluators. To address the concerns of the other validators, the researcher stipulated them all in the lesson exemplar. However, one validator reiterated that the level of the activities should not be beyond the basic education level. Some were noticed to be too complex for the level of the Grade 12 students. This was raised by the fourth validator being a public school teacher herself.

Students' evaluation and expert/ teacher observations

The lesson exemplars, in general, were rated by the students as Very Much (4.5) in the area of 'Disrupting the Commonplace, Very Much (4.74) in 'Considering Multiple Viewpoints, Very Much (4.26) in 'Focusing in Socio-political Issues', and Very Much (4.58) in 'Taking an Active Role'. The least utilized area was the ability of the students to *focus on socio-political issues*. This was manifested in the comments of the students. Some noted that they had difficulty in deriving answers to socio-political related questions.

It was also manifested in the ways that students were constructing their answers during the class execution.

Likewise, the evaluation showed progressive results ranging from 4.18 (Very Much) to 4.8 (Very Much). This suggested a positive effect on the students' engagement to the lesson/discussion and the texts. Based on the tallied results, the general impression to the model/ instructional used was noted as 'Very Much'. The students enjoyed the sharing, reflecting strengthening of viewpoints, thinking in a deeper sense from the texts, analyzing the texts in a different way, making connections to the texts from their own, and developing active roles in using their voices to express their thoughts about certain issues. However, based on the comments and recommendations of the students, the use of code-switching and code-mixing appeared to be of good use for the enhancement of the sharing activities of the lessons.

Document and content analyses of the tasks were stipulated in the lesson exemplars and the observation notes derived from the evaluation of both the respondents and the expert observers. In analyzing the documents and the activities, the researcher was able to look into the congruency and consistency of the observations noted in the lesson plans and the commentaries lifted from the accomplished evaluation tools.

One evaluator emphasized that the revisiting of the texts impacted the way creation of new borderlands and cultural inclinations were inhibited. Aside from this, literacy practices in education which focus on the awareness on students' political interest were realized (Janks, 2010), thus, supporting the previous advocacies on ideological models of literacy – critical text analysis and critical pedagogy (Luke, 2011).

Based on the responses of the observers/ interviewees, it can be concluded that the purpose of drawing out critical literacy among the learners has been realized. It is also manifested that the individual functions of each part have been capitalized as indicated in the comments of the observers. The expert evaluation played a vital role in the improvisation of the lesson exemplars based on the instructional framework proposed. Unanimous assessment, for both lesson validation and teacher-observation, was obtained having the full utility and materiality of the instructional framework for teaching critical literacy in English literary texts. It was, however, noticed in the observer's note that the

fifth session had indispensable gap as to the productivity of the culminating activity. It was emphasized that a different flow, not necessarily following the critical scaffolding strategy, was to be considered for executing the culminating activity.

Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

The instructional strategy is composed of pre-determined steps as a method to teaching critical literacy in reading English Literary texts. *Tapping the Learners' End* as the first part or the introductory part comprises of the activation processes. Second part is the '*Overseeing the Students' Thinking*' where guidance and scaffolding are necessary to reinforce critical literacy. Text interrogation and attacking the text begin on this part, where the traditional way of teaching reading is transformed to engaging the students to be active readers immersed with the discussion on social issues towards social action. This part transitions to the part where metacognitive processing happens – *Thinking about Thinking*. Lastly, the assessment part: *Supplying Critical Task* transitions learners from passive to active role counterpart is taken at hand.

Through the ratings obtained from the respondents and the experts, it is clear to note that the strategy addresses and resolves the call to pattern and contextualize teaching critical literacy, and satisfies the need to provide concrete critical literacy pedagogy.

Teachers are encouraged to teach critical literacy among students so as to make students active instead of passive to break the conservative, suppressed, and the nonchalant attitudes of the students towards social issues. This area of study promotes the awareness to building social equity by delving into the marginalized voices in the texts, and asking/ interrogating the texts. The culture of 'believing only' the texts being read could be possibly eradicated and make the student liberally voice out their opinions.

An offshoot research on a different group of regular and inclusive public school students are recommended as subjects for future studies. The findings of this paper would further its conclusiveness and generalizability in L2 communities (i.e. Philippine setting) if done in a different group of student-respondents. Questions on the effectiveness of the model to scaffold learners who are challenged with various academic problems like groups with low academic performance and low interest and reading level are just some of the

researchable subjects of study. Likewise, testing of critical scaffolding method (following the T.O.T.S.) in the private sector of education and other areas of English Language Teaching, literacy education or sub-fields are highly recommended for future studies.

Through this research, much on qualitative approach is utilized to extract the functionality of the method. However, as other studies, there might be a wider opportune scale to be rendered if quantitative method is used as far as the measure of effectiveness of the model is concerned. The study is delimited to the number of respondents, the locale, time and the number of sessions used; it is, however, suggested to have a larger scale of respondents, and be given a pre-post experimental research approach to further the study. Longitudinal studies may be a good option to undergo. On the other hand, ethical replication of the paper is also permitted as to the generalizable effect of the method to various locales and contexts.

The effective use of the suggested culminating activity: Preview, Preparation, Presentation and Progress for the proposed strategy may be tried. Based on the suggestions of the experts, this part may give students reinforcement and experience to revisit and re-learn/ unlearn the important topics they have dealt in the entire ‘critical’ learning experience. Since the flow was not executed in the research, its applicability may be tested if this part is given much light for future research.

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Instagram as a Learning and Motivational Tool for Freshmen English Classes at a Private Japanese University

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This paper describes the usage of Instagram (a social media application) in freshmen English classes at a Japanese university. Instagram was used to motivate students and improve students' proficiency in target grammar and vocabulary. Students created private Instagram accounts and used this platform for group exercises that supplemented the textbook-based curricula of two basic user (CEFR¹ scale) classes. The activities involved Instagram features such as photo, video, and text posting. Supplemental assessments were used to measure students' language skill progress and engagement to investigate the effects of using Instagram as a language teaching tool. This study argues that Instagram usage can increase student motivation and has the potential to improve long-term English proficiency. The paper recommends follow-up studies that focus more on communicative ability rather than traditional assessments. This has implications for language teachers who are interested in incorporating technology into their classes, which may contain students with low motivation and confidence in their abilities.

Keywords: CALL; motivation; social media; social networking sites; vocabulary

Introduction

Social networking sites have enjoyed a swift rise in popularity and offers the potential to aid in English language education. Analysis of the literature demonstrates that terms like social network sites, social media, online social networks, and Web 2.0 have been used interchangeably (Alnujaidi, 2017). Therefore the term "social network sites" (SNS) will be used to refer to any web-based and/or mobile technology which allows participants to create profiles and unique content, make viewable connections with other users, and view or interact with content that is provided through user connections (Ellison & Boyd, 2013).

¹ The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR) organizes language proficiency in six levels, A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2. The six levels can also be grouped into three broad levels: Basic User, Independent User, and Proficient User.

This study was conducted to examine the effect of SNS usage in English language learning at a Japanese university. Two classes of students performed Instagram activities in English, on an alternating schedule, and their results on vocabulary and grammar tests were measured throughout the term. Their attitudes towards English and Instagram usage were also measured.

Social Networking Sites and Language Learning

Research into SNS usage in classrooms has been conducted since SNS first gained wide-spread attention in the early 2000's and has generally been positive. Many aspects of SNS usage that may facilitate English language education emerge from the literature. SNS provide learners with tools for creating their own learning materials and personal learning environments and can enhance autonomous language education by allowing them to experiment with language (Bates, 2011; Blattner & Fiori, 2009; Chartrand, 2012). Research has demonstrated the benefits of authentic language interaction and the development of socio-pragmatic awareness (language used in specific contexts, relationship building, and language awareness through observation and/or experience) through SNS and its ability to increase student interaction (Blattner & Fiori, 2009; Dunn, 2013; Seaman & Tinti-Kane, 2013). Researchers also argued for the practicality of including SNS usage in classrooms as our societies continue to change, revealing the usefulness of SNS to aid students improve communicative and cultural competence (Bates, 2011; Borau et al., 2009; Maulina, Noni, & Basri, 2019; McBride, 2009; Upadhyay, 2018). The advantages of using SNS in English language education are largely derived from their communicative potential due to their intrinsic social and interactive nature.

Social cultural theory and SNS usage in language classrooms

Vygotsky's (1978) interrelated social constructivist and social cultural theories have been seen as justifying the use of SNS (Inayati, 2015; Kelly, 2015; Taskiran, Gamusoglu, & Aydin, 2018). According to Vygotsky (1978), language learning is a social activity in which language is learnt through constant interaction with other

learners and native speakers. Learners are members of a speech community that expose each other to language through meaningful communication. Isti'anah (2017) stated that when language learners engage in SNS, they engage in peer-review activities and connect through language exchange. Learning is socially constructed through interaction situated activities, and the relationship between individuals and social worlds. In this environment, users recognize the way in which language is used to encode social meaning through conscious reflection of relationships among factors involved in comprehension and production (Zarate & Cisterna, 2017). Language learners enter into communication with other learners and native speakers, and assist their learning in achieving social purposes (Harrison & Thomas, 2009). SNS is an authentic context in which learners can improve their language competence.

For a social constructivist approach to language learning, where learning occurs through interaction and communication with others, Instagram can be used as a source of extra input for language learners (Aloraini, 2018). This is useful in an EFL context where opportunities for language input and practice are limited. Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is a key concept in appreciating the pedagogical benefits of Instagram. Vygotsky defined ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). In the context of English language learning via SNS, each student has immediate access to all of their peers' English output as well as guidance from the instructor.

The SNS Instagram was chosen for this study due to research indicating that Instagram could facilitate social constructivist learning. Instagram can help improve student writing, and also motivate students to participate more and boost student confidence in communicating in English through frequent communication with classmates and other users (Anggraeni, 2017; Mansor & Abd-Rahim, 2017). Instagram can also help students enhance their reading and writing, listening comprehension skills, and in particular, the ability to understand opinions and specific information in authentic speech (Khalitova & Gimaletdinova, 2016). Additionally, Instagram's

emphasis on visual content which can be used to scaffold learning (Al-Ali, 2014; Phillips, 2013; Purnama, 2017), and its existing familiarity and popularity among students (Al-Ali, 2014; Bell, 2013; Handayani, Cahonyo & Widiati, 2018) were other factors that led to its selection for this study. Nur, Latifa & Busman (2019) combined all of these aspects when they used Instagram's video functions with instructive captions as writing prompts, instead of traditional still photos as writing prompts, and found that these activities produced better writing results. The students found the video prompts more interesting, enjoyed the novelty of using Instagram in class, were able to find relevant content (stories, pictures, texts, videos) from other users, and were able to receive guidance from teachers directly via Instagram.

Rationale of the current study

Many pedagogical benefits of using the SNS Instagram in the English language classroom were found. However much of the literature involved significant writing output and communication skills. The participants in the various studies were often English majors in university, or students in English intensive schools. This study, however, focuses on Instagram usage in lower level and less motivated students. The students in this study are taking English classes due to university requirements and are primarily focused on other areas of study. Their primary goal in English class is simply to pass and they generally have no plans for further English study beyond university requirements. As a result, this study focuses on the target grammar and vocabulary of the prescribed curriculum, rather than comprehensive writing tasks. Additionally, research using Instagram conducted on Japanese students was limited. This study hopes to address the lack of Instagram related research concerning Japanese and lower-level students. As English is a central part of the Japanese education system, and the focus on English is only increasing, research concerning English language learning in Japan is important and unfortunately little has been conducted concerning the use of SNS like Instagram.

Mason (2014) reported that there was a consensus that Japanese students were particularly difficult to motivate and engage in an EFL classroom and that non-

traditional methods needed to be explored. The Japanese government has proposed the use of technology to improve students' English skills, promote cross-cultural exchange and motivate learners (MEXT, 2011). Mason (2014) cites that the popularity of SNS offer a possible avenue to improve student learning. Using SNS could cultivate students' motivation toward communication, which could be dampened in classrooms focusing mainly on oral communication (Kikuchi, 2008). Neely (2016) wrote that Instagram is rapidly growing and is already the 3rd most used SNS with 20 million active users as of January 2017. Instagram's layout, anonymous usernames and highly visual content are ideal for Japanese people (Neely, 2016).

Thomas (2017) found the vast majority of his Japanese university students' L1 reading and writing was done via SNS. Subsequent research incorporated Instagram-based activities in classes. Student reception was overwhelmingly positive and most students agreed that the lessons were closer to real life communication patterns, easier and less stressful than activities in the textbook, and a more useful use of class time (Thomas & Park, in press). Considering both student familiarity with SNS for reading and writing, and favourable student evaluation of Instagram use in English classes, applying Instagram to more broadly address the learning objectives of a curriculum was explored.

On the other hand, with the global outbreak of the coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic in the spring of 2020, thousands of schools are closed, and millions of teachers and students have to adapt to online teaching. The exploration of the use of SNS and Instagram in English language teaching and the assessment of its effects could give field teachers some ideas and guidance in both online teaching and regular classroom teaching.

Given the potential social constructivist benefits, meaningful and authentic communication, engagement in social practice and socially constructed learning, collaboration with and guidance from peers and the instructor, the potential positive effects of regularly using Instagram together to complete class activities and homework were measured and analyzed. The following research questions were addressed:

1. Can Instagram be an effective learning tool for lower level freshmen English language classes at a Japanese university?
2. Can Instagram be an effective motivational tool for lower level freshmen English language classes at a Japanese university?

Methodology

Participants

Thirty-two individuals, from two intact classes, voluntarily participated in the study. The participants were first year students at a university in Japan, where one year of English is mandatory. All but one student were Japanese nationals aged 18-19. One student was a Chinese national, aged 20. The students of both classes were judged by the instructor to be approximately at the A2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) standards. They could understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance, communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters, and describe in simple terms aspects of their background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need ("English language levels (CEFR)," n.d.) All students had previously studied English throughout their primary and secondary education. Group 1 contained 17 Economics students (15 males and 2 females) and Group 2 consisted of 15 Business students (10 males and 5 females). The classes were grouped based on an English placement test, given by the university to all first-year students, within each major. Both classes met with the author of the paper four times a week for 45-minute classes and once a week for a 45-minute class with a Japanese instructor.

The students had completed Units 1-6 of the textbook (Richards & Bohlke, 2019) following the standard curriculum with the instructor in the previous semester. The curriculum emphasized English conversation and covered the grammar points and vocabulary of the textbook. The instructor supplemented the reading, listening, speaking and writing exercises of the textbook with partner and group speaking activities, presentations, projects, worksheets and games. Students were assessed by

quizzes, in-class participation and attendance. The study took place in the second half of the students' first year at university, in which they completed Unit 7-12 of the textbook (Richards and Bohlke, 2019).

Materials

Textbook

The textbook, 4 Corners Second Edition Level 1, was used for the study. This textbook was prescribed by the university.

Instagram

The instructor designed Instagram activities and implemented them into the textbook teaching. Each student was asked to create an Instagram account for this study, separate from their personal accounts, all but two students had no prior experience with Instagram. The students then connected with each member of the class and the instructor. Each account was set to "Private" to afford security. The Instagram activities incorporated target grammar and/or vocabulary and were used in almost every class. Students were required to post pictures and/or video with English captions, often in the form of a question. The posts always had a target vocabulary or grammar point, or sometimes both, and were usually 1-3 sentences in length. The students then responded to the original post. Each post had a general length requirement, such as 1-2 sentences or questions and responses varied in length according to the original post and the target grammar. During this time, the instructor monitored the activities, and students that had made errors were notified and then made the requested corrections. Examples of student posts are displayed in Figure 1 and 2.

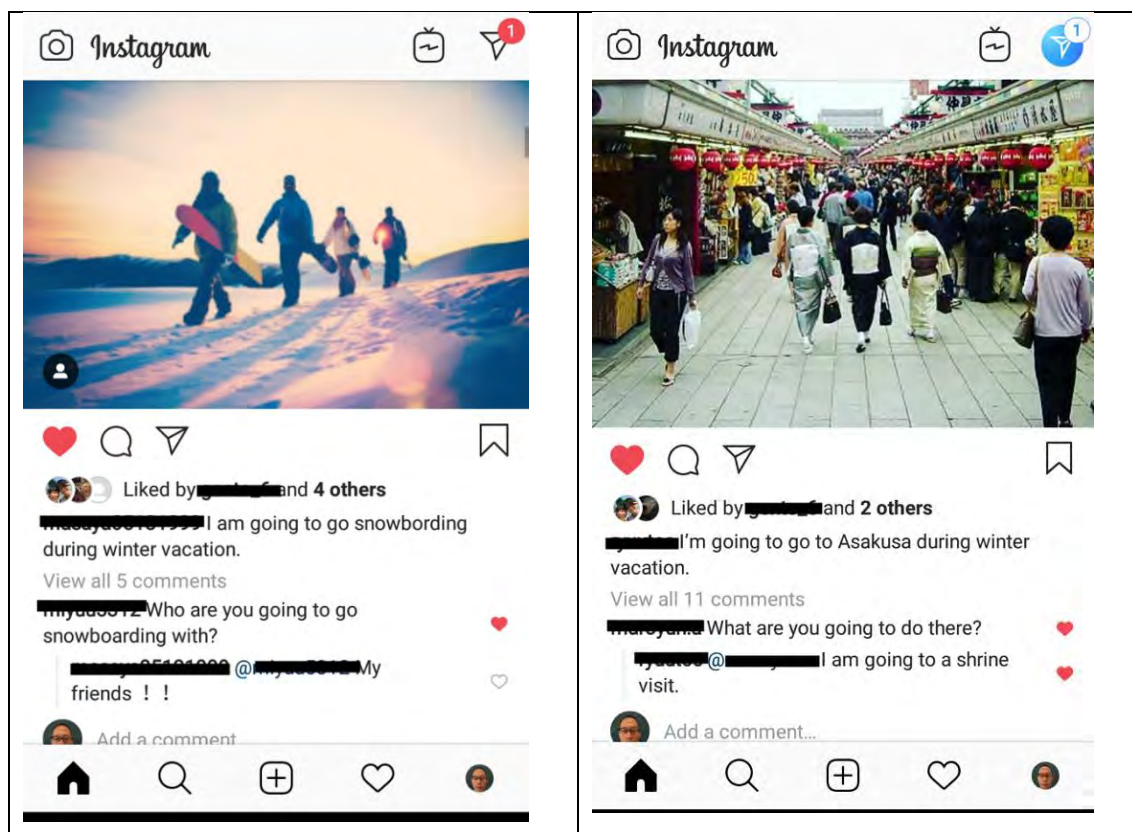


Figure 1. Student posts from a “be going to” lesson

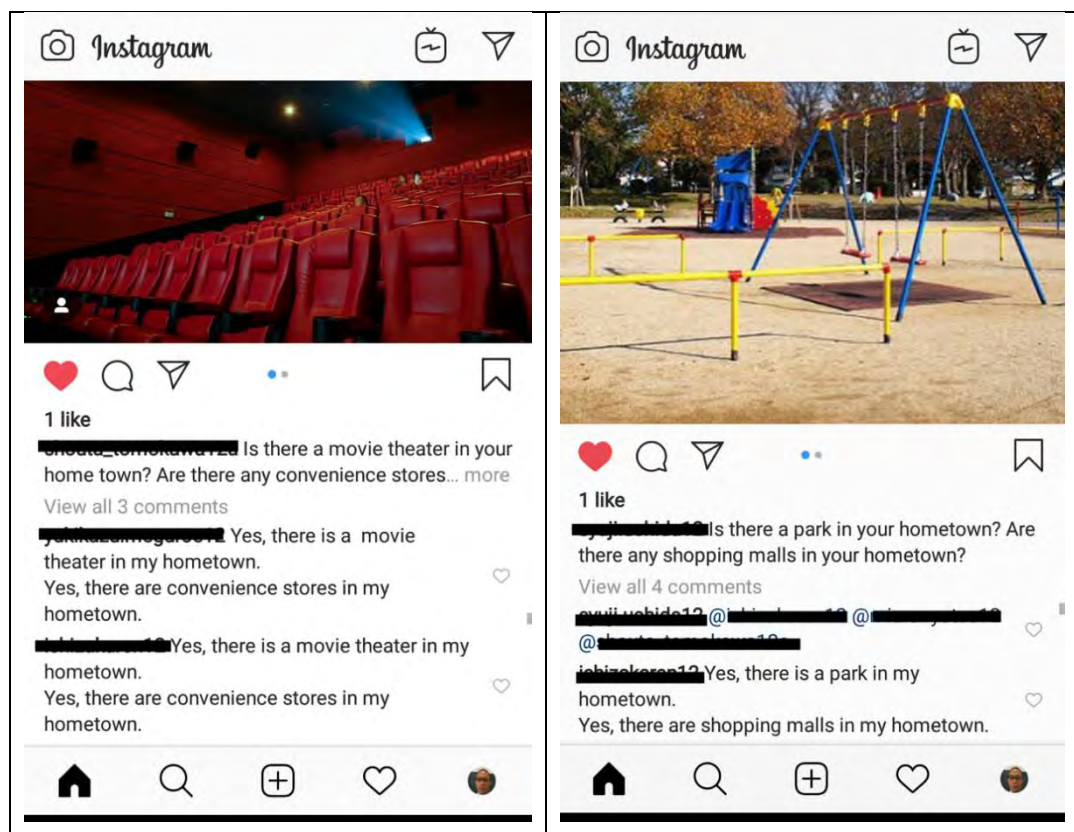


Figure 2. Student posts from an “is/are there” lesson

Tests and surveys

One test and two surveys were used in the experiment: the English proficiency test (target grammar and vocabulary test), the English learning motivation survey, and the Instagram survey (see Appendices A-E). The English proficiency test, which was composed of a grammar section and vocabulary section, was used to assess students' proficiency of the target grammar and vocabulary from Units 7-12 in the textbook. The grammar section used 6 questions from each unit targeting the key grammar points for a total of 36 questions. Each question was worth one point for a maximum score of 36 points. For the vocabulary section, four pictures of vocabulary words from each unit were displayed with 4 multiple choices each, for a total of 24 questions. Each question was worth one point for a maximum score of 24 points. The motivation Pre-survey, used a 6-point Likert scale to establish a baseline for students' attitude and engagement with English, such as "I am interested in learning English." The survey consisted of 6 statements concerning student motivation towards English on a scale of 1-6. The sum of the rating could range from 6 to 36. The rate of "1" represents "highly agree", and the rate of "6" refers to "highly disagree". That is, the smaller the rate is on the scale, the more positive the attitude is towards English language. This type of survey is very familiar to Japanese students. The Instagram survey with 8 statements, and a 6-point Likert scale similar to the English attitude survey, was used to assess students' attitudes towards the use of Instagram in English language learning. The sum of the ratings could range from 8 to 48.

Procedure

The instructor taught all 6 units (Units 7-12) to both groups in the semester, spending approximately two weeks on each unit. In the semester of the experiment, according to the curriculum, both Group 1 and 2 were set to learn Units 7-12 using the same textbook. In the first half of the semester (Units 7-9), Group 1 performed supplementary Instagram-related activities in class and for homework, in addition to the textbook curriculum, and Group 2 didn't. In the second half of the semester (Units 10-12), Group

2 performed Instagram-related activities and Group 1 didn't. There are two reasons why the textbook was always used in both groups in the whole semester: 1) the curriculum required the use of the textbook; 2) this was to guarantee the equal teaching resources and opportunities. The effect of Instagram was uncertain before the experiment, and what's more, in this experiment, Instagram was not meant to be used to replace the textbook but to add a teaching supplement.

The English proficiency test was given to both groups before the experiment (Pre-test, covering Units 7-12), immediately after the first half of the experiment (Post-test 1, covering Units 7-9), immediately after the second half of the experiment (Post-test 2, covering Unit 10-12), and two weeks after the experiment (Delayed Post-test, covering Units 7-12). The English proficiency Pre-test was used to assess prior knowledge of both grammar and vocabulary key points of Units 7-12. Post-test 1 and 2 were used to assess students' immediate knowledge gain after learning. Halfway through the semester, both classes were given Post-test 1 (the first half of the Pre-test), to measure students' progress and compare the results between the two groups. After all, 6 Units were taught, both groups were given Post-test 2 (the second half of the Pre-test). Two weeks after the experiment, the Delayed Post-test, same as the Pre-test, was used to assess students' long-term learning again.

The English motivation survey was given to both groups. Group 1 completed the survey before the experiment (Pre-survey), and after the study of Units 7-9 (Post-survey 1). Group 2 completed the same survey before the experiment, and after the study of Units 10-12 (Post-survey 2). The same survey was used after learning using Instagram to assess the change in their motivation towards English language.

Both groups completed the Instagram survey after learning using Instagram. Group 1 took the Instagram survey after the implementation of Instagram in the first half of the semester (Instagram survey 1). Group 2 took the same survey after learning the second half of the units using Instagram (Instagram survey 2). The experiment procedure and test/survey schedule is displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Experiment procedure and schedule

Pre-Study	English motivation survey English proficiency Pre-test
Units 7-9	Group 1: Learning using the textbook + Instagram Group 2: Learning using the textbook only
Halfway Point	English proficiency Post-test 1 Group 1– English motivation survey + Instagram survey Group 2 – No survey
Units 10-12	Group 1: Learning using the textbook only Group 2: Learning using the textbook + Instagram
End of Experiment	English proficiency Post-test 2 Group 1 – No survey Group 2 – English motivation survey + Instagram survey
Post-Study	Delayed Post Test

Results

Motivation/attitude for English language

Group 1 completed a survey of English language attitude (English learning motivation survey) before the experiment (Pre-survey), and after the study of Units 7-9 (Post-survey 1). Group 2 completed the same survey before the experiment, and after the study of Units 10-12 (Post-survey 2). The English learning motivation survey contains 6 questions on a scale of 1-6. The rate of “1” represents “highly agree”, and the rate of “6” refers to “highly disagree”. That is, the smaller the rate is on the scale, the more positive the attitude is towards English language. The total rates of Pre-survey, Post-survey 1, and Post-survey 2 are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Pre-survey, Post survey 1 and Post survey 2 for Group 1 and 2 (total scores/*SD*)

Group	N	Pre-survey	Post-survey 1	Post-survey 2
1	17	14.88 (2.91)	11.00 (5.04)	NA
2	15	12.40 (4.15)	NA	8.47 (2.48)

A paired sample t-test was run for the total rates in both groups. The results showed that Group 1’s rating for English language decreased significantly from 14.88 to 11.00

after their study of Units 7-9 with Instagram, $t(16) = 3.54, p = .003$. Group 2's rating for English language decreased significantly from 12.40 to 8.47 after the study of Units 7-12, with Instagram implemented in the second half of the semester, $t(14) = 3.40, p = .004$. The results indicated that participants' attitude towards English language became more positive in both Group 1 and 2 after learning with Instagram.

English Proficiency

A placement test on English language proficiency was conducted before the experiment. Sixteen participants in Group 1 participated in it and all fifteen participants in Group 2 took it. The mean score of Group 1 was 31.13 (.81), and the mean score of Group 2 was 34.20 (.68). An independent sample t-test showed that Group 2 outperformed Group 1 in the placement test, $t(29) = -11.47, p < .001$. This indicated that Group 2 had higher English proficiency than Group 1 regarding the target grammar and vocabulary in Unit 7-12 before the experiment.

Vocabulary skills

Participants completed a vocabulary test before the experiment (Pre-test), after the first half of the experiment (after Units 7-9; Post-test 1), after the second half of the experiment (after Units 10-12; Post-test 2), and two weeks after the experiment was finished (Delayed Post-test). The vocabulary Pre-test and Delayed Post-test included vocabulary knowledge that was covered in Units 7-12. The vocabulary Post-test 1 included only the vocabulary from Units 7-9, and the vocabulary Post-test 2 covered only the vocabulary from Units 10-12. The full score for the vocabulary test was 12 points. The means of the test results are presented below in Table 3.

Table 3. Pre-test, Post-test, Delayed Post-test in Group 1 and 2: Vocabulary (Mean scores/*SD*)

Test	Units	Group 1 (n=14)	Group 2 (n=15)
Pre-test	First half (7-9)	10.57 (1.95)	11.07 (.96)
	Second half (10-12)	8.29 (2.02)	9.07 (1.71)
Post-test	First half (7-9)	11.43 (1.87)	11.93 (.26)
	Second half (10-12)	10.71 (1.07)	10.93 (.80)

Delayed Post-test	First half (7-9)	11.29 (1.33)	11.67 (.62)
	Second half (10-12)	10.50 (1.83)	11.40 (.74)

A 3*2 mixed ANOVA was used to determine the effects of using Instagram on vocabulary learning, specifically, whether any change in students' test performances was the result of the interaction between the use of Instagram (w/ Instagram or w/ textbook) and time (immediately after learning or a couple weeks after learning). The mixed ANOVA was performed for the Vocabulary test scores in the first and second half semesters respectively (see Figure 3 and Figure 4). The mixed ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction revealed that there was significant within-subjects effects in the test scores in the first half semester, $F(1.80, 48.44) = 4.35, p = .02$, with a small effect size (Partial Eta Squared = .14), and second half semester, $F(1.41, 38.10) = 41.00, p < .001$, with a moderate effect size (Partial Eta Squared = .60). That is, there was significant differences between the Vocabulary test results within groups. No interaction between the time (tests) and group (treatment) was found in either half semester. That means, no significant group difference revealed in any of the six vocabulary tests results between Group 1 and 2.

Repeated measures ANOVAs were performed to further analyze the effects of learning and time (immediately after learning or weeks after learning) on students' Vocabulary test performances in both groups for the first half semester and second half semester respectively. A repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that Vocabulary test scores for Unit 7-9 in Group 2 differed statically significantly between pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test, $F(1.66, 23.17) = 6.49, p = .005$, however, no significant difference was found in the Vocabulary test scores for Unit 7-9 in Group 1 (see Figure 3). Post hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction revealed that Group 2 (w/ Textbook) gained significantly higher test scores after learning using Textbook curriculum, with mean score increasing from 11.07 to 11.93, $p = .02$. The slight score dropping from the post-test to delayed post-test ($M = 11.67$) was not significant.

Two more repeated measures ANOVA were run to examine the difference in Vocabulary Pre-test, Post-test, and Delayed Post-test on the second half units (Unit 10-12) in both groups respectively. Significant differences were found among the Vocabulary tests in both Group 1, $F(1.55, 20.08) = 20.97, p < .001$, and Group 2, $F(1.28, 17.91) = 20.70, p < .001$. Post hoc tests showed the test score in Group 1 increased significantly after learning using Textbook from pre-test ($M = 8.29$) to post-test ($M = 10.71$), $p < .001$. The drop from post-test to delayed post-test ($M = 10.5$) in Group 1 was not significant. The test scores in Group 2 increased significantly from pre-test ($M=9.07$) to post-test ($M=10.93$), $p = .003$ after learning using Instagram. The increase from post-test to delayed post-test ($M = 11.40$) was not significant, $p = .09$.

The analysis above implied that both groups improved their vocabulary knowledge after class teaching (with or without Instagram), but the supplementation of Instagram didn't improve vocabulary learning outcomes more than using Textbook alone.

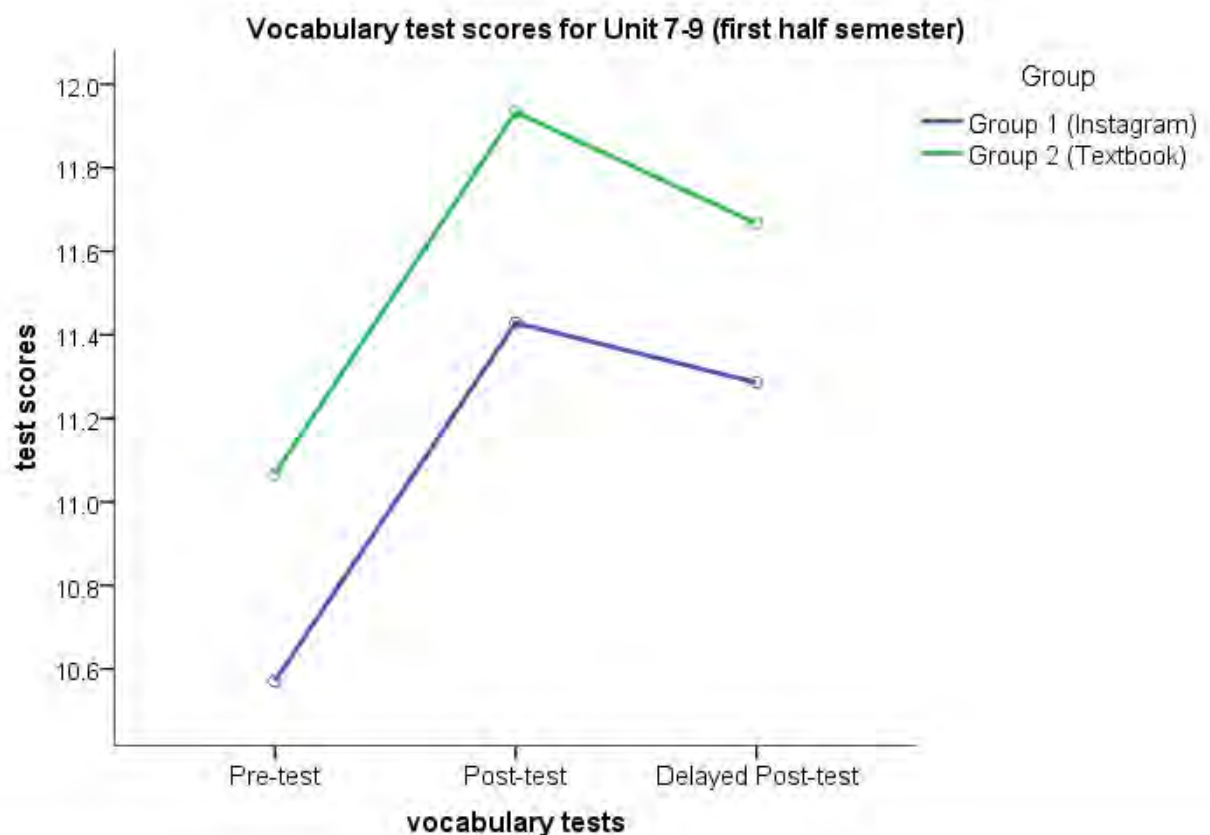


Figure 3. Vocabulary test scores for Unit 7-9 (first half units) in Group 1 and 2

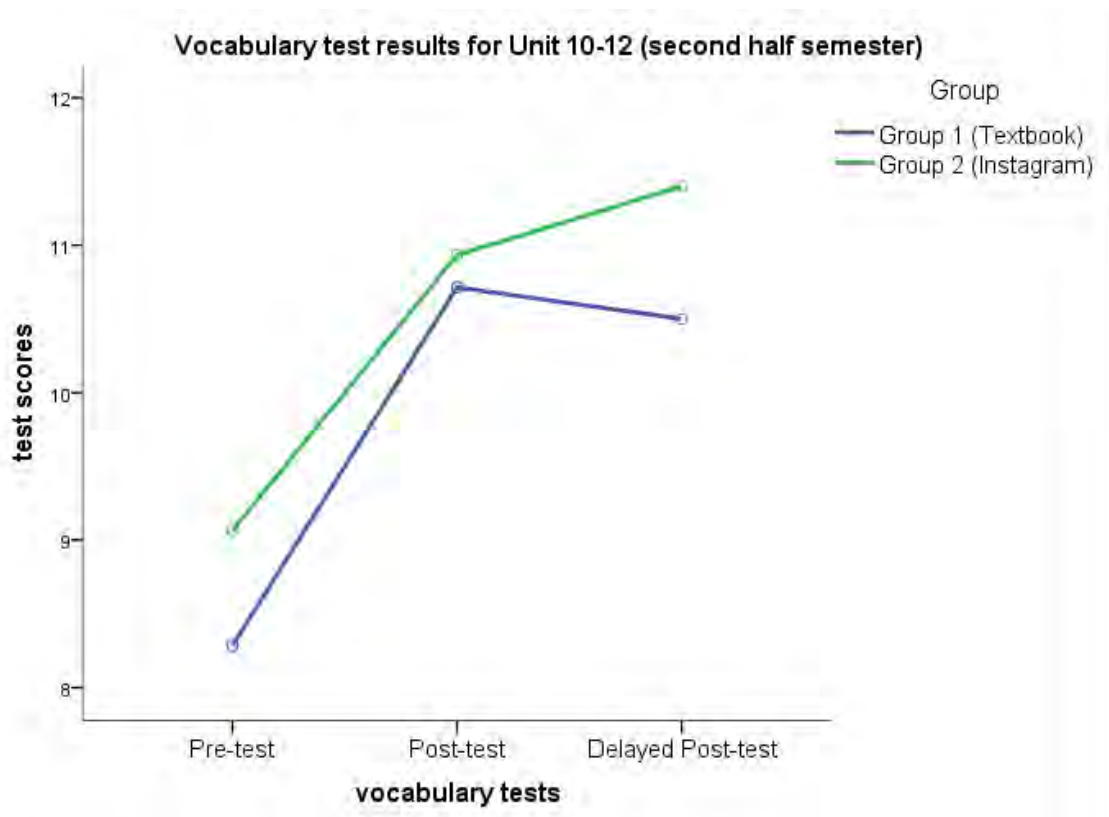


Figure 4. Vocabulary test scores for Unit 10-12 (second half units) in Group 1 and 2

Grammar skills

The full score for each unit in the grammar section in the English language proficiency test was 6 points. Therefore, the full scores for the first and second half semester (Units 7-9 and Units 10-12) were 18 points. The means and standard deviations of the Grammar test results of Group 1 and Group 2 are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Pre-test, Post-test, and Delayed Post-test in Group 1 and 2: Grammar (Mean scores/*SD*)

Test	Units	Group 1 (n=14)	Group 2 (n=15)
Pre-test	First half (7-9)	10.00 (3.88)	9.60 (2.56)
	Second half (10-12)	8.71 (4.34)	10.80 (4.23)
Post-test	First half (7-9)	13.57 (3.20)	14.67 (2.23)

	Second half (10-12)	11.13 (4.73)	13.87 (2.59)
Delayed Post-test	First half (7-9)	14.00 (3.06)	13.73 (1.87)
	Second half (10-12)	13.64 (3.57)	15.13 (2.48)

A 3*2 mixed ANOVA were performed to examine the effects of using Instagram on Grammar learning, specifically, whether any change in students' grammar test performances was the result of the interaction between the use of Instagram (w/ Instagram or w/ textbook) and time (immediately after learning or a couple weeks after learning). The mixed ANOVA with Greenhous-Geisser correction revealed that there was significant within-subjects effects in the test scores in the first half semester, $F(1.50, 40.56) = 54.02, p < .001$, with a moderate effect size (Partial Eta Squared = .67), and second half semester, $F(1.92, 51.85) = 37.11, p < .001$, with a moderate effect size (Partial Eta Squared = .58). That is, there was significant differences between the grammar test results within groups (see Figure 5). No interaction between the time (tests) and group (treatment) was found in the first half semester. That means, no significant group difference was revealed in any of the six grammar tests results between Group 1 and 2.

Repeated measures ANOVA and post hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction revealed that in the first half semester, Group 1 (w/ Instagram) gained significantly higher grammar test scores after learning using Instagram, with the mean score increasing from pre-test ($M = 10.00$) to post-test ($M = 13.57$), $p = .004$. No significant difference was found between the Delayed Post-test and Post-test in Group 1. The grammar test scores in Group 2 also increased significantly after learning using Textbook from pre-test ($M = 9.60$) to post-test ($M = 14.67$), $p < .001$. Again, there was no significant difference between the Delayed Post-test and Post-test in Group 2.

Another repeated measures ANOVA showed that in the second half semester, after learning with Textbook, Group 1 received higher score in post-test ($M = 11.93$) than pre-test ($M = 9.29$), $p = .016$. The increase from the Post-test to the Delayed Post-test was not significant. After learning with Instagram, Group 2 received higher score

in Post-test ($M = 13.87$) than Pre-test ($M = 10.80$), $p = .003$. What's worth mentioning is that, Group 2's Delayed post-test score ($M = 15.13$) was higher than its Post-test score, $p = .019$. The results are also illustrated in Figure 6. It suggested the potential of Instagram in benefiting long-term retention of grammar knowledge.

Overall, the analyses showed both groups improved their grammar knowledge after class teaching (with or without Instagram). The supplementation of Instagram didn't improve learning more than using Textbook alone in the immediate test, but seemed to help the higher-proficiency group (Group 2) better retain the grammar knowledge in the long term.

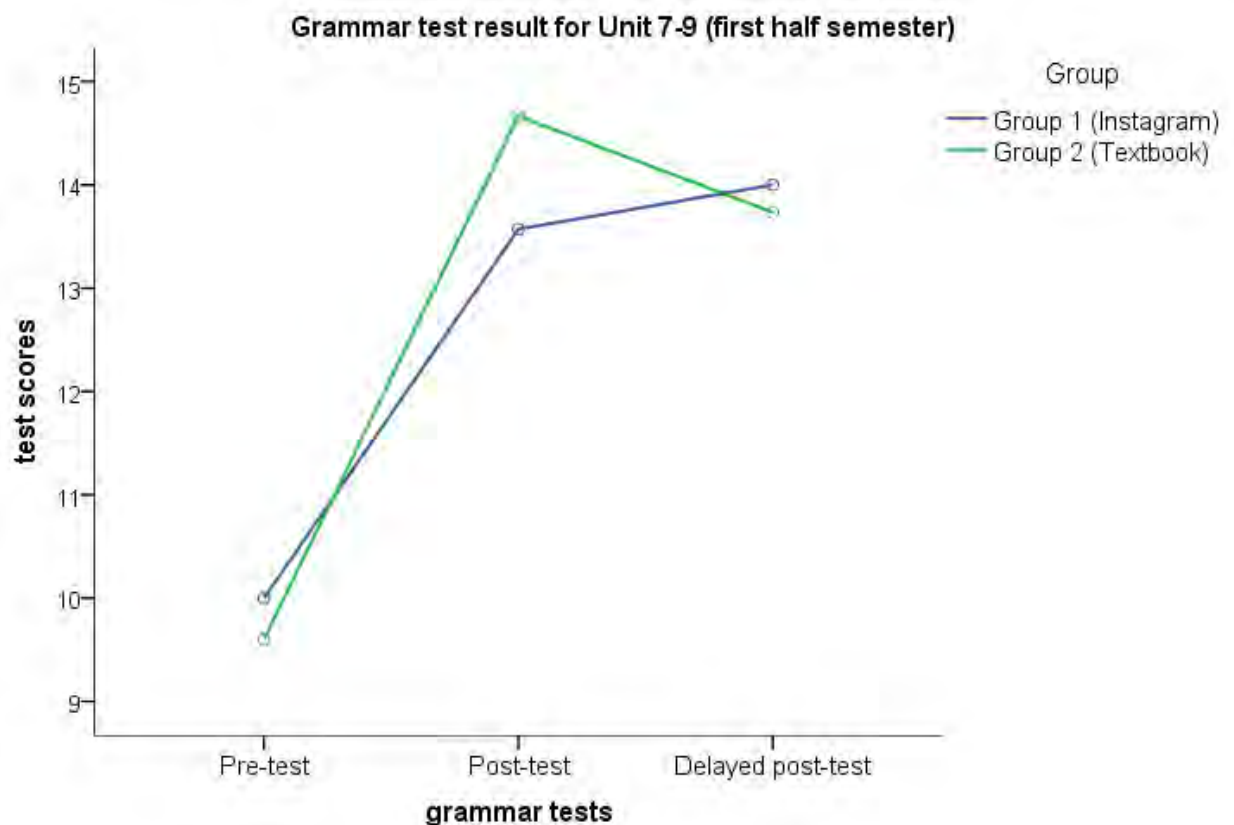


Figure 5. Grammar test scores for Unit 7-9 (first half units) in Group 1 and 2

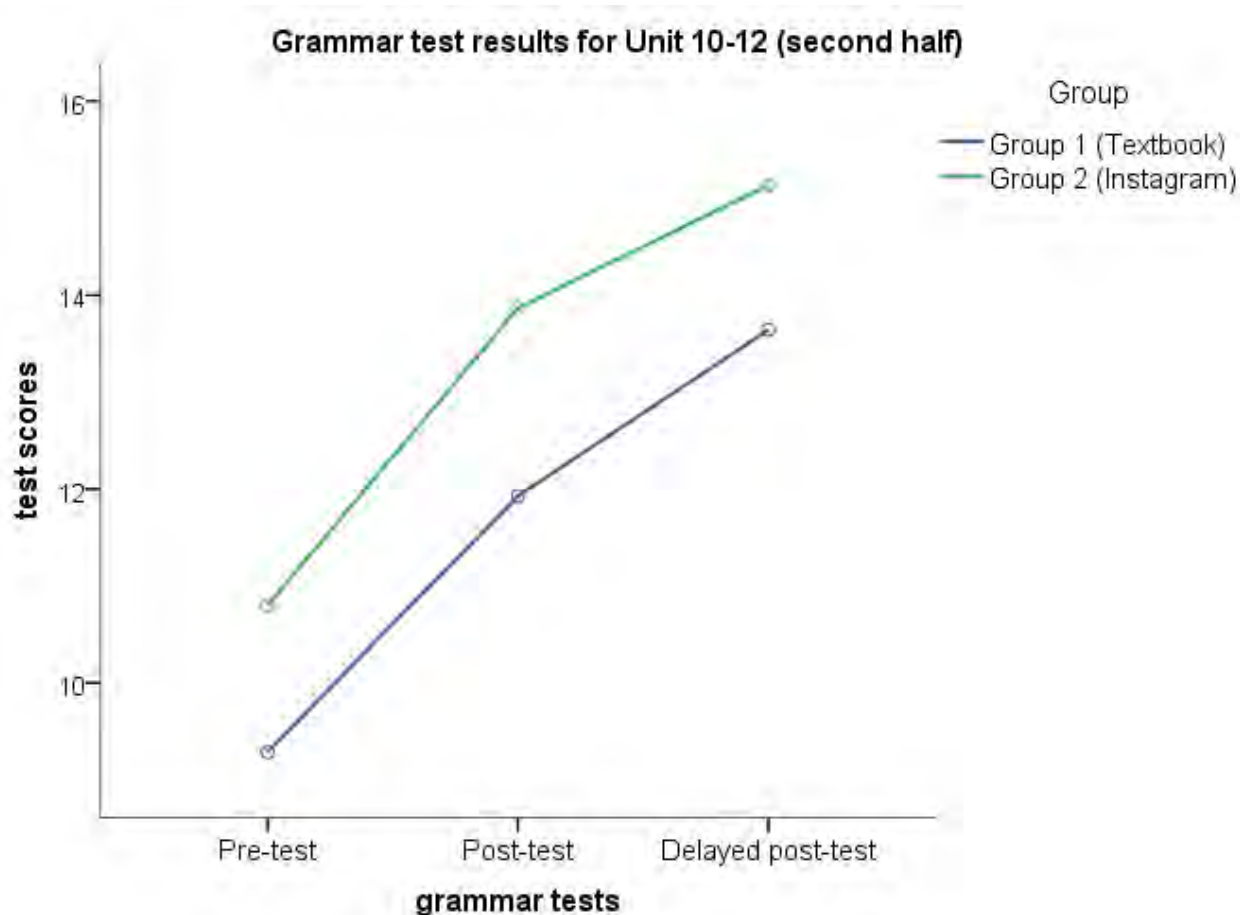
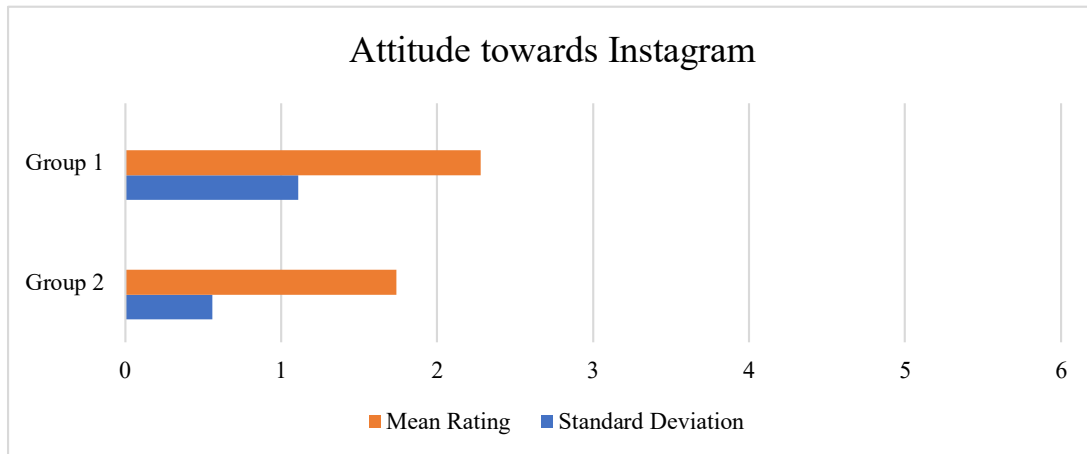


Figure 6. Grammar test scores for Unit 10-12 (second half units) in Group 1 and 2

Attitude towards Instagram

Both groups completed an Instagram survey after learning with Instagram together with textbook for 3 units. Group 1 took the survey after learning the first half of the units using Instagram. Group 2 took the same survey after learning the second half of the units using Instagram. The mean rating from Group 1 was 2.28 ($SD = 1.11$, $n = 16$) out of 6 and the mean rating from Group 2 was 1.74 ($SD = .56$, $n = 15$) out of 6. That is, both groups showed positive attitude towards the implementation of Instagram in English language learning, while Group 2 favored the use of Instagram more than Group 1 (as shown in Figure 7).

Figure 7. The results of the Instagram survey in Group 1 and 2 (Mean scores and SD)



In summary, the data analysis results suggested the use of Instagram had a positive effect on students' attitudes towards English language. That is, the use of Instagram in an English language class could help motivate students. However, the effect of using Instagram in English language teaching on the vocabulary and grammar learning was not very strong. It seems Group 2, which had higher English language proficiency was more likely to benefit from the use of Instagram in English language learning. The results from the Instagram survey also showed participants had positive attitude towards the use of Instagram in English language learning. Therefore, it could be concluded that Instagram may be used in an English language class to motivate students. It also has the potential to facilitate long-term grammar learning.

Discussion

Analysis of the data concerning students' improved attitudes toward learning English and positive attitudes towards Instagram indicate that Instagram can be an effective motivational tool in language learning, which is consistent with the literature (Bell, 2013; Listiani, 2016; Handayani, Cahyono & Widiati, 2018). Although the results of the motivation survey were positive, it could be doubted whether this effect was solely due to Instagram usage, or also to the English learning experience in the experiment design. However, both groups had studied with the same instructor in the prior semester, thus, students' attitudes toward English were not expected to change significantly due to the language learning experience. Follow-up studies could better confirm the positive

effect on attitude by carrying out the post English language attitude surveys in both groups in the middle and at the end of the experiment. However, for this study, the positive effect on students' attitude toward English was more likely to be resulted from the use the Instagram.

The results of the Instagram survey were positive. Classroom observations of the Instagram activities for both groups were positive as well. These activities were also useful as a motivator for these students as “bonus points” were awarded for high-quality content. Activities that prominently featured photos or videos of the students themselves and their friends were the most popular. This is consistent with typical Instagram behavior (Hu, Manikonda & Kambhampati, 2014), and suggests that mirroring natural SNS behavior can lead to higher engagement. Concerning the Instagram survey results, Group 2 (the higher proficiency group)'s more positive rating on the use of Instagram indicated a more positive attitude of using Instagram among higher proficiency students.

The results of vocabulary and grammar tests generally did not reveal much strong effects of supplementing language learning with Instagram since there was no significant group difference between learning with and without Instagram. These findings suggested that the supplement of Instagram didn't help students learn better and this failed to support the notion that Instagram can be an effective learning tool (Anggraeni, 2017; Chartrand, 2012; Mansor & Abd-Rahim, 2017) Maulina, Noni & Basri, 2019; Purnama, 2017). What's noteworthy however, is that although Instagram usage did not yield more immediate learning benefits than using the textbook only, it might have the potential to facilitate long-term grammar learning. More research with the proper adjustments is recommended. Mixed results on this topic in the related literature are not uncommon: some researchers have concluded that SNS usage did not lead to meaningful improvements in learning outcomes (Manca & Riemari, 2016), while others asserted the contrary (Listiani, 2016).

This study has its limitations. The literature on the effect of using Instagram in language learning focused primarily on paragraph length writing tasks and authentic communication and noted that activities using SNS may be better suited to higher level

students due to the high level L2 knowledge necessary for content creation and interaction (Grosbeck, 2009; McBride, 2009). Students in this study were given models to reproduce, rather than produce their own unique content. The student creation of content was a point of emphasis from the literature (Ellison & Boyd, 2013; Chartrand, 2012) because these students created authentic communication and the mirroring of students' lifestyles are regarded as potential benefits of using SNS in the language classroom. By removing this element from SNS usage, a valuable part of its efficacy may have been removed. This is a significant limitation of this study. Further research is recommended to incorporate these positive aspects of SNS, but adapt to lower-level students.

Additionally, using vocabulary and grammar tests to assess the efficacy of Instagram may have been another limitation. This study sought to evaluate the efficacy of a new method solely through traditional means. If the course is meant to focus on English communication, perhaps grammar test results are an incomplete barometer of improvement. Assessments that consider the creative and communicative goals of SNS English learning, which evaluate the quality and kind of student performance are recommended.

The positive attitudes towards Instagram and English learning during the current study demonstrate the potential for follow-up studies concerning both motivation and performance, with the understanding that highly motivated students may be more likely to achieve higher language learning performance in the long run. However, the surveys were entirely positively worded which could have induced bias, more negatively worded statements to reduce the potential for bias are recommended.

The reason that the current design included both within-subject and between-subject comparison was that 1) the participants belonged to two intact classes with unrelated majors and different proficiency levels to start with, and 2) the sample size was small in each group. Between-subject comparison alone would make it difficult to justify the effect of the intervention even if there was any. The small sample size in one class would end up with even lower statistical power if we used a single within-subject

design. The use of both within and between subject comparison was justified but it definitely added complicatedness to the current design.

The overall small sample size is another big limitation of the current study. It limits the generalization of the findings in terms of the positive effects of using Instagram. Future follow-up studies with randomly assigned participants and a larger sample size are needed to consolidate the findings before any large-scale promotion of this teaching technique. Therefore, this article is in no position to market the use of Instagram in language teaching at this early research stage. However, the current positive findings of Instagram should not be ignored either as they provide a good channel and support for a teacher that's interested in exploring the use of SNS and Instagram in their language teaching classes, especially for online courses.

This study adds to the literature concerning SNS and Instagram usage for lower level and Japanese students. As the emphasis on English language learning is only increasing in Japan, more research needs to be conducted on ways to motivate and improve the English language proficiency of Japanese students. SNS may provide one possible avenue. Furthermore, for those interested in incorporating technology into their classes, SNS usage, which offers a low-cost resource, is very popular with students and a very reliable and effective form of technology.

Although this study used Instagram, any platform that offers the positive aspects of SNS could provide similar positive effects. Students bring mobile devices with them every day and spend significant time on SNS. There is a myriad of ways in which English language educators can take advantage of this situation. The best teaching and learning methods are to be determined by the instructors and students together.

Conclusion

This study was conducted over the length of a semester and involved two lower level freshmen English classes at a private Japanese university. It followed a semester of the standard textbook curriculum but added the usage of Instagram-related activities to supplement the textbook. Analysis of the data revealed positive attitudes toward English learning and Instagram usage, implying that there is still potential for Instagram

or other SNS to improve performance. It also suggested the potential benefits of using Instagram on long-term grammar retention, and that more proficient class might benefit more in motivation and performance.

As our students' behaviors are increasingly focused on SNS, English language educators are presented with a valuable opportunity. The participants in this study, spent large amounts of time online and were studying English communication during the experiment. The use of SNS in classrooms can facilitate English communication learning by incorporating positive aspects like content creation and authentic communication on digital and mobile platforms that students are already familiar with. Instagram, with its highly visual content and potential for social constructivist learning, may not always be popular, but the communicative aspects of SNS and their accessibility will remain useful resources. Teachers who teach at universities in Japan are often confronted with students who have little interest in learning English after years of mandatory study that have produced mixed results. As the literature asserts, new methods need to be explored as long as English education remains a core component of the Japanese education system.

The literature is scant concerning Instagram usage for low level Japanese learners, therefore more studies are recommended to assess the strengths of language learning via SNS, content creation, authentic communication and communication patterns that mimic students' natural habits, social constructivist learning potential and popularity and familiarity among students. As educators, we need to find ways to improve our instruction and engage our students more effectively, and SNS usage provides one potential avenue.

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Appendix A: English Proficiency Test

Grammar Pre-Test

Name _____

Grammar Pre-Test

A. Circle the correct words.

A: What do you want for dinner, Annie?

B: Let's just make **some/any** pasta.

A: Good idea. We have **some/any** pasta.

B: Let's see. We don't have **some/any** tomatoes.

A: OK, I can go to the supermarket.

B: Sounds good.

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

B. Complete the sentences with the correct time expressions from the box.

every day	never	once in a while
how often	once a week	three times a week

1. I eat sushi _____. I eat it on Sundays.

2. John _____ plays baseball. He doesn't like sports.

3. I study English _____ – from Monday to Sunday.

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

C. Complete the questions with Is there a/an...? or Are there any...?

1. _____ museum?

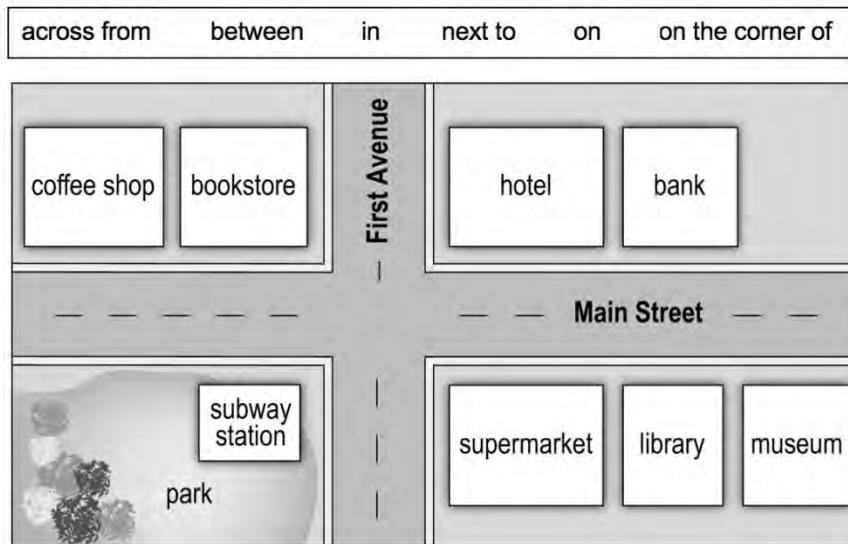
2. _____ zoos?

3. _____ amusement park?

point each)

_____ /3 points (1

D. Look at the map. Complete the sentences with the correct prepositions from the box.



1. The bookstore is _____ Main Street.
2. The bank is _____ the hotel.
3. The supermarket is _____ the subway station.

point each)

_____ /3 points (1

E. Complete the sentences with the present continuous (現在進行形) form of verbs.

1. The boy _____ (sit).
2. The woman and the man _____ (walk).
3. The dogs _____ (run).

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

F. Complete the questions with the present continuous (現在進行形) forms of the verbs.

1. _____ you _____ (study) English these days?
2. _____ she _____ (play) soccer these days?
3. What _____ your friends _____ (learn) in this class?

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

G. Complete the sentences with the simple past (單純過去時制) form of the verb in parenthesis.

1. We _____ (have) lunch at school yesterday.
2. She _____ (see) a movie last night.
3. I _____ (listen) to music this morning.

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

H. Complete the conversations with the simple past (單純過去時制) form of verbs.

A: Did you do the homework last night?

B: No, I _____ (not/have) time.

A: Did you and Mary study yesterday?

B: Yes, _____ (study) at the café.

A: Did your sister sleep well last night?

B: Yes, _____ (sleep) for 9 hours.

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

I. Complete the paragraph with was, were, wasn't and weren't.

My brother, sister and I _____ guests at your restaurant last night.
Unfortunately we

_____ happy with the food. The sushi _____ terrible. We will never eat there again.

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

J. Complete the question in each conversation. Use How, What, When, Where or Who and the correct form of the verb underlined in the answer.

A: _____ last night? B: I ate sushi.

A: _____ there? B: I went there at 6PM

A: _____ there? B: I got there by train.

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

K. Complete the sentences with the correct forms of be going to.

1. _____ you _____ (graduate) from college this year?

2. They _____ (have) a big test next week.

3. I _____ (visit) Hawaii next summer.

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

L. Complete the sentences with her, him, it, me, them, or us.

1. We're going to watch a movie tonight. Can you come with _____?

2. Where's my umbrella? I can't find _____.

3. My sister is a teacher. Do you know _____?

_____ /3 points (1 point each)

Appendix B: English Proficiency Test
Vocabulary Pre-test

Name _____

Grammar Pre-Test

Circle the correct vocabulary word for each picture.



1. a. carrots b. noodles c. cereal d. fish



2. a. beef b. chicken c. bean d. milk



3. a. dumplings b. spaghetti c. soup d. pizza



4. a. pancakes b. hamburgers c. hot dogs d. tacos



5. a. coffee shop b. hotel c. subway station d. bank



6. a. newsstand b. gas station c. bookstore d. bus stop



7. a. zoo b. science center c. swimming pool d. museum



8. a. amusement park b. movie theater c. water park d. aquarium



9. a. start b. hold c. run d. sit



10. a. end b. wave c. look for d. stand



11. a. create a website b. learn to drive c. look for a job d. study Italian



12. a. take a dance class b. take a tennis lesson c. tutor a student d. learn to drive



13. a. listen to music b. play basketball c. play in a band d. shop for new clothes



14. a. stay home b. stay out late c. visit relatives d. watch an old movie



15. a. do laundry b. do the dishes c. get a haircut d. go grocery shopping



16. a. make dinner b. see friends c. have a party d. see a play



17. a. exciting b. all right c. so-so d. awful



18. a. terrible b. boring c. interesting d. noisy



19. a. buy souvenirs b. go sightseeing c. go to a festival d. go to the beach



20. a. relax b. shop in markets c. take a tour d. take pictures

2018 4 平成30年						
日	月	火	水	木	金	土
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	1	2	3	4	5

21. a. November b. May c. February d. April



22. a. March b. September c. August d. June



23. a. make a guest list b. send invitations c. plan the menu d. buy a gift



24. a. decorate the room b. choose the music c. bake a cake d. prepare the food

**Appendix C: English Proficiency Test
Vocabulary Supplement Example**

Name: _____

Vocabulary Unit 7

Please write the vocabulary word to match the picture.



1. _____



2. _____



3. _____



4. _____

Appendix D
English Learning Motivation Survey (English Version)

Survey 1: English Learning Motivation Survey (before the experiment)

Name _____ **Gender** Male / Female
Date _____

1=very true 2=mostly true 3=somewhat true
 4=somewhat untrue 5=mostly untrue 6=very untrue

Please check the number that best fits the statement.

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	I am interested in learning English.						
2	I think learning English is important.						
3	I think the English I learned last semester is useful.						
4	I learned a lot of English last semester.						
5	I studied English with all my effort last semester.						
6	I think my English skill improved over the course of last semester.						

Appendix E: Instagram Survey (English Version)

Instagram Survey

Name _____

Gender Male / Female

Date _____

1=very true 2=mostly true 3=somewhat true

4=somewhat untrue 5=mostly untrue 6=very untrue

Please check the number that best fits the statement.

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	I am interested in Instagram.						
2	I think Instagram is useful for my English learning.						
3	Using Instagram helps me to learn English more effectively.						
4	Using Instagram improves my understanding of English grammar.						
5	Using Instagram improves my understanding of English vocabulary.						
6	I enjoy my English class more when Instagram is used.						
7	I want my English teacher to continue using Instagram in English teaching.						
8	I would like to use Instagram for English learning in the future.						

If you have any other comments, please enter them here:

Globalisation and its Effects on Team-teaching, by Naoki Fujimoto-Adamson.

Cambridge Scholars, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom, 2020. Pp viii + 268.

Reviewed by **Martin Andrew**, Capable New Zealand, Otago Polytechnic, Dunedin, New Zealand.

From the independent Cambridge Scholar's Publishing, Naoki Fujimoto-Adamson's *Globalisation and its Effects on Team-teaching*, grounded in an in-depth understanding of local socio-political and national policy issues, investigates the pedagogical dynamics and sociolinguistic complexities of team teaching in the context of Japanese Junior High Schools. Specifically, the work sets out to problematise traditional native and non-native English speaker issues in light of local practices and policy strictures. With transnational team teaching becoming increasingly championed in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) contexts worldwide, an insightful analysis into the intersection of globalisation and team teaching is timely, and offers value to educators in such environments.

An Associate Professor at Niigata University of International and Information Studies, in Japan, Fujimoto-Adamson is a scholar in in the fields of team-teaching in Japanese secondary schools and the history of ELT in Japan. She also draws heavily on her own experiences of team teaching as both a learner and a teacher within this study, giving it an (unstated) autoethnographic heft. Although the detailed work of this investigation takes place in Junior High environments, the phenomena it details have pertinence to any context where teams collaborate in teaching, particularly in countries where the strictures of policy impact the potential of team-based pedagogies. The focus on team teaching in Sakura, Wakaba and Momiji Junior High Schools in Nagano Prefecture extends explicitly in the study to analogous situations in South Korea, Hong

Kong and Taiwan and, implicitly, into any context where the advance of globalisation has led to teaching interventions via teamwork which require deep respect for local practices and tolerance for the intrusive and pedagogically counter-intuitive top-down imperatives of politics and economics.

The story begins in 1987 with the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme enabling Japanese teachers of English (JTLs) to co-teach with Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) from other countries, and moves closer to the present day when two thirds of ALTs are recruited within private sector or directly hired by local boards of education. Fujimoto-Adamson's work sets out to offer an alternative, bottom-up, perspective to the America-centric work of McConnell (2000), *Importing Diversity: Inside Japan's JET Program*, as well as a substantive updating using a linguistic ethnographic lens. Viewing the meso as well as the micro and macro levels of the purposes of team teaching allows a closer analysis of point where institutional forces meet teacher agency across three schools. Specifically, the book focuses on investigating:

the balance of interest between team-teaching and what is best for teachers and students in the classroom as viewed from the micro level, for the communities from the meso level of local municipalities, and for the wider Japanese society from the macro level, as influenced by the global economy and international politics (pp.5-6).

Although the team teaching contexts described usually involve an element of native-speakeism, this is not always the case due to the inclusion of skilled Singaporean English language teachers into the scheme. Emphatically, team teaching involves consensus discussion on planning, teaching and assessment and includes contexts where the co-teaching occurs in TESOL classes and where the English teachers are ancillary to discipline teachers.

Foregrounded by a thorough critical discussion of team teaching and community of practice theory both broadly and in ELT contexts and a detailed critique of the Japanese policy documentation which is impactful at local and global levels (Chapter

2), the book embarks on a lengthy methodological description (Chapter 3) founded on linguistic ethnography and social action, and presented as a sequence of collected case studies. Detailed data from local and pedagogical stakeholders inform the data set. To drill down into the empirical data, discourse analysis investigates such factors as classroom interaction and an interview method collects impressions and experiences from stakeholders close to the phenomenon of pedagogy as opposed to policy dictators. At all time, the researcher is acutely aware of her own positioning. This rigour of methodology adds credence to the outcomes and findings.

Strong on the historical context of team teaching in Japan and analogous nations, the study anatomises the trading friction between Reagan-era US and Nakasone-age Japan that led to the establishment of JET in the wake of the so-called ‘Ron-Yasu’ summit. Born out of an act of exchange, including English language exchange, the collaborative teaching signature pedagogy of JET outlived its origins to dominate English learning practice in private partnerships up to the present moment regardless of whether Japan reported a trade surplus or deficit. The ultimate product of this act of trade/teamwork was to be the 2020 Olympics, showcasing young people with advanced language proficiency. The world will have to wait a little longer.

The book is a solid contribution to the published thesis genre and is at all times grounded by its three crucial research questions, and its greatest insights lie in the dynamics of power between JTLs and ALTs, vulnerable to being used as pronunciation robots, and in the analyses of such disjunctures as that between policy, managerial edicts and teacher-informed curricular needs.

Reference

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Quantitative Research Methods for Linguists: a questions and answers approach for students, by Dave Pollard, Garry Plappert, Gertrud Reershemius, Sarah Hayes, Tim Grant, and Urszula Clark. Routledge, New York, 2017, Pp. xi +152.

Reviewed by **Thiri Soe**, Graduate School of International Cultural Studies, Tohoku University, Japan.

Created by expert researchers from the former UK's Aston and Birmingham Universities, this book is about the fundamental background for conducting quantitative research methods in the linguistic field particularly for beginners. It guides to the right track of performing a well-planned quality research with the procedures from the beginning until the last stage of writing.

This volume has two parts: the first part opens with the introduction of quantitative research methods and designs and the second part concerns itself with the ways of dealing with data, calculation and interpretation of the statistical results.

In part 1, nominal, continuous and ordinal numbers and their functions are elaborated. Regarding the interpretation of 'p-value', we are told that we should note that 0.05 means one in twenty and 0.001 one in a thousand. Other basic technical terms and their underlying purposes are analytically explained. Three average types such as mean, median and mode can give different results and the importance of knowing which results are observed is emphasized. The authors demonstrate that it is crucial to plan a well-designed research project before starting data collection because improper data collection could potentially make an interesting quantitative material useless in terms of the possibility of applying statistical calculation.

The authors outline five notable steps:

- (1) Making sure that the data to collect in current research is not out there already;
- (2) Formulating research questions;
- (3) Deciding the type of data to be collected;
- (4) Choosing the right methods of analysis;
- (5) Deciding the individuals and groups in data collection.

The last but not the least concern involves the ethical issues regarding informed consent and the safeguard of the anonymity of the informants. Our research can be either a hypothesis testing or hypothesis generating study. In using questionnaires, the authors maintain researchers should think of the scope or the reach of their survey, specifying the region, participants and valid reasons for those specifications. In using Likert Scales, the effectiveness of the answer is dependent on the number of points added in the choice given.

Part two begins with Chapter 3, showing data analysis procedures, statistical conclusions, inferential tests and related issues. In data calculation, it is argued, researchers should see the central tendency and the measures of spread to check if the data fall into a regular pattern called normal distribution. This section tells how the measure of mean, median and mode are useful respectively. It also guides researchers to check whether their data results in outliers or not.

Presentational modes for quantitative research are described. Pictures, diagrams, histograms and boxplots are effective ways of drawing conclusions. Boxplots are for comparing the data from two groups, presenting the score of median with 25% above and below the median, meaning we can see 50% of the responses which are a quarter above and below the median line. Histograms are visual interpretations to show normal distribution. The bell-shaped curve in histogram says if our data is normal or not. To examine the normality of the data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (for bigger data) and Shapiro-Wilk test (for smaller data size) can be applied. T-testing and ANOVA are powerful parametric tests to find the normality of the data too. However, in the case of comparing two groups with not normally distributed data, we can use a non-parametric test namely Mann-Whitney U test.

The next chapters show interpretation of the data by using charts and graphs. There are suggestions like producing multiple pie charts is an inferior idea and boxplot graphs are suitable for data with continuous numbers.

Chapter 5 shows comparing two groups with not normally distributed data. For non-normal data, standard boxplot graph is appropriate. The writers argue that we should note that textual data rarely falls into a normal distribution. Therefore, researchers could possibly have a curve named 'long-normal distribution'. For this, researchers could try non-parametric test where the shape of distribution does not matter a lot.

Chapter 6 explains the use of Chi squares to see the significant differences from the two sample groups. In applying the Chi square, quantitative researchers should remember to compare the observed data with the expected figures.

Chapter 7 guides the reader as to how to read scatterplots and the correlation of linear data. Scatterplots are for visualizing the relationship between two variables where correlations can be positive, negative or no correlation at all. To measure the strength of the relationship between relative frequencies of comparing groups, Pearson's Correlation analysis is recommended. If researchers' data is non-linear, they have a curving pattern in visualization and then they should use Spearman's Correlation Coefficient.

Chapters 8 and 9 focus on t-tests and ANOVA, including cautions in tricky interpretation processes. As throughout, the book reads like a guidebook: T-tests are for comparing two groups with data on a continuous scale. ANOVA is for comparison between three or more groups. It would be the safest to use ANOVA only when researchers have three criteria such as having samples falling into normal distribution, having equal variance across samples, and having even number of cases in each group. Meeting one or two of these criteria allow researchers to use ANOVA.

In conclusion, the book is useful for its demonstrations of real practical data analyses. Hence, readers can become deeply involved with the calculations and data interpretation. Finally, the use of example research analyses and calculations will be helpful references for beginner quantitative researchers.