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Foreword by Issue's Production Team

Welcome to *Asian EFL Journal's* March 2021 issue! We are pleased to present three research articles and two book reviews that are sure to be of interest to the Asian EFL Community. Keeping with the tradition and scope of the journal, the contents of this issue are sure to be of interest to both educators and researchers.

In the first research article, Tayyaba Tamim explores the contrast between the official monolingual policies and plurilingual realities in the Pakistani EFL context. The report points towards the potential utility of the L1 in acquiring English as the target language despite official 'English only' policies. In the second research article, Khojah and Thomas present a quasi-experiment conducted in the Saudi EFL context where task-based learning conditions, both mobile and non-mobile, significantly outperformed PPP. Interestingly, the two TBLT conditions did not significantly differ. Horness and Jaturapitakkul, in the third and final research report, present a mixed-methods case study involving a study abroad experience where Japanese university students studied English in a Thai university EFL setting. The Japanese learners experienced significant gains in their English proficiency. Qualitative data points to both Japanese and Thai stakeholders being satisfied with the program as well.

This issue concludes with two book reviews. In the first, Martin Andrew reviews *Teaching English to Second Language Learners in Academic Contexts* authored by Newton and colleagues and presents its utility to teacher training programs as an 'instant classic.' In the second, Jeremy Taylor reviews *Theorizing and Analyzing Language Teacher Agency*, edited by Hayriye Kayi-Aydar and colleagues. Teacher agency is an under-considered area in the Asian EFL context and Taylor's review is therefore timely.

Dr. Joseph P. Vitta & The Editorial Team of Asian EFL Journal's March 2021 Issue

Monolingual Policies and Plurilingual Practices in English Language Classrooms: Addressing Shared Guilt and Threats

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Abstract

While evidence piles up in favour of plurilingual and translingual practices to support second language learning in classrooms, institutional policies remain grounded in monolingual ideologies across several contexts in Asia. Within these competing knowledge claims, this paper, based on the findings of a qualitative, ethno-cognitive multi-case study, explores English language teaching /learning experiences of three teachers and eight learners in a university setting in Pakistan. Data was collected with a combination of stimulated recall and ethnographic interviews, key informant interviews, documentary analysis, and participant observation. Findings revealed that the contradiction between plurilingual practices in classrooms and the monolingual ideal of English language classes upheld by institutions triggered feelings of guilt and threat experienced not only by teachers and learners but also rippled through the administration. The paper argues that these feelings can only compound the anxiety associated with L2 classrooms, negatively affecting the learning of English as a second language. It is suggested that the role of learners' linguistic repertoire in L2 teaching and learning needs to be discussed not only in teacher education programmes but also made explicit within institutions and clearly articulated within classrooms.

Keywords: Plurilingual practices; monolingual policies; English teaching and learning; guilt; threat; learners' L1

Introduction

The paradigmatic shift from the stance in the 1570s that “the way into the new language was always through student's own first language” to ruling out its use in L2 classrooms around the 1800s (Cook, 2002, p. 32 in Brook-Lewis, 2009) has been spectacular. Contrastive analysis reinforced the concept of negative transfer of the first language/s (L1) in second language (L2) learning (Lado, 1957; Selinker, 1972) and justified dismissing of L1 in L2 classrooms. This was validated further by behaviourism, as second language learning came to be viewed as habit formation, which required unlearning the old habit of L1 use (Skinner, 1957). Under western colonialism, the hegemonic ideal of a native speaker pushed the agenda of exclusive use of target language in L2 classrooms, though it stemmed only from the colonizers' own unfamiliarity with local languages (Lin, 2013; Cook, 2002). This was supported by teaching methods (for example, the audio-lingual, direct and communicative language teaching, etc.) and publication of teaching materials that considered learners' own linguistic repertoire or first language/s (L1) only as a problem to dismissed any role of the learners' linguistic repertoire in L2, subsuming foreign and second language, classrooms (Cook, 2002; 2001).

Plurilingual and translingual practices in second/ foreign language (L2) classrooms challenge the rigid separation of languages from each other. They reject the conceptualization of a bilingual as equivalent to two monolinguals. Rather, learners draw upon all their linguistic (L1 & subsequent L2s) resources to communicate and learn (Lin, 2013; Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Cummins, 2007; Pennycook, 2009; Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Lin, 2013; Otheguy, García and Reid, 2015; Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). A large body of sociolinguistic research on code mixing and code switching in second language classrooms provides evidence of the facilitative role of L1 in L2 learning (Atkinson, 1987; Kerr, 2019; Kerr, 2017; Cahyani, Courcy & Barnett, 2018; Ma, 2019). L1 is a critical part of learners' socio-cultural and sociohistorical experience (Kramsch, 1998) and a natural mechanism of reliance in the learning of L2 (Ellis, 1999; Taylor, 1975; Wode, 1980; Cook, 2001). This is also explainable by the “general principles of transfer of knowledge,” which emphasizes that one can only process new knowledge with the help of existing knowledge structures (Leontiev, 1970 quoted in Marton, 1981, p. 149). Although it is accepted that the existing language structures will be transferred

to some extent into L2 being learnt ¹ this transfer is not always negative (Odlin, 1996; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Kerr, 2016). In addition, taking the stance of plurilingualism, one could argue that no one has access to the entire language (Lin, 2013) but knowing multiple languages comprise a linguistic resource. If one is to draw distinctions between languages, this resource allows one to make comparisons and talk about languages, as done in language awareness pedagogical approaches (Hawkins, 1999). Research in code switching has shown that the use of L1 performs several important pedagogical and socio-cultural functions (Cahyani, Courcy & Barnett 2018; Ma, 2019) which enable teachers to not only tackle the major difficulty of teaching L2 adult learners with only basic proficiency in the language (Alharbi, 2019), but to teach all learners (Kerr, 2017; 2019).

Several studies have explored the role of L1 from the perspective of teachers and learners. The results have shown that teachers' intuitive or deliberate use of L1 was useful in multiple ways in facilitating the teaching and learning processes in L2 classrooms. This ranged from reduction of cognitive load and learner anxiety to ease of learning of vocabulary and grammar both at school and tertiary levels (Romero & Parrino, 1994; Anton & Di Camilla, 1999; Edstrom, 2006; Chimbutane, 2013; Hu & Bodomo, 2009; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Schwartz & Asli, 2014; Auerbach, 1993; Tang, 2000; Kavaliauskiene, 2009; Bruen & Kelly, 2017). Research evidence has piled up in favour of L1 use in L2 classrooms augmented by pedagogical approaches (for example, language awareness and translanguaging), and the concepts of plurilingualism, flexible bilingualism (Jones & Ghuman, 1995; Atkinson, 1987; Cook, 1999, 2001, 2002; Phillipson, 1992; Deller, 2003; Kerr, 2019; James, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Lin, 2013; Taylor & Snoddon, 2013; Willans, 2013; Conteh, 2018; Kerr, 2017). Nevertheless, the issue is far from resolved, as those who insist on the exclusive use of target language in classrooms remain much more influential (Valljo & Dooly, 2019).

Hence, several educational institutions commonly take a firm stance on the exclusive use of the target language in classrooms across several contexts in Asia (Cook 2001; 2002) Promondou, 2000; Kerr, 2016). Notwithstanding this policy, non-native bilingual teachers and learners often find themselves using their shared first language (L1) in foreign or second language (L2) classrooms (Copland & Neokleous, 2010; Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Tang, 2000; Ma, 2019; Chimbutane, 2013; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Hu & Bodomo, 2009; Conteh, 2018; Cahyani, de Courcy & Barnett, 2018; Kerr, 2019). Hence, the use of L1 in L2 classrooms

¹ This may be for example in terms of structures, pronunciation, or connotation of words etc.

remains the proverbial ‘skeleton in the closet’ (Prodomou, 2000). This remains a cause of confusion and frustrations for teachers and learners who may intuitively rely on their shared L1 for teaching and learning L2. This is in contradiction to the western methodologies and teaching materials, upon which they rely upon, and the monolingual institutional policies they are required to observe (Cook, 2002; Yuwono, 2005, Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Yuwono & Harbon, 2010; Kerr, 2017; Chimbutane, 2013; Ma, 2019). The teachers not following a given policy are often labeled as “incompetent,” “lazy” or “resistant to change,” (Wang, 2008). It is hardly surprising then that the teachers report a sense of guilt when they use L1 (Macaro, 2001; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2002; Burden, 2001). Hall and Cook (2013) report the phenomenon across 111 countries from their survey. Teachers even reported feeling uncomfortable in articulating the need for L1 in L2 classrooms (Edstrom, 2006). Copland and Neokleous (2010) also found that L2 teachers often underreported or misreported their use of L1 in the classroom and even contradicted their practices by using but arguing for limiting the use of L1. However, this paradox of using but dismissing the need for L1 has not been explored at length. In addition, while the guilt felt by L2 teachers has been briefly covered, learners’ perspective has been largely missing in these studies.

This paper is based on some key findings of a funded study that explored the perceptions of teachers and learners regarding the role of L1 in L2 classrooms. The key focus of this paper is the convergence of themes arising from the discourses of teachers and learners that highlight the facilitative use of L1 in L2 classrooms on the one hand and denial of its use, on the other hand. The projection of shared feelings of guilt and social threat are explored as an essential corollary to this phenomenon. The paper contributes to the current literature in three different ways. First, it explores perceptions of plurilingual practices teachers and learners in L2 classrooms within an institutional policy context that strictly adhere to monolingualism and emphasizes exclusive target language use in classrooms. Second, it extends discussions on teachers’ guilt and claims that this is not unique to teachers but is also traceable in students and even within the administration. Third, it discussed the shared social threats perceived by teachers, learners, and administration in the use of L1, emerging from intersubjective understandings of the socio-cultural dynamics of power and privilege inherent in the linguistic hierarchy of the given context. The paper argues that this may increase the anxiety associated with L2 classrooms for both teachers and learning, adversely affecting the teaching and learning of the second language. The generalizability of the findings is limited due to its qualitative design; however, it provides in-depth insights (Flick, 2018) into how the wider

socio-cultural prejudices play into L2 classrooms and affect teachers and learners, a situation that may be similar to other post-colonial Asian contexts. The paper is divided into six sections. The next section gives an overview of the context. The following sections, 3, 4, and 5, present the methodology of the study, findings, and discussion, respectively, before the argument is concluded in the final section.

Context of the Study

Pakistan is richly multilingual with more than 25 regional languages, a national language, Urdu, and an official one, English, from its colonial past. Urdu is widely used as a medium of cross-regional communication in urban areas (Tamim, 2014). Here, it often finds its way into homes and is learnt informally and also formally in schools. It is also the medium of instruction in government sector schools. Urdu was the only language in the rich linguistic repertoire of the learners that was being used in English classrooms in this context. The paper does not bring into discussion regional languages in this context because the shared language between teachers and learners who belonged to different ethnicities was Urdu and not a regional language. English is taught as a second language in schools and universities, though for some, it may actually be a foreign language given its limited exposure to those from low socioeconomic classes. In private schools and higher education institutions, more often than not, it is also the medium of instruction. It is referred to as a second language (L2), at times, in this paper, notwithstanding the aforementioned difference.

English in Pakistan is considered highly important for upward socioeconomic mobility (Haider & Fang, 2019). Being the main language of higher education and of almost all government/ non- government businesses and of the higher judiciary, it becomes a route to well-paid jobs and, as such, has unrivalled significance in the country. Although English is taught in all school systems and also at the tertiary level, proficiency in English remains the distinctive marker and prerogative of the elite who can afford to study in high fee English medium schools (Tamim, 2014). Low fee private and government sector schools (that charge no fee at all) achieve little in terms of teaching English. Poor English language proficiency of teachers, obsolete curricula, low socioeconomic background of students, little exposure to English at homes, and more often than not, uneducated parents, only come together to construct a recipe for failure in the teaching/ learning of English language (Manan, 2018). The social privilege and advantage for the elite are then reproduced both in the linguistic hierarchy and the limited access to the more valued English language.

In elite private educational institutions, Urdu is often officially banned from L2 classrooms. At the school level, punishments or fines are meted out to discourage the use of Urdu in classrooms and to purge it from the campus. However, practically, many teachers and learners use Urdu in English language classrooms for one reason or the other. This was very much a reflection of the wider socio-cultural context, where despite the official status of English and its use in formal official contexts and in written documentation, Urdu or, at times, another regional language was used for everyday interpersonal communication. Unlike the expensive private schools, the cheaper private and government schools openly rely on the use of Urdu in English language classrooms because of the poor English language proficiency of learners and at times teachers who may also come from disadvantaged backgrounds. Hence, low proficiency in the English language becomes a marker of class-based disadvantage.

The study was undertaken at a nursing school in a highly reputed international medical university in Pakistan. At this school, where the students typically came from underprivileged backgrounds, L2 teaching /learning was highly emphasized and extremely problematic. The nearly 450 nursing students enrolled in different programmes required English not only for coping with their academics but also for all official documentation and written communication at the hospital, where they also worked simultaneously. Their English language proficiency was, hence, critically important yet quite poor at this level. Although Urdu was being used unofficially, the university maintained a strong policy of not using Urdu in English language classrooms. In contrast to their students, all three teachers in the study were from upper middle class or elite backgrounds and highly proficient in English.

Methodology

This ethno-cognitive multiple case study design was guided by Wood's (1996) framework for studying teachers' decision making. This was combined with the instrumental case study model (Stake, 1995) to explore a particular aspect of teaching practice by incorporating typical cases and considering participants as bearers of important knowledge. Each participant was taken as a case, and exploratory methods were used to highlight the unique complexity of each case (Yin, 2004; Yin, 2017). The instruments used for this qualitative study were: individual interviews with teachers and learners (a combination of stimulated recall and ethnographic style), key informant interviews with administration, unstructured classroom observations, participant observation, field notes, and documentary analysis.

The ethnographic strain in the study encouraged insights into intersubjective understandings and insights into the role and use of Urdu in English language teaching and learning from the perspective of the lived-in realities of those involved (Flick, 2018; Mihas, 2019; Pole & Morrison, 2003). Ethnographic style (Spradley, 1980) individual interviews were held with teachers and learners. Each was around 60 – 80 minutes in duration. The language used by the researcher was Urdu to ensure that participants may feel comfortable talking about the use of Urdu. The participants were encouraged to refer to actual incidents and experiences in the interviews based on the assumption that 'a belief articulated in the context of a "story" about concrete events, behaviours and plans, is more likely to be grounded in actual behaviour (Woods, 1996, p. 27). Key informant interviews were held with administration, Dean, and Directors for an understanding of institutional place for Urdu. In addition, policy documents, lesson plans, and detailed field notes were also used for triangulation of interview data (Flick, 2018; Mihas, 2019). Hence, participants and their perceptions were not seen as ahistorical but situated in sociohistorical cultural contexts within which personal meanings were socially constructed.

The cognitive domain in the study focused on understanding individual mental processes and personal constructs of teachers and learners as they relied on Urdu or dismissed it in the teaching/ learning of English. During this stage of interviews, the focus was an exploration of current experiences. For these three classes were audiotaped and notes taken focused mainly on the use of Urdu/ English in class to stimulate recall during the interviews so that a concrete link could be built between the articulated perception and experience. Excerpts from the class audio recording were played (2-3 minutes at a time) and questions asked about the relevance of Urdu. Handouts from their class were also placed before the participants to stimulate recall. Based on the information processing approach, the assumption was that visual/aural prompts would re-trigger the mental processes at the time of the actual event, which can then be studied through introspective and retrospective methods of verbal reports (Gass & Mackey, 2000). It has been argued that while offering flexibility in application (DiPardo, 1994), stimulated recalls enable clarity of recall that can be highly reliable and valid if the interview is conducted within a short time (48 hrs) of the actual event (Bloom, 1954 in Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Keeping the latter in mind, the interviews were held either on the same day after the class or the day next. Although the technique is not without its critics, it has been used successfully to understand the way L2 knowledge “is acquired, organized, and used” by learners (Mackey et al., 2000, p. 21).

The researcher was a female faculty member with the university for two and a half years at the given time, involved in the teaching, designing, and also coordinating and evaluating English language programmes at the school of nursing. She had recently returned after a year's break. While this experience enabled understanding from participants' perspective, the possibility of personal bias and over-familiarity cannot be ruled out (Mihas, 2019), although the researcher's year-long absence from this context could have addressed the latter issue to some extent. A deliberate attempt was made to address the issue of personal bias by: a) deliberately focusing on aspects of language based practices in the culture which had become naturalized to develop an “explicit awareness” of field experience (Spradley, 1980, pp. 54-55); b) becoming keenly self-aware of my own positioning in the context in terms of gender, education and profession and the biases it could trigger in the responses of participants; and c) practicing reflexivity and transparency in all procedures.

Given the complexity of the interviews, they were carefully planned to allow a loose structure (to allow comparability across cases) while keeping these interviews open-ended so the participants could have the freedom to talk about their diverse experiences. The key dimensions explored in the interviews are displayed in Table 1. As such, these generated discourses related to: a) specific aspects of the classroom experiences; b) previous language learning and teaching experiences; c) current teaching/learning experiences; d) generalized assumptions not related to any specific time; e) evaluation of the experience (Woods, 1996).

Table 1.

Interview Protocol Dimensions

Teachers	Learners
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic details • Previous education • Language learning experience • Professional training experiences • Language teaching experience (previous) • Language teaching experience (current: general and specific to the given class) • Institutional expectations: through hypothetical situation • General perceptions about the role of Urdu in English teaching and learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic details • Previous education • Language learning experience (previous) • Language learning experience (current: general and specific to the audio recorded class) • Brief oral protocol about how they usually processed English texts. In addition, a topic was given to write about and later the learners described the use of Urdu, if any. • General perceptions about the role of Urdu in English language learning.

The Participants

The three English language teachers were non-native bilingual women from a high socioeconomic background, with Urdu as their L1. However, they were also familiar with at least one more regional language. All of them had undertaken English language teacher training and had a wide experience (10-30 years) of teaching English as a second or foreign language in tertiary settings. At the given time, they were engaged in teaching English language courses in a number of programmes, including a 3-yr diploma programme offered at the school of nursing at an international medical university. The eight learner participants were from their nursing diploma programme: three students each from year I and year III, and two were from year II.

The students were all bilingual females between 18-25 yrs of age belonging to different regions of Pakistan, and like their teachers, they had Urdu as their L1, though they also knew at least one more regional language. Besides this common denominator among the learner

participants, other similarities between the learners were their low socioeconomic status and poor English language proficiency. In addition, all of them had prior exposure of 8-12 years of formal English language learning at school and college level. They represented typical students in their classes in terms of L2 proficiency level in this context.

Data Analysis

Each interview was transcribed word by word in the language it was conducted. The analysis can be divided into two broad phases, although it remained iterative to the end. Each individual interview was coded in detail, keeping in mind the link between the question asked and the positioning of the response in surrounding discourse to construct the “parameters that shape the lives of people” (Sarantakos, 2013, p. 310). This involved a complex process of going through the transcripts, tracing recurring patterns, delineating text organization and content. In addition, it also meant contextualizing the repertoire, segregating variant responses and looking for “consistency within/between interviews” (ibid. p.209). This was done by focusing on different kinds of terms used by participants and interpreting them with reference to their relationship with the discourse within which these terms were embedded (Flick, 2018; Mihas, 2019). Later, in the second phase, data across the interviews was analyzed for cross-cutting themes using detailed multiple matrices. This facilitated identification of “dimensions of contrast and similarity among different groups,” so highlighting certain “cultural themes” (Spradley, 1980, p. 148), for example, guilt, threat, denial, and conflict in the use of L1.

Findings

The findings discussed in this paper are limited to some common themes arising across the cases, following an inductive process of analysis (Mihas, 2019). The main data used here are the interviews, while other sources of data have also been subtly included. Differences across cases are only discussed if relevant to the focus of this paper, which remains the presentation of common themes of guilt and threat. The names of the participants have not been used to maintain confidentiality.

Acceptance of Facilitative Role of Urdu in English Teaching and Learning

All the participants unanimously felt that Urdu was an important mediating tool for the teaching and learning of English. The teachers considered Urdu an indispensable way to explain difficult concepts and assist learners to relate things to their background. They felt that

the use of Urdu increased learner involvement, enhanced understanding, and assisted in developing rapport with them. Teacher A commented on the need for Urdu, “I realized that the language that I would need to explain those grammar points would be more difficult for them to understand than just telling them [in Urdu] this is what it means.” Teacher C also explained, referring to a specific moment in her class when she restricted her students to speak only in English, the responses were:

Hardly any because they were scared to communicate, they couldn't communicate with me so the kind of responses I was getting were very structured. It was like what's the word for it ... what's the term for [...] but when I wanted to deviate from that and I ask them their opinion, they would not respond because I was not encouraging them to speak in Urdu (Source Interview: Teacher C Yr II).

Teacher B explained that she used Urdu “to bring some light touch to the class,” while Teacher C justified use because:

I also want to know if...they have understood something or not and I do not want to hamper it [their learning] only because they cannot express themselves in English. But I sometimes ...well not very strictly... but light heartedly keep reminding the students that we are trying to practice English and therefore they should speak English (Source: Interview Teacher C).

Teacher A and C also referred to their previous job experiences, where they were not familiar with the Urdu of their learners. While Teacher C just got by, Teacher A felt she had to learn the Urdu of her learners language to make her teaching effective.

The learners also narrated how they used Urdu to draw comparisons with English grammar and vocabulary. Six of the eight learners suggested that the use of Urdu was also a face-saving strategy that helped to ease stress and anxiety in English classrooms and regain confidence. Everyone suggested reliance on Urdu when engaged in group work:

We begin talking in English but when we cant understand something or when we can't say what we want to say in English, I ask in Urdu... What does this

mean or this is what I wanted to say ... or how do I say this in English\?
(Source: Interview Learner B (Yr III).

Learner G explained:

If Urdu is not used at all then, it will be very difficult for us. We will not be able to explain the point that we want to make...will not be able to ask the question that we want to ask... we will have to keep thinking what to say... how to say...if it is correct (Source Interview Learner G, Yr I).

Learner D explained why she relied on Urdu:

Because we at the moment translate in Urdu...this is what the sentence is saying ...then we come at word level...if the meaning is not clear we proceed at sentence level and that is how we interlink ...guessing this is what the meaning of the word is. So I tried to understand the word in Urdu and then write in English (Source: interview Learner D, Yr II).

The bilingual interviews and recalls from the classroom activities confirmed the reported bilingualism of these learners' thinking process. The observed classrooms also provided evidence of the use of Urdu by learners to discuss L2 information. However, this use of Urdu in English classrooms was admitted by all participants with reluctance and was marked by a sense of guilt and threat.

Guilt and denial in the use of L1

The guilt and even denial in the use of L1, was evident in across the discourses of teachers and learners. The teachers explained in detail, why they 'allowed,' the use of Urdu in their classrooms and how it helped the teaching and learning process. Yet, this was always done with a twinge of guilt and at times followed by self-contradiction and denial. When asked directly if Urdu use helped English learning, the prompt reply was:

I am not really sure, but what I believe is that the teachers shouldn't adhere to English rigidly because sometimes it ... becomes impossible to put yourself

across because the students are unable to understand you (Source: Interview, Teacher C)

The lurking guilt surfaces as soon as Teacher A relates a positive experience of using Urdu. She emphasized her resolve to respond to learners' needs. Yet, she ends up admitting "I would be afraid to use Urdu ... I would be afraid of my own understanding of it ... we are doing it just for our children but still feeling guilty about it." Her initial confidence melts away as she listens to the audio recording of the class and, torn by concern, comments, "I have used more Urdu than I probably would have normally."

It is worth noticing that the use of Urdu is hardly ever referred to with positive connotations. Even when its need in the class is explained, this explanation is overshadowed by a sense of compulsion and self-doubt. Teacher C commented, "I do not completely disallow Urdu' because 'I do not want to hinder their [learners'] understanding." Teacher A said, "the use of Urdu is by 'default' when one is confronted with a situation where the only logical way to maximize understanding of the learners is to use their Urdu. "Teacher B also commented, "One is 'compelled' to use Urdu with low proficiency learners to make things easier for them." It is almost as if the teachers were trying to confess guilt and exonerate themselves of a wrong, they had committed by using Urdu, as opposed to advocating its use. Guilt was evident in the discourse of Teacher C, who reporting heightened learner involvement in group work with the use of Urdu, hastily added, "but if you remind them, they try to speak English." The facilitative role of Urdu was then discussed as if it "happened accidentally," though it helped, with emphasis on how they tried to repress it rather than acknowledging its contribution. Similarly, Teacher A stated "But come on, if I don't allow them [the use of Urdu] at that point, I hinder the motivation or their willingness to participate." This was capped with the classic doubt "I don't know how far it is right or wrong," she sighed.

The 'guilt' felt by teachers appeared to be refracted in learners in three different forms. Firstly, they denied using Urdu, despite clear reliance on it. Learner C (Yr III) described her English class asserting that neither the teacher nor the students spoke in Urdu. When the class tape was played, and she could hear herself speaking in Urdu in a group task, she argued that "this was just out of habit [...] I don't need to" and then added that she used Urdu for her friends to explain the task to them. Later, towards the end of the interview, I asked her about the effect of my presence in the class in terms of language. She blurted out:

[Earlier] We were thinking that someone is there observing, so we were trying to speak in English but at some point in time we were thinking "that's ok if Miss is here so what. We can speak in Urdu. (Source: Interview Learner C, Yr III).

Learner E (Yr III) was fervently denied any role of Urdu in English language learning. This seemed to be peculiar because of her heavy reliance on Urdu in the interview. Earlier, she had also explained that she relied a lot on the bilingual dictionary in her bag. Like others, she had also explained how it helped when the teacher said something in English and then translated it into Urdu. 'If you [the teacher] speak[s] in English and translate[s], next time she speaks the same sentence, we could remember that this is what the sentence means.' In contrast, when asked if she used Urdu in English language learning, she replied:

Learner E: I cannot say exactly... previously... if I tell you about now, I remember that I don't... I don't remember it now

Researcher: You don't remember?

Learner E: Yeah I don't remember. I... but I might have...I cannot say that when I began learning on my own, I never used Urdu to understand I ... think I have (Source: Interview Learner E, Yr III).

Secondly, learners typically shied away from explicitly endorsing the use of L1 despite clearly admitting the facilitative role of Urdu in self-reports of working through L2 assignments, using Urdu extensively in interviews and emerging evidence from the class observation. When Learner F (Yr II) was asked how she would feel if the teacher did not use any Urdu in class, she replied timidly, "It would be very difficult for us to say what we want to," only to argue later, " Urdu should not be allowed at all." Only two of eight learners explicitly said that Urdu was important to participate in class, while all others demanded that strict checks should be placed over the use of Urdu in the classroom. Even these two learners insisted that Urdu should be used minimally. It is ironic that Learner G, after strongly advocating exclusive use of English language in class, towards the end of the interview, when asked for suggestions, almost like a confession ridden with guilt, says quietly "I want to give this feedback that Urdu should be used." Learner E explained:

Only if teacher feels what she was trying to deliver is not at all accepted by students [then] some Urdu words...like some phrases which can to help students might be used [because]it is more harm in using Urdu than needed.'

(Source: Interview, Learner E Yr I).

Thirdly, despite their reliance on Urdu, learners viewed it so unfavourably that they endorsed physical punishments meted out to them in school and argued for punitive measures to be in place in their current classes. Two of the learners who were the strongest advocates of exclusive use of English were the ones who narrated suffering humiliation for speaking in Urdu in class. Learner B remembered that in grade seven, she was dragged from her class [grade 7) and shut in the washroom for fifteen minutes for speaking in Urdu. Later her parents were called. She reminisced, "it was horrible... very shameful." In contrast to the emotional trauma, instead of denouncing the act as it seemed she almost would, she whispered under her breath "whenever I meet her [the teacher] I remember how she really helped, how important is English in life." Acceptance of punishment as legitimate can be seen as an admission of guilt, arising from an understanding that using L1 was a wrongful act.

The role of Urdu for establishing rapport in the class was the only thing that the teachers and learners readily acknowledged and reported with the least sense of "guilt," and the learners seemed to understand and 'excuse' her. Learner H commented, "she has to use Urdu because class is so tired." Hence, the use of Urdu here was not being accepted as integral to learning English but as an aside, a lapse a break from the regime of learning to relax.

Threat in the use of Urdu

This guilt in the use of Urdu is understandable if seen against a sense of existential social threat mutually perceived by teachers and learners. This seemed to emerge from their intersubjective understanding of the linguistic hierarchy, the symbolic value attached to English, and the negative connotations accompanying the use of Urdu, despite the latter being a national language and the language of common communication across communities and within homes, especially in urban contexts. The use of Urdu in English teaching/ learning settings was often seen here as a sign of very poor proficiency in English, which in turn could be taken for poor educational background, low socioeconomic background, and even low intelligence.

The previous language learning and teaching experiences of all the teachers in private educational institutions were remarkably similar in terms of discouraging Urdu in English language classrooms to the extent of using punishments/ fines for the purpose. Teacher A remembered both the emphasis on the exclusive use of English in her convent schooling and her previous workplace. English language teachers' use of Urdu would set off others gossiping, as if it were an offence, she reminisced. Teacher C also remembered that in her old job, speaking in Urdu for the English language teacher "was a bad thing [...] one could even lose one's job," she explained. When asked to think hypothetically about the response of the Dean, if she steps into a classroom and finds an English language teacher using Urdu in class, the replies were spontaneous and quite similar to what Teacher C said, " [the Dean will believe] that she [the teacher using Urdu in class] was not very proficient [in English]... professionally not capable and that she was not doing her job well. " The threat of being considered professionally incompetent was quite real in the given context, where poor English language proficiency of teachers was a real issue. Hence, despite acknowledging the need for Urdu, one of the teachers reported to actively avoid Urdu in her class, much to the problem of her participant students as it turned out.

Nevertheless, Teacher A explained that she felt "compelled" to use Urdu because of the low proficiency of English language learners, since they were from underprivileged backgrounds, "if they had the means they would go to English medium schools," she guessed. Teacher B felt that the poor English language proficiency of these students, despite years of learning at school, was indicative of poor intelligence. In their class, she argued, the 'more intelligent' ones would have been able to learn English.

Learners also shared similar language-based biases. Learner E also reminisced that her previous English teacher might have been using Urdu because "the level of students was lower." While Learner F agreed that those with "a different level, those from Urdu medium [schools]" would need Urdu, she commented that perhaps "the teacher also did not know English," alluding to the commonly held assumption in the given context, where teachers, a product of the same system, themselves had low English language proficiency. When the learners were asked if they would ask a question in Urdu from the teacher, if the Dean was there to observe, the learners replied in negative. Learner C said, " I will hold my question until the class ends." It was also common for respondents to depersonalize the need for Urdu. Learner C explained "for those who have studied from Urdu medium...conversation in Urdu would be needed." Later she hesitantly admitted to her own need for Urdu use by her teacher,

complaining that the teacher used “difficult language and it was hard to understand.” This theme of threat countered by denial was very strong and ran through all learner responses, in different degrees.

For learners, however, the threat had a dual-layer because they felt judged both by peers and teachers. They felt threatened to use Urdu in class because they might be looked down upon as “lower,” explained Learner H. Learner G also said, “I would dare not speak in class if I do not know how to say it in English, but I will go to the teacher after the class is over to ask a question” because “people laugh and pass comments.” Learner C also explained. The threat of ridicule was real and shifted with the context. Speaking in English outside the class also posed a threat of ridicule, “If we try to speak in English outside people pass comments...you are trying to be smart... look at her she has newly learnt to speak in English,” explained Learner A. It seemed to be a situation where learners found it difficult to use their Urdu in English language class because of its negative connotations, while also feeling threatened as they tried to cross over to the English language, leaving the security of L1. In the space between Urdu and English language knowledge, there seemed to be a chasm of anxiety, guilt, and threat that had to be crossed over, gaining poignancy every time L1 is used.

At the institutional level, also, this social threat was perceptible in the response of the Dean. When asked about the role of the first language in learning, she emphasized 'one cannot negate...neglect or...forget the role of Urdu in teaching and learning here,' giving insights into processes that were eerily close to how the teachers and the learners had described. However, when asked what she would think if she observed an English language teacher use Urdu in her class, “ I will not tolerate it,” she responded without a blink and added “after all, we are an English medium institution.” Here, too one can see evidence of tension between the need for L1 and the stiff stance to avoid it because of the perceived threat to the prestige of the institution.

Discussion

The findings endorse the value of plurilingual practices in second language classrooms as suggested in the use of L1 in previous research because of the multiple functions it performed (Willis, 1981; Schweers, 1999; Burden, 2001; Kavaliauskiene, 2009; Cahyani, de Courcy & Barnett, 2018; Kim & Petraki, 2009; Taylor & Snoddon, 2013; Willans, 2013; Schwartz & Asli, 2014; Lin, 2013; Ma, 2019; Hall & Cook, 2013; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 1999; 2002; Atkinson, 1987; Kerr, 2019; Kerr, 2016; Lin, 2013). Hence, the use of Urdu helped teachers to

cope with “high-level difficulties” in teaching of English as a second language at tertiary level (Alharbi, 2019), and making their classes inclusive (Kerr, 2017). Apart from other benefits, Urdu seemed to support learners' metacognitive strategies, an important factor in learning (Syaifullah, 2019). In this context, learners and teachers appear as actively constructing and engaging in the teaching and learning of the English language using the meditational tool of Urdu.

These results, however, do not support earlier findings that the teachers do not implement institutional policy because they are “lazy,” “resistant to change” and/or because they “lack the capacity to work in conformity with institutional policy” (Smit, 2005 in Wang, 2008, p. 2). The results also do not confirm findings which state that teachers sideline the institutional policy because of their prior beliefs (Sillane et al., 2002 in Wang, 2008). In this context, the findings showed that the teachers went against their prior beliefs and training to dismiss L1 in L2 classrooms and responded to the pragmatic needs of learners (Wang, 2008; Copland & Neokleous, 2010). The teachers were actually fully capable of adhering to the institutional monolingual policy and had been trained to dismiss other languages in classrooms, yet they used their agency to understand learners' needs and facilitated their learning by allowing the use of Urdu in their classrooms. This was despite discerning the threat to their professional selves that the use of L1 entailed.

The findings confirm the results of previous studies that reveal teachers' experience of guilt as they use of L1 in L2 classrooms (Prodromou, 2000; Auerbach, 1993; Macaro, 2001; Burden, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2013; Kerr, 2019; Cianflone, 2009). Furthermore, they also confirm evidence of contradiction in teachers articulated perceptions and their practices (Copland & Neokleous, 2010; Kerr, 2019). However, the current findings go beyond previous studies to highlight that the experience of guilt was not unique to L2 teachers but also shared by learners in their classrooms. In addition, the sense of anxiety and social threat felt by the teachers and students was also discernable in the university administration. The intersubjective biases and attitudes towards languages, in the wider socio-cultural context, i.e., the social privileges attached to the use of English and threats associated with the use of Urdu in formal contexts, were reflected in the microcosm of classrooms and was dreaded by learners, teachers and the administration alike.

The results also highlight a complex matrix of attitude towards Urdu and English in this context. An implicit positive attitude is perceptible towards Urdu because of its affiliation with family, community, and national identity and primary knowledge construction. This is in

contrast with the explicit or articulated attitude that is dismissive of Urdu because of its lower relative power in the wider context and negative connotations attached to it in educational and professional settings, which gain poignancy in English language teaching/ learning situation. The attitude that emerges towards English, however, is less contradictory, which is seen as the language of privilege, power, and socioeconomic mobility, strongly supported within and outside institutions. Somewhere in the middle of the expected crossing, however, one could discern a chasm of guilt and threat, becoming real with every use of Urdu in English language classroom. One could argue that this stemmed from a feeling of regression into a lower prestige group every time Urdu was used, threatening the educated identities of teachers and learners and the reputation of institutions.

Languages then appear not as ahistorical but laden with connotations of unequal power embedded in specific socio-cultural and sociohistorical contexts, so do our language choices. Not ignoring these power dimensions in our discussion of plurilingual and translingual practices can lead to addressing the sense of guilt and threat. Urdu was in this context the shared language of teachers and learners which they associated with not only their friends and family but also their nationhood. The rejection of Urdu in English language classrooms, created a dilemma for their self –esteem which could have far-reaching implications for their sense of identity, infesting them with a sense of shame and low self-esteem (Tamim, 2014). The alienation from Urdu emphasized by leading educational institutions also implicitly educates the elite to despise and devalue not only Urdu but also those who speak it, reinforcing colonial prejudices. The institutional punishments for the use of Urdu, in this case, may be seen as a 'political tactic' for disciplining the learners into 'conformity' (Rainbow, 1984). Through these regimes of disciplining, institutions seek to compare, hierarchize, homogenize and exclude the disadvantaged (ibid. p. 196); reproducing the given hierarchies.

Conclusion

This paper is based on some key findings from a funded study that explored the perceptions of teachers and learners regarding the role of L1 in L2 multilingual classrooms in a university setting in Pakistan. The objective of this paper has been to discuss the emergent converging themes from the discourses of teachers and learners who found themselves in a situation where plurilingual practices found their way into L2 classrooms in an institution that emphasized monolingual policy. The analysis also took into account the linguistic hierarchy prevalent in the wider socio-cultural and multilingual context of Pakistan within which the

institution was embedded with the use of ethno-cognitive multiple case study method (Woods, 1996).

The findings reveal a paradox of using and explaining reliance on L1 (Urdu in this context) in L2 (English) teaching and learning but then denying and rejecting its use. In addition to this surfaced a strong sense of guilt, social threat, and vulnerability in both the discourses of teachers and learners as they used Urdu in English classrooms, with the only difference being that these emotions seemed to be stronger in students than teachers as they felt judged both by peers and teachers. A similar conflict was also discernable in the institution itself, as the administration acknowledged the need for learners to rely on their L1 to make sense of new information but firmly rejected its use in L2 classrooms to maintain its distinction as an 'English medium higher education,' (denoting quality in the given context). The findings of the paper also highlight that institutional emphasis on monolingual policy in L2 classrooms did not fence off plurilingual practices in classrooms, as the teachers and learners inevitably found themselves relying on their shared L1 resource, though covertly and not without a strong sense of guilt. Hence, the monolingual policy of the institution actually negatively affected the teaching/ learning processes by increasing the anxiety, emotional distress, and the sense of vulnerability of those involved. The paper has mainly focused on the converging themes arising across the discourses of teachers and learners, and a discussion of differences are beyond the scope of this paper. The findings of the paper have limited generalization because of the nature of the study. This is however, compensated by the in-depth understandings of a situation common to English language learning classrooms in several multilingual contexts.

The paper contributes to the current literature by highlighting that the decision to use L1 in an L2 classroom is never a simple cognitive one but has accompanying social and power ramifications that are hardly addressed in the literature. The study shows that the wider socio-cultural and sociohistorical biases play out in classrooms, and these have implications not only for the teaching and learning of English as a second language but also for the reproduction of the given social hierarchies. The results of the study endorse the value of the pedagogical theory of language awareness, which emphasizes the use of L1 as a useful resource to form a bridge for learning L2, while also validating the socio-cultural theory of learning that underscores the significance of the social contexts within which teaching and learning interactions take place. These are where the agency of those involved is engaged. This means that not only their cognition is involved, but the whole history of their being comes into play in teaching/ learning practices. L1 becomes a significant resource in L2 classrooms, but the culturally embedded

beliefs and social understandings of the linguistic hierarchy of teachers and learners trivialize its use, while the institution rejects it altogether. Hence the feelings of guilt and threat that following the use of L1.

Three recommendations can be made based on these findings. First, the second language teacher education programmes must challenge monolingual policies of educational institutions by giving more space to the discussion of plurilingual and translingual practices, as well as language awareness pedagogical approaches. Second, the teachers should be especially encouraged to critically evaluate their choices, make informed decisions, rather than follow counter-intuitive prescriptive methodologies. Third, it is important to undertake in teacher education programmes a discussion of socio-political dimension of language choices in classrooms. Lastly, the role of L1 in L2 also needs to be taken up for discussion in educational institutions at policy level, while simultaneously bringing it into discussion in L2 classrooms/ This will help not help dispel the feelings of guilt, threat, and anxiety experienced by teachers and learners in the use of L1 but help them channelize and plan the use of L1 to facilitate the learning of second language.

The study has implications for teaching and learning of second language in classrooms. The findings suggest that despite growing evidence of the facilitative role of plurilingual and translingual practices in teaching and learning of second language, these may not be fully utilised in contexts where institutions insist on strictly following monolingual policies. Notwithstanding the value of these practices, evident in the unofficial use of Urdu in this context, the sense of guilt and threat they may trigger in teachers and learners, as evident here, may blind one to their benefit and instead add to the anxiety related to second language classrooms, reported elsewhere in research, negatively impacting teaching and learning processes. It is important, then, to confront the emotional distress that may accompany the use of other languages in second language classrooms, trace their source and challenge monolingual institutional policies.

The study has significance for second language teachers, teacher educators, and institutional policymakers as it highlights the need to acknowledge that the question of using L1 in L2 in classrooms does have not only cognitive but also emotive effects on teachers and their learners depending on the socio-cultural context within which the classrooms are embedded. Hence, it is important that second language teacher education programmes address the issue of L1 in L2 classrooms, focusing on how cognitive benefits from the use of L1 may at times come at the cost of shared emotional distress, guilt and threat. This may happen when

plurilingual practices in L2 classrooms come into conflict with monolingual policies of the institution that disregard penalize the use of L1. In addition, second language teacher education programmes need to bring into discussions the linguistic hierarchy in the wider sociocultural context and how sociolinguistic biases can refract into classroom practices and disrupt them. This will equip the L2 teachers to take informed decisions in L2 classrooms, manage their own anxieties and those of their learners for effective teaching/ learning of L2. The study also has implications for institutional policy-making as it underscores the futility of imposing top-down decision of monolingual policy in L2 classrooms, where it can neither be fully implemented in classrooms nor is it advisable as evidence piles up in favour of the use of L1 in L2 classrooms. Including the perspectives of teachers and learners in policy-making may help the teaching and learning outcomes by reducing the experiences of guilt and social threats in L2 classrooms and informed utilization of L1. The paper highlights an important area of research where the issue may be explored to a greater extent and in different settings.

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Smartphone-mediated EFL Reading Tasks: A Study of Female Learners' Motivation and Behaviour in Three Saudi Arabian Classrooms

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Abstract

Research shows that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Saudi Arabia typically report low levels of motivation due to the dominance of teacher-centred classrooms. Recent studies suggest that combining task-based language teaching (TBLT) with a mobile learning approach may develop student-centred learning environments that are more motivating. While a considerable amount of research in Saudi Arabia has been based on students' perceptions, few studies have been conducted in live classrooms. This study fills this gap by investigating the use of smartphone-mediated TBLT with 72 Saudi female learners in reading classrooms and by adopting a mixed methods design involving mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) tasks in which self-determination theory (SDT) was used to explore learner motivation. The participants involved three groups of EFL students at a Saudi university in which one group was taught using the traditional Presentation-Practise-Production (PPP) method, the second with a task-based approach, and the third using a set of mobile tasks that were designed for this study. Data were collected using pre-tests and post-tests, observations, questionnaires and focus groups. Results showed that the experimental group scored significantly higher in terms of achievement, attention, participation, and volunteering, while students in the mobile group also identified aspects of mobile tasks that contributed to their motivation and revealed positive attitudes towards the reading course.

Keywords: computer-assisted language learning; learner motivation; mobile-assisted language learning; reading; technology-mediated language learning

Introduction

It is still typical for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in the Middle East to be characterised as teacher-centred (Alrabai, 2016), focused on in-class learning in which there are few opportunities for practising the language outside formal learning contexts. In Saudi Arabia, classes are not only characterised by teacher dominance, but also by a focus on content delivery (Al-Seghayer, 2014) in which teachers are burdened with the responsibility for delivering knowledge to often undermotivated learners. Examining research on the four skills more closely in the Saudi context reveals that no studies on reading have explored how learner motivation and performance may be improved in this context.

In recent years the use of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) approaches have emerged as potential solutions to low levels of engagement with reading in EFL classrooms. While a growing number of studies have investigated the use of mobile technologies (Li & Hegelheimer, 2013; Ushioda, 2013), the use of smartphones has been under-theorized in relation to reading skills and teachers still need to know more about the extent to which these devices may make a difference from a motivational point of view. Ushioda (2013) suggested that it is better if learners are given freedom in terms of the types of tasks they can use and how much they wish to engage with mobile technologies when learning a language. Given the continued relevance of Ushioda's comments to more recent MALL research in mostly western higher education contexts (Burston & Athanasiou, 2019), the originality of this experimental study derives a) from its comparison of three groups of female Saudi EFL learners involving the use of in-class structured TBLT-informed tasks and smartphones, and b) the use of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) to explore the motivation of the learners. The purpose of the study was also to examine the under-researched area of Saudi female students' motivation in reading classrooms by addressing the following two questions:

1. How did the use of smartphone tasks affect students' perceived and actual achievement in reading?
2. What are the effects of using smartphone tasks on students' motivational behaviour in reading classes?

Literature Review

Motivation and Self-Determination Theory

Learner motivation is a complex phenomenon consisting of components that make it challenging to conceptualise and measure. One important choice that L2 researchers face relates to the specific aspects of motivation they are attempting to capture (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Schunk, Pintrich and Meece (2008) discussed four indexes of motivation drawn from students' behaviour in order to address this challenge. The first involved the choice of task, as the type chosen by students was a good indicator of their motivation. Effort also provided strong evidence of motivation as when students invested more in a difficult task, they tended to be highly motivated. Persistence in task engagement, tackling obstacles and achievement were other indices of higher motivation.

Developed by Deci and Ryan (1985; 1991; 2002), self-determination theory (SDT) is still considered one of the most influential approaches in motivational psychology and education. In their computer-assisted language learning (CALL) study, Tran, Warschauer, and Conley (2013) applied SDT to the use of mobile devices and students' intrinsic motivation, identifying how the portable features of handheld devices enabled them to discuss three key aspects of self-determination, namely, autonomy, competence, and relatedness. *Competence* was defined as the need to develop key skills to gain confidence (Ryan & Deci, 2002). *Autonomy* is an important factor in that students will feel intrinsically motivated and have a strong desire to face challenges if their teacher supports their need for greater independence (Deci et al., 1991). Tran et al. (2013) also states that because mobile phone applications are easy to use, learners become potentially more autonomous as they can decide when and how to interact with the device. *Relatedness* refers to how students who are intrinsically motivated develop a sense of belongingness that makes them feel respected by their teacher and student peers (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Early research suggested that the integration of the internet in mobile devices provided significant opportunities for social interactions and offered them a larger audience for collaboration (Warschauer, 1997), an argument that has been substantiated by more recent studies which indicate that writing for an audience, as in the case of blogging or fan fiction, can increase students' interest in L2 reading and writing (Sauro & Sundmark, 2019).

Technology-mediated TBLT

As learners have increasingly defined the effectiveness of EFL instruction in terms of pedagogical approaches that encourage communicative language use (Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020), over the last decade there has been an increasing interest in the use of TBLT in the Middle East (Lenchuk & Ahmed, 2020). While definitions of tasks have multiplied, a task is typically identified as a meaning-based activity that aims to present learners with an opportunity to use the target language and solve a problem such as they would find in the real-world. Several misconceptions of TBLT persist, however, most notably the idea that it can engage learners with authentic tasks, be used with all four skills, or in different cultures such as the Middle East or Asia. Developing from research by Van den Branden (2006), Van den Branden, Verhelst and Van Gorp (2007) and González-Lloret and Ortega (2014), several studies have discussed the potential of digital technologies to overcome these obstacles to authenticity and help students to utilise digitally-mediated communication to aid collaborative problem-solving through the use of tasks and/or projects (Nanni & Pusey, 2020). Solares (2014) conducted a notable study in the field involving an EFL classroom with three groups in which the first group engaged in technology-mediated task-based instructional design, the second group underwent the same design but without the use of technology, and the third group used textbooks and did not implement the task-based design or use technology. The results showed no difference in linguistic gains among the groups, but students in the first group reported developing new digital competencies, and both groups held positive perceptions towards task components and technology use.

A study by Sarhandi, Bajnaid, and Elyas (2017) involved Saudi undergraduate EFL learners using paper-based and smartphone-based tasks to identify differences in motivation and achievement. The participants were found to be highly motivated to engage in the mobile tasks and scored higher results in language tests compared to the control group. However, since both groups used the same tasks with a different delivery method, the researchers attributed the success of this method to the ‘escape from routine’ element.

The challenge facing researchers is how to integrate these two approaches effectively (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). Previous research suggests that technology can play a role in minimising students’ fear of failure, raise their motivation to be meaningful and creative, and enable them to practise their language with other speakers worldwide. It is vital, then, to consider the use of technology to mediate tasks, not merely as a vehicle to deliver them. As

such, the above review has clearly identified a gap in studies of Saudi learners that seek to combine TBLT with a mobile learning approach that is learner-centred.

Methodology

Participants

This primarily experimental study used quantitative and complementary qualitative data collection tools to capture university students' motivation in a Saudi EFL classroom over a period of six weeks and included a total of 20 hours of class reading time. The three classes were intact groups of female learners undertaking mandatory general English courses provided by an English Language Institute (ELI), and all the participants were aged between 18 and 19 ($n = 72$). The sample consisted of three groups:

- a) PPP Group (24 students):** the control group, which was taught using regular classroom strategies approved by ELI and the approved student textbook;
- b) TBLT Group (25 students):** the first experimental group, which was taught using the task-based approach and the print version of the MTBLT group tasks;
- c) MTBLT Group (23 students):** the second experimental group, which was taught using mobile-based tasks designed for this study.

Procedures

In line with SDT, reading materials were designed to provide a choice of tasks (autonomy), instant feedback (competence), and collaborative activities (relatedness). Socrative and Padlet mobile applications were used to carry out the tasks for the MTBLT group. The first app, Socrative Teacher, allowed teachers to design short quizzes through the use of pictures and videos (see Figure 1.).

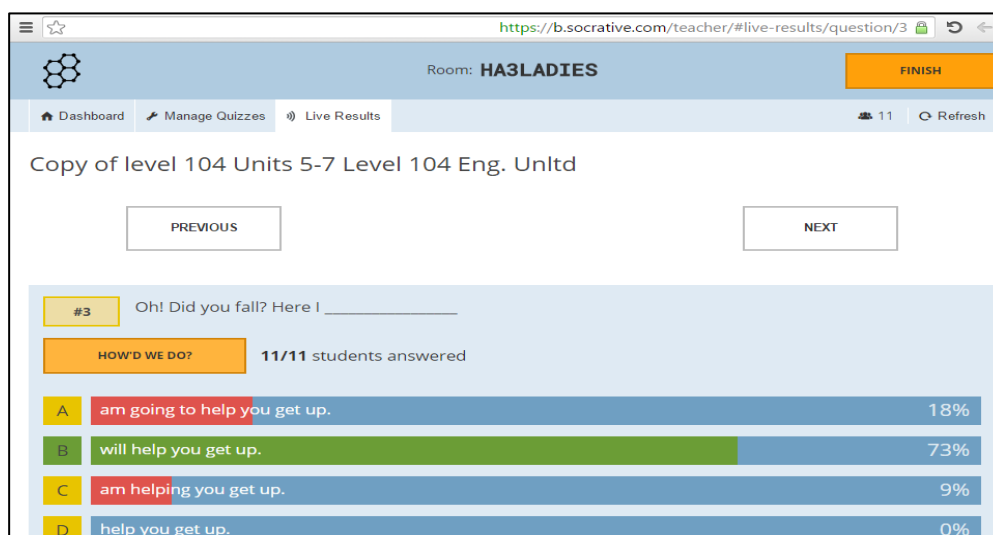


Figure 1. Screenshot of Socrative student app during the main task

Padlet was used to conduct the lesson's post-task due to its bulletin board functionality (e.g., it could easily display text, pictures and web links and was mainly used for collaborative work among students during this phase). After forming groups, students entered the Padlet board, read a story, added an appropriate ending, and then read and commented on the other groups' work (see Figure 2.).

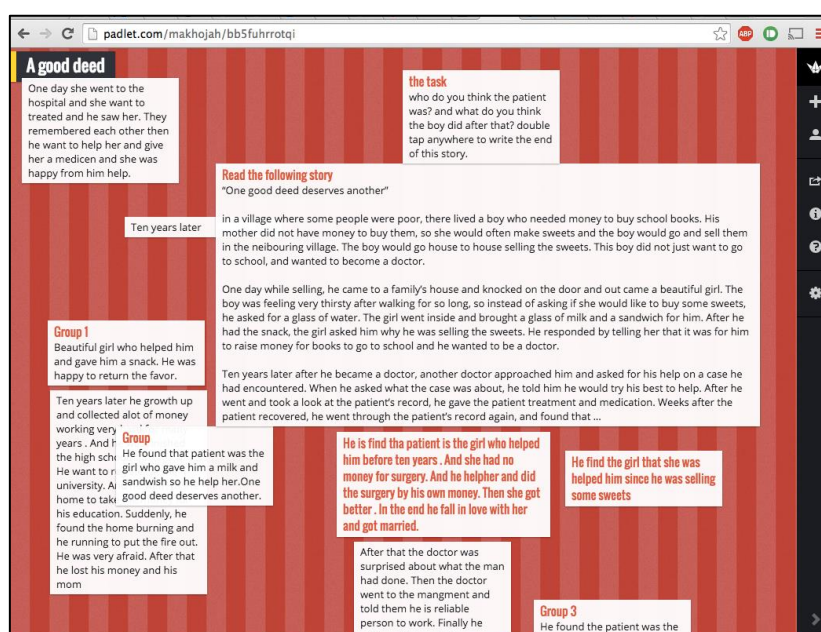


Figure 2. Screenshot from Padlet showing a reading activity to write an ending to a story

The PPP group was taught using the class textbook, *English Unlimited*, without the researchers' interference. The MTBLT group engaged in a pre-task to introduce new

vocabulary and a main task with one of the reading passages from the textbook and questions on the Socrative app. Finally, students completed a post-task, using either a second reading passage for which they wrote an appropriate ending on the Padlet app or an online scavenger hunt for which they scanned selected websites to answer questions on Socrative. The TBLT group used a printed version of the MTBLT group's tasks where applicable. The mobile tasks provided students with feedback and collaborative work and sought to engage them through the race mode.

Data Collection

The mixed methods (QUAN → qual) approach used a pre/post-test, a questionnaire, classroom observation and focus groups, and four main aspects of students' motivation were measured. The first involved their language progress from the pre-test to the post-test (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). The other three included motivational behaviour observed during classroom tasks according to Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008), criteria: levels of attention, participation, and volunteering.

A five-point Likert scale questionnaire used some modified items from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) to evaluate students' perceptions of their overall motivation, current teaching method, and mobile tasks and collected quantitative data about the number of students who paid attention in class, participated in tasks, and volunteered to answer the teacher. The focus groups aimed to gather further insights into the current teaching method and mobile tasks. The Socrative app was used to create comprehension questions for students, while the Padlet app was used to allow students to write a conclusion for a story and share it with the class.

Following the completion of a pre-test, sent as a Google form through a link in WhatsApp Messenger, students were observed as they engaged in reading activities for three hours a week. Observations were recorded on an observation sheet relating to how the students completed the targeted tasks. Each classroom was observed for two consecutive hours and one hour on another day each week. After seven weeks, a post-test was conducted during the revision week before the final examinations. On the final day of the module, thirteen volunteers participated in focus groups: five participants from the PPP group, four from the TBLT group, and four from the MTBLT group.

Data Analysis

This research followed Creswell and Clark's (2011) convergent parallel design of mixed methods as summarised in Table 1:

Table 1.

An overview of data collection

Research question	Data source	Method of analysis
(RQ1): How did the use of smartphone tasks affect students' perceived and actual achievement?	Pre-test	Descriptive statistics
	Post-test	Kruskall-Wallis test
	Focus groups	Thematic coding derived from students' comments
	Questionnaire	Thematic analysis
(RQ2): What are the effects of using smartphone tasks on students' motivational behaviour in reading class?	Observation	Mixed ANOVA with LSD multiple comparison
	Questionnaire	Chi-square test
	Focus groups	Thematic analysis

Several statistical procedures were employed to analyse the quantitative data:

- 1- Descriptive statistics: used mean and standard deviation to determine students' motivation and their experience of using task-based mobile learning.
- 2- Inferential testing (e.g., ANOVA and Pearson's r) to address the study's research questions.

The qualitative data (focus groups) followed thematic analysis after rigorous transcribing and translation of the content.

Findings

How did the use of smartphone tasks affect students' perceived and actual achievement in reading?

Pre- and post-tests were conducted to determine if there was an improvement in students' academic achievement with respect to reading and one item from the questionnaire asked students to predict the results of their final examinations for all groups. Mixed ANOVA variance was used to determine if any significant difference existed in achievement between the three groups. Table 2 shows the means and standard deviation of the three groups in the pre- and post-test and Mixed ANOVA results.

Table 2.

Statistics and Mixed ANOVA for pre- and post-test of all groups

Test	PPP Group N= 24	TBLT Group N= 25	MTBLT Group N= 23	<i>p</i> (repeated measures)	<i>p</i> (interaction groups*test)	<i>p</i> (ANOVA)
Pre- test	<i>M</i> = 10.71 <i>SD</i> = 2.99	<i>M</i> = 11.68 <i>SD</i> = 3.17	<i>M</i> = 11.87 <i>SD</i> = 2.40			= .334
				= .003	= .261	
Post- test	<i>M</i> = 10.96 <i>SD</i> = 2.48	<i>M</i> = 12.60 <i>SD</i> = 3.08	<i>M</i> = 13.22 <i>SD</i> = 2.32			= .014

Table 2 shows a highly significant difference between pre- and post-test ($p = .003$) and effect size (η^2) = .112, indicating that an 11.2% variation change in scores was due to the post-tests. There was significant interaction between time (pre- and post-test) and the control group, task-based groups, and the mobile group ($p = .261$), effect size (η^2) = .038. However, the mobile group showed a slight increase in achievement, and the TBLT started higher than PPP, lower than MTBLT, but then increased in the post-test. In the pre-test the three groups had the same mean score ($p = .334$). In contrast, students' post-test performance was statistically different between the three groups ($p = .028$), with an effect size (η^2) = .12. As expected, no post-hoc comparison of groups pre-test performance was significant but there were significant differences in post-test performance ($p_s < .05$) between: a) the PPP and TBLT groups, and b) the MTBLT and TBLT groups (see Table 3.)

Table 3.

LSD comparison tests between the three groups (effect sizes stated as d_s)

	<i>p</i>	Effect size	<i>p</i>	Effect size
PPP vs. TBLT	= .242	.31	= .034	= .59
PPP vs. MTBLT	= .172	.28	= .005	= .94
MTBLT vs. TBLT	= .821	.51	= .424	= .22

Figure 3 shows improvement in the mobile group's achievement, but also how each group had different average levels.

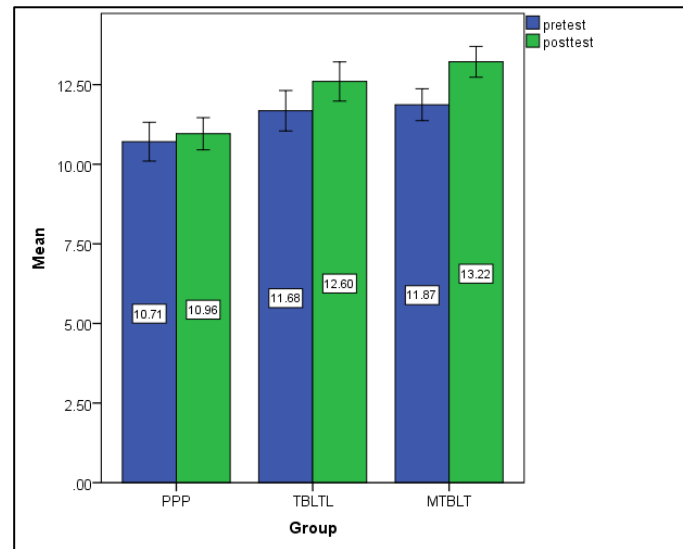


Figure 3. Means bar chart of the three groups in the pre-test and post-test

In order to investigate this further, a paired samples t-test was computed for each group to measure the difference in each pre- and post-test performance (see Table 4).

Table 4.

Paired-sample t-tests between the three groups

Test	PPP	TBLT	MTBLT
pre vs. post	$p=.65$	$p=.02$	$p=.009$

The results for the PPP group were not significant ($p = .65$) for the pre-test ($M = 10.71$, $SD = 2.99$) and the post-test ($M = 10.96$, $SD = 2.48$) conditions. In contrast, the results for the TBLT group showed significance ($p = .02$) and post-test achievements ($M = 12.6$, $SD = 3.08$) compared to the pre-test ($M = 11.68$, $SD = 3.17$) conditions. Also, MTBLT group results revealed a significant difference ($p = .009$) in achievement for the post-test ($M = 13.21$, $SD = 2.35$) compared to pre-test conditions ($M = 11.86$, $SD = 2.39$). Generally, although both TBLT and MTBLT showed significant post-test achievement, the MTBLT resulted in more significant achievement.

Perceived Achievement

Item 18 in the questionnaire asked students to rate the following statement: “I think I will get better grades this semester”. Student responses followed the five-point Likert Scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, I do not know).

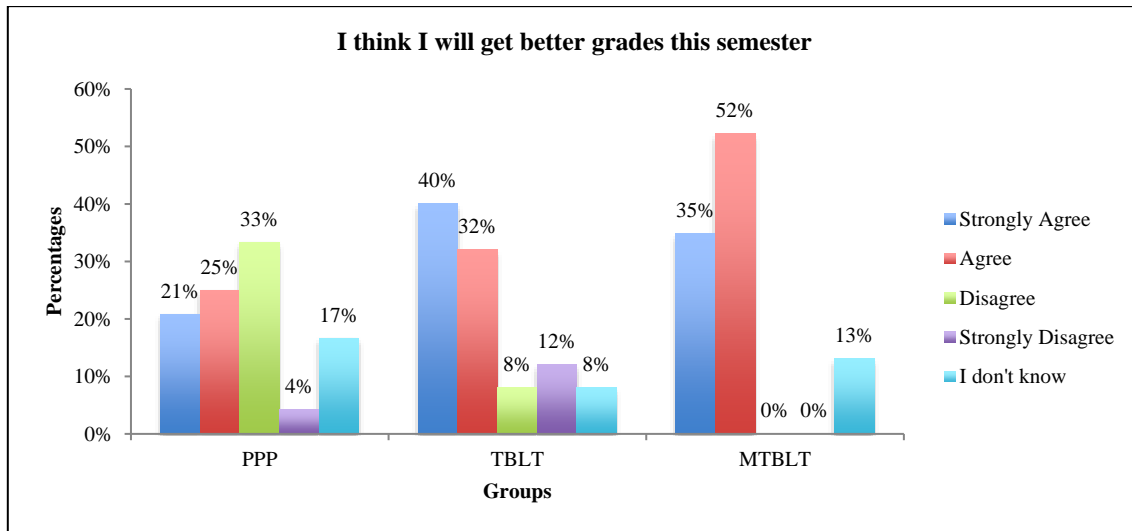


Figure 4. *Percentages of students' responses to questionnaire item (18) on perceived achievement*

Figure 4 shows that the MTBLT group was the most confident in their reading examination improvement, with 52% agreeing and 35% strongly agreeing with the statement. There was no disagreement in the MTBLT group. The TBLT group was second in confidence, with 40% agreeing and 32% strongly agreeing. The least confident was the PPP group, with 33% disagreeing that they would achieve better grades, and 17% who did not know.

To investigate the relationship between students' perceived and actual achievement, the study compared students' actual achievement (pre-test and post-test) and the questionnaire item taken at the end of the study (“I think I will get better grades this semester”). Based on the data there was a small, but not significant, correlation between the perceived and actual achievement for the PPP group, with $r = .271$ and $p = .200$. It also showed no relationship for the MTBLT group, with $r = .169$ and $p = .440$. However, there was a negative relationship between the TBLT group's perceived and actual achievement ($r = .094$), but it was not significant ($p = .665$). Table 5 shows the means and standard deviation of all the groups' perceived and actual achievements.

Table 5.

Descriptive statistics of the three groups' perceived and actual achievement

Group		Mean	SD	$r(p)$
PPP	Perceived	2.70	1.30	= .271 (.200)
	Actual	.25	2.70	
TBLT	Perceived	2.28	1.33	= .038 (.857)
	Actual	.92	1.84	
MTBLY	Perceived	1.61	.723	= .169 (.440)
	Actual	.833	2.30	

It is important to explain why students in the MTBLT group progressed significantly in reading by drawing evidence from the students themselves. Students from the MTBLT focus group thought that mobile tasks helped them remember vocabulary better than the textbook. One student said, “I really benefited from mobile tasks. I remember grammar and vocabulary better” (MTBLT-3), to which another student replied, “I agree. I remember things more when using my phone” (MTBLT-4). A third student was asked how she believed mobile tasks affected her: “It matters. The information lingers in our minds when we use phones, I think” (MTBLT-2).

The next section turns to findings pertinent to the second research question before analysing them in more detail in the discussion section which concludes the paper.

What are the effects of using smartphone tasks on students' motivational behaviour in reading classes?

To determine the impact of using different teaching methods on students' behaviour, data were collected during classroom observations and questionnaires for each group. The overall motivational aspects (e.g., attention, participation, volunteering) of every hour of teaching were measured by summarising three tasks for each motivational aspect for each hour, divided by the number of tasks (3) (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Table 6 shows the overall mean and median for each group, which gives a basic understanding of the differences in motivational behaviour related to different approaches of language teaching.

The results showed that the students in MTBLT and TBLT groups paid more attention (mean = 2.63, 2.90, median = 3.00, 3.00) compared to the PPP group (mean = 1.97, median = 2.00), as shown in Table 6 and Figure 3. There was a highly significant difference ($p < .001$) in attention. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was detected between PPP-TBLT ($p < .001$) and PPP-MTBLT ($p < .001$), while there was no significant difference between TBLT-MTBLT ($p = .357$).

Table 6.

Overall attention, participation, and volunteering for the three groups over 20 hours

		Group			Kruskall Wallis (<i>p</i>)	Pairwise comparisons (<i>p</i>)
		PPP	TBLT	MTBLT		
Attention	Mean	1.97	2.63	2.90	<.001	PPP-TBLT (<.001)
	Median	2.00	3.00	3.00		PPP-MTBLT (<.001) TBLT-MTBLT (.357)
Participation	Mean	1.50	2.35	2.92	<.001	PPP-TBLT (<.001)
	Median	1.50	2.00	3.00		PPP-MTBLT (<.001) TBLT-MTBLT (.025)
Volunteering	Mean	1.37	2.47	2.77	<.001	PPP-TBLT (<.001)
	Median	1.33	2.33	2.67		PPP-MTBLT (<.001) TBLT-MTBLT (.446)

In terms of participation, the data show that the MTBLT groups scored higher (mean = 2.92, median = 3) compared to TBLT (mean = 2.35, median = 2) and PPP (mean = 1.50, median = 1.50) groups, as seen in Table 5 and Figure 5. There was a significant difference ($p < .001$) in participation. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-TBLT ($p < .001$), PPP-MTBLT ($p < .001$), and TBLT-MTBLT ($p = .025$). Therefore, MTBLT had the highest rate of attention, followed by TBLT and PPP groups, respectively.

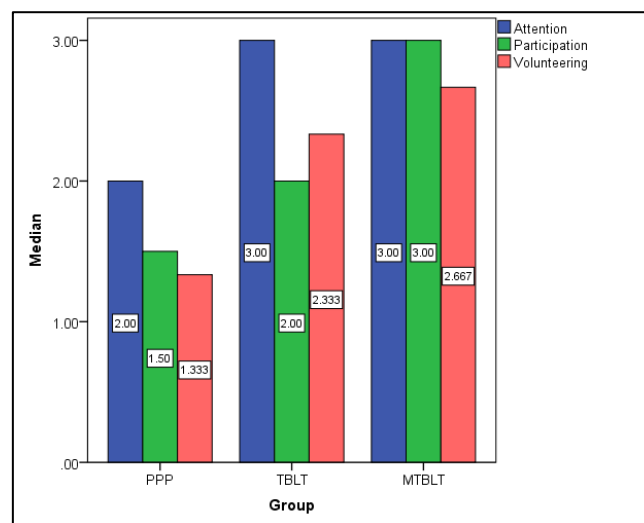


Figure 5. *Median scores for the three motivational aspects between the three groups*

Regarding the rates of volunteering, there was not much difference between MTBLT (mean = 2.77, median = 2.67) and TBLT (mean = 2.47, median = 2.33) groups, although the PPP group had a low volunteering score (mean = 1.37, median = 1.33), as seen in Table 6 and Figure 5. There was a highly significant difference ($p < .001$) in volunteering. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-TBLT ($p < .001$) and PPP-MTBLT ($p < .001$), although there was no difference between TBLT-MTBLT ($p = .446$). Therefore, MTBLT and TBLT groups showed a greater volunteering attitude than did the PPP groups.

Effects on Students' Attention

Variable attention is defined in this study as students watching and following the teacher's movement, making physical responses to the teacher or other students, and watching what is being said and done in the class. On the observation sheet, low attention levels scored one when the teacher called on students for not following her. Medium attention levels were assigned to the task when one-third or half of the students seemed to be paying attention, and high attention levels were scored three if more than half the students appeared attentive.

The results of attention levels for task 1 show that the medium attention was the highest in the PPP group (60%), while high attention was highest in the MTBLT group (85%), followed by the TBLT group (55%), as shown in Figure 6 and Table 7. As a result, the relationship between task 1 and learning groups was significant (Fisher's exact was $\chi^2(4) = 21.33, p < .001$).

Table 7.

Crosstabulation statistics of attention levels for the tasks between groups

Attention			Group			χ^2 (4)
			PPP	TBLT	MTBLT	
Task 1	low	Count	5	1	0	$= 21.33, p < .001$
		% within Group	25.0%	5.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	12	8	3	
		% within Group	60.0%	40.0%	15.0%	
	high	Count	3	11	17	
		% within Group	15.0%	55.0%	85.0%	
Task 2	low	Count	3	0	0	$= 28.76, p < .001$
		% within Group	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	14	7	1	
		% within Group	70.0%	35.0%	5.0%	
	high	Count	3	13	19	
		% within Group	15.0%	65.0%	95.0%	
Task 3	low	Count	3	0	0	$= 26.53, p < .001$
		% within Group	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	14	5	2	
		% within Group	70.0%	25.0%	10.0%	
	high	Count	3	15	18	
		% within Group	15.0%	75.0%	90.0%	
Overall attention	low	Count	3	0	0	$= 32.79, p < .001$
		% within Group	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	15	7	1	
		% within Group	75.0%	35.0%	5.0%	
	high	Count	2	13	19	
		% within Group	10.0%	65.0%	95.0%	

The same test was applied for the main task, task 2, to rate attention for all groups during the 20 hours of teaching. Similar to task 1, the medium attention was highest for the PPP group (70%), while high attention was highest for the MTBLT group (95%), followed by the TBLT group (65%), as seen in Figure 6 and Table 7. The results were also significant using Fisher's exact $\chi^2 (4) = 28.76, p < .001$. Also, the test for the post-task's (task 3) attention level across time between the PPP, TBLT and MTBLT groups also showed that the medium attention was highest for the PPP group (70%) and high attention was highest for the MTBLT group (90%), followed by the TBLT group (75%), as seen in Figure 6 and Table 7. The result of the relationship using Fisher's exact $\chi^2 (4) = 26.53, p < .001$ was highly significant and similar to the main task's attention levels in the previous results.

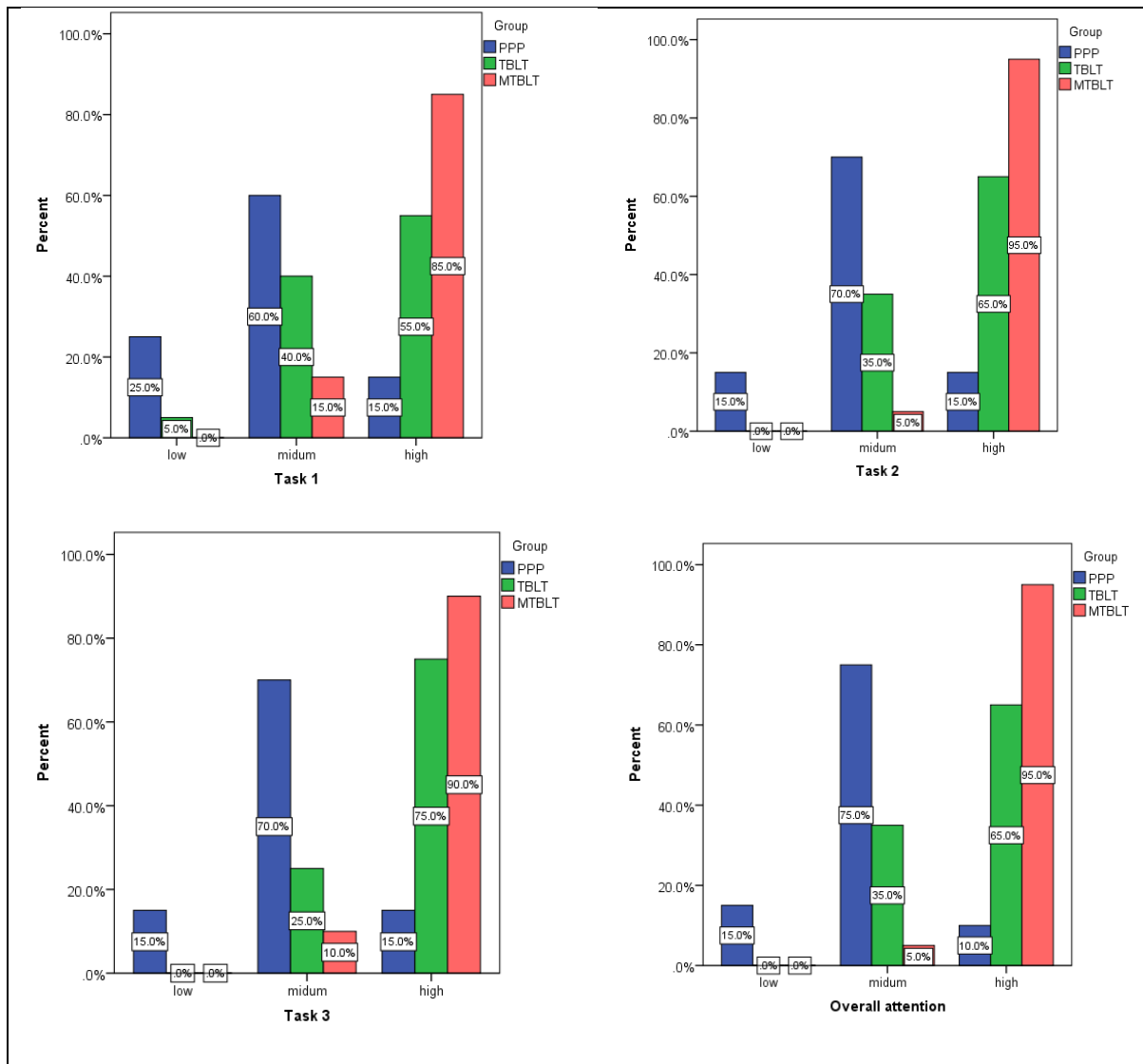


Figure 6. *Distribution of students' observed attention for all groups*

For overall attention, the highest percentage of medium attention (75%) was seen for the PPP group, while the high attention was very high in the MTBLT group (95%), as shown in Figure 6 and Table 7. The majority of the TBLT group (65%) showed high attention. Since Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 26.53, p < .001$, there was a very highly significant relationship between the attention levels and learning groups. Generally, for all three tasks, the low and medium percentage of the PPP group was higher than the other groups. In contrast, for high attention, the MTBLT group was higher than the TBLT group and much higher than the PPP group.

As for students' perceived attention, one item in the questionnaire (item 16) asked if students agreed with the following statement: "I usually pay attention to what the teacher is saying in the reading classroom". Figure 7 compares the responses of all groups.

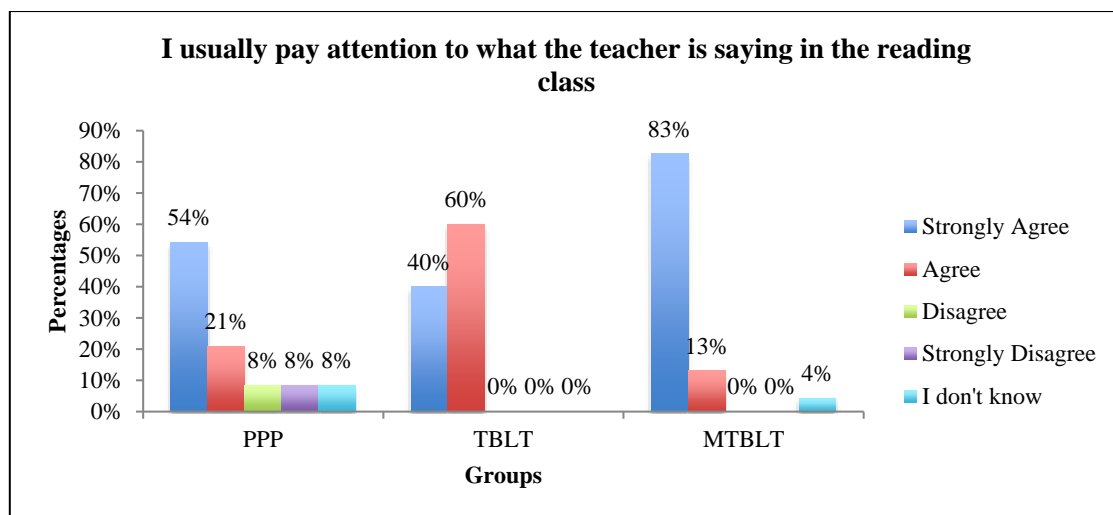


Figure 7. Percentages of all groups' responses to questionnaire item 16 on perceived attention

Figure 7 shows that the majority of students in the PPP group (54%) strongly agreed that they pay attention to the reading class. The TBLT students also agreed with that statement, with 60% agreeing and 40% strongly agreeing. Notably, the MTBLT group strongly agreed the most (83%) and the TBLT group all either agreed or strongly agreed, but the PPP group disagreed (8%) and strongly disagreed (8%), with 8% who did not know.

Effects on Students' Participation

The variable of participation measured how students interacted with the tasks and actively worked on assignments. Low levels of participation were scored with one on the observation sheet, meaning that few students were participating. Medium levels were assigned a two on the observation sheet, meaning that one-third or half the students were engaging in the task. High levels achieving a score of three meant that more than half the students participated in the activity.

For the results of participation levels for task 1, medium participation was highest for the TBLT group (70%) followed by the PPP group (65%), as seen in Table 8 and Figure 8. In contrast, high participation was highest for the MTBLT group (90%). As a result, the relationship between participation level (task 1) and learning groups was significant, as the Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 44.24, p < .001$.

Table 8.

Crosstabulation statistics of participation levels for the tasks between groups

Participation		Group			χ^2 (4)
		PPP	TBLT	MTBLT	
Task 1	Low	Count	7	0	$= 44.24, p < .001$
		% within Group	35.0%	0.0%	
	Medium	Count	13	14	
		% within Group	65.0%	70.0%	
	High	Count	0	6	
		% within Group	0.0%	30.0%	
Task 2	Low	Count	9	1	$= 46.16, p < .001$
		% within Group	45.0%	5.0%	
	Medium	Count	11	11	
		% within Group	55.0%	55.0%	
	High	Count	0	8	
		% within Group	0.0%	40.0%	
Task 3	Low	Count	15	1	$= 46.56, p < .001$
		% within Group	75.0%	5.0%	
	Medium	Count	4	10	
		% within Group	20.0%	50.0%	
	High	Count	1	9	
		% within Group	5.0%	45.0%	
Overall	Low	Count	10	1	$= 47.35, p < .001$
		% within Group	50.0%	5.0%	
	Medium	Count	10	11	
		% within Group	50.0%	55.0%	
	High	Count	0	8	
		% within Group	0.0%	40.0%	

Similar to task 1, task 2 (medium participation) was the highest for PPP (55%) and MTBLT (55%) groups compared to the TBLT group (10%), as seen in Figure 8 and Table 8. High participation was the greatest for the MTBLT group (90%), followed by the TBLT group (65%). Low participation was much higher for the PPP group (45%) compared to the MTBLT (5%) and TBLT (0%) groups. The relationship between the groups and the medium participation (task 2) level using Fisher's exact χ^2 (4) = 46.16, $p < .001$ was very highly

significant. Also, the test for the post-task (task 3) participation level across time between the PPP, TBLT, and MTBLT groups showed that low participation was the highest for the PPP group (75%), while high attention was the highest for the MTBLT group (90%), followed by the TBLT group (40%), as seen in Figure 8 and Table 8. The relationship between the groups and the post-task (task 3) participation level using Fisher's exact $\chi^2 (4) = 46.56, p < .001$ was very highly significant.

The highest percentage of overall medium participation (55%) was in the TBLT group, while high participation was very high in the MTBLT group (95%), as seen in Figure 8 and Table 8. Half of the TBLT group showed low participation (50%) and the other half showed (50%) medium participation. Since Fisher's exact $\chi^2 (4) = 4.35, p < .001$, there was a very highly significant relationship between participation levels and the three learning groups. Generally, with respect to low and medium participation among the three tasks, the PPP group's percentage was higher than the other groups. In contrast, the MTBLT group was much higher than the TBLT and PPP group.

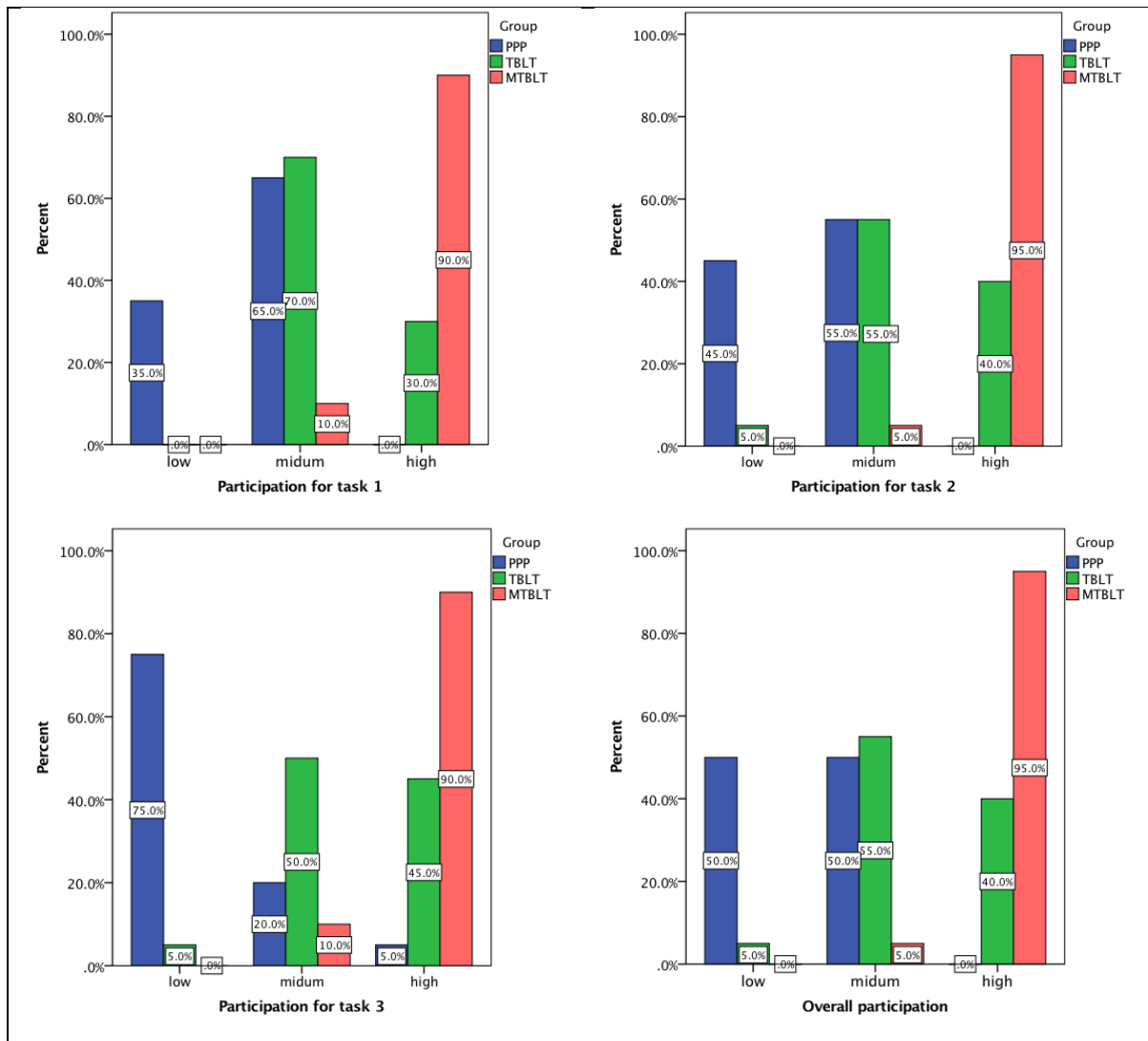


Figure 8. *Distribution of students' observed participation for all groups*

For students' perceived participation, item 13 in the questionnaire asked if students agreed with the following statement: "I usually participate in reading activities". Students' responses in all three groups are shown in Figure 9.

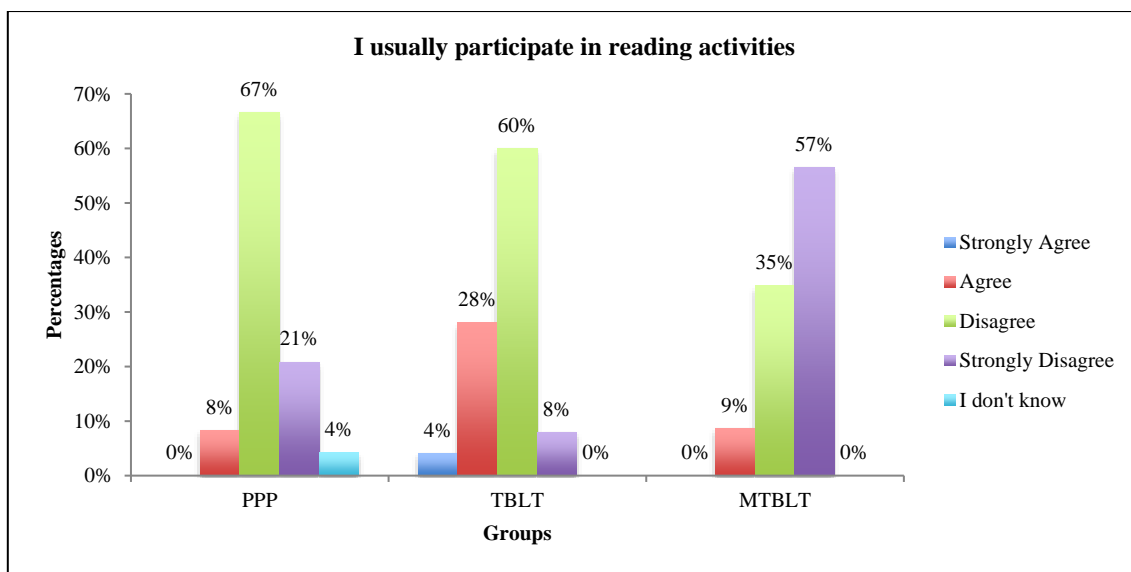


Figure 9. Percentages of all groups' responses to questionnaire item (13) on perceived participation

Figure 9 shows that the MTBLT group had strong opinions about classroom participation, with 57% of students not usually taking part in classroom activities. Sixty-seven per cent of the PPP group and 60% of the MTBLT group also disagreed with the statement, but their attitude was not as confident as that of the MTBLT students.

Another questionnaire item (12) asked students if they agreed with the following statement: "I do not like to participate because I am afraid that I will look stupid if I answer incorrectly". Figure 10 gives insight into one possible cause of poor participation among the three groups.

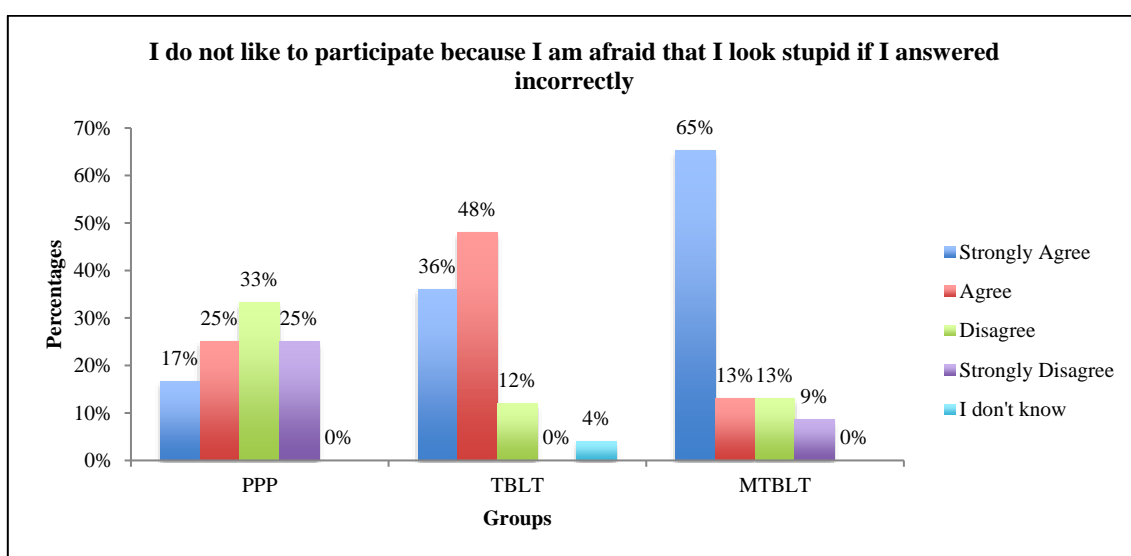


Figure 10. All groups' responses to questionnaire item (12) on perceived participation

According to Figure 10, 65% of the MTBLT group strongly agreed that they did not like participating in reading tasks because they were afraid of embarrassment, with only 13% disagreeing with the statement. The TBLT group strongly agreed, but only 36% and the majority (48%) agreed. The majority of the PPP group, however, disagreed (33%) and strongly disagreed (25%). The PPP group had equal and opposite responses to this statement, with 25% agreeing and 25% disagreeing.

The questionnaire items asked the students about their ‘usual’ behaviour in the classroom, meaning that this kind of behaviour might not be the case for every task. When students experience different or “unusual” styles of teaching, they might produce different responses. The MTBLT students strongly agreed that they did not participate in the classroom (57%), but provided different results in response to the use of mobile tasks, as shown in Figure 11.

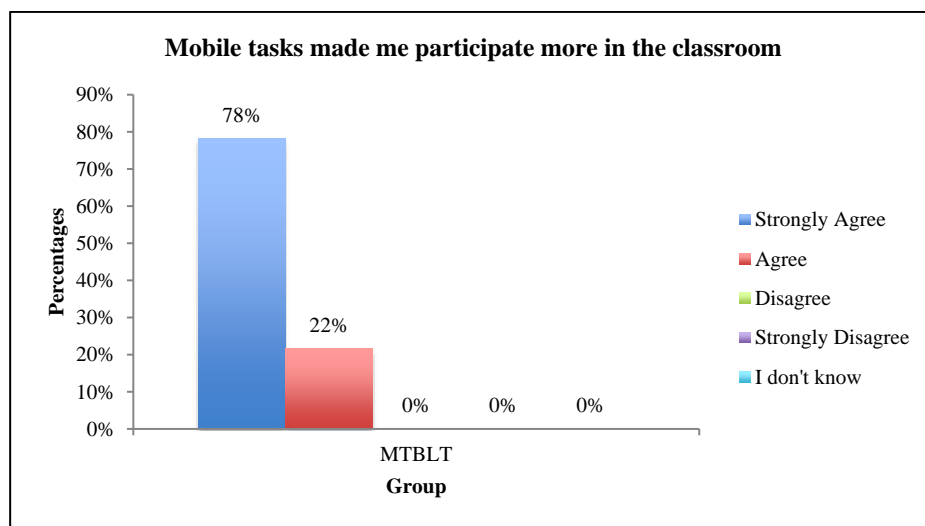


Figure 11. *Percentages of MTBLT group responses to questionnaire item (19) on perceived participation*

According to Figure 11, 78% of the MTBLT group strongly agreed that mobile tasks positively affected classroom participation, and the other 22% only agreed with the statement.

Effects on Students' Volunteering

Volunteering related to the extent to which students willingly answered questions or joined in a task without being coerced by the teacher. Low volunteering levels for task 1 were highest for the PPP group (75%), with 0% for the MTBLT and TBLT groups, as shown in Table 9 and Figure 12. In contrast, medium (65%) and high (80%) volunteering was highest in the MTBLT group. As a result, the relationship between volunteering levels in task 1 and learning groups was significant as the Fisher's exact $\chi^2 (4) = 52.07, p < .001$.

Similar to task 1, task 2 (low and medium volunteering 2) levels were higher for PPP (50%) and TBLT (55%) groups compared to the MTBLT group (30%), as seen in Figure 12 and Table 9. High volunteering was the highest for the MTBLT group (70%), followed by TBLT group (65%). Low volunteering was much higher for the PPP group (50%), with 0% for the MTBLT and TBLT groups. The relationship between the groups and the medium volunteering (task 2) level using Fisher's exact $\chi^2 (4) = 35.23, p < .001$ was highly significant.

Table 9.

Crosstabulation statistics of volunteering levels for the tasks between groups

Volunteering			Group			$\chi^2 (4) =$
			PPP	TBLT	MTBLT	
Task 1	Low	.1.1 Count	15	0	0	$= 52.07, p < .001$
		% within Group	75.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	.1.2 Count	5	13	4	$= 35.23, p < .001$
		% within Group	25.0%	65.0%	20.0%	
	high	Count	0	7	16	
		% within Group	0.0%	35.0%	80.0%	
Task 2	Low	Count	20	0	0	$= 41.20, p < .001$
		% within Group	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	10	11	6	
		% within Group	50.0%	55.0%	30.0%	
	high	Count	0	9	14	
		% within Group	0.0%	45.0%	70.0%	
Task 3	Low	Count	20	20	20	$= 41.20, p < .001$
		% within Group	65.0%	5.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	7	6	4	
		% within Group	35.0%	30.0%	20.0%	
	high	Count	0	13	16	
		% within Group	0.0%	45.0%	70.0%	

		% within Group	0.0%	65.0%	80.0%	= 47.90, p < .001
Overall	Low	Count	13	0	0	
		% within Group	65.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	7	11	3	
		% within Group	35.0%	55.0%	15.0%	
	high	Count	0	9	17	
		% within Group	0.0%	45.0%	85.0%	

The post-task's (Task 3) volunteering level across time among the PPP, TBLT and MTBLT groups showed that low volunteering was highest for the PPP group (65%), while high attention was the highest for the MTBLT group (80%), followed by the TBLT group (65%), as seen in Figure 12 and Table 9. The relationship between the groups and the post-task (Task 3) volunteering levels using Fisher's exact χ^2 (4) = 41.20, p < .001 was highly significant.

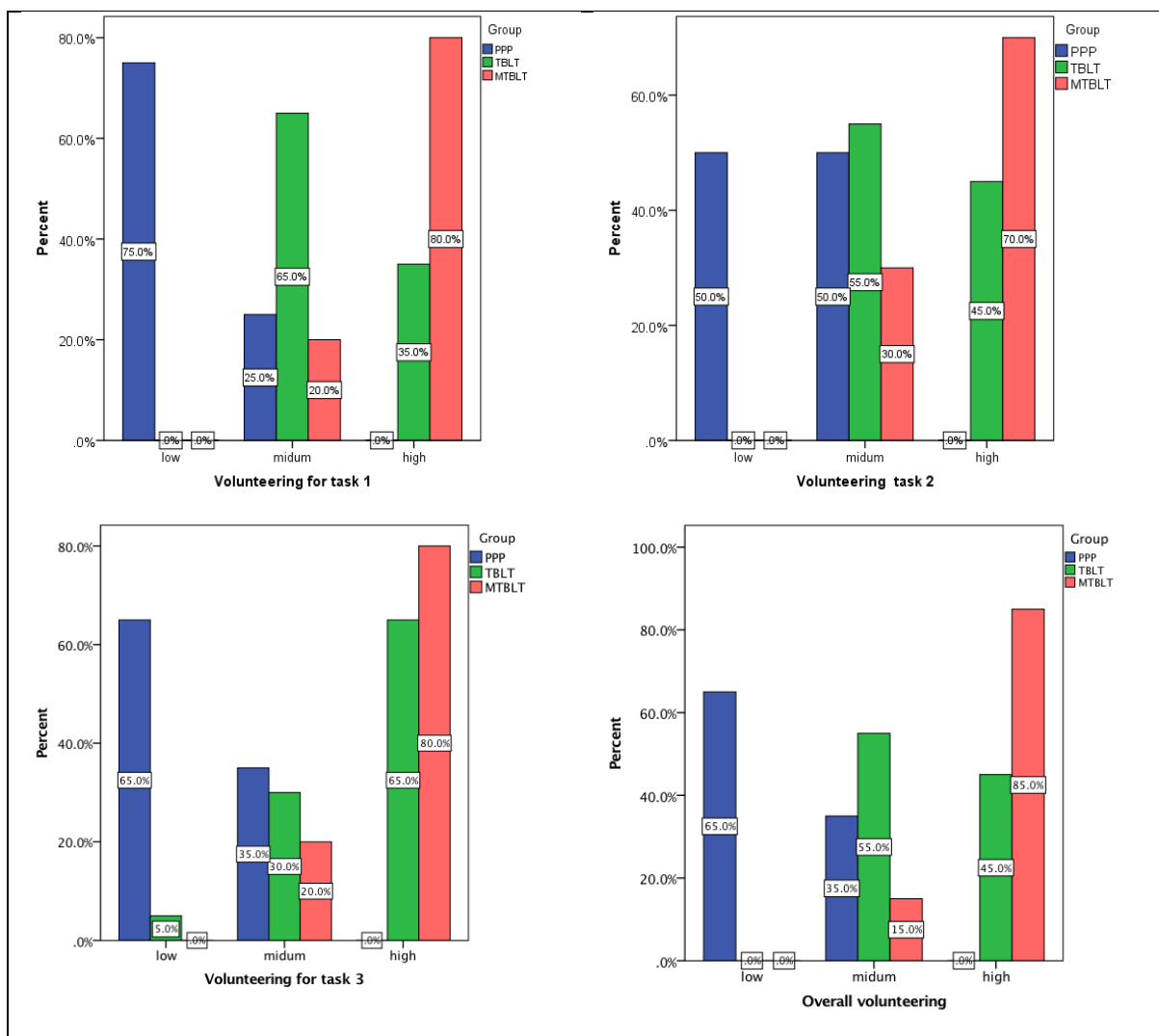


Figure 12. Distribution of volunteering levels for the three groups

For overall volunteering, the highest percentage of low volunteering (65%) was seen for the PPP group, while high volunteering was very high in the MTBLT group (85%), as shown in Figure 12 and Table 9. About a half of the TBLT group showed medium volunteering (55%), and the other half showed (45%) low volunteering. Since Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 47.90$, $p < .001$, there was a very highly significant relationship between the volunteering levels and the three learning groups.

It was noted for the three tasks that the PPP group percentage was higher than the other groups' in low volunteering. In contrast, for high volunteering, the MBLT group percentage was higher than the TBLT group and much higher than the PPP group.

This study rated perceived volunteering by asking the students if they agreed with the following questionnaire item (10): "I often volunteer to answer in reading activities". Students' responses are shown in Figure 13.

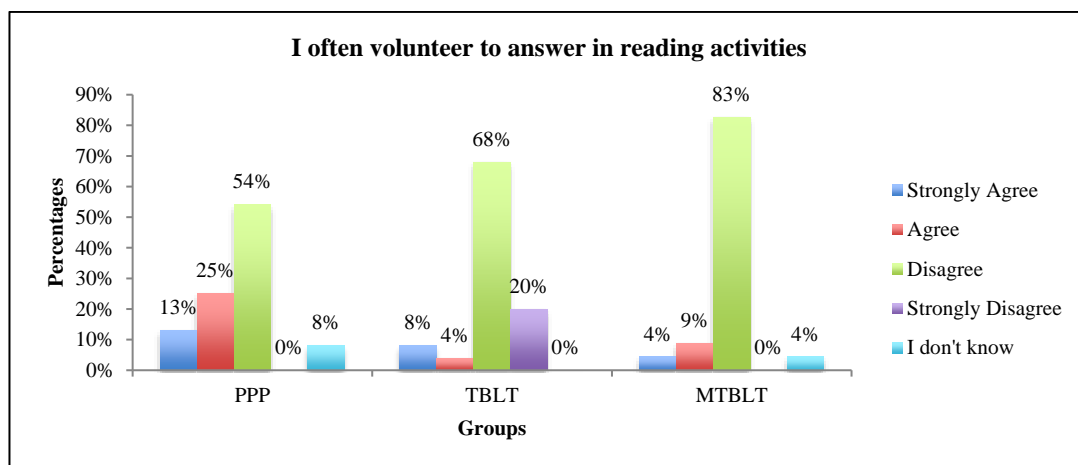


Figure 13. Percentages of all groups' responses to questionnaire item (10) on perceived volunteering

As seen in Figure 13, the majority of students in all groups reported that they did not often volunteer in reading activities. The MTBLT group reported the highest disagreement (83%), the TBLT was second (68%), and the PPP was the lowest (54%). However, 25% of the PPP group participants volunteered in the classroom, and only 9% of the MTBLT group participants thought the same. As with perceived participation from the previous subsection, perceived volunteering was measured using "often" to indicate frequency in all previous reading classes. Since every group was taught differently, the MTBLT group participants were asked to respond to the following statement: "I think I volunteer more when we are using mobile tasks". Figure 14 shows their responses to item 27 in percentages.

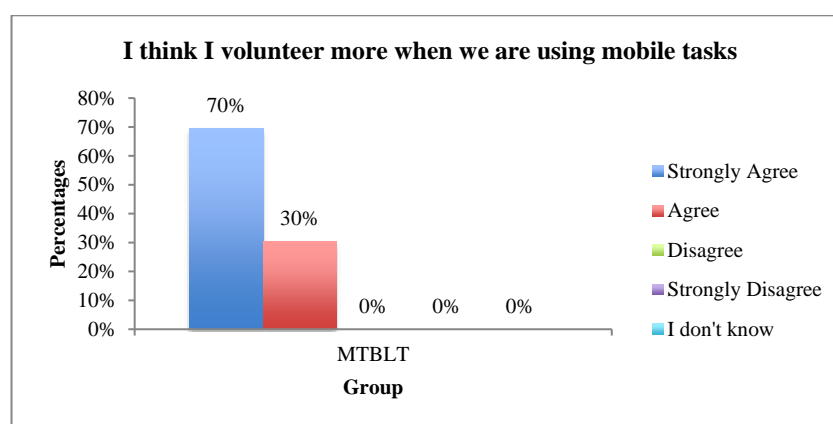


Figure 14. *MTBLT group's perceived volunteering questionnaire item (27) responses (%)*

Figure 13 shows that all students (70% strongly agree, 30% agree) in the MTBLT group reported that mobile tasks encouraged them to volunteer for reading activities. In conclusion, the data on observed volunteering show that the MTBLT group had significantly higher levels of volunteering ($p < .001$) and the PPP group had low levels, with medium levels in the main task. Perceived volunteering results showed that no groups reported volunteering often in the classroom, but the MTBLT group agreed that mobile tasks positively impacted their willingness to volunteer.

Discussion

In this study three groups with different teaching methods undertook the same reading tests before and after the English course, which lasted for seven weeks in total. The data show that the three groups' results were not significant in the pre-test. However, in the post-test, the TBLT and MTBLT groups scored significantly higher than the PPP group, with medium effect size. This is a similar outcome to Oberg and Daniels's (2013) study involving Japanese learners, although in this study the MTBLT group did not have access to any of the reading materials presented to them online as they only used the tasks once during the lesson and were not able to benefit from it afterwards.

There are also similarities with results obtained in Wang's (2017) study of self-paced mobile activities, Ahmed's (2015) study of mobile reading, and Alshumaimeri and Almasri's (2012) research on reading, although in this study, it was not possible to deviate from the textbook entirely. While it is tempting to assume that mobile tasks alone had a direct influence on students' progress, it is important to note the following. First, each classroom had a different teacher, and the role of a teachers' motivational strategies should not be underestimated.

Second, the MTBLT students' might have been influenced by the mobile tasks' stylistic similarity to their regular tasks, which might have helped the mobile tasks prepare students for the test. For example, the reading comprehension questions in the textbooks were open-ended, which required students to read the passage and write or highlight short answers. The mobile tasks (in the pre- and main task) required students to read from their textbooks, then choose the answers on their phones from multiple-choice comprehension questions. ELI's standard reading tests also used computer-based multiple-choice comprehension questions. In other words, the MTBLT group's use of Socrative might have given them the advantage of practising for the final examination using a similar type of task. However, other elements of the mobile tasks may have affected their achievement. Evidence from other findings in this study supports the positive influence of mobile tasks on students when compared to other groups.

Students from the MTBLT focus group thought that mobile tasks helped them remember vocabulary better than the textbook did. This finding aligns with Lai (2016), whose study showed that the mobile group had better vocabulary retention than the textbook-based group. The literature also shows that vocabulary retention is best attained when paired with a picture or additional gloss, which improves vocabulary recognition (Chun, 2006), and the mobile phones provided this.

Another explanation for students' progress in reading could be attributed to their positive attitudes towards their learning experience. The literature shows a correlation between students' perceived motivation and their achievement in language learning (Khan, 2015; Krashen, 1981). In this study, the MTBLT students' perceived achievement showed confidence in achieving better grades in their reading examination, whereas the PPP group students did not think they would do well. The correlation between students' actual and perceived achievement was not significant, a view supported by finding from Ölmez's (2015) research.

In relation to the question on motivation, students' attention in the reading classroom was measured by observing the number of students who appeared to be following what was being said and done around them. The findings suggest that more than half the students in the MTBLT group appeared to pay attention during the pre-task (28%), the main task (32%), and the post-task (30%), and they did significantly better than the other two groups. There is a trend among the three tasks, where attention levels in the pre-task were the lowest among all groups. This might be because this task involved preparing students for new vocabulary or topics. Comparing the observed and perceived attention was not statistically possible, but a pattern was observed emerging from the percentages of all three groups. The MTBLT group had the

highest observed and perceived attention, followed by the TBLT group, then the PPP group. Less than half of the PPP group (10%) paid attention to the activities, whereas 54% strongly agreed that they paid attention. The TBLT group observation indicated that significantly more than half of students (75%) paid attention, and 40% strongly agreed that they paid attention. Lastly, more than half of the MTBLT group (95%) paid attention when observed, and the majority (83%) strongly agreed they were alert during tasks. The MTBLT group was more confident in perceived attention than the other groups, because the majority chose “strongly agree” and only 4% did not know.

When observing students’ participation, it was easier to monitor the MTBLT group’s activities through the Socrative app, which showed how many students were logged onto the App and answering questions on the teacher’s monitor. It was also easier when using Padlet, as students’ writing appeared on the screen. For the PPP and TBLT groups, participation was scored according to how many students were actively writing, reading, and interacting with the class. This result could have implications for language teachers who are afraid that using smartphones in their classrooms might distract them from monitoring students (Al-Seghayer, 2014).

The majority of students in all three groups disagreed that they usually participated in reading activities, with the MTBLT group showing more confidence by choosing “strongly disagree” compared to the other groups’ “disagree”. It could be hypothesized that mobile tasks made the MTBLT students more aware of their actions when comparing themselves in two different teaching settings. This was evident in their perceptions of technology use in reading classrooms, with 78% strongly agreeing that mobile tasks made them more active. In total 67% of the PPP group reported not participating in reading tasks, making them the highest when compared to the TBLT (60%) and the MTBLT (35%) groups.

Volunteering was observed by noting how many students willingly answered questions or engaged in activities. Examples included raising a hand when the teacher asked if someone could spell a certain word or explaining information from the reading passage. When there is lack of or low rates of volunteering, the teacher sometimes coaxed students or called a student by name to contribute. Students in the MTBLT group showed significantly higher volunteering levels than the other groups. In perceived volunteering, students in all groups disagreed with the statement, “I often volunteer to answer in reading classrooms”, with the highest responses from the MTBLT group (83%). However, when those students were asked if they thought mobile tasks helped them volunteer more, 70% of them strongly agreed.

Although to our knowledge no relevant research has investigated attention, participation, and volunteering specifically, some studies have explored students' engagement while using mobile tasks. Results from Sarhandi et al.'s (2017) showed that the experimental group was less distracted from tasks than the control group ($p < 0.01$). The mobile group's qualitative data also showed overall positive behaviour and enthusiasm, and declined engagement from the control group. However, a study by Sarhandi et al. (2017) did not account for achievement, levels of participation and volunteering, or the possible reasons behind students' motivated behaviour. They argued that because the tasks were exactly the same but with different delivery methods (paper-based and mobile-based), the mobile group could have influenced by the novelty of the teaching aid. This could also be the case in this study, but further longitudinal research on this area is required.

The results of Solares' (2014) study, namely, that the mobile group appeared more motivated and positive towards the tasks could also be the case in this study, in that students were motivated to participate in the reading activities because of elements of competition, communication, or feedback. This could also be attributed to the nature of task-based teaching, as in a study by Hakim (2015), in which her participants reported high levels of perceived motivation when using a task-based approach in their EFL classes. This is similar also to Wang's (2017) study in which mobile features positively affected students' achievement and attitudes because the reading content in the mobile tasks was supported by the use of multimedia. In this study, the effects of mobile tasks, the features of the delivery method and the types of tasks used combined to motivate learners' participation, which could in turn have influenced their linguistic gains and achievement. The MTBLT group performed better than the TBLT group in all aspects of perceived and observed motivation, which suggests that the mobile tasks offered more than the TBLT for the other groups.

In summary, the current research aimed to fill a gap in the literature and to extend and deepen our knowledge of the field by investigating how mobile tasks affect specific aspects of EFL learners' motivation in the reading classroom. The majority of students in all groups were not enthusiastic about participating in classroom tasks. On the other hand, students who were taught using TBLT and mobile tasks in reading classes showed a significant difference in their classroom behaviour compared to the PPP group. Additionally, the MTBLT group's students thought their motivational behaviour and attitudes positively changed when they used mobile tasks.

In terms of the second research question, the quantitative findings showed that students in the MTBLT group did better than the other groups in reading achievement, participation, attention, and volunteering. This difference could be attributed to several factors besides the use of mobile tasks. First, the teacher might have had some influence on the learners in terms of motivational strategies. Second, the novelty factor of using technology might have had a role in holding learners' attention. Third, the design of the tasks had slightly similar effects on students' motivational behaviours, as is evident from the TBLT group.

Conclusion

Implications

Exploiting the potential of smartphones can be beneficial for EFL instructors and teachers in reading classrooms, particularly if the tasks are designed to offer students who have a tendency to be passive a choice of reading materials, collaborative engagement, and challenging opportunities. While it is important to provide opportunities for autonomous learning to students, teachers should understand that this does not mean their role is reduced. Balanced tasks that provide choice to the students could be more beneficial to the Saudi learners who are not ready for full autonomous learning. Moreover, teachers who are afraid of not being able to control students while mobile tasks are being used could benefit from using mobile applications like Socrative and Padlet to monitor students' participation.

There are also implications for EFL policy makers and administrators. Firstly, the focus of the learning materials should be on the quality of the curriculum, not the quantity (Al-Nasser, 2015). Providing engaging and authentic activities for students instead of focusing on the quantity of topics and grammar covered in the textbooks could enhance learners' motivation. Reducing the amount of content could help lift the pressure from teachers who are hesitant to incorporate authentic materials and motivating tasks into their lessons. Secondly, teacher-training programs should provide guidance to teachers on how to integrate smartphones in their teaching. Furthermore, this study could benefit teacher-training programmes in Saudi Arabia by supporting teachers with the essential knowledge about how to combine motivational theories with mobile task design. Implications for policy suggest that the curriculum should integrate more meaningful opportunities for students to practise the language with meaningful and stimulating tasks.

Limitations and Future Research

Several limitations of the research are worth identifying. First, this study did not employ a delayed post-test because it was difficult to assemble all the participants after they finished the final module of their course. Second, the data collection tools were designed to explore students' motivation in reading classrooms and did not accommodate all the features of reading. In other words, this study did not examine the effects of mobile tasks on students' vocabulary, comprehension, and phonemic awareness. Third, the findings of this study were limited to female EFL learners only.

Future studies could be undertaken in several areas. First, other areas of language learning (speaking, listening and writing) or integrated skills could be explored. Second, continuing the focus on reading skills, particular reading strategies or skills; i.e. learners' skimming and scanning while reading through the use of the latest eye-tracking technology, is an area worthy of further investigation (Stickler, Smith & Shi, 2016). Third, there is a need for longitudinal studies which investigate the use of mobile tasks over a longer period of time, preferably more than one academic semester (Burston & Athanasiou, 2019). Finally, as this study was limited to female students, future studies should aim to compare male and female students in the Saudi Arabian HE context, preferably triangulating data from several types of higher education institution.

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A Case Study of a Japanese University Study Abroad Program of English in Thailand

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Abstract

According to Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) Policy, the Top Global University Project "aims to enhance the international competitiveness of higher education in Japan. It provides support for world-class and innovative universities that lead the internationalization of Japanese universities" (MEXT, 2017). This mixed methods study examined a Japanese university study abroad program involving one of Japan's Top Global University Project members. Over a two-year period, 68 students participated in a two-week study abroad program of a prestigious Thai public science and technology university to enhance their English language skills and cultural knowledge of Thailand. The researchers examined the program by interviewing teachers and administrators. In addition, pre- and post-English language tests called TETET were administered to gauge the language skill acquisition among the students. The results indicate that the study abroad program has been successful on different levels. First, a paired-sample *t*-test indicated a significant increase of scores on a standard proficiency test. Second, the teacher interviews indicated that the students were successfully engaging the Thai students inside and outside the

class. Finally, on an administrative level, more students are joining the program, and both schools are satisfied with the working relationship.

Key words: *Study abroad program; Top Global University Project; TETET; English language skills; cultural knowledge*

Introduction

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in 2017, there were over 5.3 million international students. Each year that number increases, with the United States being the main destination. Approximately 105,000 Japanese university students go abroad each year to study, primarily in the US (MEXT, 2017). “Study abroad” conjures up a variety of ideas with a particular narrative of students gaining language proficiency and cultural understanding. What is not clear is a definition of study abroad itself. In Japan, schools have a myriad of programs that are labeled as study abroad. Kinginger (2009) defined study abroad as a temporary sojourn of pre-defined duration, undertaken for educational purposes (p. 11). This definition is broad enough to distinguish itself from migration (temporary vs. permanent) and tourism (education vs. leisure), but for research purposes it is still incomplete. Lewin (2009, p. xiv) argued that there has been a proliferation of organizations developing and selling study abroad programs; therefore, the business of study abroad comes at the expense of academic integrity. Although not explicitly stated, one does not have to jump far to conclude that he is alluding to duration. Traditionally, study abroad was viewed as long-term endeavor as inferred by Lewin. As the global economy has grown, so too has the interconnectedness of people. A simple reflection on the development of the transportation and communication industries demonstrates how much easier it has become to travel and communicate worldwide (i.e., globalization).

One trend stemming from globalization in study abroad has been students participating in short-term programs. In Japan, from 2009 to 2017, the number of students participating in study abroad programs for less than a month grew four times, with approximately 70 percent of Japanese university students in 2017 going abroad for less than one month (MEXT, 2017). Referring back to the definition of study abroad, citing the duration is an important point in referencing results. The Japanese government has classified duration into five timespans: less than a month, 1-3 months, 3-6 months, 6-12 months, and longer than a year.

Another trend in Japan is for students to study in Asia, as the Philippines, Thailand, and Malaysia have all grown in popularity (JASSO, 2018; JAOS, 2019). One of the main reasons

for the increase in students studying in Asia is affordability (Katori, 2016; Shimmi & Ota, 2018). The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) launched *Tobitate!* which is a government initiative to spend more money on study abroad efforts and solicit corporate donations and scholarships so that more students can study overseas. MEXT's increased funding and corporate donations have made study abroad more affordable for Japanese students.

Looking at Thailand as one of the aforementioned countries where Japanese students have increased in number, it has experienced substantial inbound growth from 2006 to 2015, with the figure more than doubling (Kuroda, Sugimura, Kitamura & Asada, 2018). This has become the trend in many Thai universities where different types of study abroad programs have been offered to foreign students. Using King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi as an example, about 85 percent of total international students, as of academic year 2018, are Asian inbound students. Most students attend a short-term activity program which lasts about one to three weeks and is provided by a faculty or the International Affairs Office to promote exposure to English and Thai culture (International Affairs Office, 2019). This appeals to researchers wishing to conduct further investigation of why Thailand is an appropriate choice for Japanese students who are interested in building upon their use of English for their short-term study abroad experience. This study then focuses on a two-week study abroad program in which Japanese students study English in Thailand.

Literature Review

Types of Study Abroad Programs

According to Leigh (2020), there are several types of study abroad programs available to students at each institution, and they vary in both length and depth, with different levels of support. However, there are similar layouts of programs across institutions. The first type is *short-term programs* which include all study abroad programs of a maximum eight weeks in duration, which seem to be the most popular choice among many foreign students. Some short-term programs are *faculty-led programs* which focus on one specific subject or area of discipline, and are often pre-planned, complete with an itinerary that includes both coursework and travel for excursions. Another type of short-term program is *summer semester programs with program providers*. They are pre-packaged and come with housing options, an onsite program staff, optional weekend and day trips, and more. Basically, program providers offer students services such as language learning, cultural exchanges, service learning, and more.

The second main type is *exchange programs*, which refer to a signed agreement between two or more schools that allows students to study abroad at the partner institutions from across the globe. Each agreement may include details about credit transfer, housing, the application process, support for students and so on. For most exchange programs, students pay the tuition and related fees to their home university and only have to pay for housing, food and personal expenses in their host countries. In addition, students enroll directly at their host university for a semester or an entire academic year. Foreign students entering the university for the program will be considered *inbound* students, while local students traveling to a foreign university will be considered *outbound*.

The third main type of study abroad program is *direct enroll programs*, which are quite similar to exchange programs, but the home school is not required to have a formal relationship with the host school for students to participate. The students themselves have to work directly with the international student office of their desired host university so as to enroll as a visiting student for a semester. Furthermore, students will need to work with their home universities to see what they need to do for credit transfer if there is not an existing partnership between schools. Lastly, it refers to *non-credit programs* like internships and volunteer programs that will make their resumes stand out and can be viewed as work experience. Internships and volunteer programs can sometimes be approved for academic credit, depending on the academic department. Many students opt to participate in internships or volunteer programs because of the resume-boosting experience, as opposed to academic credit.

Short-term Study Abroad as Promoted in Japan

There are several institutions promoting study abroad among Japanese students. First is the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) which launched *Tobitate!* in 2013 (MEXT, 2019). The initiative promotes Japanese students' study overseas and has a three-pronged approach of introducing Japanese culture outside of Japan, establishing a culture of study abroad in Japan, and developing future global leaders. The other main institution is the Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO) which is made up of private investors such as Japanese banks or asset companies and was established in 2014. This organization focuses on Japanese universities' short-term study abroad programs of less than one month. Unless specifically noted otherwise, all of the studies mentioned in the following sections refer to programs of less than one month. The literature review outlines three major themes of study abroad: language development, cultural awareness, and personal growth.

Language development. There is an assumption that studying abroad will enhance language proficiency. Even in short-term study abroad programs, students hold expectations that their communication skills such as speaking and listening will improve (Horness, 2014, 2018; Matsumoto, 2012). Although the students' beliefs are not inaccurate, their scores on tests do not significantly improve as a result of the short-term programs. Several studies reported that language improved (Kobayashi; 1999; Tanaka and Ellis, 2003; Taura et al., 2009, as cited in Matsumoto, 2010, p. 7), but in these cases the students' scores improved by only a few points, and/or no statistical analysis was conducted. Matsumoto (2010) combined several studies abroad groups over four years to measure the students' listening skills using the Secondary Level English Proficiency Test (SLEP). The average score of the 27 participants improved significantly from 17.7 to 19.0. In studies including a control group, there have been mixed results. Kimura (2006; 2009; 2011) reported that students who went abroad improved their EIKEN scores more than a control group in which students studied in Japan for the same amount of time. However, Kuno (2011) and Cutrone and Datzman (2015) differed from Kimura's findings between study abroad students and students that stayed in Japan to do intensive courses. Their conclusion was that, depending on the students' major and study material, the different groups that stayed in Japan to study English improved as much as the study abroad students. So, even though students could improve their language scores by going abroad, similar improvement could be achieved when remaining home. Overall, short-term study abroad does not necessarily imply linguistic improvement per se. Except for the work of Cutrone and Datzman (2015), one of the main drawbacks of most of these studies was that the number of participants was limited, so any quantitative conclusion is limited in scope. Although students assume that short-term study abroad will improve their language proficiency, the experience may only do so marginally, if at all.

Cultural awareness. Even though students should not expect vast language improvement in short-term programs, they could benefit greatly from the cultural experience. One of the most common sentiments coming from research studies (Horness, 2014; Nakayama, 2013; Pigott, 2011; Van Benthuyssen; 2012) is that students want to learn about the host culture in addition to improving their language skills. Fuji and Shackleford's (2018) results indicated that their students improved in their language development because of increased interaction with their host families, people around the city, and other foreign classmates. Parada and Ikeda (2018) compared their students ($N = 579$) that went on SA programs ($n = 142$) against those that did not ($n = 437$). They found significant differences between the two groups which

indicated that those students that participated in a SA program had progressed further in foreign language ability, more confidence to make friends with foreign people, a greater understanding of different cultures, more understanding of global issues, and more confidence to integrate themselves into a globalized society. However, integrating students into the host culture is not necessarily easy or commonplace. Without specific institutional support through activities outside the class, students found it difficult to engage in the host community (Douglas, 2015, 2020; Horness, 2014; Yamauchi, 2015). The conclusion is that although students are eager to know about the local community, they need specific help to engage in it. Overall, students want to engage with the host community and become more culturally aware, but there are difficulties in accomplishing that goal. One difficulty is that students are wary of visiting new places without an introduction. Another difficulty is that students limit their social exposure because they fear their language skills are insufficient.

Personal growth. Beyond language development and raising cultural awareness, students have personal goals to accomplish in the SA experience. Students want to use the experience as a learning tool in itself. Students want more than a cursory textbook experience of culture (Pigott, 2011). Study abroad offers experiential learning that the classroom cannot replicate. Katori (2016) interviewed 23 students who took part in SA programs that ranged from 3 weeks (most commonly) to 3 months (least commonly). When she asked how the students had changed through the SA experience, 17 of them replied with the notion of self-discovery such as mental growth or changing values. Some indicated that they watched news with a wider perspective, which echoes student perspectives from other studies (Douglas 2015; Horness, 2014; Nakayama, 2013; Yamauchi, 2015). In a study by Hayashi and Suzuki (2017), six of the 14 students made an effort throughout the year to maintain their improved English skills after the SA experience. Since their university program did not have any follow-up procedures to the SA experience, students that did not prioritize English learning lost much of their gains from the SA experience. Those students that maintained their English skills participated in activities such as watching foreign dramas, interviewing for volunteer work at the IMF, or translating English into Japanese. Karlin (2012) indicated that a person's L2 personality is malleable in the study abroad experience. The more outgoing a person is, the more their oral competence could benefit, even in a short-term program. Two other studies (Nakayama, 2013; Moritani, Manning, & Henneberry, 2016) examined the SA experience through the lens of motivation. The SA experience positively affected the students' willingness to communicate. As one might expect, the SA experience increased the students' confidence

not only in language use, but also in engaging other cultures. What is interesting is that the students had difficulty imagining themselves in the future as proficient English speakers. Like the previous studies, the students had trouble giving concrete examples of their future selves using English, even though they had favorable attitudes towards their SA experience.

Short-term Study Abroad in Thailand

There are different types of study abroad programs in Thailand. For instance, *student exchange* programs, *cultural exchange* programs and *service learning* programs can be short-term programs. A less common but still widely run program is the *language learning* program, which can last from two weeks up to a semester or longer, depending on the level of proficiency the students wish to achieve. Typically run by a private institution (either locally based or international), foreign students who opt for one of these programs usually enroll in a Thai language course, seeking to further develop their proficiency in Thai in an immersive environment. Some institutions also offer English proficiency courses as well as proficiency courses in other foreign languages (e.g., German and Italian).

By participating in study abroad programs mostly run in Thailand (both short-term and long-term), students are given an opportunity to explore Thailand as a country, immerse themselves deeply in the culture and develop their personal studies and professional skills at the same time. This means that most programs often include a number of cultural excursions, academic field trips, and volunteer opportunities in addition to their academic courses, so students have time to travel around the country as well. This also acts as the main selling point of most study abroad programs in Thailand, as living in another culture and embarking on short trips such as visiting historic Buddhist temples, vibrant markets, and warm beaches is often an attractive aspect that most students consider when studying abroad (Turcan & Pirgaru, 2017; Vernon, Moos & Loncarich, 2017).

Since this study focuses on short-term study abroad programs in Thailand, the following examples refer to programs from one week up to one month in duration. They are generally available or tailor-made to meet specific needs or requirements of foreign students who would like to have experiences in study abroad including learning English in Thailand.

Many public universities offer their own range of short-term international programs based on the idea of cultural exchange. Mostly run in collaboration with partner universities in foreign countries, their respective faculties or their international studies divisions, these exchange courses are often short, ranging from a week up to 3 weeks. For instance, depending

on the partner university that is being worked with, Chiang Mai University (2020) or CMU runs a plethora of Thai culture-based programs designed to enrich foreign students' study abroad experiences, including a 3-week summer program centered around developing the Thai cultural and language skills of students from Seikei University, Japan; another 3-week program where students from St. Stephen's University, Canada, learn about Thailand's history, language and social issues, and experience the country's culture first-hand through field trips and excursions; and a 2-week program conducted in partnership with Leopold-Franzens University, Austria, in which Austrian students study business management, politics and hill-tribe cultures in Thailand and in the Greater Mekong sub-region.

Mahidol University's (MU) international studies division, Mahidol University International College (2019) or MUIC, also offers a series of short-term, flexible and tailor-made programs for undergraduate and graduate students from their partner universities all over the world and other educational institutions who are looking to study at MU for a brief period by using English as a medium of instruction. Lasting from a week up to four weeks in exchange, students have the option to study in a wide selection of disciplines, each one led by MU's own respective faculty, such as 'Business Administration' (MBA), 'Medical Science', 'Sustainable Tourism', an English Program under 'Language and Culture', and 'Media and Arts'. Aside from the classes provided, students also have the chance to participate in extracurricular activities such as field trips, company visits and cultural classes throughout the program.

Amid other universities, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (2020), or KMUTT, offers a slightly more unique experience in which students from partner universities (and sometimes, their own students) often partake in customized and specialized programs either on-campus or off-campus, learn Thai intensively, embark on cultural trips and homestay adventures, and/or experience project-based learning in an English language course. Some of KMUTT's previous short-term programs included students of Kyushu University, Japan, paying a seminar visit to Mae Fah Luang University in Chiang Rai and the Royal Chitralada Agricultural Projects in Bangkok; students of Shibaura Institute of Technology (SIT), Japan, joining a project-based English course and learning Thai language and culture on campus in a program offered by School of Liberal Arts; and students of Tomsk Polytechnic University, Russia, visiting the Royal Project in Chiang Mai as well as working in the 'Electronics and Telecommunication' laboratory on campus.

Theoretical Framework

There are numerous ways to approach assessing a study abroad program. Most commonly it focuses on the student and how a student can use the study abroad experience in some beneficial way such as developing language proficiency, increasing cultural awareness, or becoming more mature. Common frameworks that focus on the student's study abroad experience include Vygotsky's (1978) social interaction, Lave's (1988) situated learning, and Kolb's (1984) theory of experiential learning. This case study does not focus solely on the students. Rather, this study incorporates multiple perspectives of analysis such as the environment, student activities, host teacher perceptions, and administrators. Therefore, the framework that guides the study is more in line with curriculum design. Nation and Macalister (2010) offered a process of understanding language curriculum design. They outline seven steps to evaluate a course as shown in Table 1. Like all evaluative systems, there is an assumption that these steps are always ongoing and changes to the course can be incremental. By examining the study abroad program through the lens of course evaluation, other perspectives are involved. Although the assumption that the study abroad experience is beneficial for students remains, other factors such as the environment and participants' needs can be evaluated.

Table 1.

Summary of Steps for Course Evaluation by Nation & Macalister (2010)

Step	General Task
1	Examine the environment.
2	Assess needs.
3	Decide on principles.
4	Set goals, and choose and sequence Content.
5	Design the lesson format.
6	Include assessment procedures.
7	Evaluate the course.

Reviewing previous studies of short-term study abroad programs in Thailand, there are a limited number of programs focusing on learning English language, in particular for foreign students. This led researchers to further investigate how this Thai study abroad program is functioning and evaluate whether the program is achieving its goals. An underlying assumption made in the EFL field is that learning in a native English speaking environment is the best

situation for learners. With students changing their study abroad destination recently, that assumption might change going forward. So, a Thai university is interested in evaluating its study abroad program and addressing whether it is an appropriate choice for foreign students interested in using English for their short-term study abroad experiences. The focus is on a two-week study abroad program where Japanese students studied English in Thailand. This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: In what ways do the students benefit from studying English in Thailand?

- 1.1 How does this program benefit students' language development?
- 1.2 How does this program benefit students' cultural awareness?
- 1.3 How does this program benefit students' personal growth?

RQ2: Is an English language study abroad program in Thailand appropriate?

Methodology

Participants

This study examined a Japanese university study abroad program involving one of Japan's Top Global University Project members. Three groups of participants were examined. The primary group was 68 Japanese university students (taken from the latest two-year period) who participated in a prestigious Thai public science and technology university's study abroad program for two weeks in order to enhance their English language skills and cultural knowledge of Thailand. The students majored in engineering at a science and technology university in Japan and ranged from second-year to fourth-year.

The second group was made up of six teachers from the program who were divided into three sub-groups. The first two teachers, who are Thai, were in charge of project-based learning with a focus on English writing, speaking, and listening skills. Another two teachers are Filipinos who mainly taught oral presentation skills in English, while the last two Thai teachers focused on Thai language and culture. All of them belong to a language studies department of a public Thai university. Two of them have their doctoral degree in English Education and Applied Linguistics, while the other four obtained their master's degrees in English and English Language Teaching. Their teaching experience varied from 5 to 15 years, and all of them have taught and been involved in the present short-term program for more than two years. They have ample teaching experience in taking part in this short-term program and their viewpoints cover more than one batch of students visiting Thailand.

There were two administrators in the final group, and neither one taught in the program. One of them is a vice president for the international affairs section and has the authority to arrange for connecting or collaborating with any other university or institution from across the globe, including endorsements of policies related to any international issues. The other is an assistant dean and is in charge of assessing undergraduates' and graduates' English proficiency for the university, as well as Japanese students' progress regarding their English proficiency during this short-term study abroad program.

Setting

For an overall picture and to understand the nature of this short-term program offered to Japanese students, this section provides more details about its setting and background, including the program objectives, components, teaching duration, teaching and learning activities, and materials used.

The Summer/Spring English Program is a short-term study abroad program which lasts for two weeks. It is a tailor-made program based on specific requirements from the private Japanese university, which aims to enhance its engineering students' exposure to English use, ensure a useful and positive experience, and build up their confidence in living abroad. The program is composed of three main components: English project-based learning, oral presentation skills in English, and basic Thai language and culture. In addition, an excursion outside Bangkok over a weekend (i.e. Ayutthaya and Samut Songkram) is included as part of the program and organized by the International Affairs Office. During the program, Thai volunteer students, who were trained on the cultural norms, joined some activities with Japanese students outside class time and over the weekend. These volunteer students form the basis of the "Buddy System", which promotes local engagement and language use outside of the classroom. Basically, Thai buddies would pair up with two to four Japanese students and meet each other after class every day in order to do some activities together. For instance, facilitating Japanese students to complete the assigned tasks, strolling around the community, or having dinner together. In addition, they would accompany with Japanese students for an excursion over a weekend to act as a tour guide and give information regarding Thai history. During their time together, they usually shared each other's culture, beliefs and ways of living. By doing so, they were able to use English to communicate meaningfully in an immersive environment and enhance interaction to each other more confidently and naturally.

The program is designed for 40 hours in total during the two weeks, with a focus on English learning. Each program component focuses on different learning objectives, but all three seek to complement each other and meet the requirements of the program's objectives. Each part is specially designed to include a specific time duration, teaching content, and materials with a range of teaching techniques. Table 2 provides an overview of the two-week short-term study abroad program of English. It outlines the objectives of each component along with the class duration, topics taught, teaching techniques and materials and activities used.

Table 2

The Two-week English Program Offered to Japanese Students in Academic Year 2019

Topics	English project-based learning	Oral presentation skills in English	Basic Thai language and culture
Objectives/focus	Students are able to learn via a project (to build a makeshift catapult) with a focus on English writing, speaking and listening skills.	Students are able to present in English with more competence and confidence.	Students are able to understand basic concepts of Thai language and culture through theme-based activities, and be aware of daily real-life situations during their short stay in Thailand.
Total duration	21 hours: 7 lessons, 3 hours each	12 hours: 4 lessons, 3 hours each	9 hours: 3 lessons, 3 hours each
Topics taught	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - English grammatical points and academic writing tips - Vocabulary and terminology related to building a catapult - Some interactional speaking and listening topics (yes/no questions, giving opinions, conducting and reporting interviews) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Presentation structures - Language phrases in a presentation - Verbal & nonverbal expressions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Basic vocabularies and useful phrases in Thai language - Greeting and self-introduction in Thai culture - Dos and Don'ts in Thailand - Transportation - Food and Restaurant - Eating culture
Teaching techniques	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Elicit responses - Reduce the speaking speed - A student translator - Search engine for some technical or advanced terms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Elicit responses with more waiting time - A student translator - Pair and group work - Constructive and encouraging comments to students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Comparison between Thai and Japanese language and culture - A student translator - Pair and group work

	- Act as a consultant for their project		
Teaching materials	PowerPoint slides/ handouts and in-house learning materials	PowerPoint slides/ handouts and QR codes	PowerPoint slides/ cards & pictures/ handouts and in-house learning materials
Activities used	Warm-up activities, interview activities, reporting activities and a detective game	Ice-breaking activities, tongue twisters, brainstorming sessions, group discussions and sharing sessions, free study session with consultations, and guess-the-dance activity	Discussion, project presentation, matching activities, sharing sessions, and Q&A sessions

Research Instruments

To answer the research questions, three key research instruments – TETET, teacher interviews and administrator interviews – were employed to obtain the data.

Test of English for Thai Engineers and Technologists (TETET). The TETET is a computer-based standardized English proficiency test focusing on real use of English communication particularly for those who study or work in the fields of engineering, science and technology (Jaturapitakkul & Watson Todd, 2018). The test aims to assess English language proficiency in four language skills with the content regarding situations which engineers and technologists are most likely to encounter when using English. The test does not, however, require any specialized knowledge or vocabulary beyond that of a person who uses English in everyday work activities. Since the participants are all engineering students, TETET is considered to be a proper tool to assess their English proficiency and their progress while participating in the short-term program. The test consists of 12 sections with a range of item types used. It takes approximately 2 to 2.5 hours to complete the test. The overall picture of the TETET sections is presented in Table 3.

Table 3.

Section Breakdown of Test of English for Thai Engineers and Technologists (TETET)

Skill	Section	Item type	No. of items	Score
Reading	1. Survival reading	Multiple choice	5	5
	2. Reading from the Internet	Table-filling (Drag and drop information)	10	10

	3. Reading technical manuals	Matching/Drag and drop objects	6+6	10
	4. Reading emails	Multiple choice	5	10
Listening	1. Listening to meetings	Dictation/short-answer questions	8+3	14
	2. Listening to informal conversations	Multiple choice	5	10
	3. Listening on telephone (Automated Voice Response System-AVRS)	Step record (inputting numbers)	10	8
Writing	1. Writing reports	Gap-filling	10	10
	2. Writing memoranda	Sequencing	5	10
	3. Writing emails	Composition	1	10
Speaking	1. Speaking in short question-and-answer format	Short answer (Voice-recording)	8	16
	2. Speaking in longer business communications	Leaving a message (Voice-recording)	2	16

Note. For more details of each test section, please scan the QR code provided in Appendix A to view an introduction video of TETET.

The scores on each section are reported by converting the number of questions answered correctly (raw scores) to the scores which are reported (band levels). Five scores are reported to the test takers after taking TETET: an overall score and a score for each of the four language skills. TETET scores range from Level 0 (no evidence of English proficiency) to Level 7 (near-native speaker like English proficiency). Furthermore, having gone through a research conduct, TETET levels are equivalent and compared with two other commonly used measures of English proficiency: CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) and TOEIC. This is to provide for concurrent validity.

Teachers Interviews. The questions for the interview were based on Horness (2014) which cover three areas: Language development, cultural awareness, and personal development (see appendix B). Due to all teachers' English being very proficient, the interviews were audio-taped in English and then transcribed. The transcriptions were double checked and analyzed in the following ways. First, thematic terms were highlighted from each interview question. Second, the transcripts were re-analyzed using the thematic terms without regard to questions.

Administrators Interviews. Interviews based on administrators' perspectives were conducted. The semi-structured interview questions included the following:

- 1) What is the main objective or purpose of this short-term program?
- 2) What are the strengths of this program?
- 3) What benefits do Japanese students gain from such a program?

- 4) What does (the school) gain from such a program?
- 5) Why is TETET used as a part of the program's evaluation?
- 6) How do you determine if the program is successful or satisfactory?
- 7) What are other suggestions or comments to make the program better?

The interviews were audio-taped in English and then transcribed. The transcriptions were double-checked and analyzed following the same analysis procedures as for the teacher interviews.

Research Procedures: TETET and Interviews of Teachers and Administrators

All Japanese participants were required to take TETET as a pretest on the first day of the program and retake the same test as a posttest on the last day of the program. It should be noted that students were not informed intentionally that they had to retake the same test so as to avoid an issue of test memorization. TETET pre- and post-test raw scores were then collected for the latest two-year period (2018 to 2019) from three batches. Scores of each sub-section and overall scores were broken down. Descriptive statistics and paired sample *t*-test were implemented to see if there were any significant differences between the pre- and post-test scores.

The interviews were carried out after the two-week program ended right away so that the teachers could reflect their overall impression towards the program as well as recalling their specific experiences with the Japanese students in a previous batch. The interviews were conducted face-to-face in the researcher's office. The interviews took place multiple times within two weeks at the participants' convenience. Each interview session consisted of either individuals or pairs and lasted about 30 to 40 minutes. Each participant was informed of the objectives of the study and asked for permission to take part in the study with a consent form to sign.

Since both administrators' schedules were quite full, the interviews were conducted via a video call (via the Zoom meeting program) instead of in-person meetings. The interviews took place within a week, based on a convenient time. Each person was informed of the purpose of the study and asked for permission via a consent form to sign, to contribute their information and comments based upon their administrative perspectives. Each interview lasted approximately 20 to 30 minutes.

Results

TETET

To evaluate the students' language proficiency change, a paired sample *t*-test was conducted with the dependent variable as the total test score. The assumptions for the paired sample *t*-test were checked, and no violations occurred. The reported Cronbach Alpha reliability estimate of the pretest was .972, and the posttest was .951. The results indicated that the mean score at the end of the study abroad experience ($M = 64.20$, $SD = 16.01$) was significantly higher than the mean score at the beginning of their study abroad stay ($M = 52.42$, $SD = 14.60$), $t(67) = 9.89$, $p < .01$, $d_z = 1.20$. This effect size was large, so the study abroad experience could be said to have affected their proficiency scores on the TETET. Table 4 presents pre- and post-test mean scores and standard deviation for each sub-section of TETET and Japanese students' overall proficiency.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of Each Sub-section and Overall Proficiency for Pre- and Post-TETET

Test Sub-sections		Pretest		Posttest		Difference in mean
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Reading	Survival	2.12	0.16	2.40	0.15	0.28
	Internet	5.96	0.36	7.22	0.27	1.26
	Technical manual	4.79	0.29	6.61	0.30	1.82
	Email	5.26	0.29	5.50	0.26	0.24
	Overall reading	18.13	0.64	21.73	0.60	3.60
Writing	Report	5.56	0.22	6.10	0.27	0.54
	Memorandum	5.91	0.26	5.74	0.31	-0.17
	Email	1.40	0.11	2.03	0.14	0.63
	Overall writing	12.88	0.46	13.87	0.56	0.99
Listening	Meetings	4.49	0.32	5.66	0.27	1.17
	Informal conversations	4.74	0.27	5.06	0.28	0.32
	AVRS	1.56	0.28	2.91	0.36	1.35
	Overall listening	10.78	0.59	13.63	0.59	2.85
Speaking	Questions and answers	8.07	0.46	9.99	0.45	1.92
	Business communication	2.56	0.45	4.99	0.57	2.43
	Overall speaking	10.63	0.73	14.97	0.87	4.34
Overall proficiency		52.42	1.77	64.20	1.94	11.78

The overall proficiency improved by 11 points on average. The standard deviation was 1.77 in the pretest and moved to 1.94 in the posttest, so this suggests the students were all

clustered around the same proficiency level, and the improved scores were spread out minimally more. The greatest gains occurred in speaking, followed by reading and listening, respectively. This differed from Kimura (2009) and (2011), where the students improved upon listening the most.

Teacher Interviews

Broken down into themes of language development, cultural awareness, and personal growth, the teachers' viewpoints indicated several trends. The most common theme articulated by the teachers was the students' lack of speaking skills, but that the students gave great effort to communicate as the program progressed. So, when the students arrived, they were reluctant to speak freely or individually, but through effort they managed to communicate more at the end. As one teacher summarized:

Pronunciation and intelligibility. Neither the teacher nor the students can understand each other well. This might be because the students are not used to listening to a teacher with a different accent, and the teacher has not yet acquainted herself with Japanese accents.... Students rarely smiled and seemed unfriendly, though again, this might be due to fatigue resulting from their intensive program schedule. However, after familiarizing themselves with their teacher, they became more relaxed and friendlier as a result.

(Interview of Teacher C)

The second most-common statement about the students was that they were friendly in that they smiled a lot, but did not speak much. One common technique used by students was to have one student speak for the group. This might reflect a common Asian trait of collective effort in conjunction with individual effort. Teacher E commented:

Students were nice and open-minded. Though their English skills were inadequate, they remained attentive and were very polite. Google Translate was used and a student interpreter was even appointed amongst them to translate important messages and announcements. Like [Teacher] C [said], as time passed, students became friendlier and interacted often with the teacher.

(Interview of Teacher E)

The third theme from the interviews focused on teaching techniques. When asked specifically which skills the language teachers focused on, the reply was split between speaking fluently and comfortably. As most of the teachers agreed that the students lacked confidence in using English and had limited production skills, it seems natural that their approach would focus on these ideas. As Teacher B stated, “The class was focused on giving students a positive experience in using the English language.” Teacher D, however, stated, “Improving fluency, as most students were already familiar with the structures of the language but struggling in areas of speaking and listening.”

One theme that came out of the interviews was that the students were more engaged naturally with the people outside of the classroom than inside the classroom. Students talked to their Thai buddies, talked to Thai merchants, and talked to the teachers outside the classroom. As Teacher C remarked, “Students spoke more English with the teacher outside of the classroom than inside, especially when engaging in informal activities such as lunch.” As the interviewer asked the teachers specifically about the relationship between their class and TETET, it was interesting to note that teachers were unaware of the test, did not relate it to their class material, nor thought that the students’ scores would improve.

When examining cultural awareness, the most common theme was the use of politeness. Students had Thai culture classes so they had a chance to compare Japanese customs. In the English language classes, the teachers asked the students to talk about their shopping and restaurant experiences. One of the Thai teachers remarked:

Students mentioned they enjoyed the exotic food choices in Thailand (e.g. fried scorpions), visiting the tourist locations in Thailand (e.g. Ayutthaya) and having a chance to practice Thai cooking, such as making food packaging out of banana leaves. All these experiences were considered new or novel to them, which may explain their enjoyment. (Teacher A)

One of the language teachers commented on a deeper issue:

Students mentioned they enjoyed the teacher closing the power gap between them and being friendly and playful with them. On the contrary, their Japanese teachers were often quite serious and quiet, regardless of age. (Teacher E)

According to the teacher interviews, students were able to reflect upon Thai and Japanese culture and articulate these ideas, albeit limitedly, in a positive way through English.

Regarding personal growth, one theme was dominant. All of the teachers agreed that the students were reluctant to engage at the beginning of the experience, but they became more engaged as time went by. Students were not flexible at first, but became more flexible. Students were not friendly at first, but became more friendly. Students did not speak at first, but later talked more. Being timid in an unfamiliar situation is not unusual, but teachers B and C pointed out the students' positive feature: Students were able to survive, despite staying silent and sticking with their Japanese friends most of the time. Despite the difficulties, Japanese students did display a strong eagerness to keep learning, even past the time of dismissal. Through the interviews, the teachers in essence confirmed study abroad's greatest strength: Learning continues outside the classroom.

Administrators' Interviews

Based on the administrators' perspective, their viewpoints reflected several aspects of appropriateness for an English language study abroad program customized for Japanese students in this case study. Firstly, the available English short-term program matched with what was required of Japanese students by their university and the Japanese government under the Super Global University (SGU) project in enhancing their English language skills. As one administrator (F) commented:

As part of the Japanese government's initiative to globalize their citizens, Japanese universities are granted subsidies to organize international activities for their students under the Super Global University (SGU) project. In addition to making their citizens more globally capable and competitive, students improving their English language skills was another objective under the SGU project. (Interview of Administrator F)

Another administrator (G) also affirmed that the program's objective depended very much on the Japanese university's needs, and the program was tailored to serve their needs:

In responding to the needs of one particular university – [school name] – where they ideally wanted their Japanese students to develop their English

language skills, in addition to learning the culture of another country, [our university] decided to offer exactly one such course in the form of a two-week short-term study abroad program. (Interview of Administrator G)

Secondly, it is interesting to know that Japanese universities have shifted their mindset with regard to sending their students to countries where English is not spoken as the main official language, since doing so could help Japanese students better acclimate themselves and feel more confident as they study with other second-language or third-language English speakers. Administrator F confirmed this idea.

Japanese students at first, were sent to English-speaking countries such as Canada and Australia. But these countries later proved to be overwhelmingly difficult environments for the students, as their English language skills were nowhere near on par to communicate with the locals there. In response to this, Japanese universities began considering countries like Thailand where English is not spoken as the main official language to send their students to. (Interview of Administrator F)

Administrator (F) also pointed out that the program makes use of the buddy system, which not only promotes the learning of English and another country's culture, but also making connections and being able to use English naturally outside of the classroom.

One of the key strengths of this program is that Japanese students are not treated as an alien group, separate from the Thai students, even though they tend to work exclusively among themselves. After class, Japanese students are encouraged to engage in leisure activities with their Thai buddies, in order to make new friends, foster companionship, as well as practice English together with them in a naturally occurring environment outside the classroom. (Interview of Administrator F)

Thirdly, though there is no systematic evaluation, there are some indirect measurements of success to prove the appropriateness of the program. For instance, the program's continuity, the increase in the number of student applicants each year, and the test score report on students' English language development. Administrator F pointed to the program's continuity and the increasing number of students from year to year as evidence of its success.

The fact that the program continues to run annually does entail some level of success, and the increase in number of student applicants each year indicates Japanese students' continuing interest in the program, year after year. It particularly doubled in the past two years. Currently, we only have impressions based solely students' 'word-of-mouth' interactions with other students. (Interview of Administrator F)

Another administrator also commented upon the test score report.

As far as I know, the International Affairs departments for both parties continue to support and build interest in the program due to its success. One evidence is based on the TETET results from the pre- and post-tests over the past few years, which indicate the continuously satisfactory inclined level of students' English development after taking this two-week English program. (Interview of Administrator G)

Once more, the administrators were well-aware that there was no systematic evaluation from the Japanese coordinators. As of now, the administrators are still waiting for word from them chronicling their impressions of the program.

Through the interviews, the administrators affirmed that this two-week study abroad program of English was appropriate for Japanese students in many ways. For instance, students gained English-speaking experience and confidence, were exposed to the cultural practices, customs, and issues of another country, and had an opportunity to learn English through a more interactive approach, thus further expanding their learning repertoire.

Discussion

A standardized test, teacher interviews, and administrator interviews were conducted to analyze an English short-term study abroad program. In the following section, each research question is answered using the results from each instrument and connecting it to previous research.

The first research question asked what were the benefits of an English language short-term study abroad program in Thailand, focusing on three areas: language, cultural awareness, and personal development. According to the TETET results, the students improved their overall

language proficiency scores significantly. This is better than the previous results where there were no significant differences (Kobayashi, 1999; Matsumoto 2012; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). One explanation for the difference is that the TETET range is narrower than the TOEFL test, so improvements could be examined more positively. Another possibility is that the two-week period between tests gave students an unfair advantage of remembering items from their initial experience, so that their scores were inflated. In addition, based on the administrator interviews, TETET was selected because it assesses the four language skills of English particularly for those who study or work in the fields of engineering, science and technology (Jaturapitakkul & Watson Todd, 2018). This might fit well with Japanese students who share a similar contextual background in engineering and technology, and may have facilitated their test taking. Another explanation is that students in the program are taught English using a task-based approach, which involves technical skills and knowledge. This may assist students in their English ability in terms of taking the TETET, which presents some of its test items within a technical context.

According to the teacher interviews, the language benefits were apparent as all the teachers felt the students had improved their listening and speaking skills. There was an initial difficulty in understanding each other due to unfamiliar accents, but most became comfortable in using English overall. This finding is new to the literature, as previous studies did not include the host teachers' viewpoints. Additionally, their viewpoints on the students' language progression support the TETET increased scores.

The interviews from administrators indicated they were confident that the students were improving their language skills inside and outside the classroom. They felt assured that their classes offered the Japanese students time to become more comfortable using English and therefore increase their TETET score. Additionally, the administrators were confident that the use of the buddy system outside of the classroom helped both the Japanese students and the Thai students in using English. The findings were not wholly unexpected, but other studies have not documented these ideas.

The second area of examination of the study abroad experience was cultural awareness. The teacher interviews indicated that the Japanese students used English outside the classroom with their Thai buddies, Thai merchants, and members of the general public. The students used these experiences to talk about local food and customs, thus reinforcing the experiential learning aspect of study abroad which the previous studies had also noted (Douglas, 2015; Horness, 2014, 2018; Nakayama, 2013; Pigott, 2011; Parada & Ikeda, 2018). It was also similar

to Douglas (2020) in that students talked mainly about food and the local customs, but it differed in that this viewpoint came from the teachers, not the students. Additionally, the host teachers thought the Japanese students were more willing to be playful and narrow the hierarchical relationship with them, unlike their chaperones. The administrator interviews also indicated that the program was intended to encourage active participation in the local culture. Hence, there were specific times devoted to examining Thai language and culture in the classroom. This is in line with other SA programs in Thailand that emphasize experiential learning in addition to English language learning (Turcan & Pirgaru, 2017; Vernon, Moos, & Loncarich, 2017).

The third area of examination of the study abroad experience was personal growth. The teacher interviews indicated that the Japanese students showed resilience in their experience. From their perspective, the students were timid and uncommunicative at the beginning of the sojourn but were able to enjoy the experience despite the difficulties. It seems that the connection of language and culture allows for greater personal growth. As previous studies indicated (Douglas, 2015; Horness, 2014), students want to engage in the local culture, but depending on the context, they may not be able to do so. The programs that were successful at integrating the visiting students into the local area were best for developing personal growth. This can be done in a variety of ways such as homestays (Fuji & Shackleford, 2018) or active cultural excursions (Chiang Mai University, 2020), but the common underlying principle is a safe, comfortable opportunity for the students to join local events. The administrator interviews also indicated that their buddy system was designed to get the Japanese students involved locally in a comfortable, safe manner.

Overall, the students benefitted from the study abroad experience by improving their language, broadening their cultural awareness, and growing personally. The study abroad experience interwove these three ideas so that the learning experience was enjoyable and beneficial. Learning was not limited to the classroom, but also occurred outside of it as well.

Regarding the second research question about appropriateness of an English language study abroad program in Thailand, all three instruments indicated favorable results. The TETET results showed improved English scores. Previous studies (Kuno 2011; Cutrone & Datzman, 2015) had indicated that short-term study abroad does not equate with improved language scores. So, study abroad may involve more than language study, and include cultural awareness and personal growth. Both the host teachers and administrators indicated their satisfaction. This program was customized not only in order to serve the need of improving

Japanese students' English language skills, but it also included elements through which the students could succeed in joining the local community. The program potentially elevated students' degree of extroversion (how outgoing a person may be), which in turn influenced their confidence in communication. This supports assertions made by Karlin (2012) which revealed a strong connection between oral competence and the personality dimension of extroversion after the study of English in a short-term study abroad program. In addition, the program helped Japanese students to acclimate themselves and boost their confidence in communicating with other second-language (L2) or third-language (L3) English speakers of a similar background. As a result, Japanese students did not feel as linguistically displaced in Thailand as compared to their experience in L1 English-speaking countries like the United States, where Asian EFL students feel uncomfortable and unconfident in communicating with native speakers from the outset (Gebhard, 2013), regardless of being in either short-term or long-term programs, and yet, they are still able to practice their English naturally and confidently with people from a different culture. They are more likely to be unafraid of making mistakes when speaking with other L2 speakers.

There are two indirect measurements that indicate the program's success to some extent. One point is the satisfactory degree of students' English language development regarding the pre- and post-test scores report over the last several years, even though those particular data sets were not included in the study. Another point is the program's continuity as applications have increased over a sustained period since the year 2015. This implies that the short-term study abroad program is interesting and acceptable to Japanese students who would like more exposure to English and the opportunity to improve their English communication in Thailand. The researchers also realize that there could be other reasons and interpretations that probably influence this program's continuity and students decision in participating the program.

Limitations

There are several limitations in this study. First, no student interviews were conducted due to time constraints related to the COVID-19 pandemic. When the study abroad program ended and students returned to Japan, the communication between the visiting university and host university was curtailed to a few email messages. An important element, the students, became inaccessible. Perhaps the visiting university has an internal evaluation process of the program, but this information was not shared with the researchers. Hence, the impressions are based solely on students' 'word-of-mouth' interactions with other students and teachers.

Additionally, no interviews or information from the Japanese university administrators were obtained. Currently, their perspectives are viewed through impressions from the minutes of meetings. The study does not fully cover all stakeholders. Although there is a lack of information from the visiting university, its continued use of the program can inform us something about students' satisfaction towards the program and the success of the program to some extent. Third, the host teachers and administrators' perspectives should be taken in caution because there are no student opinions to confirm them. The absence of student voices does limit conclusions, but does not nullify the host teachers and administrators' perspectives.

Practical Implications

The first one is that English study within the context of Thailand is acceptable. Although there may be bias favoring English speaking countries, i.e., Kachru's inner circle, this study abroad environment enabled these students to improve in English in the short-term. As the use of English continues to grow via globalization, different environments may encourage students to seek non-traditional English language learning programs. Certainly, more examination is necessary.

Secondly, it is essential for both universities to work together and help each other in giving their students the best possible learning experience, no matter where they are studying. Presently, this study's drawbacks highlight how the two universities are not in sync. By evaluating the program, it is clear that the arrangement is transactional in nature. The absence of information from the visiting students and administrators makes it difficult to see if the goals are being achieved outside of the yearly participation.

Moreover, program directors and faculty members need to consider the design of lessons, teaching approaches, assignments, activities, and methods of assessment that may facilitate the development of specific types of English communication (e.g., speaking with confidence, writing technically). These types of communication may have unique influences on the specific learning outcomes of short-term study abroad programs. As Nation and Macalister (2010) stated, "Responsible curriculum design includes ongoing evaluation of the course" (p. 11). The communication between these two universities needs to be better so that a better evaluation can be conducted. Certainly, more research is needed to address these concerns as more short-term study abroad programs are launched.

As this study was conducted at a very initial stage of COVID-19, it has undeniably affected data collection. More importantly, the pandemic has forced study abroad programs to

reexamine how they are done. There have been calls for new alternative ways of program implementation in the post COVID world. The use of live teaching, consultation, and communication via some online platforms (i.e., Zoom, Microsoft Team, Facebook, Line) can be adopted and integrated. This is inevitably shifting our pedagogical perspectives toward the short-term study abroad program which is not limited only in a normal classroom from now on. A students' attitudinal study on this shifting pedagogy can also be carried out another time as part of a fuller picture. What has not changed though is that the new programs have to have clearly stated goals to accomplish and an evaluation system in place to review success or failure.

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Appendix A
An Introduction VDO of the Test of English for Thai Engineers and Technologists
(TETET)



Appendix B

Interview Questions for the Teachers

Language:

Generally, what is your impression of the students?

What are the goals and objectives to cover in your classes with them?

It is a short -term program, so is your focus on fluency rather language acquisition?

What language difficulties do the students have in class?

What language skills do they improve upon the most while attending [this school]?

Do you think they successfully communicate with others in English outside the classroom?

Although they are in Thailand, how do the students feel about communicating with Thais in English?

Do you make any attempts to connect the class material to the TETET?

How does the TETET influence your teaching?

Do you think the students' TETET scores go up after completing their study abroad experience at this school?

How do the students react to the TETET?

Culture:

In what ways do the students learn about Thai culture in English?

How do the students use their Thai experience to express themselves in English?

What cultural issues do they struggle with?

What cultural issues do they enjoy the most?

Do they have a chance to communicate any Japanese cultural ideas to Thais?

Do you think their study abroad experience helps them with the cultural ideas on the TETET?

Do you practice any situations similar to those on the TETET?

Personal Growth:

Are the students resilient when they face difficulty in communicating?

What things do they have trouble overcoming? (This is closely related to culture, but might be due to personal reasons).

Do they enjoy their time in Thailand?

Teaching English to Second Language Learners in Academic Contexts, by Jonathan M. Newton, Dana R. Ferris, Christine C.M. Goh, William Grabe, Fredricka L. Stoller, and Larry Vandergrift, London and New York: Routledge, 2018. Pp. 1 - 285.

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Teaching English to Second Language Learners in Academic Contexts by Jonathan Newton and his international team is a practical and useable single volume text for practice or novice teachers covering the teaching and learning of Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) contexts. At the same time, the authors recognise the need to enter the metacognitive domains of study and information skills and literacies. The volume is an instant classic in teacher education programmes worldwide.

In addition to its use for practice teachers, it has refresher value for practising teachers, uniting the worlds of research and theory to those of classroom action, curriculum development and renewal, and innovative assessment. In my use of this book with practice teachers, they point to the practical value of how it points to core principles, bridging theory and practice. William Grabe and Fredricka Stoller's chapter on building a reading curriculum (Chapter 3), for instance, creates a valuable table outlining, "principles that should permeate curricula committed to reading-skills development" (p.42). This is a volume that understands how busy teachers of English to second learners are in academic contexts today.

This book is accessible for teachers working on the go. There are three chapters for each core skill, equally grounded in experience and research. Of particular applicability are the summaries and tables. Christine Goh's section on Listening includes a sample outline for a lesson/learning unit (p.173). Jonathan Newton's three chapters on Speaking include a table outlining types of learning opportunity important for ELT programmes (p.209). Dana Ferris's 'Writing in a second language' (Chapter 5) extracts implications for writing pedagogy from a

detailed discussion, grounded itself in years of research. There are six points of the ‘teachers should...’ variety.

Accessibility is a key strength of the volume. Immersed in research and informed by practice, this is a work for practitioners. It is the collective experience of international language educators and, despite some references to specific contexts like American community colleges, applies to all academic teaching and learning contexts where English language learners are present, from secondary to tertiary and beyond into community environments. This volume ticks both the rigour and the practical boxes.

The book examines the four skills over three well-scoped chapters, at first broadly in relation to comprehension (Reading, Listening) and practical action (Writing, Speaking); then in terms of curriculum design and management. The third section carries an emphasis on assessment. The text uses many subheadings and signposting, avoiding dense text. It aims for instant impact, and is invaluable in invigorating anyone trapped in teaching IELTS or TOEFL, with clear pointers on how to bring those formulaic examination materials to engaging pedagogical life. Grabe and Stoller’s Chapter 1 on Reading, for instance, guides readers through key questions pertaining to improving the teaching of Reading: ‘How Reading Comprehension Works’ with 11 such questions as subheadings. Chapter 2 relates 12 principles, laid out a bit like a set of commandments:

Principle #1. Asking Students to read for Well-Defined Purposes, Rather than Simply Asking Students to Read (for No Purpose at All), Should Guide Reading and Pre-Reading Tasks.

Who would not engage with a chapter where that was one of the 12 key sub-headings? The authors have built the psychology of ‘Why read?’ into the text, including a multi-literate, interactive puzzle-like element into the discourse.

The book covers current trends, activities to bring technology into the classroom, innovative modes of assessment, careful Vygotskian information on sequencing and scaffolding and has a strong and necessary emphasis on strategic thinking. This publication is organised around four overarching assumptions: *Promoting motivation, Structuring Lessons for Meaningful Language Use, Developing Language Knowledge and Skills, and Raising Metacognitive Awareness*. The final organising principle distinguishes the volume from others competing in the crowded ‘how to teach EAP’ market. The emphasis on how skills are learned,

and the critical and reflective processes informing them, elevate this book from its competitors, long used in TESOL education programmes.

Teaching English to Second Language Learners in Academic Contexts moves past being a stock primer on how to teach to becoming a fresh resource offering insightful practical strategic insights into how English is really learned in academic contexts.

Review Statement:

This book review has not been previously published and is not being considered for publication elsewhere.

Theorizing and Analyzing Language Teacher Agency, edited by Hayriye Kayi-Aydar, Xuesong (Andy) Gao, Elizabeth R. Miller, Manka Varghese and Gergana Vitanova. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 2019. Pp. 1+ 272

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The aim of Kayi-Aydar and colleagues' (2019) edited book is an empirical investigation into language teacher agency (LTA). The focus on LTA is of particular importance, as the conversation about the control educators have in their roles continues to evolve, as well as recognising the need to uncover some of the supporting rationale behind why teachers sometimes fail to achieve their set goals. Teacher agency is often described as simply the ability for teachers to solve pedagogical challenges, although others view teacher agency as more of a phenomenon, achieved through the deep relationship between school conditions and teacher capacity. Priestley and colleagues, (2012) comment, that agency should be viewed from multiple perspectives and suggest that agency is grounded in the influence of society over the individual; an argument is also propagated for the need to consider agency as being far more complex and nuanced. As such, *Theorizing and Analyzing Language Teacher Agency* is an essential read for practicing teachers, researchers and stakeholders interested in understanding and developing teacher agency across a wide array of education contexts.

The book comprises of 14 chapters and an afterword. The first chapter begins with an introduction written by the editors to establish context and to set out an outline for what will be discussed throughout each subsequent chapter. Following on from the first chapter, Chapter 2 dives deeper into some defining theoretical frameworks that will be utilised, as well as deepening our understanding of LTA. Of particular importance is the expanded conceptualisation of the notion of LTA. Although the book is divided into two sections, firstly with Part 1: LTA in K-12 contexts and then secondly with Part two: LTA in adult

ESL/EFL contexts, it is helpful to categorise the majority of the remaining chapters according to three different theoretical frameworks. This includes positioning theory (chapters 5, 7, 8 and 14), ecological theory (chapters 4, 6, 10 and 13) and sociocultural theory (chapters 3 and 9).

Delving more deeply into each chapter, the studies demonstrate new considerations and understandings towards LTA. For example, Chapter 3 explores an investigation into teachers' agency in two large urban high schools located in the same school district. We see the topic of agency broadened further in Chapter 4 with the author showing how English language learning enacts ecological agency in a restrictive curriculum. Chapter 5 on the other hand shows the sometimes contradictory nature of what teachers know to be best teaching practices standing in stark contrast to what state policies have mandated for inclusion in a classroom. Chapter 6 demonstrates that people are not necessarily independently agentive themselves, but are strongly linked to their environment and constrained by their associations. Chapter 7 highlights the relationship between the discourse of teaching and the associated positioning within this framework. In Chapter 8 the issue of social justice in teacher education is brought to front and centre with an investigation of two bi/multilingual teachers working in vastly different English-Spanish dual language immersion schools. Chapter 9 introduces the reader to the importance of Action Research (AR) and it demonstrates the importance of how AR can be used for development purposes. Chapter 10 shows how a 'rule-breaker', Mr Ding, was able to increase learner autonomy through his innovative approaches to agency. In Chapter 11 an argument is proposed that authority and agency are intertwined with a teachers' actions contributing to the development of students being able to achieve writing conventions. Moving onto Chapter 12 the reader is taken on a journey to examine teacher identity through a critical realist perspective, with evidence suggesting that teachers are reflexive agents. Chapter 13 show that agency and identity are fluid with spirituality having a considerable impact on pedagogical practice. We see in Chapter 14 the importance of how medium to education (MoE) has an impact on the professional identity of educators and how MoE's can contribute to disempowering teacher agency. The book concludes with an afterword written by Anne Feryok with the concept that agency is more than just a singular focus and can be both collective and collaborative.

The strengths of this book rest in the timeliness of the research being offered for perusal and for its ability to present new conceptualisations of LTA. The rich studies and frameworks covered, demonstrate the importance of how agency can contribute to a wide range of purposes, from facilitating student learning, to playing a key role in both professional and institutional

development. Although there are considerable strengths associated with *Theorizing and Analysing Language Teacher Agency* there are two minor shortcomings worth noting. For example, the book contained a relatively narrow range of studies and the majority of studies only used interviews for data collection purposes. Future investigations could consider making use of observational studies or perhaps longitudinal interventions to deliver even more meaningful insights into LTA.

Notwithstanding these limitations, this book combines a range of theories and analytic approaches towards LTA and as a result, is a resource that is not only insightful but will likely shatter some widely held assumptions surrounding LTA.

References

Priestley, M., Edwards, R., Priestley, A., & Miller, K. (2012). Teacher Agency in Curriculum Making: Agents of Change and Spaces for Manoeuvre. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 42(2), 191–214.

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