About the Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics

The Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics (PAAL) is a nonprofit organization of researchers who work on English education and applied linguistics in Asian and pan-Asian contexts. PAAL also welcomes researchers in related fields such as foreign language education and literature.

The Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics (PAAL) is a joint association between PAAL Japan and PAAL Korea, and the journal is indexed in Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA) and ERIC.

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Opening Address

Myeong-Hee Seong
(Conference Chair, Eulji University)

Good morning, distinguished speakers, honorable guests, presenters and colleagues, it's my great honor to announce the opening of the 2019 International Conference of the Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics on behalf of the organizing committee and board members of PAAL.

PAAL was established in 1996 by Dr. Kyung-Ja Park, Korea University and Dr. Michiko Nakano, Waseda Univ. Since then, we have invited renowned scholars who offer their illuminating insights and profound knowledge about creating new values in Applied Linguistics and English teaching and learning. We live in a world in which people are interconnected and interdependent. The program of today's conference will not only enrich our professional minds, but also expand our global human network, under the theme of this year's conference, "Creating New Possibilities in Applied Linguistics from an Intercultural Perspective",

For this remarkable conference, I would like to thank the conference presenters, chairs and attendees for sharing their expertise and experience, and Dr. Hyungdae Lee, Dean of College of Liberal Arts, Korea University for providing a venue and grant for the conference and also student volunteers and the PAAL's sponsors for their contribution. My special thanks also go to the keynote speakers, Dr. Hae-Young Kim, Duke University, and Dr. Andrew Moody, University of Macau. Most of all, I am deeply indebted to the President of PAAL Hyesook Park and conference committee members, Dr. Hikyoung Lee, Jyi-yeon Yi, On-Soon Lee, Sang-Gu Kang, Ye-Eun Kwon, Hyunsun Im who have put every effort and time into preparing this conference.

I close my brief address, hoping all of you will find this conference informative, insightful and inspiring, Thank you very much.

Welcoming Address

Dr. Hyesook Park

(Co-chair of PAAL, Kunsan Nat'l University, Korea)

Good morning, distinguished scholars, honorable guests, and all of the PAAL members. Welcome to the 2019 PAAL Conference! As a co-chair of PAAL, I'm extremely honored and privileged to welcome you all to the 2019 PAAL conference at Korea University, in Seoul, Korea.

Founded in 1996, PAAL has grown into one of leading academic organizations by making a significant contribution to the development of applied linguistics in and beyond the pan-pacific region by dealing with current issues through its publication of the PAAL journal and annual conference.

The theme of this year's conference is "Creating New Possibilities in Applied Linguistics from an Intercultural Perspective". It will help us productively explore the challenging current issues of applied linguistics with new insights, broader views, and practical knowledge from an intercultural perspective. With two keynote speeches and one symposium on the theme, this year's program also includes around 80 presentations on the exciting and diverse topics. I'm sure that this conference will serve as an open forum to share professional expertise and experience and to enhance our understanding of recent developments, current challenges and the future direction of applied linguistics and intercultural thought.

Above all, I'd like to express my deep gratitude to the keynote speakers, Prof. Haeyoung Kim and Prof. Andrew Moody. And I'd also like to show my thanks to the symposium panel for the theme of "Enhancing Intercultural Competencies in the EFL Classroom", Prof. Matsumoto, Prof. Bok-Myung Chang, Prof. H-Y Kim, and Prof. A. Moody.

In addition, I'd like to show my sincere appreciation to Korea University for this wonderful conference venue with beautiful stone architecture and the cutting edge facilities, and my thanks to the organizing committee led by Prof. Hikyung Lee for their time and work. Without Korea University's support and our committee's tireless dedication in organizing this conference, we would not have been able to produce this wonderful conference.

Finally, once again I welcome all of you. And I do hope that every participant will find this conference inspiring and refreshing, and will find insights and implications for your research and classrooms. Thank you so much for your participation and interest in PAAL.

Congratulatory Speech

Lee, Hyungdae

(Dean, College of Liberal Arts, Korea University)

As Dean of the College of Liberal Arts at Korea University, I welcome the co-presidents and members of the Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, the distinguished speakers, and participants of the 2019 PAAL International Conference.

The College of Liberal Arts is the one of the oldest colleges on campus and has a long history of promoting scholarship in the humanities. The College was founded in 1946 and is comprised of 15 departments and 8 interdisciplinary programs. The departments in the College and its affiliated institutes have hosted various academic events over the years. For this conference, the Institute of British and American Studies of the Department of English Language and Literature, is proud to be the co-organizer, host, and sponsor.

The founding universities of PAAL, Korea University and Waseda University, are also sister universities and have enjoyed a long tradition of collaboration and friendship. I am happy to hear that PAAL is now a truly global association where researchers and academics in applied linguistics can share expertise and forge greater collaboration throughout Asia and beyond. We are honored to host this conference which contributes to Korea University and the College of Liberal Arts' commitment to advancing liberal arts education and the internationalization of research.

I offer my congratulations and wish you a successful conference. I hope this conference greatly benefits all of the participants and provides new insights and inspiration to all. Please enjoy the conference and the campus of Korea University.

Thank you.

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09:55-10:20	A-2	An investigation of the relationship between task difficulty and L2 speaking comprehensibility Xiaofei Liu (Waseda Univ.)

Session B (Room 314A) **Moderator: Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Art Univ.)**

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09:55-10:20	B-2	Individual differences in learning Japanese gendered speech: A case study of adult intermediate learners of Japanese Mai Takeuchi (Purdue Univ.)

Session C (Room 314B) **Moderator: Yuya Akatsuka (Waseda Univ. Honjo Senior High School)**

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Session D (Room 307) **Moderator: Fumihisa Fujinaga (Kindai Univ.)**

Time	Session	Presentation
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15:25-15:50	D-2	Usage of question sets in conversational English classes in China Igor Smerdov (Shijiazhuang Univ.)
15:50-16:15	D-3	Describing the developmental process Grade 8 students over the Content-English-Integrated-Learning program Ming-Chia Lin (National Academy for Educational Research in Taiwan)

Session E (Room 314A) **Moderator: Yoko Asari (Tokyo Univ. of Science)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:00-15:25	E-1	Students' feedback on a flipped classroom model for college EFL education Xiaofei Tang (Wuhan Univ. of Technology/Australian National Univ.)
15:25-15:50	E-2	Flipping the classroom to reduce the foreign language anxiety of Asian students Janet Ho (Lingnan Univ.)
15:50-16:15	E-3	To learn or not to learn: Mobile-assisted English learning for EFL low-achievers Pei-Ling Yang (Oriental Institute of Technology)

Session F (Room 314B) **Moderator: Satoshi Yoshida (Kindai Univ.)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:00-15:25	F-1	Development of college students' core competencies through an extracurricular English program Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji Univ.)
15:25-15:50	F-2	Get EFL learners to speak out through doing language learning tasks Suparuthai It-ngam (Burapha Univ.)

Session H (Room 307) **Moderator: Masanori Oya (Meiji Univ.)**

Time	Session	Presentation
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16:55-17:20	H-2	Psychological distance and the hearer's inference Ahbi Koh (Kobe Gakuin Univ.)

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16:55-17:20	I-2	Phonological patterns of stress placement and metalinguistic knowledge on the pronunciation of suffixed words performed by Thai learners of English Chedtinee Piyapattaranop & Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn Univ.)

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16:55-17:20	J-2	A study on student strategies for TOEFL integrated-skills tests items Kahoko Matsumoto (Tokai Univ.), Kei Miyazaki (Tokai Univ.) & Taiko Tsuchihira (Seitoku Univ.)

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Time	Session	Presentation
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	W-2	Lexical analysis of ministry of education published English textbooks for elementary schools in Japan Keiko Haruoka (Kobe City Univ. of Foreign Studies)
	W-3	Reading materials and EFL college learners' self-efficacy enhancement Pei-Ling Yang (Oriental Institute of Technology)
	W-4	Characteristics of learners' English in monologues, paired, and group orals Junko Negishi (Tsurumi Univ.)
	W-5	The national core curriculum for teaching English in pre-service training and the prospective English teachers' workshop for senior high school students Kouichi Ano & Takako Machimura (Bunkyo Univ.)
	W-6	Can content based study of SLA create better language learners? Jack Pudelek (Kwansei Gakuin Univ.)
	W-7	Monitoring CEFR implementation through ELP use Gregory Birch, Yuko Tominaga & Michiko Muroi (Seisen Jogakuin College)
	W-8	Intelligibility of Korean-Accented English: the Unintelligible Features to Thai- and Korean-Speakers Bohyon Chung (Hanbat National Univ.)
	W-9	Globalization and English language education of Japan and Korea Bok-Myung Chang (Namseoul Univ.), Hyunsun Im (Korea Univ.) & Kazuhara Owada (Ritsumeikan Univ.)
	W-10	The study of tourism English related to English Bible Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Art Univ.)
	W-11	A study of the effect of learners' L1 in the mistakes of the usages of English prepositions with adverbs Kota Wachi (Shiba Junior/Senior High School)
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	W-13	Using focus groups to identify the English language needs in English-medium instruction courses at a Japanese university Shuhei Kudo (Waseda Univ. Honjo Senior High School), Tatsuro Tahara (Waseda Univ.) & Ryo Moriya (Japan Society for the Promotion of Science)
	W-14	Context effects on recognition of an ambiguous Kanji character: A longitudinal study Yoko Okita (Juntendo Univ.)

DAY 2 (August 21, 2019)

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09:50-10:15	L-3	On the complementary distribution of the universal quantifier mei and reduplicated classifiers in Mandarin Chinese Yanyang Zheng (Nanyang Institute of Technology & Cheongju Univ.)

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09:50-10:15	M-3	English interlanguage of passive construction by L1 Thai learners: Evidence from verb types Vatcharit Chantajinda (Chulalongkorn Univ.)

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11:20-11:45	P-3	Advanced discussion and discourse: Utilizing tabletop RPGs in the EFL classroom David Patrick Allen (Chubu Univ.)

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Time	Session	Presentation
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10:55-11:20	R-2	The standings of Englishes in EFL classrooms Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn Univ.)

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10:55-11:20	S-2	Japanese EFL Learners' Use of Formulaic Sequences Yoko Asari (Tokyo Univ. of Science)
11:20-11:45	S-3	New approaches to teach grammar in the 21st century Ahmed Al Shlowiy (ELI, Royal Commission for Jubail)

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15:45-16:10	T-1	Teaching Cantonese tones with blended learning materials to Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) students Chun Wah Yuen & Anna S.C. Cheung (The Hong Kong Polytechnic Univ.)
16:10-16:35	T-2	The use of the English alphabet in emoticons Hyowon Song (Busan Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:35-17:00	T-3	Discrimination between machine-translated and L2 human-written text: Features identified by English teachers Younghyon Heo (Univ. of Aizu), Jeremey Perkins (Univ. of Aizu) & Hyowon Song (Busan Univ. of Foreign Studies)

Session U (Room 314A) **Moderator: Takako Machimura (Bunkyo Univ.)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:45-16:10	U-1	The use of a radio drama in English writing courses Keiso Tatsukawa (Hiroshima Univ.)
16:10-16:35	U-2	Japanese EFL student writers' perspectives on anonymous peer review Sugene Kim (Nagoya Univ. of Commerce & Business)

Poster Session II (Room 225) **Moderator: Jung-hwa Shin (Korean Military Academy)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:30-17:00	W-16	Suggestions for general English courses based on college students' needs Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji Univ.)
	W-17	Japanese EFL learners' attitudes toward a commercially available speaking test: A questionnaire survey Kazuharu Owada (Ritsumeikan Univ.)
	W-18	How to motivate students to write an English essay Nagatoshi Yamamoto (Ichikawa Junior and Senior High School)
	W-19	A syntactic analysis of the floating quantifier construction and a related construction in Mandarin Chinese Yuhua Zheng (National Taiwan Normal Univ.)
	W-20	A study on the relationship between input of L2 vocabulary textbooks and L2 vocabulary acquisition Norifumi Ueda (Komazawa Univ.), Eiichiro Tsutsui (The Univ. of Kitakyushu) & Michiko Nakano (Waseda Univ.)
	W-21	Assessing summary writing tasks through comparison of human raters and writing checker software Eiichiro Tsutsui (The Univ. of Kitakyushu) & Kazuharu Owada (Ritsumeikan Univ.)
	W-22	Oral reading as a mode of reading comprehension in EFL: A research review Fumihisa Fujinaga (Kindai Univ.)
	W-23	Dialogic interactions in the cross-cultural learning Akiko Watanabe (Komazawa Univ.)
	W-24	Development of digital teaching/learning materials for promoting active learning in English language classes Satoshi Yoshida (Kindai Univ.)
	W-25	The characteristics of EFL learners' summary writing Akiko Watanabe (Komazawa University)
	W-26	Cultural policies of English language textbooks in Japan and Korea Bok-Myung Chang (Namseoul Univ.) & Kazuhara Owada (Ritsumeikan Univ.)
	W-27	Effects of an 'English Clinic' on the Development of Core Competencies Hera Chu (Sun Moon Univ.)
	W-28	An analysis of the textbooks for airline service English within the NCS framework Kyunghee Choi (Hanyang Women's Univ.)
	W-29	Collostructional analysis of English future tenses in a learner corpus Masanori Oya (Meiji Univ.)

Teaching Authenticity of Intercultural Communication in Media and Popular Culture Texts

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Abstract

'Authenticity' has long been a primary concern of sociolinguistic analyses. Early sociolinguistic work insisted that data collected should be 'spontaneous and naturally occurring', a methodological dictum that was, in large part, borrowed from dialectology's search for 'authentic' Englishes that were thought to be endangered by modernization and, later, urbanization. In many ways, authentic Englishes are imagined to represent both literally and imaginatively 'authentic identities' of the speakers of those languages. The emphasis on 'authentic' Englishes significantly coincides with the development across a number of English-speaking communities of a 'Standard Language Ideology', which promotes myths of 'purity' and 'timelessness' of the standard language. As standardized Englishes are usually adopted as media languages -- and frequently named after the media that use them, such as 'BBC English' or 'American Broadcast Standard' -- these media languages risk losing features that may signal 'authentic' language or identities. And the pursuit of authenticity in media Englishes is amplified in the Englishes of pop culture, where authenticity must be manufactured as part of the process of creation. This essay will explore the historical basis for the processes that manufacture authenticity in English varieties as normal recurring process of standardization in a pluricentric model of world Englishes and suggest some ways that authentic texts can be used in English language teaching classrooms.

Symbolic Competence: A Cultural, Political and Moral Lens for Language Pedagogy

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Abstract

This paper reviews the treatment of culture in the development and changing paradigms of language teaching, focusing on symbolic competence as a framework to address issues of culture in its full complexity and meeting the needs of language learners in an ever more globalizing and multilingual world. Symbolic competence (Kramsch, 2006; 2009) envisions the learner as a multilingual being, whose linguistic and cultural abilities are in flux with positionings of the self often destabilized. The paper illustrates learners' management of different meaning potentials in a new language through Korean learners' use of address terms that uniquely index hierarchical social relations. Instructional approaches that incorporate multimodalities and communities of practice are then suggested as a way to engage learners' desires, affects and subject positions for developing multilingual awareness and identities.

Keywords

Symbolic competence, multilingualism, Korean address terms, multimodalities, community-based learning

Introduction

Specialization of language teaching as a professional field and development of research on second language learning have tended to place priorities on issues of linguistics forms, albeit in association with meanings and communication at varying levels. Recently, language teaching is under increasing pressure to justify its relevance and contributions to the larger educational and professional endeavors, which calls for more macro approaches and articulations.

1 Reframing language teaching

1.1 Intercultural language learning

Michael Byram's (1997) notion of "intercultural competence" highlights language learning as a venture to acquire critical awareness of one's own cultural perspectives as well as understanding of others, with which he argues for "the integration of teaching for intercultural communication within a philosophy of political education."

1.2 Translingual and transcultural competence

MLA Ad-Hoc Committee Report (2007) emphasizes that the goal of foreign language learning is not to acquire a native speaker like competence, but to attain abilities to navigate between different languages and cultures.

1.3 World-readiness standards for language learning

ACTFL and a number of foreign language organizations in the USA (1996/2010) proposes a roadmap to develop learners communicative and cultural competence to participate in multilingual communities.

2 Symbolic competence

2.1 Learner identities and symbolic self

What was formerly perceived as learner anxiety, competitiveness and analyzed as psychosocial variables might be better understood with a perspective of identity work (Block, 2009). How the learner's sense of self or subjectivity might be disrupted in the process of language learning is in need of proper attention.

2.2 Symbolic competence and multilingual imagination

Symbolic competence is resignification of communicative and intercultural competence to overcome their monolingual and monocultural orientation. It refers to "the ability not only to approximate or appropriate for oneself someone else's language, but to shape the very context in which the language is learned and used" (Kramsch & Whiteside 2008), and argues for a pedagogy linked "to a speaker's position in history and space, and to his or her struggle for the control of social power and cultural memory" for the goal of promoting "multilingual imagination" to envision alternative ways of remembering, telling one's stories, participating in discussion, and empathizing with others (Kramsch, 2009).

3 Using address terms in Korean as an additional language

Korean kinship terms, *hyeong* and *oppa* (both denotationally 'older brother' differentiated by the speaker's gender), are used to index complex age and gender relationships beyond the family. Korean learners' understanding and (non)use of the terms are inflected not only by interactional goals, but by their beliefs and values about social hierarchy and gender relations (Kang, 2003; Brown, 2013). That is, the learner's sense and positioning of the symbolic self is an important factor in the use of the highly gendered terms.

4 Pedagogy for developing symbolic competence and multilingual subjectivities

4.1 Multimodalities

Materials in multiple modalities will provide learners in the FL context with opportunities for identity work involving the new language, albeit indirectly and vicariously. Research shows that learners develop idealized understanding of cultures and communities, and form desires for identification, through indirect contact with cultures via popular media. This could be the basis of developing more critical awareness and multilingual abilities.

4.2 Community-based learning

More direct contact and engagement with users of target language can be designed by drawing on communities in the local area as well as overseas. Language exchange, mentoring, and service learning projects are promising venues where encounters with people with divergent sociohitories could take place.

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Japanese Students' Developmental Changes in Intercultural Competence

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Abstract

This study compares the degrees of intercultural awareness and competence of elementary school, junior high school, and university students based on the analysis of retrospective entries of intercultural encounters made into the European self-reflective tool, *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters* (AIE). By comparing the tendencies and characteristics of how each group perceive "otherness" or "foreignness" in their intercultural encounters, the type and method of intercultural education appropriate for each level will be proposed, which will lead to the creation of maturity-based instructional models. Data analysis by 2 types of text analysis software have identified diverse ways perceptions of "otherness" were expressed and functioned in intercultural encounters that the 3 groups experienced. The entries of university students exhibited quite dichotomous (we vs. others) and stereotypical perceptions and attitudes. On the other hand, younger subjects' responses were more idiosyncratic, though often quite simplistic; more natural, intuitive reactions to and interpretations of the intercultural events appeared compared to university student entries. Since it is apparent that the proclivity for stereotyping gradually emerges and strengthens during younger ages, effective intervention or scaffolding at the elementary and junior high school level will be beneficial to nurture intercultural competence at a deeper level.

Keywords

Intercultural competence, Intercultural awareness, Self-reflective tool, AIE

Introduction

In Europe, the Council of Europe has been promoting the use of a self-reflective tool called "Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters" (hereafter referred to as AIE) for students to analyze and learn from their experiences dealing with people with very different ethnic/cultural backgrounds. As many as 53 questions were posed in order to make students self-evaluate their experiences from multiple points of view and help them gain deep reflection on their experiences. In a past study, an attempt was made to find the tendencies and characteristics of Japanese university students in handling various intercultural encounters by collecting their detailed responses written in the AIE (Matsumoto & Koyama, 2014). The most noteworthy finding was their strong dichotomous mindset, namely, the tendency to view the interaction in the "us vs. others" manner, which was manifested in their own explanation of the experiences, even in the cases where cultural difference was not so salient. The study was done as a part of a public grant project [1] which aims to create a framework for teaching intercultural competence.

In 2014, the young learners' version of AIE was launched, so a new experiment was designed using it with Japanese elementary and junior high school students, the hope being that the comparison with university students may elucidate when and how the dichotomous way of looking at foreigners or people with different ethnic/cultural backgrounds is formed. In the text analysis using an IBM text-mining software and the semantic-network analysis by KH Coder (Higuchi, 2013), it seemed that these tendencies and mindsets often derive from the depictions of foreigners in different types of media, which tend to be stereotypical, and based on the simplistic comparisons between the Japanese and groups with different ethnicities and/or nationalities (Matsumoto, 2017). This new line of inquiry has been done as a part of another public grant project[2] aiming at constructing instructional models for

[1] Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) grant: Project B, # 2232011

[2] JSPS grant: Project B, # 16H03456

intercultural competence covering and connecting all educational levels.

1 Purpose of the study

The aim of this study is to compare the responses of elementary school children, junior high school students, and university students in dealing with various intercultural encounters and solving problems in both successful and unsuccessful cases. By using a well-accepted self-reflective tool (AIE) and doing a systematic text and semantic-network analysis of the data, an attempt was made to find the developmental process of Japanese youth generation to form the above-mentioned dichotomous perspective, which often involves stereotypes. Then, based on the results, the type and method of intercultural education appropriate for each level will be proposed, which will lead to the creation of maturity-based instructional models.

2 The Study

2.1 Moodle-based data collection

Two Hundred eleven students in 7 different English classes at 3 private universities were asked to make an entry of the intercultural encounter that is most influential to them in response to various questions included in AIE, mounted on the Moodle. Concurrently, the responses of 121 junior high school students and 143 elementary school students were collected using the young learners' version.

2.2 Method of analysis

First, a qualitative, holistic analysis was done to obtain overall tendencies, followed by the statistical text analysis by an IBM software and the semantic-network analysis by KH Coder.

3 Results and Discussion

The data analysis showed different ways perceptions of "otherness" were formed and functioned in the intercultural encounters that children, junior high school and university students had experienced. While the entries of university students exhibited the perceptions and attitudes similar to those found in the previous study, the elementary school students' responses were more idiosyncratic, though often very simplistic; the dichotomous perspectives seen in the university students' responses appeared sporadically, but the data analysis showed more natural, individualistic reactions and interpretations of the intercultural events. As hypothesized, the responses of junior high school students were somewhere in between, where the beginning of the tendency of overgeneralization was detected, but with many individualistic and/or intuitive perceptions also being exhibited. All groups, to varying degrees, have tendencies of making stereotypical, sweeping statements about people different from themselves, which is quite natural as Japanese youths still live in a quite homogeneous environment. Yet, children's entries did not reflect them as frequently as their university counterparts.

Our project team has constructed a selection of maturity-based instructional models of intercultural competence and critical thinking, which reflect accumulated data from both the previous and current studies. They consist of the types and methods of intercultural education appropriate for each level, which have been tested at various schools of different characteristics in different educational environments. As expected, we had to make changes in the instructional models after each trial lesson, but in general, have been successful in fostering intercultural competence in elementary and junior high school students, which are shown in the comparison between their pre-lesson and post-lesson entries in AIE.

4 Future Directions

Continuous efforts will be made to do more fine-tuning of the instructional models we have developed with modifications and adjustments, with an eye toward arriving at more feasible, optimal and consistent instructional models for intercultural education that are conducive to different types/levels of classes at elementary, secondary, and tertiary education in Japan. AIE will continue to be used, firstly to validate these teaching models and materials and secondly, for autonomous, reflective learning *per se*, which is its original function.

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English Language Policies to Promote the Intercultural Competence of Korean EFL Learners

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to survey how English language policies of Korea changed so that they can promote the intercultural competence of Korean EFL learners. The research method was to analyze English textbooks focusing on the cultural themes of the textbooks and the cultural contents for introducing the various foreign countries and their cultures of the world, also maintaining the national identity of Korea. The results show that English language textbooks currently used in Korea contain the various cultural themes, foreign cultures, which can be evaluated as appropriate for cultivating the intercultural communication of Korean young learners in the ear of globalization. Also Korea's English education policies try to keep the balance between introducing various cultures of the world and maintaining the national identity of Korea.

Keywords

Globalization, English Language Textbooks, Culture, Cultural Policies, Intercultural Competence, ELF

Introduction

Globalization has changed the role of English because English became more used for international communication and understanding, alongside the integration process of knowledge and economy. Owing to the globalization, today the linguacultural environment of the world has become more multilingual and multicultural (Kramsch, 2009). Nowadays, many L2 learners are using English for intercultural communication or English as a lingua franca (ELF) because the most important reason of learning a language is to use that language for effective communication and exchange of messages and information. In the academic field of studying the multilingual and multicultural society, the concepts of "intercultural competence", "multicultural competence", "intercultural sensitivity", "cultural competence", "cross-cultural competence", "global competence", and "global citizenship" are being discussed.

Korea has recently made much effort to educate people about how to bring the world's culture to Korea and also to respect other cultures (Kim. E. M., 2000). The challenge is to develop Korean students into people who can play a leading role in international business in response to the challenges of the globalized world. In order to achieve this goal, Korea's main task is to develop students who have the intercultural competence in the era of globalization.

The analysis has shown that the English education policy of Korea has emphasized to develop the English language skills that could embrace both national and international responsibility for the sake of the globalization strategy to make Korea a stronger, more developed and more influential country in the world. In addition, the English textbooks compiled to achieve these educational goals played a very positive role in improving English skills, introducing a variety of world cultures to Korea and introducing Korean values and traditions to the world, while improving national self- esteem.

1 Methodology

1.1 Materials

This study analyzed middle school English textbooks from Korea. English textbooks play an essential role in studying the impact of globalization on English education because the essential elements of globalization policies are clearly reflected in the contents of English textbooks. English textbooks have been revised in accordance with the globalization policy set by the government of Korea.

Research Questions

1. What was the topic composition of each textbook? Were the topics constructed in order to improve the Korean students' ability to understand language and culture through various experiences?

2. Do the cultural contents of the textbooks reflect the cultural diversity enough to provide the wide perspective for understanding the multi-culturalism of the globalized era?

How to maintain the balance between introducing the various cultures into Korea and keeping Korea's national identity?

1.2 Textbook Analysis

1. In all of the textbooks, each unit includes one main reading passage. The analysis counted types and tokens of every noun and pronoun in the reading passages, excluding personal names.
2. Each noun/pronoun that could be identified as referring to culture in any way was classified according to these five categories: (1) people; (2) countries, cities, nationalities, and languages; (3) things (food, clothes, local products, local specialties); (4) events (festivals, national holidays, sports, games); (5) places (attractions, mountains, oceans).
3. The nouns and pronouns with referential meanings that referred to any country, region, or continent were identified. The following countries are referred to at least once: South Korea, Japan, America/Britain (combined for the analysis), Australia, France, China/Taiwan (combined for the analysis), India, Philippines, Italy, Spain. The following continents or regions are referred to at least once, either directly or through reference to one of the countries listed above: Asia, North America (including Britain for the analysis), Oceania, South America (i.e., through reference to Latin America), Europe (excluding Britain).

2 Results and discussions

This study showed that Korea's English language policy reforms in accordance with the globalized education purposes focused on introducing diverse cultural and historical facts of foreign countries to young Korean learners. Based on the findings of the study, Korea's English language policies could be evaluated to be in accordance with the globalized education purposes through introducing various cultures of the world into Korea and constructing the historical Korean identity by promoting the intercultural competence of Korean ELF learners.

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A Preliminary Needs Analysis Survey for Designing a Local EAP Assessment

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Abstract

In recent years, English language demands in content courses at universities in Japan has been changing rapidly due to the increase of English medium instruction (EMI) (Dearden, 2015; Murata, Iino, & Konakahara, 2017). An urgent issue in this context is to design English for academic purposes (EAP) assessments in the EMI settings. So far, however, little concrete guidance exists as to how an EAP assessment could be designed locally (e.g., Jenkins & Leung, 2017; Leung, Lewkowicz, & Jenkins, 2016). The presentation summarizes results of a preliminary needs analysis survey conducted to inform the design of a local EAP assessment reflecting students' perspectives at a private university in Tokyo. Survey responses of 38 first undergraduates at the university identified various challenges they faced in developing EAP skills and learning content in English. The survey also identified their willingness to improve EAP skills and strenuous efforts they made to achieve the goal as well as high anxiety toward EMI course tasks some of them felt. Another 109 responses of the students were analyzed to support the result. Issues of consideration and future directions for designing local EAP assessments in EMI settings in Japan will be discussed from language assessment.

Keywords

Needs analysis for local assessment, English for academic purposes (EAP), English medium instruction (EMI),

Introduction

Needs analysis, a method often employed for syllabus design, has also been used in the field of language assessment to inform assessment development. Also called domain analysis, a needs analysis is conducted to obtain detailed information about the context and nature of language use as well as knowledge, skills, and strategies required for successful task performance in the TLU domain. Descriptive information about language use in the TLU domain obtained from needs analysis could be used as the basis for operationalizing the target construct and designing assessment tasks and scoring criteria. The project design is based specifically on concepts of *Interpretation* and *Consequence* in Bachman and Palmer's (2010) Assessment Use Argument (AUA) framework. With the above as the background, the present needs analysis study addresses the following two research questions:

1. How do students perceive their own performance in the CBI bridge courses in general?
2. How do students perceive positive effects and challenges of taking the CBI bridge courses?

1 Method

1.1 Participants

A total of 38 undergraduate English majors (28 freshmen and 10 sophomores) participated in this study. All students were enrolled in the two CBI bridge courses described above at the time of their study participation (in the 2017 academic year) or in the previous academic year. The mean total score for the TOEFL ITP test administered to all 1st-year students in October 2017 was 515.1 (SD = 41.4). Another 109 participants were also freshmen in the 2018 academic year.

1.2 Materials

The needs analysis questionnaire was developed for the purpose of this study to investigate students' perceptions of their experience in the CBI bridge courses. The questionnaire comprised two major sections. Section 1 (28 items) was designed to explore students' perceived performance in the EAP bridge courses from four perspectives: emotional involvement in the classroom (10 items), self-regulation (5 items), goal setting in English language learning (6 items), and self-esteem for their

achievement (7 items). For each item in Section 1, the student rated his/her level of agreement with the statement on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree - 6 = Strongly agree).

Section 2 of the questionnaire consisted of two open-ended items that required the respondent to indicate perceived positive effects and challenges of taking the CBI bridge courses.

2 Analysis

The responses to the questionnaire items were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. First, descriptive statistics were obtained for each item in Section 1. The six response categories for each item were summarized into three broader categories (1 and 2 as Disagree; 3 and 4 as Neutral; and 5 and 6 as Agree). Responses to the open-ended items in Section 2 were analyzed qualitatively by the author and another researcher. The coder agreement rates were 90.3% for the coding of the positive effects, and 86.7% for that of the challenges.

3 Results

Some of the key results are shown here for lack of space.

Table 1. Student goals in English language learning

No. in survey	Statement	Mean	SD
26	I want to acquire the ability to present my opinion and discuss with others in English.	5.6	0.7
24	I want to acquire the ability to listen to academic lectures or presentations in English.	5.1	1.3
28	I want to acquire four skills of English, so that I can perform successfully in academic courses at universities abroad.	5.1	1.1
25	I want to acquire the ability to write accurate and logical texts in English.	4.9	1.5
23	I want to acquire the ability to read academic texts in English.	4.8	1.3
27	I have a goal that I want to achieve on some standardized English tests (ex. TOEFL test etc.)	4.3	1.4

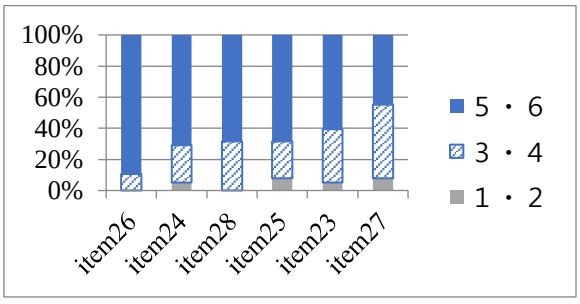

Figure1. Student goals in English language learning

Table 2. Self-esteem in English language learning

No. in survey	Statement	Mean	SD
29	I was fairly good at English subjects in high school.	4.6	1.4
34	I can give a presentation in English if I am prepared.	4.2	1.2
31	My English reading skill is fairly good.	4.1	1.3
30	My English skill is as good as other students in this university.	3.8	1.4
32	My English listening skill is fairly good.	3.6	1.5
35	I am confident about my English pronunciation.	3.4	1.3
33	My English writing skill is fairly good.	3.4	1.2

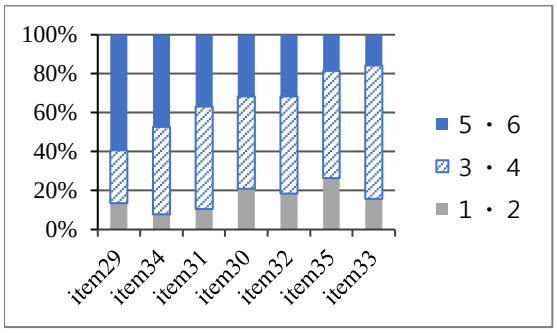

Figure 2. Self-esteem in English language learning

Table 3. Students' linguistic challenges of CBI

Linguistic challenge
A) Difficulty of expressing self in L2 (10 responses)
B) Code-switching & lack of opportunities to use L2 in class (9 responses)
C) Lack of confidence in pronunciation in English (3 responses)
D) Difficulty of understanding course content (10 responses)
E) Difficulty associated with unavailability of L1 (3 responses)

4 Discussion & Conclusion

Concerning the students' perceptions of their performance in the CBI bridge courses (Research Question 1), quantitative analysis results of the students' survey responses generally suggested the students' sufficient emotional involvement in the courses and generally high correspondence of their English language goals to the instructional goals. For research Question 2, the students reported perceiving improvements in various aspects of their L2 performance and content learning. At the same time, however, the students reported various challenges associated with the heavy workload and difficulties in using ELF for class communication and understanding academic content without relying on L1.

The present findings offer some important implications for a formative EAP assessment. According to the results of needs analysis reflecting students' perspectives, focusing on oral presentation and discussion skills, while also ensuring the coverage of relevant academic reading and listening comprehension skills, might be a viable approach.

Acknowledgments

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An Investigation of the Relationship between Task Difficulty and L2 Speaking Comprehensibility

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Abstract

The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between task difficulty and the comprehensibility of Chinese students' oral English. It aims to examine whether the global ratings of comprehensibility of elicited speech vary across tasks based on RASCH analysis, as well as participants' and raters' perspectives. 55 Chinese students from a Japanese university were asked to perform five speaking tasks, followed by a short questionnaire as well as interview, both concerning task difficulty and individuals' perceptions of their speaking performance. The elicited speech was audio-recorded and evaluated by six raters based on a holistic L2 comprehensibility scale developed. Results revealed that L2 comprehensibility did vary across tasks, in the way that the speech elicited by interview was easier to understand compared to the utterances drawn from either narrative or integrated tasks.

Keywords

Task difficulty, L2 comprehensibility, Rasch analysis

Introduction

With the wide-spread of TBLT teaching and learning, SLA researchers have been endeavoring to determine the factors which make a given L2 task more or less difficult. Early works on task difficulty concentrated on sequencing different tasks to facilitate various L2 learners attaining successful learning outcome (Nunan, 1989; Skehan, 1998). Recently, an increasing number of research suggested tasks as a source of L2 production variation, especially in the field of L2 speaking assessment (Bygate, 1999; Skehan, 2001), which requires further research to clarify the degree of impact of various task-related factors on task performance. Thus, the current study intends to examine the degree to which L2 speaking comprehensibility varies cross tasks from both learners' and raters' perspective.

1 Literature review

Previous studies investigated L2 speaking performance on various tasks and found that dialogic tasks led to better fluency than narrative tasks (storytelling and picture description) (Derwing, Rossiter, Munro, & Thomson, 2004), whereas narrative tasks promoted better L2 accuracy than complexity (Skehan & Foster, 1997). However, the number of previous studies tried to link L2 comprehensibility to task differences is very limited. Besides, previous study failed to establish a causal relationship between task difficulty and L2 speaking comprehensibility from the participants' view and raters' perspective on the task effect has been largely neglected. Therefore, the present study aims to fill this gap and offer some insight to understand the issue.

2 Research questions

1. Does L2 comprehensibility of oral production vary across tasks?
2. How did the participants perceive their speaking performance in relation to task difficulty?
3. What were raters' opinions towards the participants' speaking performance in relation to task difficulty?

3 Method

55 Chinese students participated in the research and all of them were officially registered students from various EMI programs at a private university based in Tokyo. They were asked to perform on five speaking tasks: a narrative task based on a series of picture from Derwing, Munro, Thomson and Rossiter (2009), a narrative task based on a short animation clip from YouTube, an integrated task based on a short lecture, another integrated task based on a reading passage and a short lecture, and finally an

interview task. Participants were asked to retell the story happened in the task input, and they were required to summarize the main concept of the audio and textual input when completing the integrated tasks. In the interactive task, the researcher acted as the interviewer who asks questions regarding on participants' future career plan.

Elicited speech was audio-recorded and evaluated by six raters who were all PhD students from the same institute. To reduce the effect of accent familiarity on the scores assigned, the author of the study recruited raters from three different countries: mainland China, Thailand and Indonesia. The raters were asked to evaluate the speech samples against L2 comprehensibility scale developed by Isaacs, Trofimovich and Foote (2018). Though raters did not receive professional training, they discussed the description of each band score thoroughly together with the author and finally reached agreement on conceptualizing the rubric.

4 Results

Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics of participants' speaking performance. Mean and standard deviation (SD) were similar across all five tasks. Participants were assigned the highest average score on Task 6 and the lowest on Tasks 2 and 3, indicating that speech elicited from Task 6 was the most comprehensible whereas those of Tasks 2 and 3 were the least comprehensible.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of speaking scores (N= 55)

	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task 1	3.59	0.88	2.33	5
Task 2	3.25	0.82	1.33	5
Task 3	3.25	0.83	1.17	5
Task 4	3.36	0.85	1	5
Task 6	3.98	0.77	2	5

According to Table 2, participants' perceived task difficulty is presented. They rated Task 3 as the most challenging, followed by Task 4 and Task2, and they perceived Task 1 and 5 as the easiest among all.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of task difficulty (N= 55)

	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task 1	2	0.99	1	4
Task 2	3.49	1.32	1	6
Task 3	4.31	1.13	2	6
Task 4	3.93	1.06	2	6
Task 6	2.2	1.17	1	6

Table 3 shows the correlation matrix between examinees' perceived task difficulty and their actual performance measured by the holistic scale of L2 comprehensibility. All correlation coefficients were estimated statistically significant, except for the one for Task 4 (r = -0.260, p = 0.055). Though the coefficients appeared to statistically significant, the values were relatively small, suggesting a considerable difference between how participants thought and how they actually performed.

Table 3. Correlation between task difficulty and task performance (N= 55)

		Average score of Task performance				
		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
Difficulty	T1	-0.354**				
	T2		-0.310*			
	T3			-0.311*		
	T4				-0.260	
	T5					-0.278*

Note: T refers to task. $^{**}p < 0.01$ $^{*}p < 0.05$

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Korean and Chinese EFL Learners' Word Association Types in L2 Mental Lexicon

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Abstract

In this paper, we investigated the factors that affect EFL learners' word association types in the second language (L2) mental lexicon. Specifically, vocabulary size and the first language (L1) were examined. To this end, experiment procedures that include vocabulary size test and lexical decision task (LDT) were conducted on both Chinese and Korean participants. Reaction time (RT) and accuracy of responding to word associations in LDT from two groups were analyzed with their vocabulary size respectively. The result showed that both Chinese and Korean participants' vocabulary sizes have significant correlation with their accuracy in identifying syntagmatic and paradigmatic associations, but not in phonological association. The relationship between RT and accuracy differed depending on each word association type.

Keywords

word association types, mental lexicon, lexical decision task, EFL learners

Introduction

Carroll (2004) explained the mental lexicon as the representation of words in permanent memory; once the word in lexicon was activated, all properties of it were accessible, including the associations with other words. That is, if a word was retrieved successfully, the access to words that had associations with it would be accelerated. Word association (WA) test is one of the most widely used approaches in examining the mental lexicon (Fitzpatrick, 2011). In this task, participants are required to write or speak one word immediately after they were presented a priming word. It was believed the response word that was given by participant revealed the word organization in one's mental lexicon. Then, the responses were categorized in terms of association with the stimulus. The associations that were observed in WA task were generally divided into three types which were syntagmatic, paradigmatic and phonological associations in many previous experiments (Chad, 2011, among others).

This paper aims to examine if vocabulary size is related to building word associations in L2 mental lexicon. Additionally, it will be examined whether EFL learners with different L1 present different word associations.

1 Literature review

Although word associations in L2 mental lexicon are invisible, it can be represented by the RT in LDT. In Lee' (2016) experiment, participants' RT was recorded in determining whether the strings of letters were words. The result of the LDT showed that participants responded more quickly when the priming word was semantically related to the target, and slowly when there was no semantic relation between the two.

Many experiments were conducted on native speakers and EFL learners in order to compare the difference of L1 and L2 mental lexicon. Li (2011) performed a WA test on English native speakers and Chinese EFL learners respectively and analyzed their responses. The result showed that native speakers' responses presented more syntagmatic and paradigmatic associations with the stimulus while EFL learners showed more phonological and erratic associations. However, Fitzpatrick (2007) addressed that L1 and L2 responses were not comparable because native speakers' word association patterns were always consistent, but not those of L2 learners.

Many previous studies have attested that L2 learners are different from L1 because of their preexisting language experience (Singleton, 1999). It is often the case that they bring in their L1 experience when processing L2. Thus, two EFL groups with different L1s were examined in this study.

2 Method

Thirty-four Chinese and forty Korean native

speakers whose L2 proficiency ranged from low to intermediate were recruited in this study. They were told to finish the vocabulary size test and LDT, where they had to determine if two words that were presented in sequence on the screen have any relations by pressing Y(yes) or N(no) buttons.

Vocabulary size test included 80 multiple choice in Vocabulary Size Test by Nation (2007) and translation questions of 80 English words that were chosen from the BNC/COCA headword lists. LDT measuring both accuracy and RT was performed on laptop. Each prime was sequentially presented with either one of the four targets which had syntagmatic, paradigmatic, phonological and no association respectively with it. In total, 18 prime words and 72 target words were prepared in this study.

3 Results

Table 1. Chinese Participants' Correlation between Vocabulary Size and Accuracy in LDT

Variable	Syntagmatic accuracy	Paradigmatic accuracy	Phonological accuracy
Vocab size	.088	.314	-.094

Table 2. Korean Participants' Correlation between Vocabulary Size and Accuracy in LDT

Variable	Syntagmatic accuracy	Paradigmatic accuracy	Phonological accuracy
Vocab size	.491**	.410**	.092

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The average accuracy of Chinese and Korean groups in vocabulary size test were 32.69 and 41.26. Table 1 and 2 showed that Korean groups' vocabulary size was significantly correlated with syntagmatic and paradigmatic associations, but not with phonological association. However, Chinese group's vocabulary size was not correlated with any type of association. That is, participants with bigger vocabulary size in both groups didn't mean that they have more phonological association in their L2 mental lexicon.

Table 3. Chinese participants' accuracy and RT

	Syntagmatic		Paradigmatic		Phonological	
	RT	accuracy	RT	accuracy	RT	accuracy
Accurate answer	1.477	1	1.357	1	1.332	1
Overall	1.483	0.593	1.417	0.796	1.369	0.569

As shown in Table 3 and 4, although Chinese participants' RT are slower than Koreans', their accuracy in LDT were similar. Additionally, the accuracy in identifying syntagmatic, paradigmatic and phonological associations increased simultaneously with the decrease of RT in both groups.

Table 4. Korean participants' accuracy and RT

	Syntagmatic		Paradigmatic		Phonological	
	RT	accuracy	RT	accuracy	RT	accuracy
Accurate answers	1.196	1	1.055	1	1.023	1
Overall	1.220	0.586	1.092	0.82	1.078	0.431

4 Discussion and conclusion

Many EFL learners take vocabulary size as an index of English proficiency. However, larger vocabulary size is not always related to higher accuracy in lexical knowledge. Although Korean EFL leaners in this study showed a bigger vocabulary size than Chinese, the accuracy in identifying syntagmatic and phonological associations were lower than Chinese. Yet, Koreans responded to all three types of word associations faster than Chinese participants. We may infer that with the development of vocabulary size, the speed of lexical access can be accelerated, even when accuracy is not increased. Finally, participants showed different patterns of accuracy and RT. For example, RT to syntagmatic association was longest, but not with the highest accuracy; paradigmatic associations had the highest accuracy, but its RT was not the longest. Thus, the access to the three types of word associations were different and syntagmatic, paradigmatic and phonological knowledge may be dissociated from one another.

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Individual Differences in Learning Japanese Gendered Speech: A Case Study of Adult Intermediate Learners of Japanese

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Abstract

In this study I examined how intermediate Japanese learners perceive and utilize Japanese gendered speech. Participants completed pre- and post- tests and took part in class activities about Japanese gendered speech. The overall perception of gendered speech among participants was mixed. This paper also examines the relationship between gendered speech acquisition and learners' identities.

Keywords

Japanese gendered speech, identities, JFL

Introduction

Japanese gendered speech is often a difficult concept for Japanese learners (e.g., Brown and Cheek, 2017). However, to date, the acquisition of Japanese gendered speech is still underrepresented in the literature. To investigate this further, I examined how intermediate learners of Japanese acquire gendered speech. Japanese gendered speech can appear in several different forms, such as personal pronouns, and sentence-ending particles. In this study, I focus on Japanese first person pronouns ("I" in English).

There are several different personal pronouns in Japanese, and many of them are gender specific. For males, *watashi*, *boku*, and *ore* are commonly used first person pronouns, while females commonly use *watashi*, *atashi*, *uchi*, and so on. As for L2 usage of first person pronouns, previous studies indicate that L2 speakers often do not differentiate personal pronouns, and utilize *watashi* exclusively regardless of gender and given context, even for advanced level learners (e.g., Kodama, 2016). This can result in utterances that sound unnatural for Japanese native speakers (Tseng, 2004). As Brown and Cheek (2017) suggest, Japanese learners need to study pronouns in order to accurately express their identity through speech.

1 Current Study

In this study I investigated how lower-intermediate learners of Japanese perceive and apply Japanese first person pronouns. The participants were students enrolled in second year college level Japanese in the U.S. This course was offered as an intensive summer course in which students studied two academic semesters worth of materials in 7.5 weeks. There were nine participants in total: seven females and two males. Participants completed a background questionnaire, language use questionnaire (adopted from Birdsong, Gertken, & Amengual, 2012), pre- and post- tests, and class activities relating to Japanese personal pronouns. Pre- and post- tests were in the written Discourse Completion Task (DCT) format. The scenario given in the DCT is that someone found the participant's dropped pen, and the participant needs to claim it as hers/his. The person who finds the pen is varied regarding gender, social status, age, and social distance (closeness) such as a boss, colleague, younger subordinate, friend, or Japanese host family. In addition, there were two settings for the participants: 1) you are a 25-year-old male, and 2) you are a 25-year-old female.

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Pre-Test

Among nine participants, seven participants did not differentiate first person pronouns at all, and just used *watashi* even in the "if you were a male" setting. Two participants (both males) used *watashi* and *boku*, although they appeared not to have a concrete idea of how to use *boku*.

2.2 Participants' perception

In the class discussion, half of the participants indicated a positive perception of gendered speech,

while some others had a negative perception, or mixed feelings toward gendered speech. Many participants indicated that gendered speech makes it easier to understand the dialogue when they read Japanese novels and manga. However, they did not show strong interest in using it in their own speech. In addition, many of the participants reported that they were not confident utilizing gendered speech, and misinterpreted some of gendered speech.

2.3 Post-test

In the post-test, all but one participant utilized multiple pronouns depending on given context.

The only participant who still applied *watashi* solely in the post-test was Heather; a female Caucasian American in her 30s. She is a native speaker of English, and fluent in Chinese. Heather was a PhD student in Asian history; her main motivation to study Japanese was to help her research. Heather was bright and cheerful, and was a sister-figure for her classmates. In the language use questionnaire, Heather answered that she identified herself 100% with an English-speaking culture, whereas she only identified 16% (she rated 1 out of 6) with a Japanese-speaking culture. She also indicated that it was not important for her to use Japanese like a native speaker.

In the pre-test, Heather did not differentiate any personal pronouns, and just used *watashi*, although she indicated that she knew the words *watashi*, *watakushi*, and *boku*. After the lessons, she showed her understanding of *ore* and *atashi*, in addition to *watashi*, *watakushi*, and *boku*. However, in the post-test, she still used *watashi* exclusively regardless the speaker's gender. At the post-test, she noted:

"I think adapting my language to gender norms in Japan would be difficult. I would probably be stubborn in my American-ness…"

Heather chose not to incorporate different pronouns although she knew other pronouns could be used. Some similar cases were reported in previous studies. By examining Korean honorifics usage by L2 learners, Brown (2013) found that there was a difference between what learners know about Korean honorifics and how they use it. Some learners chose not to use honorifics even when they had enough knowledge to incorporate it. Brown (2013) suggests that "language learners may ultimately reject the adoption of a local language identity when this identity is in opposition to their pre-existing self-image or cultural values" (p. 273). Heather appeared to reject using other pronouns because of an identity conflict.

Moreover, given the aforementioned lost pen scenario, in her post-test, she used *atashi* when she replied to her boss, and *watashi* for younger subordinates and friends. This goes against the norm of Japanese native speakers (*atashi* is generally considered more casual than *watashi*). Heather utilized *watashi* and *atashi* as if she was challenging the Japanese gender expectation. This is similar to the strategy of Sally, a participant from Siegal (1994). Sally, a Western female learner of Japanese, rejected the standard identity of the Japanese female and consciously overused casual forms, despite knowing that it went against the Japanese native speaker norm.

3 Conclusion

This study examined how second year college level Japanese learners perceive and utilize Japanese gendered speech. Although some learners felt positive about using gendered speech, others had negative or mixed feelings. Applying gendered speech can be a complicated issue for some learners, and careful planning will be necessary to prepare lessons on gendered speech. However, providing these lessons is crucial for learners to accurately reflect their Japanese speaker identities.

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Teaching in a Mobilized World: Understanding the Emotional Dilemma of a Group of EFL Teachers Teaching Migrant Students in Urban China

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Abstract

The unprecedented urbanization in China has brought to front the education of children who migrate from rural to urban areas together with their families. While most of the recent studies investigated migrant students' learning experiences, scare research attention has been paid to the language teachers who teach the migrant students. The current study delves into the teacher emotions of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers who work in public secondary schools with migrant students in China from a social-political angle. Conducting qualitative interviews with ten EFL teachers across different age groups in various public secondary schools in China, we discovered that most of the EFL teachers found it challenging to teach migrant students English which could trigger the enactment of teacher agency. EFL teachers' emotion was found to be related to migrant students' frequent social mobility, institutional requirements of the school, etc.

Keywords

Teacher emotions, migrant students, school climate, parental support, teacher education

Introduction

Teaching is an "emotional practice" and teachers' emotions vary greatly with "culture and context". (Hargreaves, 1998, p. 319). Teachers are situated in the center of school education and they are the executor of institutional regulations and educational policies. Therefore, teachers have been regarded as the key to good quality education which has brought the issue of teachers' emotions to scholars' concern.

1 Research Background

This study adopted the concepts of teachers' emotions as the lens to investigate EFL teachers' experience while teaching migrant students in an urban Chinese city. To probe into the construction of EFL teachers' emotions in the changing social and school environment, we reviewed the literature in past three decades and studied the social context in urban China to provide basis for current study.

1.1 Literature Review

Teachers' emotions not only exert influence on their own cognition, teaching motivation and teaching practice, but also impact students' cognition, learning motivation and learning behaviour (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Teachers' emotions were found to be associated with teachers' identity, beliefs and their self-concept (Cowie, 2011; Lohbeck, Hagenauer, & Frenzel, 2018). At the same time, teachers' emotions were found when they coped with the administrative reforms and educational policy changes which could lead to burnout at workplace or quitting the teaching career (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986). The research into EFL teachers' emotions showed that different emotions were displayed compared to the emotions of teachers of other subjects and EFL teachers also tend to show different emotions towards different group of people with an increasing in positive emotions and decreasing in negative emotions over time (Cowie, 2011; Jiang, Vauras, Volet, & Wang, 2016; Ruohotie-Lyhty, Korppi, Moate, & Nyman, 2018).

1.2 Social context of the study

China has the world's largest education system covering 271 million children and 103 million of them are influenced by population migration (UNICEF, 2019). Migrant workers usually take up the low-paid jobs in the cities such as working in manufacturing and construction (National Bureau of Statistic, 2019). The academic performance of migrant students is found to be significantly worse than urban non-migrant students in the cities,

especially in English subject (Ma & Wu., 2019; Huang, Song, Tao, & Liang, 2018).

2 Methodology

In order to explore EFL teachers' emotions and let them talk about their experience while working with migrant students in urban school, we adopted qualitative approach and conducted interviews to gather data. Ten EFL teachers were interviewed individually with the first author and each interview last around 60-90 minutes. The interviews were all audio-recorded and then transcribed. *NVivo 12* was used in the data analysis.

3 Preliminary Findings

Although the data analysis is still in progress, we anticipate that meaningful themes will emerge to explain the construction of EFL teachers' emotions in teaching migrant students.

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Disaster Preparedness and the Compulsory English Classroom

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Abstract

This paper charts the attempt to develop a compulsory English course that delves into disaster preparedness as the primary thematic content of the course. The ubiquitous nature of compulsory English presents an opportunity for the students to engage with subject matter that is also entirely non-optional where it occurs: disaster scenarios. This paper offers a qualitative account of developing, refining, and evaluating this alternative course, both in theory and in reaction to field testing with classes of students. Some discussion about the nature of compulsory education, and the field of disaster preparedness also features. Among the findings are that the students were largely receptive to the subject matter, but potential publishers were not. While it concludes that disasters are not optional, so studying them should be compulsory, it concedes that developing such a course is challenging in multiple ways

Keywords

University English, compulsory education, disaster preparedness, materials development.

Introduction

This study begins by examining existing research concerning both compulsory English study (at university) and disaster preparedness. It then goes on to track the development and field testing of a compulsory course that teaches disaster preparedness through English language study. The discussion then turns to the long-term viability of the course, and the measures being taken to refine it.

1 Literature review

In a study conducted by Noh, Kitagawa, and Oh (2014), the reality of the risk of disasters is said to be continuous, be they naturally occurring or human driven. This claim is true in practice of local and national level temporary problems such as; earthquakes, riots and disease outbreaks. Governments and industry are increasingly taking measures to mitigate these problems as they occur, but at an individual level many people are completely unprepared for such events.

Parallel to this, English language study has become a default compulsory course for many university students around the world. In surveys of students conducted by Liu & Huang (2011), and Cakici (2007), it was found that, while there is a wide range of attitudes towards compulsory English study, there are many students who remain unconvinced that it is a good use of their time.

This research project draws together these two seemingly unrelated issues by suggesting that these two problems can help solve each other.

2 Methodology

In addition to the literature review extensive reading was done around the topics of survivalism and prepping. This helped determine the themes of each lesson.

The basic lesson to lesson structure of the course was determined, and a textbook was drafted. The course was tested and refined with 3 different groups of university students undertaking compulsory English lessons (one 90 minute lesson per week, for a series of 15 weeks).

Each unit of the course dealt with a single survival topic such as: finding and purifying water, food preservation, and bartering. The sequence of the units was approximately chronological beginning just before disaster strikes, then moving forward into survival issues concerned with the first hour, day, week, and month, before transitioning into dealing with a long term crisis situation.

In order to focus on the content rather than the lesson mechanics the lesson to lesson structure was consistent for each unit. Each unit was only two pages long and included (in this order): a title, a vocabulary image, 11 items of vocabulary, a translation activity, a dictation activity, a grammar guide box, a group problem solving activity, a cloze reading task, a context image and a debate topic. Each unit's group problem solving activity typically

involved the group making a decision about an issue related to the topic and then delivering their findings to the class. Some examples include: planning a small farm, identifying medicinal plants, and putting together an emergency bag.

Towards the end of each course an anonymous survey was issued to the students. The survey was bilingual and multiple-choice. It asked for opinions about: studying English in general, a general appraisal of the course for both learning English and learning how to prepare for disaster situations, and some other considerations. Advanced statistical analysis was not conducted in relation to the survey results, but in simple terms the 80 completed surveys indicated that almost all participants found the course equal to, or preferable to, other ELT courses that they had studied.

An additional finding of the research was that publishers were not interested in developing this course as a product. The content was held to be too fringe, and the course too difficult to market. Self-publication was often suggested.

3 Discussion

Although the student reaction to the course was favorable, the course has numerous short comings and is currently undergoing extensive revision.

This course is intended as a brief detour from general English study, into using English to consider something that could prove more important to have thought about than anything else the students have ever studied. Many university students undertake multiple compulsory English study courses, it is the contention of this research that a course like this should be seriously considered as being worthy of one compulsory schedule slot from within a student's schedule.

The matter was also raised that there are too many sensitive issues featured in the book, for example: being dirty, stealing, violence, and fearful situations in general. It is true to say that this course would be totally out of place in any institution that isn't comfortable with students facing the grim reality that sometimes (very) bad things happen.

Superficially there are two major changes: narrative and cast. The original draft of the book follows a chronological sequence of events but without a clear narrative. The artwork in the book is not consistent, and features a range of unrelated, and unidentified characters. In the updated version these characters will be replaced with a clearly identified cast, each of whom will display individual aptitudes and flaws in relation to dealing with certain challenges presented by each topic in turn. The narrative will be more explicit and follow the story of how these characters survive through the changes in their circumstances.

Pedagogically, the grammar sections as they currently exist are weak and need a substantial amount of further development. The cloze reading tasks consistently seemed to be too difficult, and their placement towards the end seemed sub-optimal, particularly in comparison to the majority of other ELT textbooks. In line with the usual placement of such content in other books, a non-cloze reading passage to introduce the topic of each unit will be added at the start of each unit. The group activities and dictations will remain, but perhaps with the dictations being moved closer to the end of the unit as a consolidation activity. The single question debates will be re-titled as discussions, because actual debates are a specialized form of discourse. If it is determined that there is space, or a need for more content, the cloze activity may remain in some form.

4 Conclusion

This study investigated the possibility of using compulsory English lesson class time to study disaster preparedness. It offered some rationale for this concept, and then outlined the practical development and implementation of a trial run for that course. Feedback was gained from the students, publishers, and general associates, in addition to extensive self-reflection. That feedback has led to ongoing development of the course, a substantially updated version should begin field testing in the near future.

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Usage of Question Sets in Conversational English Classes in China

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Abstract

We discuss a localized model of teaching Conversational English and "local interpretation" of the teaching materials (Zhu, Han, 2010) for Conversational English in China. The teaching framework is a synthesis of the two basic components: the well- known Western approaches such as the communicative language teaching, task-based language teaching (TBLT) and student-centred approach adopted by the author for teaching Conversational English to not-very-motivated students in a Chinese university; also based on the local contexts on Le's "three I's model of learning to teach - imitation-indigenization-innovation" (Le Van Canh, 2004). The teacher's speaking time is minimized due to the fact that the students are familiar with the topics. Students talk more than 95 % of the class time as the students get a task they are familiar with through their everyday life, so they produce their own messages and statements to provide "free as well as controlled production" (Ellis, 2005). The model is suitable for teaching Conversational English to students of different departments majoring in all subjects in China.

Conclusion: the more of the local material is involved, the more favorable reaction and more chances to cause and stir up a class/group/pair discussion.

Keywords

indigenization, localization, a strong version of communicative language teaching and learning (CLT and CLL), pair/group/class work, student-centered approach, question set

Introduction

Conversational English classes are, generally, fun and lively. Many question sets related to various topics are available on ESL/EFL/TEFL teaching websites, a simple google search will easily bring about half a dozen websites with hundreds of prepared carefully crafted ESF/EFL questions http://iteslj.org/questions/; https://www.eslconversationquestions.com/english-conversation-questions/topics/; https://printdiscuss.com/, https://www.proofreadingservices.com/blogs/esl/14711713-24-excellent-esl-conversation-questions-for-adults (to mention just a few).

The general trend when a foreigner teaches Oral English in colleges – edutainment: i.e. to entertain and make sure the students speak, express themselves and learn in this process. We operate within this framework assigning students the topics for discussion in the form of thematic question sets or clusters, i.e. questions/sentences for discussion similar to those available on the ESL websites mentioned above, but the questions are often "localized" or indigenized."

1 Literature review

Conversational English is not a traditional academic subject. Academic literature is mostly related to students' motivation, progress, learning anxiety and multiple types of mistakes. Literature is significantly skewed towards practical application and implementation, so practice-oriented textbooks and websites are numerous. Generally, teachers find their own ways of involving students into conversations and classroom discussions. The basic principle – the teacher should have a sense of critical consciousness, informed by "socioculturally-sensitive pedagogy" (Mckay & Heng, 2008).

Many foreigners productively use the small-group collaboration that "allows learners to rehearse for the larger whole-class discussion to follow, to practice pronunciation of words, to structure conversations conceptually, and to build conversational efficacy in a less formal and less anxiety-ridden context" (Rance-Roney, 21).

2 Rationale and research question

We've analyzed and compare the question set downloaded from the teaching website related to the topics of general interest: College (from http://iteslj.org/questions/dating) and the question set "Campus" completed by the teacher with students' help. What questions are the most suitable and most productive?

3 Research material and method

We've taken a few videos where the students asked and exchanged the questions in pairs, scripted them and conducted the textual analysis and timing of the students' answers. Also, we used the Likert scale questionnaires aimed at finding out what questions are the most suitable and likeable.

4 Procedure

We have recorded the two Q and A sessions: "College" downloaded from http://iteslj.org/questions/ and "Campus" made by the teacher with students' help. We assessed efficiency of the questions in terms of the usage of new words, complexity of the questions and complexity of the students' responses.

Most of the questions in the two sets caused similar reaction. The three questions caused significantly different responses.

Table 1. Detailed descriptive statistics. Question set "College"

Question	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*r*
These questions are easy to answer	66	4,0909	,79860	,638
I didn't get a few words so I used my dictionary	66	2,9394	1,07958	1,166
Some answers are predictable	66	3,8030	,74871	.561

The 1st question set turned out to be relatively easy to answer (Mean bigger than 4), but the first set based on the local realia (details of college life on campus) is even more comfortable for informal inquiry. In the first, locally-based cluster, the opportunities for usage of detailed vocabulary are abundant (eventually, practically all noticeable sites on campus were mentioned by students in their answers and were included in supporting materials).

Table 2. Detailed descriptive statistics. Question set "Campus".

Question	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*r*
These questions are easy to answer	75	4,4933	,57829	,334
I didn't get a few words so I used my dictionary	75	2,760	1,14891	1,320
Some answers are predictable	75	3,440	,90404	.817

5 Discussion

The question about predictability of answers caused not significant difference in Mean (3.440 versus 3.8030), but turned out statistically significant, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, significance 0.001. Students rather agree that all questions are manageable. Regarding the scrips of the students' answers, the question "What places on this campus do you like the most?" cause the most diversified answers in terms of new vocabulary they used denoting the campus realia.

6 Conclusion

The more of the local material is involved, the more favorable students' reaction and more chances to cause and stir up a class/group/pair discussion. Also, students can be easily involved into the question making process, so these localized questions are the most productive from the standpoint of students' involvement.

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Describing the developmental process Grade 8 students over the Content-English-Integrated-Learning program

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Abstract

The study investigated the developmental process of EFL Grade 8 students' reading motivation, program engagement, English oral proficiency over the competence-based English-content-integrated-learning 18-week program. The explanatory sequential design of the mixed method was adopted in 3 phrases: (1) preparation for program and instrument (the motivation and engagement surveys, English oral-summary assessment), (2) implementation of program, instruments (using the survey to identify 4-type participants: high motivation-high engagement, low motivation-low engagement, the subsequent case study on the 4-type via interviews, totaling 24 students in Taipei and Hualien), and (3) interpretation using the qualitative and quantitative data to describe the change in the participants' motivation and engagement, English oral-summary skills. Findings revealed both the reasons for course engagement (at the individual and class levels) and learning profiles of the 4-type over the CLIL courses. Notably, some low motivation-low engagement students are effective English learners and yearned for more challenging and individualized tasks. High motivation-low engagement students faced greater challenges in over the course engagement. Low motivation-high engagement students were often disturbed by their classmates, preventing them from fully engaging in the course. High motivation-high engagement students are more devoted to the course learning. Pedagogical implications for the English-content-integrated-learning programs will be discussed.

Keywords

Content-Language-Integrated-Learning program, reading motivation, course engagement, English oral skills

1 General Instructions

In the upcoming implementation of 12-Year Basic Education in Taiwan, junior high schools commonly offer the English-content-integrated courses in the school-developed curriculum (in contrast to Ministry-mandated courses). Little is known how the courses are effective in developing the English skills, learning attitudes of EFL Grade 8 students in a developmental process. Such understanding is useful for education stakeholders and educators to develop more effective content-language-integrated-learning courses and to promote the optimal learning outcomes.

1.1 The 12-Year Basic Education in Taiwan

There are four competence-oriented learning principles in the 12-Year Basic Education in Taiwan: Contextualized learning; an applied action/practice fostering experience and reflection on active English learning; re-integration of attitude, skill, and knowledge; strategy use, self-regulated learning

The study applied these principles to developing curriculum and interview questions.

1.2 Content-Language-Integrated-Learning

Content-Language-Integrated-Learning(CLIL) consisted of four Cs, i.e., Communication via the target language, Content of the designated subject matters, Cognition of studying skills, and Culture of contexts at macro- or micro-levels (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). In terms of the CLIL implementation, it is necessary to contextualize the learning task into the setting in question.

In a nutshell, the study addressed two research questions (RQ) below: RQ1) What are the developmental processes of the course engagement of the four types of EFL Grade 8 students? RQ2) 3. What are the changes in the English oral skills of the four types of students?

2 Methodology

Figure 1 illustrates the research design of the study. The study adopted the explanatory sequential design of the mixed method (Creswell, 2009) in 3 phrases:

Phase 1 of preparation, Phase 2 of program and instruments implementation (i.e., identifying 4-type participants: high motivation high engagement, low motivation low engagement, high motivation low engagement, low motivation high engagement, the subsequent case study on the 4-type via interviews), and Phase 3 of data interpretation.

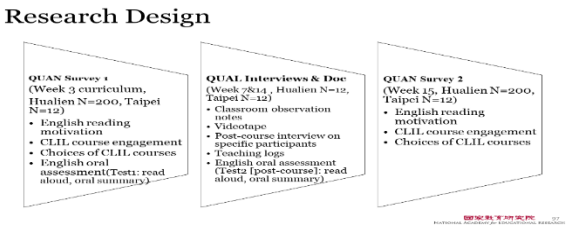

Figure 1. Research Design.

2.1 Participants

Participants were Grade 8 students receiving the CLIL courses in schooling in two cities in Taiwan, including the students in students in Hualien (N=200, 13), and the students in Taipei (N=30, 11).

2.2 Instruments

Instruments included surveys on the reading motivation (Guthrie & Klauda, 2014), course engagement (Wang et al., 2016), retrospective interview protocols, and Oral assessment of the read-aloud and oral-summary tasks in both pretest and posttest. Two raters were involved to ensure an acceptable inter-rater reliability.

3 Results & Discussion

3.1 RQ1: The developmental process of the course engagement

Findings revealed both the reasons for course engagement (at the individual and class levels) and learning profiles of the 4-type over the CLIL courses.

Notably, some low motivation-low engagement students are effective English learners and yearned for more challenging and individualized tasks. High motivation-low engagement students faced greater challenges in over the course engagement. Low motivation-high engagement students were often disturbed by their classmates, preventing them from fully engaging in the course. High motivation-high engagement students are more devoted to the course learning.

3.2 RQ2: The changes in the English oral skills

Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics of the EFL students' oral skills in pretest and posttest. Overall, the EFL students performed better in the posttest of reading-aloud and oral-summary tasks. All the task scores were significantly correlated.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of EFL students' oral skills.

	M	*SD*	*Cor_1*	*Cor_2*	*Cor_3*	*Cor_4*
1.Pre-ra	2.42	1.11	1.00	0.95	0.96	0.64
2.Post-ra	2.68	0.91	0.95	1.00	0.91	0.65
3.Pre-os	7.40	5.46	0.95	0.91	1.00	0.67
4.Post-os	7.74	4.43	0.64	0.65	0.67	1.00

Note: N=24. *pre-ra=pretest-read aloud; post-ra=post-read aloud; pre-os*= pretest-oral summary; post-os=posttest-oral summary. Cor= correlation.

On the basis of results in Table 1, the study performed the Wilcoxon Signed Test, and had the z-values below: z-value being -2.855 for the read-aloud task (p= 0.004 <0.05); z-value being -0.572 for the oral-summary task (p = 0.567 >0.05). The finding suggests that the participants had significantly higher performances in the posttest-read-aloud task, but did not so in the posttest-oral-summary task in general.

To better understand the degree to which the participants with relatively higher engagement in the CLIL courses, the study excluded the low-motivation-low-engagement and the high-motivation-low engagement participants, and re-computed the Wilcoxon Signed Test (N=16). The results of z-values were below: z-value being -2.831 for the read-aloud task (p = 0.005 <0.05); z-value being -2.487 for the oral-summary task (p = 0.013 <0.05).

In brief, the findings of the research questions were consistent with the hypotheses that EFL learners hold higher engagement perception and thus perform better in the learning process of engagement observation and in the learning outcome of the performance in the posttests of read-aloud and oral summary.

4 Conclusion

The findings provide empirical evidence for the sequential change in the attitude and English oral skills over the program. There are some details on whether and how the four-type students are motivated to read the materials, and engaged in the course.

There are a few potential implications. In terms of research implications, a mixed-methods research appears to be promising. In terms of pedagogical implications, the findings reveal that the CLIL instructors may categorize their students by the four categories, and then provide more individualized learning approaches and contents, and promote the effective learning process and better learning outcomes.

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Students' Feedback on a Flipped Classroom Model for College EFL Education

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Abstract

This study explores the feedback of a four-month experiment using a flipped classroom approach which involved 150 English-major undergraduates at a public university in Hubei. Adopting an online-based questionnaire, the study investigated the attitudes of students toward English learning through the new teaching model. Major results showed that the model was perceived by the students as contributing to the development of their active, autonomous, and collaborative learning skills, with several issues remaining in relation to the time allocation of online learning and in-class activities and students' online engagement.

Keywords

Students' feedback, flipped teaching, EFL education

Introduction

Higher education in Mainland China has witnessed a considerable transformation from an elite educational system to one in a stage of massification since the first decade of the 21st century. In 2007, China's Department of Higher Education launched the *College English Curriculum Requirements*, promoting "a computer-assisted and classroom-based teaching model" (p. 8).

One blended learning approach, the Small Private Online Course (SPOC), is one alternative to enhance and innovate on-campus curricular content through the online platforms and computer-assisted technologies (Fox, 2013). Furthermore, a flipped classroom approach has the potential to address the issue of how to distribute and arrange face-to-face and online instruction. Compared to traditional knowledge-transmission teaching, the flipped classroom approach removes face-to-face lectures from class time; instead, class presentations transform into home activities while homework and projects shift to in-class tasks (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015; Sohrabi & Iraj, 2016). Since the learning process inverts in a flipped classroom, students have more access to using English inside and outside the classroom (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). Therefore, this study investigates undergraduate students' feedback on the SPOC embedded flipped learning model in an EFL course at a Chinese public university.

1 Methodology

This study involved a compulsory EFL course for undergraduate English majors, "*Society and Culture of Britain and America*," in the fall semester of 2018 at a public university in Hubei. One hundred fifty students enrolled in this course with six classes. There were 25 students in each class and 122 students voluntarily participated in this study by completing an online questionnaire consisting of ten multiple-choice questions and one open-ended question at the end of the semester.

The teachers implemented the flipped classrooms by requiring students to complete self-paced online learning before class, including watching instructional videos, listening to recorded audios, reading passages, and utilizing online learning resources via the SPOC platform. Additionally, students were required to complete an online quiz every week. During the face-to-face sessions, the instructors facilitated collaborative learning by leading students in a variety of in-class tasks and activities. Students were encouraged to bring their own smart devices to complete homework via the SPOC platform, and participated in group discussions that covered a range of pre-determined topics.

2 Findings

First, concerning their general attitudes toward SPOC and flipped classrooms, students consistently favored online learning and interacting with teachers; approximately two-fifths of the students believed that the new teaching format was more beneficial

than the previous approach. However, a majority of students did not clearly indicate that they fit the flipped classroom model and preferred it over traditional face-to-face instruction. Most of the students were open to this new attempt, but they were less satisfied with the classroom structure than those in a traditional class were. A possible explanation for students' converse preference is that almost all the participants are first-year undergraduates and they may be underprepared for an immediate transition from a familiar instructional mode to an unfamiliar one. Those students graduated primarily from public high schools in Mainland China where traditional face-to-face lectures were employed exclusively. Thus, the lack of self-confidence might result in their conservative attitudes toward the SPOC and flipped classrooms.

In terms of active and autonomous learning mode, the students reported greater satisfaction with the flipped classroom structure. Nearly half of the students became positive toward their self-paced learning through the online platform and claimed that the new model contributed to their autonomous and active learning skills and critical thinking. However, slightly more than half of the students did not believe or felt uncertain that they could manage their learning progress, which may result from the fact that most students still feel more comfortable about passively receiving knowledge from the instructor in a teacher-centered classroom; thus, they may not have not established strong motivation for self-driven learning. Moreover, a majority of the students had limited or no understanding of flipped learning, so they might not be familiar with how to conduct autonomous and online learning properly.

Regarding a collaborative learning mode, over half of the students were positive about their teamwork experiences and peer cooperation via the flipped classroom, while slightly less showed their confidence in peer learning and interaction. The flipped classroom model is a student-centered pedagogical approach; thus, students have greater opportunities to communicate with their classmates using technology out of class and to participate actively in collaborative, hands-on tasks or activities during the sessions. However, the result also suggests that greater effort will be necessary to strengthen students' faiths and motivation in acquiring knowledge and skills through active helping and supporting their classmates.

The students' comments on the open-ended section draw our attention to a highlighted issue of flipped classrooms, namely, the time allocation of online learning and face-to-face sessions. Some students liked the ability to work at their own pace and time through the online platform, while others raised concerns that a higher workload from the online course caused them stress and seemed imbalanced when comparing online learning and face-to-face instruction. The heterogeneity of students in class possibly causes that some students favor online learning while others dislike it. Their diverse levels of English proficiency and learning demands may determine their different preferences for instructional formats.

3 Conclusion

This study reports on English-major undergraduates' perspectives on a SPOC embedded flipped classroom model at a public university in Mainland China. The results revealed that, on average, around half of students were positive about the use of the new teaching model in the current course, but the feedback from a few of survey items was somewhat mixed.

Several suggestions could potentially improve the effectiveness of the current flipped classroom model. First, an introductory program for SPOCs and flipped classrooms is necessary so that students can obtain additional guidance in developing their online, autonomous, and cooperative learning skills. Second, a pre-course assessment may be helpful to have a better understanding of different levels of students' English proficiency. Finally, online learning materials need to be divided into fundamental and advanced materials in line with students' learning readiness.

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Flipping the Classroom to Reduce the Foreign Language Anxiety of Asian Students

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Abstract

There is extensive evidence that the reticence and anxiety of many Asian students about communicating in English are often due to their worries about losing face and making mistakes in front of their peers. This reduces their opportunities to practise the foreign language, thus affecting their competitiveness in the international job market. The traditional input-based teaching is predominantly lecture-oriented without much student participation, because the teachers tend to focus on what they should teach in each lesson. In contrast to the traditional teaching approach, a flipped classroom is a more learner-centred and result-oriented approach that emphasizes the effectiveness of student learning and encourages students to learn, understand, and apply new information. This paper, therefore, examines the impact of a game-based approach on the narrative genre teaching by using a mixed research approach. The findings showed that the collaborative game-based group task served as a review session, enabling students to identify areas for improvement. It also enhanced the students' understanding of the concepts taught in class. This paper will reveal how the flipped classroom and game-based approach can enhance the behavioural, cognitive, and motivational engagement of students, which would further reduce their anxiety and reticence toward using English.

Introduction

The flipped classroom presents a learner-centred approach which incorporates independent pre-work through computer-mediated learning and cooperative in-class tasks (Foldnes, 2016). In-class time is devoted to collaborative problem-solving tasks in the form of debates, discussions, case studies, and problem solving. Another useful teaching approach that can enhance students' motivation to learn English and reduce their language anxiety is to use games. A game often features 'rules, variable quantifiable outcomes, valued outcomes, player attachment to outcomes and effort' (Miller, 2013, p.196). Studies of game-based teaching approaches tend to focus on primary and secondary education (e.g. O'Rourke et al., 2012). However, one should not overlook the benefits of games for tertiary-level students' motivation and English performance. It is also crucial to examine how flipped and blended learning tasks influence student performance or how well students can master the knowledge acquired. Therefore, this action research aims to examine the perceptions of students towards the gamified flipped approaches to learn English narratives and the impact of the gamified flipped approach on their narrative writing performance.

1 Methodology

The participants included two groups of second-year students. Group A serves as a Control Group that learns the English narrative genre through a non-gamified flipped-classroom approach, whereas Group B as an Experimental Group that learns through a gamified flipped-classroom approach. Before attending the class, both groups learned about the narrative structure by watching the same narrative structure videos online and reading the handouts explaining Labov's narrative structure (1972). To practise what they had learned, two groups were asked to complete different in-class tasks: Group A read a short story and was asked to discuss and identify the narrative components. Group B, however, participated in a game called 'Draw Anything', which comprised drawing, brainstorming, and storytelling components, with the use of an online drawing application. A mixed approach including questionnaires, interviews, and a writing test was used to investigate students' engagement and performance vis-à-vis the learning of English narrative genres.

2 Discussions and conclusion

Based on the responses to the questionnaires, the average narrative writing scores, and the focus group interviews, the game-based flipped classroom approach proved to be more effective for improving students' understanding of the narrative genre than a typical in-class discussion. Most Group B respondents indicated that the activity expanded their understanding of narratives, and they performed better on the narrating writing task than those in Group A did. This finding supports the view of Wichadee and Pattanapichet (2018) that a game-based approach can consolidate students' understanding of concepts learned in class. The students' understanding of these concepts was enhanced, as the gamified flipped learning task enabled students to apply what they had learned in a more practical way. Furthermore, the game approach is useful for students in preparing for their exams. The respondents indicated that the game activity allowed them to identify areas that needed to be strengthened. This suggests that the in-class gamified portion of a flipped classroom can serve as a review session.

Noteworthily, the gamified flipped classroom approach also strengthened the students' English communication and interpersonal skills. With a game-based approach, students became more confident when using English with each other. This conclusion supports the work of Cave et al. (2017), who point out that students' fears decreased when they worked with one another.

Further studies are needed to investigate the changes in students' perceptions on gamified flipped learning by continuing the intervention for a longer period. Future work is also needed to continue to explore the impact of computer-mediated gamified flipped-classroom approaches in different general and discipline-specific English courses. They could also compare the perceptions of university students from Hong Kong and other cities regarding the use of game-based approaches in ESL classrooms to further explore the related cultural, sociolinguistic, and psychological factors.

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To Learn or Not to Learn: Mobile-assisted English Learning for EFL Low-Achievers

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Abstract

Mobile-assisted language learning has received more and more popularity across all levels of education. Following this educational technology trend, this present study aims to enhance technological college learners' English vocabulary and collocation learning with the applications of mobile clickers. Mobile clickers have been applied to an EFL college classroom for the purpose of gamifying the learning dynamics through question-and-answer activities. Among dozens of clickers, Kahoot! was selected as the target tool due to its easy-to-use functions, world-wide popularity and free registration. The study involved two classes of participants who were freshmen in northern Taiwan selected by the convenience sampling. One of the groups (the control group) received only traditional ways of vocabulary learning while the other group (the experimental group), E-version handouts and Kahoot! activities and tests. In this quasi-experimental study, the data was gathered from the participants' attitude questionnaire and perceptions of Kahoot!-assisted English learning. This study results provide evidence to support that clickers play an influencing role to make EFL learners have more positive attitudes towards or perceptions of English learning.

Keywords

mobile-assisted language learning, Kahoot!, vocabulary learning, EFL learners, learner attitudes

Introduction

With the advanced development of technology-enhanced devices, traditional teaching and learning seem to be less attractive to language learners, especially for the learners from the younger generations. The young adult learners have been exposed themselves to the world full of high animation and instant interaction; moreover, they have their mobile devices with them all the time. Among various sorts of technological devices, mobile phones are the most preferred devices because of the popularity and portability. Therefore, this study aims to explore the effect of Mobile clickers on learners' learning attitudes.

1 Literature Review

1.1 Mobile-assisted language learning

The advantages of mobile-assisted language learning are to increase learner motivation, to promote teacher-learner communication, to provide adaptive learning materials, and to offer instant feedbacks (Stockwell, 2010; Walker, 2013). Particularly in the aspects of vocabulary learning, mobile devices could help learners acquire vocabulary more efficiently and effectively (Godwin-Jones, 2011). Prensky (2001) suggested that games provided users instant feedback for stronger users' emotional involvement.

1.2 Clickers in an educational context

Among different sorts of games for educational purposes, in recent years, clickers have attracted much attention from both teachers and learners. Clickers, which have been applied to formal education for almost two decades (Abrahamson, 2006), include three essential components: a clicker, a receiver, and software. The positive influences of clickers on learners' learning experiences and performances have been suggested in recent studies (Poole, 2012).

1.3 Features of Kahoot!

Kahoot!, an online platform application, helps flip traditional classrooms and involve learners in more active and learner-centered learning. Through its easy-to-use interface, the users or learners would easily participate in the gaming or competing atmosphere. The instant feedback of the scores catches the users' attention and motivates the users to go on answering the questions displayed on Kahoot!. In a clicker context, both the learners and

teachers receive prompt points and results.

2 Method

2.1 Participants

A total of 92 EFL technological college freshmen were recruited for this present study, majoring in industrial designing, electrical engineering, or materials and textiles. Their average English proficiency was between CEFR B2 to CEFR A1.

2.2 The attitude questionnaire

The attitude questionnaire was designed by the researcher-instructor and tested for its validity and reliability. The questions on the questionnaire were to elicit the participants' inner feelings about English learning, English learning with technology, and the importance of English learning. The questionnaire were answered by both of the groups before and after the study.

2.3 Research Design

This present study adopted a pre-test and post-test quasi-experimental design. The mobile-assisted group received interactive gamification activities by Kahoot! while the traditional learning group only participated in one-way instruction from the researcher-instructor. Their attitude questionnaire were distributed before and after the study intervention to compare the effect of the two learning contexts (Kahoot!-assisted and traditional learning).

3 Results

Table 1 presented the ANCOVA results of their attitudes towards English, showing that there were significant differences between the two groups after the study (F (1,89) = 7.686, p = .007 < .05).

Table 1. ANCOVA results of English attitudes tests of between-subjects effects

	Dependent Variable: attitudes					
Source	Type III *SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*Sig.*	Partial Eta. Squared
Corrected Model	16.389[a]	2	8.195	35.780	.000	.488
Intercept	4.855	1	4.855	21.198	.000	.220
Part A Strategies	14.534	1	14.534	63.458	.000	.458
Group	1.760	1	1.760	7.686	.007**	.093
Error	17.177	89	.229			
Total	786.457	92				
Corrected Total	33.566	91				

Note. R Squared = .488 (Adjusted R Squared = .475); ***p* < .01.

From the post-interview, the majority learners reported that Kahoot! was beneficial to their English learning. Their learning motivation was enhanced through taking Kahoot! activities. Moreover, they felt less anxious about using Kahoot to test their current English proficiency. Most importantly, they preferred to use Kahoot to improve their English in the future.

4 Conclusions and Discussions

College English low-achievers have been studied English for more than ten years in Taiwan but still have difficulty or anxiety in English learning. Thus, a more interactive, mobile-based, and game-like learning approach or device needs to be developed or incorporated into English teaching curricula. English teachers, through this Kahoot!-assisted English learning, can possibly have a more feasible alternative to teaching English and enhance the learners' positive attitudes towards English. To be concluded, this kind of Kahoot!-assisted English learning can well adapted to different learning contexts. In those contexts, the learners feel more motivated to and feel less anxious about learning English.

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Development of College Students' Core Competencies through an Extracurricular English Program

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Abstract

This study examines the effects of a 2-week intensive English program in the aspects of students' core competencies: English Communication Competency, Self-Directed Competency, Community Competency, and Knowledge and Information Literacy Competency. The program was non-credit and was held in January 2019 for first-year students who had chosen to attend a university in Korea in the upcoming semester. The data for this case study was collected through a questionnaire completed by 33 students and reflection papers from students and was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results showed that three competencies (English Communication Competency, Self-Directed Competency, and Knowledge and Information Literacy Competency) of the participants were improved after joining the English program. The results also revealed that Community Competency did not improve significantly after joining the program but showed a strong tendency. The results indicated that a short term English program is effective in the aspects of enhancing college students' core competencies. It is necessary to continuously monitor the effects of the program in the aspects of core competencies. The pedagogical and implications and future directions of the study were discussed.

Keywords

College students' core-competencies, extracurricular English program, intensive English program

Introduction

To date, a great amount of emphasis has been placed on competency-based learning in college education (Yoon, 2017). Also, as the world is facing rapid technological change and instantaneous availability of vast amounts of information, competency-based education is surging in popularity to foster competent individuals who can respond to a fast-changing society (Rychen & Salganik, 2003).

Such demand in education has led the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) to reconstruct the concept of competencies through DeSeCo (Defining and Selecting of Competence) Project. The project defined the core competencies which refer to a comprehensive concept encompassing knowledge, skills, and attitudes that anyone can apply to their own lives. In other words, the concept of competencies is not limited to a particular context such as school or the workplace, but they contribute to individuals to lead a successful life and a well-functioning society for the present and the future. Shortly, the approach was spread throughout the world and called for the importance of core competencies in college education.

1 Research Method

1.1 Participants

The participants for this study were first-year students who had chosen to attend E. university in the upcoming semester. All participants in this study were from different high school and are expected to enter the University. There were a total of 33 students at the end of the 2018 program.

Additionally, four native English speaking professors participated in the program. The four native English speaking instructors were full-time faculty members at a university with experience teaching students of all skill levels. All instructors had experience creating materials and teaching the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The instructors came from multiple countries with two from the USA, one from Ireland, and one from England.

1.2 Instruments

The student questionnaire consisted of 2 sections. The first section asked for biographical data and the second section was comprised of 13 items which were divided into four categories measuring their

competencies on English Communication Competency, Self-Directed Competency, Community Competency, and Knowledge and Information Literacy Competency. The items were adopted from the report from Korea Council for University Education (2018). Students were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a five-point Likert-type scale. Ratings ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Participants were required to submit open-ended reflection papers written in Korea about the Program at the end of the program. To analyze the result, SAS(Statistical Analysis System) statistical analyses was performed. In order to analyze the reliability of the questionnaire measurement factors, Cronbach's alpha was verified. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.928726. At the last day of the program, student-participants were required to submit their reflection papers.

2 Results and Discussion

The questionnaires were constructed to measure the four areas of core-competencies: English Communication Competency (ECC); Self-Directed Competency (SDC); Community Competency (CC); Knowledge and Information Literacy Competency KIUC). As shown in Table 1, it is evident that the students' overall core competencies were developed. The comparison of the average score of the pre and post tests showed the mean was significantly higher after participating in the program (pre: 3.5221, post: 3.9953).

Table 1. T-Test of Total Questions

Test	N	Mean	SD	*t*-Value	*P* value
Pre	33	3.5221	0.5102	-3.67	0.0005**
Post	33	3.9953	0.5360		

**p<.01

In particular, the results (Table 2) display significant improvement of core competencies in the three categories: ECC; SDC; KILC.

Table 2. T-Test & Statistical Results of Each Category

No	*Category*	Test	Mean	SD	*t*-Value	*P* value
1	ECC	Pre	3.1212	0.6113	-4.24	0.000070**
		Post	3.7879	0.6657		
2	SDC	Pre	3.3712	0.6096	-3.33	0.001443**
		Post	3.8788	0.6285		
3	CC	Pre	3.9798	0.6452	-1.90	0.062487
		Post	4.2727	0.6093		
4	KIUC	Pre	3.6667	0.6236	-2.64	0.010431*
		Post	4.0808	0.6510		

*p<.05, **p<.01

Table 3. Pre and Post Tests of English Communication Competency

No	Test	Mean	SD	*t*-Value	*P* value
1	Pre	3.0303	0.6840	-3.83	0.0003**
	Post	3.6970	0.7282		
2	Pre	3.2424	0.6139	-4.04	0.0001**
	Post	3.9091	0.7230		
3	Pre	3.0909	0.6784	-4.04	0.0001**
	Post	3.7576	0.6629		

**p<.01

Table 4. Pre and Post Tests of Self-Directed Competency

No	Test	Mean	SD	*t*-Value	*P* value
4	Pre	3.3030	0.7282	-2.91	0.0050**
	Post	3.8485	0.7953		
5	Pre	3.8182	0.6826	-2.65	0.0100**
	Post	4.2424	0.6139		
6	Pre	3.2121	0.6963	-3.06	0.0032**
	Post	3.7576	0.7513		
7	Pre	3.1515	1.0344	-2.21	0.0310*
	Post	3.6667	0.8539		

*p<.05, **p<.01

Table 5. Pre and Post Test of Community Competency

No	Test	Mean	SD	*t-V*alue	*P* value
8	Pre	4.1212	0.7398	-0.14	0.8894
	Post	4.1515	1.0038		
9	Pre	3.6667	0.7360	-3.49	0.0009**
	Post	4.2727	0.6742		
10	Pre	4.1515	0.7124	-1.44	0.1560
	Post	4.3939	0.6586		

*p<.05, **p<.01

Table 6. Pre and Post Tests of Knowledge and Information Literacy Competency

No	Test	Mean	SD	*t*-Value	*P* value
11	Pre	3.4848	0.7550	-3.33	0.0014**
	Post	4.0909	0.7230		
12	Pre	3.5758	0.7513	-2.43	0.0177*
	Post	4.0000	0.6614		
13	Pre	3.9394	0.7044	-1.22	0.2284
	Post	4.1515	0.7124		

*p<.05, **p<.01

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Get EFL Learners to Speak out through Doing Language Learning Tasks

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Abstract

In the EFL context, learners have limited chance to speak English. Task-based language learning provides language experience for learners (Nunan, 2004). Through doing different tasks, learners have chance to communicate in English and manage their learning. The present study aimed to examine the self-efficacy of learners who enrolled in the task-based speaking course. The participants were Thai EFL learners studying at a university in Thailand. Four tasks were designed to enhance speaking skills and develop self-efficacy. At the end of course, a survey is conducted to explore learners' speaking self-efficacy. The findings showed that learners believed that they could improve their speaking. Experiencing English language through doing tasks lower their anxiety. The results support Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter Hypothesis that the tasks provide relaxing atmosphere and motivate learners to speak and improve their skills.

Keywords

task-based language learning; EFL learners; self-efficacy; EFL speaking course

Introduction

Like EFL learners in other countries, Thai learners have limited chance to speaking English. Many of them were not confidence to speak English because they were worried about errors and pronunciation.

According to Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter Hypothesis, emotional factor is one of the crucial obstacle of learning a language. He proposed that anxiety, stress, low motivation, and self-confidence were the barriers of language learning. In the EFL context, learners commonly learn conversations that they cannot genuinely engage in, e.g. talking about European food. It is quite controversial to explain the situation that never occur in learners' lives in the class. A well designed lessons that include language learning tasks could give learners fruitful experience (Nunan, 2004). In addition, learners can be more engaged and motivated when the tasks are authentic and somehow related to their real lives.

1 Research design

The participants were Thai undergraduate students in a university in Thailand. They were non-English major students. The students were in the mixed-ability speaking classes. As an action research, 168 students were selected by convenience.

The lessons were designed to enhance speaking skills and encourage the learners to speak accurately and confidently. Pre-task activities were provided to prepare learners to undertake each task. Four speaking tasks include talking on the phone, talking about food, negotiating, and giving a business presentation. The level of difficulty of four speaking tasks is hierarchical. The first task is designed to be the easiest assignment. It is a prepared-conversation. The second task is more challenging because the learners present a Thai menu that they randomly select. The third task deals with spontaneous speaking. The last task, giving a business presentation, is the most demanding because learners need to give a formal business presentation in front of class.

1.1 Speaking tasks

The design of each task is exhibited as follows.

1.1.1 Talking on the phone

Prior to doing the task, the teacher introduced different expressions and steps in taking a telephone conversation. Then learners worked in a small group to create a script and identify the steps. After that, learners imitated a telephone conversation with their friends and recorded the conversation. The feedback on the accuracy, fluency, and pronunciation was given to the class. The task was a semi-prepared talk because learners could memorize the step and expressions. However, they needed to follow the speaking prompt that they randomly selected. The

steps in each prompt were slightly different from the script that they learned earlier. Each pair of learners was commented on their pronunciation and accuracy. They were encouraged to improve their speaking.

1.1.2 Recommending Thai food

The aim of this task is to recommend a Thai recipe to a foreigner. An example conversation was presented. The key expressions and vocabulary were listed. After that, learners worked in a small group to create an imaginary Thai recipe. They were given two major ingredients: a candy/chocolate and Thai herbs. Each group presented their creative recipe to the teacher. A week after that, each group conducted a role play to recommend a Thai dish to a foreigner. A guideline of recommending a dish was given. The teachers gave feedbacks on the role plays. Then each learner randomly picked a menu prepared by the teacher and recommended it to the teacher who acted as a foreigner.

1.1.3 Negotiating

The aim of this task is to promote spontaneous speaking. Teacher prepared learners by presenting some examples of negotiation. Then learners were assigned to prepare a presentation on a product or services that they thought the teacher would buy. A guideline of presentation was given to class. After the presentation, the teacher negotiated with each group to get the best deal. The learners were able to earn good scores when the teacher agreed to purchase their products.

1.1.4 Giving a business presentation

It is a term project that learners had to report their progress several times. At the beginning of semester, learners were trained to plan their presentation. They used the template given by the teacher to outline the presentation. Role of each member in the group was also reported to teacher. Teacher gave feedbacks on the outline and allowed learners to improve it. A few weeks after that, learners created a script for the presentation. Then they practiced giving presentation and recorded their rehearsal. Teacher suggested each learner to watch their own presentation and fix the problems in their speaking. To relax the learners, teacher had each of them talk about themselves or sing a song in front of class. At the end of semester, learners gave a presentation to class.

1.2 Survey on self-efficacy

The survey consists of a speaking self-efficacy questionnaire, a self-assessment form, and the student's learning assessment. The questionnaire was developed to examine the learner's speaking self-efficacy in general and in doing three activities (talking on the phone, recommending Thai food, and negotiating). Learners gave a reflection on their presentation in the self-assessment form. Their responses to the university's learning assessment on the speaking course were also analyzed.

2 Results and discussion

The findings showed that the learners' self-efficacy in speaking English was quite high (Mean = 3.51, S.D. 0.97). It can be assumed that the tasks were able to develop speaking self-efficacy.

Table 1. Speaking self-efficacy (n = 168)

	M	*SD*
1. I think that speaking English is not difficult.	3.62	0.87
2. I can develop my speaking skills.	4.08	0.63
3. I can speak English with foreigners.	3.51	0.84
4. Sometimes I cannot do speaking activities because I did not prepare well.	3.81	0.84
5. When I use English doing different activities, my speaking skills is improved.	4.29	0.74
6. I try to improve my speaking skills as hard as I can.	4.13	0.70
7. I know how to solve problems in learning English.	3.77	0.66
8. Learning how to speaking English is easy.	3.35	0.94
9. I like speaking English with friends who can speak well or with teachers.	3.38	0.88
10. I am not nervous when I speak English.	2.47	1.00
11. The harder topics of speaking I have, the more I enjoy practicing.	2.97	0.99
12. I can have telephone conversations.	3.01	0.98
13. I can recommend Thai food.	3.48	0.85
14. I can negotiate a price of product	3.27	0.93

The results from the questionnaire (Table 1) were consistent with the feedback given in the learning assessment. Learners believed that their speaking skills could be developed through doing different activities (Mean = 4.29, S.D.= 0.74). However, they were quite worried to speak English (Mean = 2.47, S.D.=1.00). Some learners may need more preparation and practice to increase their confidence.

Providing pre-tasks activities aided learners to be ready for the speaking tasks. Learners were highly motivated to speak English because the goal was set at the beginning of each task.

3 Summary

A well designed task-based course can be used to either promote English speaking or encourage EFL learners to conduct conversations. It is expected that the findings of the present study could be used as an example of EFL speaking course provided by a non-native teacher.

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Psychological Distance and the Hearer's Inference

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Abstract

The aim of my talk is to show the mechanism of the conversation. A large gap exists between the literal meaning and the speaker meaning in the conversation. The psychological distance affects this large gap. In the theory of Grice (1989), the hearer requires inference from the utterance of the speaker. The speaker unconsciously uses the word that the psychological distance affects in his utterance. I suggest that the psychological distance and the hearer's inference are components of a conversation. The speaker uses the word that the psychological distance affects in his utterance. And, the hearer has to infer the speaker meaning that the psychological distance affects. Consequently, the psychological distance and the hearer's inference are components of a conversation.

Keywords

Korean, Psychological distance, Inference, Conversation

Introduction

A notable gap often exists between the literal meaning and the speaker meaning even in conversation. According to Levinson (1983:17), there are interesting discrepancies between the speaker-meaning and the sentence-meaning. However, Grice presupposes that linguistic expressions are all literal in Cooperative Principle of Grice (1989). Then, Grice (1989) says his principles in the way they can be interpreted non-literally by inference. The psychological distance affects a notable gap between the literal meaning and the speaker meaning. Then, when the hearer understands what the speaker says, the hearer has to infer unconsciously. That is, the hypothesis is that the psychological distance and the hearer's inference are components of a conversation. To investigate this hypothesis, I use Korean temporal adverbs *ittaga* and *nazunge* which have the meaning of *later* in English.

1 Psychological Distance

Kuno (1978, 1987) and Kamio (1990, 1997) first introduce the psychological distance. Kuno's theory is that the speaker is the center in the sentence. Then, the psychological distance of Kuno's theory involves only the speaker. In Contrast, Kamio's theory stands between the speaker, the hearer and information given by the verbal utterance. Kamio's theory involves either the speaker or the hearer.

2 Korean Temporal Adverbs

Korean temporal adverbs *ittaga* and *nazunge* have the meaning of *later i*n English. *Ittaga* and *nazunge* are said to be synonyms. Some surveys [3] were undertaken to prove the difference between *ittaga* and *nazunge*. After surveys, it has become clear that they are not synonyms. The result is as in (1) below.

(1)
Ittaga: the event time within one day
Nazunge: the event time over two days

Through some surveys[3], it is apparent that *ittaga* and *nazunge* have obvious differences, especially in event times.

3 Discussion

See (2) below. The event time is over two days.

(2)
[On the telephone]
Yuna: Handal hu-e jeo-neun ilbon-e galge.
Bihaenggi pyo-do sasseo.
"I'm going to Japan one month later. I just bought a plane ticket."
Jiu: Ppalli bogo sipeo. *Ittaga* ilbon-eseo bwa.
"I want to see you soon. See you *later* in Japan."

According to the results of the surveys[3] (1), when the

[3] Koh (2016)

event time is over two days, we have to use *nazunge* in (2). However, when the psychological distance between the speaker and information given by the verbal utterance is close, *ittaga* is most appropriate in (2). The action that Korean temporal adverb modifies exists within the territory of the speaker. That is, *ittaga* should be the best choice in Kamio's theory. In contrast, this phenomenon and use of Korean temporal adverb cannot be explained by Kuno's theory. The psychological distance of Kuno stands between the speaker and a particular person referred to in the sentence.
Next see (3) below. The event time is within one day.

(3)
Chikwaeuisa: Morae sarangni-reur ppopgetseupnida.
Neomu apeulgeoeyo.
(Dentist): "I will get your wisdom tooth the day after tomorrow. You will hurt very much."
Soyoung: Ne. *Nazunge* olgeyo.
"I see. I come here later."

According to the results of the surveys[3] (1), when the event time is within one day, *ittaga* should be used in (2). However, the speaker uses *nazunge*. The phenomenon cannot be explained by Kamio's theory. According to Kamio's theory, we have to use *ittaga*, not *nazunge*. However, *nazunge* is used. Pulling out the speaker's tooth is not within the territory of the speaker. The action Korean temporal adverb modifies is bad and painful for the speaker.
Then, when the psychological distance of Kuno stands between the speaker and a particular person referred to in the sentence, *ittaga* should be used in (3). The action the adverb modifies is the speaker's one. Accordingly, neither of theories can explain the use of *nazunge*.

Accordingly, the psychological distance affects the use of *ittaga* and *nazunge*. The point is shown (4) below.

(4)
a. *ittaga*: the action that *ittaga* modifies is good and unpainful for the speaker.
b. *nazunge*: the action that *nazunge* modifies is bad and painful for the speaker.

According to (2) and (3), it is apparent that the psychological distance affects the uses of *ittaga* and *nazunge*. See the notion of the psychological distance (4) below.

(4) The notion of the psychological diatnce
- The psychological distance holds between the speaker and the hearer.
- The psychological distance stands between the speaker and information of given by the verbal utterance.
- The psychological distance holds between the hearer and information of given by the verbal utterance.

4 Conclusion

The hearer has to infer from the speaker's utterance. The speaker uses the words that the psychological distance affects in his utterance. Then, the hearer unconsciously infers the speaker meaning of his utterance that the psychological distance affects. That is, the psychological distance and the hearer's inference are components of a conversation.

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A Corpus-Driven Study of Key Near-Synonymous Adjectives in English Financial Discourse of Hong Kong

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Abstract

The present study identifies three pairs of near-synonymous English adjectives in financial discourse of Hong Kong with specialised and reference corpora. Different patterns of usage were found between members of each pairs.

Keywords

Financial discourse, Corpus linguistics, Hong Kong, Synonymous adjectives

Introduction

Hong Kong has always labelled itself as an international financial centre, but studies on its financial language are surprisingly few. Both English and Chinese are commonly used in official financial publications. This study focuses on English since the language, after Hong Kong reverted to Chinese soverignty in 1997, is still very dominant in the financial arena, manifested by the fact that documents are always first drafted in English and translated into Chinese.

The present study aims to explore the usage of near-synonymous English adjectives in financial services discourse of Hong Kong through the Hong Kong Financial Services Corpus (HKFSC), developed by the Research Centre for Professional Communication in English (RCPCE), Department of English, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

1 Literature review

Some other studies have used the HKFSC to conduct investigations of the features of financial discourse, including colour metaphors (Li & MacGregor, 2009), semantic fields and metaphors (Cheng & Ho, 2017) and sentiment and confidence (Mackenzie, 2018), and a review of business communication and business discourse in Asia (Cheng, 2009).

This study uses the corpus to examine near-synonymous adjectives in financial texts as it is found that they demonstrate different patterns of usage in this specialised discourse.

2 Methodology

The present study identifies key adjectives with the keyword list function of AntConc (Anthony, 2019). The specialized corpus in use is the 7-million-token HKFSC, and the reference corpus is a reduced British National Corpus (BNC), with a size of around 5 million tokens.

With the use of an exclusion list of grammatical items, the first 500 keywords were derived, examined, indexed and divided into eleven categories, one of them being adjectives/possessives.

Forty-two adjectives/possessives were identified to be of statistical prominence, and among them, three pairs of near-synonyms were detected: total/aggregate, global/international and general/ordinary. As they are mostly used as attributive adjectives, their right collocates were examined. The frequency of occurrence of these adjectives and their first 30 right collocates (span=2) of highest occurrence were generated through the online platform of RCPCE for analysis. These collocates, together with their concordances, were studied and contrasted.

3 Findings

3.1 Total/aggregate

In the HKFSC, Total occurs much more frequently than aggregate. There are quite a number of words that collocate with both total and aggregate, i.e., of, gross, number, amount, site, outstanding, consideration and value. This shows that their denotational meanings are very similar.

Table 1. Number of instances of *total* and *aggregate* in HKFSC

total	12987
aggregate	2312

A pair of antonyms that collocates exclusively with total is worthy of attention: assets and liabilities. A closer look at the concordances reveals that the two words mostly appear at the R1 position of total, and in a significant number of instances, occur as items in financial statements but not among texts. Another collocate of total also demonstrates similar pattern: equity. Similarly, it always appears in the R1 position of total as items in financial statements. The three components constitute integral parts of the fundamental accounting equation: Assets = Liabilities + Equity, and they all collocate with total, but not aggregate.

The top collocate of aggregate, except the grammatical item of, is nominal, which is used in a very consistent pattern: aggregate nominal amount/value of (issued) share capital. This string is very common in the mandate forms of the listed companies used in their annual general meetings.

Another noteworthy exclusive collocate of aggregate is long. Concordances of their co-occurrence show that the words mostly appear in a string as aggregate long position, which means a positive amount of equity holding. Concordances of co-occurrence of aggregate and short also demonstrate similar pattern, whereas total is not found to be used with long and short in this way.

3.2 Global/international

International has more occurrences in the HKFSC than global. There are eight words that collocate with both international and global: and, offering, trade, business, bond, equity, capital and financial.

Table 2. Number of instances of *global* and *international* in HKFSC

global	4379
international	6992

Global is used more frequently with words related to macro-conditions, like market, markets, economy, economic and growth, especially in the R1 position. The words investors and investment exclusively collocate with global. Concordances of co-occurrence of investors/investment with international are rare. Besides, international is more common with company names, as reflected by collocates Limited and Holdings.

3.3 General/ordinary

Ordinary is used more frequently in the financial discourse than general. In contrast with the two pairs of near-synonyms above, ordinary and general have only one overlapping collocate: the grammatical item and, which means the two words display very distinct patterns of usage.

Table 3. Number of instances of *general* and *ordinary* in HKFSC

general	4379
ordinary	6992

General notably collocates with meeting, meetings, mandate, mandates, provision, provisions and manager. General carries similar senses in the financial discourse as in common usage, meaning affecting all or most people of things. Ordinary, however, has its specialised meaning in financial discourse. It collocates with share, shares, resolution, resolutions, member, members, dividend, dividends and shareholders, and in most cases, is an extended usage of the concept ‘ordinary shares’, representing a specific class of shareholding.

Although the two words have similar denotations, they are markedly different in usage.

4 Conclusion

Nuanced differences of these near-synonyms commonly seen in financial texts are explored in this study, and these findings are useful in the teaching of financial writing and translation.

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Phonological Patterns of Stress Placement and Metalinguistic Knowledge on the Pronunciation of Suffixed Words Performed by Thai Learners of English

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Abstract

This study aims to explore the stress patterns of English derivational suffixed words by Thai learners and their metalinguistic knowledge of the stress placement. The participants are the undergraduates that never enroll in phonology courses. They are instructed to read aloud the base and the suffixed words appeared on the screen. Their performance is recorded and analysed. Then, they are required to join a 3-week praxis intervention session consists of a set of online lessons. The participants are to take a post test within a week after the intervention. Contribution to the understanding of learners' problems and the pedagogy of this complex English affixation for EFL learners is expected.

Keywords

affixation, morphophonology, accent shift, metalinguistic knowledge, praxis intervention

Introduction

Word formation is an important aspect in learning English as it helps students to develop the ability to create new words and expand the vocabulary size in their lexicon. The morphological process relating to derivational suffixes in forming new words is essential for lexical development. It deals with the change in word meanings as well as the grammatical categories (Singson, Mahony & Mann, 2000; Jarmulowicz & Hay, 2009). Attaching suffixes to the stems or base words entails phonological processes both in segmental and suprasegmental aspects (Katamba, 1993; Szigetvari, 2013), and it is known as morphophonological process. It involves stress shifts which cause the change and the phonetic complex of pitch, length, and vowel quality in the suffixed words. This aspect of English is not much introduced to L2 learners of English in all levels of English education (Byun, 2014; Ali, 2017).

1 Purpose of the study

This paper mainly highlights the methodology design for the experiment and data collection to serve the aims of the study.

2 Research Procedure

2.1 Participants

The participants are 30 Thai undergraduate students who never takes English Phonology class. All of them are the first-year students in the university who are non-English majors. They are equally divided into two groups based on their English test score (Ordinary National Educational Test or O-NET). All participants are required to do the read-aloud tasks and join the praxis session regarding the pronunciation of suffixed words. Also, some participants of each group are selected for further interview. The whole research is proceeded within four phases of the research procedures and they are implemented with different research instruments.

2.2 Phase 1: Pre-task

In this phase, the participants are asked to complete the questionnaire regarding their experience with English language. Thirty participants are selected and put in two groups. Considering the O-NET score provided in the questionnaire, 15 students who gain the highest score are assigned in high-proficiency group and another 15 students with lowest score are in low-proficiency group.

Instrument: Questionnaire

The items in the questionnaire are adopted and

adapted from the survey of "Study on English in Finland 2007" conducted by the research team in the University of Jyvaskyla. The questionnaire consists of four topics: 1) Background information, 2) English in your opinion, 3) Studying and knowing English, and 4) Uses of English. Using Surveymonkey.com, the questionnaire is translated into Thai and delivered to the students online.

2.3 Phase 2: Reading Aloud Task

In the following week after the pre-task phase, the participants perform the read-aloud task of words in isolation. The base and derivational suffixed words are put in the PowerPoint slides and shown on the computer screen, one word at a time. The participants read the words which are recorded and rated. The participants who got outstanding or surprising performance are selected for further interviews.

Instrument: Suffixed words in isolation (SET 1)

The task contains suffixed words with 4 different stress patterns[4]. Each pattern consisted of 4 suffixes combined with 2 different base words totaling 32 suffixed words. Two sets of these suffixed words with the 4 patterns are created. The selected suffixed words with non-neutral pattern must acquire the shift of primary stressed position. The frequently used suffixed words are sorted and selected by the British National Corpus (BNC).

2.4 Phase 3: Praxis Intervention

Within a week after Phase 2, the participants join the 3-week praxis intervention session consisting of the three video lessons and activities provided. Each lesson takes one hour a week. The lesson is delivered during the class hour and the participants are assisted while doing the lessons and activities.

Instrument 1: Video lessons

Each video lesson takes 10 minutes. The lessons are created on Powtoon.com, which is a video creating website. The lessons provided in each video highlight important content relating to the pronunciation of suffixed words; Video (1) introduces the basic knowledge of affixation including the morphophonological aspect; Video (2) specifically focuses on the types of derivational suffixes and their stress patterns in the suffixed words.; and Video (3) provides drills and practices on the pronunciation of suffixed words. Each video is posted on the Facebook private group after each lesson ends, so the participants can access and review the lessons any time.

Instrument 2: Class activities and homework

The activities in class and homework are created by Seesaw, an online platform for creating class activities. The participants can write, draw, record sounds or videos and share their work. The researcher and other participants can see the posts and can give comments on the work. Each week of the lesson, the participants have one activity to do in class and one assignment. The participants have one week to finish their home assignment before it expires. The researcher can check and remind the participants to complete their assignment.

2.5 Phase 4: Post-task

Within a week after the praxis session has completed, the participants are required to do the read-aloud task again. For this phase, the participants are to read the suffixed words in isolation as well as a paragraph containing the selected suffixed words.

Instrument: Suffixed words in isolation and in paragraph (SET 2)

The items in this task contain another set of 32 suffixed words different from SET 1. Reading a paragraph with half of the selected items from this list that do not appear in the materials used in the praxis session.

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[4] 1) Neutral stressed suffixes such as {-ness} in **'hap**py – **'hap**piness
2) Ultimate stressed suffixes such as {-ese} in Ja**'pan** – Japa**'nese**
3) Penultimate stressed suffixes such as {-tion} in **'e**ducate – edu**'ca**tion
4) Antepenultimate stressed suffixed such as {-ity} in res**'pon**sible – responsi**'bi**lity

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The Construction of 'Standard English' in Singapore

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Abstract

What constitutes 'Standard English' in Singapore? Official language policy documents on English language in Singapore speak of a 'Standard English' without stating what the 'standard' refers to. English Language curricula guidelines for Singapore schools state that all students must be trained to speak in "internationally acceptable English", which is being defined as "the formal register of English used in different parts of the world. This paper examines the tensions between what the authorities and educationists consider to the 'Standard English' and the realities of English language use and ownership by the Singaporean language community. For the first part, I attempt to trace how 'Standard English' is being constructed in the official discourse, and how language policies are shaped around that idealized 'standard'. I will show how the authorities' construction of this 'standard' is self-deprecating and presents signs of linguistic insecurity. Using data gathered from surveys and interviews, I argue that the authority's linguistic insecurity, when it is inflicted upon the language community through its language policies, undercuts the very program of 'standardization' that the authority tries to promote as the language community tries to grapple between actual language use and a legitimized but elusive 'standard'.

Keywords

Singapore English, standard language, linguistic insecurity

Introduction

The current national narrative surrounding the English language in Singapore has been in production since the 1970s, when the state seemingly observed the 'falling standards of English' in the nation and endeavoured to uncover its cause (Low, 2010: 232). This is not unlike what Cameron (1995) would describe as "moral panic", a situation "when some social phenomenon or problem is suddenly foregrounded in public discourse and discussed in an obsessive, alarmist manner as if it betokened some imminent catastrophe" (Cameron 1995:82). And Cameron was referring then to grammar teaching in British schools, and in the United States both the Ebonics debate and the discussion of bilingualism associated with the English Only movement. In a way, Singapore's obsession with English entered a "discourse of crisis", again borrowing from Cameron (1995). And with this raises a few questions: does the language community, in reality, experience this "Standard English crisis", or is this simply a crisis from the point of view of the Singaporean state? If not, can we understand the public's obsession with the 'standard' by looking at the state's rhetoric on this matter? The aims of this paper therefore are twofold. Firstly, to examine the ownership of English by the Singaporean language community, and their ideas toward the 'standard'. And I will trace how 'Standard English' is being constructed in the official discourse, which I argue, have a part in contributing to the "Standard English crisis" in Singapore.

1 State's view of English

The Singapore government does not have a clear definition for what they define as "standard" English. However, they do paint the caricature of the typical Singaporean as a clumsy and inadequate English speaker. This image has since been cemented into the public consciousness and employed as an imagined enemy in the state's battle against poor language standards. The rhetoric regarding the problem of 'poor' English reached its fever pitch at the turn of the millennium, when the Speak Good English Movement (henceforth SGEM) was launched. The SGEM is 'an annual media blitz of ministerial speeches, television features, radio programs, newspaper editorials, book releases, website launches, street banners and billboards, and Speak Good English contests', aimed at improving the standard of English used by Singaporeans (Liew, 2011: 115). The key messages, and in fact, the very existence of the SGEM serve to reinforce the idea that Singaporeans are poor speakers of English, or

they are speakers of an undesirable variety of English.

1.1 Education guidelines

The education ministry also reinforces such ideas of English. After all, the guidelines state clearly that all students must be trained to speak in "internationally acceptable English", and "internationally acceptable English" being defined as "the formal register of English used in different parts of the world, that is, standard English" (Singapore Ministry of Education, 2001). Singaporean students can expected to be "exposed to the different standard varieties of English spoken in other parts of the world… and they will be able to understand internationally acceptable English as well as other standard varieties (English Language Syllabus 2001). As such, one can see that the reference to the 'standard' presumably implies the existence of varieties that 'fall short' of the standard. And reference to 'internationally acceptable English' implies the existence of localized varieties, which are non-standard.

2 Singaporeans' views of English

How have such views translated to the community? The search for the community's view of the "standard" is based on a survey on 100 Singaporeans on what they mean by 'standard'. Interviews were done with 60 Singaporeans of different educational backgrounds and age groups to elicit their views on English in Singapore. I will also report an intelligibility and attitudes test on how Singapore English fares when compared to American English.

2.1 General observations

The interviews show a few general trends on Singaporeans' attitudes toward English. There is also a difference in ideas toward the 'standard' between the different groups of Singaporeans by age and educational level. While the young and more educated Singaporeans are generally more self assured and confident in their English, on the whole, there is still a reliance on external models of English, an idealization of the 'White' speaker, and in general, a low regard for the local variety. As to be expected, the idea of the "standard" is associated with being "correct", and the correctness is often referenced to a non-local variety. There is also confusion between written and spoken forms, and the spoken variety is associated more often to being incorrect. Much of these can be said to be subscribing to the "standard language ideology" as discussed in Lippi-Green (2011), following Milroy and Milroy (2012).

3 Conclusion

One can see that the views on English and the 'standard' are perpetuated by the official discourse and language policies in the country. The official narrative reinforces the beliefs about what the 'standard' represents, i.e. international recognition, social mobility, education. There is a clear correlation between the public's perception of the 'standard' and the state's construction of the 'standard'. This comes about because of the idealization of this 'standard', where uniformity and invariance are valued above all things. And by not recognizing and allowing variation, the logical consequence is that no one speaks the standard language. As with all Englishes (or languages, for that matter), the process of "standardization" will take place naturally with use and stabilization. Like how it has been for the UK, US, and Australia, the "standardization" of an English that will work for Singaporeans will take place as soon as one recognizes the existence of legitimate local standards.

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A Study on Student Strategies for TOEFL Integrated-skills Tests Items

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Abstract

Four-skills integrated instruction in Japanese secondary and tertiary education has become almost indispensable as Ministry of Education leads the way to produce globally-communicative human resources. However, many teachers, as well as students, struggle in dealing with integrated-skills tasks and their assessment. The purpose of this study is to provide an in-depth analysis of effective and ineffective strategies for integrated-skills test items, focusing on students' responses to both writing and speaking tasks. After analyzing approximately 100 advanced or upper-intermediate level students' responses to integrated-skills test items as well as questionnaire results, several typical strategies were categorized for different proficiency levels. Students naturally have different subskill combinations and they tend to rely on their strong skills to offset their weaknesses. Thus, 6 students (representative of each subskill cluster) were asked to complete a detailed retrospective protocol in order to ascertain what kinds of linguistic and cognitive processes/strategies were used. Also, teachers who taught these students were interviewed. Lastly, the effective teaching and learning methods for integrated-skills tasks will be proposed, referring to various constructs of TOEFL®-iBT test items.

Keywords

Integrated-skills assessment, TOEFL®-iBT tasks, Student test-taking strategies

Introduction

Four-skills integrated instruction in Japanese secondary and tertiary education has become almost indispensable as Ministry of Education leads the way to produce globally-communicative human resources. Add to this situation the preparation for the new national Center Exam incorporating productive components starting in 2020, and one can understand the impact of change that is coming soon. However, many teachers, as well as students, struggle in dealing with integrated-skills tasks and their assessment in classrooms mainly due to the lack of empirical studies and proven methodologies.

Though the benefits of integrated-skills instruction and assessment are quite self-explanatory, reflecting authentic communication and offering positive washback effect (Plakans, 2013), many problems have been discussed, especially with the integrated-skills assessment (Comming, 2014). They include difficulty of differentiating productive and receptive skills or their constructs, threshold level existence and ill-defined or unclear genres used, to name a few. Yet, its educational benefits outweigh the difficulties and problems.

1 Purpose of the study

The aim of the study is twofold:

1. To find some statistical tendencies between integrated-skills test items and independent ones.
2. To tease out how different types of students tackle with integrated-skills items by looking into their actual responses and various kinds of data mentioned in the Method section.

2 The Study

2.1 Subjects

The subjects are 103 Japanese university students taking TOEFL preparation courses at 3 universities: advanced (scores 80-100: 34 students) and intermediate (scores 60-79: 69 students).

2.2 Method

The 2 sets of TOEFL®-iBT skills-integrative and independent items from the typical TOEFL textbooks were used, and 2 experienced teachers

rated all the students' responses to 2 integrated-skills and 2 independent test items for both speaking and writing respectively. All the students answered a questionnaire while a detailed retrospective protocol was completed by 6 representative students. Plus, interviews were conducted to the teachers of them for understanding of the challenges their students face and what they do to remedy such difficulties.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Results on writing tasks

Though advanced-level students had fewer or lesser problems compared to intermediate ones, varied students' subskill combinations influenced how they fared with writing integrated-skills test items. Naturally, they tended to depend more on their strong skill(s), which showed in their responses. As in the Plakans' (2013) study, responses of advanced-level students with balanced subskills included more paraphrases and "discourse synthetic" features. Even though scores of integrated-skills writing test items are incorporated in those of the writing section, the influence of receptive skills (whether students can understand given reading and listening materials) seemed to be far stronger for middle scorers whose proficiencies are around the threshold level.

More specifically, retrospective protocol done with 6 students showed the following tendencies.

1. Regardless of the clusters, 6 interviewees (2 for each cluster) said that the key to success is how much they can understand the listening material.
2. High scorers stressed the importance of having a global view in connecting the reading and listening materials, meaning that they are more ready/able to use metacognitive strategies both receptively and productively. On the other hand, middle scorers have a tendency to apply more formulaic strategies they have learned in class. One of them said, "Because of my lack of reading and listening skills, I often use a common template and try to fill it in with key points and secondary detail on a memo pad."
3. Middle scorers seemed to supplement the lack of understanding of reading or listening materials by both relying on their strengths and some metacognitive strategies; a subject said, "I'll try to use general expressions for the parts I'm not sure about, so that my lack of understanding won't show so clearly."

3.2 Results on speaking tasks

Similar to the case with writing integrated-skills items, or more understandably in the case of speaking items, advanced-level students had fewer or lesser problems compared to intermediate ones, while varied students' subskill combinations influenced how they tackled integrated-skills speaking test items. Again, they tended to depend more on their strong skill(s), which showed in their responses. Though in a more direct and simple manner, responses of advanced-level students with balanced subskills included more paraphrases and attempts for "discourse synthesis," though there were fewer successful cases compared to the writing counterpart. As to speaking integrated-skills items, it seemed that the influence of receptive skills (students' understanding of stimulus materials) was far stronger than either expected or intended, compared to the writing counterpart, probably because of the pressure coming from very short time allowed and generally lower speaking proficiency of the subjects, compared to that of writing.

More specifically, retrospective interviews with 6 students showed the following tendencies.

1. Regardless of the clusters, 6 interviewees said that the keys to success are two-fold: how well they can understand the listening material and how fluently they can speak.
2. Again, high scorers stressed the importance of having a global view in connecting the reading and listening materials. However, in case of speaking tasks, they didn't seem to use so many metacognitive strategies; most frequent comment was putting the main point in the beginning and giving as many supports as possible. Actually, a popular strategy among middle scorers is, as one of them puts, "I thought I should include all the things considered important ant and talk as much as possible till the beep is heard."
3. As to speaking integrated-skills items, it seems hard to supplement the lack of understanding of reading or listening material by relying on their strengths or some metacognitive strategies, due to the time-pressured nature of the task. For instance, a high-scoring subject said, "It was so hard to come up with the summarized content to talk about within 30 seconds, and in actual speaking, I often forgot about the strategies I'd learned and practiced in class, ending up just trying to talk as much as I could."

4 Implications and Suggestions

It seems that different approaches are necessary for different students considering their levels, strengths and weaknesses (subskill combinations) as well as their learning histories. Also, for the students to whom the stimulus materials are too difficult, the practice should be done with easier and simpler materials that fit their levels with proper scaffolding, especially for speaking integrated-skills tasks which have added cognitive load created by time pressure.

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The Procurement of Critical Thinking Skills and Foreign Language Acquisition: Applying to the Teaching Approaches of Paul's Critical Thinking Concepts

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Abstract

This study examines relationship between the procurement of critical thinking skills and the grasp of foreign language in EFL students by assessing their abilities to ask Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) level questions. To ascertain the effects of asking HOTS level questions, critical thinking concepts developed by Elder & Paul (2005) were adopted and Theory of Knowledge (TOK) teaching approaches, designed by the International Baccalaureate® (IB), were applied. The study began with conducting a field survey in Japan and Singapore. In addition, a number of critical thinking theories listed on Scopus and the Web of Science were also reviewed and examined. It was found that some teachers who were interviewed and observed on field surveys applied "analytic questions," in an attempt to improve learners' thinking, as described by Elder & Paul (2005). In light of the literature review, the IB pedagogical approaches were found to foster learners' critical thinking skills by adopting the theories of "reflective thinking," by J. Dewey (1933), "multiple intelligences" by H. Gardner (1983), and "complex critical thinking" by J.L. Kincheloe (2004). Moreover, awareness towards the development of both critical thinking skills and English proficiency level was observed among participants.

Keywords

Critical Thinking, Higher Order Thinking Skills, International Baccalaureate, Theory of Knowledge

Introduction

The importance of fostering critical thinking skills for students is discussed in a variety of reports and studies (such as Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2011; Higuchi, 2013). Upon reviewing the Japanese high school EFL surveys by Akatsuka (2019), it was found that over 80% of EFL teachers believed that the most important priority of EFL courses was to develop students' English proficiency itself, while fostering critical thinking skills in EFL courses took a lower priority. On the other hand, over 70% of teachers were interested in fostering critical thinking skills in the EFL courses, and sought its effective approaches. However, formal guidelines for Japanese EFL teachers that recommend approaches towards fostering critical thinking skills in students are yet to be established.

1 Research question

Interviews revealed that most Japanese EFL teachers believed that the acts of developing English proficiency and fostering critical thinking skills were incompatible. However, is this belief really true? RQ: Is it indeed possible to kill two birds—learners' procurement of critical thinking skills and foreign language acquisition—with one stone, i.e. by asking higher order thinking skills (HOTS) level questions?

2 Previous research

The importance of fostering critical thinking skills has been recognised globally. The World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-first Century: Vision and Action (1998) conference stressed the importance of critical thinking skills in order to nurture motivated citizens. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's (**OECD**), project DeSeCo (Definition and Selection of Competencies, 2003) defines competency as "the ability to tackle complex demands by eliciting and mobilizing psychosocial resources (including skills and attitudes) in specific situations." Higuchi (2013) claims that critical thinking could play a central role in activating competency.

Some studies also show that asking questions stimulates students' thinking abilities. For instance,

"The level of students' thinking is strongly influenced by the level of questions which are asked in class" (King, 1995; Taba, 1966). "The important element is that the act of thinking is often driven by questions" (Elder & Paul, 1998). "The three highest levels of skills (analysis, synthesis and evaluation) are often representative of critical thinking" (Kennedy, Fisher, & Ennis, 1991).

Moreover, research conducted in Japan found certain practices that had combined EFL and critical thinking approaches. Manalo, Watanabe, Shepard (2013) found that students' required at least a minimum level of foreign language proficiency for teachers to foster their critical thinking skills. Laurence et al. (2013) have found that TOEIC scores and critical thinking skills are strongly correlated.

Although critical thinking has been widely discussed, a decisive definition is yet to be determined. In this study, the definition applied is by Paul and Elder (2008), which states that "Critical thinking is self-guided, self-disciplined thinking which attempts to reason at the highest level of quality in a fair-minded way".

3 Methods

1) To ascertain the effects of asking HOTS level questions, the study began by conducting of a field survey in Japan and Singapore.
2) In addition, the International Baccalaureate[5] (IB)'s pedagogical approaches and certain critical thinking theories, listed on Scopus and the Web of Science, were reviewed and examined.
3) To ascertain the effects of asking HOTS level questions, critical thinking concepts developed by Elder & Paul (2005) were adopted and Theory of Knowledge (TOK) teaching approaches, designed by the IB, were applied.

4 Results

Through literature reviews and field surveys in two Singapore-based schools (an IB world school and a non-IB school), language teachers have increasingly become aware that well-balanced creative and critical thinking skills are important to gain knowledge. Assessment in language courses measured both lower order thinking skills (LOTs) and higher order thinking skills (HOTs) in students. In the late 1990s, Singapore's Ministry of Education (MOE) advocated the slogan "Thinking Schools, Learning Nation", which stressed the message that fostering creative and critical thinking is important in schools (Tan, Gopinathan, 2000). In addition, MOE (2010) has announced the "21st Century Competences", and Tanaka (2015) points out that the announcement indicates that critical thinking is one of the core skills.

Through conducting literature reviews, it is suggested that the IB's teaching and approaches are modelled on the following methods (figure 1).

J. Bruner	Discovery method
J. Piaget	Structuralism
A.L.Costa	Habits of mind
J.Dewey	Reflective thinking et al.
H.Gardner	Multiple intelligence
J.L.Kincheloe	Complex critical thinking
D.N.Perkins	Teaching for Understanding

Figure 1. Approaches in IB Education

After conducting the practice (indicated in the Method 3), students' reactions were recorded as follows (figure 2):

Student A: We can share different values with each other and include multiple perspectives in our class. [sic]

Student B: It is important to maintain a critical attitude. In order to not blindly trust what's going on in the world, critical thinking is indispensable. [sic]

Student C: I have not only improved my grasp of English, but also learned how important it is to engage in discussions with others in order to improve my understanding of the language, and learn to think critically.[sic]

Figure 2. Students' comments (underlined by the author)

As evinced by these comments, there is a direct connection between developing English language proficiency and acquiring critical thinking skills.

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[5] International Baccalaureate (IB) Programs aim to foster students' international mindedness and critical thinking skills, and encourage students to have analytical, evaluative, and creative skills.

Creating Opportunities for the Use of Higher-Order Thinking Skills in Lecture Courses

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Abstract

One criticism of lecture courses is that they are too teacher-centered. This paper introduces a more student-centered approach to lecture courses that draws on the higher-order thinking skills presented in Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001). In this approach, students analyze the content of lectures, and then create an original written work through reflective writing at the end of class. Examples from lecture courses taught at Setsunan University for the past two years will be presented to illustrate this approach. These courses are conducted entirely in English for students returning from study abroad programs.

Keywords

Higher-order thinking skills; critical thinking; lecture; active learning

Introduction

Lectures are a prominent part of most university programs. They are designed to transmit knowledge from professors to students and are effective for this purpose (Bligh, 2000). However, knowledge alone is no longer sufficient for participating in today's technology-driven society. The jobs of the future will rely on critical thinking and creativity (Ranie & Anderson, 2017). Therefore, it is important not only that students develop their knowledge base, but also learn how to use that knowledge through the use of higher-order thinking skills (Zwiers & Crawford, 2011). This presentation will demonstrate how higher-order thinking skills can be incorporated into lecture courses.

1 Higher-order thinking skills

The lecture courses presented here draw on the Cognitive Process dimension of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy in their design (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001). This taxonomy is made up of six categories, from least complex to most complex: 1) Remember, 2) Understand, 3) Apply, 4) Analyze, 5) Evaluate, and 6) Create. Categories four through six, the more complex categories, are considered to be higher-order thinking skills. Krathwohl (2002) provides a summary of these higher-order thinking skills. Analyzing refers to "breaking material into its constituent parts and detecting how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose" (p. 215). Evaluating refers to "making judgments based on criteria and standards" (p. 215). Creating refers to "putting elements together to form a novel, coherent whole or make an original product" (p. 215). In order to encourage the use of higher-order thinking skills in lecture courses, teachers need to provide opportunities to analyze and evaluate the content of lectures, and to give students time to create original works based on this content.

2 Course description

The courses being presented today are called English Lecture Ia and English Lecture Ib. These courses are mandatory for third year students in the English Professional program in the Faculty of Foreign Studies at Setsunan University. Students in this program are required to study abroad for either six months or one year in their second year. The number of students in these courses ranges from 12-20 students depending on the semester. These courses are conducted entirely in English, and the subject being taught is business with a focus on human relations in the workplace. The aim of these courses is to present challenging lecture content in order to help students maintain the English language skills they have acquired overseas.

3 Implementing higher-order thinking

How are higher-order thinking skills implemented in these courses? First, the classes begin with a fifteen-minute lecture on a business topic. This may seem short, but Hattie and Yates (2014) point out that people often have difficulty focusing on lectures if

they are over twenty minutes long. Also, by providing shorter lectures, it gives students class time to think about the content. The Cornell Note-taking System is used in these courses (Cornell University Learning Strategies Center, n.d.). In this system, students write questions about lecture content in the margins of their notes. Students write these questions with a partner after listening to the lecture. This activity ends with a student-led quiz. Students are encouraged to ask their classmates to interpret, exemplify, summarize or explain the lecture content, all of which are aspects of the Understand category of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001). This activity provides a foundation for later activities by confirming whether students understand the content or not.

Next, students analyze the content of the lecture. They are asked to reflect on their own work experiences as they do this, because it is important to recognize the connection that exists between knowledge and experience in learning how to think critically (hooks, 2010). Students are given a question based on the topic of the day. For example, in a lesson about management styles they may be asked, "Which management style is used in your workplace?" In order to do this, they must identify information in the lecture, which is relevant to their own experiences, which is an aspect of the Analyze category of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001). Students are given about ten minutes to conduct this analysis and write notes on their thoughts.

After students analyze the content of the lecture, they participate in pair discussions. In these discussions, they share their notes on the lecture content that they identified as most relevant to their personal experiences. This provides students the opportunity to see how the topic may be seen from different viewpoints. Ritchhart, Church, and Morrison (2011) point out that viewpoint-taking is an important aspect of critical thinking. Understanding that lecture content can be interpreted in multiple ways helps students develop a more complex approach to thinking about it.

At the end of the class, students write a short reflective essay. In this essay, students create an original work by synthesizing what they learned from the lecture and what they learned from their discussions about their own experiences. As they write this reflective essay, they are encouraged to evaluate the business concepts that they learned through the lens of their own experiences. This allows students to activate both the Create and the Evaluate categories of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001). In addition, students at Japanese universities rarely have the opportunity to call into question the authority of lectures and texts, so this can be an empowering experience for them.

4 Conclusion

In conclusion, engaging in higher-order thinking skills in lecture courses can be a valuable experience for students. By examining lecture content for personal relevance and by sharing their observations with others, they can gain experience in analyzing information that they receive from authoritative sources. By doing reflective writing on what they learn from these analyses, they can gain confidence in evaluating this information. They may also find a voice with which they can critique ideas. With these skills, students will be better prepared to participate in an increasingly idea-driven world.

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The Impact of Information Structures on EFL Learners' Acquisition of Dative Alternation

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Abstract

This pilot study investigated the influence of information structure on the acquisition of dative alternation and the probabilistic acceptance of some reportedly ungrammatical dative verb usage under *given-before-new* contexts among native speakers and Chinese EFL learners. For the two purposes, production task and comprehension task have been designed. Despite the mixed preliminary results, there are still some interesting findings for further study.

Keywords

discourse constraints; dative alternation; *give-before-new* principle; gradient grammar

Introduction

This paper has chosen DA as the topic of research because the probability of using either of the two alternatives (DOD or PD) is subject to semantic constraints and also influenced by the principles of information structures.

Pinker (1989) provides the semantic explanation of DA in terms of Broad Range Rules (BRR) and Narrow Range Rules (NRR). According to BRR, DOD has been associated with 'possessive' semantics with an animate recipient, while PD with 'allative' semantics.

NRR defines which verb classes are/are not able to alternate (eg. instantaneous verbs vs. continuous verbs; verbs of instrument of communication vs. verbs of manner of speaking). In other words, there are alternating dative verbs which allow both structural variants, and two types of non-alternating dative verbs with the first type allowing the prepositional variant only and the second types allowing the double-object variant only (Levin 1993).

Therefore, there are some problems for L2 leaners in the acquisition of English dative alternations. They may generalize the rules to dative verbs that allow both structural variants and produce correct sentences in (1a) and (1b):

(1) a. Tim gave a book to Mary.
b. Tim gave Mary a book.

Or they may overgeneralize the rules to non-alternating verbs that only allow PD or DOD and mistakenly produce:

(2) a. Mary whispered the answer to Ryan.
b.* Mary whispered Ryan the answer.
(3) a. It cost her $100.
b. *It cost $100 to her.

However, Bresnan & Nikitina (2003) and Bresnan et al. (2005) present probabilistic and gradient accounts of the DA, and they argue that violations of established semantic restrictions of the DA are not ungrammatical, but improbable. Within their stochastic Optimality Theory, constraints may be violated with certain probabilities, but not completely ungrammatical.

Even for alternating dative verbs, the occurrences of the two alternations are not equally felicitous under different discourse contexts. That is to say, the choice of potential variants largely depends on the principles of discourse constraints. Among them, information structure is the focus of this paper.

Here, the term "information structure" can be understood as *Give-before-New principle or GN ordering*. Much previous empirical research suggests that in native adult speech, the position of given information is more likely to precede that of new information in a sentence (Arnold et al., 2000; Bock & Irwin, 1980; Bock & Warren, 1985; Bresnan et al., 2007; Clark & Haviland, 1977).

1 Methodology of the current study

1.1 Research questions of this paper

1. Do Chinese L2ers of English at different proficiency levels show sensitivity to the *given-before-new* ordering in the acquisition of the English dative constructions?

2. Given the situation that non-alternating verbs are under appropriate contexts (e.g. contexts following GN order), could L2 learners accept the reportedly ungrammatical usage as grammatical?

1.2 Method

This paper provides *giveness* contexts in production task and comprehension task. The aim of production task is to elicit participants to produce a proper ditransitive construction under certain context with *given-before-new* principles and test their sensitivity to GN ordering.

For the comprehension task, four non-alternating dative verbs have been chosen and occur under context with given-recipient or given-theme to test both native speakers' and L2 learners' acceptance rate of the illicit usage under appropriate contexts.

In the two tasks, each verb in both the given-theme condition and the given-recipient condition, totaling 6 test items and 8 test items in production task and comprehension task respectively. The same number of fillers is provided in each task.

There are four native speakers, three advanced L2 learners (English majors with at least 12 months overseas study experience) and 50 intermediate L2 learners[6] taking part in this pilot study. For the final study in future, more native speakers and advanced L2 learners should be hired and more accurate measurement methods are required.

All the three advanced Chinese EFL learners and the four native speakers take part in both production task and comprehension task. However, the intermediate L2 learners as a whole have been divided into two groups, half for the production task and the other half for the comprehension task. Both of the two tasks are in the form of questionnaire and are supposed to be finished within half an hour. In the production task, after reading the context, the participants are required to answer *what-type* questions and *why-type* questions with cue verbs inside the parentheses. In the comprehension task, under each context there are two alternative constructions of a non-alternating dative verb. The participants are required to choose *a* or *b*, or both according to their grammar or intuition, so as to test their acceptance of illicit usage of the verb.

2 Results and Conclusion

In the production task, as expected, all the four native speakers produce the ditransitive constructions and demonstrate strong sensitivities to *given-before-new* order. However, in the comprehension task, three out of the four participants, who are all teachers with the average age at 55, prefer to make a choice in accordance with grammar, regardless of GN order. As a result, their mean acceptance rate of illicit usage of non-alternating verbs is very low and they show little sensitivity to GN order. The fourth native speaker is a 28-year-old car sales manager. His performance in both production and comprehension task is consistent by following GN order well. His acceptance rate of illicit usage of non-alternating dative verbs is much higher than that of the other three native speakers who are much older than him. Therefore, the acceptance rate of reported ungrammatical usage under proper contexts by native speakers varies according to age and education background. For future study, in order to find a proper control group, comparative studies should be made among native speakers of different ages and education backgrounds.

For learner groups, there are also some interesting findings. In the production task, the fact that the three learner groups produce many other sentence patterns instead of ditransitive constructions may show that ditransitive constructions have not been given enough attention in English teaching in China. Among the four groups, the mean rate of GN order answer from the highest to the lowest is native speakers (4.75), intermediate level 3 learners (2.2), intermediate level 2 learners (1.53) and advanced L2 learners (1). Intermediate level 3 and level 2 learners perform better than advanced learners, which is not consistent with my prediction that the higher the language proficiency is, the more sensitivities the learners have to the GN ordering. However, in the comprehension task, among the four groups, the group of advanced learners has the highest acceptance rate of non-alternating verbs *whisper* and *carry* when they are used under the contexts following the GN ordering. Nevertheless, the same group has a lower acceptance rate of *explain* usage compared with intermediate learner groups. In the case of *cost*, following GN order, the illicit usage of *cost*, or the usage of *cost* in PD cannot be accepted by native speakers and advanced learners at all.

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[6] 50 intermediate L2 learners are all non-English majors and have been divided into intermediate level 3 and intermediate level 2 according to graded examination.

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The influence of Mandarin Classifier System on Chinese People's Cognitive Categorization

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Abstract

Recently, a lot of researches focus on how and to what extend language shifts people's mind. Scholars, like psychologists, linguists, and anthropologists, explored on this topic for decades. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between Mandarin classifier system and Chinese people's language categorization. Picture selection task will be operated. This research wants to find out whether or not Mandarin speakers use their classifier system as an integral part for their categorization structure.

Keywords

Mandarin, Classifier system, Cognition, Categorization

Introduction

Currently, researches already accept that many language domains play significant roles in object categorization, such as color (Winawer, Witthoft, Frank, Wu, Wade, & Boroditsky, 2007), gender ((Boroditsky, Schmidt, & Phillips, 2003) and time (Boroditsky, Fuhrman, McCormick, 2010). Contrast with these former domains, classifiers seems not place itself in a salient position for object categorization. However, classifier system is obligatory in describing nouns in some classifier languages, such as Mandarin Chinese. In this case, it is necessary to find out whether or not classifiers perform a vital part in the process of Chinese people's cognition categorization. At the same time, this paper will also answer an interesting question that Mandarin classifier system will influence this categorization structure in what kind of way and to which extend.

1 Literature review

There are two kinds of languages appear differently in categorizing nouns. One is non-classifier language, such as English. In English, people normally would not use a classifier between *one* and *cow*. The other one is classifier language, as the paper mentioned earlier that classifiers is obligatory to appear before objects, such as 'yi tou niu' (one CL cow) in Mandarin. This kind of numeral classifiers will be the target items in this research's experiment.

Some former researches already start a debate about whether or not classifiers can determine people's object categorization. On one side, Zhang and Schmitt (1998) and Saalbach and Imai (2007) found Mandarin speakers rated pairs of nouns that shared a classifier as more similar than nouns that did not share a classifier, but speakers of non-classifier languages (English and German) rated both pairs similarly. On the other side, Allen (1977) claimed that classifier only denote to common features of objects. Speed et. al. (2019) also support this claim, they pronounced that classifiers only reflect the organization of object concept. Based on these former discussions, this paper intends to investigate Mandarin classifier system has an influence in people's object categorization or it is only a reflection of people's cognition.

To achieve this purpose, this paper chooses an overt correction treatment and picture selection method for the experiment. If classifiers only reflect people's common object categorization, the participant with treatment will show exactly similar tendency in picture selection time with the control group. However, if classifiers can influence people's categorization, the result of the participant with treatment will have some diverge appearance.

2 Method and results

In this experiment, numeral classifiers with nouns were showed in pictures (Figure 1). The participants need to pick out one picture over another in comparing with the pre-shown pictures based on their unconscious categorization judgement. The participants will experience with a classifier correction treatment which is hidden in a paragraph. After this treatment, they will face 15 patterns of objects, only 8 of them are test items. The target

object is sharing the same classifier with the first appearing object. The non-target object is sharing a close feature with the first appearing object (Figure 1). This research compared the categorization judgement between the control group which with no classifier treatment and the experimental group with classifier treatment.

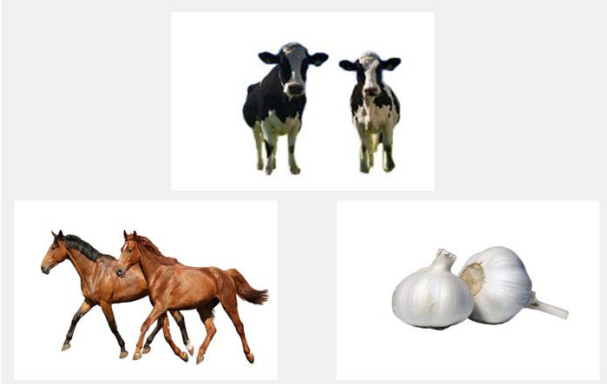

Figure 1. An example of test pattern.

Both experimental group and control group showed similar behaviors in 3 test patterns and 1 filler (Figure 2). This similarity proved that there exists a common standard in using classifier measuring Chinese people's categorization. In Figure 2, though the general tendency for object categorization choosing for these two groups seems in a similar way. A slightly increasing in choosing the target items still can be found in some patterns. Only one test pattern has a decrease trend. Having a close look at the individual level, it shows a more interesting picture. In the control group, the rate of choosing target answer over 3 is not occur. However, after the classifier treatment, there are two participants in the experiment group choose 4 and 6 times for target pictures among 8 test patterns (Table 1).

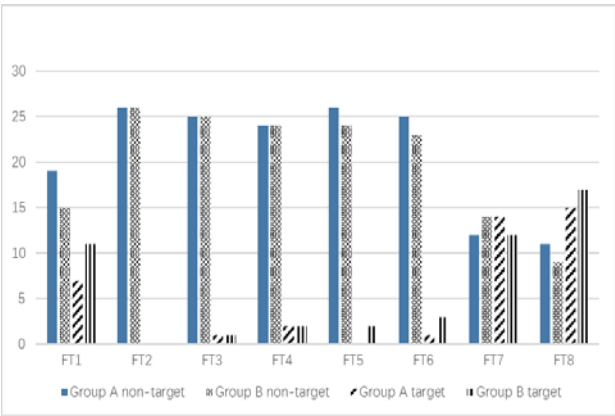

Figure 2. The comparison of choosing non-target and target items between group A (control group) and group B (experiment group).

Table 1. Number of Participants Choosing Target Items

Group	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	2	11	10	3	0	0	0
B	3	8	9	4	1	0	1

3 Discussion and conclusion

Analyzing from the general tendency and individual level, this research all shows an increasing trend in choosing the target items for the experiment group. This proved that Mandarin classifier system do has an influence on people's cognition categorization. Classifiers cannot only be treated as an appendant for nouns in Mandarin classifier language.

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On the Complementary Distribution of the Universal Quantifier *mei* and Reduplicated Classifiers in Mandarin Chinese

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Abstract

This paper discusses the distributional relationship between the universal quantifier *mei* and reduplicated classifiers in Mandarin Chinese in order to prove that reduplicated classifiers are the same as *mei* in distribution, semantics and syntax and they are in complementary distribution.

Keywords

complementary distribution; *mei*; reduplicated classifiers; Mandarin Chinese

Introduction

Mei and reduplicated classifiers are two ways to denote the meaning of 'each/every' in Mandarin Chinese (see Cheng 2009, Yip 2012 among others). Therefore, they cannot co-occur in the same noun phrase as shown in (1), which means they are in complementary distribution.

(1) **mei* *ge-ge* *xuesheng*
every CL-CL student
the intended meaning: 'every student'

This paper discusses the relationship between *mei* and reduplicated classifiers in order to prove that reduplicated classifiers are the same as *mei* in distributional, semantic and syntactic level.

1 General distribution of *mei* and reduplicated classifiers

We compare the distribution of two structures as *mei*-CL[7] and reduplicated classifiers CL-CL, and find that: they can appear as a subject, attribute of nouns, and preverbal adjunct; they cannot occur at the position of object, the existential sentences, and with *de*; they must co-occur with *dou* in sentences.

2 Semantic comparison between *mei* and reduplicated classifiers

In this section, we will discuss *mei* and reduplicated classifiers from the aspect of semantics, and try to find semantic relations between *mei* and reduplicated classifiers based on previous studies and data analysis.

2.1 *Mei* and reduplicated classifiers: distributive or sum operator?

Lin (1998) poses that *mei* is a sum operator on individuals in Mandarin Chinese. In Huang (2005)'s studies, however, she believes that *mei* is a universal distributive operator.

Both the studies of Lin (1998) and Huang (2005) account for some parts of semantic mystery of *mei*, none of them has provided a comprehensive analysis. Therefore, Pan & Hu & Huang (2009) propose a comparatively unified analysis of *mei* in virtue of the matching function (Rothstein, 1995) of *dou*: (1) when *mei* is a distributive operator, *dou* realizes its matching function and matches the event of VP with entities in the quantification scope of *mei*; (2) when *mei* is a sum operator, *dou* realizes its distributive function and quantify the set of *mei* NP. When a *mei* NP appears in preverbal position (subject, topic or adjunct position), *mei* can have two analyses: distributive operator or sum operator; when a *mei* NP appears in postverbal object position or the head of *de* phrase, *mei* is analyzed as sum operator.

Section 2 shows that reduplicated classifiers have the same distribution with *mei*, so we assume that reduplicated classifiers also have the same semantic interpretation with *mei*. Given our previous account for the semantic interpretation of *mei*, it's quite tempting to explain the semantic role of reduplicated classifiers in a similar manner. We

[7] *Mei* is a quantifier which appears with a classifier or a noun. It cannot appear independently in a noun phrase, thus the structure [*mei*-CL] is applied to compare with reduplicated classifiers [CL-CL].

adopt Pan & Hu & Huang (2009)'s analysis to reduplicated classifiers: when reduplicated classifiers appear in preverbal position (subject, topic or adjunct position), they have two analyses: distributive operator or sum operator; when reduplicated classifiers appear in postverbal object position, they are analyzed as sum operator.

2.2 *Mei* and reduplicated classifiers: plural or singular?

As discussed above, *mei* and reduplicated classifiers can be either as distributive operator or sum operator. If *mei* and reduplicated classifiers are as distributive operators, the NPs centered with *mei* or reduplicated classifiers obtain singular interpretation; if *mei* and reduplicated classifiers are as sum operators, the NPs centered with *mei* or reduplicated classifiers obtain plural interpretation.

2.3 *Mei* and reduplicated classifiers: definite or indefinite?

Given that only indefinite noun phrases can appear within existential construction, so we can check the definiteness of *mei* NP and reduplicated classifiers by adopting existential construction. As we discussed in section 2, either *mei* NP or reduplicated classifiers CL-CL cannot appear in existential constructions.

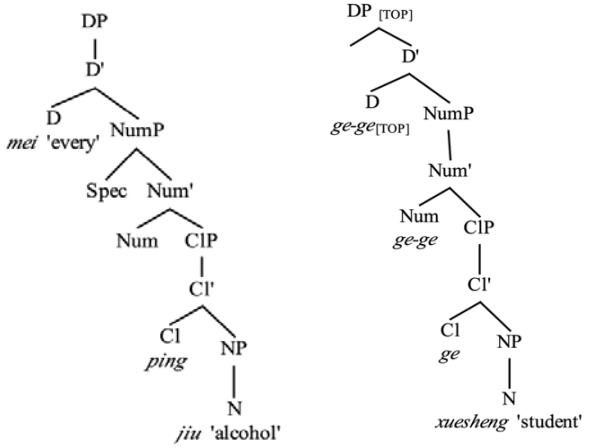
Another detector is *dou* 'all'. *Dou* can not only appear with definite NPs, but also with NPs whose determiner is a quantifier word such as *mei* (see Lin 1998, Cheng 2009 among others). In this sense, *mei* NPs share features with definite NPs. Given that reduplicated classifiers can appear with *dou* in the preverbal position, we can assume that reduplicated classifiers also share features with definite NPs. Therefore, both *mei* and reduplicated classifiers are similar to definite NPs, viz., they are definite.

3 A syntactic analysis of *mei* and reduplicated classifiers

Section 2 and section 3 conclude that *mei* and reduplicated classifiers are in distributive complementary relation, which in turn shows that they compete for the same syntactic position. Next, what are the exact positions for *mei* and reduplicated classifiers? Are they in the same position under a DP? Or are they in different positions?

Sui & Hu (2017) propose two structures for *mei* and reduplicated classifiers respectively. They assume that *mei* originally occupies the position of D while reduplicated classifiers generate at the position of Num and then move to the position of D. The following two structures in (2a) and (2b) show that both *mei* and reduplicated classifiers occupy the position of D.

(2) a. b.



Therefore, the syntactic analysis proves that both *mei* and reduplicated classifiers are at the position of D under DP.

4 Conclusion

Semantically and syntactically, as we discussed above, *mei* and reduplicated classifiers exhibit the same features and there is no doubt that they are in the complementary distribution.

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Variability of English Past Tense Morphology by L1 Thai and L1 French Learners

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Abstract

The study explored variability of English past tense morphology by L1 Thai learners. Based on the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) (Hawkins & Chan, 1997; Hawkins & Liszka, 2003), variability of English past tense morphology by L1 Thai and L1 French learners was due to non-target-like syntactic representations. The participants of the study were 30 L1 Thai and 30 L1 French advanced learners of English. English and Thai are different in that past tense inflectional morphology is obligatory in English, but not in Thai. Data were collected from a Grammaticality Judgment Test and a cloze test. The results suggested that the L1 Thai learners' correct suppliance rates of English past tense morphemes were significantly lower than those of the L1 French learners in both tests. Moreover, the L1 Thai learners' asymmetries of correct suppliance rates of English regular and irregular past tense morphemes were also evidenced. It is assumed that non-existence of the past feature in the Thai learners' L1 led to variable English past tense morphemes as well as the asymmetries of regular and irregular past tense morphemes as L2 English pastness is unresettable for the L1 Thai learners. While the L2 French learners' production of English past tense morphemes was possibly based on target-like syntactic representations, the results therefore confirmed the FFFH.

Keywords

Variability, English Past Tense Morphology, L1 Thai Learners, L1 French Learners, Failed Functional Features Hypothesis

Introduction

English past tense morphology is a feature in which advanced second language (L2) learners of English from certain first language (L1) backgrounds show persistent variability (Hawkins & Liszka, 2003).

Various attempts have been made to explain this phenomenon. The Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH), introduced by Prévost and White (2000) and Lardiere (2003), views that L2 learners can establish target-like L2 syntactic representations. Features of functional categories which are absent in the learners' L1 are still accessible to adult L2 learners. Variability of L2 functional morphology is the result of post-syntactic factors. On the contrary, The Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) proposed by Hawkins and Chan (1997) accounts for variability via non-target-like syntactic representations and argues that adult learners whose L1 grammar does not possess a particular feature are unable to acquire it in their L2.

A number of studies have shown pervasive variability of English past tense morphology by L1 Thai learners (Khumdee, 2013). Past tense inflectional morphology is obligatory in expressing pastness in English and French, whereas Thai uses contexts and lexical words to express pastness.

Based on the MSIH, whether or not an L2 feature is instantiated in the learners' L1, they should be able to acquire such L2 feature (Prévost and White, 2000; Lardiere, 2003). The FFFH, however, assumes that L2 learners whose L1 does not have an L2 grammatical feature will be unable to acquire it in their L2 (Hawkins and Chan, 1997).

The present study aims at exploring the issue by providing an analysis of variability of English past tense morphology by L1 Thai learners in comparison to that by L1 French learners under the assumption of the FFFH (Hawkins & Chan, 1997) in comparison to that of the MSIH (Lardiere, 2003).

1 Hypotheses

Based on the FFFH, variability of L2 English past tense morphology by L1 Thai learners and L1 French learners is due to the non-target-like syntactic representations, not the target-like syntactic representations according to the MSIH.

1.1 L1 Thai learners' incorrect suppliances of English past tense morphology are significantly higher than those of L1 French learners in the grammaticality judgment test and the cloze test.
1.2 L1 Thai learners' asymmetric rates of correct suppliances between English regular and irregular past tense morphemes are significantly higher than those of L1 French learners in the grammaticality judgment test and the cloze test.

2 Methodology

The participants were 30 Thai native speakers, 30 French native speakers, and 5 English native speaker controls.

Data were collected from a grammaticality judgment test (GJT) and a cloze test. Each task consisted of 30 sentences, which were 16 target-featured items and 14 distractors. The target items were 8 regular and 8 irregular English simple past tense verbs.

3 Results and Discussions

Results on English simple past tense morphology in the GJT and in the cloze test from the independent-samples t-test showed that, for the GJT, on average, L1 Thai participants (M=13.67, SE=.326) scored significantly lower than L1 French participants (M=14.97, SE =.256), t(54.876) = -3.135, $p < .05$, r = .39, representing a medium-sized effect. In a similar trend, for the cloze test, on average, L1 Thai participants (M=12, SE=.457) scored significantly lower than L1 French participants (M=14.77, SE=.238), t(43.654) = -5.365, $p < .05$, r = .63, representing a large-sized effect.

Since the L1 Thai group's correct suppliance rates of English past tense morphemes were significantly lower than those of the L1 French group in both tests, hypothesis 1.1 was confirmed.

For English past tense regular and irregular morphemes, results from the paired-samples t-test showed that, in the GJT, L1 Thai participants' correct suppliance rates of English past tense irregular morphemes (M = 6.97, SE = .169) were significantly higher than those of regular ones (M = 6.43, SE = .233), t(29) = -4, $p < .05$, r = .60, representing a large-sized effect. L1 French participants, however, performed better for English past tense regular morphemes (M = 7.57, SE = .149) than the irregular morphemes (M = 7.27, SE = .143). This difference, however, was not significant t(29) = 1.964, $p > .05$, r = .34, representing a medium-sized effect.

For the cloze test, on average, L1 Thai participants' correct suppliance rates of English past tense irregular morphemes (M = 6.57, SE = .22) were significantly higher than those of regular ones (M = 5.33, SE=.32), t(29)= -4.368, $p < .05$, r =.63, representing a large-sized effect. L1 French participants performed better in English past tense regular morphemes (M=7.40, SE=.17) than the irregular morphemes (M=7.17, SE=.16). This difference, however, was not significant t(29)=1.022, $p > .05$, r = .19, representing a small-sized effect.

The data showed that the L1 Thai group's asymmetric rates of correct suppliances between English regular and irregular past tense morphemes were significantly higher than those of L1 French learners in both tests. The hypothesis 1.2 was, therefore, supported.

The findings were in line with the predictions of the explanation assuming non-target-like syntactic representations, i.e. the FFFH, not the explanation assuming target-like syntactic representations, i.e. the MSIH. The MSIH was problematic in explaining variability of English past tense morphemes and the asymmetry between the correct suppliance rates of English regular and irregular past tense morphemes by L1 Thai learners. It is assumed that non-existence of the past feature in the Thai learners' L1 led to such variability and asymmetry as L2 English pastness is unresettable for L1 Thai learners. L2 French learners' production of English past tense morphemes was possibly based on target-like syntactic representations.

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Working Memory and Second Language Learning: A Review of the Past 20 Years' Research in China

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Abstract

To review the literature covering the relationship between working memory and second language learning, a computerized search for articles published during the past 20 years (1999-2018) in 13 major foreign language journals in China was conducted and selected studies are presented. On research method, it can be divided into two stages: from 1999 to 2008, it mainly focuses on theoretical introduction, and literature review; from 2009 to 2018, it employs more quantitative and qualitative research methods. As for research content, empirical studies are from three dimensions: L2 understanding, L2 output, and the integration of L2 understanding and output. Considerable advances have been made in the knowledge of working memory and second language learning. Nevertheless, studies aim at working memory and interrelationships among the different domains of second language learning are needed.

Keywords

working memory; second language learning; literature review

Introduction

Baddeley's (2000) model of working memory constitutes the framework for most working memory research, consisting of central executive, phonological loop, visual-spatial sketchpad, and episodic buffer. Working memory is closely related to advanced and complex cognitive activities and plays an important role in it. In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of theoretical and pedagogical literature on working memory in second language learning in China. This study examines the literature on the research of working memory in second language learning from 13 major foreign language journals published in the past 20 years in China, to investigate its existing trend from the aspects of research method and research content.

1 Research method

1.1 Data collection

This paper adopted quantitative research method, set the time span from 1999 to 2018, and used "working memory" or "working memory capacity" or "working memory model" as key words to search in CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure). It is found that 130 related papers have been published in 13 Chinese major foreign language journals in the past 20 years. After examining 130 papers one by one, 9 papers were deleted according to their low relevance to this topic. Afterwards, 121 research papers were selected, sorted out systematically, and summarized in research method and research content.

1.2 Data analysis

At first, 121 research papers on working memory and second language learning published in foreign language journals in China were presented according to publication time. Then, these papers were classified into theoretical and empirical research based on its research method. Finally, the identified 67 empirical studies were thoroughly examined in its research content.

2 Major findings

In terms of research method, there are 54 papers in theoretical research (theory introduction, theoretical interpretation, theoretical review), accounting for 44.63% out of 121 papers; and 67 empirical research papers, accounting for 55.37%. From 1999 to 2008, it mainly focuses on theoretical introduction and literature review. Since 2009, the number of empirical studies has steadily increased.

The author classified the participants of 67 empirical research papers according to Wen and Wang (2004), and found that the participants involved primary school students, middle school students, undergraduates, postgraduates, and professionals. In total, 62 studies aim at adult learners who are undergraduates, postgraduates, and

professionals. This may be due to the researchers' working environment. The researchers engaged in relevant research are mostly concentrated on higher education, and it is more convenient to study college students.

These empirical studies evaluate working memory with a variety of measurement tools such as operation span, digital span, listening span, speaking span, and reading span test, etc. The language tested is either native or second language, and the test used a verbal, non-verbal task, or a combination of verbal and non-verbal task.

Based on the classification of research content from Wen (2012), 67 empirical papers are sorted out in three dimensions: L2 understanding, L2 output, and the integration of L2 understanding and output, involving seven aspects: working memory and vocabulary acquisition; grammar, and syntax acquisition; reading, discourse, and sentence understanding; writing; speaking; listening comprehension; and interpretation.

Regarding the role of working memory in the acquisition of English relative clauses, when the learner's working memory capacity is high and medium, the relative clause is obviously learned better than the learner with low working memory capacity (Dai, 2011).

In the study of Liu and Yan (2017), working memory capacity of those with high level of listening is significantly higher than that of those with low level of listening. The storage capacity, processing accuracy, and processing speed of the high level group are significantly higher than those of the low level group, while no significance exists in accuracy between the middle and low level groups.

There is a consensus on the correlation between working memory and the accuracy, fluency and complexity of L2 learners' written output (e.g. Yi and Luo, 2012; Yi and Ni, 2018). That is, work memory capacity has a significant impact on the accuracy of language output, but has little impact on the fluency and complexity.

While Jin (2012) points out that working memory capacity and L2 fluency and accuracy of speaking are significantly relevant, but there is no significant relationship with the complexity of speaking. In addition, the restrictive effect of working memory capacity on the fluency of L2 speaking decreases with the increase of L2 level.

3 Conclusion

Much of the current literature on working memory pays particular attention to the perspective of second language learning in China. The importance of working memory for language learning and processing varies with teaching methods, proficiency of second language, and age of learners, etc. Therefore, how the different components and functions of working memory in the various levels and stages of second language learning require researchers to carry out a large number of empirical studies. In order to ensure the reliability and validity of relevant research, and improve the comparability of research results, the choice of working memory measurement tools should be more cautious.

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English Interlanguage of Passive Construction by L1 Thai Learners: Evidence from Verb Types

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Abstract

L2 English learners with different L1s consider English passive construction problematic. SLA researchers studying passive construction among L1 Thai learners assume that the major difficulties Thai learners encounter can be accounted for by the syntactic differences between Thai and English. To the best of my knowledge, no study has focused on contrastive function and contexts between Thai and English passives. This study aims at examining how L1 Thai learners with different English proficiency deal with English passive construction with different verb types categorized by naturalness with the Thai *thùk* passive marker. The verbs were categorized into two groups: Verb Type 1 and Verb Type 2, i.e. verbs that are natural and unnatural with the Thai *thùk* passives, respectively, while English verbs can occur in passives naturally. A writing task adapted from Simargool (2008) was employed. It was hypothesized that advanced learners can appropriately produce English passive sentences regardless of the verb types while intermediate learners would encounter difficulties with Verb Type 2 because of the linguistic discrepancy. The results reveal that, based on the Interlanguage Hypothesis, in light of the verb types, both groups found Verb Type 2 difficult due to language transfer concerning function and contexts.

Keywords

interlanguage, English passives, verb types, language transfer, SLA

Introduction

Passive construction is a marked construction and also hard to be acquired compared to its unmarked counterpart, the active construction, confirmed by both FLA and SLA studies. There are a huge number of works investigating EFL learners and English passive construction, especially Chinese, Japanese and Korean learners. Many Thai researchers whose studies focus on English passives and Thai learners (e.g. Simargool, 2008) found that their interlanguage and errors of the construction in question can be explained by language transfer or interference, which is syntactic differences between L1 and L2, Thai and English respectively. Apart from the structural differences, examined in this present study is the difference in terms of usage (form and function). English passive sentences with *be* can be used in all contexts while Thai passives are mostly found in adversative contexts. Thai has three passive markers; *thùk*, *doon*, and *dâyràp*. The first two markers have been neutralized and used in adversative and neutral contexts while the latter occurs in favorable contexts only (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009; Pothipath, 2018; Prasithrathsint, 2003). Since this study focuses on only the most general Thai passive marker, *thùk* (Pothipath, 2018; Prasithrathsint, 2001), not all English passive sentences are equivalent to Thai *thùk*-passive sentences. This work, as a consequence, categorizes English passivized verbs into two types by employing the naturalness with Thai *thùk*-passive sentences[8]; Verb Type 1, verbs which sound natural in Thai *thùk*-passives (e.g. punish and interview), and Verb Type 2, verbs that sound unnatural in the construction (e.g. accept and celebrate).

1 Research question and hypothesis

The study attempts to find how verb types categorized by their naturalness/acceptability in Thai *thùk*-passive construction influence L1 Thai learners with different levels of proficiency in a writing task. It is conjectured that advanced learners can produce English passive sentences regardless of the verb types. Intermediate learners, on the other hand,

[8] The naturalness of each verb in Thai was checked by a norming survey asking Thai native speakers to judge whether Thai sentences with *thùk* sound natural.

possibly underperform the English passive construction with Verb Type 2, verbs that are not natural or acceptable in Thai *thùk*-passives.

2 Methodology

2.1 Participants

Forty undergraduate students from Chulalongkorn University participated in this study. By using the criteria of CU-TEP[9], twenty of them are advanced learners and the rest are intermediate learners.

2.2 Data collection

A writing task adapted from Simargool's study (2008) is employed. The task consists of 35 instances including 14 target items and 21 fillers. Within the target items, seven of them are Verb Type 1 and the other seven items belong to Verb Type 2. The participants are asked to form 35 sentences. In each sentence, one NP is placed as the subject, and another NP and one VP are presented and required to form a complete sentence. The learners can add more words if they wish. Below is an example.

gangsters/tease
The handicapped kid _____.
The handicapped kid was teased by gangsters.

3 Results

In lights of language proficiency, advanced learners passivize the target items more than intermediate learners (Figure 1). The former group's performance is 89.29% while the other's is 72.86%.

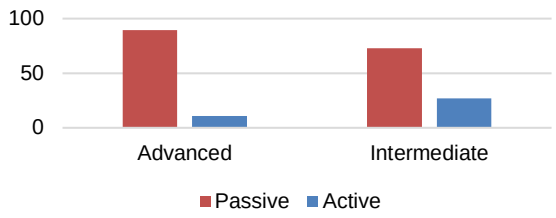

Figure 1. Learners' performance on the target items.

For the verb types, overall, Verb Type 1 is more productively passivized than Verb Type 2 in both groups of learners (Figure 2). Within Verb Type 1, advanced learners produce passive sentences more than intermediate learners (94.29% and 77.14%, respectively). Within Verb Type 2, the result is similar to Verb Type 1 (84.29% and 68.57%, respectively). To conclude, overall, as shown in Figure 1, advanced learners are still better at forming passive sentences compared to intermediate learners.

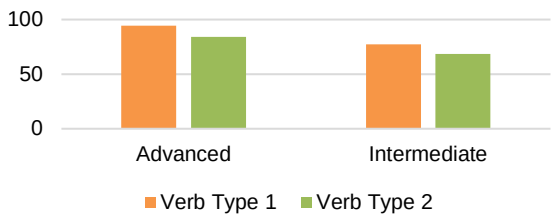

Figure 2. Learners' performance and the verb types.

4 Conclusion

It can be seen that the two factors, which are language proficiency and verb types, affect learners' performance. Verb types classified by naturalness in Thai *thùk*-passives reflect a novel perspective about language transfer in L1 Thai learners. This transfer, additionally, differs from most previous studies focusing on syntactic differences as it deals with usage and availability of the passive construction in L1 and L2. Since most language teachers in Thailand often claim that English passive voice is similar to *thùk*-passives in Thai, this present investigation also suggests that they should not use *thùk*-passives as an equivalent structure of English passives. They may be similar, in some ways, in terms of the syntactic schema. However, as the results demonstrate, in terms of function and form, they are not equivalent. If Thai learners find them alike, it might pose difficulties in passivizing Verb Type 2 in English for these verbs sound unnatural when passivized in Thai with *thùk* passive marker.

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[9] CU-TEP refers to Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency.

The Reliability of Student Assessment

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Abstract

The present study aims to analyse how and to what extent self-assessment and peer assessment differ from teacher assessment in terms of reliability. A total of 293 students, comprising a self-assessment group (n = 147) and a peer assessment group (n = 146), participated in the experiment. Each received the same English composition writing assignment. Students took a writing skill assessment before and after a consecutive (five-day) writing session involving one composition per day. The reliability of the two student groups' assessments was analysed using FACETS, a multifaceted Rasch analysis program (Linacre, 1998) that provides estimates of rater differences in terms of severity, consistency and task difficulty. The results showed that neither student assessment type was reliable compared to teacher assessment. However, viewed from the perspective of rater severity, self-assessment is similar to teacher assessment.

Keywords

Self-assessment, peer assessment, many-facet Rasch analysis

Introduction

The effect of student assessment on assessment reliability was analysed in order to investigate the differences between self-assessment and peer assessment. In the present study, self-assessment and peer assessment refer to student assessment in the classroom. In order to examine the reliability of student assessment, the following research question was proposed: How and to what extent do self-assessment and peer assessment differ from teacher assessment in terms of reliability?

1 Methodology

A self-assessment group (n = 147) and a peer assessment group (n = 146) participated in the experiment. Each received the same English composition writing assignment. Students took a writing skill assessment before and after a consecutive, five-day writing session, in which they wrote one composition per day. The self-assessment group evaluated their own compositions, while the peer-assessment group rated their classmates' compositions. Four English teachers (two native English speakers and two Japanese teachers) also evaluated the compositions. The writing assignments were selected from a previously-administered EIKEN Grade 3-level task. Reliability of the assessments by the two student groups was analysed using the FACETS program (Linacre, 1998).

1.1 Many-facet Rasch measurement

The data consisted of 2916 valid ratings (assigned by four teachers and 293 students on 586 compositions by 293 students; two writing tasks each: 2 tests x 147 self-assessment group students x 1 student rater, 2 tests x 146 peer-assessment group students, and 2 tests x 4 teachers x 293 students). All four teachers evaluated each student's two compositions (thus, the data matrix was fully crossed), but the self-assessment and peer assessment groups rated only part of the compositions because some students could not participate in all of the sessions. Owing to those missing data, a reasonable FACETS analysis contained 243 test-takers.

The analysis was conducted using FACETS 3.81.2 (Linacre, 1998); estimates were obtained of examinee ability, rater severity, and task difficulty on a common log-linear metric or logit scale. Using FACETS, the relative spread of these estimates within each facet was also derived. That is, analysis using the FACETS program yielded information about (a) differences in severity among raters and (b) varying abilities among the examinees. FACETS further provided fit statistics for each element (i.e., indicating the degree of predictability of each element's behaviour and global model fit of the total sum of four components).

In the present study, a total of 2916 responses were performed for estimation of (non-extreme) parameter values. Of these, absolute standardized

residuals for 100 responses (or 3.4%) were ≧2, and those for 42 responses (or 1.4%) were ≧3. Thus, these results would present a satisfactory model fit.

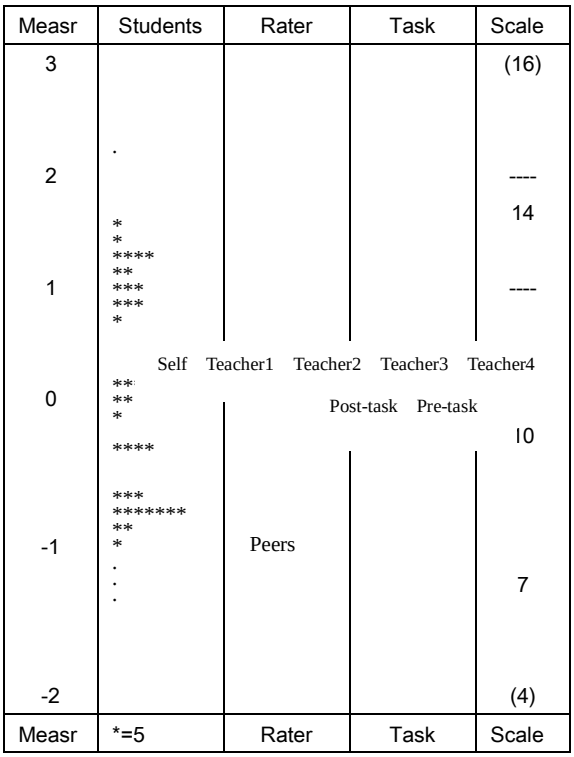
2 Results

2.1 Unidimensionality

The data derived from the present study show that the raw-score variance of observations was 3.127 (100.0%), the variance explained by Rasch measures was 1.582 (50.58%), and the variance of residuals was 1.545 (49.42%). According to Engelhard (2013, p. 185), unidimensionality is sufficiently supported if the variance explained by Rasch measures is ≧20%. Accordingly, the unidimensionality of the present study was accepted, given that the variance explained by Rasch measures of the present study was 50.58%.

2.2 Variance in the data of the total sum of four components

The measures for each facet are all on the same logit scale and hence directly comparable. Figure 1 shows a graphic ruler (the Wright map, or variable map) that presents all facets vertically modelled for the total sum of the four components.



Note. Self: self-assessment group; Peers: peer assessment group; Pre-task: pre-test; Post-task; post-test

Figure 1. Wright map for the total sum.

The Wright map from the many-facet rating scale analysis (Figure 1) can be interpreted as follows. The scale along the left of the figure is the logit scale, which is the same for all facets. *Students* represents examinees; they are ordered with the most able examinees at the top and the least able at the bottom. The other facets are ordered so that the most difficult element of each is towards the top and the least difficult towards the bottom. In this figure, raters are represented by *Self* (for self-assessment group students), *Peers* (for peer assessment group students), and *Teacher 1 to 4* (for the four teachers). The most severe rater is the uppermost rater in the figure, while the most lenient one is located towards the bottom. The fourth column ('Task') compares the pre-task (pre-test) and post-task (post-test) in terms of their relative difficulties. Tasks appearing higher in the column were more difficult than those appearing lower. In other words, the greater the difficulty of the task (test), the more difficult it was for students to receive a high score on that test. Finally, the scale in the right column shows the rating scale to the logit scale. The most likely scale score for each ability level is displayed here. Hence, the figure graphically presents the differences across the different facets.

3 Discussion and conclusion

The results demonstrate that student self-assessment has different aspects from peer assessment. Regarding the total sum of ratings, the severity of self-assessment can be closer to that of teacher assessment. However, it was not found that there was agreement between teacher assessment and self-assessment. Therefore, it is difficult to state that self-assessment is reliable. On the other hand, peer assessment students were found to be fairly lenient; further, their evaluations did not agree with teacher evaluations. Therefore, neither self-assessment nor peer assessment were reliable in terms of agreement with teacher assessment, but self-assessment has the possibility of substituting for teacher assessment. This is because self-assessment showed similar severity to teachers' assessments. It is difficult to use peer assessment as a substitute for teacher assessment, because peer assessment has different levels of severity in their rating. The peer assessment rating was too generous compared to teacher assessment and self-assessment.

In conclusion, neither student assessment type is reliable compared to teacher assessment. However, self-assessment has similarities to teacher assessment when viewed from the perspective of rater severity.

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English Microteaching Evaluation Criteria Revisited

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Abstract

This study explores the major issues in evaluation of microteaching performance in the EFL context by examining the pre-service English teachers' reflective journals and surveys. The research examined (1) what the beginner pre-service English teachers focused on in their microteaching performance and (2) if those elements differed from what they focused on in their lessons during the practicum after a semester. The study participants were 21 beginner pre-service English teachers in an English education program at a university in Korea. They were asked to reflect on their microteaching by reviewing their own performance on the video followed by writing the reflective journal. After a semester they were asked to reflect on their lessons experienced during the one-month long practicum. Pre-service English teachers' reflective essays were collected after each event and analyzed by using inductive logic of qualitative study. What the pre-service English teachers focused on the most were instructional skills, followed in order by non-linguistic features such as voice and body movement and linguistic ability. On the other hand, in reflecting their lessons during the practicum, they focused more on classroom management, teaching skills, and lesson planning. This study suggests some implications for how to evaluate microteaching performance of the pre-service English teachers in the English education program.

Keywords

microteaching evaluation, pre-service English teachers, reflective journal

Introduction

Microteaching refers to delivering a mini lesson in front of the colleagues and/or instructor in teacher-training courses and is also called demo lesson (Richards & Farell, 2011; Wallace, 1991). The research examined (1) what behaviors the beginner pre-service English teachers focused on in their microteaching performance and (2) if those elements differed from what they focused on in their lessons during the practicum after a semester.

1 Literature Review

Using the "reflective approach" of pre-service teachers in assessing micro-teaching is one way of self-assessment in teacher education and it is highly valued. Writing reflective journals while pre-service teachers watch their own videotaped microteaching performance seems to be a very useful evaluation method in that it does enhance the credibility of the assessment, and promotes professional development as a teacher (Wallace, 1991).

One of the difficulties in assessing microteaching is the artificial nature of micro-teaching performance. Wallace (1991) points out that what is required of teachers in the classroom is much more complex than in microteaching and should be viewed as a broad construct.

Kim and Lee (2013), who studied the usefulness of evaluating the microteaching performance, compared the actual class with microteaching and reported that compared to microteaching situation where it can be performed as planned, in real classrooms dynamic responses according to the given situation is more needed. In addition, when it comes to classroom activities they highlighted the impact of interaction with students or the possibility of student control. Furthermore, in terms of learner characteristics, they contrasted the artificial and cooperative microteaching environment with the natural classroom environment along the wide gap in students' English levels.

In contrasting the teaching abilities required in the microteaching and the real classroom, the reflective method of pre-service English teachers themselves will be used. It is based on the belief that the exploration process and discovery-learning approach of learner-centeredness should be more valuable for teacher development.

2 Methods

The study participants were 21 beginner pre-service

English teachers in an English education program at a university in Korea. They were asked to reflect on their microteaching by reviewing their own performance on the video followed by writing a reflective journal. After a semester they were asked to reflect on their lessons experienced during the one-month long practicum. Pre-service English teachers' reflective essays were collected after each event and analyzed by using inductive logic of qualitative study.

3 Findings

Among the types of teaching behaviors the students focused on the most frequently commented area of the students' reflection was on instructional strategies and techniques, followed in order by *eye contact/body movement*, *preparedness*, *language skills*, *loudness, speed, and tone of voice*, *interactivity with students*, and *timing*.

The major teaching ability that the pre-service English teachers noticed in the actual classroom are the management of the classes, instructional skills, planning lessons, and building rapport with students, etc.

In the classroom, which is taught in their mother tongue, Korean, pre-service English teachers noted above all the teachers' behavior that are generally difficult to observe directly through microteaching, which included understanding learners and coping with difficulties in controlling students or unexpected situations.

4 Discussion and conclusion

One of the difficult parts of the real classroom environment for beginner English teachers was student discipline. One solution would be to incorporate one of the factors which is included in Cambridge's TKR teaching abilities, "Creating and Maintaining Learning Environments," into the microteaching evaluation criteria. It might also work with pre-service teachers to discuss with them about teaching strategies that can promote student participation in the classroom.

One of the areas where educators in the teacher education might have to consider is how to assess the affective aspect of teaching abilities.

It is also notable that nonverbal aspects such as body movements and tone of voice were important evaluation criteria in microteaching. As Wallace (1991) suggested, the reflection approach seems to be a powerful tool to compensate for the shortcomings of the existing micro-teaching assessment by adding the degree of insight and critical self-assessment aspect to the teaching assessment strategies.

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Research Trends of L2 motivation: A Bibliometric Analysis

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Abstract

Based on a total of 752 English language and 365 Chinese language articles retrieved from WoS and CNKI, this study analyzes the developmental trends of L2 motivation research in the two sets of journal data published from 2004 to 2018. The bibliometric analysis encompasses the distribution of publication years and top journals, keyword frequencies and co-occurrences, and the top researchers and institutions. The results show that there is a steady surge of related research in the international English journals over the past 15 years while a minor increase with fluctuation in the mainland Chinese journals. The high percentage of articles in the top journals in both datasets indicates the maturity of L2 motivation research and most top journals belong to applied linguistics and educational technology category. The most frequently explored topics are mainly concentrated on L2 motivational self-system, self-efficacy and demotivation. The top leading scholars and institutions form an international joint research circle in Europe but no sign of cross-border cooperation among these researchers and institutions in mainland China and other countries/regions.

Keywords

bibliometric analysis; L2 motivation research

Introduction

Motivation is an ever changing factor among individual differences in second language acquisition (SLA). This study aims to identify the overall developmental trajectories, topical trends, the leading authors and institutions in L2 motivation research by contrasting studies published in both international and mainland Chinese journals. Two datasets with 752 articles published in international journals and 365 articles in mainland Chinese journals from 2004 to 2018 are retrieved for the bibliometric analysis with the following research questions: 1) What are the overall developmental trends regarding the distribution of publication years and top journals? 2) What are the most frequent topical issues? 3) Who and what are the most productive authors and institutions?

1 Methodology

The data are from two databases: the Web of Science (WoS) and China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) with no inclusion of Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macau for space limitation. We only included English journals listed in SSCI and A&HCI and Chinese journals indexed in CSSCI. We chose the topics “language NEAR motivation OR motivation NEAR language” for international English journal articles and “foreign language learning motivation OR English learning motivation OR L2 learning motivation” for mainland Chinese journal articles, respectively. After intensive evaluation and screening, we identified 752 English and 365 Chinese journal articles as relevant and saved as two datasets. Microsoft Excel 2016, CiteSpace and Vosviewer were employed to analyze and visualize the results.

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Overall developmental trajectories

International English journals produced a total of 752 articles in the past one and a half decades with a mean of 50 every year. There is a comparatively steady increase trajectory, with the final year covering over five times as many studies as the first. The significant increase of research output in L2 motivation over the past 1.5 decades is in line with previous studies (e.g., Boo et al., 2015). In contrast, mainland Chinese journals generated 365 articles, with the number only a half of that of its counterparts and seemingly having hit the peak in 2009. Henceforth, the number starts to decrease. That is to say, international publications continue to exert a great influence in the field of L2 motivation, and mainland Chinese publications also strive to react to the substantially increasing need for the non-language factor in individual language learning.

Over 40% of the articles related to L2 motivation are centered in the top 10 international and mainland

Chinese journals, which is an important indicator of a matured research field (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016:11). What's more, these journals mostly belong to applied linguistics and educational technology, which furnish international and domestic researchers with a forum to discuss and exchange their studies on how to promote L2 teaching and learning motivation.

2.2 Topical trends

Both English and Chinese researches are mainly focused on theories and notions such as "L2MSS", "self-efficacy" and "identity", which echoes Dörnyei and Ushioda's claim (2009:1) that the context of self and identity concepts is currently re-theorizing the L2 motivation. Another shared issue attracting scholars in and outside mainland China is "language achievement" that is revealed to be positively influenced by motivation and self-efficacy beliefs.

Except for similarities, there are also differences. For example, "L2MSS" topped in articles of English language studies, which are highly concerned with theoretical and structural models concerning the variable of intrinsic motivation and its impact on motivated activities. Further, they pay special attention to research issues relating to "computer-assisted language learning" (CALL) and "technology". However, in Chinese research studies, "English learning", "college English", "English teaching" and "English achievement" occupy an important role, which is a response to the growing dominance of Global English in language education (Boo et al., 2015). Moreover, Chinese language articles put more emphasis on "strategy", "learner autonomy" and "language teaching".

For the network visualization of keywords in English articles, VOSviewer identified five closely correlated thematic clusters: a variable and anxiety cluster, a self-efficacy cluster, a model and technology cluster, a L2MSS cluster and a demotivation cluster. The variable and anxiety cluster is the largest of the five and locates at the upper center of the whole network. For the network visualization of keywords in Chinese articles, VOSviewer also identified five close-linked thematic clusters: a self-efficacy cluster, a L2MSS cluster, a learner autonomy cluster, a demotivation cluster and a learning strategy cluster. Specifically, the self-efficacy cluster is the largest among the five, but not in the center of the whole network.

2.3 Leading authors and institutions

The total number of articles by the leading international scholars (95) is approximately 2.5 times that by their peers in mainland China (35). Most international scholars are from UK, Hungary, Sweden and Korea. CiteSpace detected international collaboration among scholars from different countries in Europe. However, little teamwork is observed between the leading researchers in mainland China and other countries/regions.

The top 10 Chinese universities published nearly 23% of all the publications in mainland Chinese journals. Four universities in Shanghai and three in Beijing play a crucial part in L2 motivation research. Of the relevant articles in all international journals, 18% is from the top 10 higher education institutions in different countries/regions. Three universities in UK, two in Hong Kong and one in Taiwan exert a great influence in this field. CiteSpace also detected international cooperation among institutions, which are affiliations of scholars mentioned in the above scholarly collaboration. Nevertheless, there is no sign of international joint work between the leading institutions within and outside mainland China.

3 Conclusion

Through a bibliometric comparison of studies on L2 motivation in the international English and mainland Chinese journals published from 2004 to 2018, this paper has provided a whole view of the developmental trends with various sorts of information, including the distribution of publication years and top journals, the most frequently discussed topical issues, and the leading authors and institutions with the number of contributions. It will be more beneficial for researchers and institutions, especially those in mainland China if they jointly look into the complexity of foreign/second language motivation in diverse contexts worldwide via cross-border collaboration in future studies.

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Compilation and Development of an Online Domain-Specific Collocation Explorer

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Abstract

Several applied linguists (e.g. Hyland & Tseng, 2007) have indicated collocational differences in different professional domains. Databases containing abundant collocational resources, however, have not been available for researchers to investigate such differences. To address the researchers' needs, we develop an online tool, *TechCollo*, which enables users to explore collocations in extremely large domain-specific corpora. So far, there have been four corpora available: linguistics, medicine, sociology, and computer science, with each comprised of around 170 million running tokens. Texts in them were all lemmatised and POS-tagged, which then allow users to search various types of pairs, such as Verb-Noun and Adv-Verb. Using TechCollo, users can easily discover what collocations are common across domains (e.g. *use approach*) and what collocations are comparatively frequent in a discipline (e.g. *apply method* in CS). By accessing example sentences extracted from our corpora, users can further explore whether those discipline-specific collocations reveal technical word meanings (e.g. *methods* referring to object-associated procedures in CS). To make the knowledge offered even richer, TechCollo can demonstrate searched collocations in "collocation clusters," which provide many other collocations semantically similar to the searched one.

Keywords

collocations; domain-specific corpora; online collocation explorer; collocation cluster

Introduction

In applied linguistics, the past two decades have seen increasing interests in compiling multi-word lists for EAP learners (e.g. Ackermann & Chen's Academic Collocation List, 2013). However, as the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000) which has been criticized that it covers more vocabulary in some domains than in others (Hyland & Tse, 2007), multi-word lists may suffer from similar criticisms. Hyland & Tse and Green & Lambert (2018), for example, both observe and indicate that researchers in different domains tend to use collocations differently. To understand whether those "coverall" lists are indeed useful across different domains, large databases containing abundant collocational resources are necessary for applied linguists to investigate collocation usages. Accordingly, we develop an online tool, TechCollo, which enables users to explore collocation usages in extremely large domain-specific corpora. We in this article describe the compilation and main functions of TechCollo, and discuss some plans of its future developments.

1 Domain-specific Corpora

We build up our domain-specific corpora using articles downloaded from ScienceDirect[10], a leading large database of scientific research. So far, we have compiled corpora for four domains: linguistics, sociology, medicine, and computer science, employing web crawling techniques to extract only the texts of articles from the ScienceDirect website. The first two domains basically represent social science fields, and the latter two science. To ensure that our four corpora are of similar sizes, we first targeted the domain with the fewest journals available online (i.e. linguistics), and downloaded all the articles published since 2000 from it. As for the articles we could not access their full texts, we used their abstracts. In total, we collected around 170 million word tokens. Next, for each of the other three domains, we attempted to download its latest published articles and gathered similar number of tokens. The final numbers of texts and words in the four corpora are shown on Table 1. We applied

[10] https://www.sciencedirect.com/.

NLTK lemmatizer and POS tagger on all the texts which then enable our online tool to show collocations of various POS combinations.

Table 1. Sizes of Domain-specific Corpora

	Linguistics	*Sociology*
Text No.	20,647	19,287
Token No.	169,632,398	172,287,976
	Medicine	*Computer Science*
Text No.	27,173	18,274
Token No.	175,011,240	169,939,931

2 TechCollo: main functions

TechCollo's main search page is displayed in Figure 1. The searched collocation exemplified here is *use strategy*. The pair basically is fairly frequent in all the four corpora, appearing at least 1,540 times within each. In linguistics, particularly, the collocation shows a significantly higher frequency (4,701). We thus check its example sentences (Figure 2) and find that most of them semantically are about skills of achieving language learning success (e.g. *listening strategy* and *interactional strategy*). Similar technical meanings can be obtained if we examine whether some collocations are extremely frequent in one domain. *Compute closure* and *transitive closure*, for example, are common in CS only, which suggest that *closure* is a term in CS, referring to "a local variable scope" in programming.

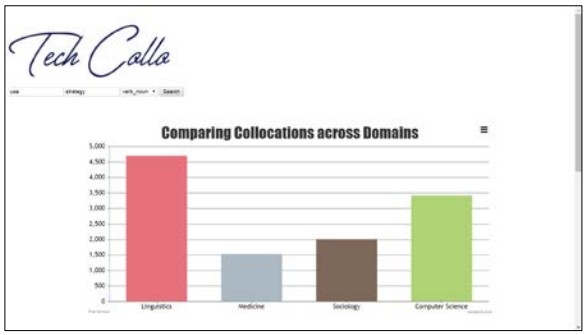
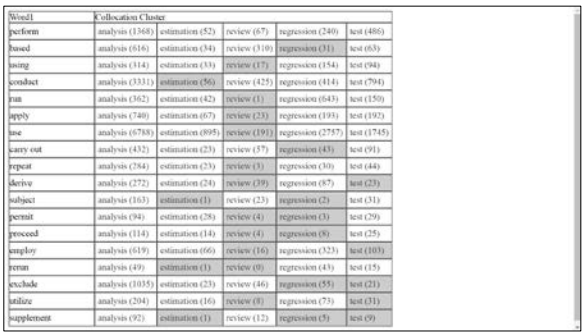


Figure 1. Search page of TechCollo.

Figure 2. Example sentences for *use strategy*.

To make the lexico-grammatical knowledge offered by TechCollo even richer, we make use of the techniques developed by Huang & Tsao (in press) which enable TechCollo to show searched collocations in "collocation clusters". An example cluster is shown in Figure 3. The searched collocation is *perform analysis*, and the target corpus chosen to generate clusters is sociology. Within the cluster, users are offered many semantically similar combinations such as *conduct analysis*, *carry out analysis*, *apply estimation*, *run estimation*, etc. With such clusters, users can choose from similar collocations to add variety to their writings, and further explore which pair is especially favored in their profession (e.g. *conduct analysis* in sociology).



Word1	Collocation Cluster				
perform	analysis (1368)	estimation (52)	review (67)	regression (240)	test (486)
based	analysis (616)	estimation (34)	review (310)	regression (31)	test (63)
using	analysis (314)	estimation (33)	review (17)	regression (154)	test (94)
conduct	analysis (3331)	estimation (56)	review (425)	regression (414)	test (794)
run	analysis (362)	estimation (42)	review (1)	regression (643)	test (150)
apply	analysis (740)	estimation (67)	review (23)	regression (193)	test (192)
use	analysis (6788)	estimation (895)	review (191)	regression (2757)	test (1745)
carry out	analysis (432)	estimation (23)	review (57)	regression (43)	test (91)
repeat	analysis (284)	estimation (23)	review (3)	regression (30)	test (44)
derive	analysis (272)	estimation (24)	review (39)	regression (87)	test (23)
subject	analysis (163)	estimation (1)	review (23)	regression (2)	test (31)
permit	analysis (94)	estimation (28)	review (4)	regression (3)	test (29)
proceed	analysis (114)	estimation (14)	review (4)	regression (8)	test (25)
employ	analysis (619)	estimation (66)	review (16)	regression (323)	test (103)
rerun	analysis (49)	estimation (1)	review (0)	regression (43)	test (15)
exclude	analysis (1035)	estimation (23)	review (46)	regression (55)	test (21)
utilize	analysis (204)	estimation (16)	review (8)	regression (73)	test (31)
supplement	analysis (92)	estimation (1)	review (12)	regression (5)	test (9)

Figure 3. Cluster generated for *perform analysis*.

3 Conclusion

About the future improvements of TechCollo, we plan to compile four-six corpora each year to make TechCollo cover all the main professional domains within five-six years. We also intend to use statistical measures such as log likelihood to compare collocations and, for each domain, find out the ones which are comparatively more frequent and more important for EAP learning.

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The Link between English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and Undergraduate Business Dissertations

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Abstract

Undergraduate programmes often expect students to consolidate their discipline knowledge in a dissertation. Many Hong Kong students face an additional challenge as the dissertation is written in their second language, that is, English. Language courses are usually offered in the junior years of undergraduate studies, and students may not apply the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) skills (e.g. coherence and referencing) learned before when they reach the final year dissertation stage. This lack of EAP application problem has often been reported in the literature as students could not perceive the connection between English courses and discipline subjects (e.g. writing skills required for completing discipline assignments) and consider them as different courses. This paper presents the design and implementation of an additional 30-minute workshop that aims to make explicit to final year business students the connection between the writing skills taught in EAP courses and those needed for their dissertation, via workshop activities and handouts that include excerpts from a discipline-specific journal article. Students' immediate feedback was very positive as they became more aware of the need of applying EAP skills to their dissertation writing.

Keywords

English for Academic Purposes (EAP), learning transfer, business discipline, undergraduate dissertation writing

1 Background

Most universities in Hong Kong adopt English as the medium of instruction despite the fact that the majority of students use Chinese in their daily life (e.g. Chen, in press; Evans, 2017; Li, 2009). This is also the case of the authors' university. Around 45% of freshmen in our university come from Chinese-medium secondary schools and need a year to adjust to the change of medium of instruction (Evans & Morrison, 2018). During their four years of study, students usually take one to two English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses in Year One and/or Two. These courses prepare students with general academic writing and speaking skills (e.g. coherence and referencing) needed in their own disciplines. However, without formal English input in the senior years, it is very likely that students may not retain and apply these EAP skills by the time they write their dissertation. As suggested in the literature, even students from English speaking background could not transfer EAP skills to their discipline assignments because they could not see the link between the two and regard them as different subject matters (e.g. McCarthy, 1987).

2 Aim of study

Is there a way that can help students perceive the similarities between the writing skills learned in EAP and those required for dissertation writing? This study sets out to explore the feasibility of activating learning transfer (e.g. Perkins & Salomon, 1994) via a 30-minute workshop and brief supplementary language notes. Four business dissertation students (in two groups of two) were invited to participate in this workshop.

3 The workshop

A 30-minute workshop was given to each group of students around one month before their dissertation submission deadline. The workshop was divided into two parts.

3.1 Learning transfer (A brief introduction)

This part involved a brief introduction on the idea of learning transfer. Students were shown several

scenarios of transfer. The first scenario demonstrated how the concept of addition taught in a Mathematics class could be applied to daily life shopping. Another scenario asked students to recall and explain the skills that they had acquired and could use in job interviews to show themselves as good team players. A further scenario brought students to the case in point, that is, the similarities between the writing skills learned in EAP courses and those required for their dissertation. Students were presented the basic structure of an academic essay with an introduction, body and conclusion. In a broader sense, these elements are necessary for a dissertation report (although the 'body' part is further divided into more sections). In the final scenario, students were shown the assessment criteria of their dissertation (e.g. "Writing is clear & succinct, flows coherently & smoothly throughout"), and their similarities with the criteria in EAP courses (e.g. clear, coherent and concise writing).

3.2 Exercise (Excerpts from a journal article)

To consolidate students' understanding of the connection between EAP and dissertation writing skills, an exercise consisting of three short tasks was given to students in the second part of the workshop. Each task included a short excerpt (around 50 to 150 words) extracted from a journal article in the business field. The excerpts were taken from different parts of the article but each contains certain targeted EAP notions that can easily be identified, such as topic sentence, in-text citation, hedging and signposting language. Students were asked to read them and verbally report what they could recall from their previous EAP courses.

After doing the exercises, students were also reminded about the Dos and Don'ts of writing a dissertation (in the supplementary handouts). For instance, an abstract is not the same as an introduction; and the conclusion section should follow logically from the findings and results sections.

4 Results

All students took the workshop seriously and tried their best to work on the given tasks. At least one member of Group 1 recognized most of the EAP notions. By contrast – and much to our surprise – Group 2 could not identify any, not even the most noticeable item of in-text citation.

The workshop seemed to have produced some initial effects. Students indicated that they would revise previous EAP course materials, especially Group 2 as they realized that they could not point out any notions taught before. Group 1 was so motivated that they requested comments on their dissertation draft. Both groups also reflected that the idea of learning transfer was useful and the workshop in general could help them write better in the dissertation.

5 Implications

This paper presents how a short additional workshop can help students understand the transferability of their EAP skills to their discipline. The purpose of the workshop was to make students aware of the link between their English courses and dissertation so that they could apply the writing skills learned from the previous context to the latter. Immediate feedback from students implied that a brief workshop could help them notice the link between the writing skills used in seemingly different contexts. Our experience suggests that activating students' learning transfer would be beneficial to their future study.

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Advanced Discussion and Discourse: Utilizing Tabletop RPGs in the EFL Classroom

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Abstract

This presentation draws from two different cases of teaching with TTRPGs at a university in Japan to students from intermediate to advanced English proficiency. The presentation will discuss some of the benefits using of TTRPGs in English education, such as providing students with intrinsic goals, improving critical thinking skills, and fostering better social and pragmatic awareness through unscripted, authentic conversations. In addition, this presentation will explain how TTRPGs can be implemented in both small and medium-sized classes, including some examples of in-class and homework assignments as well as methods for assessment.

Keywords

Game-based learning, role-play, motivation, critical thinking, communicative competence

Introduction

One of the major disadvantages of teaching English in an EFL context, as opposed to an ESL context, is there are fewer opportunities for students to practice authentic communication. The present study explores new possibilities for giving students unique opportunities for unscripted, real practice with English through the use of tabletop role-playing games (TTRPGs) such as Dungeons and Dragons or Call of Cthulhu. Despite the fact that TTRPGs are games based both on role-play and oral communication, very little research has been done on using them for language learning.

1 The nature and benefits of TTRPGs

What is a Tabletop RPG and why use them for English education? TTPGs are collaborative social games in which the participants work together to create a story primarily through oral communication. TTRPGs also often utilize dice to provide an element of randomness and give the game more challenge. Although a game, there is no clear winning or losing in a TTRPG. Rather, the game revolves around the narrative the players collaborative construct.

Players in TTRPGs are divided into two groups, the player characters (PCs) and the game master (GM). The PCs control the protagonists of the story, who both drive and change the narrative. The GM is responsible for maintaining the imaginary world, providing a plot for the PCs, and explaining the results of the PCs' actions.

Because TTRPGs are based on verbal negotiation between the PCs and the GM, they provide a lot of opportunities for language practice and learning. In addition, they help promote social and pragmatic awareness, as PCs must cooperate with each other to further the narrative and continue the game. Finally, TTRPGs require all the player to utilize both language and critical thinking skills, as they must work together to overcome a variety of social and logical obstacles that can include tasks as simple as ordering a meal, as complex as negotiating peace between two warring factions or a solving a linguistic riddle that opens a door to a secret room.

2 Implementation

This paper will discuss two different courses where TTRPGs were used for teaching English at a university in Japan. The first course was a 5-day intensive language course that lasted for 3 hours a day. The second course was also a 5-day intensive, but with 4 hours per session. A third course to a larger group of students is also currently being taught, but data collection has not been completed at this time.

The main research question of the studies was "can a TTRPG be effectively used to teach EFL at the university level?"

2.1 Course One

There were 5 students in the first course that ranged intermediate to upper-intermediate English language skill and consisted of 1 female and 4 males. The main focus of the course was on listening and speaking.

A simplified version of the Dungeons and

Dragons 5th Edition (D&D 5E) rulebook was used for the purpose of the course. It was chosen over the full edition to lessen the number of options students had when creating their characters due to time constraints. It was also deemed easier to understand than the full edition ruleset. The story used for the course was the starter campaign for D&D 5E, *The Lost Mine of Phandelver*. Other materials used in the course were either home-made or taken from teaching supplement books.

The first session began with a lesson on describing physical appearance and personality. As part of the lesson, students had to create a fantasy character and describe them to the rest of the class. The second half of the first day was a lesson in discussing goals and motivations, during which students created internal and external motivations and goals for each of their characters.

Each session thereafter began with a short lesson, a review of previous events in the story (shared by the students) and then a continuation of the story. Throughout each session, students were required to take notes of events, places, names, and conversations. They then had to post the notes upon an online forum board prepared for the course. In addition, the students were asked to build a digital picture dictionary of vocabulary they learned during play using the same forum board. Students were evaluated based on the quality and accuracy of their notes, various homework assignments, and their oral summaries of each session.

2.2 Course Two

The second course consisted of only 4 students from upper-intermediate to advanced level English proficiency. The group was evenly split between male and female. One of the female students had participated in the previous course. The main focus of the second course was reading and writing skills.

Based on observations from the first course, it was decided that a contemporary setting would produce more useful vocabulary and make it easier to integrate authentic writing exercises. The D&D 5E ruleset was still used despite the setting change.

The course began similarly to the first course, with character creation, including personal histories. The group were given a small case file with very basic information regarding a mystery the players had to investigate by interviewing non-player characters (NPCs) and collecting and analyzing various clues.

Once again each session began with a small lesson. Students were also required to post their notes on an online forum board and make a vocabulary dictionary. Instead of oral reports, they were required make written reports based on their findings. The course also required them to write a persuasive essay in the form of asking a judge to authorize a search warrant during one of their investigations.

3 Discussion and Conclusion

At the end of each course, the participating students were asked to fill out questionnaires based on their experience using a TTRPG for learning English. The results were mostly positive. All respondents in each course stated that they found the game to be very enjoyable. Students in the first course were asked about the elements of the game they enjoyed. They all stated that they enjoyed talking to other Characters, talking with NPCs and solving puzzles. When asked if they felt their English improved, 3 stated yes and one answered maybe.

Students in the second course were given 23 questions on a Likert scale of 1-5, where 5 was “strongly agree” and 1 was “strongly disagree.” Students strongly agreed (average 4.7) that playing the TTRPG helped improve both their writing and listening, and that they felt the assignments were good for improving their English. All participants strongly agreed that their speaking skills improved. Furthermore, students strongly agreed (avg. 4.7) that playing the game improved their note-taking skills. The same number also indicated that class assignments were more interesting than other class they had taken and that they would like to take more classes that use TTRPGs.

Overall, the data collected suggests TTRPGs are a motivating tool for students in an EFL context that holds a lot of potential for providing students with opportunities for authentic and varied language use.

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Exploring the Relationships between Self-directed Learning Readiness, Motivation and English Proficiency of EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study aims to explore the relationships between self-directed learning readiness (SDLR), motivation and English proficiency of EFL learners. Two hundred and thirty-four Korean university students participated. A questionnaire related to background information, SDLR, and motivation were administered to collect data. All the data analysis was conducted using SPSS 25.0. Descriptive statistics, ANOVA, MANOVA, and Pearson correlation were administrated to analyze the data. Results indicated that there existed significant differences between participants' English proficiency and SDLR as well as motivation and SDLR; The three variables are significantly correlated overall, and SDLR had a closer correlation with English proficiency; Results further indicate that motivational components of L2 Learning Experience and Ideal L2 Self were the most strongly connected with SDLR.

Keywords

SDLR, motivation, English Proficiency, Korean EFL Learners

Introduction

Self-directed learning (SDL) theory originated in the West. Holec first applied SDL theory to foreign language learning and defined SDL as the mastery of learning ability. Guglielmino (1997) proposed a scale to measure SDLR, which has been widely used in foreign language SDL research through continuous development and modification. Previous research shows a positive relationship between SDL and English achievement.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that motivation is one of the key factors which influence academic achievement. They divided motivational factors that contribute to learning success into instrumental and integrative motivation. Dörnyei (2009) redefined Gardner's model as an L2 motivational self-system using the latest social psychology achievement, including three components: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009).

SDL and motivation are always seen as important "learner factors". So far, the research on SDLR, motivation, and English language learning is either a separate study or a comparative study of the two. However, existing research has been little concern for the interaction of the three. This study is to compare the three variables. Another highlight is that the participants in the questionnaire are all college students with a variety majors. The study sought to address the following research questions:

(1) Are there any differences in the participants' English proficiency and motivational components depending on different levels of SDLR?

(2) What correlations are there among SDLR, motivational components, and English proficiency?

1 Methods

Participants were 234 students from a Korean university majoring in business administration, English language and literature, computer information engineering, chemistry, marine life, commerce and trade, and so on. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 30, 48 of them have the experience of living in English-speaking countries. Their latest TOEIC scores range from 230 to 990, the average is 534.

According to the average mean score(3.38) of SDLR, participants were divided into three SDLR levels: a low-level self-directness group (LSG, <3.38); a medium-level self-directness group (MSG, from 3.38 to 3.9); and a high-level self-directness group (HSG, > 3.9).

The instrument included three distinct sections: Background information; SDLR scales (Kim & Kim,

2012); and questionnaire on motivation (Kim & Kim, 2012; Subekti, 2018), including 5 components (Ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, integrativeness, instrumentality, learning experience) (Dörnyei, 2005, 2006). All the statistical data analysis was conducted using SPSS 25.0.

2 Results

For the first research question, the differences in participants' English proficiency and motivational components depending on different SDLR levels were probed. The results indicate that participants with high SDLR scores tend to perform better in TOEIC scores. Table 1 shows a significant difference between participants' English proficiency and different SDLR levels (F=18.407, Sig.=.000).

Table 1. Group Comparison of participants' proficiency on different SDLR levels (p<.05)

	Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*Sig.*
TOEIC Scores	Between Groups	855746.772	2	427873.386	18.407	.000
	Within Groups	5369642.545	231	23245.206		
	Total	6225389.316	233			

Table 2 shows a significant difference in motivational components and SDLR levels.

Table 2. Multivariate Tests[a] Results of Motivational Components on different SDLR levels

		Value	*F*	*Hypothesis df*	*Error df*	*Sig.*
Intercept	Wilks' Lambda	.019	2297.021[b]	5.000	227.000	.000
SDLR	Wilks' Lambda	.465	21.159[b]	10.000	454.000	.000

a. Design: + SDLR b. Exact statistic

Pearson correlation analysis was employed to examine the second research question regarding the correlations between SDLR, motivation and English proficiency.

The results revealed that SDLR significantly and positively correlated with motivation(r=.581, Sig.=.000). Among motivational components, L2 Learning Experience (r=.671, Sig.=.000) and Ideal L2 Self (r=.625, Sig.=.000) were connected with SDLR mostly. Table 3 illustrates that the TOEIC scores significantly and positively correlated with SDLR (r=.407, Sig.=.000) and motivation (r=.222, Sig.=.001); and SDLR had a closer correlation with English proficiency.

Table 3. Correlations between SDLR, Motivation, and TOEIC scores

		SDLR	*Motivation*
TOEIC Scores	Pearson Correlation	.407**	.222**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001
	N	234	234

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

3 Conclusions

This study found a significant difference between participants' SDLR and their English Proficiency, higher SDLR scores tend to perform better in TOEIC scores; it also indicated a significant difference between motivational components and three SDLR levels, in particular, components of L2 Learning Experience and Ideal L2 Self were the most strongly connected with SDLR; the variables of SDLR, motivation, and English proficiency are significantly correlated overall, and SDLR had a closer correlation with English proficiency.

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The Standings of Englishes in EFL Classrooms

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Abstract

The concept of English variation was introduced to Applied Linguistics since the 70s. Understanding Standard English and its position in sociolinguistic as well as the psychological aspect of its use is a must for teachers of English. Non-standard varieties such as regional dialects, sociolects, styles were well examined as related to their functions in communication. Standard English either with or without accent should be used as the medium of instruction in the classrooms. Awareness of their learners either ENL, ESL, or EFL is a great help in instructional and material development. The spurt of World Englishes (Kachru 1982, 1985) due to the vast and fast ICT communication has caused a lot of dilemmas in English language classrooms around the world. This paper aims to make clear the standings of varieties of English from the sociological, psychological, and functional perspective. English used in casual face to face communication or spoken English, and English used in formal communication or Written English should have different standings. The selection of the varieties, or the Communicative Competence, is based on the context of culture, and communication, and also on a continuum of the degree of mitigation and politeness.

Keywords

Englishes, Varieties of English, Standings of Englishes, Englishes in the classrooms

Introduction

English teachers are on the horns of a dilemma on the concept of World Englishes Model proposed by Kachru (1982, 1985). Debates among scholars for the acceptance of the concept in the teaching and learning of English are abundant. This paper aims to revisit the problem examining it from two perspectives: the descriptive and the prescriptive to make clear the standings of the concept in English classrooms around the world where the students are either native speakers, the non-native speakers who speak English as a second language, or as a foreign language.

1 Variation of Language

1.1 Dialectology and Sociolinguistics

In descriptive linguistic, linguists describe varieties of language in different aspect: dialectology describes varieties of language varied regionally, sociolinguistics describes varieties varied socially by socioeconomic class, a profession, an age group or other social group. These studies originally do not imply any prescriptive values to the varieties. However, there always exists a standard variety which is nationally selected as official language. It is used in official documents, textbooks, and formal communication. This standard variety refers to both the official spoken and written mode of communication.

1.2 Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching

In prescriptive linguistics, applied linguists need to prescribe varieties of a language according to its use in communication. Contexts of the use are very important. The notion of acceptability mainly concerns the context of communication which includes the context of culture (local or global), context of situation (formal or informal, official or casual), and context of participants (degrees of proximity). So the question is what variety should be used in classrooms? This question is related to the language assessment. Teaching a native language or a non-native language faces the same question. The variety that is selected is the standard variety and this selection is related to the assessment as well. Taking the standardized test for any purposes either education or career, one needs to learn the standard variety. Those that work in the entertainment field or

public communication may need to do code variation according to the setting they are to perform.

In this aspect the standings of Englishes in the classrooms are in different folds and different levels and modes of communication, especially in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

2 Discourse and Acceptability

We cannot judge acceptability without the context of discourse. In elementary level, students who are native speakers learn their mother tongue from home and peers. Standard variety is introduced in the classrooms by the teachers who may speak the standard variety with local accents. Students also learn the variety from other text types, awareness on varieties is raised in the grammar classes. What is right and what is not right or not acceptable is discussed from the students' errors. Students gradually learn the standard variety and are expected to be able to do code switching in different contexts of communication

The standings of Englishes in the EFL classrooms are the same. However, it is more demanding that the standard variety is the only variety that is accepted in teacher training. If we cannot train our English teachers to acquire the standard variety, it will lead to the failure of the country English education. In many countries that are successful in English education, they demand high standard of English teachers. One needs to be certified to be an English teacher. Creole or Pidgin varieties are not accepted in the classrooms. Teachers who speak these varieties need to keep them only in informal chatting with friends or family members. The certified teachers that could do code switching are considered bi-sociolects, or multi-sociolects.

The concept of grammaticality and acceptability in EFL teaching whether the sentence is right or not, one needs to ask for the context where the sentence exists. Non-native English teachers should be aware of the 'right' and 'wrong' in terms of grammaticality and acceptability. Actually acceptability is from the audiences' perspective. Socially speaking, they are very mixed. However, the standard variety is well accepted in formal communication by all groups of listeners or readers.

3 Degrees of Mitigation and Politeness

There is no Englishes when it comes to English assessment. However, there are different levels of linguistics that are subtler to prescribe, i.e., the organization of the moves in discourse. Some non-native writers write well but some write very difficult work to understand, that we say "It does not read well." This may be due to the winding style of writing transferred from the writer's L1 indirect communication culture.

Degrees of mitigation as proposed by Criper and Widdowson (1975) depend on the context of communication. In the oral mode of communication where the context of communication is explicit, the degree of mitigation is more lenient. Since the explicit context could make the illformedness arising from the non-standard varieties understood. Those who speak standard variety with their L1 accents could carry out their message better in any context. Informal or slang words used in formal communication may be considered rude and is not well accepted in terms of politeness.

The concept of Englishes should cover the variation not only in terms of how English is used in a nation, as an L1 or Non L1 (Kachru 1982,1985) but more on the variations and changes in terms of usage. Research on the variations which could lead to the divergence of Englishes or the convergence of Englishes (Jenkins 2003) should be more extensive. Spoken varieties are changing very rapidly whereas the written varieties are not changing that much. At the advance level, spoken and written grammar should be taught and learned in all English classrooms alike. Learning to master the language is learning to use appropriate varieties in particular contexts of communication. That should be the goal of English education around the world.

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Quality Time: Efficient Practice through Effective Material Adaptation

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Abstract

English is a skill, and like all skills it requires training. One issue many teachers face is finding materials that will maximize the amount of training that students have in class, especially for students with low motivation and aptitude. The current study pulls on data from 5 years of implementation of a blended-learning EFL curriculum at a university in Japan designed for engineering students. This study focuses on improving the process through which students learn during face-to-face lessons, and how F2F activities are intertwined with the e-learning component. The goals of the study are to examine the adaptation of materials and to show how activities can be repurposed, supplemented, or added in ways that improve the quality of the limited time students have to practice their English skills in class. There is also a particular emphasis on revising materials and activities in a cyclical manner to better address student needs and build motivation. In addition, this study will address the selection or creation of materials in ways that enhance the learning process as well as the productive outcome. Finally, the roles of teachers in the material development and implementation process will be discussed.

Keywords

blended-learning, material adaptation, motivation, teacher roles

Introduction

Because English is a skill, it is important for students to be taught how to learn and practice in order for them to improve. As such, much of the curriculum involves teaching students how to become motivated and autonomous English learners. To reach this goal, teachers strive to help students become both linguistically and emotionally ready to improve their English. Moreover, the curriculum is designed to raise socio-cultural awareness wherever possible, often facilitated by the course textbooks (*World Link, 3rd Edition* and *World English, 2nd Edition*, Cengage Learning), which feature video dramas and journals with social and cultural themes.

1 Curriculum Goals

1.1 First year goals

Most students entering the program in the first year are low aptitude students that have little confidence that they can learn English due to difficulties in primary education. In order to address these issues, the curriculum helps to build and reinforce foundational English skills, beginning with receptive language skills. Students are given pronunciation, grammar, and listening tasks that are scaffolded in a cyclical manner with support from both the instructor and their peers. Once comfortable with language input, the students are slowly introduced to productive skills as their confidence and readiness to communicate gradually increases. In addition, an online component attempts to foster more autonomy by giving students self-study assignments that are interwoven with class activities in a cyclical manner, so the students know the assignments' purpose and understand the language points in context.

1.2 Second year goals

During the second year of the program, the goal changes from a strong focus on passive skills to more active skills as students are encouraged to connect input to output in order to help facilitate the amount of language students can intake. Finally, the curriculum attempts to build readiness and confidence to use English in their future studies or occupations to help students feel secure in using the language even when making mistakes, which are always treated as learning opportunities more than reflections of a student's lack of skill.

2 Course Materials

One of the most important roles of the teachers in the curriculum is to tailor materials for the students. As such, a cyclical system of selecting, tailoring, and utilizing materials emerged as the course was taught.

The system involves several different steps: selection, categorization, evaluation, adaptation, and utilization.

Selections is straightforward: deciding what materials to use. Once selected, materials are quickly organized into groups based on the skill or skills they address. Once categorized, the materials are then evaluated against the students' language level and their current motivation to learn. Based on the results of this evaluation, materials are often adapted in one of several ways before utilized in the class.

2.1 Material Adaptation

During the course of this study, several types of adaptation were identified. The first is omission. Sometimes a material might seem to be great, but when analyzed, is either too difficult or easy for the students. Other times the material may simply not be a type of the material the current group of students enjoys. In such cases, it is omitted and replaced. The second is the opposite case of the first. A material is good, but simply doesn't provide enough practice on its own, so another material is added or the current material is supplemented with a different resource or activity, such as a worksheet from an online resource like SuperTeacher.com or a home-made board game. Though in practice, most activities omitted from face-to-face lessons are typically converted to online exercises in the e-learning component.

Sometimes a material might be fine for both the level, but it is deemed by the instructor that it should come either earlier or later than initially planned. In this case the materials are simply reordered. For example, a pronunciation activity may be moved to follow a drill or visa-versa.

In other cases, materials are repurposed to address a different language goal. This often happens when by turning grammar activities to speaking activities or a listening to a reading. Sometimes an activity is repurposed multiple times so that students are comfortable with the content and can practice with less anxiety.

Finally, materials can be reduced or expanded. Perhaps the instructor feels the activity does not provide a proper amount of practice for the students. For example, an activity could be expanded for students struggling with a specific language target or reduced for students that quickly grasp a concept and the instructor decides it would be more efficient to move on to another topic or activity.

3 Teacher Roles

The adaptation of materials has an unavoidable impact on the role of the teachers in the course. The teachers must consistently look to update or revise materials based on the students in the course, including activities printed in the textbook. The teacher becomes a tailor, closely examining the activities and adjusting them based on their own observations and reflections. Finally, the teachers are responsible for repurposing materials in ways that help build various English skills and help build student confidence through familiarity while fending off motivation-sapping monotony.

4 Conclusion

Such care and attention dedicated to material selection and use does have a toll on the amount of time it takes to prepare lessons, the benefits in terms of lesson quality and student engagement have been quite apparent. Students in the course have consistently improved not only their English language aptitude, but have also shown much more confidence and willingness to use the language. Their standardized test scores have consistently risen, and students have overwhelmingly reported an improvement in their attitude toward English and an increased desire to continue studying and using the language. In short, effective and consistent material adaptation has a net positive impact on student learning, both in and out of the classroom.

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Japanese EFL Learners' Use of Formulaic Sequences

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study is to examine the kind of formulaic sequences (FSs), specifically lexical phrases, that are used by English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. Japanese EFL learners' spoken data were transcribed and compared across different proficiency levels. The results revealed that (a) learners' utterances rarely contained FSs, (b) there were unnatural pauses in the utterances which could likely have been avoided if FSs had been used, and (c) the utterances were less fluent than they would likely have been if FSs had been used. These results seem to suggest that there is an urgent need for language lessons to focus on the acquisition of FSs.

Keywords

Fluency, formulaic sequence, lexical phrase,

Introduction

A growing body of research has shown that formulaic sequences (FSs) play a crucial role in language acquisition. FSs are "multiword units of language which are stored in long-term memory as if they were single lexical units" (Wood, 2010, p. 38). Examples of FSs include standardized expressions such as "I'll see you later" and idioms such as "a blessing in disguise." The use of such prefabricated forms or ready-made chunks is said to help improve leaners' fluency in their target language as FSs decrease the amount of processing effort required to produce sentences. They can be accessed more quickly and easily than sequences of words when generated word by word (Pawley and Syder, 1983)

1 Research Question

While it has been reported that native speakers (NS) use a variety of FSs in their speech, the use of FSs by non-native speakers (NNSs) is said to be less frequent. Previous studies have also revealed that the more proficient a speaker is, the more likely they would use FSs. The present study seeks to find out whether Japanese EFL learners of different proficiency levels use FSs in their speech, and if they do, what types of FSs they use and how often they use them.

2 Method

2.1 Participants

The participants in this study are Japanese university students, ages 18-20. The students were categorized into four levels (Levels 1-4). They will be referred to as L1, L2, L3, L4 hereafter.

Table 1. Participants' Proficiency Levels

Levels	N	CEFR
L1	29	A1
L2	33	A2
L3	30	B1
L4	34	B2

2.2 Procedures

In order to answer the research question, students were asked to talk for one minute on the following topic: Should parents limit children's use of the Internet? The students were first given 30 seconds to think about what to say. Students' utterances were recorded individually with the researcher in the same room to time and give instructions.

2.3 Operationalization

The present study focused on the students' use of lexical phrases, a pragmatically specialized subset of formulaic sequences. According to Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), there are four types of lexical phrases. Definition and examples are provided below:

Polywords

Polywords operate as single words, allowing no variability or lexical insertions, and including two-

word collocations (e.g., “for the most part,” “so far so good”)

Institutionalized expressions
Institutionalized expressions are sentence length, invariable, and mostly continuous (e.g., “a watched pot never boils,” “nice meeting you,”)

Phrasal constraint
Phrasal constraints allow variations of lexical and phrase categories, and are mostly continuous (e.g., “a ~ ago,” “the ~er the ~er”)

Sentence builders
Sentence builders allow construction of full sentences, with fillable slots (e.g., “I think that X,” “not only X but Y”)

3 Results

As shown in the table below (Table 2), the more advanced the learners are, the more frequently lexical phrases are used. Furthermore, it was revealed that higher level learners use a wider variety of lexical phrases.

Table 2. Lexical Phrases Across the Proficiency Levels

	L1	L2	L3	L4
I (don't) think (that)	29	23	21	20
When I was ~	2	2	0	0
a lot of	1	1	5	5
in the future	1	0	0	1
for example	1	0	5	3
I don't know ~	1	0	0	1
nowadays	0	1	0	0
The reason is as follows	0	1	0	0
of course	0	0	1	0
so on	0	0	3	0
~ years old	0	0	1	0
from my point of view	0	0	0	1
in my opinion	0	0	0	1
comparing ~ and ~	0	0	0	1
this kind of ~	0	0	0	1
it depends on ~	0	0	0	1
I think so	0	0	0	1
It's because ~	0	0	0	1
I agree with ~	0	0	0	2
to sum up	0	0	0	1

The numbers indicate the number of students who used the phrases.

4 Discussion

As previous studies have suggested, NNSs’ use of lexical phrases is limited, and the degree to which they are used decreases as the proficiency levels go down. The lack of lexical phrases means that learners have to generate utterances word by word. This would explain why there were frequent pauses and hesitations, leading to a very limited number of words uttered per minute. The use of lexical phrases would help learners improve spoken fluency by reducing hesitations and increasing the length of runs.

Considering how having a broad and highly automatized repertoire of FSs gives the second language speakers a chance at approaching nativelike fluency, lessons which focus on the acquisition of FSs are urgent.

5 Conclusion

The present study conducted to examine how Japanese EFL students use FSs in their speeches. Although the amount of data is too limited to draw any conclusion from it, it sheds light on the necessity for learners to acquire a broader range of FSs.

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New Approaches to Teach Grammar in the 21st Century

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Abstract

Visualizing grammar lessons paves the way for teachers to simplify the grammatical structures. In addition, using simple drawings and mind-maps enables students to visualize these structures and to acquire them smoothly. The presenter will describe how to used maps to teach grammar lessons by displaying several examples.

He has been trying to simplify grammar lessons and to make them funnier and more interesting. He always invents ways to make these lessons eye-catching for his students. He uses several tools to explain the grammatical structures, such as maps and drawings. His students enjoy looking at these tools during lessons. He has found that these tools increase his students' motivation and concentration.

This presentation shows how these tools can organize grammatical rules better and support students' retention process in their brains to remember well. The presenter will discuss how this teaching approach enables him to explain the main rules and to clarify the relationship between different points. This approach works as a scaffolding technique to support his students' language knowledge. Participants of this presentation will learn about the importance of engaging these tools in their teaching to create a "dynamic teaching" (Brown, 2000) and to enhance grammar learning.

Keywords

Grammar, visualizing, modern lesson, flowcharts, mind-maps, communicative input.

Introduction

Grammar lessons are often difficult to teach and learn. As an EFL teacher in the 21st century, it is not accepted to teach grammar lessons orally. Lecturing about grammatical structures makes them very abstract. EFL students also find learning grammar lessons by heart or memory is confusing and boring. Such learning ways restrict the use of these structures to exams and classroom settings. These ways often left students quite ignorant of how English might be used in their everyday conversation (Yule, 2006).

1 General description

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. It is also one of the more difficult aspects of language to teach well.

Many people, including language teachers, hear the word "grammar" and think of a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate "good" grammar with the prestige forms of the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and "bad" or "no" grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers of non-prestige forms.

Language teachers who adopt this definition focus on grammar as a set of forms and rules. They teach grammar by explaining the forms and rules and then drilling students on them. This results in bored, disaffected students who can produce correct forms on exercises and tests, but consistently make errors when they try to use the language in context.

Sometimes grammar just doesn't come naturally. There are a ton of rules to remember, and on top of the rules, there are exceptions to those rules!

Other language teachers, influenced by recent theoretical work on the difference between language learning and language acquisition, tend not to teach grammar at all. Believing that children acquire their first language without overt grammar instruction, they expect students to learn their second language the same way. They assume that students will absorb grammar rules as they hear, read, and use the language in communication activities. This approach does not allow students to use one of the major tools they have as learners: their active understanding of what grammar is and how it works in the language they already know.

The communicative competence model balances these extremes. The model recognizes that overt grammar instruction helps students acquire the language more efficiently, but it incorporates grammar teaching and learning into the larger

context of teaching students to use the language.

Instructors using this model teach students the grammar they need to know to accomplish defined communication tasks. Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.

2 Deductive vs. Inductive

Inductive teaching (sometimes known as inquiry or discovery teaching) involves giving the students examples of language and working with them to come up with grammatical rules. It is a more student-centered approach to learning. Inductive activities are generally more stimulating and require greater student participation.

Alternatively, deductive teaching begins by giving students the rules and working with them to produce language. This is more teacher centered. Many more traditional classrooms rely heavily on the deductive approach.

Declarative knowledge is knowledge about something. Declarative knowledge enables a student to describe a rule of grammar and apply it in pattern practice drills.

Procedural knowledge is knowledge of how to do something. Procedural knowledge enables a student to apply a rule of grammar in communication.

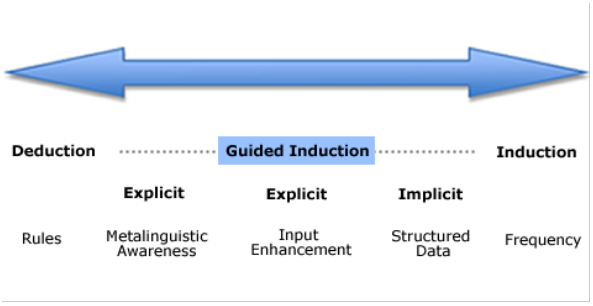

Figure 1. Deduction vs. Induction.

3 Conclusion

This presentation is intended for EFL teachers because it shows how these tools can organize grammatical rules better and support students' retention process in their brains to remember well. The presenter will discuss how this teaching approach enables him to explain the main rules and to clarify the relationship between different points. This approach works as a scaffolding technique to support his students' language knowledge. Participants of this presentation will learn about the importance of engaging these tools in their teaching to create a "dynamic teaching" (Brown, 2007) and to enhance grammar learning.

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Teaching Cantonese Tones with Blended Learning Materials to Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students

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Abstract

Most second language learners would find it difficult to master the Cantonese tone system, especially for those non-tonal language speakers, e.g. English. At the same time, it is a challenge for teachers to demonstrate the tone differences in Cantonese in a straightforward manner. Following the proposals of Chao (1947, 1948), a teaching method that combines solfège and hand movement is devised to present the tone differences to non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students at a university in Hong Kong. E-learning materials is also developed for this method so that students can study at their own pace (blending learning). The challenges of using e-learning materials are then discussed. At first, a learning package (e.g. lecture notes, videos and exercises) was created using PowerPoint and then uploaded online. Feedback from students were quite positive. However, teachers were not sure about the progress of their students, such as their learning patterns. Considering the advantages of using a learning video platform (e.g. viewing students' learning data), the existing learning package is being redesigned and converted to a recently acquired online video learning platform. The revised materials would benefit both teachers and students.

Keywords

Cantonese tones, solfège & hand movement, Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) students, blended learning

1 Cantonese tones

The acquisition of lexical tones in tonal languages (e.g. Cantonese) poses much difficulty for second language learners, especially those from a non-tonal language background (e.g. English). There are six lexical tones in Cantonese: three level (Tones 1, 3 and 6), two rising (Tones 2 and 5) and one falling (Tone 4), as shown in Table 1. A change in pitch will lead to a change in meaning. In other words, the same combination of vowels and consonants (e.g. /si/), if read according to the pitch contours as shown in Table 1, would give rise to six different meanings.

Table 1. Cantonese tone system

Tone	*Description*	*Contour*	*Meaning of /si/*
1	High level	55	*'poem'*
2	High rising	25	*'history'*
3	Mid level	33	*'examination'*
4	Low falling	21	*'time'*
5	Low rising	23	*'market'*
6	Low level	22	*'matter'*

At the same time, it is a challenge for teachers to present the differences of these six tones to non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students in a straightforward manner.

2 Teaching Cantonese to NCS students

To overcome this challenge, Chao's proposals of solfège mapping for learning Cantonese (1947) and finger movement for learning Mandarin (1948) are adapted to teach NCS students the six Cantonese tones at a university in Hong Kong.

2.1 The teaching method (adapted from Chao, 1947 & 1948)

1. A five-point pitch scale (from 1 to 5) is mapped to solfège (*do*, *re*, *me*, *fa* and *so*), with 1 (low pitch) denoting *do* and 5 (high pitch) denoting *so* (Chao, 1947). See Figure 1 on next page.
2. Imagine that Chao's five-point pitch scale is in front of the teacher.
3. To demonstrate the pitch *(level tones only)*:
   The teacher 'sings' a solfège that is mapped to its equivalent pitch value. In other words, *so* = 5 (Tone 1), *mi* = 3 (Tone 3) and *re* = 2 (Tone 6).
4. To show the tone contour (all tones apply):
   The teacher moves one of his or her hands (or fingers) from left to right, indicating the starting point and the ending point of a tone, i.e. tone contour. While moving his or her hand, the

teacher pronounces the associated tone in a syllable. For example, the high rising tone is shown by a hand movement from an imaginary point for 2 (pitch) or *re* to an imaginary point for 5 (pitch) or *so* (the dotted arrow in Figure 1), and the teacher says /si/ in Tone 2 (tone contour 25). Figure 1 shows a five-point pitch scale (from 1 to 5) that is mapped to solfège (*do*, *re*, *me*, *fa* and *so*). A dimmed hand denotes the starting point of the hand movement and a 'normal' one denotes the ending point. Tones 1 and 2 are chosen as examples.

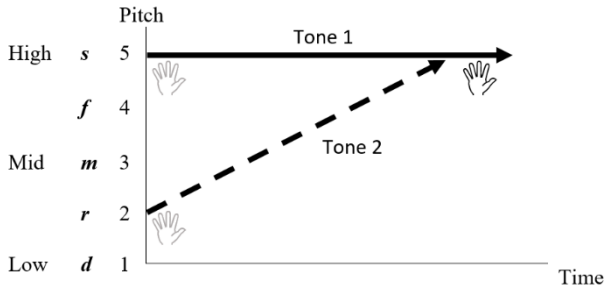

Figure 1. Cantonese Tones 1 and 2 (with hand movement) on Chao's five-point pitch scale that maps to solfège.

2.2 E-learning materials

Apart from demonstrating this method in class, short video clips of how each of the six Cantonese tones are pronounced (together with its corresponding hand movement) were produced for students to review and practise after class. However, only practice is not enough as students should be able to self-check their understanding.

3 Blended learning

3.1 PowerPoint version

Given the rising trend of blended learning and the interactive nature of the software PowerPoint, a learning package that contains lecture notes & short video clips of the tone teaching method and some self-checking exercises was developed.

3.1.1 Two drawbacks

Although feedback from students were quite positive, there are two drawbacks of using PowerPoint slides:

1. Large file size (for uploading and downloading) as the package contains many videos and audio files;
2. Teachers cannot monitor the progress of their students (e.g. whether students have used the learning package).

3.2 Online video learning platform version

It is fortunate that a recently acquired video learning platform can address these two drawbacks.

3.2.1 Advantages

As this video platform runs online, large file size is not a concern. Similar to PowerPoint, the platform retains the interactivity of giving simple feedback to students. Most important of all, the platform logs and saves all learner data automatically for teachers' reference. For instance, a teacher would know whether his or her students have done the exercises, the performance of a particular student in each item of a selected exercise, or which part of the learning materials is the most challenging to students. Such information would definitely help the teacher understand the progress of all students, and if necessary, adjust the teaching plan. In view of these advantages, the existing PowerPoint learning package is being redesigned and converted to the video learning platform, for the benefit of both teachers and students.

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The Use of the English Alphabet in Emoticons

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Abstract

This study attempts to investigate the digitalized uses (or emoticons) of the alphabet letters of English, Japanese and Korean. Emoticons are pictorial symbols to represent facial expressions by using punctuation marks, numbers and letters (e.g., :) 'smile'). This paper discusses the English alphabet use in emoticons with respect to the writing systems of the three languages. It could be universal because the emoticons are facial expressions; however, the commonly used ones in the three languages are not universal: the reading direction is different. In this sense, the writing systems of the languages influence their emoticons. This study further introduces a new trend in Korean word formation processes: non-existing words have been made up only based on the shapes of the words. There is no phonological commonality in the onsets and nuclei of the first two syllables of each word, but Korean speakers (teenagers) create 댕댕이 [tɛŋ.tɛŋ.i] 'puppy' from 멍멍이 [mʌŋ.mʌŋ.i] (lit. "bow-wow"), just because the first consonant and vowel look similar. This phenomenon may be because of the influence of the development of emoticons (digitalization), and the feature of Korean writing system, based on the shapes of articulators.

Keywords

emoticon, reading direction, writing system, word formation

Introduction

Emoticons, *emotion icon*, are digital characters implying facial expressions containing various emotions (Choi, 2018). The characters are made of punctuation marks, numbers, some English alphabet letters, etc. In the digital age, some emoticons are very popular. However, there is variation although emoticons are facial expressions: for example, the uses of different symbols to express sadness. This variation must be connected with the written system of the language.

This study first compares the emoticons of English, Japanese and Korean, especially, the use of English letters in their emoticons. Second, it discusses an emoticon pattern (reading direction) in relation to the writing systems of the languages. Lastly, this paper introduces a new pattern in word formation processes of Korean, which is based on the Korean writing system.

1 The use of English letters

Not many English letters are used in emoticons. The English letters in the emoticons are D in :D, K in :K, P in :P, and so on. It is fairly possible for these emoticons to be universally used, but it seems not much popular in Japanese and Korean. In Japanese, some English letters are T in T_T meaning 'crying' and m in m(_ _)m indicating 'apology'. Korean emoticons are Z and V in (-.-)Zzz meaning 'sleeping' and V(^_^)V for the victory sign, respectively. All are readable and understandable.

Interestingly, the reading direction (or the direction of the eyes and the mouth) for the English emoticons is different from that of Japanese and Korean: English emoticons must be read from left to right (→), while Japanese and Korean emoticons must be read from top to bottom (↓). Here is the comparison table.

Table 1. Reading directions in the three languages

	emoticons	*meanings*	*direction*
Eng	:D	'grin'	→
	:K	'vampire teeth'	→
Jap	T_T	'tears'	↓
	m(_ _)m	'apology'	↓
Kor	(-.-)Zzz	'sleep'	↓

Note: The names of the three languages are abbreviated.

2 Writing systems of the languages

In this section, the writing systems of the three languages will be briefly introduced. English is known as an alphabetic system, which is made out of the Latin alphabet, but it is indeed a mixed system

(Coulmas, 2003). The Japanese *Kana* is a well-known example of syllabaries referring to the syllable structure projected into the writing system (Coulmas, 2003). The Korean writing system, called *Hankul*, is also known as an alphabetic system and a phonetic writing system (Sohn, 1999).

As mentioned in 1, the spelling directions of the three languages are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2. Spelling directions of the three languages[11]

	Eng	*Jap*	*Kor*
'star'	*star*	*星 ほし* "hashi"	*별* "pyel"
'street'	*street*	*道 みち* "michi"	*길* "kil"
'high'	*high*	*高い たかい* "takai"	*높은* "nop.un"

Note: The names of the three languages are abbreviated.

The spelling direction of each English alphabet letter should be in the linear order from left to right. The Japanese words are written in Chinese with the Japanese pronunciations, written in *Hiragana*. The Chinese characters, called *Kanji* should be read as a whole but part of each character is written from top to bottom. Hiragana (e.g., *ほし*) is read linearly, but each character of the word is combined with the consonant and the vowel (e.g., *ほ* contains the consonant *h* and the vowel *a* at the same time).

The Korean words look similar to the Chinese characters, but each letter stands for either consonant or vowel. For example, ㅂ stands for *p*, ㅖ (Korean diphthong) represents *ye*, and ㄹ refers to *l*, that is, it is the CVC structure, but the position of each letter is, say, "left-right-underneath" or "west-east-south". Basically the reading direction can be said as top-to-bottom.

The reading direction of the written forms of each language appears to affect that of the emoticons of each language. English emoticons are in the linear order from left to right, whereas Japanese and Korean vertically stand from top to bottom.

3 Use of the Korean writing system

The reason why the Korean writing system is discussed further in relation to emoticons is due to a recent trend to make new words in Korean. The combination of the initial consonant letter with the vowel letter plays a role for replacing the original combination. For example, 멍멍이 [mʌŋ.mʌŋ.i], which means 'puppy' as an onomatopoeic word is written as 댕댕이 [tɛŋ.tɛŋ.i] just because 멍멍 and 댕댕 look similar. Korean speakers actually often call puppies [tɛŋ.tɛŋ.i] instead of [mʌŋ.mʌŋ.i]. This phenomenon gets more popular, so such neologisms can be found even in commercials (e.g., 네넴면 for 비빔면 'mixed noodles (spicy one)).

In Korean emoticons, there are not many English letters to be used. Even 'crying' takes 'ㅠ.ㅠ', not using ㅜ for tears. The Korean letter ㅠ is a diphthong, pronounced [ju] for the first letter in 'union'. When ㅠ.ㅠ is read, [ju] must be read twice.

The Korean writing system is relatively easier to be read as a shape itself (rectangle, circle, etc.), instead of the inseparable combination of the consonant and vowel letters. This process seems to affect the emoticon development and then a new phenomenon to make neologisms.

4 Conclusion and implication

This study took a look at the emoticons of English, Japanese and Korean, and discussed the relationship between the writing systems and the emoticons. In addition, a new trend in Korean word formation processes is introduced.

What this study implicates is threefold: first, emoticons are different in languages despite the high possibility of being universal (thus, must be informed); second, this difference can be explained by the reading direction of the writing system of the language; lastly, in the digital age, emoticon development can affect a new trend of word formation processes.

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Discrimination between Machine-translated and L2 Human-written Text: Features Identified by English Teachers

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Abstract

This study reports on the extent that experienced L2 instructors of English in Japan can discriminate machine-translated English (Japanese-to-English) from L2 writing (Japanese learners of English). Based on the survey conducted on 24 English teachers at the university level, we also analyze the distinguishing features of machine-translated texts and L2 writing.

Keywords

Machine-translated language, L2 writing

Introduction

The goal of this research is 1) to test the accuracy of discriminating machine-translated texts from L2 writing by L2 English instructors teaching in Japan, and 2) to report on the typical traits of Machine-translated language that experienced L2 instructors agree upon. An online survey was conducted asking English teachers (at the university level) to distinguish machine-translated from L2 human-written scientific abstracts from Japan and to provide the basis of their judgment.

1 Background

While there is some research on identifiable linguistic features of translated language (e.g. Tirkkonen-Condit 2002, Bernardini 2011), there is no past work on features of machine translated text. Taking machine-translated writing as a genre, it should have its own unique features. L2 instructors often anecdotally report that machine-translated language is easily identifiable due to its unique traits. In this study, we tested the accuracy for L2 instructors of English to identify machine-translated texts. We also collected their reasons for each judgment on whether a text was L2 writing or Machine-translated writing.

2 Methods

2.1 Materials

30 human-written scientific abstracts pre-dating Google Translate were selected from NTCIR test collections (academic abstracts from the National Institute of Informatics in Japan). 15 were originally written in English by Japanese scholars and 15 were originally written in their native Japanese, and were later translated with Google Translate. Three online surveys were made, each of which used a distinct set of 5 machine-translated and 5 human-written abstracts.

2.2 Participants and procedure

In sum, 24 participants provided judgments on 10 abstracts each. Abstracts were presented in the same order across participants. Participant took just over 21 minutes on average to complete the survey. Participants also provided the basis for their judgment. Their comments were collected and coded into a set of keywords for analysis. The characteristics of L2 writing (Japanese learning English) and machine-translated language were categorized as positive or negative.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Discrimination experiment

Participants' responses are summarized in Table 1. Overall accuracy in the survey was 51% (123 correct, 117 incorrect).

Table 1. Survey participant responses by abstract type

Abstract Type	Response Type	
	Human-written	Machine-translated
Human-written	79	41
Machine-translated	76	44

[1] This research is funded by Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (KAKENHI: #18K00656).

[2] The data in this research was obtained from the NTCIR collections of the NII in Japan.

This did not differ significantly from chance, $X^2(1, N=240)=.10$, $p=.75$. Investigation of individual participants showed some variation, with accuracies ranging from 30% (3 participants) to 80% (2 participants). There was no correlation between accuracy and experience teaching English in Japan, $r=.022$, $p=.73$, nor with age, $r=.017$, $p=.79$. In addition, whether participants spoke English natively (14 native English speakers vs. 10 non-native speakers) did not significantly affect accuracy, $X^2(1, N=240)=.72$, $p=.39$.

Inspection of the 30 individual abstracts used in the surveys showed an even larger amount of variation, suggesting that individual abstract traits may be important, an interesting direction for future research.

3.2 Traits of machine-translated language and L2 writing

This section summarizes features reported by participants as distinguishing the two kinds of text.

3.2.1 Positive features

Interestingly, participants did not mention any positive traits of machine-translated English with one exception: "natural word choice". When they commented on machine translation, they focused predominantly on negative aspects. Regarding L2 writing, however, they provided many positive traits. In Table 2, features that were evaluated positively in L2 writing are listed by frequency.

Table 2. Positive features of L2 Writing

Feature	Frequency
Easy to understand (read), natural	16
Grammatical	11
Good word choice (collocation)	9
Coherent, logical, genre-specific	9
Good syntax, complex grammar	6
Good punctuation	3
Others (Good English, good sentence)	6

Positive evaluations focused mostly on L2 writing's "naturalness", "clarity", "flow" and "style."

3.2.2 Negative features

Negative features of L2 writing and Machine-translated texts are shown in Table 3 and 4, respectively.

Table 3. Negative features of L2 Writing

Feature	Frequency
L1 interference (Japanese expressions)	9
Spelling error	8
Inconsistency	3
Others (poor writing, long subject, poor vocabulary, etc.)	6

Table 4. Negative features of Machine-translated texts

Feature	Frequency
Long sentence (constituents)	16
Unnatural, difficult to understand	9
Bad word choice (wording)	8
Incoherent	5
Bad syntax, complex sentence	2
Others (translationese, inconsistency, incorrect tense, etc.)	6

Across the board, L2 writing was characterized as including L2 Japanese expressions, misspellings, and machine-translated texts were reported to be syntactically complex, which made them difficult to understand.

Some features are mentioned for both types of writing. The frequency of these features in comments are shown in Figure 1.

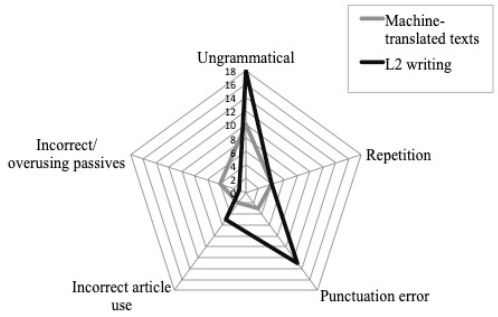

Figure 1. Shared negative features: Machine-translated texts vs. L2 writing

As shown in Figure 1, "Ungrammatical" and "Punctuation error" were more frequently reported for L2 writing.

4 Conclusions

In summary, while there are systematic differences in machine-translated and human-written L2 text, English instructors in Japan could not reliably identify them. Participants were essentially guessing (51% accuracy). L2 writing was positively evaluated for its clarity, word choice and coherency. With respect to negative aspects, L2 writing was noted to have L1 influences and spelling errors while machine-translated language was syntactically too complex with long sentences.

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The Use of a Radio Drama in English Writing Courses

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Abstract

This paper reports on the benefits of using radio dramas in English classes, especially as input to stimulate writing practice. A radio-style drama of 11 episodes, *Acapulco Vacation*, was used for English writing courses from 2013 through 2018. Students from seven different courses (in total 167 students) listened to one of the 11 episodes before each class and worked on open-type comprehension questions. Also, they wrote a 500-word summary of the whole story as an assignment at the end of the course. A questionnaire was conducted to evaluate the course. Many students found the radio drama useful to practice writing as well as listening, regardless of their English proficiency or majors. It is suggested that radio dramas have a powerful potential as materials useful in the blending and improvement of two different skills: listening and writing.

Keywords

radio drama, input, writing, teaching materials

Introduction

A lot of research has identified the merits of using films, TV dramas, and other audio-visual materials for developing students' listening abilities. However, there have been very few papers reporting on the usefulness of radio dramas used in foreign language classrooms, especially the use of them as input to stimulate writing practice.

1 Theoretical background

1.1 The importance of input and output

In the classes examined in this research, there has been a focus on balance between input and output. Krashen (1985) emphasized that learners need "Comprehensible Input," but other writers have argued that having a lot of input is not enough for language acquisition. Swain (1985, 1995) claimed that output practice is necessary for language acquisition. Other researchers have also emphasized the importance of interaction (Bialystok 1983, Tarone 1981).

Figure 1. Language acquisition activities

1.2 Using audio-visual materials in second/foreign language classes

Audio-visual materials are often used in foreign/second language classrooms. It is generally agreed that those materials can motivate students to learn more positively. As for using a radio drama, there have been very few papers on its usefulness.
To examine their usefulness as a means of input, the author used a radio drama in a university English writing class and got positive feedback from the students (Tatsukawa 2015).

2 The study

To confirm the usefulness of radio dramas as input in writing courses, another survey was conducted, using a larger sample size and building on the first paper above.

2.1 Research questions

There are three research questions:

(1) Do the students in this study also have positive attitudes towards the radio drama for improving English writing ability?
(2) Is the perceived usefulness of the radio drama affected by students' majors?
(3) Is the perceived usefulness of the radio drama affected by students' English proficiency?

2.2 Participants

There were seven groups of students, and their majors and English proficiency were as follows:

Table 1. Students' majors & English proficiency

Group	Major	*n*	TOEIC Ave.	TOEIC Max.	TOEIC Min.	*SD*
A	Human S. (H)	28	593.3	785	505	58.6
B	Engineering (H)	23	623.3	825	575	54.6
C	Education (L)	26	373.3	385	360	8.5
D	Science (H)	32	566.6	750	510	55.9
E	Medical (H)	17	570.0	660	540	32.0
F	Medical (L)	15	384.7	460	300	47.6
G	Human S. (L)	26	366.4	395	335	18.3
Total		167	501.6	825	300	115.5

2.3 Survey (questionnaire)

The survey was conducted at the end of the courses, and contained the following items:

About the radio drama (*Acapulco Vacation*)
(Q1) I liked the radio drama (*Acapulco Vacation*).
(Q2) The level of radio drama was appropriate.
(Q3) The radio drama was useful for improving my listening ability.
(Q4) The weekly assignment test was useful for improving my writing ability.
(Q5) The summary writing assignment was useful for improving my writing ability.

About the course in general
(Q6) I am now more motivated to write in English than before taking this course.
(Q7) I have learned some techniques on how to write in English by taking this course.
(Q8) I think that a radio drama is useful as English course materials.

Responses to choose from (=Choices):
1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Agree
4 = Strongly agree

(Q9) Free comment ("Please feel free to write any comment on the materials used.")

3 Results & discussion

3.1 Survey results

The results of the survey are shown in the following tables and figure:

Table 2. Results of questionnaire for 167 students

Choices	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8
1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
2	4	13	11	13	10	29	24	3
3	72	87	88	79	92	95	100	59
4	90	67	67	74	65	43	42	104
Average	3.50	3.32	3.32	3.35	3.33	3.08	3.10	3.59

3.2 About the materials (*Acapulco Vacation*)

More than 90% of the students liked the radio drama and thought it useful for improving not only their listening ability but also their writing ability.

3.3 About the course

By using the radio drama as input, 82.6% of the students were motivated to write and 85.0% answered that they had learned some techniques on how to write in English by taking this course. As many as 97.6% thought that a radio drama is useful as English course materials.

3.4 Correlations between students' proficiency and survey answers

No strong correlations were found between students' proficiency and survey answers. The lower proficiency students gave a more positive evaluation on the use of the radio drama.

Table 3. Correlations between students' proficiency and question items (Spearman's rank correlation)

	TOEIC	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8
TOEIC	1								
Q1	−0.13	1							
Q2	−0.08	0.55**	1						
Q3	−0.04	0.41**	0.38**	1					
Q4	−0.18*	0.34**	0.29**	0.34**	1				
Q5	0.01	0.31**	0.28**	0.26**	0.58**	1			
Q6	−0.06	0.45**	0.36**	0.46**	0.59**	0.49**	1		
Q7	0.07	0.34**	0.31**	0.39**	0.49**	0.46**	0.57**	1	
Q8	−0.12	0.57**	0.41**	0.36**	0.39**	0.31**	0.41**	0.41**	1

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

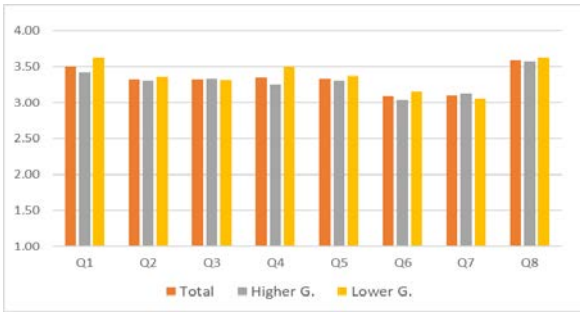

Figure 2. Results of students' responses

3.5 Participants' comments

Quantitative feedback was also obtained through students' comments. Overall, these were positive comments about the use of the radio drama as input for writing English.

4 Pedagogical implications

Using a radio drama is a novel way of creating positive attitudes and motivation in students.

Japanese EFL Student Writers' Perspectives on Anonymous Peer Review

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Abstract

Peer review in L2 writing classrooms is generally regarded as beneficial to both feedback receivers and providers. Among research findings showing how peer review can help student writers improve text quality, however, a few studies claim that Asian students tend to be hesitant to criticize others' work and exhibit difficulty in providing negative feedback. Since such studies were conducted in an ESL setting with a relatively small number of participants, this study attempted to verify and extend previous findings. Thirty-three Japanese students taking first-year English writing classes participated in the study. They engaged in peer-review tasks in face-to-face and anonymous review conditions and took a survey at the end of the semester. The survey questions elicited participants' perception of willingness/reluctance to peer review and their preference for either mode. Analysis of the data indicated that Japanese students' preference for a certain review mode interacts closely with a range of factors such as self-assessed target language competence and learning style.

Keywords

peer review, peer feedback, anonymity, Japanese EFL learners

Introduction

Peer review has been popularly practiced in both English as a second language (ESL) and a foreign language (EFL) writing classrooms for its benefits such as clarification of ideas and organization improvement (Berg, 1999; Rollinson, 2005). In particular, it has been supported on the ground of Vygotskyan approach to learning that views language learning as a cognitive activity that occurs in social interaction, not in individual isolation. Despite the potential benefits of students' participation in peer review, there are studies conducted in an ESL setting claiming that Asian students exhibit difficulty in providing honest feedback because they tend to be hesitant to criticize other's work for cultural reasons (e.g., Mangelsdorf, 1992; Nelson & Carson, 2006). Given the prevalence of peer review, it is deemed appropriate to verify the findings of the previous studies in that incorporating peer review into a writing curriculum needs to be systematically re-examined in the regions of Asia if the students are indeed culturally pre-set to avoid providing constructive feedback on other's work.

1 Methodology

1.1 Participants and research setting

A homogeneous group of 33 Japanese EFL college students participated in the study. They were from two first-year writing classes taught by the author. The class met once a week for 100 minutes each time over a 14-week semester. The participants were international studies majors between the ages of 18 and 19. They had received formal EFL instruction for an average of seven years when the experiment took place. None had lived in an English-speaking country for more than a year. Over the semester, the participants wrote four essays and were tasked to peer review in both face-to-face and anonymous modes. For anonymous peer review, writers' and reviewers' identities were withheld throughout the process. One class ($n = 17$) engaged in two anonymous review tasks first and two face-to-face review tasks second, and the order was reversed for the other class ($n = 16$).

1.2 Instruments

A questionnaire survey was conducted by the end of the semester when all the peer-review sessions were completed. To investigate participants' peer-review experiences and perspectives and their preference for a face-to-face or an anonymous mode, 20 Likert-based questions were asked whose scale ranged from "strongly disagree" (1 point) to "strongly agree" (5 points). Part of the survey drew upon items from Coomber and Silver (2010).

2 Findings

The survey items investigated participants' attitudes toward English writing, importance of writing successive drafts, competence in the target language, level of trust toward peer reviewers, value of peer review in writing process, and preference for a face-to-face or an anonymous mode. Means and standard deviations (*SD*s) of the survey items were calculated (see Table 1). In addition, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to delve into possible dynamics among variables affecting participants' preference for either peer-review mode.

Table 1. Means and standard deviation of survey items

Survey item	Mean (*SD*)
1. I enjoy writing in English.	3.23 (0.95)
2. The main idea of my essay gets clearer if I write several drafts.	3.47 (0.89)
3. The grammar of my essay becomes more accurate after I revise it.	3.78 (1.05)
4. I seek help from others before turning in my writing assignments.	3.21 (0.92)
5. I want to receive my classmates' feedback on my essays.	3.08 (1.11)
6. I want to give feedback on my classmates' essays.	2.61 (1.07)
7. My English ability is good enough to help my classmates improve their essays.	2.73 (1.03)
8. My classmates' English abilities are good enough to give helpful feedback on my essays.	3.28 (0.98)
9. When giving feedback, I want to know the writer's name.	3.22 (1.04)
0. I feel more comfortable giving honest feedback during anonymous peer review.	3.63 (0.82)
1. When receiving feedback from classmates, I prefer to know who wrote the comments.	3.01 (0.93)
2. Discussing my feedback with the writers during face-to-face peer review must have helped them improve their essays.	3.79 (0.71)
3. I prefer receiving anonymous feedback because the reviewers don't know that I am the writer	3.38 (1.03)
4. It is easier to give negative feedback during anonymous peer review.	3.53 (0.86)
5. It is difficult to express my honest opinions about the essay with the writer during face-to face peer review.	2.57 (1.19)
6. I give mostly positive feedback during face-to-face peer review because I don't want to hurt the writer's feeling.	2.32 (0.94)
7. I don't enjoy peer-review tasks whether they are anonymous or face to face.	2.19 (1.00)
8. To improve my essays, face-to-face peer review with oral feedback is more helpful than anonymous peer review with written feedback only.	3.75 (0.87)
9. I enjoy giving oral feedback during face-to-face peer review.	3.82 (1.02)
0. Peer review should be required in English writing courses.	3.70 (0.96)

As shown in the table, the grand means of the survey items advocating the face-to-face mode and the anonymous mode fell below the "agree" level (4 points), suggesting that the participants as a whole did not exhibit a preference for either mode. However, the factor analysis showed a clear propensity to favor a certain review mode among different groups of learners. Those who self-assessed their English ability in the high ends of the scale, for example, displayed a tendency to prefer face-to-face mode that allows verbal communication with the writer, which they greatly enjoyed taking part in. It was also indicated that those who wanted to know the name of the writer when giving feedback preferred to know the name of the reviewer as well when receiving feedback. In a similar vein, eager learners who voluntarily seek outside help with their writing were found to enjoy giving feedback to their classmates and to hold a belief that discussing their feedback with the writers during the face-to-face peer review must have helped them improve their essays. In contrast, low-achieving students were shown to prefer the anonymous mode as both a writer and a reviewer. These unconfident students were concerned mostly with correcting grammar when revising their drafts.

3 Conclusion

Evidence of student reluctance to criticize others' work was not found in either mode. Rather, the findings indicated that the participants' preference for a certain review mode interacts closely with self-assessed target language competence and learning style, suggesting that cultural attributes might not be a dominant or sole factor influencing Asian students' hesitance to give negative feedback.

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Revisiting Causes of Korean EFL Learners' Article Errors: Prioritisation of Specificity over Definiteness

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Abstract

The English articles are taught as a binary system based on nominal countability and definiteness. Despite the detailed prescriptive grammar rules, it has been consistently reported that their correct usage is extremely difficult even for advanced learners of English. Given that an English sentence (except for an imperative) cannot be constructed without a noun, which is always paired with an article, it is essential to understand specifically what causes English learners to make wrong article choices. To that end, this study examined 43 Korean college students' article use employing a forced-choice elicitation task. In addition to choosing the correct articles, the participants gave a written account of their decision-making procedure. Their performance on the task and the analysis of the written account suggested that most Korean EFL learners exhibit fluctuation between specificity and definiteness, overgeneralizing the use of the definite article for almost all cataphoric references. In particular, most participants were ignorant of the possibility of using nouns as specific indefinites. The findings underline the necessity of teaching the specificity feature to help English learners understand the English article system correctly.

Keywords

English articles, specificity, definiteness

Introduction

Correct article usage is hard for English as a second language (ESL) or a foreign language (EFL) learners to master, and it is especially so when their mother tongue (L1) does not contain the corresponding function system (García Mayo, 2008). There is nothing new in such observations as they have been consistently supported by a growing level of evidence in the literature. Given that correct use of the English articles has been regarded as students' number one difficulty (Han, Chodorow, & Leacock, 2006), the teaching of correct article usage seems urgently needed. Especially when it comes to academic writing where a high level of accuracy is required (Hinkel, 2011), the correct article use is essential for "exactness in thought and expression" (Miller, 2005, p. 81). Compared with the large number of studies investigating English learners' understanding of the article system (e.g., Chan, 2016) and their actual use of articles (e.g., Mizuno, 1999), relatively less research has been conducted to unravel sources of difficulty. To bridge this research gap, the present study collected quantitative and qualitative data to address the research question of what difficulties Korean EFL learners encounter in using the English articles correctly.

1 The study

1.1 Participants

Forty-three Korean college students participated in the study. They were enrolled in the advanced English writing course at a large private university in Seoul, Korea. The participants stated in the language background questionnaire that they had learned English for an average of approximately 14 years when they participated in this study. English was a foreign language for all of them, and none had lived in an English-dominant country for more than a year. Judging from the scores on the placement test administered by the school, the participants could be collectively described as upper-intermediate learners of English.

1.2 Instruments

A 24-item forced-choice elicitation task was created, using sentences from online English dictionaries, newspaper articles, and magazine articles. There was one or two blanks per each sentence, all of which were concerning correct English article usage. Since revisions were made to the original sentences by means of shortening a sentence length or changing/ simplifying sentence structure, two native English-speaking professors evaluated and confirmed the

naturalness and correctness of the revised sentences.

1.3 Data collection and analysis

The participants were required to choose the correct article for each item on the forced-choice elicitation task. In addition, they provided a written account of their choices in their L1, Korean. The participants' performance was analyzed by scoring their answers on the basis of the article usage from the original sentences. The written comments to each task item were categorized, and frequencies were counted.

2 Results

2.1 Performance on the forced-elicitation task

The overall mean correct answer rate was 67%. When the target nouns are categorized by definiteness and specificity (six items per each type), the mean of each type differed sharply, as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Mean of each noun type

Type	Context		Mean
	specificity	definiteness	(% correct)
1	–	–	62
2	+	–	37
3	–	+	77
4	+	+	92

2.2 Sources of difficulty

2.2.1 Prioritisation of specificity over definiteness

As reported in Chan (2016), the term *specific* was "predominantly used by the respondents to explain definiteness" (p. 74). Participants' lacking understanding of the given discourse context (i.e., ±definite) seemed attributable to a significantly high overuse of *the* for "specific indefinites" (Type 2), indicating EFL learners' difficulty in distinguishing between definiteness and specificity and, accordingly, between definiteness and indefiniteness (Ionin, Ko, & Wexler, 2004).

Unlike specific indefinites, nouns used as a nonspecific definite (Type 3) did not seem to pose a serious problem for EFL learners. The very propensity of equating being modified with being definite (see the following section for details) must have favorably militated in this case as there always exists a descriptive content modifying definites used for cataphoric reference regardless of their specificity.

2.2.2 (In)definite construal of a noun phrase on the basis of syntactic structure

Consistent with previous research findings (e.g., Butler, 2002; Chan, 2017), a majority of the participants exhibited a tendency to determine the degree of definiteness on the basis of coexistence with modifying information. As a result, the participants showed a tendency to choose the definite article for the specific indefinites (Type 2) when modifying information precedes or follows the target nouns, making them "specific."

3 Conclusion and implications

The findings of this study showed that EFL learners exhibit nonrandom error patterns of wrongly associating specificity with definiteness. The problem areas identified underline the necessity to bring the specificity feature into focus to demonstrate how being specific is not necessarily related to being definite and vice versa in the English language (Master, 1990).

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Lexical Analysis of Ministry of Education Published English Textbooks for Elementary Schools in Japan

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Abstract

It has been widely accepted that a textbook plays an essential role in the language classroom. Therefore, the evaluation of textbooks to examine whether they are appropriate is crucial. In this paper I report the features of vocabulary that is expected to appear in the current English textbooks, *Let's Try!* and *We Can!* for elementary schools in Japan. I examined what kind of vocabulary is introduced in the textbooks by comparing the words to the ones in the New General Service List (Browne et al., 2013), the words list of six junior high school textbooks, Fry's (2001) Instant Words and the Dolch (1936) Word List.

The results of the analysis indicate that some of the words do not seem to be useful in terms of high frequency. However, many of the words appear in six junior high school textbooks. Therefore, these words seem to be useful for junior high school English education, although the words do not appear in them do not seem to be age appropriate.

These results can be compared to the one that appear in the new English textbooks published in 2019 and authorised by MEXT in the future research.

Keywords

Textbook analysis, Vocabulary, Course of Study, Elementary school English education, *We Can!*

Introduction

This study aims to investigate a series of textbooks which are published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) as officially prepared textbooks for public elementary schools in Japan. Focusing on vocabulary types, the textbooks are examined whether they are appropriate in order to fulfil the aims of the Course of Study.

1 The Course of Study

MEXT (2011) determines the Course of Study as "broad standards for all schools… to ensure a fixed standard of education throughout the country" (p. 1). MEXT regards the Course of Study as legally binding standards and it has been revised approximately once every ten years.

1.1 The current Course of Study

1.1.1 Aims of the Current Course of Study

The current Course of Study for elementary schools was revised in 2008 and fully implemented in 2011. It aimed at fostering a "zest for life" with emphasis on the overall balance among academic ability, richness in humanity, and a sound body.

1.1.2 Changes in English education

Main changes in English education are as follows: enhancement of the English education, English predominant focus in elementary grades five and six (35 classes per year) as well as English conversation classes in the period for integrated learning in elementary grades three and four (unspecified hours).

1.2 The new Course of Study

The new Course of Study was revised in March 2017 and will be fully implemented in April 2020. It aims to foster attributes and abilities composed of three elements. According to MEXT (2014), three elements consist of 'what to be acquired', 'what to learn' and 'how to learn'.

2 MEXT published or authorized textbooks

In 2017, before the full implementation of the new Course of Study, MEXT published the latest series of textbooks, *Let's Try!* for grades three and four, and *We Can!* for grades five and six, according to the changes in the new curriculum and in order to support it. These were for the use during the transitional period from 2018 to 2019 and the replacements of the previous elementary school textbooks, *Hi, friends!* which were used during academic year of 2012 to 2017.

3 Vocabulary in the textbooks

3.1 Size and types of vocabulary

In 2017, MEXT (2017) informed 656 words and phrases to be used in the newly published textbooks for the use during academic year of 2018 to 2019. The vocabulary consists of 60 verbs, five auxiliary verbs, 492 nouns (including 61 compound nouns, 43 proper nouns and 19 pronouns), 63 adjectives, 17 adverbs, 10 prepositions, six interjections, two conjunctions and one set of verb and pronoun.

3.2 Comparison with the New General Service List

West's (1953) General Service List (GSL) is one of the best available lists because of the range of information about relative frequency of meanings (Schmitt, 2000; Nation, 2001). In 2013, Browne, Culligan and Phillips revised the GSL and created the New General Service List (NGSL) for EFL students and teachers. The survey was conducted by comparing the textbook words and the NGSL words.

310 out of 656 words (47%) are listed in the NGSL. Considering the NGSL supplemental word list, 71 more words (11%), 381 words (58%) in total appear in the list. Since the NGSL does not contain compound nouns and proper nouns, 102 words (16%) of the textbooks are excluded. As a result, 173 words (26%) do not appear in the NGSL, which suggests that quite a few words do not seem to be useful for EFL learners.

3.3 Comparison with six junior high school textbooks

One of the aims of the Course of Study for elementary school English is to secure a smooth transition to junior high schools. Therefore, I conducted the research to clarify how many words of the elementary English textbooks are listed in the six junior high textbooks for the use during 2016 to 2019.

The result shows that 542 (83%) out of 656 words are found in either or all the six junior high textbooks, whereas 114 words (17%) do not appear in them. Among these, 101 words, excluding derivative forms such as am, is, camping and enjoyed, are labelled 'Unique Words'. They do not seem to be useful in terms of the smooth transition to junior high school English education.

3.4 Unique Words compared with the Dolch List and Fry's Instant Words List

For the next procedure, Unique Words were examined to see if they are in the Dolch List or Fry's 1000 Instant Words list. If these words occur in either of the lists, then they can still be considered useful and age appropriate for children even though they are not used in the junior high school textbooks.

The result is that only seven words occur in either or both lists. In more details, the word 'corn' is listed in 986th of Fry's list as well as in the list of Dolch's 95 nouns. Likewise, the word 'pig' is listed in Fry's 100 picture words list and in Dolch's 95 nouns list. The word 'crayon', 'pants' and 'soda' are listed only in Fry's 100 picture words, whereas the word 'sheep' is listed only in Dolch's 95 nouns list. The word 'triangle' is listed in 919th of Fry's list. It is revealed that most of the Unique Words do not appear neither in the Dolch List nor Fry's Instant Words List. The results indicate that almost all the Unique Words do not seem to be appropriate in terms of children's age.

4 Conclusion and implications

The textbook analysis has revealed that *Let's Try!* and *We Can!* do not fully fulfil the goals of MEXT. The results indicate that some words are not useful in terms of frequency, age appropriacy and as a preparation for junior high school. These results can be profitable when considering the words in the new English textbooks published in the future.

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Reading Materials and EFL College Learners' Self-Efficacy Enhancement

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Abstract

The present study aims to investigate the relationship among EFL college learners' English self-efficacy and English picture books. English picture books, in recent years, have been highly promoted in Taiwan' elementary and middle schools, but seldom in colleges or universities. English picture books tend to be associated with younger learners; for college low-achievers, English picture books could also serve as a good beginning to raise their reading and learning interests. However, there is little research on applying English picture books in EFL contexts based on the model of Social Cognitive Theory and Sociocultural Theory, particularly for college learners. Therefore, in this study, two constructs, namely English picture books and English learning self-efficacy were investigated through a quasi-experiment. In this experiment, all the participants (84 EFL college learners) were recruited. Randomly selected as an experimental and a control group, they were required to answer self-reported self-efficacy questionnaires. The 18-week English picture book instruction was conducted in a more learner-centered and stress-free context. A series of t-tests, ANCOVA and Pearson Correlation coefficient were applied to demonstrate findings from the quantitative data; post-interview results were also analyzed and displayed. In sum, the findings of the study revealed that the participants felt more self-efficacious after the study. To be noted, most them reported that they would like to read more English picture books afterwards by themselves. To those low-achievers, English picture books could play an influencing role to enhance their self-efficacy and English learning attitudes.

Keywords

Sociocultural Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, English self-efficacy, EFL learners, English picture books

Introduction

In an EFL context, sufficient input plays a significant role to promote learning. To encourage learners to spend more time reading by themselves seems to be one of the major targets for many English teachers. Unfortunately, for majority English learners, English reading is not appealing or attracting; the learners always consider English reading as reading for tests or examinations. However, English picture books are not just young kids; for college low-achievers, English picture books could also serve as a gate to raise their reading and learning interests.

1 Literature Review

1.1 Social cognitive theory

Human beings, from the view of Social Cognitive Theory, are not just influenced by environmental forces, but play the roles of both products and producers of their own environments and social systems (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Barone, Maddux, & Snyder, 1997).

1.2 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is "rooted in the core belief that one has the power to effect changes by one's actions (Bandura, 2004:622)." It is an influencing factor deciding how capable individuals think they are when they face different sorts of tasks (Maddux & Volkmann, 2010).

1.3 Sociocultural theory

In Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978), a teacher or a more knowledgeable individual makes efforts to assist learners in unlocking their potentials within their zone of proximal development (ZPD). In other words, learners are provided with essential support and assistance in their learning and then they become independent and problem-solving learners (Schumm, 2006).

1.4 English picture books

Particularly in an EFL context, picture books play a

significant part in literacy and language development. (Elley, 1989). In Taiwan, English learners would easily comprehend the contents and their levels of learning interests and confidence are enhanced through reading picture books (Lin, 2003).

2 Method

2.1 Participants

In this current study, the participants were recruited from EFL college low-achievers (84 non-English-majored freshmen) of one college in Taiwan. Based on the participants' English proficiency results, the English level of the participants was slightly above CEFR A2 level.

2.2 Research Design

During the one-semester-long study, two classes of the freshmen were recruited; besides the in-class instruction from the instructor-researcher, the participants from the experimental group took part in the picture book reading activities. Before and after the study, the participants' levels of English self-efficacy were investigated and their perceptions of this kind of learning would also be analyzed through qualitative analysis.

3 Results

The participants' general background information showed that the two groups did not significantly differ from each other. Table 1 presented the ANCOVA results of the four parts of English self-efficacy by the two groups. The results displayed that there was significant difference between the two groups in their level of English self-efficacy after the English picture book instruction (F (1,81) = 4.94, p = .029 < .05).

Table 1. ANCOVA results of English Self-Efficacy Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Dependent: SE

Source	Type III SS	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	30.898a	2	15.45	65.88	.000
Intercept	4.87	1	4.87	20.76	.000
All Strategies	30.22	1	30.22	128.86	.000
Group	1.16	1	1.16	4.94	.029*
Error	22.98	81	.24		
Total	1079.04	84			
Corrected Total	53.88	83			

Note. R Squared = .573(Adjusted R Squared=.565); *p < .05.

4 Conclusions and Discussions

This study revealed two important findings. First, there was a positive correlation between English proficiency and English self-efficacy. Learners' inner feelings or thoughts would be important factors influencing their English learning or proficiency. Second, EFL learners' self-efficacy could be enhanced through reading English picture books. Learning contexts or materials should be well-planned or well-designed. In accordance with the concepts of the Social Cognitive Model (Bandura, 1986), environmental factors (the English picture book reading) would have an impact on learners' self-efficacy. In short, based on the study findings, it is suggested that language teachers can incorporate English picture books into formal curricula to encourage low-achieving learners to start reading English materials. Gradually, they would become more aware of their own learning processes and begin to appreciate the target language and its culture. Thus, English picture books can serve as main course books or supplementary reading materials for EFL learners.

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Characteristics of Learners' English in Monologue, Paired, and Group Orals

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Abstract

This study aimed to explore the characteristics of spoken English produced by 24 Japanese learners of English participating in monologue, paired, and group oral interactions. The participants were divided into three English proficiency levels and paired/grouped once each with (an) interlocutor(s) of similar and different proficiency levels. The spoken English of the participants was transcribed and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. For the latter, interactional language functions and patterns of interaction were analyzed.

Keywords

Speaking, Interaction, Paired/Group orals

Interaction

In the new Course of Study in Japan to be enforced sequentially as of 2020, traditional "speaking skill" is to be divided into two areas: "production" and "interaction." Interaction is a new teaching area in Japan, and little research has been conducted in the field compared to other skills.

Taylor and Wigglesworth (2009) insist that interactions among multiple speakers provide obvious learning advantages, since learners are given opportunities to use language actively in reception and production. Nakatsuhara (2013) also considers the ability to elicit learners' rich language functions to be a merit of interaction. This study will report some characteristics of oral interactions.

1 The study

1.1 Purpose of the study

This study explored some observed characteristics when English learners participated in the following three different activities: monologue, paired, and group oral interactions. Three research questions (RQs) were set as follows:

RQ1: What are the quantitative characteristics of the three speaking activities?

RQ2: What do Interactional Language Functions tell us?

RQ3: What is the relationship between English proficiency and interaction patterns?

1.2 Procedure

1.2.1 Participants

Twenty-four university students with TOEIC scores ranging from 300 to 960 participated in the study. The project was approved by the Ethical Review Board at the author's university (#1121). To minimize the effects of familiarity, participants were paired or grouped with interlocutors they knew.

1.2.2 Speaking prompts and pairing/grouping

There were three speaking prompts. In the first task, a monologue, participants were asked to describe a story depicted in a four-frame cartoon. Based on the monologue and their TOEIC scores, the participants were divided into three proficiency level groups: higher, middle, and lower proficiency levels. This level grouping was used when they were paired or grouped in the subsequent interaction activities. In the paired task, students participated in pairs, first with similar-level students and then with different-level speakers. In the group oral task, they were grouped with similar proficiency level participants and then with at least one participant whose proficiency level was different.

2 Results and discussion

RQ1: Table 1 provides quantitative data related to the three different speaking activities. In terms of speaking time, single speakers spoke for the shortest length of time, even though they had the longest time of 120 seconds. The result may have stemmed from a task style that appeared to lead some participants to get distracted by the cartoon when narrating the story and to stop talking. Speakers in the group oral spoke a little longer than in the paired oral. In terms of the number of words a participant uttered, grouped

speakers produced more words than paired speakers, and single speakers produced the least.

The number of words and syllables produced per second showed the same rank order; that is, paired, group, and single speakers. The number of words uttered per turn in the group oral was larger than those in the paired oral.

Table 1. Quantitative data (per person)

	speaking time (sec)	# of words	words/ sec	syllables/ sec	# of turns	words /turn
single	77.88	122.38	1.60	1.98	-	-
paired	88.83	160.79	1.80	2.40	15.00	12.32
group	92.31	168.81	1.77	2.36	14.06	14.37

Note: single speaker had 120 seconds speaking time, paired participants had 200 seconds (100 seconds/ person on average), group of three had 300 seconds (100 seconds/person on average).

RQ2: In terms of Interactional Language Functions (ILFs), the types of expressions second language learners use while interacting with others were analyzed. In this study, the following coding scheme (Negishi, 2011) was employed, based on He and Dai's (2006) ILFs to adjust the scheme to include novice to intermediate participants.

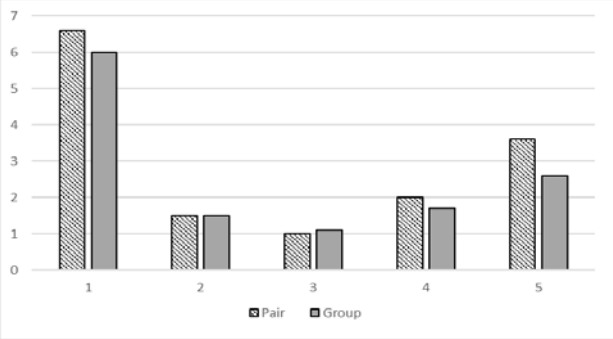

Figure 1. Average number of ILFs used per person in the paired and group orals.

Figure 1 depicts the results of the ILF analysis. Basically, the paired participants used more ILFs. As for 1) asking for information or opinions and 4) modifying or developing, a paired speaker expressed more ILFs than a grouped speaker. In terms of 2) agreeing or supporting and 3) disagreeing, challenging, or persuading, no obvious difference was seen, and there were few ILFs. In the last and most important function, 5) negotiation of meaning, the largest disparity was found between the paired and group orals; that is, a paired speaker employed the negotiation of meaning functions more.

The result shows that paired oral interactions tend to create more negotiation of meaning, or, paired orals may lead second language acquisition more than group orals.

RQ3: This study explored participants' interaction patterns by means of Storch's (2002) classification. To investigate speakers' interaction patterns in an adult ESL classroom, Storch constructed a model of dyadic interaction, which introduced four role relationship patterns: Collaborative, Dominant/Dominant, Dominant/Passive, and Expert/Novice. In this study, 96 paired/grouped interactions were classified based on the four interaction patterns. The 96 groups were divided into four subgroups: 1) paired orals formed by similar proficiency level participants, 2) paired, different level, 3) group, similar level, 4) group, different level. To avoid a subjective analysis, two researchers were involved.

In subgroup 1), more than 80% of the interaction was categorized as Collaborative, while among paired speakers of different proficiency levels (subgroup 2), only 30% of the interaction was categorized as Collaborative, and more than 50% of participants were Expert/Novice.

Subgroup 3) showed an equal ratio of the four interaction patterns, all at 25%. In contrast, in subgroup 4), two thirds of the different proficiency level speakers showed Collaborative interaction patterns, while less than 20% of participants showed Expert/Novice patterns.

From the result, we can infer that in the paired orals, speakers tended to be collaborative when similar proficiency level speakers were paired. When speakers had different proficiency levels, one tended to be the expert and the other the novice. However, in the group orals, different proficiency level speakers had a tendency to be more collaborative.

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The National Core Curriculum for Teaching English in Pre-service Training and the Prospective English Teachers' Workshop for Senior High School Students

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Abstract

As the new Course of Study is coming into operation from 2020, drastic changes of English education in Japan will start from elementary schools to senior high schools. However, one of the biggest problems with implementing the change concerns teacher training, so the Ministry of Education made the National Core Curriculum for teaching English in pre-service training at universities. The Core Curriculum enumerates the knowledge and teaching techniques which the trainees should acquire.

In this situation, senior high school students who want to be an English teacher do not have enough opportunities to know what they will study in teacher training courses at university. A private university in Japan held the prospective English teachers' workshop for senior high school students in 2017 and 2018. About thirty senior high school students participated in the workshop and experienced pre-service training of teaching English at university. The main activity of the workshop is making an English lesson plan and had a micro-teaching based on their plan. The instructors of the workshop are not only professors but also university students in the English teacher training course. This study investigates one of the approaches to a teacher training course in terms of the workshop.

Keywords

the National Core Curriculum, pre-service training, prospective English teachers' workshop

Introduction

As one of the categories of the National Core Curriculum, lesson planning is considered a crucial part in pre-service training. Starting with setting learning goals and making lesson plans, prospective English teachers are supposed to conduct English lessons based on their lesson plans. In order for senior high school students to experience this part of English teacher training course, the prospective English teachers' workshop for senior high school students was prepared.

1 The Prospective English Teachers' Workshop

1.1 The purpose of this workshop

One of the purposes is that senior high school students who want to be an English teacher experience teaching English and know what they study in pre-service training at universities. For university students in the English teacher training course, they reflect what they have learned through their classes and improve their own teaching skills.

1.2 Participants

In 2017, 24 senior high school students and 18 university students took part in this workshop. In 2018, 29 senior high school students and 18 university students joined the workshop.

1.3 The contents of the workshop

1.3.1 Opening lecture

A professor who specializes in English education gave a lecture on how to design and conduct English lessons. At first, all the senior high school students reflected and discussed English lessons in their own schools with the university students.

1.3.2 A model English lesson

A university student conducted a model English lesson for the high school students. The student teacher used *NEW HORIZON English Course 2*, the textbook used by around 40 percent of junior high school students all over Japan. The target grammar of the lesson is infinitive.

1.3.3 Workshop of making English lessons

All the senior high school students prepared for their English lessons and practiced teaching for one hour. They chose one of the units from the textbook. Each student was supported by a university student.

In order to make and conduct an English lesson easily, a handout of an example of teaching plan and the list of classroom English were prepared. The list contained expressions such as instructions, activities, and words of encouragement.

1.3.4 Conducting lessons

All the senior high school students tried to conduct their English lessons in five minutes. Table 1 shows some examples of English lessons in 2017's workshop.

Table 1. Some examples of the lessons in 2017

Students	The contents
1st grade (Male)	The topic: Universal Design The introduction of "how to"
2nd grade (Female)	The topic: homestay The introduction of "must not"
3rd grade (Female)	The topic: daily routine Language activity of "have to"

After finishing their English lessons, the university students gave positive feedback based on their experiences in the teaching training course. For example, "Your explanation was easy to understand." "You could do it without being afraid of making mistakes."

1.3.5 Review and award ceremony

A professor made remarks about the English classes and gave certificates to all the senior high school students.

2 Questionnaires

2.1 The purpose and the method

The purpose of the questionnaires is to clarify what senior high school students and university students learned through the workshop and to evaluate the significance of the workshop. The questionnaire sheet for senior high school students in 2018 was not conducted. The web questionnaire for university students was used.

2.2 Questionnaire items

Questionnaire items for senior high school students were as follows: (The items of (2) to (5) were multiple choices.) (1) Name (2) Why did you decide to attend the workshop? (3) How did you know the workshop? (4) Self-evaluation of the workshop (5) How did you feel the length of the time of the workshop? (6) What is your most memorable time of the workshop?

The questionnaire items for university students were as follows: (1) Name (2) Gender (3) Grade (4) What did you think before the workshop? (5) What did you think after the workshop?
In 2018, one item "What did you think about this workshop through two years of experiences?" was added in the questionnaire items for the students.

2.3 Results

24 senior high school students and 18 university students answered in 2017, and 16 university students in 2018.

As for the question (3) for the senior high school students, 17 students answered "extremely satisfied" and 6 students answered "satisfied". The following comments were found: "It is a good opportunity to think about my career." "University students were very kind. I was glad that they gave me positive feedback."

According to the results for university students, they mentioned as follows: "Before the workshop, I was worried about how I can support them and teach making an English lesson." "I was concerned about how I can tell them the contents of a teacher training course."

However, their comments changed after the workshop: "It is a good opportunity to review what I have learned in the teacher training course." "I felt accomplished when the high school student expressed his/her gratitude with words." Some students who experienced for two consecutive years mentioned that they could teach how to make English lessons better than the previous year."

3 Conclusion

The workshop could be good opportunity for senior high school students to think of their career. For university students, they reflected and made use of what they have learned through their teacher training classes. This workshop can be held as one of the approaches to pre-service training.

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Can Content Based Study of SLA Create Better Language Learners?

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to attempt to prove a connection between the study of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in a content based English second language university course and becoming a better language learner. It will especially focus on improvements in metalinguistic awareness, perception of affective factors in learning, areas of individual language learning aptitude or weaknesses there in, what factors influence one's own motivation and improvements in the use of language learning strategies. It will examine if the study of developmental sequences affects the order in which learners attempt to tackle different forms of language. In addition, whether the study of pragmatics makes learners less likely to directly translate and consider more carefully the appropriateness of their utterances in the target language. Finally, it will look at how to successfully implement such a content based SLA class in a university context.

Keywords

Language learning strategies, content based learning, SLA syllabus for second language English learners

Introduction

Content based instruction is a dual focused approach, whereby the teaching of academic content occurs in the medium of the target language allowing for simultaneous learning of new content knowledge and the cognitive ability to use and develop the target language. The content chosen as the focus of the lesson can create different possibilities and obstacles for language learning (Lightbown, 2014). There has been little past research into the possible benefits of a Second Language Acquisition focused CBL class for second language English learners. This paper aims to provide evidence that an SLA content based class will help support language learning in various means. Firstly, through the raising of metalinguistic awareness, secondly perception of affective versus motivational learning factors, thirdly perception of different learning types and relevant language learning strategies, fourthly language appropriateness (pragmatics) and finally overall approaches to language learning.

1 The course

The offering of a wide range of CBL courses at the university level is growing in popularity in Japan and therefore the creation of varied and relevant content has become essential for instructors within the field. The institution where this course took place has demands for a language and communication based content course described as focusing on how we learn language and use language to communicate with each other. Therefore, the instructor of the course tried to prepare content relevant to the parameters of the content requirements but also interesting and beneficial to second language English learners. The course was a 14-week program meeting once a week for 1.5 hours. The students were 3 students in their third year of study, majors including law, economics and literature, with TOEIC scores of over 600 or TOEFL scores of over 500 as a requirement to take the course.

Since time was limited and the content advanced it aimed to give a brief introduction and overview of SLA. Firstly, looking at first language acquisition, then comparing and contrasting second language acquisition, followed by an examination of individual differences of learners in SLA and finally theory on the optimal practices of pedagogy within the SLA field. The course consisted of 9 weeks of a pattern of two weeks of lecture and discussion sessions with pre-reading homework and the third week of student presentations on a choice of titles related to the previously learned content. The three presentations counted for 30% of their overall grade.

Other assessment included a test in week 11 of vocabulary and theories learned in the course and the students own ideas related to the theories. The test counted for 20% of the final grade. In week 12, the students began writing an essay from a selection of titles or their own idea related to the course material. This would have peer feedback along with teacher feedback and two chances for revision and redrafting before final submission (counting for 20% of their final grade).

The first language acquisition session and reading examined similarities in developmental sequences and consequences upon learning along with social uses of language and Behaviorist versus Innatist views of language learning (Chomsky, 2006). The second element, comparison to SLA element of the course looked at feedback, foreigner talk, interlanguage, fossilization, vocabulary learning strategies and pragmatics. The third element, individual learner differences, focused on relevant learner strategies for different learner types. The fourth element of the course focused on different approaches to pedagogy including the importance of sociocultural interaction (Long, 1983) and production of output along with more explicit structural based instruction. The fifth and sixth elements examined pedagogical approaches and methods around CBL, TBL and deductive and inductive approaches to grammar instruction. Students were asked to create their own classroom activities following the different approaches.

2 Method

The benefits of the course were measured by a questionnaire in the final week, which asked students about their perceived improvements in English skill, knowledge of the content taught, language learning strategies, types of language learners and perceived benefits towards their future language learning.

3 Results

The learners all perceived the course to be beneficial in terms of improving their knowledge of the content (SLA), helping them know more about what type of learner they are, teaching them new language learner strategies and improving their over all English ability. On a scale of 1-5, 5 being most beneficial, answers were all between 4 and 5.

Individual comments seemed to indicate that knowing about different types of learners was particularly beneficial for the students e.g. Student a said, “I think knowing what type of learner we are is very important to improve our language skills”. Student B said, “I found most useful type of learning”. Whilst student C, who was the highest in terms of English ability, seemed to find the class discussions, reading and writing most useful for improving her overall English ability, “Read more, listen more, speak more and write more. I think practice is an important way to improve my English skills”.

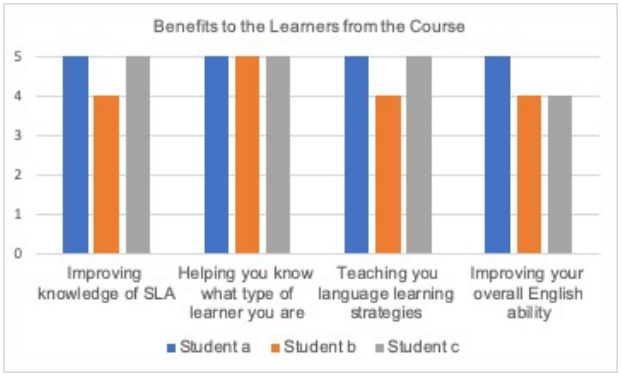

Figure 1. Showing learners’ perceived benefits from the course in different areas.

4 Conclusion

This type of SLA based CBL course can be beneficial to English second language learners, not only in regards to the usual benefits of CBL but also with regards to the particular benefits of the content. Study of SLA, particularly language learning strategies relating to learner type, discussion of how languages are learned and methods of teaching and learning can help learners to understand practices of language learning suited to them and raise their metalinguistic awareness. These benefits will assist learners to improve their learning practices both within and outside the classroom during self-study.

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Monitoring CEFR Implementation Through ELP Use

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Abstract

The purpose of this presentation is to report on the development, use, and reactions to 'Can Do' descriptors based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). These descriptors were used to define language learning goals for an EFL curriculum at a small Japanese university, and student progress in relation to these goals was monitored using a modified version of the European Language Portfolio (ELP). Students' impressions of the 'Can Do' descriptors and ELP were examined using survey data.

Keywords

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), European Language Portfolio (ELP), 'Can Do' descriptors

Introduction

Two benefits of the CEFR include the focusing of teaching, learning and assessment on practical communicative competence, and the standardization of attainment levels and terminology to facilitate a common understanding amongst stakeholders (Figueras, 2012). The ELP has been helpful to familiarize teachers and learners with the CEFR.

This study describes how the CEFR was mapped onto an existing curriculum to further promote a focus on communicative language use. 'Can Do' descriptors formulated for the EFL classes were informed by the CEFR and CEFR-J, an adaptation of the original framework with additional levels and descriptors specifically for the Japanese context. A system was introduced for teachers and students to use the ELP to evaluate and monitor student progress in relation to the 'Can Do' descriptors and promote learner autonomy through self-reflection and assessment. Implementation and effectiveness of the ELP to fulfill these roles was discussed, supported by student feedback elicited through a modified version of the ELP pilot study survey.

1 The CEFR and ELP

The CEFR was designed to provide the stakeholders with common reference points, which include the *Common Reference Levels: global scale*, describing six levels of language proficiency; *the self-assessment grid* to describe the six proficiency levels in relation to four communication modes (Reception; Production; Interaction; Mediation) (COE, 2018), and the *Illustrative Scales* – lists of 'Can Do' descriptors specifying what a language user should be able to do in a foreign language.

The ELP, developed at the same time and sharing the common reference levels as a core element, is composed of three parts: *Language Passport*, an overview of the learner's ability in relation to the Common Reference Levels; *Language Biography*, which facilitates learner's involvement in planning, reflecting upon and assessing the learning process and progress, and *Dossier*, a collection of materials to illustrate the learner's achievements and experiences.

1.1 Mapping CEFR onto a curriculum

The CEFR was mapped onto an existing EFL curriculum to clarify the language learning goals. Overall objectives for individual courses (e.g. Writing) were articulated using 'Can Do' descriptors taken directly from the *illustrative scales*, and because of the general nature of these descriptors, little modification was required. Course objectives were realized over 15 lessons using commercially-available textbooks. To help students see the connection between the course objectives and individual lessons, lesson objectives were closely tied to textbook content, requiring the 'Can Do' descriptors to be heavily

modified. In the CEFR Companion Volume (COE, 2018), each illustrative scale includes key concepts. For *Reading for information and argument*, they are 'type of texts', 'subject of texts', and 'depth of understanding'. The first two were typically modified to reflect reading textbook content.

2 Monitoring student progress

ELP 'Can Do' descriptor checklists are generally found in the *Biography* section and are quite comprehensive, allowing learners to plan, reflect upon and assess learning progress. At this university, course and lesson objectives are communicated to the students in the syllabi, which are stored in the *Dossier* section of the Language Portfolio. Each syllabus contains a self-assessment checklist, similar to those found in generic ELP checklists, but the emphasis here is for students to reflect on their progress within individual courses and store evidence of this progress (e.g. essays). The Biography Section focuses more on the learning process (e.g. learning vocabulary), and setting goals for each semester and summer / winter break. The ELP is utilized during counselling sessions with a faculty member to review progress and future goals. See Birch (2018) for a detailed description of ELP use at this institution.

3 Student reactions to the ELP

To better understand students' impression of the language portfolio, the survey utilized in Wicking (2016) was administered to the students in 2018 (Birch, 2018), and the findings follow Wicking (2016) very closely (Appendix A). The average scores for whether the LP helps students see progress in their learning (Q2), assess their competence (Q3), and participate more fully in the language learning process (Q4) were essentially identical to Wicking (2016) (Mean score ±0.04). Encouragingly, students in the Birch study evaluated the portfolio more favorably (Q5: Mean score of 3.62 vs 3.35). 2019 results were reported at PAAL 2019.

4 Conclusion

This study describes the development, use and reactions to CEFR-based 'Can Do' descriptors to define course and lesson goals in an EFL university curriculum, as well as the ELP's role to encourage student reflection on progress in relation to these goals. Educators will also benefit from reflecting on current practice, an important aim of the CEFR and the reason behind undertaking this study.

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Appendix A

Table 1. Partial survey results from Wicking (2016).

5-point Likert Scale (Strongly agree=5; Strongly disagree=1) N=125				
Question	Strongly agree/Agree	Unsure	Disagree / Strongly D.	Mean (5 pt.)
2. Does the LP help you see progress in learning?	68.8%	24.8%	6.4%	3.74
3. Does the LP help you assess your competence?	63%	25.6%	10.4%	3.65
4. Does the LP stimulate you to participate more fully in the language learning process?	27.2%	37.6%	35.2%	2.94
5 Do you think the time spent on your LP was time well spent?	46.4%	36	17.6%	3.35

Intelligibility of Korean-Accented English: the Unintelligible Features to Thai- and Korean-Speakers[1]

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Abstract

The purpose of this presentation is to compare the level of intelligibility of Korean-accented English (KoE) with two groups of English learners in expanding circle countries: Thailand and Korea. Twenty-four Thai-speaking English learners (TSLs) and 138 Korean-speaking English learners (KSLs), both at first-year level, participated in the study. TSLs were considered to be intermediate students (A2) majoring in English language, while KSLs to be an elementary level (A2) according to CEFR leveling criteria. Both groups listened to a recording and completed an intelligibility test. The test items were identified as unintelligible with less than half correct responses. The findings supported the advantage of the interlanguage speech intelligibility benefit (ISIB) (Bent & Bradlow, 2003) and shared-L1 advantage (Harding, 2012), as several features were more intelligible to KSLs than TSLs based. In addition, the phonological features that are likely to reduce intelligibility for each ethnic group were discussed.

Keywords

Intelligibility, Korean-accented English, Thai EFL students, Korean EFL students, English as a lingua franca

Introduction

Given that non-native English users outnumber native English speakers, and that technology enables people to communicate across borders, learning English as a lingua franca (ELF) has never been more legitimate in Korea. Still, there is remarkably little known about intelligibility level of KoE and its specific features that merit enough attentions in Korean English language teaching (ELT) context. In order to provide more evidence on this issue, this paper attempts to explore intelligibility of KoE, especially to KSLs and TSLs. The current study aims to provide the basis for understanding KoE intelligibility focusing on the following question: which of the features of KoE hamper intelligibility for both KSLs and TSLs?

1 Intelligibility of Learner English

Smith and Nelson (2006) made a useful distinction between intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability: intelligibility being concerned with the word and utterance-level of recognition, comprehensibility referring to a meaning attached to a word or utterance, and interpretability regarding the degree to which one can read implicit messages of a speaker. This paper focuses on intelligibility in association with an accent familiarity. The familiarity with a first language (L1)-accented English has been regarded as a facilitator of intelligibility (Bent and Bradlow, 2003; Harding, 2012; Smith & Nelson, 2006). That is, the fact that speaker and listener shared an L1 background tended to enhance intelligibility. “The interlanguage speech intelligibility benefit (Bent & Bradlow, 2003)”, and “shared-L1 advantage (Harding, 2012)” could make a case. This study examines the intelligibility of KoE, targeting TSLs and KSLs listener groups, hypothesizing that familiarity with L1 English ought to have an effect.

2 Methods

2.1 Participants

Twenty-four TSLs and thirty six KSLs took part in the study. IRB approved informed consents were obtained from all participants. English proficiency levels of TSLs are considered to be intermediate, given their major is English. KSLs are considered to be at similar level based on average grammar scores of 51.81 from Oxford Placement Test (OPT) developed by Allan (2004).

2.2 Procedure

A dictation test was administered focusing on

intelligibility at word and phrase level according to the definition by Smith and Nelson (2006). Thus, test takers filled out a blank after having listened to a recorded speech in KoE. Of all items in the dictation test, more than 50% of correct responses were classified as '*intelligible*' while with less than 50% of correct responses were identified '*unintelligible*'.

3 Result and Discussion

Several features were evident in the results shown in Table 1. Especially, KSLs were likely to identify voiced consonant in the initial and medial positions as in ***d****ry*, ***D****ennis*, ***v****iew* and *re****g****ain*, better than TSLs. KSLs have difficulty in pronouncing the voiced consonants in initial syllable as Korean phonology does not allow such phonemes to occur. However, Thai learners utter the sounds /b/ and /d/ in English without any problem, except /g/. Those L1 influences from each ethnical group led to the emergence of the ISIB (Bent & Bradlow, 2003) and shared-L1 advantage (Harding, 2012) when it comes to voiced consonants.

Table 1. Classification of Features Causing Poor Intelligibility of KoE and Correct Rate by Groups

Features	*TSLs*	*KSLs*
Shared-L1 benefits (TSLs<KSLs)		
Voiced consonant (**v**iew)	20.8	68.8
Unintelligible to both groups		
[l] and [r] distinction (**l**oyal)	0	18.1
Final Voiceless fricatives (te**xts**)	0	10.1

In addition, some areas of difficulties appeared. Both groups found challenging to distinguish /l/ and /r/ regardless of the place of sound as in ***l****oyal*, for example. Both groups were most likely to misperceive it as *royal*, accounted for 12% responses of TSLs and 51% of KSLs. Voiceless fricatives seemed to be another problematic feature. Morphological /s/ as in *te****xts***, *clo****cks*** and medial voice fricatives /th/ as in *loa****th****ed* scored less than 40% correct rate.

4 Conclusion

The findings of the study suggest that KoE intelligibility appears to be reduced by a number of factors. Although the evidence is by no means conclusive, liquid sounds and voiceless fricatives are found to decrease KoE intelligibility equally to TSLs and KSLs. On the other hand, it was clear that the degree of familiarity to L1 influence increased intelligibility as KSLs recognized voiced consonants in particular better than TSLs. Therefore, as far as educational practice is concerned, we argue that the English pronunciation teaching in Korean EFL context should rank liquid sounds and voicing effect at a high level of importance along with special attention to provide exposures to a wide array of English varieties in the Korean English language teaching context.

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Globalization and English Language Education in Japan and Korea

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Abstract

The word "Global" has become a symbol of the modern world, meaning the process of interacting with one another in every aspect of society, and reinforced by the worldwide spread of English (Murata & Jenkins, 2009). In its many varieties, English is shared by speakers throughout the world, for many of whom it acts as the main medium to communicate with one another. The processes of globalization have been accompanied, facilitated, and accelerated by the global spread of the English language (Pennycook, 2003, Sonntag, 2003). This paper analyzes the cultural representations in a collection of English textbooks for middle school students from Korea and Japan, and further examines how the language policies for cultivating the global competence of Korean and Japanese young learners are embedded in these textbooks' cultural portrayals.

Keywords

Globalization, English Language Textbooks, Culture, Cultural Policies, English Language Policies

Introduction

English education is complicated by the fact that, beyond delivering linguistic knowledge, it involves global relations of economic dependency and exploration (Pennycook, 1994, p. 19), which are manifested in structural inequalities between English and other languages, and linked to various forms of culture. For many countries where English is legitimized as a linguistic means to strengthen national economic and political power, how English is taught and what cultures are promoted through the language are not pedagogical questions but rather political and ideological issues. These issues are reflected in language policy making and curriculum design, and particularly in the cultural content of English language textbooks (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008). In English education in Korea and Japan, textbooks are the main materials for students to learn English; therefore, English textbooks play vital roles in English education in these countries.

1 Methodology

1.1 Materials

This study analyzed six middle school 2nd-grade English textbooks, three from Japan and three from Korea.

1.2 Textbook analysis

The textbook analysis followed four steps:

1. Details of the basic format were recorded, including number of pages, number of units, and number of vocabulary items.
2. In all of the textbooks, each unit includes one main reading passage. The analysis counted types and tokens of every noun and pronoun in the reading passages, excluding personal names.
3. Noun/pronoun that could be identified as referring to culture in any way was classified according to these five categories: (1) people; (2) countries, cities, nationalities, and languages; (3) things (food, clothes, local products, local specialties); (4) events (festivals, national holidays, sports, games); (5) places (attractions, mountains, oceans).
4. The nouns and pronouns with referential meanings that referred to any country, region, or continent were identified. The following countries are referred to at least once: South Korea, Japan, America/Britain (combined for the analysis), Australia, France, China/Taiwan (combined for the analysis), India, Philippines, Italy, Spain. The following continents or regions are referred to at least once, either directly or through reference to one of the countries listed above: Asia, North America (including Britain for the analysis), Oceania, South America (i.e., through reference to Latin America), Europe (excluding Britain).

2 Results and discussions

The results of this study can be summarized in Figure1, and Figure 2.

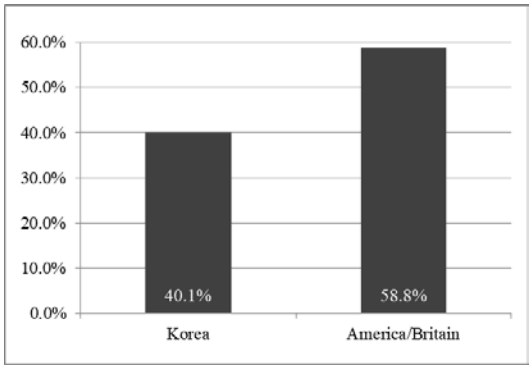

Figure 1. Ratio of references to Korea and America/Britain in Korean English textbooks

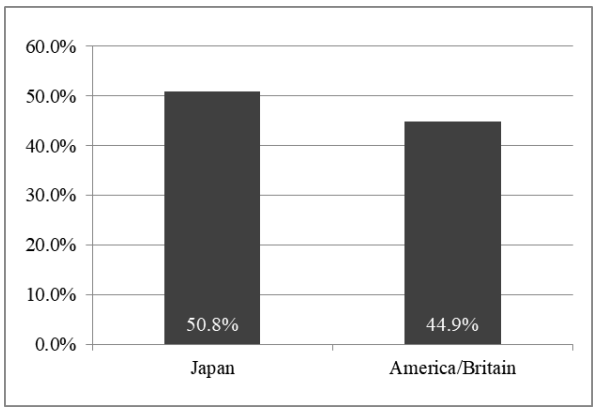

Figure 2. Ratio of references to Japan and America/Britain in Japanese English textbooks

These results reflect the differences between Korean and Japanese language policies. In Japan, English education emphasizes the acquisition of a working knowledge of English as an international lingua franca.

Again, this difference seems to reflect the different orientations of English language education policy in Japan and Korea. When Japanese students acquire English as a lingua franca, they may enrich Japanese culture while also gaining the ability to share Japanese culture with other countries (PMC, 2000, chap. 6, IV(3) "Toward Global Literacy"). These results show that Korean and Japanese English language policies have been reformed in accordance with the globalized education purposes focusing on introducing diverse cultural and historical facts of foreign countries to Korean and Japanese learners, also keeping their own traditional cultures and national identities.

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The Study of Tourism English Related to English Bible

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Abstract

In recognition of the necessity of the integration of Christian faith and English teaching method, I tried to re - examine English teaching method from Christian point of view and to suggest the principle of Christian English teaching method. For this purpose, we first summarized how we understand the learner from the viewpoint of Christian education, what is the position of the learner, and what is the position of the lecturer. I suggested 'The Role of Christian Teachers in English Education.' I have also studied 'English teaching method in Christianity', 'Change in English teaching method', 'Internet mission', and 'Current Status of English Education'

Keywords

:motivation, learning strategy, English education, Christianity, English Bible, pilgrimage, interpret English

Introduction

The aim of English education according to the Christian worldview is to educate the growth and development of learners, to cultivate the ability to serve based on understanding and acceptance of other cultures, and to teach the ambassadors of mission in response to God's call through English education to be able to afford it. It aims not only to improve communication skills based on self-centered individualism and pragmatism, but also to develop the ability to use English in spiritual and moral purposes.

With the commercialization of the Internet and the convenience of transportation collapsing the regional boundaries, communication became more important than ever in a global village where day-to-day living is possible, and the necessity of universal language for this was recognized and English took its place. Over a few years the prominent discussion of communication ability in the classroom has taken place because of growing interest in teaching second/foreign language skills in Korea. So we first looked at the point of view of language, learners, and teachings in the Christian worldview because all the sphere is God's, and the language is not the exception. The purpose of this paper is to develop an English teaching method for English language interpreting for foreigners at the tourist sites, including the Holy Land, at the Christian College of Tourism. Therefore, in order to develop English teaching method using English Bible, students were able to improve their English proficiency by examining their awareness of English communication skills.

The Bible criticizes the use of language that destroys love, truth, and justice, so that you do not get dirty words out of your mouth, but merely give good words as you use it to build virtue.

The Bible tells us the norms of proper language use: Truthfulness, deep consideration, clarity, consciousness, and aesthetic vitality. These norms provide a framework for how we should use the language of appreciation and fear that is the gift of God the Creator (Smith, 1992).

1 The Role of Christian Teachers in English Education

Christian teachers are largely likened to three. The first is a teacher as steward, the second is a teacher as priest, and the third is a teacher as guide (Smith,1992).

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A Study of the Effect of Learners' L1 in the Mistakes of the Usages of English Prepositions with Adverbs

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of learners' L1 to their misuse of English prepositions with adverbs from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. As Masuki (2003) mentioned, Japanese learners of English (hereafter JLEs), especially those who are in low proficiency level, often make mistakes in the usages of English prepositions with adverbs such as "I went *'to'* there with my family last Sunday." As is often pointed out by many scholars, the usages of English prepositions are still vague and it is really difficult to use it correctly for JLEs, since the correspondence of prepositions in their L1 may constrain their learning of the meanings, that is, over-generalization of the meaning. In this study, we examine how the correspondences in subjects' L1 to English prepositions affect in subjects' use of the prepositions with adverbial phrases.

Keywords

English Prepositions, Motion Verbs, L1 Constraint

1 Previous Studies

1.1 Motion Verbs with Goal PPs in English and Japanese

It has been pointed out by many scholars that English prepositions are difficult to acquire for JLEs, and regarding motion verbs with a prepositional/ postpositional phrase (PP) expressing a goal, or a goal PP, there are big differences between English and Japanese, and these differences also make difficult for them to acquire English prepositions correctly (Talmy 1985; Inagaki 2011). In Inagaki (2011), the difference is shown that English allows both manner-of-motion verbs such as *walk* and *run* and directed motion verbs such as *go* and *come* to occur with goal PPs as in (1).

(1) a. *John walked to school*.
b. *John ran into the house*.
c. *John went to the school walking*.
d. *John went/came into the house running*.

According to him, in contrast, Japanese does not allow manner-of-motion verbs with goal PPs as in (2a) and (2b), only allowing directed motion verbs to occur with goal PPs as in (2c) and (2d)(The abbreviations are NOM: nominative, GEN: genitive Case-marker, GER: gerund).

(2) a. ?**John-ga gakko-ni aruita.*
John-NOM school-at walked
"John walked to school."
b?**John-ga ie-no naka-ni hashitta.*
John-NOM house-GEN inside-at ran
"John ran into the house."
c. *John-ga arui-te gakko-ni itta.*
John-NOM walk-GER schoo-at went.
"John walked to school walking."
d. *John-ga hashit-te ie-no*
John-NOM run-GER house-GEN
n*aka-ni itta/haitta.*
inside-at went/entered
"John went into/entered the house running.

Thus, it can be said that there is a strong connection in JLEs' mind between direct motion verbs and goal PPS in Japanese and that is why they have a tendency to overuse goal PPS with direct motion verbs regardless of the environment in the sentence structure.

1.2 English Preposition *"to"*

According to Tyler and Evans (2003), the English preposition *"to"* appears to prompt for an oriented trajectory (TR) directed towards a landmark (LM), and compared with *"for"*, it profiles a LM that constitutes a physical goals, what Tyler and Evans call the *"primary goal"*, as we can see in (3) and (4) in their explanation.

(3) a. He ran *to* the hills.
b. He ran *for* the hills.

(4) a. He ran *to* the hills and back every day.
b. ?He ran *for* the hills and back every day.

1.3 L1 Constraint in Acquisition of Motion Verbs with Goal PPs in L2

According to Inagaki (2001a), low-proficiency JLEs accept grammatical manner-of-motion verbs with goal PPs in English such as (1a) and (1b) even though the same structure of (1a) and (1b) in Japanese are not grammatical, because they were able to broaden their L1-based interlanguage grammar due to the availability of positive evidence such as (1a,b). Inagaki suggested that it is also because they drew a parallel between these forms and the L1 pattern ((1c,d)), with English *by* and *and* corresponding to Japanese *"-te"*. Furthermore, as we saw in the previous section, English preposition *"to"* has a tendency to profile a physical goals, we can assume that low-proficiency JLEs may overuse it especially with directed motion verbs with physical goals.

2 Experimental Study

2.1 Purpose of this study

From these studies, the following hypotheses were formulated for the present study.

(1) Since low-proficiency JLEs have a tendency that they allow only directed motion verbs to occur with goal PPs as in (1c,d), they will overuse goal PPs with directed motion verbs rather than with manner-of-motion verbs.
(2) Since low-proficiency JLEs have a tendency that they accept the English preposition forms if they have correspondences in their L1, they will over-use goal PPs with directed motion verbs even with adverbs/adverbial phrased if they can use Japanese correspondence *"-ni"* in their translation.

The present study to examine the hypotheses above.

2.2 Method

2.2.1. Participants

About 40 Japanese junior high school students with low proficiency, who started their study of English when they entered the junior high school, participated in the study. Japanese university students, who have intermediate proficiency, and some native speakers of English also participated.

2.2.1. Procedure

The participants were asked to fill in the blanks in the sentences with appropriate prepositions. The sentence patterns are as follows;

(1) manner-of-motion verbs with goal PPs
(2) directed motion verbs with goal PPs
(3) manner-of-motion verbs with adverbs/adverbial phrases
(4) direct motion verbs with adverbs/adverbial phrases

As for the sentences in type (3) and (4), the subjects need not fill in the blanks with the target preposition. The answers by the subjects were analyzed statistically.

2.3 Results

Among the subjects' groups that have different proficiency level, we found that the lower their proficiency level is, the more our hypothesis above were confirmed. It may suggest that over-generalization of the meaning happens in the subjects' mind.

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Integrating collaborative learning into an extensive reading project with a focus on summary writing

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Abstract

This study investigates an ongoing project called Hibikino Extensive Reading Project (HERP) at the University of Kitakyushu in western Japan. This study deals with three educational aspects of the project. First, we hold an orientation to provide guidance for the HERP participants, and then conduct a questionnaire survey to examine their knowledge regarding extensive reading and how best to improve their reading and other language skills. The results can prepare college newcomers for independent, outside-of-class reading activities. Second, we hold book review events. Each participant is asked to complete his or her B6-size book review sheet and post it on the Moodle site. We award badges to several book reviewers who have received a lot of "thumbs up" from peers and instructors of the English course. Also, the motivational aspect of project-based learning will be reported. Finally, as part of assessing reading skills and summary writing skills, we collect summary writing pieces from the participants of the study. The research results will provide us with some insight on how to assess both reading skills and integrated reading skills through extensive reading activities.

Keywords

Extensive Reading, Summary Writing, Book Review Task, Picture Show and Tell Task

Introduction

Hibikino Extensive Reading Project (HERP) was launched in the AY2019 at the University of Kitakyushu. Extensive reading (ER) is regarded as pleasure reading, and learners are supposed to enjoy reading for their own rewards (Day, 2018). In this respect, participants in this project may not feel that way, and some of the ER principals are not necessarily applicable here. The participants are required to read 40,000 words within the first semester and 100,000 words per year outside their classroom. The total number of words read in a semester accounts for 20% of the grades of a reading-oriented course offered in the semester. Students use MReader to keep track of how many words and books they have read. After they have finished reading a book (i.e., graded readers), they must pass a comprehension-checking quiz available on MReader. If not, the word count is not validated. According to the survey conducted in this study, HERP participants perceive ER differently. That is, some think that the points and badges awarded in this project motivate them, while others believe that managing their reading time and achieving intermediated goals are too demanding.

As an example of our guidance for the HERP participants, let us look at the orientation we held in the first week of the semester.

1 Orientation

The HERP participants, who major in engineering, are first-year students straight out of high school. Therefore, they needed to receive some academic guidance. Consequently, we provided three strands of orientation sessions: (1) to explain what kind of English course programs are available, (2) to take them on a brief tour of the library and the self-access center where graded readers are available, and (3) to discuss what extensive reading is and demonstrate how MReader works. In order to instruct as many as 300 first-year students, we divided them into several groups and had them visit a regular classroom, a computer lab, and the library in turn. We used different types of classrooms for different purposes. Working together with the librarians, teaching staff and senior students, we managed to take it in turns to prepare students for extensive reading as well as academic support regarding English learning available on campus.

We carried out a questionnaire during this orientation to find out about learners' needs and perceptions toward the orientation and English

learning at the tertiary level. From the results, we discovered that multidimensional support was necessary, and some improvement plans should be proposed. We needed to find some ways to implement guidance sessions more efficiently and smoothly.

2 Badges

Let us turn our attention to how we try to maintain motivation among learners. Nation (2009), Nishizawa et al. (2010), Beglar and Hunt (2014) among many ER practitioners and researchers put forward the idea that the more words and books they read, the better. It is one of the nerve-racking tasks for English teachers to set a realistic goal for students. The goal should lie somewhere between 'not too easy' and 'not too demanding'. This is because some students stop reading as soon as they achieve the target word count, as indicated by Hagley (2017).

One noteworthy aspect of our project is to make use of Moodle (Learning Management System) to award some badges to students with excellent performance, i.e., top 20 readers of the month, and good readers who have reached 120,000, 200,000, and 300,000 words, aside from the regular grades mentioned above. The number of badges eventually helps or affects the priority order of selecting elective English courses they wish to take.

As far as ER is concerned, our aim is to go beyond the idea of just simply letting them read a lot outside the classroom, we wish to sustain their motivation and collaborative learning. Let us move on to the other ER approaches we are currently adopting.

3 Collaborative events

We hold two book review events. One is a picture-story show-and-tell task, which is a collaborative task with another speaking-oriented course. The other is making a POP (Point of Purchase).

3.1 Picture-story show-and-tell

Learners chose their favorite book and prepared several A4-size sheets. We had them prepare their visuals with the book title, keywords, summary, and comments. Each presenter was given two minutes for his or her individual speech and one minute for discussion with other students. Among a group of 6 to 8, the winner was decided after the peer evaluation. The winner received a "Good Storyteller" badge on the Moodle.

3.2 POP-Making

Each participant is asked to complete his or her B6-size book review sheet and post it on the Moodle site. Using the forum module on the Moodle, we had them evaluate and review each other. The winners, who have received a lot of "thumbs up" from peers, were awarded a "Good Book Reviewer" badge.

4 Assessment and tentative findings

In order to examine participants' language skills, we kept track of their reading scores and summary writing pieces. Our research results showed that there was an upward trend in their reading scores. Also, their summary writing skills had improved, particularly with regard to mechanics, cohesion and organization. Our ER project had a positive effect on both reading and writing skills among EFL learners.

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Using Focus Groups to Identify the English Language Needs in English-Medium Instruction Courses at a Japanese University

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Abstract

This study examined the suitability of focus group interviews, in which participants discussed a specified topic offered by the researchers, to identify the English language needs in English-medium instruction (EMI) courses at a Japanese university. The findings of this study suggest how to make better use of focus groups to obtain students' perspectives on EMI courses in a Japanese context for further research.

Keywords

English-medium instruction (EMI), focus groups, needs analysis

Introduction

Despite the increasing number of EMI courses in Japan (Morizumi, 2015; Ohta, 2018), little attention has been paid to what level of English language proficiency university students require to accomplish academic tasks in EMI courses, as well as how they perceive the EMI in Japan. To truly understand the English language needs for implementing EMI courses at Japanese universities, it is necessary to find an appropriate method for conducting a needs analysis. To fill this gap, this study examined the suitability of focus group interviews (Krueger & Casey, 2009; 2015) for the needs analysis to identify English language needs in EMI courses at Japanese universities.

1 Methodology

This study conducted a focus group interview, which is defined as "a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, nonthreatening environment" (Krueger & Casey, 2009, p. 2). The focus group's topic was what kinds of English language tasks they encountered in EMI courses as well as how participants perceived them (e.g., difficulties participants encountered in the tasks). To design an overall qualitative study, this study referred to the Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative research (COREQ) checklist (Tong, Sainsbury, & Craig, 2007).

1.1 Participants

The study participants were five graduate school students at a private university in Tokyo, Japan. The participants were recruited because they had experience of taking EMI courses in their undergraduate or graduate studies at the university. They were all first-year masters students of an English studies program in which most content courses were provided in English. Four of the participants completed the undergraduate program in English studies, in which the majority of the content courses were provided in English from the second year, whereas the other participant entered from the graduate program. Among the five participants, four were male and one was female. The participants' ages ranged from 22 to 25.

1.2 Data collection

The focus group interview was conducted in a classroom at a private university where the participants studied. In addition to the five study participants, the three authors participated in the interview as researchers. The second author acted as a facilitator leading the interview, and the first and third authors worked as assistants to help the progress of the interview, such as taking field notes

and notes on a whiteboard and posing an additional question for the participants.

During the interview, the facilitator asked participants to share what kinds of English language tasks they encountered during EMI courses as well as how, why, and how often they experienced difficulties. An interview guide for focus groups was developed by referring to Krueger and Casey (2015). During the interview, one assistant took notes on the tasks, difficulties, and frequencies that participants mentioned so that all people in the classroom could see the responses while speaking. The assistant wrote them in four skills categories (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). The other assistant also took field notes. The interview was audio- and video-recorded. The interview lasted 126 minutes.

1.3 Data analysis

A content analysis was conducted by coding and categorizing the transcribed data. The three authors coded and categorized the data in light of the two major concerns of this study: first, how and why the participants experienced difficulties with the English language tasks they experienced, and second, how groups dynamics occurred among the participants during the focus group interview. To analyze these data, follow-up information was also used, including the field notes and whiteboard notes taken during the focus group interview.

2 Findings

A content analysis of the participants' interview data identified how they perceived English language tasks in EMI courses and why. The categories found in this analysis were (1) understanding content courses, (2) writing academic essays, (3) supports by others during EMI (e.g., teachers and in-class facilitators of graduate school students), (4) difficulties during discussions, (5) the relationship between the course content and students, and (6) the rules of using English/Japanese.

The content analysis also revealed how the method of the focus group interview prompted participants to elicit more discussions in two areas: (1) the common knowledge and experiences among the participants (e.g., knowledge of the department and courses, taking the same teacher's courses, knowledge of each other's knowledge), and (2) the difference in views (e.g., the definition of EMI, who "the native speaker" is).

3 Discussions and Conclusions

The key findings of this study reveal that students got help from teachers and graduate school students regarding how to proceed with discussions, such as facilitation by teachers or graduate school students and the intentional limitation of the class size. On the other hand, students were sometimes confused by the inconsistent rules concerning which language to use, English or Japanese, during discussions. Moreover, some students lacked an understanding of how to write long English essays, such as end-of-term assignments and graduation theses. This suggests another type of support will probably be considered in the future so that students can easily complete their academic courses in four years.

The findings also show the unique utility of the focus group for conducting needs analyses of EMI courses. During the focus group interview, the participants' different viewpoints shed light on other perspectives regarding EMI. These interactions would have not been gained in a one-on-one interview. In addition, this study showed that participants started their discussion around their common experiences and knowledge. This suggests that while doing further research, groups composed of acquaintances (e.g., members of the same seminar) could be preferable to facilitate more synergy in interactions during the focus group interview, although the members of focus groups generally consist of strangers (Krueger & Casey, 2009).

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Context Effects on Recognition of an Ambiguous Kanji Character: A Longitudinal Study

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Abstract

This study examined whether context effects were found in recognition of an ambiguous Kanji character by 22 adult learners of Japanese as a second language from non-Chinese character culture areas (JSL-NC). We compared correct rates, reaction times and eye fixation counts between an ambiguous Kanji character presented alone and in a sentence in two times with a half year interval, Context effect was found in Time 2. There was no difference among reaction times. The mean eye fixation count was higher in participants with right reaction in V3 in Sentence in Time 2.

Keywords

Eye movement, Context effects

Introduction

Context affects reading comprehension ositively and negatively. (Ruecie & Oden,1986). This study examines context effects in Kanji recognition by comparing correct rates (CR), reaction times (RT) and eye fixation count (FC).

1 Method

1.1 Participants

Twenty two beginning to early intermediate JSL-NC participants (11 men, 11 women, *M*age=26.3 years, age range: 23-34 years) were recruited from universities in Tokyo. All participants have received at least 100 hours of Japanese classes. The all participants were tested twice with a half year interval.

1.2 Procedure

A character and a sentence were presented on a computer monitor and remained until a participant hit a key. Eye movement and responses were measured and recorded with Tobii X2-30. Figure 1 shows the stimulus, V3 character and V3 in sentence (V3 in S).

V3 V3 in a sentence

末 来月末アメリカに行きます。

Figure 1. Stimulus V3 as a single character and in sentence

2 Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the correct rates of V3 character and V3 in the sentence. Cochran's Q tests revealed a marginal context effect found (X^2=3.57 p=0.058) in Time 2. Table 2 shows the mean FC in V3 in S between correct and wrong reaction.

Table 1. CRs of V3 and V3 in Sentence

	V3	*V3 in S*
Time1	0.18 (0.39)	0.13 (0.42)
Time2	0.22 (0.35)	0.45 (0.50)

Table 2. Mean FC of V3 in Sentence

Reaction	*N*	*V3 in S*
Wrong	10	17.1 (10.3)
Correct	12	36.0 (26.0)

The parenthese show SD.

The mean FC was higher in participants with right reaction in V3 in Sentence in Time 2. The context effect was found only in Time 2. Participants with right responses watched the stimuli more carefully. It appeared that good learners made use of the context and watched the character carefully.

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Suggestions for General English Courses Based on College Students' Needs

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Abstract

This paper presents a specific case study carried out for the development of a general English course at a university in Korea. The data for this study was collected through a questionnaire completed by 894 students and was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results showed that a high number of students agreed that speaking is the most significant skill that they should learn. It also revealed that the unified assessment is a proper way of evaluating their true English skills and the bonus point policy is useful. Students showed overall satisfaction with current English classes. The lowest satisfaction among the questions was on textbook. Based on the findings, the details for developing a course are proposed. The results of the analysis may also serve as a valuable reference for courses planners who have the responsibility for designing compulsory English courses for university students, Implications of students' responses and future research recommendations are also discussed.

Keywords

College students' needs, General English courses

Introduction

Over the past 10 years, much research on general English course development in Korean universities has been conducted through case studies of university's general English programs, and the survey on the satisfaction of the programs was conducted on the learners or professors who are the main subjects of the education to find problems and ways to improve the program (Bang, 2004; Lym, 2005; Kim 2007).

1 Methodology

The data for this study was collected through a questionnaire that contained two sections. In light of the literature and previous studies, the questionnaires consisted mostly of close-ended items asking respondents about their perceptions of students' needs for English. The first section asked for biographical data. The second section was comprised of 7 sub-sections and 1 open-ended question. The survey was conducted to sophomore students who enrolled in English Conversation II at the end of the 2018 fall semester. Questionnaires were completed and returned by 898 students currently enrolled in the English conversation program. The first section of the questionnaire asked for biographical information. When questioned as to how students would rate their English speaking, more than half of them (53.9%) answered that their conversational skill is below the average. There was a similar majority agreement from students regarding writing (53.7%). Also, slightly over one third (37.7%) of students responded that their speaking is mediocre and a low percentage of students (9.1%) agreed that they are at a satisfactory level. Similar to speaking, same percentage (37.7%) of students replied that their writing skill is about the average and a low number of students (8.6%) answered that their writing skill is above the average. Nearly half of students (45.9%) said that their listening is median, 37.5% stated that they are below the average and only 8.6% described that they are above the average. It is evident that students have low confidence in speaking and writing whereas they have higher confidence in listening

2 Results

First, the students in this study expressed a strong desire for conversation. In the question asking the three most important language skills that students should acquire in general English program in college, a high number of students (72%) agreed that speaking is the most significant skill that they should learn. The next essential skills that students chose were listening (10.6%), vocabulary (6.1%) and reading (4.3%) respectively. Also, although it did not receive as much attention as the skills mentioned

above, a few students pointed out that pronunciation (2.4%), writing (1.8%), grammar (2.3%) are also necessary techniques to learn in general English program (Table 1).

Table 1. Preference on Language Skills

Rank	Language Skills	%
1	Speaking	72.0
2	Listening	10.6
3	Vocabulary	6.1
4	Reading	4.3
5	Pronunciation	2.4
6	Writing	1.8
7	Grammar	2.3

In the question as to why they are studying English in college, 36% of students reported that they want to understand English culture and live in English speaking countries. Also, 27.6% of students described that learning English will help them get a job in the future and 17.1% acknowledged that learning English is necessary to adapt in the information technology society. Moreover, other notable reasons are learning English is useful for their major subjects (9.9%) and English is a mandatory subject in college (8.8%) (Table 2).

Table 2. Purpose of Studying English

Rank	Purpose	%
1	To understand English culture	36.0
2	Helpful in getting a job	27.6
3	To adapt in the information technology society	17.1
4	Helpful for their major subjects	9.9
5	Since it is a mandatory subject in college	8.8

In the question asking student's overall satisfaction with general English program, an astounding percentage of students answered that they are satisfied with reading and writing (83.3%), English conversation 1 (88.5%) and English conversation 2 (91.2%). What's more, elective subjects (79.8%) also received a satisfactory response from students (Table 3).

Table 3. Satisfaction with General English Programs

Rank	Course	%
1	English Conversation 2	91.2
2	English Conversation 1	88.5
3	Reading & Writing	83.3
4	Elective subjects	79.8

In the question asking the most effective means of measuring students in English classes, for reading and writing class, 34.7% answered written test is the best way, 19% agreed short paragraph writing and 11.2% responded attendance respectively. For conversation 1, 31.7% of students answered one-on-one interview is the most efficient way, 18.1% answered written test, and 12% answered group interview. In a similar vein, 34.9% of students answered one-on-one interview is the fair method of assessing students in conversation 2 and 17.6% replied written test and 12.6% answered group presentation (Table 4).

Table 4. Effective Test Means for English Conversation 2

Rank	Means	%
1	One–on-one interview	34.9
2	Written Test	17.6
3	Group Presentation	12.6

3 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine the English language needs of university students as perceived by students in an English conversation program and to provide suggestions for the course development. It is suggested for English curriculum development that speaking is the most significant skill that they should learn. It also suggested that the unified assessment is a proper way of evaluating students' true English skills and the bonus point policy is useful. Level-differentiated English courses are suggested to foster students' confidence and participation in class. The results of the analysis may also serve as a valuable reference for courses planners who have the responsibility for designing compulsory English courses for university students

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Japanese EFL Learners' Attitudes toward a Commercially Available Speaking Test: A Questionnaire Survey

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Abstract

Whether the use of speaking tests in English language education at every level is desirable or not is widely discussed in the Japanese EFL context. Against this background, in the academic year 2018, at a private university in Japan, Versant Speaking Test at the beginning and end of the course was administered to 355 students as an objective assessment tool for EFL teachers. However, it is vital to consider learners' attitudes toward the implementation of this type of speaking test, which may not be not familiar to most of them. For this purpose, an on-line questionnaire to the learners immediately after the execution of the Versant test was conducted at the beginning and end of a one-year course. The purpose of this paper is to find out how Japanese EFL learners dealt with a commercially available speaking test through a questionnaire survey.

Keywords

Commercially available speaking test, Versant Speaking Test, questionnaire survey

Introduction

At the College of Gastronomy Management at Ritsumeikan University, Japan, we offer a year-long three classes for first-year students: reading classes (Study Skills alpha), presentation classes (Study Skills beta) and pronunciation and writing classes (CALL). The first and third classes are taught by Japanese English teachers, while the second classes by native speaker teachers of English. All the first-year students are required to take the Versant Speaking Test in May and in December (at the end of the academic year). However, most of our first-year students take the Versant Speaking Test, a computer-based speaking test, for the first time. Therefore, we need to find out how they feel about this type of test and whether they feel at ease speaking to a computer in comparison with a person as part of the test.

The purpose of this paper is to examine Japanese EFL learners' attitudes toward a commercially available speaking test through a questionnaire survey.

1 A questionnaire survey

A total of 355 first-year students took the Versant Speaking Test in May and in December during the CALL class time. There are six basic speaking tasks in the Versant test: reading, repeat, questions, sentence builds, story retelling, and open questions. The Versant score report is available within a couple of minutes of being submitted with the score range of 20-80 (Pearson, 2008).

Right after they finished this test, they were asked to fill in the questionnaire via the university's LMS. Here we only discuss the questionnaire we conducted in May for the first time rather than in December for the second time.

1.1 Participants and questionnaire

Out of 355 students, we chose 271 participants who took the Versant twice and the first questionnaire survey. The questionnaire, originally written in Japanese but translated into English here, consisted of 13 closed-ended items on the five-point Likert scale and three open-ended items.

The former included questions such as "I was able to take this test without any problems (item 1)", to which the students responded on a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*). The latter, on the other hand, included "How did you feel about taking this test (item 14)", "How do you feel about taking this test as part of an English curriculum at the university? (item 15)" and " What kind of English studies do you think you need to obtain high scores in this test? (item 16)"

1.2 The results of the questionnaire

The means and standard deviations for the closed-ended items are shown in Table 1. The item 4 with the highest mean of 3.94 (*SD* = 1.17) suggests that the students did not feel so nervous about talking to a computer. On the other hand, given the lowest mean of 2.36 (*SD* = 1.31) for item 1, they seemed to have some difficulty with the test itself.

Table 1. The closed-ended items in the questionnaire (*N* = 271)

Questionnaire item	*M*	*SD*
1. I was able to take this test without any problems.	2.36	1.31
2. The directions of the test were easy to understand.	2.73	1.15
3. I had some reservations about talking to a computer through a mic. (reversed item)	3.03	1.37
4. I felt nervous about taking this test in comparison with a face-to-face interview test. (reversed item)	3.94	1.17
5. I need to study hard in an English class in order to get high scores.	3.79	1.20
6. I feel this test measures my English abilities correctly.	3.28	1.14
7. I want to take this test again if I have a chance.	2.92	1.39
8. I will participate more actively in speaking activities in an English class if I have to take this test again.	3.56	1.19
9. I tried to pronounce words more clearly because this test is computer-based.	3.23	1.18
10. I tried to pay attention to grammar when speaking because this test is computer-based.	2.70	1.10
11. I tried to speak more naturally because this test is computer-based.	2.93	1.15
12. Generally speaking, computer-based tests measure English abilities more correctly than person-based tests.	2.39	1.04
13. Generally speaking, I prefer computer-based tests to person-based tests when it comes to measuring my English abilities.	2.45	1.10

Note. 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neither disagree nor agree*, 4 = *agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*.

As for the open-ended questions, we conducted co-occurrence analysis by using a text analysis tool called HK Coder (Higuchi, 2016, 2017) and found that overall our students had a positive view toward the Versant test in and of itself and as part of the curriculum. Also, they felt the need to engage in more speaking activities both inside and outside the classroom.

The results of the open-ended item 16 ("What kind of English studies do you think you need to obtain high scores in this test?") is shown below. Here the students seemed to feel the need to speak in English with native speakers and practice speaking on a day-to-day basis.

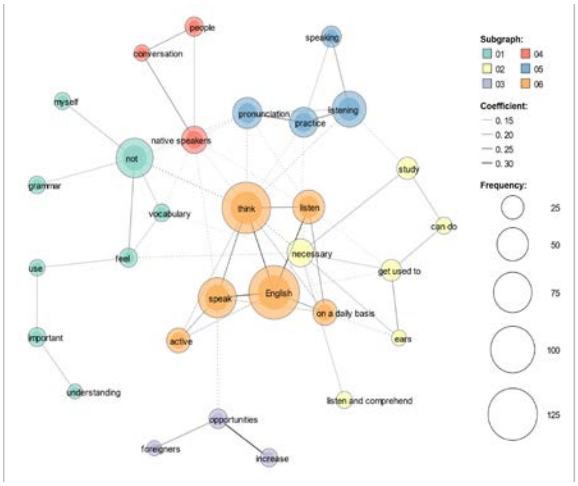

Figure 1. Co-occurrence network for the open-ended item 16 on KH Coder

2 Findings

So far we have seen that although the students found the instructions of the Versant test a little difficult to understand, they seemed to feel at ease talking to a computer. It is also worth pointing out that they have their own way of understanding how best to study English in order to obtain high scores on the Versant test.

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How to Motivate Students to Write an English Essay

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Abstract

In this paper we describe a practice undertaken in a seminar, Liberal Arts Seminar, which is unique to our school. High school students were asked to write academic essays based on their respective interests. During the process, tips were provided to help motivate students to write more.

Keywords

Academic Writing, Motivation, Peer-editing

Introduction

Recently, high school students' ability to write academic essays rather than merely translate them from Japanese to English (to pass university entrance examinations) has become critical. One reason is the rapid progress of artificial intelligence (AI), which automates translation, thus reducing its difficulty. When having students write academic essays teachers need requisite reasons for such assignments. According to Atwell (2015), "Students choose the subjects they write about and the books they read. Because they decide, they engage. Because they engage, they experience the volume of sustained, committed practice that leads to growth, stamina, and excellence (p. 3)." To make our seminar meaningful for our students to undertake writing academic essays, I initially afforded them opportunity to identify topics of interest. The material I used for the seminar was "Big History (Christian, 2016)." It is the name of a project coined by David Christian. It deals with the entire history of our 13.8 billion-year old universe, starting from the Big Bang to the present time. In this paper, I explain how I utilized Christian's approach and allowed students to write essays based on their respective interests.

1 How I started the liberal arts seminar

The seminar was unique at our school. Teachers charged with conducting the seminar were afforded freedom to teach the seminar using their interests as a guide. I have long wanted to allow course time for students to write an academic essay. This course facilitated doing so. Each seminar had 10 lessons in total (100 minutes for each). In each seminar, I asked students to read one part of the lesson that was interesting to them, based on what was written in the book of "Big History," and then to make a presentation about the material using the first 50 minutes in the following seminar. The purpose of this assignment was to let students find topics about which they might write an essay. For the next 50 minutes, I took my students to the school library. There they sought books and materials about their desired topics. Fifty minutes were allowed for data collection.

2 What happened on the way

2.1 Student started to engage in writing

For a couple of seminars, we used 50 minutes for the presentation and 50 minutes for the research. However, as the course progressed, students wanted additional time to do some research to improve their papers. What impressed me was that my students asked me for this extra research time. Conceivably, then, they developed a desire to increase the amount of writing that they would commit to their essays. This supposition is consistent with Atwell (2015). I thus gave them enough time to do their research, and I found that each of them was literally engaged in his/her research. To help assist students, I talked with them about their respective essay topic and provided advice regarding how to improve their research.

2.2 Peer-Editing

As mentioned above, I talked with my students as they were engaged in their writing. Essentially, I was serving as a facilitator rather than a teacher. In addition, I asked my students to work in small groups to offer feedback to each other. Such interactions allowed them to acquire knowledge addressing material that they did not understand or that they wanted to know as a reader. As such, all seminar

members were indirectly responsible for everyone's written reports. Students gave important input to each other that I probably would not have derived; therefore, the end result likely was enhanced feedback.

Table 1. The number of words students wrote

No.	Words
1	851
2	543
3	573
4	1,230
5	1,077
6	513
7	397
8	284
Ave.	683.5

The number of words differs from student to student (Table 1) compared with the number of words required for university entrance examinations; all student reports, though, exceeded that level. Indeed, surprisingly, some students even wrote more than 1,000 words.

3 Conclusion

Based on the idea that writing is a very important skill for students' future careers, I taught a seminar that afforded students opportunity to write at approximately a university level. Initially, I felt that I was in unchartered waters without a paddle to guide me. I even worried that the course might become merely a seminar for reading a textbook. Despite such angst, I was ultimately able to determine the role that I should play to engage my students in a major writing assignment. I ascertained that I was not to give lectures but to allow students to write and struggle. Moreover, I learned that I should be a facilitator for my students and also give them opportunity to get feedback from each other, thus hopefully augmenting their enjoyment of writing. After ten lessons, we published the collection of student papers. Admittedly, their English was not perfect. What is important to take from this seminar, though, is that each essay was worth reading, as every student laboriously wrote about something of interest to him/her. In that sense, even native speakers of English may be able to enjoy reading these students' essays, although they might feel a little uncomfortable, owing to the imperfect English presentation.

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4.2 Appendices

Appendix A: The work

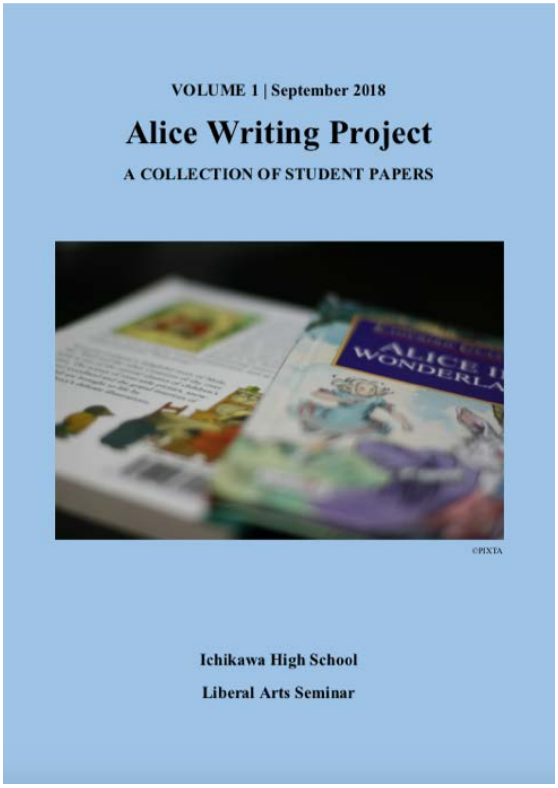

Figure 1. Alice Writing Project
A collection of student papers

Appendix B: Titles of students' papers
#1 What Japan Has to Do for the Future
#2 Tuberculosis
#3 Time in Ancient Civilizations
#4 The Influence of Sumerian Scripts on Other Areas in the Ancient Times
#5 The Influence of Nationalism
#6 The Background of Establishing Japan's Constitution
#7 Fashion Around the French Revolution
#8 Girls' Education

5 Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Ichikawa Junior and Senior High School for giving me a chance to work on a project that will lead me to improve my English teaching career in Japan through EFL techniques.

A study on the Relationship between Input of L2 Vocabulary Textbooks and L2 Vocabulary Acquisition

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Abstract

This study examined to what extent L2 vocabulary used in L2 textbooks contribute to L2 vocabulary acquisition. Recently, in the field of cognitive science, Latent Semantic Analysis has been used to examine for modeling of the developmental process of memory in children, and vocabulary acquisition (Landuer & Dumais, 1997; Biemiller, Rosenstein, Sparks, Landauer & Foltz, 2011). We conducted a vocabulary levels test to Japanese high school students who have been studying English for more than 6 years in order to examine how they know English vocabulary. And also, to examine the input effects, we analyzed their high school English textbooks in Japan by Latent Semantic Analysis. By comparison of the results of vocabulary levels test and English textbooks, we examined to what extent the lexical input in English textbook can predict L2 vocabulary development in L2 learners. The results suggest L2 vocabulary development can depend on textbooks to some extent.

Keywords

Vocabulary acquisition, Latent Semantic Analysis, L2 textbooks

Introduction

For L2 learners, L2 lexical knowledge is important. The one of the main resources for lexical input for L2 learners are textbooks. Many studies on L2 vocabulary acquisition show that L2 learners learn L2 vocabulary incidentally in reading (Fraser, 1999; Hulstijin, 1992; Hulstijin, Hollander & Greidanus, 1996).

1 Latent Semantic Analysis

Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) is a “theory and method for extracting and representing the contextual-usage meaning of words by statistical computations applied to a large corpus of text” (Landauer and Dumais, 1997), and “LSA is closely related to neural net models” (Landauer, Folts & Laham, 1998) . LAS has been used to examine for modeling of the developmental process of memory in children, and vocabulary acquisition (Biemiller, Rosenstein, Sparks, Landauer & Foltz, 2011 Landuer & Dumais, 1997; Landauer & Kireyew, 2011).

2 Previous Studies

Landauer & Dumais (1997) sumilated how learners acquire vocabulary by using LSA. Landauer, Kireyev & Panaccione (2011) simulated L1 children’s the process of vocabulary acquisition, or word maturity, by analyzing a large corpus by LSA. Biemiller, Rosenstein, Sparks, Landauer & Foltx (2014) simulate the vocabulary developmental pattern by LSA and compared the results of simulation and those of vocabulary test posed on the L1 children. They reported that high correlation coefficient was found between them. Hamada (2014, 2015) used SLA to examine relations between target words and other words co-occurred with the target words in the context. Hamada reported that the contexts with higher LSA values affect the L2 learners’ acquisition of meanings and usages. Hamada (2017) simulated the L2 learner’s vocabulary acquisition process by SLA. Yoshii (2019) reported how accurately LSA can predict the results of Vocabulary Size Test by using the learner data of Coxhead et al. (2015) and corpus data, General Reading Space.

3 Experiment

In this study, we conducted a vocabulary levels test to Japanese junior and senior high school students in order to examine how much English words they know. And also, to examine the input effects, we analyzed their high school English textbooks the Japanese junior and senior high school students used at school. The textbooks were also analyzed by Latent Semantic Analysis.

3.1 The results of vocabulary size test

In this experiment, 34 Japanese junior high school students (average of age: 14.1) and 29 Japanese senior high school students (average of age:17) participated. They were asked to do Yes-No type Vocabulary size tests by Meara and Jones (1988) to examine how much English words they know. The results show that most of the participants from a junior high school had 1000 –word level vocabulary size; on the other hand, the participants from a high school had various vocabulary size from Level 1 (1000 word level) to Level 3 (3000 word level).

3.2 The results of English textbooks

We examined what kinds of words are used in English textbooks published in Japan. For this purpose, we examined what levels of words in JACET 8000 are used in junior and senior high school textbooks published in Japan. The results of analyzing three high school textbooks show that, even though these three textbooks are used for different school-year students, the ratios of words at each level were similar (See Table 1).

Table 1: The results of analyzing high school textbooks produced in Japan.

		level 1	level 2	level 3	level 4	level 5	level 6	level 7	level 8	over 8	total
English Expression I	indexes	771	264	139	56	32	37	21	24	162	2044
	%	37.72	12.916	6.8	2.74	1.566	1.81	1.027	1.174	7.926	100
	tokens	14086	1007	464	344	140	79	52	50	361	18959
	%	74.297	5.311	2.447	1.814	0.738	0.417	0.274	0.264	1.904	100
English Expression II	indexes	947	454	249	118	98	69	45	36	290	3072
	%	30.827	14.779	8.105	3.841	3.19	2.246	1.465	1.172	9.44	100
	tokens	21295	1757	866	540	311	148	106	70	665	29118
	%	73.133	6.034	2.974	1.855	1.068	0.508	0.364	0.24	2.284	100
English Composition	indexes	767	255	121	48	33	30	15	18	103	1618
	%	47.404	15.76	7.478	2.967	2.04	1.854	0.927	1.112	6.366	100
	tokens	8444	589	236	98	46	45	27	24	196	10194
	%	82.833	5.778	2.315	0.961	0.451	0.441	0.265	0.235	1.923	100

And also, about 30 % words in the textbooks are from Level 1, and about 15 %, from Level 2 in JACET 8000. This suggests that the L2 learners using this textbooks get 1000 word frequency words (words in Level 1) as lexical input from the textbooks.

4 Results

By comparison of the results of vocabulary levels test and English textbooks, we examined to what extent the lexical input in English textbook can predict L2 vocabulary development in L2 learners. The results suggest L2 vocabulary development can depend on textbooks to some extent. The words used in the textbooks can predict the vocabulary knowledge of junior high school students mostly from the words used in the textbooks; on the other hand, high school students may develop their lexicon not only from the textbooks but other sources. We need more research on this respect.

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Assessing Summary Writing Tasks through Comparison of Human Raters and Writing Checker Software

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Abstract

Assessing integrated skills is a hot topic in the Japanese EFL context because the MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) advocates improving the four skills of English in an integrated way rather than teaching each skill separately. Against this educational background, some Japanese universities (national, public and private) are under a lot of pressure to reconsider their own entrance examinations and incorporate some elements of speaking, writing, and integrated skills into their entrance examinations. Speaking and writing assessment, which is usually conducted by human raters and classroom teachers, can be problematic for maintaining consistent and fair assessment as well as for its time-consuming nature. In order to overcome these issues, there is an urgent need to use automatic evaluation software. The purpose of this study is to examine whether evaluation software can be used to assist human raters in the assessment of summary writing. To do this, the following steps are taken: (1) collection of about 72 written compositions, (2) evaluation by human raters, and (3) evaluation by writing checker software. Through these steps, the relationship between human raters and the software program is discussed with some pedagogical implications.

Keywords

Summary writing, analytic scoring, many-faceted Rasch measurement, writing checker software

Introduction

This ongoing study aims at creating a rating scale and its scoring guide for summary writing in the EFL classroom environment in Japan. Using holistic and analytic scoring procedures, we are in the process of developing a diagnostic sheet as a response to students' summary witting compositions.

The assessment of integrated skills is one of the pressing issues in Japan. Educational reforms are currently taking place in Japan due to the major changes in the ministry's curriculum guidelines and the national center test for university admissions.

This pressure is understandable because conventional tests overly focus on reading and listening, not fully dealing with writing and speaking, let alone integrated skills. As Cumming (2013a) points out, we need to 'counter test method or practice effects associated with conventional item types (p.2).'

Another issue is the time-consuming nature of writing (and speaking) test. It takes time to evaluate written compositions because many steps such as rater training should be taken for the sake of consistent and fair assessment. Also, test administers need to ensure the reliability and validity of the test, thus leading to the delay in introducing production tests.

Our tentative goal is to seek a middle ground for manual and automatic scorings by looking at the similarities and differences in scoring between human raters and commercially available software products.

1 Summary Writing

Classroom teachers and participants of this study deal with four strands of aspects of summary writing, with a special reference to the rubric developed by Frey and Fisher (2011). We revised their rubric according to our lesson plans and the characteristics of the writing tasks.

1.1 (Content) Accuracy

- The content is accurate.
- The main ideas are given.
- No trivial details are given.
- The sequence of the events is correct.
- The summary doesn't include the writer's personal opinions.
- Important keywords are included
- The gist (i.e., who, when, where, what) is clearly given.
- The verb tense is correct.
- The writing is not too short and not too long.

1.2 Paraphrasing

- No five consecutive words are taken from the text.
- The writing is well-paraphrased and well-worded.

1.3 Cohesion and Organization

- The writing is cohesive and well-organized.
- Discourse markers, adverbial phrases and conjunctions are used strategically.
- The writing is well-formatted with no line feeds or line numbers.
- The writing does not include emojis and other graphical contents.

1.4 Others: Grammar and Topic Sentence

- Overall, the writing is grammatically intelligible and comprehensible.
- The paragraph has an effective topic sentence.

2 Method

We used the 17 statements described in the previous section, and added the rating scale (ranging from one to four) and scoring guide to each statement. We asked three classroom teachers to rate summary writing pieces written by 72 university students. Not all teachers managed to rate all the 72 students due to time constraint. So, we made use of Facets 3.81.2 (Linacre, 2018), having it deal with missing data or rater severity and yield an overall summary writing score (ability) for each participant.

3 Results 1

Sixty-five students reported their standardized test scores, which allows us to look at correlations between summary writing scores and standardized test scores, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary writing scores v. standardized test scores

	Standardized tests	LR	L	R
Summary writing scores by human raters	**Pearson Correlation**	**.276***	**.155**	**.302***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**.026**	**.218**	**.014**
	N	**65**	**65**	**65**

Note. LR: Listening and Reading Test, L: Listening Test, R: Reading Test

Summary writing scores are correlated slightly better with reading scores than with listening scores.

4 Results 2

Human raters did not primarily look into grammar; however, summary writing scores given by them were marginally correlated with those of grammar checker tools, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Human raters v. writing checker tools

	Writing Scores	Software A	Software B
Human Raters	**Pearson Correlation**	**.267***	**.400****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**.023**	**.000**
	N	**72**	**72**

Contrary to our initial speculation, scores produced by software B explained 16 % of the variance in summary writing scores given by human raters.

5 Findings

Even though human raters evaluated summary writing components, adhering to the analytic scoring procedures, there was a minor correlation between summary writing skills and grammar scores yielded by commercially available grammar checker tools. In general, AI-based software programs are promising in that they could possibly produce effective grammar checkers and provide EFL learners with diagnostic feedback. Meanwhile, language teachers can focus more on challenging literacy activities, situational decoding skills, and multi-literacies model of literacy, as partly indicated by Cumming (2013b).

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Oral Reading as a Mode of Reading Comprehension in EFL: A Research Review

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Abstract

The present study, focusing on Japanese EFL contexts, aims to examine sources of inconsistency in research findings on this topic. Eight studies were selected for the present review. It was found that they differed substantially in terms of participant characteristics, oral reading tasks, text comprehension measures, and reading materials. The variability has made a direct comparison across the studies difficult, which needs to be addressed for more systematic future research.

Keywords

reading mode, silent reading, oral reading, EFL, reading comprehension

Introduction

The utility of oral reading (OR) as a mode of text comprehension has been equivocal in the teaching of EFL reading, as opposed to silent reading (SR). In Japanese EFL contexts, the results of Hatori (1977) and Takahashi and Takanashi (1987) have often been cited to argue the superiority of silent reading over oral reading. This topic has been investigated by a number of subsequent studies, which have not received much attention and have not been examined for review. The purpose of this study thus is to clarify the available findings on this topic through a review of selected studies.

1 Selection of the Reviewed Studies

Databases focusing on Japanese academic publications, such as the CiNii and J-Stage, were searched to find studies investigating the effect of reading-aloud mode on text comprehension in EFL. The searching keywords were 'reading aloud', 'oral reading', and 'comprehension', which were tried in both Japanese and English. The search was complemented using Google Scholar.

As a result, eight studies were selected for the present review. They all met the following conditions: 1) comparing text comprehension in oral reading with that in silent reading (or other similar modes) and 2) conducted with Japanese EFL learners.

An overview of the findings from the reviewed studies found that they were not consistent. Ikeda (2003), Tanaka (2015), Ono and Abe (2007), and Sato (2014) suggested that oral reading mode may not affect negatively on text comprehension. Meanwhile, Goto (2007), Ono and Abe (2006), and Tanaka (2013) reported more inadequate comprehension attained in OR than in SR. Matsumi et al. (1995) found that oral reading might work positively or negatively, depending on the text difficulty of the reading passage.

2 Sources of Variability of the Findings

2.1 Participant characteristics

Participants in the studies reviewed were mostly university students. However, Ono and Abe (2006) were conducted with a group of professional English teachers, who were assumed as advanced learners/users of English.

Participants' EFL proficiency levels tended to be roughly estimated based on participants' attributes. Among the studies reviewed, only Sato (2014) provided the proficiency information based on the scores of a standardised test. This makes it difficult for the outcome of a study to be directly compared with that of another.

2.2 Oral reading tasks

The OR tasks used in the studies generally involved reading a piece of text aloud once and then working on a post-reading comprehension task. However, variation was found across the studies in the number of times of reading, instructions given prior to reading, and text presentation format.

In Matsumi et al. (1995) and Sato (2014), participants were allowed to read as many times as possible within a set limit of time. Some studies gave

explicit pre-reading instructions to focus on meaning while reading aloud (Ikeda, 2003; Sato, 2014; Tanaka, 2015), but in other studies, this was not the case. In the majority of the studies reviewed, the reading text was presented in the form of a passage. Tanaka (2015), however, adopted a self-paced sentence-by-sentence text presentation.

These differences may significantly affect performance in the post-reading task, which may lead to inconsistent results.

2.3 Comprehension measures

Most of the studies, except for Ikeda (2003), measured oral reading comprehension through offline tasks, in which participants carried the tasks out without referring back to the reading text. It can be said, therefore, that the reviewed studies included short-term memory of text content in the concept of comprehension.

Also, the format of the tasks varied greatly, which included written recall, open-ended Q&A, multiple-choice questions, cloze, and summary. These tasks impose different types of demand on the reader, and the performance elicited through them may not be the same in nature. None of the studies addressed the influence of this task-related factor, although it should be accounted for when interpreting the findings.

2.4 Reading materials

Reading materials can be characterised in terms of text type, length, and readability. These factors may well affect performance in the post-reading comprehension tasks which relies on memory (see section 2.3). Despite this, not all of the reviewed studies sufficiently mentioned the above text-related factors. Some of the studies merely labelled the text used as 'junior high school level' without providing specific information about the text characteristics.

3 Conclusion

The present review examined the inconsistent findings from the eight selected studies and the variability in research methodology used. Pointed out were the following four potential sources of variability: participants' characteristics, OR tasks, text comprehension measures, and reading materials. The studies reviewed differed critically in these areas, and therefore it would be of little value to discuss the findings in the same light. Also, some of the studies were found to lack information necessary for comparative analysis across studies. At this point, any synthesis of findings is difficult. To move forward, future research should address the problems highlighted through the present review.

Acknowledgement

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Dialogic Interaction in the Cross-cultural Learning

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Abstract

The study investigates how a teacher of English extends students' idea about cross-cultural issues. The purpose of the study is to clarify different productive teacher talk presented in class.

The method used is qualitative analysis. Dialogic interactions between teacher-students were observed, video recording the conversations in an EFL environment. Some portions of the dialogues were selected for the analysis based on Gilles' five principles in dialogic teaching (2016, 184). The processes of dialogic interactions between teacher and students obtained in a class were analyzed in the study.

The results explain the importance of a teacher role as a facilitator in a class.

Keywords

Teacher talk, dialogic interaction, cross-cultural understanding IRF interactions

Introduction

In the very midst of a technological revolution coming into academia, Information Communication Technology (ICT) greatly influences our interaction with others. There is, however, still unchangeable universal thought towards learning, which is an importance of the role of the teacher. It could be possible to say that learners somehow tend to expect some returns from what they learn including teacher talk, such as specialized, profound, and linguistics knowledge in academia.

According to Howe and Abedine (2013), teaching has been considered as a transmission process and little dialogue has changed to be preoccupied with teacher–learners IRF interactions for four decades. In addition to this, Meloth & Deering (1999) state that students rarely ask and pursue questions about their learning unless they are explicitly taught to do so. King (2002) claims that learners do not become involved with explanatory behaviour, ask-though-provoking questions, or extract previous existing knowledge and experiences without some external help. These results demonstrate that even though we are in the mainstream in the age of communication of information and easily deliver a message, learners tend to be receptive rather than productive in their learning.

1 Teaching methods

The two general patterns of teaching are described. One is a traditional type of teaching using initiation-response-feedback (IRF) questions where students were requested to provide pre-determined responses and teacher making statements requiring no further elaboration. According to Gilles' study (2016), over 80 % of teachers' total talk was provided facts or ideas as well as given directions.

The other is dialogic teaching. Five principles in dialogic teaching are designed to differentiate dialogic from transmissive. Collective, reciprocal, supportive, cumulative, and purposeful types of questions are proposed to learners (ibid). Higher-level questions probe their thinking and encourage them to analyze and speculate on ideas.

2 Methodology

2.1 Purpose

The study investigates how a teacher of English stimulates learners' thinking and advances their learning towards cross-cultural issues. The purpose is to clarify the different types of productive talk the teacher utilized in academically situated dialogic interactions.

2.2 Qualitative analysis

Gilles' seven verbal behaviours of dialogical interactions (2016, p.184) were utilized to analyze teacher talk in the study. Statements (cf. declaration, a clear expression of facts), Challenges or rebuts (cf. contesting previous positions with alternative or logical explanations), Elaborates or explains in details

Open Question, Closed Question, Reasons with

evidence, Short responses that elicit minimal responses are used for the dialogic analysis.

The data reported were extracts from weekly classroom observation in a semester focusing on teacher's talk. Video recording from two sides in class was conducted to analyze interactions between a teacher and students. Some portions were transcribed for an analyzing purpose.

2.3 Participants

Participants are an experienced British female instructor and around ten Japanese undergraduate students from various faculties with different age from freshman to seniors who take the course as supplementary. In the class, English is used as a medium instruction.

Before conducting the study, classroom observation was made by a researcher, revealing that their motivation for learning was quite high. Furthermore, some of these students considered the instructor's teaching method is unique.

2.4 Site

One of the elective courses called cross-cultural distance learning offered at a private university in Tokyo. Students from any faculties were able to take the course. The course comprises two types; classroom learning and online peer discussions with Asian students based on cultural topics in a small group.

3 Results from teacher talk

The teacher uses a variety of verbal behaviours in interactions based on culture, sharing all relevant information for reasoning and knowledge as a story tailor. The beginning of the teacher talk starts with a few statements as well as closed questions. After these, elaboration and reasons with evidence come out. Lastly, the number of teacher talk decreased chronologically whereas the degree of convergent and divergent of teacher talk increased.

4 Discussion

Explanation of her previous cultural experiences both in British and in Japan were shared at the beginning of every class, encouraging them to share cultural differences and join her story as an active participant. Careful observation of every student by looking at their non-verbal behaviour such as eyes and adjusting her language use depending on their degree of understanding on cultural issues. Analysis of each student's social background and the nature of their personalities. Their reasons for taking the course was grasped and the teacher constantly gave students some comments to continue the course till the end.

5 Conclusion

The teacher used the dialogic teaching method heuristically in class with a large scale of gesture at the beginning of the course. On the other hand, the number of teacher talk was controlled and intentionally decreased by the teacher as the degree of students' cultural understanding increased. The teacher scaffolds connections to help students construct new understanding, which proved Alexander's (2008) study.

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Development of Digital Teaching/Learning Materials for Promoting Active Learning in English Language Classes

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Abstract

This paper is intended to be a progress report of my ongoing research project on the development of digital teaching/learning materials especially designed for classroom instruction based on active learning theories (i.e., AL-based instruction). With reference to the recent discussion on the use of digital textbooks at the elementary schools and junior/senior high schools in Japan and the results of my previous surveys on desirable features and functions for the materials, the present study developed sample materials with such features and functions. The study also examined how the materials would work on tablet computers and how they can be used with other sorts of applications. The results of these examinations suggested that the materials developed in this study should be highly compatible with other sorts of applications to promote AL-based instruction in actual classroom settings.

Keywords

Digital Teaching/Learning Materials, Materials Development, Computer-Assisted Language Learning, Active Learning, Learner Autonomy, Motivation

Introduction

The development of information and communication technology (ICT) has been bringing about significant changes in the field of education. In Japan, for example, the potential of digital teaching/learning materials has long been argued and on the 25th of May in 2018, the Diet enacted a bill to approve the use of digital textbooks[13] in combination with the authorized paper-based textbooks in classroom teaching at the elementary schools and junior/senior high schools[14]. At the tertiary level education, furthermore, in an attempt to improve the quality of education, there has been a growing trend to promote the effective use of ICT in the classroom. In fact, using various kinds of ICT devices and related applications, many of educational practitioners have currently been making their efforts to change their teaching styles from the so-called traditional lecture styles to more interactive ones, which are often referred to as AL-based instruction (Mizokami, 2017). These educational trends suggested that effective use of ICT can be a potential means to facilitate the reforms in classroom teaching.

In the light of the present situation, I have been working on a research project to develop easy-to-use digital teaching/learning materials for English language classes at the tertiary level. The purposes of this research project are (1) to investigate the features and functions that are thought to be desirable or necessary for promoting active learning in the classroom and for encouraging autonomous learning outside the classroom, (2) to create samples of digital teaching/learning materials with such features and functions, and (3) to consider various ways to make use of the materials in English language classes. To this end, I have conducted questionnaire surveys among Japanese university students and gathered the data concerning the features and functions desired for the digital teaching/learning materials. With reference to the results of these surveys and the recent discussion on the use of digital textbooks at the elementary schools and junior/senior high schools in Japan, the present study dealt with how to design the digital teaching/learning materials, created some sample materials and examined how to make use of the materials in actual classroom settings.

[13] The term *digital textbooks* in this context means *digital textbooks for learners*. There is another type of digital textbooks called *digital textbooks for teachers* (MEXT, 2011, 2019).

[14] In some parts of educative process, it is allowed to use the digital textbooks as an alternative to the paper-based textbooks (MEXT, 2018).

1 Digital Textbooks and Digital Teaching/Learning Materials

1.1 Digital textbooks

As a series of documents published by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology Japan (MEXT) summarized[15], *digital textbooks* are currently defined as those electronically recorded materials that contain all of the same contents printed in the authorized paper-based textbooks[16].

1.2 Digital materials

Other sorts of materials that include movie files, audio files, workbooks and/or applications are defined as *digital materials*[17], which are expected to be used with *digital textbooks* to deepen students' understanding of the course contents.

1.3 Digital materials developed in my research project

Referring to both the definitions of digital textbooks and digital materials (MEXT, 2011, 2018), I defined the materials developed in my own research project as *digital teaching/learning materials*.

2 Method

2.1 Designing the digital teaching/learning materials

To begin with, I reconsidered the basic concepts as well as the designs of the digital teaching/learning materials by looking back on the previously developed digital materials that I have worked on so far (Enriquez & Yoshida, 2017; Yoshida, Enriquez, & Nakano, 2014, 2015) and the results of my previous surveys. Also, I reviewed some of the theories and practices related to L2 motivation and learner autonomy (e.g., Hiromori, 2015), materials development (e.g., Tomlinson, 2016) and active learning (Mizokami, 2017). As a result, I decided to embed movie files, audio files and some other interactive features into the digital teaching/learning materials. Each of these was found to be desirable or necessary for promoting active learning in the classroom and encouraging autonomous learning outside the classroom.

In addition to the above features, I also decided to provide learners with information on the vocabulary levels that can be obtained from the analysis with AntWordProfiler (Anthony, 2014) and the CEFR-J Wordlist[18].

2.2 Software and applications used for creating the materials

To develop the digital teaching/learning materials, I mainly used those applications that can publish digital books (e.g., Apple's iBook Author). I also used Voice Sommelier Neo (Hitachi Solutions Create) to make synthesized speech sounds and AntWordProfiler (Anthony, 2014) to analyze the levels of vocabulary.

2.3 Creating the digital teaching/learning materials

Following the above procedures, I developed sample materials. Then I examined how the materials would work on tablet computers (e.g., iPads) and how they can be used with other sorts of applications.

3 Discussion and Summary

The results of the aforementioned examinations suggested that the materials developed in this study should be highly compatible with other sorts of applications to promote AL-based instruction in actual classroom settings.

As a next step, I will conduct experiments in an actual classroom setting and further discuss the usability of the digital teaching/learning materials and how they can facilitate AL-based instruction in English language classes.

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[15] For details, see the document available on the following website.
http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/07/03/1349317_1.pdf

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The Characteristics of EFL Learners' Summary Writing

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Abstract

This study investigates the characteristics of learners' expository writing, summarizing. Summarizing is widely recognized to be one of the vital skills for academic writing. At the same time, paraphrasing is said to be a necessary skill This study describes how summarizing as well as paraphrasing are taught and investigates how learners summarized academic texts. The method used is based on Keck's summary types. Four major paraphrase types such as Near Copy, Minimal Revision, Moderate Revision, and Substantial Revision are used in the study. The results and the discussion past will be presented at the conference.

Keywords

Writing evaluation, summary writing

Introduction

Summarizing has been widely recognized to be one of the vital skills for academic writing as well as to examine how well learners comprehend texts. Paraphrasing is also said to be one of the necessary tools to write a successful summary. As for previous study regarding summary writing, vanDijk and Kintsch (1977, p.4) conducted the five generalization rule:

"(1) deletion (deletion)of unimportant or trivial information,
(2) deletion (deletion) of redundant information,
(3) super ordination (generalization) of lists, i.e., substitution of a category name for instances of a category,
(4) selection of a topic sentence, i.e., near-verbatim use of a topic sentence from the text and
(5) invention (construction), i.e., creation and use of a topic sentence that did not appear in the text but easily could have".

Brown & Day (1983, pp.6-7) conducted the study of paraphrasing, focusing on experts as well as novices, using the six summary rules as following;
(1) deletion: the deletion of unnecessary trivial material;
(2) deletion: the deletion of redundant material, although it is important;
(3) substitution: substitute a superordinate term or event for a list of items or actions (e.g., cats. dog, goldfish, gerbils, and parrots, these can substitute the term as pets);
(4) substitution: substitute a superordinate action for a list of subcomponents of that action (i.e., integration);
(5) selection: select a topic sentence;
(6) invention: if there is no topic sentence, invent your own.

Keck(2006) investigates the five-paraphrase type of classification to what extent learners conduct a paraphrase through their language use as follows;
(1) Exact Copy,
(2) Near Copy,
(3) Minimal Revision,
(4)Moderate Revision, and
(5) Substantial Revision.

1 Evaluation

As for a general evaluation system, three types of scales are mainly considered: primary trait scales, holistic scales, and analytic scales. The multiple-trait scale is also referred to in second language literature, although this need to involve procedure revision (Alderson & Bachman, 2002). Primary trait scales are used at schools in the US. mainly for the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) as a large-scale testing program. Holistic scoring is widely used with general impression marking and is famous for an introduction of the TOEFL Writing Test.

2 Methodology

2.1 Participants

A total of 50 undergraduate university students participated in the present study. They are sophomore students except one senior.

2.2 Summary task

Participants completed two summary tasks in which they were asked to read about 1000-word source text and write a one-paragraph summary of it with around 150 words. A summary task was primarily selected from the textbook they used in a class so that the contents are supposed to be understood by all participants.

2.3 Instruction

General instruction of paraphrasing and summarizing are conducted twice. Followings are the instruction of paraphrasing.

(1) Read the original sentence and understand its meaning.
(2) Identify key ideas in the original sentence. Then, on a separate sheet, write them down using different words. Do not write in sentences. Also, write down the shared language.
(3) Put away the original sentence and look only at your notes. Using the words and phrases in your notes, express the ideas in the original sentence as accurately as possible.
(4) Compare your paraphrase with the original.
(5) Make necessary changes.

3 Results

Results of the study will be announced in the conference.

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Cultural Policies of English Language Textbooks in Japan and Korea

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine how English language textbooks reflected the goals of the language policies of Korea and Japan for promoting the cultural competences of the young generation in Korea and Japan. As for the research methodology, English language textbook analysis was adopted because English language textbooks approved by the governments show the essential elements of Korean and Japanese globalization policies, as found in the contents of the English textbooks. The middle school textbooks published in Korea and Japan were analyzed, focusing on the topical construction and cultural contents. The results of the textbook analysis showed that the topics of the textbooks were diverse and the cultural contents of English textbooks were various so that the cultural awareness of Korean and Japanese students could be expanded.

Keywords

Globalization, English Language Textbooks, Culture, Cultural Policies

Introduction

In the era of globalization, one of many challenges facing many countries including Korea and Japan is how to teach young learners the skills that can make them internationally capable men: foreign language skills, mathematical logic, scientific thinking, and computer skills (Carrey, 2000). Among these skills, English ability is the most important because English language serves as an important medium of communication as a lingua franca when communicating through the internet (Graddol, 2001; Gray, 2002; Parmenter, 2000). The purpose of this study is to compare the cultural policies of English language textbooks in Japan and Korea focusing on the cultural themes of the textbooks and the cultural contents for introducing the various cultures of the world and maintaining the national identity in each country.

1 Methodology

1.1 Materials

This study analyzed six middle school 2nd-grade English textbooks, three from Korea and three from Korea.

1.2 Research Questions

The cultural contents of Korean and Japanese English Textbooks were analyzed according to the following criteria:

1) What was the topic composition of each textbook? Were the topics constructed in order to improve the Korean students' ability to understand language and culture through various experiences? Could the topical construction reflect the cultural diversity enough to provide the wide perspective for understanding the multi-culturalism of the globalized era?
2) Were there any differences between Korean and Japanese English textbooks in presenting the cultural diversity and national identity in each country?

2 Results and discussions

The results show that English language textbooks currently used in Japan and Korea contain the various cultural themes, which can be evaluated as appropriate for cultivating the intercultural awareness of Japanese and Korean young learners in the ear of globalization. But the cultural contents for introducing various cultures of the world and maintaining its national identity through diverse cultural activities are different from Japan and Korea, which can reflect the different perspective for English education philosophy and the globalization strategies between two countries. The enthusiasm for learning English in Korea is utilitarian; the language is a tool for the country to achieve economic

competitiveness in the international area, and for individuals, it can be a means of gaining access to a prestigious university or a company with good benefits and secure positions.

Not only in Korea but throughout the world, the domination of English over other languages is a widely acknowledged phenomenon. The opening up of Korea to the outside world in response to globalization has forced Korean society to assimilate elements of foreign cultures, especially from the USA. American movies and TV programs dominate the media industry in Korea. American fashion, food, and ways of life are admired and absorbed by many Koreans. Typically, the cultural content of English curriculum materials in Korea is narrowly confined to White middle-class culture of Western English-speaking countries, mainly the USA.

The Japanese government has emphasized that the learning of English should not undermine Japanese cultural identity and cultural values. English is adopted only as a tool so that the values and traditions embedded in the Japanese culture will be retained and cultural independence will be ensured. The case of Japan is an example of a non-English-speaking country that has successfully maintained its cultural values and identity by promoting TEFL within the framework of Japanese internationalization, and by managing to find a balance that allows it to participate in the global economy without succumbing to the adverse effects of globalization.

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Effects of an 'English Clinic' on the Development of Core Competencies

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the effects of the English clinic (EC) as a scaffolding tool for an 'English Reading and Writing' (ERW) course on development of Korean university students' core competencies in the aspects of communication, teamwork, and self-development. A total of 60 students participated in this study, with 30 participants in the experimental group taking the ERW course with the EC, while the rest taking the same course without the EC. Data were collected through mid-term and final examinations and via a questionnaire conducted at the end of the course. The findings have revealed that the group with the EC outperformed the group without the EC in communication competency on both mid-term and final exams. In particular, there appeared notable improvements in the writing scores of the group with the EC, compared to reading comprehension scores. Analysis of the questionnaire answers indicated higher levels of competencies throughout the all three competencies in the experimental group. The overall results suggest the effectiveness of the EC as a post-instructional scaffolding tool to foster competences at the tertiary level by offering learners opportunities to monitor their learning and enrich their knowledge through social interaction.

Keywords

English Clinic, core competencies

Introduction

This study attempts to investigate the effectiveness of the English clinic (EC) as a curricular language support program linked to a general English course called "English Reading and Writing" (ERW) at a Korean university in terms of the improvement of their core competencies. The ultimate goal of education should be to have students well-prepared to meet diverse demands of this rapidly changing society by helping them reach their learning objectives and become more independent learners. The key to attainting this goal is developing core competencies. In accordance with the heightened attention of the importance of core competencies in education, ERW, which had existed for more than five years as a requirement, went through several transformations by adopting its new goals and introducing new instructional methods for more interactive classrooms. For example, the focus of the course was moved from knowledge/ skill-based learning to competency-based learning; three core competencies were chosen to be of particular relevance to ERW: communication competency, teamwork competency, and self-development competency. In addition, a special program called an 'English Clinic' (EC) was incorporated into the course and implemented as one of the projects for the advancement of college education (ACE) with intensive support from the Ministry of Education.

In order to examine the effects of the EC on the improvement of their core competencies, this study addresses the following research questions:

- To what extent are there differences in their scores of core competencies (Communication Competency, Teamwork Competency, Self-management Competency) between the group with EC and without EC?
- Are there any improvements in the students' reading and writing scores (communication competency) between the mid-term and final exams? If any, which group made the greater improvement?

1 Core Competencies

In response to the transition into competency-based learning, S university under investigation established a systematic accreditation model to ensure the quality of a learning process and outcomes by S-competency-embedded assessment (S-CEA). This model identified eight competencies, drawing on the results the K-CETA administered to S university

students in 2014 and 2015, and considering educational philosophy, development plans, and analysis of employment patterns. The core competencies chosen for ERW and their specific components are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Core competencies are their components

Core competencies	Components
communication	-finding out main ideas of a reading passage -expressing and delivering thoughts or messages in writing -figuring out the organization of a reading passage and sentence patterns
teamwork	-actively participating in teamwork -encouraging other members to participate -resolving conflicts
self-development	- exploring a given topic with a strong interest in it -making an effort to complete a given task and expand knowledge and abilities - making an effort to connecting previous knowledge to new knowledge -actively searching for various strategies to study English on one's own.

2 Results and Discussion

The questionnaire was conducted at the end of the course to compare the levels of core competencies perceived by the participants scaffolded by the EC and those without the EC. As displayed in Table 2, higher average scores were obtained from the group with the EC in all three areas of competencies. Among them, communication competency showed the biggest difference between the groups, followed by teamwork competency, and self-development competency.

Table 2. Average scores of each competency by group

	With EC	*Without EC*
Communication	3.88	3.65
Teamwork	3.85	3.67
Self-development	3.94	3.82

The results obtained from mid-term exams and final exams show actual development of communication competency in terms of reading and writing (Table 2). The both mid-term and final exam were composed of reading comprehension questions (worth 40 points) and writing questions including writing a short paragraph, completing sentence, and filling a blank with a word (worth 10 points). The full score was 50 for each exam.

Table 2. Average scores of reading and writing for communication competency by group

Exam	*Group with EC*			*Group without EC*		
	Wh	*R*	*W*	*Mean*	*Wh*	*W*
Mid-term	34.2	28.2	6	33	27.5	5.5
Final	40.8	32.6	8.2	34	28	6

Note. R for Reading score, W for writing scores, and Wh for whole average scores.

While there is relatively significant improvement in the average scores including both reading and writing scores from the mid-term to final exams in the results of the participants scaffolded by the EC, no particular improvement is observed in the results of the control group. In particular, improvement in the writing scores is more obvious. These findings suggest that the participants' self- evaluation on their level of competencies especially in terms of communication may serve as a precise predictor of their actual performance. Also, there can be a speculation that communication competency may grow better when an individual employs other types of competencies such as self-management and teamwork competencies for a given context of an EC. Based on the findings and discussion of this study, it is hoped that this study can provide a guide to establish a more strategic system of an EC in a broader conception of learning in enhancing core competencies at the tertiary level.

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An Analysis of the Textbooks for Airline Service English within the NCS Framework

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Abstract

This study aims to analyze a number of textbooks for airline service English within the context of the National Competency Standards (NCS) framework. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a learner-centered sub-field of English language education which places an emphasis on narrowing the gap between what is taught in school and what is needed in the workplace. From the perspective of ESP, the study uses the nine competency units and 33 competency unit constituents related to 'Aircraft Cabin Service' of the NCS framework. These competency units are based on industry requirements, and were developed by the Korean government with the help of experts from the aircraft cabin service industry. The study analyzes ten textbooks published since 2013. The results of the analysis show that too much importance has been given to cabin service before and during the flight. Of the total 1,071 dialogues of the ten textbooks, 37% of the dialogues are concentrated on in-flight services and 17% on pre-departure services, whereas only 4% of the dialogues are related to the management of a medical emergency. The study suggests that future textbooks should be balanced by proportionately including such content as dealing with a medical emergency, helping special service passengers, and handling passengers with complaints.

Keywords

National Competency Standards (NCS), cabin service English, ESP, needs analysis

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Competency unit	Competency unit constituent
1. Cabin safety management	1.1 Checking safety and security before boarding
	1.2 Checking safety and security of the cabin before departure and arrival
	1.3 Checking safety and security of the cabin during the flight
	1.4 Checking safety and security after landing
2. Preparation for boarding	2.1 Checking in-flight service items
	2.2 Checking service facilities and equipment
	2.3 Checking special service requests
3. Pre-departure service	3.1 Standing at the boarding station
	3.2 Reconfirming the boarding pass
	3.3 Showing passengers to their seats
	3.4 Securing baggage
	3.5 Supporting special service passengers
4. In-flight service	4.1 Offering drinks
	4.2 Offering meals
	4.3 Offering in-flight entertainment service
	4.4 Duty-free items service
	4.5 Checking the cabin
5. Pre-landing service	5.1 Distributing arrival forms and helping passengers fill in the forms
	5.2 Collecting in-flight service items
	5.3 Checking the inventories of in-flight service items and duty-free items
6. Post-landing service	6.2 Helping passengers disembark
	6.3 Assisting special service passengers
7. Checking the cabin after disembarkation	7.1 Checking for lost property
	7.2 Checking for remaining passengers
	7.3 Checking the cabin facilities and equipment
	7.4 Handing over the in-flight service items
8. Dealing with a medical emergency	8.1 Checking and reporting an occurrence of a medical emergency
	8.2 Initial response to a medical emergency
	8.3 Subsequent management of a medical emergency
9. Cabin crew management	9.1 Assigning duties to each attendant
	9.2 Sharing information between the cockpit and the cabin zones
	9.3 Handling passengers with complaints
	9.5 Managing cabin services

Collostructional Analysis of English Future Tenses in a Learner Corpus

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Abstract

This presentation deals with the distinction between the future tense with the auxiliary "will" and that with "be going to" construction in a large-scale corpus of learner English. The distinction between these two constructions for the future tense has been treated in the following three semantic viewpoints, yet this treatment does not take into consideration individual verbs' preference for either of the constructions. Contrary to this treatment of them, Gries and Stefanowitsch (2004) found out that certain verbs tend to be used more often with the auxiliary "will" than with the construction "be going to" in their collostructional analyses. This presentation is a replication study of Gries and Stefanowitsch (2004) using International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE) and it is found that certain verbs are actually used more often with the auxiliary "will" than with the construction "be going to" in ICNALE.

Keywords

Collostructure, colexeme, learner corpus, future tense

Introduction

This study investigates collexemes (Gries and Stefanowitsch 2004, Stefanowitsch and Gries 2003) for “will” and “be going to” alternation in the English part of an English-Japanese parallel corpus. Collexemes refer to a set of words that tend to be used in certain types of constructions (Goldberg 1995, Lakoff 1987). They tend to appear in a certain construction more often than in others, and their frequency is higher than that of non-collexemes in the same construction with statistical significance.

This study is a preliminary attempt to use collexemes to distinguish native English from non-native English. If a collexeme in native speakers' English texts is found as a non-collexeme in non-native speakers' English texts, this collexeme might indicate a difference between these two groups of speakers of English. To this end, first we have to choose one construction and determine the collexemes in this construction in both native speakers' and non-native speaker's English. We hope to attribute significant educational value to such information on collexemes for a certain construction; that is, learners of English should be able to acquire different collexemes for different constructions, which will facilitate their use of the language in a more natural way..

1 Data

The corpus data of this study were from the International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE) (Ishikawa 2013). The ICNALE contains more than 10,000 essays and speeches, which were produced by college students and graduate students in ten countries and regions in Asia; China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan, and Thailand, along with English native speakers. The topics of these essays are twofold; the importance of part-time jobs and smoking bans on the restaurants. The writers’ proficiencies are controlled, and the essays are categorized according to their proficiencies.

2 Method

The parsed results of English sentences produced by Japanese students and native speakers of English by the Stanford Dependency Parser (de Marneffe & Manning, 2008) were used to count the instances of verbs associated the auxiliary “will” and those in the “be going to” construction. A simple regular-expression search enabled us to count the number of the verbs either with “will” or in the “be going to” construction in the parse output. In other words, this study ignores the different usages of the auxiliary “will” (the simple future and the future with the speaker’s intention), because it is difficult to

distinguish them from the corpus data which do not record the speaker's/writer's intention.

After calculating the probability of a verb with "will" and that the same verb in "be going to" construction, we examined whether the difference between these two probabilities is more than a mere coincidence. To this end we conducted Fisher's exact test (1922, 1954), which examines the significance of the association between two groups with a small sample size that is not distributed normally. These characteristics are appropriate for this study, as was the case in Gries and Stefanowitsch (2004).

To show the effect size between these two probabilities, we calculated Cohen's *h*. First, we obtained the arcsine transformation φ of each probability p as follows:

$$\varphi = 2\arcsin\sqrt{p}$$

Cohen's *h* for two probabilities, *p1* and *p2*, is the difference between their arcsine transformations $\varphi 1$ and $\varphi 2$:

$$h = \varphi 1 - \varphi 2$$

The interpretation of Cohen's *h* is based on the following rule of thumb:

h = 0.20, "small effect size"; *h* = 0.50, "medium effect size"; *h* = 0.80, "large effect size."

In this study, $\varphi 1$ is calculated as the frequency of a verb used with "will" divided by the frequency of the other verbs with "will", while $\varphi 2$ is calculated as the frequency of the same verb used in the "be going to" construction divided by the frequency of all other verbs in the "be going to" construction. We used js-STAR ver. 9.2.5j to conduct Fisher's exact test and calculate Cohen's *h*. According to the rule of thumb above, we assumed that a verb is more likely to be used with "will" if its Cohen's *h* is larger than 0.8, while it is more likely to be used with the "be going to" construction if its Cohen's *h* is smaller than -0.8. If a verb's Cohen's *h* is between -0.2 and 0.2, we assume that there is no preference for the verb in terms of "will" or "be going to". To concentrate on more frequently used verbs, we conducted the test only for such verbs that appeared 10 times or more either with "will" or in the "be going to" in the parse output.

3 Results

The detailed results of this investigation will be presented at the conference.

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