

Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics

The 22nd PAAL Conference

PROCEEDINGS

August 17-18, 2017

College of Humanities
Hanyang University, Seoul, KOREA



Organized by Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics & Center for British and American Regional Studies, Hanyang University

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PAN-PACIFIC ASSOCIATION OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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09:00-09:30	REGISTRATION		
09:30-10:20	Room 304 A-1 A-2		
10:20-10:30	BREAK		
10:30-11:00	Room 303 Opening Address: Hyesook Park (Conference Chair, Kunsan National University) Welcoming Address: Hyun Jin Kim (Co-Chair of PAAL, Cheong Ju National University of Education), Kouichi Ano (Co-Chair of PAAL, Bunkyo University) Congratulatory Address: Kyeong-Seok Seo (Dean, College of Humanities, Hanyang University) Moderator: Bohyon Chung (Hanbat National University)		
11:00-12:00	Room 303 Keynote Speech I “Why Reading Matters?” Willy A. Renandya (Nanyang Technological University, National University of Education) Moderator: Kyunghee Choi (Hanyang Women’s University)		
12:00-13:30	LUNCH		
13:30-14:30	Room 303 Keynote Speech II “Neurolinguistic Perspectives on SLA” Harumi Oishi (Gifu Shotoku Gakuen University) Moderator: Hye-Young Kwak (Korea University)		
14:30-16:00	Room 302 Poster Session I		
15:00-16:15	Room 303 B-1 B-2 B-3	Room 304 C-1 C-2 C-3	Room 305 D-1 D-2 D-3
16:15-16:30	BREAK		
16:30-17:45	Room 303 E-1 E-2 E-3	Room 304 F-1 F-2 F-3	Room 305 G-1 G-2 G-3
18:00	BANQUET (Pandorothy, B1, the College of Humanities) Moderator: Jayeon Lim (University of Seoul)		

DAY 2 (August 18, 2017)

09:00-10:15	Room 303 H-1 H-2 H-3	Room 304 I-1 I-2 I-3	Room 305 J-2 J-3
09:45-11:45	Room 302 Undergraduate Session		
10:15-10:30	BREAK		
10:30-11:45	Room 304 K-1 K-2 K-3	Room 305 L-1 L-2 L-3	
11:45-13:30	LUNCH		
13:30-15:30	Room 303 Symposium Moderator: Hikyung Lee (Korea University)		
	Kouichi Ano (Bunkyo University) Japan	Willy A. Renandya (Nanyang Tech. University) Singapore	Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn Univ.) Thailand
15:30-17:00	Room 302 Poster Session II		
15:45-17:00	Room 303 M-1 M-2 M-3	Room 304 N-1 N-2 N-3	Room 305 O-1 O-2 O-3
17:10-17:30	Room 303 Closing Moderator: Bohyon Chung (Hanbat National University)		

DAY 1 (Thursday, August 17, 2017)

Session A (Room 304)

Moderator: Kyunghye Choi (Hanyang Women's University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:30-9:55	A-1	The Relationship between Writing Task of Textbooks and Can-Do Lists Yoko Suganuma Oi (Waseda University)
9:55-10:20	A-2	A Cross-cultural and Interlanguage Studies on Refusals by Thai KSL and KFL Learners Nattapra Wongsittikan (Korea University) Seok-Hoon You (Korea University)

Session B (Room 303)

Moderator: On-Soon Lee (Dong-A University)

Time	Session	Presentation
15:00-15:25	B-1	The Expected Oral Proficiency Level for Japan's Secondary School English Teachers Keiso Tatsukawa (Hiroshima University)
15:25-15:50	B-2	Empowering Pronunciation - Connected Speech Instruction in L2 English Class at a Japanese University Freshman Level Yasuro Tanaka (The International University of Health and Welfare, Narita Campus)
15:50-16:15	B-3	Factor Analysis of Interactional Speaking Strategies Maya Hyunjeong Lee (Chonbuk National University)

Session C (Room 304)

Moderator: Takako Machimura (Bunkyo University)

Time	Session	Presentation
15:00-15:25	C-1	Rating Scale Development for Integrated-Skills Assessment Kei Miyazaki (Tokai University) Kahoko Matsumoto (Tokai University) Taiko Tsuchihira (Seitoku University) Adam Murray (Miyazaki International College)
15:25-15:50	C-2	Development of Level-Specific Tests Based on the CEFR-J Reading Descriptors Siwon Park (Kanda University of International Studies) Megumi Sugita (Kanda University of International Studies)
15:50-16:15	C-3	Creation of an Assessment Rubric for Global Citizenship Kahoko Matsumoto (Tokai University) Yuuki Kato (Sagami Women's University) Shogo Kato (Tokyo Women's Christian University) Toshihiko Takeuchi (Tokyo University of Social Welfare)

Session D (Room 305)**Moderator: Yoon-Shil Jeon (Hyupsung University)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:00-15:25	D-1	The Effect of Direct and Indirect Written Feedback on EFL Learners' Tense Errors Yoko Asari (Tokyo University of Science)
15:25-15:50	D-2	Challenges of College Transition: A Case Study of an Academic English Course in One Community College in Hong Kong Wenli Wu (Hong Kong Polytechnic University)
15:50-16:15	D-3	English RCs Produced by EFL Learners in Computer Chat Sessions Chae-Eun Kim (Chosun University)

Session E (Room 303)**Moderator: Norifumi Ueda (Komazawa University)**

Time	Session	Presentation
16:30-16:55	E-1	Prosaic and Expressive Linguistics: A Revisiting Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn University)
16:55-17:20	E-2	Lemmatic Properties of English Adverbial Particles Hyun Kyung Miki Bong (Shinshu University)
17:20-17:45	E-3	On the Aspectual Properties of English Degree Achievement Verbs Jiwon Kim (Catholic University of Korea)

Session F (Room 304)**Moderator: Kota Wachi (Shiba Junior/Senior High School)**

Time	Session	Presentation
16:30-16:55	F-1	Teaching English Effectively with the Use of Chants and Nursery Rhymes to Heighten Learners' Phonological Awareness Naoko Muramatsu (National Institute of Technology, Numazu College)
16:55-17:20	F-2	An Examination of the Possibility of Oral Reading as an Informal Evaluation Tool for Measuring EFL Reading Comprehension Fumihisa Fujinaga (Kindai University)
17:20-17:45	F-3	Language and Media Role: A Case Study of Environmental Issues Presented in Selected Thai English Newspapers Wattana Suksiripakonchai (Srinakharinwirot University)

Session G (Room 305)**Moderator: Kazuharu Owada (Ritsumeikan University)**

Time	Session	Presentation
16:30-16:55	G-1	Errors in English Argumentative Essays Written by Thai EFL Students: Interlanguage and Intralanguage Aspect Kamolphan Jangarun (Kasetsart University)
16:55-17:20	G-2	The “Alternative” English Teaching in China: Alternative Student-centered Approach and Quasi Communicative Teaching of English Igor Smerdov (Shijiazhuang University)
17:20-17:45	G-3	English for Specific Purpose (ESP) Speaking Assessment as an Attempt to Prepare University Graduates in Indonesia for ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) Job Market Hervina Zetka Harmyn (Yayasan Abdi Pendidikan Payakumbuh, Indonesia)

Poster Session I (Room 302)

Time	Session	Presentation
14:30-16:00	V-1	For EIL: Not for English as an International Language, But for English as an Intercultural Language (EiCL) Kang-Young Lee (Chungbuk National University)
	V-2	Setting Tangible Goals for Speech Presentation for Japanese EFL Learners Eiichiro Tsutsui (The University of Kitakyushu)
	V-3	Implementing Action Research to Improve Preparatory English Programs at University in Korea Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji University)
	V-4	Relationship Between Assessment and Interlocutors' Performance with Two Types of Oral Test Junko Negishi (Tsurumi University)
	V-5	How Are Affix Knowledge and Vocabulary Size Linked in L2 Learner's Active Vocabulary? Norifumi Ueda (Komazawa University) Eiichiro Tsutsui (The University of Kitakyushu) Kazuharu Owada (Ritsumeikan University) Michiko Nakano (Waseda University)
	V-6	A New Approach for ESL Teaching: Flip It! Youngjoo Bang (Myongji University)
	V-7	Teacher Tailors: Enhancing Language Learner Motivation Through Material Adaptation Seiko Oguri (Chubu University) David Pat Allen (Chubu University)

	Tetsuo Kato (Chubu University)
V-8	Development of Summary Test by Using the Comic in English for English Learner Toshihiko Takeuchi (Tokyo University of Social Welfare) Shogo Kato (Tokyo Woman's Christian University) Yuuki Kato (Sagami Women's University)
V-9	Individual Differences in Inverted Kanji Recognition by Learners of Japanese from Non-Chinese Character Culture Areas : Correct Rates, Eye Movements, and Spontaneous Air Writing Yoko Okita (Juntendo University)
V-10	A Study of CLIL Activities for Pharmacy Students: Language Use and Comprehension by ICT Materials Yuko Tominaga (Seisen Jogakuin College)

DAY 2 (Friday, August 18, 2017)

Session H (Room 303)

Moderator: Satoshi Yoshida (Waseda University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:00-9:25	H-1	Teachers' Reflective Practice in EFL Classrooms as Professional Development Diah Wulansari Hudaya (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)
9:25-9:50	H-2	The Effects of Using Corpora on Korean University Students' Writing Revisions to Improve Natural Use of English Lexical Collocations and their Attitudes Toward it Seungrae Lim (Ewha Womans University)
9:50-10:15	H-3	The Implementation of Scientific Approach in TEFL for Deaf or Hard-Hearing Learners: A Case Study at State School of Special Needs (SLBN Salatiga) Wisnu Wardani (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)

Session I (Room 304)

Moderator: Bohyon Chung (Hanbat National University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:00-9:25	I-1	Integration of Character Building in EFL Classroom of 2013 Curriculum Eko Noprianto (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)
9:25-9:50	I-2	Sociocultural Approaches to Japanese EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate Through Study-Abroad Experiences: A Qualitative Study Mari Suzuki (Waseda University) Ryo Moriya (Waseda University)
9:50-10:15	I-3	English Teachers' Perception on the Use of Authentic Assessment in 2013 Curriculum Moch Said Mardjuki (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)

Session J (Room 305)

Moderator: Junko Negishi (Tsurumi University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:25-9:50	J-2	Path Analysis of Foreign Language Learners' Attitudes to Language MOOCs, An Extension of Technology Acceptance Model Xiaoteng Yin (Binzhou Medical University/Chonbuk National University) Yu Wang (Binzhou Medical University/Chonbuk National University)
9:50-10:15	J-3	Indonesian Language As A Foreign Language: Student Perspective (A Preliminary Study) Nurul Khairani Abduh (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)

Session K (Room 304)**Moderator: Eunhee Han (Korea Nazarene University)**

Time	Session	Presentation
10:30-10:55	K-1	The Implementation of Scientific Approach for Teaching Recount Texts in Indonesian Curriculum (2013 Curriculum) Fatyana Rachma Saputri (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)
10:55-11:20	K-2	English Teachers' Perception on Learning Evaluation in 2013 Curriculum and School-Based Curriculum (SBC): Differences and Difficulties Rozi Setiawan (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)
11:20-11:45	K-3	Native English Teacher's Test Construction Practices and Their Perceptions Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji University)

Session L (Room 305)**Moderator: Hyeryeong Han (Seowon University)**

Time	Session	Presentation
10:30-10:55	L-1	English Teachers' View: Teachers' Role in Curriculum Development Asdar Muhammad Nur (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)
10:55-11:20	L-2	Exploring Current Japanese University Students' Preference on Use of Authentic Material and Methodology along with Reflective Teaching Practice Rie Harada (Rikkyo University) Corazon Talam Kato (Chubu Gakuin University)
11:20-11:45	L-3	Language Learning Strategies Used by Indonesian Non-English Major Students in Intensive English Course Irma Ratna Ningsih (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)

Session M (Room 303)**Moderator: Eun Mi Yang (Kkottongnae University)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:45-16:10	M-1	The Relevance of and Acceptability to Reasoning in L2 Argumentative Writings of Japanese High School Students: Assessing Content and Discourse Organization Kana Matsumura (Waseda University)
16:10-16:35	M-2	Improving Article Usage with Smartphone Flashcard Apps Gareth John Price (Asia University)
16:35-17:00	M-3	Exploring Teaching Beliefs on EFL Listening Huei-Chun Teng (National Taiwan University of Science and Technology)

Session N (Room 304)**Moderator: Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji University)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:45-16:10	N-1	A Study on Englishization of Higher Education in Taiwan: Institutional Discourses and the International Promotion of Higher Education Han-Yi Lin (National Taipei University of Technology)
16:10-16:35	N-2	The Effects of Approaches to Teaching and Learning on Students' Productive Skills in International Baccalaureate Language B (English) Yuya Akatsuka (Waseda University/Honjo Senior High School)
16:35-17:00	N-3	Statistical Learning and L2 Processing of English RCs On-Soon Lee (Dong-A University)

Session O (Room 305)**Moderator: Jayeon Lim (University of Seoul)**

Time	Session	Presentation
15:45-16:10	O-1	Praising Remarks in Compliments across Languages: The Multifaceted Aspects Sakulrat Worathumrong (Srinakharinwirot University) Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn University)
16:10-16:35	O-2	EFL Teaching Approach: World Café Activity Eunhee Han (Korea Nazarene University)
16:35-17:00	O-3	On the Relationships between Anxiety Factors and Reading Proficiency in English among Korean College Students Kyong-Chul Kim (Kunsan National University) Heysook Park (Kunsan National University)

Poster Session II (Room 302)

Time	Session	Presentation
15:30-17:00	V-11	A Study of the Differences in the Process of Learning the Usages of English Preposition "Of" among the Learners in Different L1s Kota Wachi (Shiba Junior/Senior High School)
	V-12	Pre-service Teachers' Reflective Practices in Teaching English to Elementary School Students Hyun Jin Kim (Cheongju National University of Education)
	V-13	Development of Digital Textbooks and an Advanced E-Learning System for In-Class English Language Teaching Guillermo Enriquez (Zoices Co., Ltd.) Satoshi Yoshida (Waseda University)
	V-14	Motivational Dynamics in an Online Cross-Cultural Discussion Program Satoshi Yoshida (Waseda University)

V-15	English Language Education Policies in Asian Context Bok-Myung Chang (Namseoul University)
V-16	The Awareness of Intercultural Competence of Senior High School Students in Japan Yuko Koyama (Bunkyo University) Takako Machimura (Bunkyo University) Kouichi Ano (Bunkyo University)
V-17	Japanese English Learners' Sensitivity to the Transitivity of English Verbs Presented in the Animation Context Kazuharu Owada (Ritsumeikan University) Eiichiro Tsutsui (The University of Kitakyushu) Norifumi Ueda (Komazawa University)
V-18	Gratitude Strategies for Korean Learners of English Based on Social Distance and Status Jaehwang Shim (Kookje University) Jooyun Kim (World Cyber College)
V-19	A Preliminary Study on the Linguistic Prejudice against Korean-Accented English Bohyon Chung (Hanbat National University) Hakmoon Lee (Hanbat National University)

Why Reading Matters?

Willy A Renandya

Nanyang Technological University, National University of Education, Singapore

Willy.renandya@nie.edu.sg

Abstract

The aim of my talk is to articulate more clearly some of the key differences between two major approaches to teaching reading: intensive reading (IR) and extensive reading (ER). These two approaches differ in terms of their theoretical orientations and pedagogical applications, and because of that, they produce differential effects on students' reading and literacy development. Although both forms of reading are important in facilitating the development of students' reading proficiency, L2 teachers are more familiar with intensive reading and are more willing to invest more time on intensive than extensive reading. In my presentation, I shall argue that language teachers should also familiarize themselves with the theoretical underpinnings of extensive reading and the practical aspects of implementing an extensive reading programme (e.g., how to choose interesting books for the library, how to build students' interest and motivation in reading and how to monitor and assess students' reading). Increased familiarity with the theory and practice of extensive reading might increase the likelihood that L2 teachers would implement extensive reading in their classroom, and in so doing, help improve their students' reading and also overall language proficiency.

Keywords

Extensive reading, intensive reading, L2 learning.

Introduction

Summarizing years of research about the impact of extensive reading on language learning, Bamford and Day (2004, p.1) conclude: "Good things happen to students who read a great deal in the foreign language. Research studies show they become better and more confident readers, they write better, their listening and speaking abilities improve, and their vocabularies become richer". However, despite strong research evidence for ER, it has not become an important part of a language programme. One of the reasons is that perhaps many continue to

believe that intensive reading alone can produce good and fluent readers and that extensive reading only plays a minor role in this process. I discuss below the key differences of IR and ER in terms of both theories and implementations and how each approach produces important but different learning outcomes.

1 Aims of learning

In IR, the aim of learning often includes teaching students skills and strategies to comprehend detailed contents of the text and to learn important language features the author uses to express meanings. The end goal is to help learners become skillful and strategic readers. ER on the other hand is about reading for general information and enjoyment. The goal is to develop strong interest in reading and in the process, build students' fluency and enjoyment of reading. This goal is premised on the idea that the best way to learn reading is by reading. So if students enjoy reading, they will read more and when they read more, they will become better at reading.

2 Reading materials

IR materials are usually short, roughly about one or two pages long. The contents are not always interesting, partly because the students have no say in the selection of the materials. More often than not, students find the topics of the school reading materials unappealing as they can't make personally meaningful connections to the contents. ER materials however tend to be longer (often a whole storybook) and more interesting in terms of contents. A variety of reading materials are made available and students get to choose the materials they really like to read. Because they get to choose what they want to read, they are more likely to read with greater enjoyment.

3 Task and Activities

In IR, teachers prepare a host of tasks and activities

at the before, during and after reading phases of the lesson. In the before-reading phase, teachers organize various activities to arouse students' interest and motivation and to get them to activate their schema by engaging them in prediction activities. In the during-reading phase, students are encouraged to take notes, make connections, visualize the text by building mental images, monitor and evaluate their comprehension. After they have finished reading, they check their comprehension by responding to teacher-prepared comprehension questions. This is often followed by some language-related practice such as vocabulary building or grammar exercises.

In contrast, the main activity in ER is reading. Students read their selections in any way they like. They can stop reading at any point and continue reading at a later time. They can also finish reading the whole book in a day (if it is a small book), a few days or a week (if the book is longer). When they finish reading their selections, they should select new books to read. The teacher's job is to encourage students to do more reading, and not give students 'work' to do. Some post reading activities can be organized, but these tend to be short and enjoyable tasks that do not take long to complete.

4 Assessment

In intensive reading, students are typically assessed in terms of their ability to respond to comprehension questions. Some of these questions assess lower level comprehension skills such as recalling information explicitly stated in the text and higher level comprehension skills such as inferring relationships of ideas not explicitly stated in the text and synthesizing information presented in the reading passage. Other questions are language-related and assess students' understanding of important words, phrases and sentences found in the text.

Since the aim of extensive reading is to nurture students' interest in reading so that they read more widely and enjoyably, the assessment usually focuses on students' level of reading motivation and the amount of reading they have done over a semester or whole academic year. Reading fluency is also the focus of assessment, i.e., the extent students can read a reading passage with sufficient comprehension and an acceptable reading rate.

5 Theory of learning

The two forms of reading are based on different learning theories. In IR, instruction follows the 'reading to learn' principle (Extensive Reading

Foundation, 2011). Students read a short text in order to learn about information of various types, including topics of general interest (e.g., human emotions, communications, relationships etc) or those related to their academic subjects (e.g., social studies, literature and science). The reading theory that is often used to explain the comprehension process is that of social constructivism (Maclaughlin, 2012). According to this theory, the construction of meaning involves students making use of their prior knowledge (schema) in order to make sense of what is contained in the text. Comprehension is facilitated when students are able to make meaningful connections between what they know and what is in the text. Deeper comprehension is also possible when students read closely and use appropriate comprehension strategies such as visualizing, questioning, connecting etc. The social element of the theory suggests that students can extend and deepen their comprehension by interacting with other students. The opportunity to listen to different views from others enables students to monitor, revise and also refine their comprehension.

The main theory behind ER can be traced to Krashen's comprehension hypothesis. According to this theory, "we acquire language and develop literacy when we understand messages, that is, when we understand what we hear and what we read, when we receive "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 2011, p. 81). Students become skillful readers when they read a lot of reading materials that are easy to comprehend. After a period of time (anywhere between 6 to 12 months), students begin to build up a stronger linguistic base which enables them to read more fluently and with greater comprehension. Their general and topical knowledge also increases, which in turns helps them comprehend texts more effectively. Research shows that sustained exposure to comprehensible reading materials improves not only students' reading proficiency (Jeon and Day, 2016; Nakanishi, 2015) but also overall language proficiency (Renandya & Jacobs, 2016).

6 Impact on language learning

It is clear from the discussions above that the two forms of reading are based on different theoretical orientations and are implemented differently in L2 reading classrooms. Because of this, their impact on language learning is likely to be different. A summary of the impact of intensive reading and extensive reading on students' reading and language development is presented below:

Intensive reading	Extensive reading
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students can use a variety of reading strategies to help them comprehend texts at a deeper level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students can become fluent readers, reading texts with ease and appropriate speed.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They can become efferent reader and are skillful at extracting information from texts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They can become aesthetic readers and find reading personally meaningful
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They become adept at answering comprehension questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Their self-concept and value about reading may increase, which in turn nourish their reading motivation.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They can perform well on traditional reading comprehension tests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They may develop a healthy and positive reading habit
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They may develop negative attitudes towards language learning and stop reading once they finish school. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They may become life-long readers who read not because they have to, but because they want to.

7 Conclusion

As can be seen, the two forms of reading are different in terms of the aims of learning, materials, pedagogy, theoretical orientations and learning outcomes. For a more balanced approach to teaching reading, we need to include both forms of reading in our language programmes.

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Neurolinguistic Perspectives on SLA

Harumi Oishi¹

¹Gifu Shotoku Gakuen University , Japan

oishi@gifu.shotoku.ac.jp

Abstract

Thanks to neuroscientific technology's rapid development, second language acquisition (SLA) research is obtaining new insights about the human brain. This paper describes two neurolinguistic perspectives on SLA: First, it discusses possibilities for investigating how SLA theory aligns with neuroscientific findings. Second, it discusses the brain's common area that operates first (L1) and second languages (L2), integrating SLA theory and brain data.

Keywords

SLA, Automatization, neurolinguistics, bilingual brain

Introduction

SLA research has suggested that we should incorporate neuroscientific perspectives into its theory. Thanks to brain imaging technology's rapid development in the 20th century, SLA research now employs such new methods to clarify language acquisition, processing, and production in the human brain.

This paper describes SLA theory from cognitive and psycholinguistic perspectives. Then, it discusses neuroscientific findings on SLA. Focused on automaticity in language processing, SLA models and brain mechanisms are integrated. Finally, the brain's area that operates L1 and L2 is discussed.

1 Background of neuroscience in SLA

Since the early 1990s, rapid development of functional neuro-imaging techniques has enabled researchers to visualize cortical activity during language performance tasks. One widely used technique is functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). Developed in Japan, the other technique is non-invasive optical topography, which allows us to measure performance of tasks simulating authentic language learning environments.

Such brain technology development helps SLA research progress in the field of automaticity in language processing as well as in brain mechanisms.

2 Automaticity in SLA

2.1 Acquisition, learning, and automaticity

Krashen (1982) distinguishes between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is a subconscious process that leads to fluency. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process of grasping linguistic rules and structures. Krashen claims that these processes are not totally intertwined.

In contrast, McLaughlin's (1987) Attention-Processing Model views SLA as skill acquisition. In learning and acquisition processes, learners' attention moves from control to automatic process as skills improve. SLA research on automaticity claims an initial learning stage in which task performance requires controlled processing and relatively large amounts of cognitive attention. As learners become more proficient in L2, attention becomes gradually less focused, and language processes become increasingly automatic. Generally, SLA research findings have suggested the importance of automatization and cognitive attention. The main features of automaticity are here considered faster performance, less cognitive demand, and higher accuracy. These findings could now be supported by neuroscientific data from neuroimaging techniques.

2.2 Automaticity and brain activity

Using the technique of optical topography, Oishi's study (2006) investigated brains of Japanese English learners to clarify optimal cortical activation patterns while they performed English reading and listening tasks. Participants included three levels of Japanese English learners: beginner, intermediate, and advanced. While they were performing language tasks, their brain activations were measured.

One of Oishi's (2006) results showed that as the level of English proficiency increased, the brain's blood flow increased to a certain point; after the proficiency level rose beyond a certain point, the brain's blood flow decreased. This result also found four brain activation patterns: 1) non-activation of beginner, 2) excessive activation of intermediate, 3) selective activation of advanced or intermediate, and 4) automatic activation of native speakers.

Findings imply that brain activation patterns gradually evolve from beginners to advanced learners, in a way similar to patterns of native English speakers. Findings also imply that brain activation patterns tend to change from controlled to automatic processing; this supports findings by McLaughlin et al (1987), while providing evidence against Krashen's distinction between learning and acquisition. Thus, this result provides opportunities for researchers to investigate effective teaching methods (Oishi et al, 2015).

3 Bilingual brain

Looking back at bilingual research, brain mechanisms for processing L1 and L2 have been discussed as in Cummins (2001). On the other hand, an fMRI study by Crinion et al. (2006) found a common area of functioning for the two languages. Here, we discuss the nonvisible brain structure in terms of SLA study and brain science.

3.1 Common structure: Iceberg theory

Cummins (2001) proposed a common underlying proficiency (CUP) model, stating aspects of a bilingual's proficiency in L1 and L2 as common or interdependent between the two languages. The CUP model is also illustrated metaphorically as an iceberg. In the iceberg model, complete bilinguals have two equally visible peaks above the sea. These peaks, however, are only "the tip of the iceberg."

What is below the surface is more important for acquiring languages than the iceberg's tip: cognitive academic language proficiency. In this model's depths, we function the higher skills such as thinking skills of inferences, analysis, synthesis, integration, reasoning, generalizing, and transferring.

Surface features of L1 and L2 are those that have become relatively automatized or were less cognitively demanding. On the other hand, underlying proficiency is involved in cognitively demanding tasks. Although languages' surface aspects are separated for L1 and L2, common underlying cognitive/academic proficiency lies across the two languages, but "below sea level" in the iceberg model.

3.2 Common brain area: Left caudate

In SLA research, as mentioned previously, Cummins (2001) claims common underlying proficiency that controls conceptual knowledge of two languages. A similar finding is reported in brain science research. Crinion et al. (2006) investigated German-English and Japanese-English bilinguals. Participants looked at pairs of words while undergoing brain scans, either positron emission tomography (PET) or fMRI. Results suggest that the left caudate monitors the language in use and increases its activation when a switch occurs between L1 and L2. This shows that left caudate is sending a signal to switch two languages. Further studies by other researchers have been conducted to clarify the relationship between left caudate and language.

4 Conclusion

This paper presents new perspectives on SLA. With rapid development of brain measuring technology, SLA studies have been able to find new evidence in brain science as well as in cognitive and psychological approaches. Evidence by Oishi supports findings by McLaughlin and others. Other evidence from bilingual research clarifies a common brain structure between L1 and L2. These new neuroscientific perspectives shed light on future SLA research, with the possibility of extending instructional methods in the near future.

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Teacher Training in the Asian Context – Japan

Kouichi Ano

Bunkyo University

k-ano@shonan.bunkyo.ac.jp

Abstract

The English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization was proposed by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in 2014, and the Course of Study for elementary schools and junior high schools was revised in 2017. To carry out them, the core curriculums for English teacher education and training had been discussed for the past two years and were presented in 2017.

Keywords

English education reform plan, Course of Study, teacher education, teacher training, core curriculum

Introduction

Though Japanese people spend vast amount of time and energy on English study, it is said that the English proficiency level of Japanese people is rather low compared with that of people in other Asian countries. In order to achieve top-level English proficiency in Asia, MEXT proposed the English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization in 2014. The Course of Study for elementary schools and junior high schools was revised in 2017 in accordance with the plan, and English education in Japan will drastically change with an eye to the year 2020 when the Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games will be held. In order to carry out the reform plan, qualities required for teachers must be improved. Therefore, the core curriculums for English teacher education and training had been discussed for the past two years and they were presented in 2017.

1 English education reform

1.1 Elementary school

In Japan, English education at elementary schools starts in the fifth grade as foreign language activities once a week now. However, in 2020, elementary school students are going to start their English study in their third grade, and they will

continue foreign language activities once a week in their fourth grade. The classes will be taught by homeroom teachers. Only two English skills, listening and speaking (interaction and production), will be taught in the classes.

In the fifth and sixth grades, students are going to study English as a subject, where students use authorized textbooks and evaluation on their performance will be decided. In addition to homeroom teachers, assistant native language teachers, or Japanese teachers who have English teacher's license for junior high school teach English twice a week.

1.2 Junior and senior high school

Even though classes of foreign language activities, where the objective is to familiarize students with English, have been instructed at elementary school, English study is considered to begin at junior high school in the present situation.

MEXT (2014) showed the objective for junior high school: "Nurture the ability to understand familiar topics, carry out simple information exchanges and describe familiar matters in English." The new Course of Study for junior high schools will be implemented in 2021 and English classes should be conducted in English.

The new Course of Study for senior high schools is going to be presented at the end of 2017 academic year and will be implemented in 2022. The objective is to "nurture the ability to understand abstract contents for a wide range of topics and the ability to fluently communicate with English speaking persons." (MEXT, 2014) Students will be involved in high-level language activities such as presentations, debates or negotiations.

2 Core curriculums

2.1 Outline

In accordance with English education reform plan, the new system of English teacher

education at college and English teacher training is inevitable. Especially, most teachers at elementary schools do not have English teacher's license and have not had special training for teaching English. To develop teaching abilities of teachers, core curriculums of both teacher education and teacher training have been discussed for two years and they were shown in March 2017.

2.2 Teacher education at college

2.2.1 Elementary School

All the following items must be included in elementary school teacher education courses at college. The first category is fundamental knowledge and skills for teaching foreign languages. It includes the contents such as Course of Study, teaching materials, cooperation between elementary school and junior/senior high school, the role of elementary school English, and coping with diversities of students and schools.

Knowledge of second language acquisition for children must be included too: language acquisition through using the target language, comprehension process through oral input, communicating with each other thinking about the interlocutor and situation, process from input to output and sound to letters, or noticing of some aspects of languages through Japanese language education.

Teaching skills must be taught: talking to students in English, eliciting and interacting with students, introducing letters, and starting reading and writing activities.

Classroom management is also included: selecting topics, study of teaching materials, setting the goals and making teaching plans, team-teaching with assistant language teachers, making use of ICT, evaluating students' performance.

As for English abilities and knowledge for teaching, the first category is English abilities for teaching: listening, speaking (interaction, production), reading, and writing. The second category is background knowledge of English: fundamental knowledge about English (phonetics, vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar, orthography), knowledge about second language acquisition, children's literature (picture books, songs and poems), cross-cultural understanding.

2.2.2 Junior and senior high school

As for the core curriculum for junior and senior high schools, most items for elementary

schools are included. It also has specific items for secondary schools such as four skills integrated instruction, teaching grammar for communication, English history, or English as an international language. Some knowledge about linguistics, literature, and intercultural understanding is included.

2.3 Teacher Training

2.3.1 Elementary School

Since many elementary school teachers have little experience of teaching English and have not had enough training so far, organized teacher training of teaching English is important before they start teaching English as a subject in 2020. In the core curriculum for elementary school teacher training, not only teaching methodology but also workshop to improve their English skills are included.

2.3.2 Junior and senior high school

Teacher trainings for junior and senior high school English teachers have been conducted mainly by board of education in each prefecture and in each city or town. The contents of seminar or workshop are also decided by the board of education, so they differ from place to place.

In the core curriculum for junior and senior high school teachers, many items of teaching skills, class management, special knowledge for teaching English are presented. Each item is listed in three stages depending on their teaching experience (1-3 years, 4-9 years, 10 years-). Each board of education is supposed to make plans of their teacher training seminar depending on the core curriculum.

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Language Teacher Education In Singapore

Willy A Renandya

Nanyang Technological University, National University of Education, Singapore

Willy.renandya@nie.edu.sg

Abstract

In this symposium, I describe the language teacher education system in Singapore. I first begin by discussing the sociolinguistic context of the country and how it helps shape its national language policy. I then present an overview of the language teacher education programmes, focusing on both initial pre service teacher education offered by the National Institute of Education and in service professional development organized by several educational institutions. Key elements of Singapore's pre service and in service teacher education programmes will be highlighted and, where relevant, compared with other similar programmes in other countries. I conclude by discussing some critical issues that deserve the attention of policy makers, teacher educators and language teachers.

Keywords

Teacher education, initial English language teacher education and professional development.

Introduction

Singapore is a small city state with a resident population of about four million people comprising of four major ethnic groups (Singapore Department of Statistics, 2015). The Chinese are the largest ethnic group (74.3 %), followed by the Malays (13.3%), the Indians (9.1%) and a smaller percentage of other ethnic groups (3.2%). There are four official languages in Singapore: English, Mandarin, Malay and Tamil, but with English as the major means of communication in official, educational and social contexts. At all levels of education, from primary to university levels, English is the medium of instruction, i.e., all academic subjects, including English, are taught in English. Because of this, the overall level of proficiency among the educated segment of the population is generally considered very high.

1 National language education policy

Singapore adopts a unique bilingual education policy

in order to serve the economic and socio cultural needs of the country. Given the importance of English in international commerce and the development of science and technology, English is given a prominent status in the country. It is the most important language of communication in nearly all public sectors. In the education sector, it is the sole medium of instruction in schools and universities. But the government is also mindful of the importance of maintaining the native languages of its population, which serve to preserve local cultures and values. Because of this, the goal of the national language policy is to help Singaporeans become fluent in two languages: English and at least one of the heritage languages (locally called mother tongue languages). Thus a Chinese Singaporean is expected to be proficient in English and Mandarin and a Malay Singaporean should speak English and Malay fluently.

2 Initial teacher education

The national education system in Singapore is centralized where the country adopts common curricula, teaching methods and assessment procedures. The centralized system is also reflected in the initial teacher education programme. The three key stakeholders, the MOE, the National Institute of Education (NIE, the only teacher education institution in Singapore) and the schools forge a close tripartite working relationship. The Ministry selects the best teacher candidates who then get sent to NIE for pre service training. Upon completion of their training, they get posted to schools by the Ministry. The three parties work closely together in the planning, design, and implementation of the pre service curriculum in order to ensure that the national goal of producing effective English language teachers is achieved.

The curriculum structure for the initial language teacher education programme is fairly standard and includes courses that equip teacher candidates with general educational theories and principles (e.g., educational psychology), knowledge of the subject matters (e.g., linguistics, grammar), content specific pedagogical knowledge and skills (how to teach grammar, reading etc), communication skills and

practicum. For student teachers who aspire to teach at the primary school level, the curriculum includes a heavy component on early literacy development using a hybrid of pedagogical approaches that integrate reading and listening with language focused activities. This programme is locally called STELLAR and has proved quite successful in raising the literacy level of young children (Lim, Hanington & Renandya, 2017).

Unlike in some non English speaking countries where initial teacher education includes a heavy language proficiency components, in Singapore student teachers take only a few language courses. The focus of the language provision however is not on proficiency development but on how to use language for job related communication skills (e.g., how to write an effective email to parents). This is because our student teachers are already fluent users of English, but it is felt that they still need to improve on their ability to use English more appropriately for job specific purposes.

The practicum is an important element of the pre service programme. In the bachelor's programme, student teachers are given ample opportunity to observe and do supervised teaching practicum. In the first year, they do a 1-week school observation, in the second year, they do, a 5-week teacher assistantship (either in local schools or overseas). The real practicum (i.e., teaching practice) is done in year 3 (5weeks) and in year 4 (10 weeks).

3 Teacher professional development

Teacher professional development in Singapore is systematic and on going. All teachers in Singapore, including English teachers, are encouraged to regularly attend professional development courses. Each teacher is entitled to attend up to 100 hours of professional development activities, fully sponsored by the Ministry. Professional development courses are offered by MOE linked teacher development centres (e.g., AST and ELIS) or external educational institutions (e.g., RELC and British Council). The Academy of Singapore Teachers (AST) for example offers various teacher development options including a mentoring programme for new teachers, teacher development courses and teacher work attachment (Silver & Bokhorst Heng, in prep).

Teachers also have the option to pursue further education as part of their professional development. They may return to NIE for their masters' studies or choose to do their higher degree studies overseas, with or without funding from the Ministry.

4 Issues and challenges

The general consensus is that the language education system in Singapore is one of the best in the world. This is attested by the consistently superior

performance of Singapore students in international assessment exercises such as (PISA and PIRLS). In the international reading test for example Grade 4 students ranked 4th among all countries in PIRLS, and topped the list among those countries that took the test in English (Silver & Bokhorst Heng, in prep). There are however some important issues and challenges that need to be addressed by stakeholders. I discuss two below.

The first concerns the issue of global vs local in terms of language use. The official position of the Ministry is that teachers should use the standard variety of English in schools. While the majority seem to be comfortable using this variety for teaching, some feel that the informal variety (locally known as Singlish does have a place and should not be allowed to be used for pedagogical purposes (Rubdy, 2008). However to what extent teachers can use this variety in the classroom continues to be a point of contention. This point will be expanded on during my presentation.

The second relates to the tension between continuity and innovation. Innovation is good as it injects new ideas and insights from best practices and can further improve or even transform the system to reflect the changing needs of the population. However innovation has the potential to create disequilibrium which may or may not be welcome by teachers and school leaders. Since the existing system seems to work very well, both teachers and administrators may prefer continuity over innovation.

To conclude, while language teacher education in Singapore has served the country well, the key stakeholders (e.g., policy makers, teacher educators, classroom teachers and school administrators) need to continue to work closely together to help students achieve the desired goals of language education in the country.

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Educating English Teachers in South Korea: Teacher Training and Certification

Hikyoung Lee

Korea University

hleeku@korea.ac.kr

Abstract

This presentation for the “Teacher Training in the Asian Context” symposium examines English teacher education for the primary, secondary, and tertiary education levels in South Korea. An overview of pre-service and in-service teacher training and certification is given for the primary and secondary education levels. For the tertiary level, educational background requirements, hiring criteria, and other factors are discussed.

Keywords

teacher education, English teachers in Korea, teacher training, teacher certification

Introduction

Teacher education takes on various forms according to different contexts. In South Korea (hereafter, Korea), the bulk of teacher training is carried out at the undergraduate level as a bachelor’s degree is a basic requirement for a teacher.¹ Teachers can receive alternative training through graduate schools of education and short, non-degree programs as well. In addition, for public school, teachers must become certified through a national exam system. For the tertiary level, English instructors usually have a background in an English or education related major and a master’s degree.

This presentation will provide an overview of English teacher education and teacher qualifications in Korea.

1 Pre-service teacher training

Pre-service teacher training occurs through multiple pathways which are discussed in this section.

¹ The term “teacher” will refer to a teacher who teaches at the primary and secondary school levels while “instructor” or “professor” is used to indicate teachers at the tertiary school level.

1.1 B.A. in English education

In Korea, as of 2017, there are 49 undergraduate schools of education consisting of different disciplines (Higher Education in Korea, 2017). Of the 49 schools, there are 53 independent English education departments. Of the 53, 8 deal with English at the primary level. Primary English teachers must have an undergraduate degree from a specialized teachers college. The discrepancy in the number of schools and departments arises because some universities such as Kyungnam University and Gongju University of Education have multiple departments which deal with English education at different levels (Higher Education in Korea, 2017).

Graduates obtain a regular teacher certificate, grade 2 which can be upgraded to grade 1 after three years of experience and 15 hours of in-service training (NCEE).

1.2 M.A. in English education

As of 2017, there are 125 graduate schools of education of which there are 75 English education related departments (Higher Education in Korea, 2017). Of the 75, 21 deal with primary level English.

If the student’s undergraduate major and major in the graduate school of education are congruent then upon graduation a regular teacher certificate grade 2 can be obtained. Already certified teachers utilize an M.A. for promotion prospects.

2 Non-college of education departments

Pre-service teacher education is also carried out in non- English education departments.

An example is K University’s Department of English Language & Literature (KU-ELL). For a select number of students certification can be obtained by qualifying for teacher certification (GPA 50%, interview 50%) and completing the following requirements: 1) 50 credit units in major including 7 basic education-related courses

designated in the department and 3 courses in education; 2) 22 credit units of general teacher training courses; 3) 2.31 or above GPA in major and 2.75 or above for teacher training courses; 4) passing of a competence and personality test; and 5) cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) and first aid certification.

3 Teacher certification

To become a public school teacher, the Ministry of Education offers a Teacher Employment Test (TET). The test differs according to the level and metropolitan and provincial offices of where the teacher will be employed. The number of teachers is selected according to the region's needs.

The TET for secondary teachers consists of two rounds of exams (KICE). The first round is a test on pedagogy (20%) and major (80%) and is administered by the Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE). The second round consists of an intensive interview, drafting a lesson plan, and a teaching demonstration and is administered by the respective metropolitan and provincial offices.

4 In-service teacher training

Professional development programs are run by the government (SETI, 2017). General as well as special training in, for example, educational technology is offered. Teachers who complete in-service teacher training have advantages in promotion and other career opportunities such as becoming a vice-principal or principal (NCEE).

Intensive training programs have been offered since 2003 of which the government outsources to various organizations (Hong & Min, 2017). One feature of in-service training is fostering Teaching English in English (TEE) skills.

5 Tertiary level English instructors

English instructors at the tertiary level usually teach compulsory and elective courses for English. The instructors possess a B.A. in either an English or education related major. At the tertiary level, instructors are divided into Korean nationals (non-native English speakers) and native English speaking foreigners.

To take an example of K University in Korea, there are a total of 29 Korean and 40 native English instructors. The 40 foreigners all possess a master's degree which includes but is not limited to TESOL or education, although TESOL backgrounds are preferred. The native English instructors teach the university's compulsory academic English course for freshmen while the Koreans teach elective general education English courses. These consist of courses mainly focused on reading skills.

6 Conclusion

This presentation attempts to provide an overview of English teacher education in Korea. Teacher training and certification is continuously changing and evolving along with the national English curriculum of Korea.

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The Relationship between Writing Tasks of Textbooks and Can-Do Lists

Yoko Suganuma Oi

Waseda University

yokosuganuma@suou.waseda.jp

Abstract

The present study aims to investigate 1) Do writing tasks in textbooks belong to A (Basic user) level of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)?, 2) Are there any differences of difficulty between writing tasks, even if tasks are categorized as the same A level? One hundred writing tasks in seven Japanese authorized textbooks were examined and analyzed to see what kinds of tasks there were in terms of CEFR can-do lists. Then, six writing tasks were chosen to investigate the item difficulty of each task. One hundred fifty-eight Japanese senior high school students and three English teachers participated in the experiment. It is found that writing self-introduction is more difficult than the other writing tasks. More than half of the writing tasks in the textbooks are categorized as writing about “myself” rather than writing about “others”. It is also found that there are fewer argumentative writing tasks in the textbooks.

Keywords

CEFR writing tasks textbooks Rash Model

Introduction

The CEFR describes language learners’ ability at six reference levels. About eighty percent of Japanese English learners are told to be A1 (Breakthrough) level (Koike, 2009). However, the relationship between writing tasks in textbooks for Japanese high school students and CEFR can-do lists has not been well surveyed in terms of the difficulty of writing tasks. If the difficulty of writing tasks are clarified in terms of CEFR can-do lists, it would help teachers to choose writing tasks and organize a writing class.

1 Previous studies

The present study follows the definition of “task” of Ellis (2003, p.16), “A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world.

Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes”. It is because CEFR takes the action-oriented approach, in which language activity is the observable performance on tasks (a real-world task or a classroom task). Regarding the difference between exercises and tasks, “task” is an activity to practice an integrated skills and more likely to be provided through “task” than through exercises.

2 Research questions

The following two research questions are proposed to see the relationship between the item difficulty of writing tasks in textbooks and CEFR;

1. Do writing tasks in textbooks belong to A level of CEFR?
2. Are there any differences of the item difficulty between writing tasks, even if tasks are categorized as the same A level?

3 Method

Three preliminary studies were conducted to prepare for the main study which aims to examine the item difficulty of writing tasks, using Rash Model. In the first preliminary study, two Japanese English teachers examined to what extent there are A level of CEFR in seven government authorized textbooks. And then, six writing tasks were selected in terms of the most frequent appearance in textbooks. In the third preliminary study, the rubric to evaluate English compositions was developed by eleven Japanese English teachers. In the main study, one-hundred fifty-eight Japanese high school students aged from sixteen to seventeen years old wrote six English compositions for twenty minutes without dictionaries for consecutive ten days. One Japanese and two native English teachers evaluated students’ English compositions. The results were analyzed, using Rash Model to see the item difficulty of writing tasks in textbooks.

4 Results

4.1 Preliminary studies

The first preliminary study found that fifty-five percent of writing tasks in textbooks aim to describe oneself, and fourteen percent tasks ask students to write about others. Most of the tasks are narrative, whereas the number of argumentative ones is just one percent. However, it is possible for students to show writing proficiency from A1 to C2 level in these tasks, because the degree of perfection could be different depending on writers' proficiency. Based on the first results, the most frequent appeared six tasks were chosen from textbooks: 1) Self-introduction, 2) Traveling, 3) Interests, 4) Food, 5) Schedule, and 6) My Future. Finally, eleven well-experienced Japanese English teachers discussed and developed writing assessment rubric, because the rubric of six tests such as TOEFL iBT and IELTS do not well adjust themselves to the tasks of textbooks. As a result of the discussion, "task fulfillment", "accuracy", and "organization" were assessed, using a four point Likert Scale from "good" to "poor".

4.2 The results of the main study

English compositions of six English writing tasks were evaluated by three teachers. Pearson's correlation coefficient between three teachers was positively related during all of the sessions.

Infit and outfit indicate the degree of misfit of observations to the Rasch modeled expectations. Values in the range of approximately .75 to 1.3 are acceptable (McNamara, 1996, p.173). Table 1 and 2 present Rasch modeled summary and fit statistics. Infit and outfit MNSQ of students' proficiency are 1.01 and .96. On the other hand, infit and outfit of item difficulty show 1.00 and 1.02. Therefore, the analysis data well fit to the Rasch model.

Table 1. Rasch modeled Summary and Fit Statistics

INPUT: 158 Person 18 Item REPORTED: 158 Person 18 Item 2 CATS WINSTEPS 3.92.1

SUMMARY OF 158 MEASURED Person							
	TOTAL SCORE	COUNT	MEASURE	MODEL ERROR	INFIT MNSQ ZSTD	OUTFIT MNSQ ZSTD	
MEAN	7.3	18.0	44.33	6.45	1.01	.96	-.1
S.D.	2.2	0	8.62	1.36	.39	1.2	.56
MAX.	11	18	56.87	8.22	2.39	3.0	2.79
MIN.	0	18	-.27	5.63	.54	-1.4	-.18
REAL RMSE 6.59 TRUE SD 5.55 SEPARATION .84 Person RELIABILITY .41							
MODEL RMSE 6.17 TRUE SD 6.01 SEPARATION .97 Person RELIABILITY .49							
S.E. OF Person MEAN = .69							

Person RAW SCORE-TO-MEASURE CORRELATION = .98 CRONBACH ALPHA Person RAW SCORE "TEST" RELIABILITY = .37 SEM=1.74

Table 2. Rasch modeled Summary and Fit Statistics

SUMMARY OF 6 MEASURED Item						
	TOTAL SCORE	COUNT	MEASURE	MODEL ERROR	INFIT MNSQ ZSTD	OUTFIT MNSQ ZSTD
MEAN	64.2	158.0	50.00	2.16	1.00	.96
S.D.	41.0	0	14.74	.49	.09	1.1
MAX.	129	158	76.14	3.66	1.20	3.3
MIN.	8	158	27.50	1.70	.88	.74
REAL RMSE 2.21 TRUE SD 14.58 SEPARATION 6.59 Item RELIABILITY .98 MODEL RMSE 2.18 TRUE SD 14.58 SEPARATION 6.68						
Item RELIABILITY .98 S.E. OF Person MEAN = 3.58 Item RAW SCORE-TO-MEASURE CORRELATION = -.99						

Figure 1 presents the item difficulty of six

writing tasks. The most difficult task is "Self-introduction", the second difficult one is "Traveling", the third is "Interests", the fourth is "Food", the fifth is "Schedule", and the easiest one is "My Future". The item difficulty of "Self-introduction" is outstandingly higher than the other tasks.

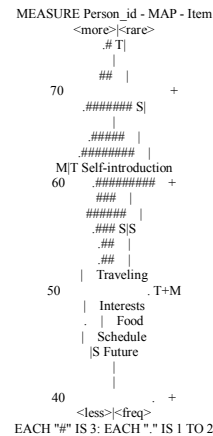


Figure 1. Input:158 Person_id 6 Item Reported: Item 10 CATS WINSTEPS 3.92.1

5 Discussion and conclusion

Writing tasks in textbooks are mostly categorized into A level of CEFR, however, it could be changed into higher than A level tasks by other conditions such as the writing proficiency of writers and the way to display tasks by teachers. That is, high proficient writers could write a coherent text as well as write cohesive sentence. It is also found that more than half of the tasks aims to describe themselves and familiar topics, not describe others. Most of the tasks are narrative, not argumentative tasks.

The Item difficulty of writing tasks is different even if more than half of the tasks are classified into A level of CEFR. Especially, a writing task, "Self-introduction" was analyzed as the most difficult writing task of all, yet students have experienced "Self-introduction" in both Japanese and English. The item difficulty is caused by the difficulty to coherently link ideas in a writing text, using discourse markers, compared to the other tasks. Regarding "Self-introduction", students need to think what should be focused on when they introduce themselves. Therefore, teachers are expected to organize writing tasks even if tasks are all categorized into A level of CEFR, because the most difficult task is usually edited as the first task in textbooks.

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A Cross-cultural and Interlanguage studies on Refusals by Thai KSL and KFL learners

Nattapra Wongsittikan and Seok-Hoon You

Korea University

nattapra@korea.ac.kr, syou@korea.ac.kr

Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the refusal productions by Thai learners of Korean in second language and foreign language environment to see how amount of target language exposure influences the learners' pragmatic knowledge. Five sample groups were recruited for this study: 70 native Korean (KNS); 70 native Thai speakers (TNS); 30 Thai learners of Korean as a second language (KSL); 30 Thai learners of Korean as a foreign language (KFL-major) and 30 Thai learners of Korean as a foreign language (KFL-minor). Korean language exposure questionnaire and 12-situation written discourse completion task were used to collect the data. The data from the native Korean and the Thai speakers were used as the baseline of the analysis. The results show that overall both power and social distance have effect on the realization of refusals. The refusals by KFL groups deviated more from the Korean norm than those by the KSL did, which suggests learning environment and amount of language exposure influence the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge.

Keywords

Interlanguage pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, speech act, refusal, Korean as a second language, Korean as a foreign language

Introduction

The effect of language proficiency and length of residence in the target language countries on the learning of L2 pragmatics has been widely investigated. Previous studies have shown that exposure to the target language environment influences learners' acquisition of pragmatic knowledge. Learners of a language in foreign language environments were less aware of the pragmatic knowledge of the target language (Schauer, 2006) and their levels of language proficiency could not necessarily convey the equal level of pragmatic competence (이해영, 2010). In this relation, this study examined the pragmatic knowledge of Thai learners of Korean in different learning environments through their productions of refusal speech act. This was to see if there is an effect of the amount of language exposure on the acquisition of pragmatic competence of the learners.

1 Method

1.1 Sample Groups

There are 5 sample groups in this study – 2 native speaker groups and 3 learner groups. Each native speaker groups

consists of 70 native Korean (KNS) and 70 native Thai speakers (TNS). The 3 learner groups consist of 30 Thai university students in South Korea (Korean as a second language environment, KSL), 30 Thai university students who majored in Korean (Korean as a foreign language, KFL-major) and Thai university students who minored in Korean (Korean as a foreign language, KFL-minor).

1.2 Research material and procedure

Two types of questionnaires were used to collect the data. Korean language exposure questionnaire was used to acquire learners' background data in Korean language education and their amount of exposure to Korean language. 12-situation written discourse completion task (WDCT) was used to elicit refusals to request and invitation speech acts. The variables are power (higher, equal, lower) and social distance (close and distant). The data was collected and coded into categories and analyzed according to the eliciting speech acts and social variables in terms of overall strategies, types of strategies used in performing refusal (based on Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990) and in terms of politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1978).

2 Results and Discussion

2.1 Number of strategies used for refusals

In general, the KNS were quite verbose in their responses. Their refusals were the most lengthy among the five groups of participants in almost every situation, followed by the KSL. The KSL refusals were mostly the longest among the three learner groups. The TNS and the KFL-minor groups were rather concise in their answers. It is observed that refusals were relatively longer when all groups of participants interacted with interlocutors of higher social power. The more elaborated answers indicate the burden speakers felt and their efforts in mitigating their refusals.

2.2 Characteristic of KNS and TNS refusals

Overall, giving reasons and apology were the most common strategies in performing refusals, with some distinctive strategies unique to the different eliciting speech acts – request and invitation.

In refusing requests from lower- and equal-status interlocutors, reasons and apology were the most used strategies by both KNS and TNS, but when they are close, speakers seemed not to completely refuse. An 'alternative'

choice was usually employed as a way to express their willingness to fulfill the request of the interlocutors which can be seen as their positive politeness strategy.

In refusing invitations from lower- and equal-status interlocutors, both native groups used ‘promise’ in addition to the two most common strategies. Promise can be considered as a future acceptance to compensate the refusal and redress hearer’s positive face. The KNS also use ‘good wish’ to end the turn to express their well-wishing, for example ‘*jeomsim masitge meogeo*’ meaning ‘Enjoy your lunch’.

When refusing to speakers from higher status, both KNS and TNS addressed their hearers with their titles. Giving deference to hearers indicates their awareness of status differences as hierarchy which is an important concept in both Korean and Thai cultures. The strategy unique to KNS especially when refusing to higher-status distant interlocutors, is ‘showing humbleness’, such as ‘*da-eume dasi bulreo jusimyeon gamsahagessemnida*’ meaning ‘I would be thankful if you invite me again next time.’ (카나코, 2012). This emphasizes the perception of power in Korea society as speaker tried to maintain a good relationship with the professor and at the same time tried to stay modest and not assume his generosity. On the other hand, the TNS employed ‘let off the hook’ the most when turning down invitation from a professor. ‘*mai penrai (kha/khrap)* ‘It’s not substantial’. This expression has several meanings and is used widely in different contexts. In refusing, the speakers may use it to tell the interlocutor not to worry about him (Panpothong & Phakdeephassook, 2014) which can be seen as to satisfy the speaker’s negative face want. Notably, TNS responses to higher-power interlocutors were quite short and distant (Panpothong, 2001) when compared to those of KNS which may indicate the difference in the perception of teachers or professors between the Thais and Koreans.

2.3 Refusals by learners of Korean

2.3.1 Learning environment

Table 1. Amount of Language exposure

Learner groups	Study Korean	Live in Korea	Act. using Korean
KSL	20-25hrs /w for 1 yr	1.3 - 4 yrs (1-3 yrs in uni)	100 hrs/w
KFL - major	10-15hrs /w for 3-4yrs	30% - short courses.	88 hrs/w
KFL- minor	3-6 hrs/w for 2.6-4yrs	Travelled to Korea	42 hrs/w

2.3.2 Refusal strategies

Generally, the most common strategies employed in each situation were similar to those of the KNS. Among the learner groups, the KSL’s responses and types of strategies used were the closest to those of KNS, followed by KFL-major and KFL-minor respectively. Learner groups seemed to be familiar with using apology and reason in refusals as the two strategies were applied in most of the situations, especially by the KFL-minor. All the learner groups seemed to use less positive politeness

strategies such as promise, good wish, and gratitude in their refusals.

Responses from the KFL-minor were quite short using formulaic or easy expressions such as ‘*mianhaeyo gwaje ttaemune sigani eopseoyo*’ meaning ‘I’m sorry. Because of homework, I don’t have time.’. From this example, it should be pointed out that almost half of the apology done by the KFL-minor in refusing to interlocutors of higher status used the verb ‘*mianhata*’, a less formal word of ‘sorry’, which were not used by the KNS when refusing to someone superior. The lack of exposure to the target language and culture may account for the bluntness of their refusals. In addition, contrasting to the native speaker groups’ use of specific reason, all the three learner groups refused to requests from interlocutors of higher power by using ‘unspecific reason’ the most. ‘I’m busy.’ or ‘I don’t have time.’ are categorized as unspecific reasons which are vague and can be seen as inappropriate when used with interlocutors of higher social status.

3 Conclusion

Both power and social distance play an important role in determining how refusals should be performed. Although the most common strategies in performing refusals are quite universal, refusals by Thais and Koreans differ greatly in details. Koreans’ high value on collectivism may account for the high occurrence of positive politeness strategies when compared to those of the TNS and of the learner groups. The refusals by the KFL groups deviated more from the Korean norm than those by the KSL, which suggests learning environment and amount of language exposure influence the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge (Matsumura, 2003).

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The Expected Oral Proficiency Level for Japan's Secondary School English Teachers

Keiso Tatsukawa

Institute for Foreign Language Research and Education, Hiroshima University

tatsukawa@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

Abstract

This paper aims to clarify the expected oral proficiency level for secondary school English teachers in Japan. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) encourages public secondary school English teachers to reach a threshold level of Pre-1st Grade or 1st Grade of Eiken (an English proficiency test). In this paper, a brief history of Eiken is reported, and the proficiency level of Pre-1st Grade and the test contents are summarized. Then, features of picture cards and questions used for the second-stage interviews from 2007 through 2015 are analyzed: (1) a series of four pictures for narration performance, and (2) four questions to be asked afterwards. Some unique linguistic features are found as well as popular topics or subjects. Also, interview questions have several featured sentence patterns and many basic-level words, as well as topic-related vocabulary items. This research will be of some help for understanding the threshold level for English teachers in Japan.

Keywords

teacher's threshold oral proficiency, interview exam, language education policy

Introduction

Threshold levels expected for English teachers vary from nation to nation. In Japan, MEXT has encouraged public secondary school English teachers to reach a threshold level of Pre-1st Grade or 1st Grade of Eiken by 2017; more than 50% of junior high and 75% of senior high English teachers should attain this level. However, as of 2015, only 28.8% of junior high school teachers and 55.4% of senior high teachers have met the target. When we examine the interview exams for the grade, several specific features are found in the topics and

question items. In this paper, these features of picture cards and their questions for the second-stage interviews from 2007 through 2015 are reported.

1 Theoretical background

1.1 Eiken exam

The Eiken Foundation of Japan (formerly STEP, the Society for Testing English Proficiency, Inc.), or Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai, is a public-interest incorporated foundation established in 1963 and based in Tokyo. It produces and administers English-proficiency tests with the backing of MEXT and in cooperation with prefectural and local boards of education, public and private schools, and other leading testing bodies. Therefore, pupils and students are often encouraged to take Eiken English-proficiency tests, and English teachers of public secondary schools are expected to reach a threshold level of Pre-1st Grade or 1st Grade.

1.2 Eiken pre-1st grade exam

There are seven levels in Eiken with 1st Grade the highest. Pre-1st Grade is the second highest proficiency level. The Eiken HP site explains:

Grade Pre-1 requires solid English skills at a level just below Grade 1, the final goal for EIKEN examinees ... Examinees are expected to be able to understand and use the English necessary to participate in social, professional, and educational situations. In addition to being useful for applying to post-secondary academic institutions and obtaining academic credits, Grade Pre-1 certification has been set as a benchmark for English instructors by the Japanese MEXT, ... The examination is divided into two parts, Stage 1 (a written examination including a listening section) and Stage 2 (an interview-format speaking test).

2 The study

Features of picture cards used for the second-stage interviews from 2007 through 2015 (academic years) were analyzed. There were 54 picture cards over the nine years and they had 216 question items in total.

2.1 Picture cards

Each picture card has a series of four pictures as well as a five-line instruction. The following is the instruction for Picture Card A used in February 2010:

You have **one minute** to prepare.

This is a story about a woman who wanted to stop people from smoking on the street.

You have **two minutes** to narrate the story.

Your story should begin with the following sentence:

One day, a woman was on her way to work.



Table 1 shows popular topics (key words) for picture card content for 2007 through 2015:

Table 1. Popular topics for the picture card content

Topics (key words)	F.	%	Topics (key words)	F.	%
Social issues	8	14.8	Health	2	3.7
Job/Work	6	11.1	Housing	2	3.7
Environment	5	9.3	Local shopping areas	2	3.7
Public services	5	9.3	Caring for old people	1	1.9
Companies/Offices	4	7.4	Smoking	1	1.9
Work & life balance	4	7.4	Aging society	1	1.9
I C T	3	5.6	Child care	1	1.9
Family life	2	3.7	Food safety	1	1.9
Vacation	2	3.7	Keeping pets	1	1.9
Education	2	3.7	Other(s)	1	1.9
* F.=Frequency			Total	54	

2.2 Question items

There are four questions to be asked in the interview. The first question is always related to one of the four pictures on the card whereas the other three questions are related to the general topic of the card or about social issues or ideas broadly related to the general topic of card.

2.2.1 Questions No. 1

The first question is always based on the information in the pictures. As for linguistic features, subjunctive mood is always used for the first question. The word “would” is used in all of them, as well as “If”, “what”, “were”, and “picture”. For example, “If you were the

restaurant owner in the fourth picture, what would you do?”

2.2.2 Questions No. 2 - 4

Questions 2 through 4 are about social issues or ideas broadly related to the general topic of card. So, there are a variety of topics or subjects (see Table 2).

Table2. Popular topics or subjects of Questions 2 through 4

Topics or subjects	F.	%	Topics or subjects	F.	%
Working places	16	9.88	ICT	7	4.32
Education	15	9.26	Politics	6	3.70
Social Issues	15	9.26	Public services	5	3.09
Child care	13	8.02	Traffic	5	3.09
Companies/Offices	11	6.79	Sports	5	3.09
Environment	8	4.94			

* F.=Frequency

The following are some linguistic analysis data for the 162 questions:

Number of sentences for each question:

1 sentence=160, 2 sentences=2

Length of question(s):

Average=12.94 words

Shortest=7 words

Longest=21 words

For answering questions, examinees should be able to add some logical reasons or additional information.

3 Vocabulary used in questions

Table 3 shows analysis data for vocabulary used in the interview questions.

Table 3. Vocabulary levels used for interview questions

Level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Others	Total
All	361 (.69)	65 (.12)	34 (.07)	32 (.06)	8 (.02)	5 (.01)	2 (.00)	6 (.01)	8 (.02)	521
Nouns	144 (.64)	36 (.16)	29 (.09)	11 (.05)	3 (.01)	4 (.02)	1 (.00)	3 (.01)	4 (.02)	226
Verbs	102 (.71)	15 (.10)	7 (.05)	15 (.10)	2 (.01)	1 (.01)	0 (.00)	0 (.00)	2 (.01)	144

As can be seen, around 80% of the vocabulary items used are very basic and familiar words and others are topic related high-level words, such as Level 8 vocabulary “garbage”, “nutrition”, “stressful”, “renewable”, and “genetically”.

4 Research implications

The findings of this paper show that Japanese secondary school English teachers should be able to understand and express orally social issues logically and fluently. As students themselves are encouraged to have the ability to think logically and express their ideas and feelings effectively in English, teachers are naturally also expected to reach this threshold.

Empowering Pronunciation - connected speech instruction in L2 English class at a Japanese University freshman level

Yasuro Tanaka

International University of Health and Welfare, Narita Campus

ysrtanaka@iuhw.ac.jp

Abstract

This paper describes how connected speech instruction can practically be done in an L2 English class at a Japanese university freshman level, referring to some of the essential work of the previous researchers and practitioners. It also draws implications and suggests directions for the ways connected speech instruction should better be implemented.

Keywords

Connected speech; comprehensibility; intelligibility; segmentation

Introduction (the status quo)

Connected speech, also known as reduced speech, plays a key role in listening and speaking of L2 English learners. Despite the fact, it is a neglected, avoided or unpopular aspect in the general English pedagogy (Jones, 2016). There are several agreeable reasons, the most prominent of which might be the strong tide of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), where the focus of instruction is placed on negotiations of meaning.

Another factor affecting the present circumstances might be the status of English as Lingua Franca, which has put English to the position of the world's strongest common language. So who cares pronunciation today? It is rather easy to make yourself understood.

1 The pendulum swings

CLT has long seen its tide turn back as to focus on language form, as Form-Focused Instruction. Why not pronunciation? It should surely be regarded as one aspect of language "form" or pattern. If Focus on (Syntactic) Form is recognized in pedagogy, pronunciation instruction is also to be recognized as Focus on Phonological Form.

1.1 Need issue

1.1.1 Better with it than without it

There are two conditions to be mentioned about the subjects in this study. Firstly, the learners are past the "critical age." Secondly, their linguistic environment is L2EFL, i.e. L2 English as a foreign language situation. These consequently lead to the need for them to receive conscious training on how to speak L2 in appropriate manners.

It is possible under the present situation that they can accomplish communication in the target language without paying much attention to pronunciation. Isn't it much better, however, to be equipped with more sophisticated skills of speaking in order to be a more successful communicator?

1.1.2 Advantages

The above argument concerns intelligibility and comprehensibility of the learners' speech (Celce-Marcia, Brington, & Goodwin, 2010). With connected speech skills, higher intelligibility and comprehensibility can be attained, and it is one step closer to being a successful communicator.

Another advantage is learner confidence. Knowing that their manner of speaking is fine-tuned with proper conscious training makes learners confident when engaging in communication, and further motivated to actively involved in meaningful interactions.

2 Implementation

The whole process in the following section is carried out in a Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) environment.

2.1 Raising awareness

2.1.1 Feature description (Segmentation)

Learners listen to an excerpt from the textbook to describe phonetic features using their own notation symbols (Yoshida, 2016). They are advised to pay special attention to; strong syllables, connected sounds, reduced or deleted sounds, pause and intonation (Celce-Murcia, et. al., 2010).

2.1.2 Sharing and noticing (Conferencing)

Learners discuss what they have heard and described in pair work, then later in the whole class. This inductive sharing stage is to facilitate noticing and awareness in learners' minds ("ears").

The model description of phonetic features is presented and comparison is made with learners' own version.

2.1.3 Recording and monitoring

After practicing reading aloud the target excerpt, with sound features incorporated into their performance, learners record their voice. They can monitor their recorded voice and try recording several times if necessary.

2.2 Reality constraint

Use of the current textbook is indispensable. The material for implementation is devised from whatever seems to be useful at hand in the textbook for the efficiency of management.

CALL environment is a privilege. It helps both learners and the teacher in every phase of implementation process, namely, individual listening, reading aloud, recording, and monitoring, with its random accessibility and on-demand capability.

3 The outcome

3.1 Result

3.1.1 Improved pronunciation

It is observed that "Englishness" is improved as learners go through the implemented activity multiple times. Such instances, however, occur in their performances only sporadically.

3.1.2 Survey

A questionnaire survey was done to the subjects, regarding learners' self-reflection on how they feel about their improvement in listening, pronunciation, and their interest in the activity.

Table 1. Number of respondents and its ratio ($N=179$, the scale between 1: Disagree and 5: Agree)

	1	2	3	4	5
Q 1	5 (2.8%)	21 (11.7%)	52 (29.1%)	86 (48.0%)	15 (8.4%)
Q 2	5 (2.8%)	26 (14.5%)	73 (40.8%)	64 (35.8%)	11 (6.1%)
Q 3	10 (5.6%)	30 (16.8%)	57 (31.8%)	59 (33.0%)	23 (12.8%)
Q 4	8 (4.5%)	22 (12.3%)	64 (35.8%)	60 (33.5%)	25 (14.0%)

Note: See the Appendix A for the detail of Q1-4.

3.2 Discussion

3.2.1 Higher intelligibility and comprehensibility

It may take more time and practice for plausible

results to come out constantly.

3.2.2 Confidence and motivation

Survey result shows that the majority feel more confident in listening (Q1), while they are still not so sure about their pronunciation improvement (Q2).

About half the respondents are found to be interested in the kind of activity implemented (Q4), hence seem motivated to sustain the effort.

3.2.3 Limitations

Since the implemented activity is very mechanical in its nature, more communicative design should be preferred, in which reading aloud becomes meaningful in communication, to foster motivation (Ito, 2006).

4 Conclusion

Pronunciation improvement is seen only partially through this research, suggesting more time and effort to be taken by learners. However, the implemented activity has substantially changed their mind-set about listening. Further research and practice have to be done for more plausible results.

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5.2 Appendix

Appendix A. Students Reflection Survey Question

Q 1. Through the activity, I feel I have become more able to catch what was unintelligible before.

Q2. Through the activity, I feel my pronunciation has become more English-like.

Q3. During the activity, my partner's noticing of phonetic features were useful for my awareness.

Q4. The activity is interesting.

Factor analysis of interactional speaking strategies

Maya Hyunjeong Lee

Chonbuk National University

maya.lee2008@gmail.com

Abstract

The present study examines the underlying constructs of the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI), and interactional speaking strategy in particular, having a group of Korean English as foreign language (EFL) university students as its subject. Principal factor analysis with varimax orthogonal rotation was administered to a sample of 231 participants and obtained seven components in the speaking strategies of the OCSI. Confirmatory factor analysis was followed to examine whether these seven components generated by exploratory factor analysis adequately fit the data and resulted in a six factor solution. The study further examined the exploratory power of the strategies to the students' perceived speaking proficiency measured by two different self-assessment instruments. To specify a structure which accounted for the relationship among six components and their effect on students' speaking proficiency, structural equation modeling with a second order solution was employed. The results indicated that affective strategies had an indirect effect on proficiency which were mediated by both avoidance strategies and social and cognitive strategies. Overall, 73% of students' perceived speaking proficiency was predicted by their frequent use of social and cognitive strategies.

Key words: factor analysis, oral communication strategies, speaking proficiency

Introduction

The primary purpose of the current study is to examine underlying constructs of a developed research measurement called the Oral Communication Strategies Inventory (OCSI) (Nakatani, 2006) and to clarify the components of the measure. That is because, theoretically, understanding the underlying constructs helps clarify the nature of communication strategies. Instructionally, better understanding of communicative strategies that learners employ at a

given interactional communication context, would provide instructors with specific guidelines to teach students' communicative performance. In addition, the present study explores how different population in a different research context would affect the result of those underlying constructs (Hsieh, 2014). The research further examines the structural relationship among those underlying components of the oral communication strategies and its effect on speaking proficiency in a functional level. By using structural equation modeling (SEM), all of the relationships among the multiple variables which represent the unobservable latent factors will be identified and interpreted.

1. Literature review

- 1.1 Communicative strategies
- 1.2 Communicative strategies and speaking proficiency.

Research questions

- 1) To find the underlying constructs of the speaking part of the OCSI (Nakatani, 2006) by using both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis
- 2) To specify a structure which accounts for the relationship among the factors and their effect on students' proficiency

2. Method

- 2.1. Participants and procedure

A total of 231 Korean undergraduate university students participated in the study.

- 2.2. Instrumentation

The main instrument used in this study was the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory, or the OCSI (Nakatani, 2006). The participants' perceived speaking proficiency was measured by two self-assessment instruments. One of the instruments was the Global Self-Assessment Schedule (GSAS)

for Speaking Ability in English (Clark & Swinton, 1979) and the other self-assessment tool was 3 point Likert-scale Can Do (Clark, 1979).

3. Data analysis

Once the data were cleaned, principle factor analysis with verimax orthogonal rotation was performed. The optimal factor solution was obtained through eliminating the items with the factor loadings less than 0.5 and the cross loading items. With the factor model produced by expository factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis using Amos 24 was conducted. Again, the observed variables whose factor loadings were less than 0.5 were eliminated and the final factor solution was obtained. The study further examined the exploratory power of the strategy to the students' perceived speaking proficiency. To specify a structure which accounted for the relationship among six components and their effect on the students' speaking proficiency, the structural equation modeling with a second order solution was employed.

4. Results

To answer the first research question, the data were tested for normality and outliers. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.857 and the Chi-square of Bartlett's test for sphericity was 2569.54 ($p < .001$). Since the KMO value was above 0.8 and the Bartlett's test for sphericity turned out to be statistically significant, the data support the use of factor analysis.

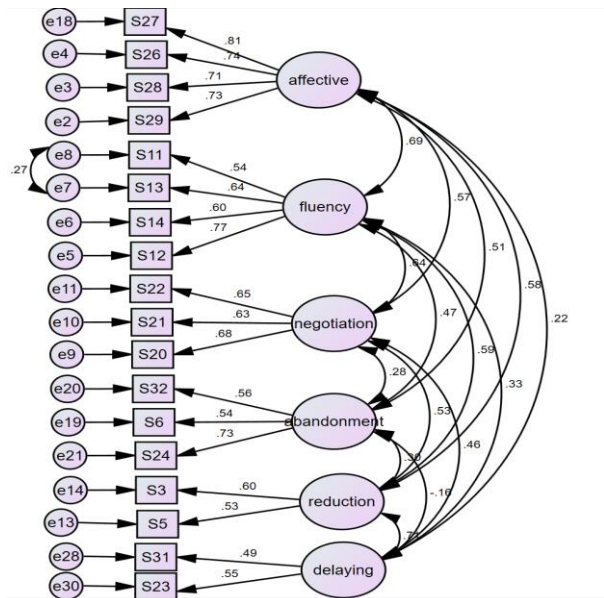
Principal component analysis with verimax orthogonal rotation was performed and eventually seven factor solution emerged and it accounted for 65% of total variance. The results of the consequent CFA have shown in Table 1 and Figure 1 and the final six factor model was identified.

Table 1 Goodness-of-fit indexes for six factor model (N=231)

Model	χ^2	df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
6 F	192.2	119	0.91	0.93	0.052

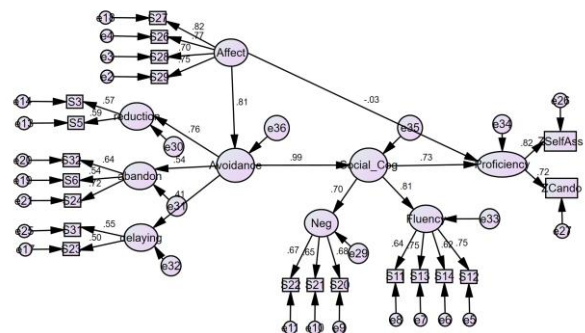
$p < 0.001$

Figure 1. The final six factor CFA model



To answer the second question, second order factor analysis was applied and the result showed in Figure 2.

Figure 2 Second-order Speaking Strategies CFA model



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Rating scale development for integrated-skills assessment

Kei Miyazaki¹, Kahoko Matsumoto², Taiko Tsuchihira³ and Adam Murray⁴

¹Tokai University, ²Tokai University, ³Seitoku University, ⁴Miyazaki International College,

keimiyazaki67@gmail.com, mkahoko@tsc.u-tokai.ac.jp, t-

tsuchihiro@nifty.com, murray74@mifty.com

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate a valid, feasible rating scale focusing on integrated-skills essay writing tests. Based on the literature reviewed, changing educational needs and teacher feedback, the present study aims to consider the subskills of integrated-skills writing which are reflections of the traits being measured for diagnostic purposes.

Keywords

Integrated-skills assessment, Rating scales, Analytic rating method

Introduction

In the upcoming Course of Study guidelines, MEXT intends to continue to put emphasis on productive activities interlinked with comprehensive learning (MEXT, 2016). As an inquiry into secondary school teachers' perceptions of integrated-skills assessment showed (Murray et al., 2012), this emphasis poses an enormous challenge for teachers because of the many factors that influence test validity and practicality, all of which make it difficult to administer appropriate evaluation. One suggestion to deal with this problem is to present model rating scales with guidelines in order to facilitate teachers' creation of tests.

1 General instructions

1.1 Integrated-skills assessment

Plakans (2012) introduces several methods of integrated-skills assessment and recommends the use of multiple measures. She also describes the challenges of integrated-skills assessment. Some of the issues are related to scoring validity for appropriate criteria (Taylor, 2011), scoring methods, and the provision of rating scales aligned with assessment objectives for in-service teachers (Ghanbari et al., 2012).

1.2 Rating Scale Development

The choice of appropriate scoring criteria and the consistent application of rating scales by examiners are the key factors in the valid assessment. Weigle (2002) states that the scale used in assessing performance tasks represents the theoretical basis upon which the test is founded; that is, it embodies the test developer's notion of what skills or abilities are being measured by the test.

In light of test validity, if an integrated-skills writing test is conducted for diagnostic purposes in a real classroom setting, analytic scoring method is more useful (Taylor, 2011) by separating the features of performance and evaluating each one independently.

In addition, if a scoring rubric is created based on integrated-skills, it should take into consideration the notion of "discourse synthesis" (Plakans, 2015), in which reading comprehension is the underlying construct and process needed to successfully complete writing task. This notion leads to the supposition that one of the subskill components, "reading comprehension" should be added to commonly-used writing scoring components.

1.3 The issue of practicality

Practicality is another issue that should be taken into consideration in integrated-skills testing. According to the teachers surveyed (Murray et al., 2012), they felt that scoring all the subscales in integrated-skills tests is a demanding task. Green and Hawkey (2012) introduce several elements of test facilities available to test developers for development, administration and scoring procedures. They suggest that scoring procedures be easy and efficient, by combining some components to merge overlapping parts.

2 Purpose of the research

The study aims to consider the following two research areas: (a) Which sub-skills in integrated-skills writing should be included for valid

evaluation? (b) Which sub-skills should be combined for efficient scoring?

3 The Study

The participants in the study were 97 third-year Japanese high school students, who were considered to be at an intermediate level of proficiency. They were given a text about cultural differences and then they were required to summarize it and write a descriptive essay of at least 150 words about their experiences related to the topic.

The analytic rating scale used in this research had seven subscale components: Reading Comprehension, Content, Organization, Cohesion & Coherence, Grammar & Usage, Vocabulary, and Mechanics. The scale had five rating points representing: “Very Poor (1)”, “Unsatisfactory (2)”, “Moderate (3)”, “Good (4)” and “Excellent (5).” The inter-rater reliability between the two raters on half of essays was relatively high.

The data was analyzed using the correlation coefficient to see whether multicollinearity (as a precondition to multiple regression analysis) was present among the components. This analysis showed which subscale components could be combined to create a single subscale. The study also used multiple regression analysis to investigate which subscale score is the best predictor of “Reading Comprehension.”

4 Results

(a) If the essay prompt is created based on Integrated-skills, one of the subskill components, “Reading Comprehension” should be added to the commonly-used writing scoring components.

(b) The correlation between all independent variables, Organization and Cohesion & Coherence were relatively high correlated ($r = 0.65$). Grammar & Usage and Vocabulary are also high correlated ($r = 0.69$). These similar components were combined into one variable. In other words, these combined sub-skills could be efficient scoring categories.

Table 1 shows the result of the stepwise selection multiple regression analysis.

Table 1. Stepwise Multiple Regression Summary for Two Variables Predicting Reading Comprehension.

Variable	B	SEB	β	p
(Constant)	- 0.34	0.28		0.22
Content	0.68	0.09	0.57	0.00*
Language Use	0.55	0.12	0.35	0.00*

Note: $n = 97$; $R^2 = 0.71$; $\Delta R^2 = 0.70$;

R^2 change = 0.07 * $p < .05$

ANOVA: ($F(2,94) = 112.83$, * $p < .05$)

Organization combined with Coherence & Cohesion was excluded from the model. Mechanics was also

excluded. About 71% of the variation of Reading Comprehension can be explained by the two predictors: Content and Grammar & Usage combined with Vocabulary (= Language Use). ANOVA shows this model was significantly related to dependent variable. Based on the β value, Content is highly related to Reading Comprehension.

5. Conclusion

This study suggests that the development of a scale is important for validity of integrated-skills assessment; in particular, Discourse Synthesis should be more carefully considered. In addition, if it is necessary to make scoring more efficient, components can be grouped according to practical needs.

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Development of Level-Specific Tests Based on the CEFR-J Reading Descriptors using IRT and Bayesian Testing

Siwon Park and Megumi Sugita

Kanda University of International Studies

siwon@kanda.kuis.ac.jp, sugita-m@kanda.kuis.ac.jp

Abstract

While the use of CEFR-J (a localized version of CEFR for the Japanese contexts) can provide language educators with firm bases for program and test development, a number of researchers have expressed concerns about its illustrative nature and the absence of an underlying psycholinguistic theory. In this study, several sets of English reading test were developed with a number of texts and accompanying items based on the specifications of the CEFR-J Reading descriptors. These texts and items went through rigorous judgment as well as piloting procedures for the pertinence to the descriptors and their quality. One version of the tests was administered to 413 English learners at a Japanese university, and the scores were subjected to IRT item analyses and Bayesian informative hypothesis testing to examine: 1) if the test items are correctly rank-ordered according to their intended levels, and 2) if the specifications of the CEFR-J Reading scales are sufficient enough to help construct a level-specific test. The results indicate that a general progression of item difficulty was observable as intended, and items intended for the same level clustered together to form level specific subtests.

Keywords

CEFR-J, L2 reading, test development, Bayesian testing

Introduction

As Table 1 shows, the Common European Framework of Reference – Japan (CEFR-J) is a localized version of CEFR, which has been developed for English language teaching in the Japanese context (Tono & Negeshi, 2012). While the scales of the CEFR-J can provide language educators with firm bases for program and test development, some researchers (e.g., Hulstijn, 2007; Runnels, 2014) have voiced concerns regarding its illustrative nature and the absence of

an underlying psycholinguistic theory for such scales.

Table 1. Comparison of CEFR and CEFR-J

CEFR	CEFR-J		
	Pre-A1		
A1	A1.1	A1.2	A1.3
A2	A2.1	A2.2	
B1	B1.1	B1.2	
B2	B2.1	B2.2	
C1	C1		
C2	C2		

Especially, with regards to the reading part of the scales, the CEFR-J takes no theory-bound approach to its definition of proficiency construct, which has led its users to understand it as a rather heuristic model. To serve as a common reference for assessment, it requires empirical evidence for the very nature of the developmental construct, particularly, of foreign language (FL) reading by examining the rank-ordering of the carefully constructed test items in line with the levels of the CEFR-J Reading scales. In order to respond to the empirical needs for the validity argument, the current study systematically examined these two research issues with respect to the reading scales of the CEFR-J.

1 Method

Two sets of reading tests with a number of texts and accompanying items were developed based on the specifications of the five levels (from A1.3 through B1.2) of the CEFR-J Reading scales. These texts and items went through rigorous expert judgment as well as piloting procedures for the pertinence to the descriptors and their quality. Each test with 11 texts and 30 items was administered to 413 English learners at a university in Japan respectively. IRT item analyses and Bayesian informative hypothesis testing were conducted to examine: 1) if the test

items are correctly rank-ordered according to their intended levels, and 2) if the specifications of the CEFR-J Reading scales are sufficient enough to help construct a level-specific test.

1.1 Participants and test development

413 freshmen majoring in English at a university in Japan took the test (125 male and 288 female). Their English proficiency varied with the range of TOEFL ITP 370 and 580.

First, a level specific test was developed with a number of texts and accompanying items that fully reflect the specifications of the five levels from A1.3 through B1.2 of CEFR-J. Then, these texts and items went through rigorous expert judgment procedures for the pertinence to the descriptors and the quality of the texts, and piloting procedures using classical as well as IRT analyses for the psychometric quality of the items. The final version of the test included 11 texts with 30 items.

2 Results and discussion

The test data were statistically analyzed for the statistical quality of the test, and item parameters were calibrated using the 3-parameter IRT model. The resulted parameter values were used to examine if the difficulty of each item falls under the intended level, and also the texts and their items are observed under the same difficulty cluster. When noise is observed with the rank-ordered patterns of texts and items, an attempt was made to elucidate where the problem lied with the descriptors of the scales within and across levels or lack of definitions.

As shown in Figure 1, a general progression of difficulty was found in the rank-order of the levels; yet, the distinction between A2.2 and B1.1 was not very clear.

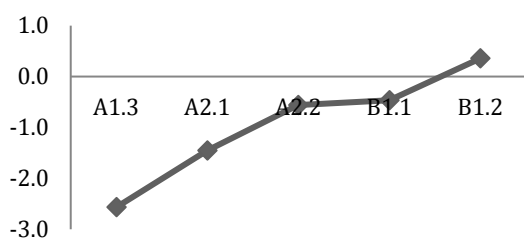


Figure 1. Difficulty rank order of level means.

Also, Bayesian hypothesis testing (Mackey & Ross, 2015) was conducted using Comparison of Means (Kuiper & Hoijtink, 2010) to examine if the mean difficulty at each level on each of the sampled tests increases symmetrically from A1.3 to B1.2 (H_1 , predicted hypothesis: $\mu_1 < \mu_2 < \mu_3 < \mu_4 < \mu_5$). The Bayes factor and the PMP estimates (46.04 and 0.39,

respectively) indicated that the predicted hypothesis was most supported against other alternatives; hence, the ordering of mean difficulties predicted by the specifications of the CEFR-J Reading scales is corroborated by the empirical data based on the examinee participants in the current study.

3 Conclusions

The current study explored the possibility of level-specific test development based on the specifications of the CEFR-J Reading scales. The items rank-ordered based on their difficulty parameters demonstrated a general progression of difficulty from A1.3 to B1.2; yet, when the level means were considered, the distinction between A2.2 and B1.1 was not clear requiring further considerations. The Bayesian hypothesis testing confirmed the development of a level-specific reading test based on the CEFR-J Reading scales is feasible when the development procedures are carefully coordinated. Therefore, the findings of the current study indicate that the use of the specifications of the CEFR-J Reading scales enables test developers to create level-specific reading tests, and their pertinence to the specifications can be empirically demonstrated using IRT and the Bayesian hypothesis testing techniques.

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Creation of an Assessment Rubric for Global Citizenship

Kahoko Matsumoto¹, Yuuki Kato², Shogo Kato³ and Toshihiko Takeuchi⁴

¹ Tokai University, ² Sagami Women's University, ³ Tokyo Women's Christian University,

⁴ Tokyo University of Social Welfare,

mkahoko@tsc.u-tokai.ac.jp, kato.yuuki@gmail.com,

kato.shogo@gmail.com, takeuchi19@mail.goo.ne.jp

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is first, to present the results of a series of surveys on the kinds of skills and competencies which are actually valued and considered indispensable by people who are actually working in the international arena, and secondly, to demonstrate the ways our research team ascertained the components of global citizenship truly required for producing future global citizens. In the last part of our presentation, examples from the ongoing attempt to create an assessment rubric for global citizenship will be discussed and shared.

Keywords

Global citizenship, Assessment rubric, English proficiency, Generic competencies

Introduction

As the Japanese Ministry of Education announced a new initiative to produce future “global human resources” in 2012, universities have been creating new programs with a strong focus on English while more and more companies in Japan have either adopted or been promoting an “English-only” policy in the workplace. However, some educators are concerned that this policy may strengthen linguistic or cultural imperialism, and doesn't lead to the production of truly international-minded university graduates who can function in the globalizing world.

With these concerns in mind, the 2 preliminary questionnaire surveys combined with selective interviews to 132 company employees in various sectors and people who work in international organizations were conducted, the main aim of which was to tease out the skills and competencies deemed indispensable to global citizenship from the voices of people who are actively involved in various international jobs (Matsumoto, 2015; 2016). It was a reality check, especially on how much importance is given to English proficiency among international-

minded workers. At the same time, these inquiries represent an effort to reflect the Japanese-specific needs, if any, with an eye toward creating an assessment rubric for global citizenship to be used in Japanese education

In these studies, the subjects were first introduced to the frameworks or descriptors of global citizenship that have been widely utilized both in Europe and North America in order to prevent idiosyncratic and arbitrary perceptions or beliefs from dictating their responses. As a result, these subjects raised various general competencies in addition to English proficiency while people in the upper management placed more importance on the adaptability to diverse multilingual and multicultural environments.

1 Purpose of this study

The purpose of this study is two-fold; the first is to ascertain and validate the components of global citizenship so far obtained with a larger, more balanced body of subjects, and the second is to create a sample assessment rubric based on the completed list of skills and competencies for global citizenship, together with some test questions for piloting.

2. The methods

2.1 Validation of the previous studies

The third and more systematic, balanced attempt to confirm and validate the 40 components of global citizenship so far obtained was carried out with more than 300 subjects working in different sectors and positions. This validation stage was necessary to finalize the list of skills and competencies necessary for global citizenship to be utilized for Japanese education because different traits and background factors were not well controlled in the previous studies. So in this larger-scale survey, various factors such as age, gender, field of work, position, overseas

experience and length of studying English were controlled. Then, a thorough quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted on whether each item was assigned sufficient importance by the subjects with different backgrounds.

2.2 Creation of an assessment rubric

After validating the components in 4 sections (knowledge of language and culture, attitudes, critical thinking skills and generic competencies), a trial version of assessment rubric was created. Due to the different nature of various skills and competencies, some elements can be tested by essay questions though others seem to be conducive to the use as a checklist both for self-assessment and objective evaluation.

The essay question samples were created for the descriptors dealing with intercultural competence and critical thinking skills, referring to a well-known North American critical thinking tests such as Ennis-Weir Test (1985). In order to secure a reliable scoring rubric, several versions were tried out using 2 English classes. In doing such experiments, new insights have been gained, especially on what testing format may facilitate not only accurate measurement but positive washback.

3. Results

All of 40 skills and components obtained from the 2 preliminary studies were validated for their importance to nurture global citizenship by the larger-scale confirmatory study, involving more than 300 subjects. Although English proficiency included in the “knowledge of language and culture” section received a high rating, in the by-section tallying, the importance assigned to “generic competencies” and “attitudes” was higher than that of “knowledge of language and culture” or “attitudes.”

More interestingly, there was no statistically significant difference found in all the background factors, which means that most subjects who work in the international arena agreed to the importance of all the 40 skills and competencies. Yet, some noteworthy differences were observed between people in the managerial positions and others, as well as people engaged in engineering types of jobs and others. Simply put, subjects in the managerial positions valued intercultural competence and the knowledge of other languages and cultures more, while engineers compared to others put more importance on English proficiency.

As to the creation of an assessment rubric, at least some essay questions tapping intercultural competence and critical thinking skills exhibited

sufficient reliability.

4. Conclusions

1. The increased emphasis on English was not quite favorably accepted by workers because it does not reflect or represent their realistic needs. Actually, most workers who work in the international arena placed more importance on positive attitudes in intercultural communication and generic competencies often coupled with critical thinking skills.

2. Some people in the managerial positions who have had many intercultural encounters recognize the necessity of intercultural competence to some extent, though they have the tendency of generalizing it in the umbrella category of “human-related skills (人間力)” (a loosely-used buzz word, a cliché).

3. As the Japanese society itself has become more diverse, educators and researchers should pay more attention to the importance of intercultural communication skills, which hopefully help dismantle the “Englishnization myth” (Neeley, 2011).

4. The skills and attitudes required for global citizenship are hard to elucidate or ascertain, but the 40 items selected by a series of 3 studies seemed quite representative of them.

5. Future Directions

More attempts will be made to create valid and reliable test questions for measurable components whereas the use of these components as a checklist for both self-assessment and objective evaluation will be piloted for effectiveness and applicability.

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The Effect of Direct and Indirect Written Feedback on EFL Learners' Tense Errors

Yoko Asari

Tokyo University of Science

asari.y@rs.tus.ac.jp

Abstract

The present study was conducted to investigate whether written feedback leads to learners' L2 development and whether certain types of correction are more effective than others. 67 Japanese university EFL learners participated in this study and were assigned to one of three groups: an experimental group which received direct feedback on the target structures; an experimental group which received indirect feedback on the target structures; a control group which received comments on the content and no feedback on the target structures. The study involved three treatment sessions and two tests (i.e., pre- and post-tests). The results revealed that neither direct nor indirect feedback had a positive impact on learners' development. This finding indicates a possibility that, as far as written feedback on structures in learners' writing is concerned, neither direct CF nor indirect CF is effective, at least in a situation in which the feedback is not accompanied by other methods intended to obligate learners to produce error-free language in response to feedback.

Keywords

direct feedback, indirect feedback, written feedback

Introduction

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), extensive research has been conducted on the efficacy of oral and written corrective feedback (CF) on learners' L2 development. CF provided towards learners' errors is expected to bring about a positive impact on learners' L2 development for the following two reasons. First, as learners are constantly testing hypotheses about the target language (TL), CF gives them an opportunity to find out if the hypotheses they have formulated are correct or not. Secondly, in cases in which learners' hypotheses are incorrect, CF helps direct their attention to the discrepancies between their interlanguage (IL) and the TL.

Generally speaking, written CF can be

categorized into three types. Foreign language (FL) teachers use different types of feedback depending on whether the focus is on (a) correcting the error, (b) locating the error so that the learner can then attempt to correct it, or (c) helping the learner understand why the error has occurred and how to correct it. FL teachers tend to provide direct correction in the case of (a), indirect correction in the case of (b), and metalinguistic correction in the case of (c).

A substantial amount of research has been conducted to examine whether certain types of correction are more effective than others (e.g., Sheen, 2007); however, results have been mixed and it is difficult to draw valid conclusions and generalization from them. Thus, the present study was conducted to answer the following research questions.

1 Research Questions

- (1) Do learners receiving written feedback gain accuracy in the use of verb tenses?
- (2) How do learners receiving direct written feedback and those receiving indirect written feedback compare with each other?

2 Method

67 Japanese university students participated in the present study. They were assigned to one of the following three groups: an experimental group which received direct feedback towards erroneous target structures ($n = 23$); an experimental group which received indirect feedback towards the target structures ($n = 23$); and a control group which received comments on the content and no feedback on the target structures ($n = 21$). The study involved three treatment sessions and two tests (i.e., pre- and post-tests). Learners were tested on their accurate use of verb tenses (i.e., the correct use of present, past, and future tense forms). In order to answer the research questions, a two-way repeated

measures ANOVA test was conducted with the alpha level set at $p < .05$.

3 Results

The means and standard deviations of the accuracy scores in the use of targets structure forms for each group across the two testing times are displayed in Table 1. The three participating groups revealed considerable uniformity in their pre-test ($p > 0.05$). Repeated measures ANOVA run on the pre-post-test scores revealed that (a) learners receiving written feedback did not gain accuracy in the use of verb tenses (Research Question 1) and (b) there was no significant difference among the three groups (Research Question 2). In other words, the results show that neither direct nor indirect feedback exerted much positive evidence on L2 learners' grammatical accuracy in the targeted features.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Test Scores

	Pre-test		Post-test	
	M	SD	M	SD
Direct	20.61	3.64	22.78	4.83
Indirect	20.43	4.61	22.09	3.84
Control	20.33	5.70	22.10	4.74

Notes: Scores are out of 30.

4 Discussion

Considering the time and effort required in correcting learners' errors, the findings may be discouraging for FL teachers. The results of the present study, nevertheless, provide valuable implications. That is to say, regardless of the permanence and the time available for learners to process written feedback, without the obligatory demand to modify their errors, written feedback, however explicit they are, may not be attended by learners.

One of the key concepts in CF studies is modified output. Modified output is a term used in connection with oral CF to refer to learners' reformulation of their erroneous forms after they are provided with feedback. Learners' reformulation subsequent to feedback is said to help learners notice the deficiencies in their language abilities, strengthen existing knowledge representations, and promote automaticity (e.g., Mackey, 2012; Swain, 2005). Similarly, previous studies have argued that written CF help learners improve their writing accuracy only when combined with revision requirement (e.g., Chandler, 2003). This is because learners' noticing, namely "noticing with awareness" and/or "noticing with understanding", occurs only if they make efforts to integrate the positive and/or negative evidence in the feedback into their texts after they have been

given written CF. Thus, recipients of CF in the present study might have made an improvement if they were required to revise their errors.

5 Conclusion

The effect of written CF was not ascertained in the present study, possibly because of a lack of pressure on learners to reformulate error-free utterances in response to CF. Some limitations to this study should be acknowledged when interpreting its results. The sample size and the relatively limited amount of writing tasks reduce the validity of any generalization. A future study which tests the role of modified output subsequent written feedback would be of interest.

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Challenges of College Transition: a Case Study of an Academic English Course in One Community College in Hong Kong

Wenli Wu

Division of Language and Communication, PolyU Hong Kong Community College

ccwenli@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk

Abstract

The aim of the research presented here is to understand and evaluate the transition process of associate degree students at one Community College in Hong Kong. Using Schlossberg's (1995) transition theory as the conceptual framework of this study, the research will firstly explore the first year associate degree students' English language learning situation in Hong Kong. Secondly, the investigator of this research will look at students' awareness of resources in the following four areas: situation, self, support and strategies (Chickering & Schlossberg 1995). The research will suggest methods to enhance students' smooth transition to their desired destinations; meanwhile, strategies for improving associate degree students' English language teaching and learning will also be discussed.

Keywords

Challenge, transition, English language proficiency, group project

Introduction

Transition can be understood as a process that individual experiences changes and moves from familiar to new, reacting to various challenges (as cited in Cheng et al, 2015). Hong Kong, as a special administrative region of the People's Republic of China, has complex language situation (Poon, 2004). While "the first language of the vast majority of Hong Kong's population is Cantonese", English still has predominant status as it is the main medium of instruction in Hong Kong's universities and it is the major written communication method in the business world (Evans & Morrison, 2016). Therefore, in Hong Kong, when local students move to tertiary institutions, like students in other countries, they will undergo school-to-college transition process as well. Do they face any

academic and social-cultural challenges? This paper will firstly explore the transition process that community college students have gone through in Hong Kong, and then discuss coping strategies that students and instructors can adopt to enhance students' learning outcome.

2. Research Background & Design

According to Chickering & Schlossberg (1995), situation, support, self and strategies are the four aspects to cope with the transition from high school to community college.

In this research, the participants were year-one associate degree students at a community college in Hong Kong. In terms of articulation rate and reputation, this community college is known as one of the best community colleges in Hong Kong. All contributors were secondary school graduates who could not fulfil university entrance requirements, so they entered the community college to earn an associate degree. For students whose GPA (grade point average) can reach the requirements, they can enter local universities as year 2 students to pursue a Bachelor's degree after one or two years. In the past 3 years, at this college, over 80% graduates could enter local or overseas universities to pursue their Bachelor degrees.

This project is a case study to look at two groups of year one Associate Degree Social Sciences students in the year of 2014/15 and 2015/16 respectively. 8 rounds end-of-semester interviews have been conducted as major data collection method.

3. Results

The interview questions were mainly designed to see academic adaptation experience that students have come through at this college as

being accepted by local government-funded universities for a degree course was the desired destination for most students. The data indicates that participants have encountered many academic challenges. Among them, doing group project and deficiency in English language proficiency stand out as the top two challenges that students have undergone in their academic transition. As notable findings, frustrations in making friends have been mentioned for several times in the interviews. For the majority, adapting to different assessment methods was described as extremely challenging. As better GPA (Grade Point Average) will lead students to their favourite universities, many students were concerned about their grades. Among all the assessment methods, doing group project was repeatedly reported as the most challenging one as many students were not used to working in a group to earn a grade. In addition, most students wanted to group with people who have better academic performance or easy-going personality. Conversely, grouping with free riders led to frustration and anxiety. In a few extreme cases, students withdrew because of failure in doing group project.

A second major challenge resulted from weak English language proficiency. Some students reported that they received poor academic results at the college mainly because they could not express their meanings effectively in English in written or oral assessments.

4. Conclusion

Different from many similar researches (e.g. Yu & Wright, 2017; Evans & Morrison, 2016), English language proficiency comes as the second major challenge; whereas adapting to different assessment method, especially doing group project is reported as the most prominent challenge. As all the students in this research are Cantonese speakers, they can communicate with their teachers and course mates in Cantonese outside the classroom; consequently, English barriers mainly refers to using English to write assignments. On the other hand, doing group project is the most challenging task in the transition process because many students in this community college have high expectations toward themselves, so they feel worried or even depressed when one or two project mates cannot meet their expectations.

To best target support, it is crucial that course

instructors provide clear guideline for each assessment component, especially for group project. In addition, course instructors are suggested to monitor the progress of each group project, and provide assistance at crucial stage. From students' perspective, this study suggests that setting up a clear goal for study and having a sense of self can help making an effortless transition.

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English RCs Produced by EFL Learners in Computer Chat Sessions

Chae-Eun Kim

Chosun University

chaeun@chosun.ac.kr

Abstract

This study investigates L2 learners' ability to use English relative clauses, as displayed in cross-cultural interactions via computer. A total of 62 tokens of natural RCs were found in a data set comprising 18 Korean EFL learners' internet chat sessions (7 sessions each; 126 in total) with Japanese university students. The analysis shows that the learners produced only subject and direct object RCs, and they produced these two RC types in almost equal number.

Keywords

English relative clause, computer-mediated communication

Introduction

This study examines 18 Korean university students' use of relative clauses (RCs) in English-language computer chat interactions. Relative clauses involve a relativizer, which introduces the clause, and a head noun that is modified by the clause. The Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH) proposed by Keenan and Comrie (1977) suggests that the difficulty of accessing noun phrases during production and comprehension varies according to grammatical role for both L1 and L2 speakers. According to the NPAH, shown in (1), subjects are the most accessible, followed by direct objects.

(1) NPAH:

subject > *direct object* > *indirect object* > *oblique*
> *genitive*

Many studies using a variety of methodologies have proven that English subject RCs are easier than other types of RCs for L2 learners to comprehend and produce (e.g., Gass, 1979; Kim, 2017; Sung, 2014). In particular, Gibson (1998) and O'Grady (2015) pointed out that English direct object RCs, as in (2b), are processed with more difficulty than

subject RCs, as in (2a).

(2a) Subject RC:

The reporter [that _ attacked the senator] disliked the editor.

(2b) Direct object RC:

The reporter [that the senator attacked _] disliked the editor.

According to Kim (2017), L2 learners have difficulty producing and comprehending English direct object RCs because of their syntactic complexity, illustrated in (3).

(3a) Subject RC:

The reporter [that _ attacked the senator]
|_____0_____|

(3b) Direct object RC:

The reporter [that the senator attacked _]
|_____1_____2_____|

Although the two types of RC exemplified in (3) involve identical lexical items, direct object RCs are more complex to process because the longer distance between the filler and the gap creates a greater processing burden. When new discourse materials (e.g., *senator*, *attack*) intervene between the filler and the gap, resolving the filler-gap dependency creates a burden on working memory. Thus, processors require more time to connect the filler with the gap in direct object RCs.

Despite the large body of research on the L2 acquisition and processing of English RCs, few studies focus on which RCs learners use, or how much they use them, in synchronous interaction. This study examines the frequency and types of English relative clauses used by Korean EFL learners in a synchronous computer chatting context. The study addresses two research questions.

Research Questions

- (1) How often do Korean EFL learners use English relative clauses in synchronous computer chatting?
- (2) In what types of structures do these EFL learners employ English relative clauses?

Methodology

1. Setting and Participants

The data for this study are from computer chat sessions between 18 Korean EFL students at Korea University and Japanese EFL students at Waseda University. The study examines only the Korean EFL learners' production. As a class activity, the students participated in a Cross-Cultural Distance Learning project outside of class time during the 2015 fall semester. Each participant took part in a chat session once a week, using computers in the university's multimedia room. They were assigned six topics during the semester: (1) self-introduction, (2) the meaning of their names, (3) (dis)advantages of SNS, (4) becoming fluent EFL speakers, (5) using double negation, and (6) what makes their university a top-100 university. The participants were asked to complete at least six sessions and to save all the text from their chats to use in a final reflection paper.

2. Data Analysis

All RC tokens in the data set were counted. No ungrammatical use of an RC was found. The RCs were then labeled according to structural type and ordered in terms of frequency.

Results and Discussion

1. Results

Two participants produced no RCs. The remaining 16 participants produced 62 subject and direct object RCs, as shown in Table 1. No participant produced any other type of RC.

Table 1. Frequency of English RCs

Type of RC	N	Percentage
Subject	30	48.38%
Direct object	32	51.61%
Total	62	100%

2. Discussion

The results of this study confirm those of previous studies in that the learners produced subject and direct object RCs, which are higher on the NPAH, and no indirect object, oblique, or genitive RCs, which are lower on the NPAH. However, the EFL learners in this study used subject RCs and direct object RCs at similar rates. The participants did not avoid employing direct object RCs in synchronous

interaction via computer, contra the claim that the syntactic complexity of direct object RCs leads learners to use them less often than subject RCs.

Examples of subject and direct object RCs extracted from the data are shown in (4).

(4a) Example of Subject RC

In Korea, fluent speaker of Eng who comes to mind at first is Kimoon Ban (2015/11/19, P16)

(4b) Example of Direct object RC

...and the others also are about the features of English that we use (2015/11/12, P9)

Interestingly, most of the direct object RCs in the data set used personal pronouns as the subject in the embedded clause (e.g., *we, I*). According to Gundel et al. (1993), direct object RCs are easier to process if they use highly accessible referential expressions such as pronouns rather than less accessible referential expressions (e.g., *'the/a + N'*). Such referential accessibility may explain why the direct object RCs produced by the EFL learners in this study tended to include pronouns.

This study has discussed the type and frequency of use of English relative clauses produced by Korean EFL learners in synchronous computer chatting. In 126 chat sessions, the EFL learners employed only subject and direct object RCs, and they employed the two types at very similar rates.

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Prosaic and Expressive Linguistics: A Revisiting

Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin

Graduate Program in English as an International Language, Chulalongkorn University

Sudaporn.L@chula.ac.th

Abstract

This paper revisits the arguments on Prosaic and Expressive Linguistics which was proposed and discussed intensively in the late 60s up to the early 80s. The theoretical discussion then concerned the occurrences of the phonological, orthographical, and morphological constructs of expressives that are not accepted as parts of the description of prosaic linguistics and were discarded in the mainstream linguistics. The explanation about these occurrences were in terms systemic as well as accidental gaps in the language.

Keywords: Prosaic Linguistics; Expressive Linguistics; Usage Based Grammar; Instructional Application

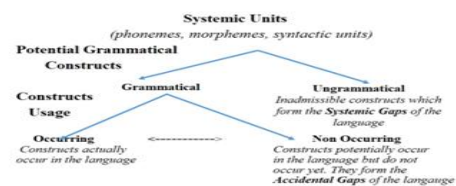
Introduction

A dilemma in the teaching of language is whether we explicitly teach Grammar or let the students learn Grammar from its use, whether we use the skill based approach or content based, task based or problem based approach, and whether we assess the students level of proficiency by the use of knowing about the grammar or knowing to use the language to mean. This paper revisits the arguments on Prosaic and Expressive Linguistics which was proposed and discussed intensively in the late 60s up to the early 80s (Peng 1972, Diffloth 1979, Aronoff 1982). The discussion concerns the occurrences of the phonological, orthographical, and morphological constructs of expressives, i.e., onomatopoeias, interjections, intensifiers, loans, and emotive words that are not parts of the description of prosaic linguistics and are not included in the mainstream linguistics

1 Grammaticality vs Acceptability and Systemic vs Accidental Gaps

There are two main points proposed in this paper: the Grammar of the 21st C should cover 1) beyond “Prosaic Forms” but “Varieties of Forms” used not only for representative function but also for expressive and appellative functions (Buhler 1990)

and 2) Spoken Grammar as well as Written Grammar. Usage-Based Grammar has become more interesting and insightful. (Bybee 2010; Ibbotson and Tomasello 2016). This paper revisits the arguments on expressive linguistics earlier proposed by field linguists working on empirical research in the 60s-70s as opposed to the prosaic linguists proposed by theoretical linguists. More evidence from 21st C language usages. Prosaic linguistics mainly working top down. The system and structure of grammatical constructs are finite. Constructs at any linguistic levels are governed by the grammatical system and structural rules. Those constructs that conform to the system and structure of the language are said to be *Grammatical*. In phonology the number of phonemes in a language system is finite. With the phonological rules, potential syllables in a language can be constructed. We also find *Systemic Gaps* due to the rules. However, the number of syllables occurring in the words used in the language is changeable. Those constructs that do not occur in the language forming quite a big *Accidental Gaps* in the language. The concept of *Potential Constructs and Actual Constructs* in Prosaic Linguistics covers all levels of grammar from orthographic, phonology, morphology, syntax to semantic (Chomsky 1965, Peng 1972, Aronoff 1982, Luksaneeyanawin 1992) as shown in the figure below.



2 Filling in the Gaps

There are constructs in the language that do not conform to the grammatical rules but occur in the usage of the language. They fill in both the systemic gaps and the accidental gaps in the language. Some of these constructs do not conform to the prosaic linguistics and are considered *ill-formed or deviations*, e.g., the long obstruent ending syllables

with high tones and the short obstruent ending syllables with falling tones in Thai are considered inadmissible. However, these constructs form a large portion of injections, intensifiers, loans and other emotive words in the language. Some constructs that do conform to the rules but never occur as institutionalized words in the language are considered as creativity in the language. These ungrammatical and non-occurring constructs fill in the *Systemic and the Accidental Gaps* of the language in use. Another example is from Thai NP (Head N+ modifier). In Thai the modifier followed the NP whereas in English the modifier word comes before the Head N. We have เค้กเนย /kheek3 (cake) น้ขจ0 (butter)/ (butter cake) which follows the prosaic constructions. Now we also have ชีสเค้ก /tehii3 (cheese) kheek3 (cake)/ (cheese cake). From the example not only the compounding rule of N construction that deviate, the final consonant /s/ that has limited distribution only to the syllable initial positions is also found in final position. In English examples of teenager language from the Sunday Times Magazine of 29.10.2016 are given as jargon of teenagers (Grey 2017). The examples given are 1) *I'm so selfiegenic* (I look great in selfies) 2) *Srsly tho, I LTIP.* (Seriously though, I laughed till I puked) 3) *Her look is on fleek! She is like NARP* (She looks so good! It's as if she's not a real person). The constructs found in these examples fill in the systemic gaps and the accidental gaps in all aspects of English linguistics: orthographic, phonological, morphological, and syntactic. Metaphorical expressions found in poetic as well as ordinary language are very good examples of semantic deviations, e.g. “*Light is the darkest thing in physics*”. This paradox gives strength to the truth value of this proposition. To be able to construct or interpret the personification “*Death stands above me whispering low.*” or the paradox “*The child is father of the man.*” needs the understanding of semantic deviation and the full context of communication that these expressions exist.

3 Implications

I intend to revisit these aspects of linguistics for the application in learning and mastering a language. Geoffrey Leech answered the question “*What are the main problems that you have faced in the teaching of Linguistics?*” (Pertejo 2006). He said “*I think, a lack of appreciation of grammar is the greatest problem I've had.*” Why students usually find linguistics and grammar boring, as a linguist myself I also face the same problem. Especially when we teach grammar of our native tongue where the students seem to have already acquired the language but cannot master the language both in production and perception. I

suggest we put more emphasis on the concept of *Gaps* and *Acceptability* that are related to the usage of the language. Let the students work with the corpus and find out the systemic and accidental gaps that are filled by creative use of the language. From my experience students enjoy the discussion on what, when, and why linguistic constructs are acceptable by using evidence from their own research.

Conclusions

This revisiting is hoped to inspire applied linguists to rethink about language teaching and learning and also for the practitioners of class-room material production to review their work to be more relevant to the present day language use. With a wide exploration of the various functions of language, the concept of *Acceptability* should be in terms of the usage of language in the Context of Communication. Both spoken and written grammar should be introduced via pragmatics. The exposure and the understanding of language variation in all aspects: geographical, socio-cultural, stylistic are a must in language learning and instructions.

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Lematic Properties of Adverbial Particles

Hyun Kyung Miki Bong¹

¹Shinshu University, Japan

Hkb22@shinshu-u.ac.jp

Abstract

English and Danish have adverbial particles in their lexicon whereas Japanese and Korean do not. This paper presents an innovative analysis of both syntactic and semantic properties of English adverbial particles.

Keywords

English Adverbial Particles, Phrasal Verbs, Lemmatic Properties, Language Acquisition, L1, L2

Introduction

English adverbial particles such as *up*, *on*, *out*, *down*, *around*, *about*, *forward*, and so on are different not only syntactically, but also semantically from prepositions such as *up*, *on*, *in*, and so on, although they may be morphologically identical. Phrasal verbs in English that consist of a verb followed by an adverbial particle have long been regarded as not only an essential but also a difficult part of what has to be learned by second language (L2) learners whose first language (L1) is head-final and does not select adverbial particles in the lexicon (e.g. Korean and Japanese).-

Although L1 learners seem to have no difficulty in acquiring English phrasal verbs, L2 learners whose L1 does not have such phrasal verbs find it extremely difficult or challenging to learn them, owing the syntactic peculiarity (some phrasal verbs allow for particle movement while other do not) and the semantic complexity (polysemic property). Despite such difficulties and challenges in L2 acquisition of English phrasal verbs, no study can be found that is dedicated to both syntactic and semantic complexities. This study attempts to investigate both the syntactic peculiarity and the semantic complexity of English phrasal verbs, briefly comparing with languages (e.g. Japanese) that have neither adverbial particles in their lexicon nor particle movement, but have other means such as verb-doubling (verb + verb) instead of phrasal verbs.

1 Syntactic Properties: Particle Movement

The syntax of English phrasal verbs has been studied focusing on the distinction between separable and non-separable adverbial particles from a verb, referring to particle movement. We suggest that Phrasal verbs can be divided into three types: (1) quasi-intransitive phrasal verbs which do not take an overt complement (object), (2) transitive phrasal verbs, which take an obligatory complement (object) and allow particle movement, and (3) Transitive phrasal verbs, which do not allow particle movement.

(1) Quasi-Intransitive Phrasal Verbs

- a. David *came up* with an idea.
- b. Henry *took off*.

(2) Transitive – Separable with Particle Movement

- a. The fireman *put out* the fire.
- b. The fireman *put* the fire *out*.

(3) Transitive – Non-Separable

- a. Laura *takes after* her father.
- b. *Laura *takes* her father *after*

In CHILDES data base, it is found that many uses of separable adverbial particles appear at the very early stage of L1 acquisition: at the age of two years, three months, and 4 days (2:03:04) in Adam's corpus provided by Brown (1973).

(4) Adam's Corpus (Brown 1973) (2:03:04)

- 1979 *CHI: put dirt up (.) put dirt up (.) put dirt up .
2052 *CHI: yep (.) I like pick dirt up firetruck .
5502 *CHI: pull Panda up (.) Mommy .

This leads to conclude that there is no difficulty in acquiring separable adverbial particles in phrasal verbs in L1 acquisition.

Although there are various experimental studies that have inquired into whether L2 learners can acquire such syntactic properties as movement, which are parameterized and have given rise to the parametric differences between languages, there is no study that takes into account the lemmatic properties that are parameterized both in the selection of adverbial particles and in the construction of lemmatic properties. Let us move onto other properties of English phrasal verbs.

2 Classification by Lemmatic Properties

Phrasal verbs have also been studied in various fields such as semantics, L2 pedagogy, and L2 acquisition. In the cognitive approach (sometimes called ‘conceptual approach’) phrasal verbs have prototypical (literal) senses (meanings), which are then extended to less prototypical ones, and finally to the least prototypical (figurative or metaphorical). Within this approach to L1 and L2 acquisition, the most prototypical (literal) senses are assumed to be acquired earlier (more easily) than the less prototypical ones including figurative or metaphorical senses (See Bong 2011, 2016 for counter arguments and evidence against the prototypicality hypothesis).

Importantly, some languages such as Danish and English select adverbial particles in their lexicon while other languages such as Japanese and Korean have neither adverbial particles nor such syntactic properties as particle-movement. Instead, such languages without adverbial particles use other means such as verb-doubling (verb1 morpheme (‘tabe-ru’ literally means *eat*) + verb2 morpheme (‘owa-ru’ literally means *finish*), inducing complex verbs such as ‘tabe-owa-ru,’ (which literally means *finish up eating*) to express aspectual meanings: e.g. the lemmatic (syntactic and semantic) property of [+culmination] or [+completion] that the verb and the adverbial particle must share (to undergo agreement operation) to form a phrasal verb. On the other hand, English seems to use adverbial particles such as *up* for such aspectual meanings as [+culmination] and [+completion]. Such lemmatic properties as move or agreement related features vary in individual languages. This is known as ‘a parameterization in the selection and construction of features from the innate universal lexicon (a universal set of features) (See Bong 2005, 2009).

Suggesting that phrasal verbs consist of lemmatic features that match between a head verb and an adverbial particle, we can now classify them into three types based on their lemmatic properties: transparent, Aspectual and Abstract (Idiomatic):

- (4) Transparent: e.g. [+3Dimension] , [+Physical]
 - a. Lisa *invited* me *out*.
 - b. *Bring* them *in*/ *Bring in* food.
- (5) Aspectual: e.g. [+Culmination], [+Completion]
 - a. Dona used it *up*. b. *Finish* it *up*!/ *Eat* it *up*!
- (6) Abstract-Idiomatic: [-Physical][-Concrete]
 - a. *Egg on* (meaning ‘urge on’)

These three types of phrasal verbs defined by their lemmatic properties should also be taken into account in any acquisition studies of English phrasal verbs since some languages construct those lemmatic properties with different lexical items (words) such as verb-doubling, and thus, L2 learners should find it more difficult to acquire

phrasal verbs than other lexical learning (one-word verbs), and prefer to use one-word verbs over phrasal verbs. In addition we can now predict development of lexical items in L1 acquisition, which should be determined by the Input quality and quantity with causal factors such as frequency, obscurity and ambiguity (leading to language change) (Bong 2005, 2009), not by the degree of prototypicality of senses of phrasal verbs as a formulaic expression (i.e. the prototypicality hypothesis). In addition, acquisition (identification) of those parameterized lemmatic properties of phrasal verbs in L2 acquisition should be further studied to account for variability and learnability.

3 Discussion and Concluding Remarks

An examination of the CHILDES data base for L1 acquisition and the consequent finding that children use separable adverbial particles at the early stage of L1 development, has led tentatively to the conclusion that children find no difficulty in acquiring adverbial particles that form phrasal verbs. However, it is not clear whether all the early uses of phrasal verbs are prototypical or aspectual. Further studies should be carried out. In addition, it is presented that the lemmatic properties of lexical items (verbs and adverbial particles) vary among individual languages (i.e. parameterization in selection and construction of lemmatic features). This linguistic analysis of phrasal verbs which is different from the conceptual approach based on prototypicality, which can predict the development order of individual senses, but cannot account for the difficulty in the L2 acquisition of phrasal verbs.

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On the Aspectual Properties of English Degree Achievement Verbs

Jiwon Kim

Catholic University of Korea

cindyjw@hanmail.net

Abstract

This paper concerns the aspectual properties of English degree achievements verbs. By Vendler (1967), English verbs are classified in to 4 categories: statives, activities, accomplishments and achievements. Each of the verbs is defined by aspectual properties called features which include [static], [telic] and [durative].

The verbs known as degree achievements are interpreted as activities, accomplishments or sometimes achievements. In this paper, we define the features of degree achievements as [+durative] and [+telic] by analyzing various examples and show that they are subcategories of accomplishments which share the same features.

Keywords

Aspects, Features, Degree Achievements

Introduction

Verbs have been great interests to those who study linguistics. Among thousands of researches, aspects are regarded as one of the tough areas. The general definition of aspects is that they view the internal temporal constituency of a situation (Comrie, 1976). Among many researchers, Vendler (1957) classifies the verbs focusing on their meanings. We start our discussion with the review of Vendler (1957).

1. Features

Vendler (1957) classifies verbs into 4 categories: statives, activities, accomplishments and achievements. See below.

- (1) John loves Mary. (Statives)
- (2) John walks. (Activities)

- (3) Mary built a house. (Accomplishments)
- (4) Mary reached the summit. (Achievements)

To define the characters of verbs as above, we basically use 3 criteria called features: [static], [telic] and [durative]. We discuss each of the feature down below.

1.1 [Static] and [Dynamic]

By Pustejovsky (1988), [static] means 'properties'. It holds over intervals of time whereas [dynamic] means 'occurrences'. It changes some form of the situation over intervals of time. Simply put, [+static]¹ mostly describes mental activities and [-static] does physical activities.

1.2 [Telic] and [Atelic]

Telicity is one of the most important features that decides aspects. Basically, the event with terminal point is considered as [+telic] and the event without is [-telic]. People sometimes make a mistake that they decide telicity by their general knowledge. However, it has to be decided by the situation described by a sentence.

1.3 [Durative] and [Punctual]

[+durative] describes the change of an event throughout the intervals of time. On the other hand, a situation happening in a blink of an eye is regarded as [-durative]. It is almost

¹ This paper uses [-static] instead of [dynamic], [-telic] instead of [atelic] and [-durative] instead of [punctual].

impossible to set the duration of time that an event has to hold to be considered as [+durative]. Therefore, we follow our intuition when deciding the durativity of events.

1.4 Conclusion of Chapter 1

As a conclusion of this chapter, we put a chart which shows the features of Vendler's classification.

Table 1. Vendler's Classification with Features

	Static	Telic	Durative
Statives	+	-	+
Activities	-	-	+
Accomplishments	-	+	+
Achievements	-	+	-

2. Degree Achievements

DAs are known as their unusual behaviors; they are interpreted as activities, accomplishments and sometimes achievements.

- (6) The soup cooled.
- (7) The sky brightened in a second.
- (8) The laundry dried for few hours.

(6) can be interpreted as activities because it describes physical change of the soup. (7) is achievements and (8) is accomplishments since the former describes a sudden change of a situation and latter does a process of changing.

2.1 Durativity of Degree Achievements

In this chapter, we prove that DAs are [+durative] and discard the interpretation of achievements. Durativity of DAs is not oppose to our intuition. We assume that brightening of the sky takes time. However, we use the sentence like (7) because it sometimes happens in real world exceptionally and type coercion² done by "in a second" shifts original feature of DAs [+durative] to [-durative].

² Simply put, type coercion is a change of features by external elements such as singular NP complements and progressive morpheme. By Bennett, Herlick, Hoyt, Liro, & Santisteban (1990) these elements are called aspectual function.

2.2 Telicity of Degree Achievements

In this section, we show that DAs are [+telic] and exclude the activities interpretation. DAs are understood as both [+telic] and [-telic]. To assert that DAs are only [+telic], we must suggest the exact terminal point of a situation described by DAs.

Some say "The laundry dried" when it was 70 percent dried while others do when 100 percent dried. The important thing is we all assume that the event ends anyway. It might not be theoretical enough but still reasonable since it happens when we use accomplishments: "the plane landed on the ground" can be both when it was slowly driving the runway and completely stopped.

3. Conclusion

We prove the durativity of DAs by type coercion and the telicity by comparison between DAs and accomplishments. Since the original features of DAs can be said [+durative] and [+telic], they are possibly considered as a subcategory of accomplishments. To understand DAs as accomplishments is quite challenging but is an easy and efficient way of understanding the properties of English verbs at the same time.

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Teaching English Effectively with the Use of Chants and Nursery Rhymes to Heighten Learners' Phonological Awareness

Naoko Muramatsu

Numadu College, National Institute of Technology

n-muramatsu@numadu-ct.ac.jp

Abstract

The aim of this research is to examine to what extent learners can heighten their phonological awareness by learning English phonetics such as phonemes, consonant clusters, syllables, accents and intonations. The teaching methods taken in this research was as follows: Firstly, the teacher explicitly explained about the points of articulation for respective phonemes, and then learners put into practice what they had just learned. Next, the teacher guided the learners how to blend separate phones to build up words and segment words into phones. Finally, under the teacher's guidance, the learners practiced, using chants and nursery rhymes, how to orally build up English sentences with phonemes, syllables, accents and intonations.

The survey of the above teaching methods was conducted on around 30 college students. The learners' comments on their learning were also qualitatively analyzed. The result of the research indicates that learning and understanding English phonetics using chants and nursery rhymes supports EFL learners' abilities not only of listening and speaking skills but also of memorizing and reading English words and sentences.

Keywords

English education, phonological awareness, pronunciation, articulatory phonetics, chants, nursery rhymes, learning community

1 Introduction

Teaching English pronunciation has presumably been a blind spot for a long time in English education in Japan as Ota (2013) claims. Most junior high or high school teachers seem to have omitted so far any explicit, systematic guidance of English phonetics. Perhaps because of it, most of three thousands of Japanese university freshmen the presenter have taught during the last decade

commonly pronounced English phones such as /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/ in a wrong way. This phenomenon can be ascribed to the fact that Japanese students unconsciously substitute the above four phones respectively for /h/, /b/, /s/, /z/ in their listening and speaking. This can be said to be phonemic transfers from Japanese, the students' first language, to English, their second language.

Under these circumstances, the presenter considers sharing her pronunciation teaching methodologies and this survey could be meaningful with those who would agree that English pronunciation teaching is definitely essential in Japan.

2 Methodologies

2.1 Specific Aspects

The presenter conducted three 90-minute pronunciation lessons, and their specific aspects were as follows. 1. The lessons were based on phonetics. 2. Learners were encouraged to consciously study about various components of pronunciation such as phones, points of articulations, diphthongs, consonant clusters, syllables, accents, and rhythms. 3. Learners were encouraged to assist each other in activities including chants, nursery rhymes and various pronunciation games, which resulted in creating learning communities.

2.2 Phones and phonemes

To start teaching pronunciation, the presenter taught International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and points of articulations for respective phones based on articulatory phonetics. They were required to find specific phones in various words, or they tried to pronounce sets of IPA to make phonemes, which can be done in games. Through these games, learners were encouraged or spontaneously started

helping each other, and motivated themselves to participate in more advanced learning. This naturally resulted in creating cooperative learning environment and learning communities.

2.3 Syllables, accents and rhythms

Syllables, accents and intonations were also taught. Firstly, the students learned that each syllable contains a vowel or diphthong, and practiced how to count syllables and point out which syllable has an accent in respective words. Secondly, they learn English accents at phrase or sentence levels, including shifts of accents. They also learned the difference between content words and function words, as well as the basic rule that content words are generally pronounced with accents while function words pronounced without accents and/or in weak forms if they have any. Finally, the students learned how intonations in respective sentences vary according to its context.

At the above first and second stages, the presenter introduced chants and nursery rhymes such as “London Bridge is Falling Down” or “Twinkle Twinkle Little Star” to show the function of rhyming. The students practiced how to rhyme and then practiced to put accents on content words in sentences.

In addition, linking, elision and assimilation of phones were taught, with several phrases such as ‘did you’, ‘said her’, ‘said him’, and ‘wanted to’. These areas of pronunciation were less focused in this research since pronunciation is wide-ranging.

3 Survey

This survey was carried out on around 30 college students who took the presenter’s elective English class hoping to study abroad in the near future. The participants had never studied abroad for more than a few weeks nor had an explicit guidance of English pronunciation before taking the presenter’s English class where the data of this research were collected. The procedure of the survey is as follows. The students orally read an English passage and recorded them just before and after the presenter’s pronunciation lessons. The presenter carefully listened to the recordings several times, and carefully checked those recordings especially focusing on the following two points: 1. Whether the participants pronounced each phone of respective consonants; 2. Whether they made rhythms correctly by making accents on content words.

4 Results and discussion

The result of the survey shows that, under the teacher’s guidance, the participants could

understand the ways to pronounce phones learning points of articulations, for the first time during their six-year or longer English learning. They could improve their skills to correctly pronounce English phones through just three 90-minute lessons with the procedures explained in Section 2 in this paper.

On the other hand, it was found that a monthly survey was too short to scale the learners’ improvements in skills in making rhythms in sentences. At the same time, the following fact was ascertained that most students could read English passage making a little more rhythms after the lessons. Further survey will be needed to examine whether the methodologies could be effective enough in this pronunciation area.

5 Conclusion

The finding from this research is that three 90-minute pronunciation lessons based on phonetics are quite effective and meaningful in order to enable learners to understand English pronunciation for the first time. At least, it was acknowledged that they could acquire knowledge of correct points of articulations as well as phonological awareness.

The students showed concentration and considerable enthusiasm all the while they were engaged in pronunciation learning, and earnestly asked for the teacher’s evaluation on the basis of phonetics. The pronunciation lessons were welcomed every time and appreciated by the students, which fact was ascertained in the FD questionnaire. It was confirmed that the presenter’s pronunciation lessons achieved seven commandments out of ‘Ten commandments for motivating language learners’ suggested by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998).

In conclusion, English pronunciation ought to be more emphasized in the scene of English teaching and learning in Japan.

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An Examination of the Possibility of Oral Reading as an Informal Evaluation Tool for Measuring EFL Reading Comprehension

Fumihisa Fujinaga

Kindai University

fumihisa.fujinaga@lac.kindai.ac.jp

Abstract

This study examined the possibility of using oral reading fluency (ORF) to informally assess students' reading comprehension. The analysis of holistic and analytic teacher scoring of ORF suggested that fluency scores obtained from both rating methods could serve the purpose of reading ability assessment. Also discussed was the number of raters and scoring categories to evaluate ORF reliably.

Keywords

Oral reading, evaluation, reading comprehension

Introduction

Oral reading fluency (ORF) has been used to informally assess reading competence in L1 reading classrooms (Jeon, 2012; Rasinski, 2010). In foreign language instruction, teachers also refer to ORF when evaluating students' language skills, including reading comprehension (Heaton, 1988). The present study, in view of this, aims to explore ORF as a functional reference in informal assessment of EFL students' reading comprehension.

1 Background and research questions

In a case study on ORF, Fujinaga (2016) examined its relationship with the following two aspects of reading comprehension: the *ability* to read and understand a written text (i.e. reading proficiency) and the *understanding* resulting from the processing of a written text (i.e. text comprehension). The results showed that fluency measured through WPM, the number of pauses, and mean pause length did not relate significantly to reading comprehension.

Meanwhile, teacher-rated fluency was found to have a significant correlation with participants' reading proficiency, although it did not correlate with text comprehension during oral reading. These findings suggested that ORF could work as an

informal index of reading comprehension ability when it is captured by means of human rating.

However, Fujinaga (2016) dealt only with a holistic method of rating ORF and did not consider an analytic one, which was another major type of rating method. Besides, the study lacked a viewpoint on what can be done concerning fluency rating criteria and raters in order to achieve a fair quality of assessment.

The present study thus posed the following research questions (RQs) for investigation:

1. How could holistic and analytic methods of rating ORF function as part of reading comprehension assessment?
2. How many raters and scoring categories are ideally required to get a reliable measure of ORF for better assessment of reading comprehension?

2 Method

2.1 Participants

Two Japanese teachers of EFL participated as raters of student performance. They both have teaching experience at junior and senior high schools of more than ten years. Before rating, they were given sufficient instruction on how to score student performance.

2.2 Materials

Oral reading samples obtained in Fujinaga (2016) from 17 Japanese 12th-grade students were used for scoring. They read aloud a narrative text with a readability score of approximately 85 according to Flesch Reading Ease. Their reading proficiency levels ranged from CEFR A2 to B1, which was determined by using their scores of the TOEIC reading section. The average score of the group was 201.88 (out of 495).

2.3 ORF Scoring

Scoring was carried out for the following fluency aspects of performance: pause behaviour, phrasing (i.e. dividing text into meaningful word groups), smoothness, and pace. Descriptions for these features and corresponding scoring scales were devised by the author. These were based mainly on Rasinski (2010) and Shimizu (2009).

Student performances were scored both analytically and holistically. In holistic scoring, each performance was evaluated as a whole and assigned a single score of 1-4 (i.e. 1 for 'poor'; 2 for 'fair'; 3 for 'good'; 4 for 'very good'). In analytic scoring, on the other hand, separate scores of 1-4 were assigned to each fluency feature mentioned above.

2.4 Data analysis

To examine RQ 1, the intercorrelation among ORF and reading comprehension scores was calculated for analysis. RQ 2 was investigated through a simulation study to determine the number of scoring categories and raters deemed sufficient for reliable assessment.

3 Results and discussion

Holistically Rated Fluency correlated more with Pace and Phrasing than with Pause and Smoothness. This suggests that the holistic rating of ORF comparatively concerned rate of reading and word group formation during reading (see Table 1).

Table 1. Correlation Among ORF and Reading Comprehension Scores

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Pause	1					
2. Phrasing	.72	1				
3. Pace	.62	.69	1			
4. Smoothness	.73	.74	.88	1		
5. Holistically Rated Fluency	.49	.75	.60	.48	1	
6. Reading Comprehension	.47	.70	.66	.69	.61	1

Note: Variables 1-4 are the components of analytically rated fluency.

Both holistic and analytic rating related to reading comprehension, with relatively high coefficient values. Also, the values of Phrasing, Pace, Smoothness, and Holistically Rated Fluency did not differ significantly from one another. These findings imply that the two ORF rating methods can both be an option when informally assessing reading comprehension ability. Depending on teaching and learning contexts, they can be used selectively.

Variance components regarding ORF rating were estimated and, based on them, a generalisability coefficient was determined. The coefficient serves as

an indicator of reliability. The calculation yielded a high value of .886, suggesting that the ORF scores given by the two raters were reasonably in agreement and therefore the result of ORF rating can be considered reliable.

Figure 1 displays the result of the simulation study to examine how the number of raters and scoring categories could affect generalisability coefficients. It is suggested that, in the setting of the present study, a minimum of two raters and two scoring categories might be necessary to achieve a coefficient value of over .80.

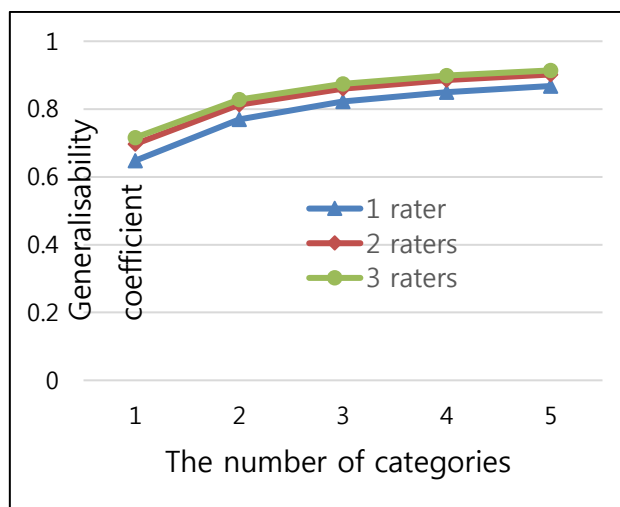


Figure 1. Generalisability coefficients according to the number of categories and raters

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Language and Media Role: A case study of environmental issues presented in selected Thai English newspapers

Watthana Suksiripakonchai

Srinakharinwirot University

watthanas@g.swu.ac.th

Abstract

McLuhan (1964) envisaged over 50 years ago that the world would become a global village. The corollary of such claim gave rise to the notion that humans can no longer live in isolation, but rather connected by continuous and instantaneous electronic media (West & Turner, 2014). Media play a vital role in influencing how people shape their perception about the world around them. Language use also plays a complementary role in supporting the influence media have on audience perception. This is based on the sociolinguistic viewpoint vis-à-vis how language can shape the way people understand society (Foley, 2013). This study examined the role of media and how it contributed to the audience perception about the current environmental issues in Thailand, Krabi Coal-Fired Power Plant Project. It focused on the discourse level of language employed in headlines and throughout the contents of three leading English newspapers in Thailand: Bangkok Post, The Nation and Khaosod English. The findings indicated implications about teaching English critical reading skills for ESL/EFL students.

Keywords

English newspaper, media language, media role

Introduction

The Thai Government planned to construct a coal-fired power plant in Krabi province, Thailand. However, opponents to the proposed plan envisaged serious environmental impact to the Andaman Sea; therefore, vigorous and widespread objections were all over the Thai news in early 2017 (Krabi coal-fired power plant, 2017).

1 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework of this study was based on the Agenda Setting Theory (McCombs & Bell, 1996). Essentially, media hold the gatekeeper status,

so they select salient and correlated information or news they intend to make an agenda (Lasswell, 1948). This was the case as seen in the news on Krabi coal-fired plant. Therefore, Agenda Setting Theory was applicable for this study. Despite the original use of the Agenda Setting Theory in television news, newspapers were used in this study as it can create similar impact upon the audience as television viewing (Miller & Roberts, 2010).

2 Research methodology

The methodology employed in this study was the qualitative approach. Content analysis was used to analyse the content of the news articles. The articles were conveniently selected to use in the analysis.

3 Results

3.1 Bangkok Post

An opinion article by Bangkok Post on 22 February 2017 in response to the Krabi coal-fired power plant was entitled ‘Coal no longer an option’ (2017) followed by another article headlined ‘Anti-coal group demands new environmental study’ (2017) on 23 February 2017. These two news headlines utilised emotive language (‘no longer’ and ‘demand’) because it appealed emotionally to the audience (Macagno, 2014). It has been found that emotive language could effectively persuade the audience (Farrokhi & Nazemi, 2015). Other strong emotive language and blame were also identified such as ‘coal is dirty, filthy and unacceptable’, ‘terrible decisions’ and so on. Forceful language was also employed through the modal auxiliary verb *must*, which was found on numerous occasions throughout the article. For example, ‘the process *must* be in compliance with the 1992 Environment Act’, ‘an independent panel *must* be set up’ and so on (see Anti-coal group demands new environmental study, 2017).

3.2 The Nation

In its article entitled 'Academic warns against referendum on Krabi coal-fired plant conflict', the reporting style endeavoured to persuade the public to ease off the tension it had with the Government (see Phumhiran, 2017). This implied the media was acting in support of the Government's plan. According to Aristotle's rule of *ethos*, the author took advantage of the credible source, the academics, whose authority and credentials could provide significant weight on the perception of the public. Through its selection of emotive language in including 'conflict', 'population breakdown' and 'intensify', the media outlet attempted to be persuasive over the mind of the audience by placing an emphasis on how a referendum would only intensify the conflict (Phumhiran, 2017, p. 2).

3.3 Khaosod English

In its article of 21 February 2017 entitled 'Krabi Coal Plant Sent Back for Fresh Review', it encompassed no specific ties to any particular side of the situation (see Krabi Coal Plant Sent Back, 2017). Throughout the article, Khaosod English plainly reported the facts around what had been happening so far. The article employed mostly reporting verbs such as 'said', 'announced', 'acknowledged', 'argued', 'released' and 'believed'. Neither strong emotive nor forceful language was used to persuade audience to a specific direction.

4 Conclusion

In this study, the findings illustrated that the media, through a specific channel (newspaper), played a vital role in shaping perception of the audience. In essence, the use of language the media adopted in their reporting, no matter how subtle, would likely influence the opinions (over time) of readers. Therefore, when teaching critical reading skills, especially extensive reading, it may be useful that students are exposed to the reading materials beforehand. It is to ensure that they are familiar with the content of the story. This technique will allow students to do pre-reading and critically think about the issues in the story before class. By doing so they are less likely to be easily swayed by the story due to the language of the media. As for intensive listening, use of emotive language and how to interpret its denotative and connotative meanings may serve as a useful topic in an ESL/EFL classroom.

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Errors in English Argumentative Essays Written by Thai EFL students: Interlanguage and Intralanguage Aspect

Kamolphan Jangarun

Kasetsart University

faaskja@ku.ac.th

Abstract

Writing in L2 tends to be the most difficult language skill for ESL and EFL students; most of them makes errors inevitably when they try to master the writing skill. In order to help improve students' grammatical accuracy in writing, it is essential to analyse and understand their errors and their specific types of errors. Grammatical errors in English argumentative essays made by Thai EFL students are examined in this study. In many EFL research studies, it is claimed that interlanguage factors were the major sources of errors in student's writing. On the other hand, it has also been argued that the majority of errors were resulted from intralanguage factors. Therefore, this study aims to identify and analyse the frequent types of grammatical errors in students' argumentative essays by using Error Analysis (EA), both in terms of interlanguage and intralanguage factors. The data were drawn from the essays written by 300 Thai EFL students from various universities in and around Bangkok. The 30 essays were selected: 15 from the top high English exposure (TEHs), and 15 from the bottom low English exposure (TELs) based on their English Language Exposure scores. It was found that TEHs tended to have intralanguage errors such as overgeneralization, hypercorrection and incomplete rule application, whereas TELs were more likely to have interlanguage errors such as L1 transfer, and collocation errors. Being aware of linguistics errors in these students' writings can assist writing teachers to focus more on specific types of errors which require remedial work and provide significant implications for teaching English writing in Thai EFL classrooms.

Keywords

Argumentative Essays, Errors Analysis, Interlanguage, Intralanguage

Introduction

Writing has been proven to be the most difficult language skill for ESL and EFL students, and even for native speakers of English (Norrish, 1983). It is, therefore, expected to find errors made by EFL and ESL students. In Thai EFL students' writings, errors

weaken the writing in terms of meaning and quality. Errors can identify how students acquire the language, and can confirm the predictions of the theory lying behind bilingual comparison, hence enhance the learning processes (Corder, 1981). The causes of ineffective writing should be identified so that a good piece of writing is produced. There are two main errors's sources in second language learning. The first source of errors is interlanguage. These can be found when students wrongly apply the rules of their first language in producing the target language. The second source of errors is intralanguage. These errors reflect natural stages of development which are similar to the way children learn their native language (Dulay et al., 1982). This research will be focused on errors in the sentence structures written by Thai EFL high English exposure (TEHs), and Thai EFL low English exposure (TELs) in order to find out the difficulties facing Thai EFL students in writing English.

1 Research Design

1.1 Participants

The English Language Exposure Questionnaires (Centre for Research in Speech and Language Processing-CRSLP, 2002, 2011) were used for stratified sampling. They were distributed to 300 Thai undergraduate students from various universities in and around Bangkok. These students were asked to write an argumentative essay on "Computers and their impact on People's Lives". They were to write about the advantages and disadvantages of computers. The essays of the 15 students who got the highest English exposure scores, and the 15 students who got the lowest score were selected for this research.

1.2 Classification of Errors

This present study focused on errors in the sentence-structures of English. An English sentence comprises of a noun phrase (NP) and a verb phrase (VP). This basic formula is called the sentence structure rules: S => NP VP. Within the NP, errors in determiners,

nouns, pronouns, subjectless and subject redundancy were found. For the analysis of VP, tenses, wrong verbs: main verbs and auxiliary verbs, voices: active and passive constructions, S-V agreement, verb formation, verb omission: main verbs and auxiliary verbs, phrasal verbs were found. Besides, discourse connectors, punctuations, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, parallel structure and fragment were also marked. The occurrences of NP were more than VP and others because the NP can be both the subject and the object of a sentence

2 Findings and Discussions

The 17 types of errors in both TEHs and TELs were displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. The 17 types of errors in the 30 Thai EFL students, 15 in each group.

	Types of errors	TEHs		TELs	
		%	Rank	%	Rank
NP	Determiners	21.47	2	24.02	2
H 52.13%	Nouns	28.28	1	32.63	1
L 58.92%	Pronouns	2.39	10	2.27	10
VP	Tense	1.87	12	2.11	11
H 20.95%	Wrong V.	3.75	8	4.23	7
L 19.03%	Voice	0.85	13	1.06	13
	S-V. agreement	7.50	5	5.59	5
	V. formation	4.09	7	3.47	8
	V. omission	2.73	9	2.42	9
	Phrasal V.	0.17	15	0.15	16
Others	Adjectives	0.85	13	1.66	12
H 26.92%	Adverbs	2.04	11	2.27	10
L 22.05%	DCs	8.69	3	4.68	6
	Prepositions	4.94	6	5.89	4
	Punctuations	7.67	4	6.19	3
	Fragment	0.34	14	0.60	15
	Parallel Structure	2.39	10	0.76	14

It was found that Nouns and Determiners were the main problematic ones. For NP, TEHs and TELs had problems in using Mass N. vs Count N., and Singular N. vs. Plural N. These errors in TELs could be the results of L1 Transfer. Plurality of nouns are not marked and the concept of Mass N does not exist in Thai since all Ns in Thai can be counted using classifiers (Luksaneeyanawin, 2005). However, it was revealed that some errors in TEHs were from intralanguage; for example, “*Childs play computer games a lot.” was the result of overgeneralization as students know how to mark plurality “games”, and they assume this rule can also be applied for “childs”. In term of Determiners, article is the most difficult one for Thai students to acquire the rule because there are no articles in Thai language. For TELs, the results showed only omission of articles which was

caused by L1 Transfer, whereas TEHs had both omission and addition. For VP, S-V agreement was one of major problems which was caused by L1 Transfer because Thai verbs have only one form. Besides, some TELs omitted verb “to be” in front of adjectives; for example, “*It fast.” because they employed the concept of Thai State verbs where the verbs are equated to adjectives, and auxiliary verbs are not needed in front of them (Luksaneeyanawin, 2005). It was, however, found that in TEHs errors could be a result of intralanguage in V. formation. For discourse connectors (DCs), many errors in TELs were omission of DCs as in Thai, two sentences can be written without linking words; some previous studies marked this error as a run-on sentence. This could be considered as oral style in language. Nonetheless, the errors found in TEHs in the use of DCs could be the effect of Transfer of Training. Errors in punctuation in both groups were caused by L1 Transfer as there is no use of punctuation marks in Thai language.

3 Conclusions and Implications

It can be concluded that both TEHs and TELs made quite different errors which were from both interlanguage and intralanguage factors. TELs showed more distinctive errors than TEHs in Noun aspect. Surprisingly, the result showed that both TEHs and TELs rarely used collocations which may be a result from an Avoidance Strategy. TELs also applied this strategy in using DCs. The results from this study can be used for improving both teaching and learning. The first implication emphasizes on instructors, and course developers. They would discover problems that need further attention and explanation from a linguistic aspect. The second implication for students once they realize the sources of errors is that they will have more language awareness which could lead to better learning that helps improving their production in all aspects..

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English for Specific Purpose (ESP) Speaking Test as An Attempt to Prepare University Graduates in Indonesia for ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) Job Market

Hervina Zetka Harmyn

Education and Teacher Training College of Yayasan Abdi Pendidikan Payakumbuh

vina_hz03@yahoo.com

Abstract

The implementation of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) poses both benefits and challenges for Indonesian university graduates. With free movement of skilled labor in the ASEAN countries, AEC provides them with larger work opportunities and with demanding job qualification as well as more competitors. Due to the different languages in ASEAN countries, mastery of English as the official language of ASEAN will be required in both job recruitment process and professional world. Therefore, it is essential for the higher educational institutions to ensure their graduates meet the specified language requirement through assessing their speaking proficiency. To do this, selecting the most appropriate speaking assessment is very crucial. In this paper, the writer proposes that four types of speaking assessment tasks i.e. interview, presentation, negotiation, and discussion are relevant to be used for this purpose because they can assess students' ability to use the language in those contexts. To enhance its applicability, incorporating the element of ESP test can familiarize the graduates with the language in their work-related field since the test content will be derived from specific language situation.

Keywords

English for Specific Purpose (ESP) Test, ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), University Graduates, Job Market, Speaking Assessment

Introduction

AEC job competition brings both benefits and challenges for Indonesian university graduate. Pyakurel (2013) mentions that AEC will significantly increase intra-regional flow of university graduates in the ASEAN countries. However, This given job situation also poses its own challenge due the different educational and linguistic situation in ASEAN countries.

To prepare the university graduates for this job

competition, higher educational institutions are required to use appropriate language assessment. As an official ASEAN language, assessing students' English ability is inevitable. Therefore, applying appropriate speaking assessment method is necessary. For this purpose, the author will attempt to explore speaking assessment methods that are best fit for job recruitment and professional world.

1 Theoretical Review

Despite the apparent various languages spoken in the Southeast Asian countries, all the founders of ASEAN seem to agree that English would be used as the lingua franca (Okudaira 1999:95). Through the Article 34 of the ASEAN Charter in 2009, English was sanctioned as the official language for this organization. Therefore, the ability to speak this language is a compulsory for those who wants to function fully in an integrated community of ASEAN.

As an important of human live, using communication in professional world will certainly be inevitable. Sweeney (1997) asserts that there are four key areas involved in professional communication. Socializing is the process of communication required in making relation or established relationship with others. Presentation is the process of reporting and sharing the result of the certain work in the forum. Participation also involves the process sharing the ideas with others to solve certain work issues. Finally, negotiation is the process of reaching agreement through discussion with others. Another area is interview (Insley:2014). The main goal of job interview is to gather information about the job seeker.

In order to confirm that the students possess the ability to communicate in English, a set speaking assessment needs to be designed. Speaking assessment is conducted through examiner's interaction with the candidate using a series of speaking assessment tasks

(Burgess & Head : 2005). Based on Fulcher (2014) and Burgess & Head (2005), several speaking assessment tasks can be used to measure students' performance in communication for professional world. These tasks are narrative task, visual prompt, negotiation task, discussion task and presentation task.

To improve the applicability of this assessment, it is suggested to incorporate ESP element. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mention that ESP can be viewed as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to contents and method are based on the learners' "reason for learning". Moreover, Day and Krzanowski (2011), state that ESP involves teaching and learning specific skills and language needed by particular learners for a particular purpose. ESP speaking assessment gives students the test material related to job field they intend to join in.

2 Methodology

The research was carried out on research and development method. The focus was in developing the English for specific purposes speaking assessment models for the seventh semester English department students of STKIP Abdi Pendidikan Payakumbuh who enrolled the ESP course. The research was conducted through the step of doing need analysis, designing the assessment models, validating the developed model, and applying it.

Ridwan (2007) there are five categories of product validity which is converted into the following interval

3 Findings and Discussion

The result of the need analysis showed that the students who enrolled the ESP course in STKIP Abdi Pendidikan Payakumbuh need the skill in the interview, presentation, discussion and negotiation. These result are used as the basis of designing the assessment models by the researcher, which leads to the following proposed ESP speaking assessment models, which are interview, presentation, discussion, and negotiation.

The validation result from the expert for this model can be seen in the following table :

Table 3. Result of Expert Validation

No	Indicators	Score	Category
1.	Selection of assessment models	82.6	Very valid
2.	Relevance of assessment models to teaching objectives	83.33	Very valid
3.	Language	75.50	Valid
4.	Mechanical and structure	76.45	Valid
5.	The suitability of scoring rubrics toward the assessment models	79.16	Valid

Average score	79.40	Valid
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In addition, the product practicality by the lecturers who apply this assessment models is presented in the following table :

Table 3. Result of Practicality

No.	Indicators	Score	Category
1.	Relevance models toward teaching instructional	79.16	Practical
2.	The ease of using the models	83.33	Practical
3.	Benefit of the models	83.33	Practical
4.	Language use	75.45	Practical
5.	Completeness of media	74.65	Practical
6.	The compliance of time	83.33	Practical
	Average score	79.87	Practical

4 Conclusion

From the above findings, it can be concluded that four types of speaking assessment tasks can used in the higher educational settings in order to prepares the graduates for job recruitment and professional advancement. Those four tasks are interview, presentation, negotiation, and discussion. The EPS speaking assessment developed from these four types are also valid and practical to be used in assessing students' oral competence.

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Teachers' Reflective Practice in EFL Classrooms as Professional Development

Diah Wulansari Hudaya

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

diahwulanhudaya@student.upi.edu

Abstract

The gap between the reality and teachers' expectation on their students' performance has been an issue these days. Having a reflective teaching is believed can help teachers to overcome this problem and develop their professionalism in teaching practice. Therefore, it is important to investigate teachers' reflective level and how they reflect their teaching practice, so it can be a reference for teacher to develop their professionalism. A survey using language teaching reflection inventory and an open-ended question was administered to 30 EFL teachers. The quantitative data were analyzed by means of descriptive statistics and the qualitative results were translated into English and then summarized. The findings indicated that the teachers' reflective practice was at medium level and they reflected on their teaching practice by writing, talking to colleagues, and having students' feedback which mostly belong to practical component.

Keywords: reflective teaching, language teaching reflection inventory, professional development

1. Introduction

Sometimes it is common to see that what teachers expect in their classroom is different with the reality. In reality, teachers may face many issues in the teaching practices. For instance, a teacher may plan a lesson well, but the result is not what is expected, or a teaching method advised by the curriculum doesn't run well with the situation in the classroom. Then, a teacher may think and try to find what might be wrong and find the solution about the problem he/ she faces in the classroom by observing his/ her classroom, asking his/ her colleagues, or getting students' feedback. Here, it can be said that the teacher is being reflective. Bailey (2012) defines reflective practice as the idea that professionals evaluate their own work, understanding their purposes, rationales, and practice carefully, and then try

to improve their work by making notes on lesson plans, videotaping lessons, writing journal, or a blog about teaching. Farrell (2016) mentions that using reflective practice in developing teachers' professionalism is from the belief that they can improve their teaching by reflecting on their teaching practices consciously and systematically. Hence, it is clear that to be a professional teacher, one of the qualifications is being able to reflect on his/ her own teaching practice.

Akbari et al. (2010) developed English language teaching reflection inventory with five components: (1) practical (actual act of reflection using tools, like keeping journals), (2) cognitive (conscious efforts of professional development, such as attending conferences), (3) learner (knowledge of students and affective/ cognitive states), (4) meta-cognitive (knowledge of teachers' personality, learning and teaching, and their profession), and (5) critical (the socio-political dimensions of teachings). Xu et al. (2015) found that the teachers' reflection was at the medium level, while Farrell's (2016) study indicated that being reflective is useful for teachers. Thus, it is necessary to investigate teachers' reflective practice. The purpose of the present study is to reveal: (1) teachers' reflective level and (2) how teachers reflect their teaching practice.

This study was a survey research. The participants were 30 in-service EFL teachers. The instrument was adopted from the questionnaire of English language teaching reflection inventory developed by Akbari et.al. (2010) which consists of 29 items with 5 point of Likert scale (never to always). An open ended question was added to know how teachers reflect their practices.

2. Findings

2.1. The teachers' reflective level

The teachers' reflective level was at medium level with the highest was metacognitive component which indicated that their critical thinking of their teaching practice was high.

The lowest was critical element which may be caused by teachers' reluctance in involving controversial issues in their practice, like politics, sex, and religion.

Table 1. Teachers' reflective practice (N=30)

Comp.	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Practical	1.33	4.33	3.21	.75
Cognitive	2.00	4.50	3.21	.83
Learner	1.33	5.00	3.68	1.06
Metacognitive	1.86	4.71	3.69	.72
Critical	1.57	4.86	3.14	.85

However, the findings also indicated that there were some practices which were in the low level that can be seen from the minimum scores. What more surprising is that, those scores came from a teacher who had teaching experience the longest, 12 years, among the others.

2.2. How the teachers reflect their teaching practice

The findings also present some efforts what teachers did to do a reflection. (1) Eight teachers wrote what happened in the classroom and problems that occurred. (2) Eight teachers liked to talk to their colleagues about the issues they face in their classrooms. (3) Seven teachers asked students' comment of the lesson they had. (4) Eight teachers reviewed their documents. (5) Four teachers thought about what happened in the classroom as well as the problems that occurred and how to solve it. (6) Two teachers did self-observation and two others liked to have peer observation. (7) A teacher liked to find theories that related to his teaching style, it would help him in improving his teaching practice. (8) A teacher had peer-teaching with her colleagues to give feedback to each other. Thus, the findings implied that what most teachers did belong to practical element, like writing their teaching experience, talking to colleagues, observing, and reviewing their files. There were also other elements but in small portion, like reading book or articles (cognitive element), and thinking about their teaching practice (metacognitive element).

Unfortunately, there was a teacher who seemed did not have any idea to reflect her teaching practice. She asserted that she had a reflection by having an enjoyable lesson by using games related to the topic of the lesson. It is rather surprising since what she stated implied that she was not familiar with what

teachers can do in having reflective practice. Also, she had more than five years of teaching experience and her reflective level was high (mean= 4.18). Thus, what she mentioned and her reflective practice level did not support the qualitative result.

3. Conclusion

The findings showed that the some of the quantitative and qualitative results did not support each other. The possible reason is some teachers are not familiar with reflective practice or they have heavy workload which prevents them from doing reflection since it requires strong commitment. Thus, the government needs to reduce teachers' workload and support them so they will have enough time to deepen their understanding and do a reflection to develop their professionalism. It is also recommended to have further research about it.

4. Acknowledgement

This study is supported by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP).

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The Implementation of Scientific Approach in TEFL for Deaf or Hard-Hearing Classroom: A Case Study at State School of Special Needs (SLBN Salatiga)

Wisnu Wardani

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

wisnuwardani@student.upi.edu

Abstract

Scientific approach which is used in the 2013 curriculum may bring controversy as well as challenges in the context of English Learning and Teaching (ELT). Scientific approach has several steps to be followed in implementing this approach in the classroom: observing, questioning, exploring, associating, and communicating. This research was qualitative study with case study approach. It employed two English teachers in special education school who were teaching in deaf classroom. To collect the data this research used instruments namely interview and document analysis. The results shown that teacher try hard to implement the approach and there were difficulties that teachers tried to solve and teachers' perception toward the approach were positive although there was little consideration to implement the approach in deaf class.

Keywords: Deaf or Hard-hearing students, scientific approach, TEFL, special Needs School

1. Introduction

The Indonesian government has officially implemented the 2013 curriculum in 2013. The 2013 curriculum has a different approach in the way of organizing learning and teaching process compare to the several previous curriculums. The process of learning and teaching in 2013 used five stages or steps. Those five steps, namely; observing, questioning, experimenting, associating, and communicating. This approach is then called with a scientific approach. This study focused on the application of a scientific approach in teaching English for deaf or hard-hearing students at special need school.

This research had several goals as follows; 1) To observe how English teachers in the deaf classroom apply a scientific approach. 2) To find out what are the difficulties faced by English teachers in applying scientific

approaches in the deaf or hard-hearing classroom. 3) To figure out how English teachers overcome the difficulties in applying scientific approaches in the deaf classroom. 4) To know English teachers' perceptions toward the implementation of scientific approach in the 2013 curriculum.

Moh. Amin (1991:1) in the book entitle Public Ortopedagogik, suggests that deaf children are those who experiencing a lack or loss of hearing ability which is caused by damage or the failure of some or all of the hearing organs so it disturb their development process, so it requires special education guidance. Deaf means lack or loss of hearing ability that is caused by damage of the whole hearing organs and caused barriers in language development so need guidance and special service (Salim, 1984:8).

The previous study related to students with hearing impairment conducted by Meliana and Suparkun in 2016. They observed the use of scientific approach in teaching writing narration for elementary students. Trough that research they found out that by implementing scientific approach in deaf or hard-hearing class, the students' ability in writing narration increased. Other study was done by Rahmawani, she tried to find out the effect of scientific approach implementation in deaf or hard-hearing class deal with science subject. She stated that scientific approach could increase students' knowledge about plan growth (Rahmawani, 2015).

2. Findings

2.1. How do English teachers apply a scientific approach in deaf or hard hearing classroom?

Teachers said that they tried hard to implement the scientific approach. They tried to follow the stages of scientific approach by using several teaching strategies. They did that as the effort in implement the approach as well as to

maintain class activities. Teachers' classroom management skill is needed in this case. Managing classes' means teacher have to be able make such good milieu and all need to do to make students involve in classroom activity successfully (Harmer, 2007). The effort of the teachers to implement scientific approach in EFL in deaf or hard-hearing classroom could be seen from their lesson plan. They included all stages of scientific approach on their lesson plan.

2.2. What are English teachers difficulties in implementing scientific approach in deaf or hard-hearing classroom?

The biggest problem of teaching and learning in deaf or hard-hearing classes was the way they communicate to each other because students have hearing impairment and verbal communication problem. So it was so hard for the teacher to deliver the material.

2.3. How do English teachers overcome difficulties in applying scientific approaches in the deaf or hard-hearing classroom?

They used media to help them to deliver the material such as pictures and things around students. Teachers also used *sign language* in explaining such vocabularies as well as used *bahasa Indonesia*.

2.4. What are English teachers perceptions towards the use of scientific approach in the 2013 curriculum?

All teachers at that school agreed that scientific approach was appropriate to be implemented since that approach could help students increasing their high order thinking, creativity, curiosity and also learning autonomy.

3. Conclusion

This study found that the 2013 curriculum and its approach that so called as scientific approach is implemented at special needs school. Many aspects of learning teaching process need to be concerned especially deals with the implementation of scientific approach such as; teachers' knowledge about scientific approach, their ability in implementing that approach, the methods should teachers use until what kind of sources that can be used to help teachers in employing the approach in special need school particularly for deaf or hard hearing students. In fact teachers are the most important elements in creating an effective teaching learning process but it is not only the task of teacher. There are others

factors besides teacher that play role in conducting effective teaching: institution, teaching, and learner (Richards, 2002).

Since the students in special need school are students who need different treatment in term of acquiring education, it is also the task of curriculum developer to do deeper need analysis of students with disability in order to give them the most appropriate treatment which cover in curriculum. The curriculums developers are also expected to do situation analysis that cover societal factors, project factors, institutional factors, teachers' factors, learners' factors, and adoption factor (Richards, 2002).

In short, government is considered to pay attention to what kind of approach that really appropriate to be implemented in special needs school, give socialization and workshop for teachers so they can implement the curriculum in right manner in effort of creating an effective teaching and learning process.

4. Acknowledgement

This study is supported by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP).

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Integration of Character Building in EFL Classroom of 2013 Curriculum

Eko Noprianto

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

noprianto.eko@student.upi.edu

Abstract

Moral degradation which caused many cases involving students in Indonesia became the rationale why government set character building as the national goal in new curriculum called 2013 Curriculum demanding EFL teachers to integrate character building in the process of teaching in the classroom. This case study involving three English teachers from three piloting high schools was intended to find out to what extent teachers understand the integration of character building in their lesson plans and to know their problems in the process of the integration. A document analysis and an open-ended questionnaire were employed to collect the data. The results showed that the participants seemed to have difficulty in integrating the values in the form of written steps in the teaching process as well as to have difficulty in adjusting the values with the teaching materials.

Keywords

Character Building, Character Education, 2013 Curriculum

Introduction

As more cases involving Indonesian students increase every year, Indonesia government launched 2013 curriculum as the newest curriculum to be implemented with character building as the main goal. The change of the curriculum means that Indonesian government expect to create students not only good academically but also good in character. The emphasize on character education is hoped to overcome moral issues on students since it includes many variables such as wide range of outcome goals, pedagogical strategies, and philosophical orientation (Althof & Berkowitz, 2006). In addition, it also involves a wide range of concepts such as positive national culture, moral education, caring, social-emotional learning, positive youth development, and civic education which are believed to be able to build intellectual, social, emotional, and ethical development which are fundamental to be

responsible, caring and expectedly contributing citizens (Character.org, 2015). Through the values offered by the curriculum as seen in the form of Core Competence (*Kompetensi Inti*) namely Spiritual Competence (*Kompetensi Spiritual* or KI 1) and Social Competence (*Kompetensi Sikap Sosial* or K2) (Kemendikbud, 2013), education is hoped to be used as a means to promote good behavior and attitudes, regard for diversity and differences, and dispositions to face an increasingly competitive world (Qoyyimah, 2016). Besides, the government also try to combine Indonesian cultural values, religions and universal values to be introduced in the classroom meaning that they expect the students to adapt and to compete in a global society yet are still confident and proud of national identity (Qoyyimah, 2015).

However, stipulating values in EFL classrooms seems more complex than other subjects since students are facing the cross-cultural interface between the target language and students' home culture (Akbari & Tajik, 2012). This interface of the two cultures has a significant impact on the moral dimensions of language teaching. Therefore, it is needed to have teachers who are able to facilitate learners' exposure to the target culture, while in other side, respecting learners' home culture. In other words, EFL teachers in should be able to bridge the difference between values rooted from *Pancasila*, as the ideology of the country and the values associated with the target culture (Qoyyimah, 2016).

Methodology

Qualitative method in the form of case study approach was used to gain the information on the integration of character building in 2013 curriculum lesson plans and to discover teachers' problems on the character building integration. A Document analysis and an open-ended questionnaire were employed to three EFL teachers of three piloting schools.

Results and Discussion

1. Lesson Plan Analysis

Teacher A designed her lesson plan by writing all Core Competences related to character building in KI 1 and KI 2 which then were elaborated in the form of Basic Competences (KD 1 and KD 2) before setting the values into some indicators. Her lesson plan was also equipped with an observation sheet to see students' activities. Meanwhile, although teacher B wrote all values stated in curriculum guidelines in the form of KI 1 and KI 2, she did not elaborate them into KD and indicators. She also did not make the observation sheet to assess her students' characters. Teacher C, unlike the other teachers, did not state KI 1 and KI 2 and certainly did not state them in the KD 1, KD 2 nor in their indicators. However, although the values are not mentioned in Core competence, basic Competence, and indicators, she designed and attached an observation sheet to assess students' behavior.

In relation to teaching activities, all participants integrated the values especially from KI 1 as seen from the habituation of praying and giving motivations before and after the class, except for teacher C who only prayed before the class started. Besides, it can also be seen that all participants encouraged the students to work in group cooperatively as one of the target values to be achieved. However, it seems to be difficult for the researcher to figure out in what part and step those teachers integrated the other values in relation to teaching materials.

2. Open-ended questionnaire results

With respect to participants' problems related to integration process. Teacher A, for instance, admitted that she had difficulty in deciding what values to be integrated in accordance with the materials to be taught. While teacher B added that she sometimes did not integrate the values in the lesson plan since she had difficulty in composing them in the form of written steps. Teacher C, on the other hand, stated that values are a broad concept that it is difficult to be applied in a very limited time in the classroom.

In relation to evaluation system. Although teachers are demanded to assess students' activities (Dirjendikdasmen, 2015), they still had problems in assessing the students' characters. Even, two of the participants admitted that they seldom assess students' characters in the classroom due to the limited teaching hours and teaching emphasis. In other words, they seemed to focus more on the students' cognitive and performance (KI 3 and KI 4). They acknowledged that they often assessed the student's values at the end of semester when they were required to write the learning results report which would probably lead to the unfair evaluation.

Conclusion

To sum up, it seems that participants knew what characters to be introduced in the classroom based on 2013 curriculum guidelines. However, not all teachers were able to design and to write the lesson plans which incorporates character building correctly based on curriculum. The problems are mainly on their difficulty in adjusting the values which might be suitable for their teaching material and integrating the values into written steps as well as their problems in assessing students' characters in the classroom.

Acknowledgement

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Sociocultural Approaches to Japanese EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate Through Study-Abroad Experiences: A Qualitative Study

Mari Suzuki¹ and Ryo Moriya¹

¹Waseda University

mari0920@toki.waseda.jp, ryo-m.6@ruri.waseda.jp

Abstract

The current study explores the complex study-abroad (SA) influences on Japanese EFL learners' willingness to communicate (WTC; MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998) from sociocultural perspectives. With Japanese government promoting students' SA experiences, research on SA has been getting popular even among Japanese contexts (e.g., Sasaki, 2011; Yashima, 2013). Still, limited numbers of studies have been qualitatively conducted with the focus of SA students' dynamic aspects of WTC so that this study investigates sociocultural dimensions of WTC by applying multiple qualitative methods.

Four female Japanese learners of English (all of them having one-year SA experiences) participated in the study. To investigate their WTC, the participants were interviewed in a semi-structured way, addressing three specific points: (a) their WTC, (b) social interactions within their community, and (c) their SA experiences. As for analysis, two analytical approaches were applied: (a) activity theory analysis (e.g., Engeström, 2001) and (b) trajectory equifinality approach (TEA; Sato, Yasuda, Kanzaki, & Valsiner, 2014) in order to contextualize and describe their narratives of WTC respectively. The combined results of two analyses will be discussed. The implication of the study is that sociocultural dimensions of WTC through SA experiences should be much considered because of its complexity and dynamics.

Keywords

study abroad (SA); willingness to communicate (WTC); trajectory equifinality approach (TEA); activity theory (AT); sociocultural context

Introduction

Japanese government encourages students to SA, in

order to nurture students who can play an active role in the globalized society. Following that trend, research on SA has been getting popular among Japanese contexts (e.g., Sasaki, 2011; Yashima, 2013). However, even though SA includes a myriad of complex, sociocultural factors, many numbers of studies have mainly examined learners' linguistic improvement (e.g., Cubillos, Chieffo, & Fan, 2007). Admitting linguistic development, the current study explores how sociocultural context influences participants' WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998) and experiences during SA.

1 Literature Review of WTC

The concept of WTC in second language (L2) was developed by MacIntyre et al. (1998). WTC can be defined as the predisposition of L2 learners toward or away from communicating with others, which has long been considered as a static trait. However, current studies have shown WTC dynamically changes over time depending on the context and time (e.g., Yue, 2014).

2 Methodology

2.1 Participants

There were four female participants in this study, all of whom are undergraduate students in a Japanese private university. They studied abroad for different countries and universities as university's one-year program. Their general information are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of the Participants (pseudonyms)

	<i>Country</i>	<i>Term</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Age</i>
Ai	Sweden	2015-2016	5th	22
Emi	USA	2016-2017	4th	21
Kumi	USA	2015-2016	5th	22
Miki	USA	2015-2016	5th	23

Note: All the participants are undergraduate students.

2.2 Methods and data analysis

2.2.1 Semi-structured interview

Semi-structured, one-to-one interview was conducted for each participant in Japanese, lasting 58-75 minutes. In advance, the researchers created the interview guide based on literatures, which was pilot tested. All of the interviews were audio- and video-recorded and each interviewer took field notes during interviews for triangulating the data. The data was theoretically coded, introduced in the next two sections.

2.2.2 Activity theory analysis

AT analysis is employed to understand the characteristics of and to examine various interactions in certain context (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2015). AT framework (e.g., Engeström, 2001) enables us to visualize the complex context participants experienced.

2.2.3 Trajectory equifinality approach

TEA is effective for visualizing idiographic experiences along the axis of time. Trajectory equifinality model (one sub-component of TEA) “aims to describe the transaction between human and environment” (Sato et al., 2014, p. 8), harmonizing well with AT.

3 Results and Discussion

Interestingly, based on AT analysis and TEA, three participants (i.e., Emi, Kumi, Miki) show different experiences, but, as for their WTC, similar equifinality point that “multiple trajectories reach” (Sato et al., 2014, p. 5) even though they went to the same country, USA.

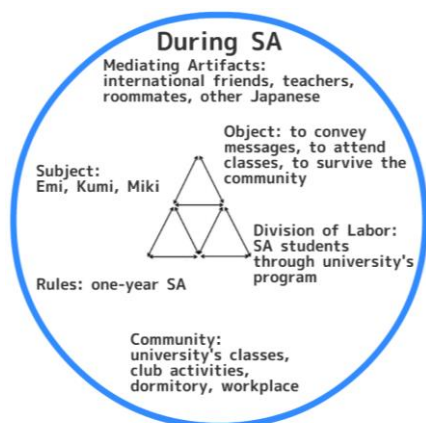


Figure 1. Partial results of AT analysis and TEA.

Due to the space of difficulty in showing all the visualization of each participant, however, as Figure 1 shows, they differently interacted with others resulting from various activities. Before SA, their aims were mainly to improve their English

proficiency, but sociocultural context there changed their attitudes toward English because there were few opportunities to interact with native speakers of English. That's why all the participants in this study mentioned the acceptance of their own 'broken' English in order to convey their messages anyway. Therefore, after SA, what they learned from SA was not limited to English proficiency. Rather, they harmoniously emphasized the acknowledgment of the diversity of English as well as people, which is the common equifinality point they reached.

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English Teachers' Perception on the Use of Authentic Assessment in 2013 Curriculum

Moch. Said Mardjuki

Indonesia University of Education

saidmardjuki@student.upi.edu

Abstract

Authentic assessment in 2013 Curriculum leads the students to be autonomous learner and become higher order thinking. However, the English teachers prefer to use non-authentic than authentic assessment. This study seeks to find out how English teachers use the authentic assessment in the classroom and the barriers and the way the English teachers solve the problems in conducting authentic assessment. Interview was used to find out of five postgraduate English education students at a university in Bandung used authentic assessment in the classroom. Authentic assessment can encourage the English teachers to be more creative and optimize student's participation in learning process. However, several challenges lead to the implementation of authentic assessment: purpose of assessment, fairness, time allotment, objectivity and reliability of scoring. Therefore, 2013 Curriculum should be clearly stated the types of authentic assessment, the indicators, and time allocation to its teaching material.

Keywords: Authentic Assessment, 2013 Curriculum, Teachers' Perception.

1. Introduction

Authentic assessment in Indonesia becomes one of the major concerns in 2013 curriculum as stated in The Regulation of the Minister of Culture and Education of the Republic of Indonesia Number 104 Year 2014 which promotes learner autonomy and critical thinking as a part of higher order thinking skills. In reality, most teachers still prefer the traditional assessment. It can be clearly seen in several summative test types where the teachers usually used multiple choice test than composing writing.

Authentic assessment deals with an assessment used by the teachers in order to meet the specific criterion which based on the same competencies, or combination of knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Ariev, 2005; Gulikers, Bastiaens, and Kirschner, 2004; Lombardi, 2008). Thus, based on The

Regulation of the Minister of Culture and Education of the Republic of Indonesia Number 104 Year 2014, 2014 and Johnson (2002, p. 167). Types of authentic assessment include portfolio, project, performance, and extended written response.

Fithriyani (2014) conducted a research found that managing time, putting fairness and purpose of the assessment, and teachers' objectivity are the major challenges that can cause problems in applying this assessment. Thus, Retnawati, Hadi, and Nugraha (2016) found that most of vocational high school teachers and vice principals of curriculum in Yogyakarta had difficulties in implementing assessment of 2013 curriculum. They had not fully understood about the assessment system. Moreover, Marhaeni (2003) in her research found that portfolio assessment may be considered most appropriate as it reflects the basic philosophy of classroom-based assessment, that assessment is integrated with instruction.

Reflecting to the previous elaboration, this study is aimed to find out how English teachers use the authentic assessment in the classroom and the barriers and the way the English teachers solve the problems in conducting authentic assessment. To achieve such objective, the research question is: (1) how do English teachers use and perceive authentic assessment in the classroom?

2. Research Methodology

It is a qualitative research design aiming at exploring and understanding the issue (Hamied, 2017, p.195). Five postgraduate second semester English education students of Indonesia University of Education were selected purposively to participate in the study by the assumption that they have rich information (Creswell, 2012, p. 206) related to authentic assessment. Moreover, the research instrument employed in the present study was interview to capture how the English teachers use authentic assessment in the teaching and learning process.

3. Findings and discussions

3.1. The use of authentic assessment

Most of the participants acknowledged that the types of authentic assessment to be used are based on the aspects or skills to be measured. They use portfolio to assess student's homework, project based to assess student's writing in certain kinds of texts, and performance-based to assess student's speaking and reading performance. Then, in assessing student's ability, performance, and attitude, they usually use scoring rubric based on certain criterion. It is relevant to the study conducted by Marhaeni (2003) that portfolio became one of the major types of authentic assessment to be used by the teachers, although the rubric was not prepared. Retnawati, Hadi, and Nugraha (2016) also found that most of teachers of vocational high schools in Yogyakarta found difficulties to develop the scoring rubric for assessing skills.

3.2. The barriers and solutions

There found three kinds of barriers: fairness, time-consuming, and teacher's objectivity. These barriers happened and affected the implementation in the teaching process. Besides, the total number of students and the lack motivation of students in submitting the tasks became other contributing factors. Fithriyani (2014) also found that there were four challenges in conducting authentic assessment, such as: managing time, putting fairness and purpose of the assessment, and teachers' objectivity. Thus, in order to solve the barriers, most participants used schedule on using either authentic or non-authentic assessments based on the teaching objectives and the quantity of materials covered in the syllabus. Fithriyani (2014) also suggested four steps in solving the challenges in conducting authentic assessment. First, teachers have to define the purpose of the assessment related to the instructional objectives in order to bring consistent combination on the extent to those purposes. Second, teachers have to lead students to learn how to express critical thinking towards the problem given in the assignment. Third, teachers have to manage time-allotment well if they want to implement this assessment. The last, teachers have to use inter-rater reliability to ensure consistency and fairness.

4. Conclusion

According to the teachers' response, in conclusion, the results of their preference and process of using authentic assessment in 2013 Curriculum generally bring about benefits since it allows them and the students to be more creative and motivated in the

teaching and learning process. However, fairness, time allotment, as well as objectivity and reliability of scoring might affect the implementation of such assessment.

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Indonesian Language As A Foreign Language: Student Perspective (An Introduction Study)

Nurul Khairani Abduh

Awardee of LPDP (Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education)
Indonesia University of Education

nrl.khairani.a@gmail.com

Abstract

The role of Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian language) on international communication has brought itself as one of the most important languages to learn. Nowadays it is noted that no lesser 45 institutions either universities or courses have taught the BIPA (Indonesian for speakers of other language). Regarding to that condition, the researcher was interested to identify the foreign speakers learning Bahasa Indonesia at language centres in Indonesia, especially at the Balai Bahasa Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. This paper would describe the background of foreign learners of the Bahasa Indonesia and identify their needs in learning the language. This research used descriptive qualitative approach. The research instrument was questionnaire distributed randomly to the Indonesian language learners at the Balai Bahasa Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia as well as other language centres in Indonesia.

Keywords

BIPA, second language, learners of Bahasa Indonesia as a foreign language

Introduction

As recorded heretofore, no lesser 45 institutions in Indonesia, either universities or courses, have taught the Indonesian for speakers of other language (BIPA). Meanwhile in many countries, Bahasa Indonesia has similar level as English, French, and Japanese as prioritized second language. It is noticed that more than 45 countries in the world teaches Bahasa Indonesia. (Kompas.com, October 29, 2009)

Ellis (in Suyitno, 2007:62) stated that learners of Indonesian as a foreign language are foreign students who have different language and culture background from those they learned. The

difference has consequence on Indonesian subject selection which would be taught to them because second language acquisition, including BIPA, is affected most by the first language.

Due to the difference, the researcher conducted an analysis towards difficulties faced by the learners to find their needs out in order to achieve appropriate learning outcomes as purposed. The significance of this researched was expected to become basic in arranging proper teaching materials to the problems and needs of the BIPA learners.

1. Findings and Discussions

According to the data found, needs analysis questionnaire of the BIPA learners had 41 respondents from several language centres in Indonesia, especially from the Balai Bahasa Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI). They came from different 20 different countries, such as South Korea, Japan, Thailand, Zimbabwe, Libya, Australia, Malaysia, United States of America, Ukraine, Italy, Vietnam, Singapore, Russia, Germany, Tiongkok, Brunei Darussalam, Namibia, Laos, Netherland, and Afghanistan. The most respondent are from South Korea who are 10 people. Respondents with master's degree were 26 people, while those with bachelor degree were 26 people. Furthermore, respondents with associate degree were 2 people. Those who graduated from secondary school level are 4 people only.

From the data gained, it could be concluded that the BIPA learners in several language centres, especially at the Balai Bahasa UPI had high level of education background.

Based on the findings, it could be concluded that the BIPA learners were adult people. The students' needs nowadays is principally affected by learning experience in the past, present

interest, and future expectation (Nunan, 1988: 22-23). In language study, it implies that the students-centred approach is more appropriate than the subject centred one.

In addition to Bahasa Indonesia, the learners also master other language. Lado (in Krashen, S., 1981) stated: The topic of "first language interference" has had an unusual history in second language acquisition research and practice. For many years, it had been presumed that the only major source of syntactic errors in adult second language performance was the performer's first language. So first language has a great effect on the learners' second language.

Other language the respondents have mastered is English. Besides they also know Korean language, Japanese, Malay, French, Ukrainian, Russian, Arabian, Italian, Latin, Laotian, Urdu, Pashto, Thai, Spanish, Mandarin, German, and Zimbabwe at last.

Generally they were interested to learn Bahasa Indonesia because they intended to work in Indonesia. The data found shows that there were 8 people (19.51%) learned Bahasa Indonesia because of work purpose and the other 8 people (19.51%) learned it because they loved Indonesian culture. Furthermore, 7 respondents (17.07%) thought learning Bahasa Indonesia as an entertainment, 6 respondents (14.63%) learned it due to study reason. There were 12.20% respondents learned it because of their relatives, and the last 5 respondents (12.20%) intended to live in Indonesia so they learned it.

The following table shows difficulties faced by the learners:

Table 1. Table of most difficult language skills considered by the learners

Skill	Frequency	Percentage
Reading	2	4,87%
Listening	7	17,07%
Writing	12	29,26%
Speaking	12	29,26%
Reading and writing	3	7,31%
Listening and writing	2	4,87%
Listening and speaking	3	7,31%

The most difficult skill considered by the learners was writing and speaking. 12 people (29.26%) chose writing as the most difficult skill.

Speaking was also chosen by 12 correspondents (29.26%).

2. Conclusion

The findings of this research shows that there were 41 respondents of needs analysis questionnaire of the BIPA learners coming from 20 different countries. Country with most learners was South Korea. The average level of education was on bachelor degree. Most of the learners were multilingual speakers which means they have mastered more than two languages. The learners' needs analysis questionnaire were distributed to gain data for fostering appropriate lessons syllabus to the needs of the BIPA learners. Several information found out through this needs analysis are about the BIPA learners' first competence, purposes of learning BIPA, competence level, strategy and learning style, learning experience, difficulties faced, interest and motivation, media preferred as well as skills liked and considered as the most difficult by the BIPA learners. BIPA lessons with various learners and their own backgrounds should be applied based on learners' needs analysis which is able to detect by using the learners' needs analysis questionnaire. Through this questionnaire, teaching syllabus and learning tools could be arranged according with students' needs.

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The Implementation of Scientific Approach for Teaching Recount Texts in Indonesian Curriculum (2013 Curriculum)

Fatyana Rachma Saputri

Indonesia University of Education

fatyana.rach@student.upi.edu

Abstract

In the early of 2013 Curriculum implementation, teaching English in Indonesia had some issues. One of them was how texts could be taught using scientific approach. This study aimed to investigate the implementation of scientific approach for teaching recount texts and to know the teacher's perspective about the implementation. The data were collected through observation and interview with an English teacher who had implemented 2013 Curriculum in the teaching and learning process. The findings showed that *questioning* and *communicating* were considered as difficult stages. *Associating* stage was implemented well. The stages of *observing* and *experimenting* were implemented very well compared to the other stages. For conclusion, scientific approach could be implemented to teach recount texts effectively because students gained knowledge through a sequential process which allowed them to think critically. More participants and texts are recommended to be involved for the next studies.

Keywords

scientific approach, 2013 curriculum, efl, recount texts

1 Introduction

The scientific approach is applied in the 2013 Curriculum in Indonesia, which is implemented to prepare students to face the future challenges. According to Ministry of Education and Culture, or Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, stated in Zaim (2017), the sequences are *observing*, *questioning*, *experimenting*, *associating*, *communicating*, and *creating*. The last step, *creating*, could be merged in *communicating*. As Zaim (2017: 33) states, supported by Nur and Madkur (2014: 126), a curriculum that can educate students with knowledge, skill, and attitude is needed to improve the quality of education in

Indonesia. The 2013 Curriculum was designed to achieve this need (Zaim, 2017: 33) and formulated with characters buildings.

At the early of the 2013 Curriculum implementation, people connected teaching kinds of texts with the genre-based approach which is already familiar to the Indonesian teachers than the scientific approach. Based on the issue above, this study has objectives to answer these research questions: (1) How the teacher implements scientific approach in teaching recount texts; and (2) the effectiveness of the implementation of scientific approach in teaching recount texts.

A relevant previous study about the implementation of scientific approach in teaching texts was conducted by Zaim (2017: 39), that showed scientific approach could be applied as a strategy of teaching English as a foreign language in Senior High School in Indonesia. Another study has been conducted by Sundayana (2015: 35) who finds that teachers' readiness to implement 2013 Curriculum is rather sufficient in West Java.

This study might present some possible ways in giving significances. For community members, they would take examples that the scientific approach could be applied in teaching English as a foreign language. For the related institutions, the lack of teachers' competences in applying scientific approach for teaching texts could be evaluated.

2 Research Methodology

This study was a descriptive qualitative research and conducted at a Junior High School in Semarang. A teacher who participated as the informant had implemented the 2013 Curriculum. The data were collected by using a field note, an observation sheet, and an interview guideline. To measure the quality of the implementation, the scoring criteria were set by using scale 1-100 as the following: score 81-100 = *very well*, score 61-80 = *well*, score 41-60 = *well enough*, score 21-40 = *bad*, and 1-20 = *very bad*.

3 Findings and Discussions

Findings were obtained from the observation and the interview, which could be summarized as below.

3.1 How the teacher implements scientific approach in teaching recount texts

First, in *observing* stage, the teacher provided students a video about “My Birthday Party”. Second, in *questioning* stage, the teacher asked students about the video and recalled their knowledge about those phenomena. Then, the teacher connected students’ questions with the materials they would learn. The third stage is *experimenting* where the teacher discussed about recount texts, detail information, and giving examples. The fourth stage is *associating* where the teacher asked students to find examples of their experiences in daily life. The last stage is *communicating*, in which students had group discussions about recount texts. The students reported the result of their group discussions. After that, they wrote a recount text based on their experiences and presented it in front of the class.

From the above explanation, scientific approach was implemented in sequential stages where students were engaged in each activity. Four main skills were developed. Students openly shared their ideas through the entire teaching and learning processes. From the observation, the activities provided by the teacher were student-centered.

Based on the adopted rubric from Zaim (2017) which was designed based on the indicators of scientific approach as stated by Ministry of Education and Culture, the quality of how the teacher implemented scientific approach for teaching recount texts could be seen as below.

Table 1. The teacher’s quality in implementing scientific approach for teaching recount texts

	Score	Quality
Observing	88	Very well
Questioning	68.33	Well
Experimenting	81.67	Very well
Associating	74.17	Well
Communicating	67.5	Well

Note: Based on an adopted rubric from Zaim (2017).

From Table 1, the teacher’s quality in implementing scientific approach for teaching recount texts was considered as *very well* in *observing* and *experimenting* stages. The stages of *questioning*, *associating*, and *communicating* were considered as *well*. From the data, the teacher’s quality in *questioning* and *communicating* stages had the lower score.

3.2 The effectiveness of the implementation of scientific approach in teaching recount texts

An interview helped the researcher to know more information from the teacher’s perspectives and understanding. From the interview, *questioning* stage was the most difficult stage. Students did not have any ideas to ask. They had tendencies to receive the information given without being critical or logical. From that situation, teachers’ skills in stimulating students’ curiosity have significant roles. Sometimes, the reason why students do not ask is because the teacher may not supply the right amount of encouragement (Harmer, 2007: 109). One of the roles of a teacher is as a prompter. If teachers are too adamant, they risk taking initiative away from the students (Harmer, 2007: 111).

Another problem was found in *communicating* stage. Students who performed in front of the class were the bravest ones. Not all students had willingness to present their works. Sometimes, the teacher could not identify which students who did not do the works properly because some of them were passive and did not ask anything.

4 Conclusion

Scientific approach can be applied to teach recount texts. The results show that the stages of observing and experimenting are considered as *very well* while the others are *well*. Among the scientific approach stages, questioning and communicating are still difficult to be implemented by the English teacher. Based on the problems found in the field, the teacher should stimulate students to have courage in asking for the stage of questioning. The use of scientific approach in teaching recount texts is effective because students gain knowledge through a sequential process which allows them to think critically.

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English Teachers' Perception on Learning Evaluation in 2013 Curriculum and KTSP (School-Based Curriculum): Differences and Difficulties

Rozi Setiawan

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

rozisetiawan@student.upi.edu

Abstract

One of the most important elements in language curriculum is evaluation. It deals with confirming whether the goals and objectives set beforehand have been achieved or not. Dealing with KTSP and 2013 Curriculum, the newer curriculum has applied authentic assessment as its main evaluation approach. Based on the observation, some research findings show that teachers often find difficulties in employing assessments in 2013. Thus, this study aims to find out teachers attitude on the differences and difficulties of learning evaluation in the 2013 curriculum and KTSP. The data were collected through semi-structured interview. The results show that the main difference between the two curricula is the employment of authentic assessment and the major difficulties are the application of authentic assessment and the use of assessment tools. Finally, it is expected that the teachers develop their self-awareness of the importance of 2013 curriculum and the government provides more workshops and training.

Keywords

Evaluation, KTSP, 2013 Curriculum, Differences, Difficulties.

1. Introduction

Indonesian National Curriculum has changed for a number of times. The change does not merely happen because the stakeholders want to bring something new, it is because of the global demands. The development of information, communication and technology (ICT) and free trade within region such as *Masyarakat Ekonomi ASEAN* (MEA) are the two examples that the government takes into account for what this country needs. As the responses, the two latest curricula, KTSP (School-Based Curriculum) and 2013 Curriculum show the big improvement in the system that they apply. However, the doer of the curriculum in this case the teachers often find difficulties in applying the components of the curriculum, especially a component which aims to

confirm whether the goals have been reached or not, the term is called evaluation.

Evaluation is a process which consists of two compartments; measurement and assessment (Print, 1993). Both of them are defined as the way data are collected and interpreted before the judgement is made. This judgement is called evaluation. In KTSP, there are various techniques and instruments of evaluation that can be used: written test, oral test, performance test, individual and group assignments, portfolio, self-assessment, and peer assessment (BSNP in Taryanah). Meanwhile, Kemendikbud (2016) states that the main approach of evaluation in 2013 curriculum is authentic assessment in forms of observation field assignments, portfolio, project, product, journal, laboratory activities, and self-assessment. Furthermore, non-authentic assessment such as test, mid-test or daily exam, and final exam can also be used to assess students' knowledge.

In assessing students' performance in English, it is very essential for teachers to understand how to employ the assessment properly. However, some classical problems are still found in the 2013 curriculum. Retnawati et. al (2016) state that teachers in a number of schools in Yogyakarta mostly faced difficulties in assessing students' attitude using self-assessment and peer assessment, they tend to use teachers observation. Moreover, another problem found was their difficulties in converting students' scores into 4 scales scoring (from A to D) which is different from the previous scoring system used in KTSP. Albana (2016) also found problems faced by teachers such as their difficulty in conducting the assessment due to the large number of students in the classroom.

Based on the elaboration, this research attempted to investigate English teachers' attitude toward evaluation in the 2013 curriculum and KTSP. It is related to the problems that the English teachers' faced in evaluating students' performance, especially the assessment which is employed to assess students' attitude, cognitive, and skill focusing on the differences and difficulties.

This research employed qualitative approach in which the data were collected through semi-structured interview to 6 EFL teachers by addressing 8 questions related to their experiences of teaching by employing both curricula.

2. Findings

2.1 Differences

Most respondents stated that the difference between KTSP and 2013 Curriculum is the use of authentic assessment which is more comprehensive to assess the affective domain: peer assessment, self-assessment, and teachers' observation, while in KTSP, it does not employ such specific assessment, the major focus is on cognitive field. Another difference is the use of converted score in which it converts the 100 scale score into 4 scale score (A, B, C, D) and also the use of descriptions in cognitive and skill field in which it is different from which in KTSP.

Furthermore, information about the kinds of assessment that they used in the classroom also obtained from the second questions: tests in form of multiple choices, matching, and essay to assess their knowledge (non-authentic assessment). Meanwhile performance based test like interview, role-play, presentation, storytelling, project-based learning, and extended writing to assess their skills. To assess their attitude, teachers mostly employ their own observation. In addition, the third question reveals that the most significant difference between the two curricula is on the Attitude assessment in affective domain.

2.2 Difficulties

Regarding the evaluation in KTSP, the respondents said that there is no problem found. However, there are some major problems stated by the respondents in relation with evaluation in 2013 curriculum such as peer assessment in which students do not want to assess their friends, self-assessment and portfolio due to limited time and large classes, forget to fill the teacher observation sheet, the scoring system which involves many formulas, and descriptions of the three domains requires much more time. Meanwhile, for the second question, all respondents stated that evaluation in KTSP is easier to employ than which in 2013 curriculum. However, they said that the ideal evaluation is that in the 2013 curriculum, but it requires teachers' willingness to learn and to enhance their professional development.

The third question deals with the way to cope with the difficulties they face. Majority of them stated that joining training and workshop in K-13 will give more insight especially for

evaluation, teachers monitoring and supervision from other teachers or experts, and also the teachers' self-awareness to improve their professionalism.

3. Conclusion

The fundamental difference between learning evaluation in KTSP and 2013 curriculum is on the authentic assessment, especially in the affective domain. In KTSP, the affective domain is only assessed through teacher observation, however, in 2013 curriculum the sources of assessment do not only come from teachers, but also from the student and the peers/colleagues. Furthermore, there are two major difficulties that the most teachers face in the field such as 1) authentic assessment: the application of peer assessment and self-assessment as well as portfolio, the use of teacher observation, 2) assessment tools: the scoring system, and the complicated report card format which requires description of each domain.

4. Acknowledgement

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Native English Teacher's Test Construction Practices and Their Perceptions

Myeong-Hee Seong

Eulji University

seong@eulji.ac.kr

Abstract

The purpose of the study is to analyze the college English conversation tests of native English teachers and their perceptions to see if the tests complied with program goals. Also, problems with current test construction practices were highlighted and improvements for similar conversation courses were suggested. In order to do this, we examined the test construction practices of seven native English teachers who taught an English conversation course at a university in Gyeonggi province near Seoul. The teachers' mid-term and final tests were collected and they also completed a survey about their views on testing. The teachers' tests were analyzed in terms of the types of assessments used, question types, number of test items, language skills targeted, and task types. The results showed that despite having a standardized course goal and using the same textbook, the testing methods utilized by teachers varied widely and teachers typically employed written tests which varied extensively due to non-standardization. However, the teachers believed oral exams should be employed in various ways: a 1:1 interview, individual presentations, group discussions or role plays. The implications of these assessment methods, along with the future direction of this study were discussed.

Keywords

Test construction practices, college English conversation courses, native English instructor

Introduction

Examining the test construction practices for compliance with course goals in general English programs can be used as an important reference to develop university programs (Kim, 2005). A lot of research has been conducted on reading test construction practices in general English programs, with little focus on conversation courses (Kim, 1988; Kim, 2005; Lim, 1995; Pyo, 2003).

Furthermore, there has been extensive research to improve general English programs, but few studies have focused on how tests should change according to program goals. Also, insufficient attention has been paid to the test construction practices of native speaking English teachers (NSETs) in classrooms. With the emphasis on communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) in Korea, universities in Korea have employed a great number of NSETs to teach English classes in college English programs. Several studies have focused on the effects of NSETs in classrooms.

Thus, the research questions were as follows:

- 1) What are the NSETs test construction methods and how do they employ those methods on their tests?
- 2) What are the teachers' perceptions and suggestions for improvement?

1 Literature Review

Lim (1995) has analyzed the test papers of ten secondary schools and administered a survey to 80 teachers. The study revealed that the test construction consisted of discrete-point questions such as grammar, language use, pronunciation, and translation. The teacher survey showed that the teachers did not employ their test papers according to the rules of the assessments. In addition, teachers noted that they marked the tests subjectively without sharing or giving feedback to each other.

Kim's (1988) study on the reading test practices in general English programs at 109 universities revealed that 35% of the teachers used non-standardized tests and 65% used standardized tests. He found that the test construction consisted of 26.9% translation, 23.8% reading comprehension, 20.2% grammar and sentence structure, 16.3% vocabulary, and 12.9% other. His study stated that most of the test construction practices did not meet

the course objectives and had low reliability and validity.

Pyo's (2003) qualitative study on test practices in general English programs at universities revealed that the majority of the teachers interviewed used written tests, such as multiple-choice questions, and the rest of the respondents used other types of assessments. The study revealed that the reasons why the respondents preferred multiple-choice questions were because they were easy to mark and to analyze the results with the large number of students. More recently, Kim (2005) investigated reading test construction practices in a general English program at a university to find out if the tests complied with the program objectives. Her study showed that the tests varied widely and the majority of the teachers failed to meet the goals of the program.

2 Method

2.1 Participants

The researcher selected seven native English speakers (four male and three female) who were on the teaching staff at a university located in Gyeonggi province as the participants of this study. The participants ranged from 30 - 40 years in age.

2.2 Data Sources and Analysis

This study is case research, where the data has been collected through test papers and a teacher survey was conducted to support the test papers.

3 Result and discussion

3.1 What are the NSETs test construction methods and how do they employ those methods on their tests?

Table 1 Type of assessments

	DC	LL	DS	AH	DL	EK	EC
Oral					✓	✓	✓
Written	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓

Table 2 No. of question and question type used in written test

	DC	LL	DS	AH	DL	EK	EC
NQT	4	3	2	3	-	-	1
NTI	55	54	35	39	5	5	20

NQT: Number of Question Type
NTI: Number of Test Item

Table 3 Types of Language Skills Used in Written Test

	DC	LL	DS	AH	DL	EK	EC
Vocabulary	29	18	15	24	-	-	-
Grammar	0	0	0	0	-	-	-
Composition	31	17	0	7	5	5	1
RC	0	19	20	8	-	-	1

RC: Reading Comprehension,

Table 4 Task type

	DC	LL	DS	AH	DL	EK	EC
MC	6	8	10	0	-	-	20
SA	17	45	0	0	-	-	-
CT	23	0	15	24	-	-	-
OP	8	1	0	6	5	5	-
Others	6	0	10	9	1	1	1

MC; Multiple Choice (Gap filling, Matching)

SA: Short Answer, CT: Cloze Test, OP: Opinion

Others(True/False, Correcting Errors, Role-play)

3.2 What are the teachers' perceptions?

In response to the item "What is the best way to assess the students in English conversation courses?" One respondent said "The best way to evaluate how much a student has retained material from the semester is through a written exam. However, as it is a conversation class it is important to evaluate the students' ability to communicate." Five of the seven teachers asserted that the students should be assessed using both oral and written exams. One of the reasons was "if a student is already a natural speaker, then they will almost always perform better than that of an unnatural speaker."

The survey response to the item "What do you think an oral exam should be like?" Two of the seven teachers chose a 1:1 interview and one teacher chose a group presentation as an appropriate method to measure speaking skills. However, four of the seven teachers stated that students should be assessed through various types of oral exams such as a 1:1 interview along with a solo or group presentation. Thus, the results showed that the teachers believe oral exams should be employed in various ways.

When asked the preferred frequency of tests per semester, one teacher pointed out, speaking should be assessed throughout the whole semesters. He said "I think assessing students' speaking ability should be an ongoing process over a large sample size. It shouldn't be done in just one test day."

ENGLISH TEACHERS' VIEW: TEACHERS' ROLE IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Asdar Muhammad Nur

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

Asdarnur@student.upi.edu

Abstract

Teachers are direct persons making the students acquire knowledge and skill as well as attitude, values and beliefs. By using the curriculum, teachers may help themselves to rich those goals. In fact, teachers are not involved directly in the curriculum development and they initially do not know how to implement the new curriculum well and their role in implementing new curriculum. Those become constraints faced in EFL classroom. This study tried to explain the teachers' role in curriculum development and their view of the threats emerged in developing curriculum. The study was using qualitative method where the study collected data by using close ended and open-ended questions then involving 21 English teachers in Indonesia, 8 males and 13 females. The study found that most of the teachers thought that they should involve in curriculum development process, others did not. Teachers must be rich of insight to develop better curriculum.

Keywords

curriculum development, teachers' involvement, teachers' role

1. Introduction

Teaching English in Indonesia has been being started since Dutch colonial. It was suitable for the large classes, cheap and only required grammatical mastery of the language (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Now, 2013 curriculum has been being applied in some schools although there is twice revision of it for 4 years. However, still there are some school using school based curriculum.

Teachers must take a place an integral role in every process of curriculum development. they can function not only as co-designers of expert curricular and instructional system but also as coresearchers into the effectiveness of implemented curricula (Fullan, Hill, & Crevola, 2006) and they must be central of any improvement of curricula. It is related to the statement that teachers are integral to the thinking that drives program creation and implementation because they directly involved with

the implementation in the classroom (Giroux, 2005).

Teachers can play important role in the process of curriculum development. However, a previous study showed that the enactment of a professional identity based on teacher assumption of their role as real curriculum designers is still far from being achieved even though data relating to 'teacher pedagogical practice to develop the curriculum (Mouraz, Leite, & Fernandes, 2013). Thus, it is necessary to investigate teachers' role now days. The purpose of the present study is to reveal: (1) teachers' perception about their role in curriculum development and (2) what their efforts to deal with curriculum development.

This study used mixed method. The participants were 21 EFL teachers. The instrument was consisted of 15 questions (Bureau of Curriculum and Instruction., 2006).

2. Findings

2.1. Teachers' role in curriculum development

Education is the foundation of country in this world. The most important person who influence the education is teacher. Related to their job as teachers, it implies that it is not a simple job to be teachers because they also consider about the goal of learning and should be ready in any situation to teach (Danielson, 2007).

Table 1. Teachers' role in curriculum development (N=21)

Teachers' role	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
Planners	28.57%	71.43%	0
Creators	42.86%	52.39%	4.76%
Implementers	71.43%	28.57%	0
Evaluators	100.00%	0	0

2.1.1. Teachers as curriculum planners

Teachers from different level of school and background have different opinion about their roles in the curriculum development. it can be seen from the survey that had conducted recently. They have different opinion about their role as curriculum planners. The survey found that there were 6 teachers (28.57%) stated that teachers should not be curriculum planners. The reasons were logic enough like what T1 said that teachers should be syllabus or classroom activities planner not curriculum. While

there were 15 teachers (71.43%) who said that teachers should be curriculum planners because they know the real situation in the school (T10).

2.1.2. Teachers as curriculum creators

Teachers must use the curriculum in the teaching and learning process. They need to create things related to the curriculum such as the activities, materials, ways to evaluate and time frame to engage with the students' needs and situation. If they use the curriculum that they have created by themselves they will gain final project and feel more confident to teach in the classroom because their concerns are considered in developing the curriculum. The study showed that 11 teachers (52.39%) stated disagree that teachers should be curriculum creators, 9 teachers (42.86%) agree without condition and 1 teacher (4.76%) agreed with condition that they must be ready to gain new duty as well as responsibility to be better educator. Without skill, ability and understanding about curriculum, teachers cannot be curriculum developers as well as good teachers.

2.1.3. Teachers as curriculum implementers

Teaching in the classroom needs guideline, curriculum. Teachers must implement the curriculum in their classroom. By sticking to the plan that has spent so much time and carefully planning and effort to reach the learning goal. The study found that there were 15 EFL teachers (71.43%) agree that they should implement the curriculum in the classroom because the curriculum emphasizes to the students' needs based on the current condition such as the revised 2013 curriculum based on the reality to enrich the students' ability to have high order thinking.

However, we cannot neglect that the implementation the new curriculum in the school is still far from expectation because of the limitation of time to share the way how to implement it and the less teachers' awareness toward the new curriculum. It is contrary with other 6 EFL teachers (28.57%) who stated that teachers should consider about the situation in the classroom. It means that they can teach the students based on their needs not the curriculum.

2.1.4. Teachers as curriculum evaluators

Teachers as curriculum evaluators are as important as others because they are the main doers in curriculum that implement the curriculum while others don't. Evaluating on a curriculum allows teachers involved in the process to find the strengths and weaknesses in the curriculum and attempt the curriculum developers to make it better. Moreover, it can be the reflection for the teachers to enrich their skill and knowledge. This role is agreed by all respondents (100%). There are many ways to evaluate the curriculum such as keeping a journal as they implement the curriculum, surveying to the

students, reviewing the result of teaching or analyzing the students' assessment and performance.

2.2. Teachers' efforts

The curriculum developers should make the curriculum reliable and research based foundation since it will be difficult for the teachers to implement the curriculum which is not reflecting to the students' real situation. Moreover, the curriculum made by them should be more specific, contextual, and suitable to the students' needs in the real situation generally. To do these things are not easy because the curriculum developers need spare time to do it carefully and quickly. By doing those things, it is expected that the curriculum will be suitable to the real implementation.

3. Conclusion

One fundamental question needs to be raised: how can the teachers become good curriculum developers? In fact, there so many teachers in Indonesia, but just few of them who were involved in curriculum development and it happened since the educational system in Indonesia run. Therefore, due to the different needs of the students and situation, the government should concern to involve teachers in curriculum developers from any place in Indonesia because Indonesia is not only Java, Sumatera, Aceh, and Sulawesi But Also Papua and Maluku. It may become big challenges for Indonesia to make to education run equally. But, it is our duty to make it happens.

4. Acknowledgment

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LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY INDONESIAN NON-ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS IN THE INTENSIVE ENGLISH COURSE

Irma Ratna Ningsih

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

irmaratna@student.upi.edu

Abstract

The existence of language learning strategies has been helping learners to have their own language study. Language learners, especially those who study second or foreign language, are able to study the language much easier by utilizing the strategies. Thus, this paper tried to examine the language learning strategies employed by the students in the Intensive English Course. The purpose of this study was to investigate the frequency of language learning strategies and to explore the effect of gender on choosing the strategy. The English Language Learning Strategy Inventory (ELLSI) questionnaire consists of 32 strategies were given to the 159 non-English major students as the research instrument proposed by Griffiths (2003). The data were analyzed through descriptive statistics and revealed that the most frequently used strategy is learning from the teacher ($M=3.30$). The results also show that there is significant difference of the use of the learning strategies according to gender ($p=0.008$). By using T-test, it is found that female students ($M=1.94$) use more language learning strategy than male students ($M=1.71$). The research findings will help the students, especially male students, to promote and engage the strategies in their foreign language learning.

Keywords: language learning, language learning strategy, gender, English Language Learning Strategy Inventory (ELLSI)

1. Introduction

Due to English positioned as foreign language taught at schools and colleges, the average of Indonesian college students, especially those who are in low level higher education and are non-English major students may have low proficiency of English. It may be caused by the teaching and learning process in the foreign language context. In this 21st century, foreign language learners need to

know that there are many ways to study the foreign language effectively besides getting the knowledge from the teachers. The ways will benefit the students' behavior and called as language learning strategies. As Oxford (1990) states that "the strategies are important for language learning as tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence". Furthermore, Griffiths (2008), defines strategy as "activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning". Hence, language learning strategies are the ways the learners have and are employed individually by them to achieve their learning goals and enhance their language skills.

A study by Griffiths (2006) examined what language learning strategies used by Beijing Sports University students using ELLSI. From the study, it can be seen that the use more frequent strategy the students used, the more influencing it is in their learning management. In line with the strategy use, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) comes to a conclusion that compared to males, females are reported significantly more frequent use the language learning strategies. Female language learners also use wider range of strategies than males (Zare, 2010). Based on the explanation of the newest taxonomy applied (ELLSI) on examining the language learning strategy, the present study tried to carry out: (1) The language learning strategies (ELLSI) used by the students and (2) the effect of the gender on choosing the strategy.

159 male and female second year non-English major students from *Institut Agama Islam Negeri* (IAIN) Syekh Nurjati Cirebon, one of Indonesian Islamic Colleges, participated in this study. This study used the questionnaire of English Language Learning Strategy Inventory (ELLSI) which consists of 32 strategies proposed by Griffiths (2003) with 5 point (4 to 0) of Likert scale (always to never). The data were analyzed by employing descriptive statistics through SPSS.

2. Findings

2.1. ELLSI used by Indonesian non-English major students

Table 1. High level frequency of strategy use

ELLSI	Statement	Mean	SD
2	Learning from the teacher	3.30	0.77
8	Listening to songs in English	2.84	0.98
29	Watching movies in English	2.66	1.07
11	Listening to music while studying	2.60	1.21
22	Not worrying about mistakes	2.60	0.96
23	Using a self-study centre	2.56	1.02
1	Doing homework	2.56	0.88
13	Using a dictionary	2.52	0.99

From Table 1, it can be seen that “learning from the teacher” (M=3.30) is the most used strategy administered by Non-English major students. This result is supported by the finding of the previous research (Griffiths, 2003) that the ELLSI item 2, learning from the teacher, positioned as the second higher strategy used. Moreover, the previous research explained that way the students use resources, including human, were administered by the high level of students. As they students come from different majors and study English as a foreign language, learning from the teachers become something that they rely on. They tend to have lack of exposure in learning English since it is only the foreign language and is not the main course of their majors. Despite, they have to perform good and get good grades since it will affect their grade point average.

2.2. Gender differences

Table 2. Summary of mean results for strategy use

Gender	Number	M	SD	MD	T-value
Males	48	1.71	0.53	0.23	0.576 ($p=0.008$)*
Females	111	1.94	0.45		
Total	159	1.87	0.49		

*2-tailed test

The mean score of strategy used by the male students (from tabel 2) is different from female learners. In this case, gender differences, thus, have significant effect on overall use of the language learning strategies (T=0.576, $p=0.008$). It is found

that female students (M=1.94) use more language learning strategy than male students (M=1.71). A study by Zare (2010) seems supporting this present study that revealed females use greater strategy than males.

3. Conclusion

The findings resulted that Indonesian non-English major students employed the English Language Learning Strategy Inventory (ELLSI) with the various level in their foreign language learning in the Intensive English Course with learning from the teacher as the most used one. Further, the result shows that females learners use the strategy more frequent than males. But it does not mean that females are better language learners than males. The present study provides a good view of the learning strategies used by the foreign language students and its gender difference effect. Although, the further research may conduct greater understanding about the use of language learning strategies from different point of view.

4. Acknowledgement

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The relevance of and acceptability to reasoning in L2 argumentative writings of Japanese high school students: Assessing content and discourse organization

Kana Matsumura

Graduate School of Education, Waseda University

kmatsumura@suou.waseda.jp

Abstract

This study examined what makes L2 argumentative writings relevant and acceptable in reasoning in terms of content and discourse organization. The current study used the originally created rubric (Matsumura, 2017) based on the Empirically derived, Binary-choice, Boundary-definition (EBB) framework (Upshur & Turner, 1995; Turner & Upsher, 1996; 2002) for assessing the content of argumentative performance in particular while the Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) proposed by Mann & Thompson (1988) and the idea of Macropropositions by Meyer (1985; Meyer & Ray, 2011) are applied for examining the discourse organization. It also tries to explore if any specific relationships can be found between the content and organization in higher scored writings. The key concept of argument in the current research is based on the Toulmin model of argument (1958).

Keywords

Toulmin model of argument, Argumentative EFL writing, Empirically derived, Binary-choice, Boundary-definition (EBB), Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST)

Introduction

In independent writing tasks in standardized English tests, opinion making with reasons to construct a strong argument is required. Written texts of stating opinions surely require certain length and some organization with a paragraph or two consisting of several sentences. However, Oi and Horne's survey (2016) reveals that "the relative neglect and lack of frequency of writing activities, particularly writing at length, in high school EFL classes in South Korea and Japan" has been clear. (p.92) The survey also reports Japanese university

students' significantly lower ratings to their own writing skills may reflect their experiences to be evaluated often on grammatical correctness in feedback given by their writing instructors. (p. 93) Considering the above, both learners and instructors may be encouraged to learn more about the evaluation of argumentative writing performances consisting of several paragraphs with focus on content and organization.

1 Review of Literature

The EBB is a performance data-driven approach which has advantages of adjustability to the examinees' performance level as well as simple decision making. While it was originally employed to design and develop rating scales for speaking tests, this study applied it to scoring written products by adding some multiple nodes to the binary choice in certain point to decide the degree of relevance and acceptability of reasoning based on the concept of Stapleton & Wu's study (2015).

The RST is one of the most accepted discourse analysis theories. Relations in the discourse often hold between two text spans, a nucleus and a satellite. They are organized hierarchically to make a discourse tree. It is sometimes hard, however, to reach agreement on choosing the best relation out of twenty-three options, the current study tentatively focuses on the overall structure of the text with reduced relations represented by five basic groups of relationships called Macropropositions (Meyer, 1985), which are collection, causation, response, comparison, and description.

2 Method

2.1. Participants

Thirty EFL students in the 11th grade in Japanese

private high school in Tokyo participated in the study. Their English proficiency levels varied from lower to upper middle; the TOEIC Bridge mean score is 133 (LL108-UL168) and that of Pre-TOEFL ITP Level 2 is 387 (LL340-UL473).

2.2. Instruments

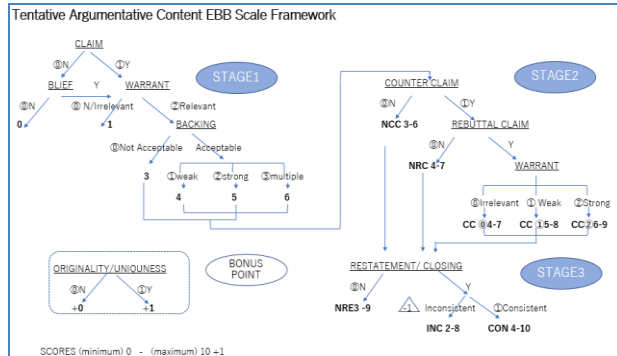


Figure 1. Tentative Argumentative Content EBB Scale Framework

Each of the thirty students' writings on agree/disagree type of task is rated with the rubric shown in Fig.1. for assessing the content of argument. The Scale consists of three stages categorized with the degree of achievement level in terms of constituents of argument of the Toulmin model. The score varies from 0 to 10. The feedback will be varied for diagnostic purposes when the result shows the same scores but different definitions.

The free software called RSTTool345 was used for depicting the RST tree for discourse analysis.

2.3. Procedure

The procedure follows two paths, since there are two goals in the current research, one is for diagnostic assessments whose results will be given to the students as shown above and the other is for discourse analysis to explore the nature of organization.

Each written text is segmented into clauses or sentences and operationalized to create the RST tree by the researcher (Fig. 2). Then it is reorganized into the simplified version of RST diagram with relations of Macropropositions (Fig. 3).

3 Results & Discussion

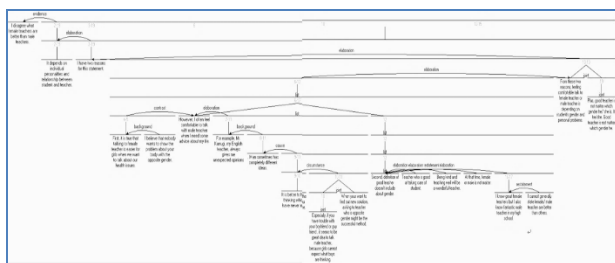


Figure 2. An example of RST tree of one of the highest scored student's written text

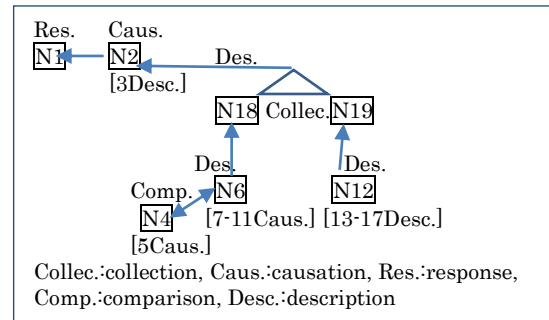


Figure 3. A simplified RST diagram with relations of Macropropositions

Due to limitations of space, a result of one of the best scored (scored 10) students in EBB scale is shown. Two raters agreed on giving a full mark to the performance, which means the text satisfied the required elements of the Toulmin model.

Fig.3 shows a coherent structure with all the elements tied neatly to converge toward N1: the claim. None of the elements are isolated but play their roles in the discourse. In another case, a text in a less organized structure gives us an impression of less persuasiveness even though it satisfies the argumentative requirements. More comprehensive research will be continuously conducted.

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Exploring Teaching Beliefs on EFL Listening

Huei-Chun Teng

Department of Applied Foreign Languages, National Taiwan University of Science and Technology

tenghc@mail.ntust.edu.tw

Abstract

The study aims to explore teaching beliefs on EFL listening instruction. The participants were 36 EFL teachers in junior high schools in Taiwan. The participating teachers first completed the questionnaires of teachers' beliefs. Then, eight of them were recruited voluntarily for classroom observations, and finally, semi-structured interviews were held with the eight volunteer teachers to explore more specific insights based on their questionnaire responses and classroom behaviors. Results show that the EFL teachers regarded listening as the most important English skill. The teaching belief most often held by the teachers is 'building up students' confidence in their own listening ability'. According to the teachers' perspectives, the important EFL listening skills are the ability to detect key words and the ability to guess the meanings of words from the contexts. The important teaching activities are to make listening work enjoyable and create pre-listening activities that give a useful preview of the content and procedures in the activity.

Keywords

teaching beliefs, EFL listening, listening instruction

Introduction

EFL listening instruction has never been in a better state in Taiwan, with few questioning its usefulness and with a wide variety of teaching resources for teachers to utilize. However, there are fundamental questions concerning the pedagogy of EFL listening. According to Allen (2013), there is a complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. It is generally accepted that teachers' beliefs influence their curricular and instructional choices, as well as many other aspects involved in teaching. Thus, the present research aims to explore teacher beliefs in L2 listening instruction. The study will mainly examine the beliefs held by EFL teachers toward teaching listening in junior high schools in Taiwan.

Literature Review

Among the relatively few studies that have examined beliefs in L2 listening, most of the research focused on beliefs about the problems associated with the skill. For example, the study by Goh (2000) gathered data from Chinese learners of English. She proposed that the factors learners believed influenced their listening included vocabulary used in the text, prior knowledge of the passage's theme, speech rate, type of input, and speaker's accent. Vogely (1995) and Hasan (2000) also investigated learners' perceptions of listening comprehension problems and learners' perceived strategy use on authentic listening tasks, respectively. Moreover, Graham (2006) examined the perceptions held by English speakers regarding listening comprehension in French and how they view the reasons behind their lack of success in listening.

Pajares (1992) argued that the beliefs teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgments, which, in turn, affect their behavior in the classroom. Understanding the belief structures of teachers is essential to improving their professional preparation and teaching practices. Thus, researchers are encouraged to provide specific insights into this critical issue and thus generate more effective suggestions for L2 listening pedagogy.

Methodology

Participants in the study were 36 EFL teachers in junior high schools in Taiwan. The instruments consisted of a questionnaire, an observation form, and an interview guide. The questionnaire of teachers' beliefs in EFL listening instruction was designed based on previous research (Richards, 1983; Underwood, 1989; Goh, 2000; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Rost, 2011). It contained 40 statements about listening instruction comprising beliefs in five areas, including objectives of teaching listening, listening difficulties, specific listening skills, activities of teaching listening, and listening assessment. The study was conducted

separately in three junior high schools. First, 12 EFL teachers in each of the three schools answered the questionnaires of teachers' beliefs in EFL listening instruction. Then, eight of the participants were recruited voluntarily for classroom observations and follow-up interviews.

Results and Discussion

The study results show that 'building up students' confidence in their own listening ability' is the most frequent teacher belief. Most of the junior high students only have beginner or intermediate-low proficiency of EFL listening. The teachers should try hard to build up students' confidence in their listening ability by providing experiences and activities in which they can be successful. The findings also echoes Underwood's (1989) claim on the teacher's objectives of listening instruction. L2 teachers can adopt a variety of listening texts to expose students to a range of listening experiences. Extensive listening is generally considered appropriate for all students (Waring, 2010). Teachers can explain the listening process to students, and teach them effective listening strategies.

Besides, the participating teachers regarded the ability to use real world knowledge and the ability to predict outcomes as important listening skills. The results confirm Buck's (2001) which indicated that the ability to make inferences and to incorporate background knowledge into text processing is one of the top-level attributes for listening test performance. As for teaching activities, the frequent teachers' beliefs include 'making listening work enjoyable' and 'creating pre-listening activities'. The beliefs support Underwood (1989) and Rost (2011) who suggested that L2 students need to be at ease and calm to listen attentively and that pre-listening can be a warm-up activity to remind students of the content and vocabulary they will need for schema activation.

Furthermore, the teachers believe it is important to simulate test conditions and get students familiar with the format of the tests they will take. The finding supports Rost's (2011) which suggest it is useful to simulate test conditions and have students be familiar with the test format for helping students do their best on tests and thus creating a positive washback effect on instruction. Besides, the teachers think that speech rates that are very fast should be avoided in listening tests. When outlining factors to consider for preparing listening tests, Thompson (1995) also suggested that speech rates that are very fast should be avoided. In order not to raise students' listening anxiety, EFL teachers should prepare or choose listening test material with

moderate and natural speech rates which meet the students' proficiency level.

Conclusion

To sum up, understanding the belief structures of teachers is essential to improving their professional preparation and teaching practices. By providing empirical descriptions of EFL teachers' beliefs, this study is expected to offer specific insights into this critical issue and thus generate more effective suggestions for L2 listening pedagogy, and ultimately to teach high school students to become more effective EFL listeners.

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A Study on Englishization of Higher Education in Taiwan: Institutional Discourses and the International Promotion of Higher Education

Han-Yi Lin

National Taipei University of Technology

hanyilin@ntut.edu.tw

Abstract

Focusing on the process of Englishization in the Taiwanese higher education system in the global context, this research aims to investigate the discursive construction of internationalization and Englishization in tertiary education. In this study, the English versions of university websites as discursive and social practices are regarded as significant representations as well as an integral part of Englishization and internationalization in higher education. Therefore, relevant content information and visuals from the selected university websites of the four major types of higher education institutions in Taiwan are collected as the target research data. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is employed as the analytic tool. By analyzing the selected university websites, this study suggests that international higher education is conceptualized by the discourses of international connections and recognition, the number of foreign students and faculty members, and the extent of English-medium instruction. Overall, the discursive and semiotic strategies identified on the selected university websites reveal the limited strength and disadvantageous condition of Taiwanese higher education institutions in the English-dominated, global market of higher education.

Keywords

International higher education, Englishization, institutional discourse

Introduction

Internationalization and Englishization can be regarded as combining trends in the development of higher education around the world. In order to obtain a clearer picture of this global phenomenon, there is a need to explore the implications of Englishization in higher education in the expanding circle and to examine them contextually and empirically.

Focusing on the context of Taiwan, this study aims to examine the discursive construction and conceptualization of international higher education in Taiwan and to explore the embedded discourses and strategies regarding Englishization and international promotion of higher education which are produced, articulated and distributed by higher education institutions. The research questions of this study are as follows: *How is international higher education in Taiwan discursively constructed through institutional discourses? What meanings are being transmitted through discursive as well as semiotic practices on universities' English websites?*

1 Research methodology

Since universities' English websites are the most prevailing global medium for international promotion, the content information and visuals of these university websites can be viewed as representative discourses which are constructed by and constructing international higher education in Taiwan. Therefore, the target data include the content information and visuals regarding international higher education and Englishization on the English websites of the top three universities in numbers of international degree students in 2015-2016 from each of the four major types of higher education institutions in Taiwan. (i.e. national universities, private universities, national universities of technology, and private universities of technology). All selected websites, including their home pages, 'About University X' web pages, and web pages designated for international students, are analyzed using CDA (Fairclough, 1992, 1995, 2001), while perspectives of multimodal analysis (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006) are also taken into consideration where appropriate and according to their contents and contexts.

2 Analysis and discussion

Although universities' English websites are supposed to be the English counterpart of the Chinese version, the making of English websites not only pertains to a process of translation but also involves a process of reproduction. Contents and design of these websites are deliberately selected, reproduced or even created for those who cannot read Chinese, and thus can be regarded as discursive practices for designated audiences (mainly international prospective students and scholars), through distinct mediums (the English language and the Internet), and with specific purposes (international profile/promotion). They can also be regarded as representation and articulation which are constructed by and constructing the institutional, sociocultural, and global contexts of higher education.

2.1 The conceptualization of international higher education

Based on the strategies for 'internationalization' stated on the selected university websites, the degree of internationalization of higher education institutions can be enhanced by establishing connections with more foreign institutions, by gaining recognition from international institutions, and by increasing the number of foreign students enrolled. Another notable feature related to the conceptualization of international higher education is the specification of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) in programs available for international applicants on all selected websites. Additionally, more and more universities in Taiwan have established or are planning to establish the so-called 'international colleges' whose most distinctive characteristic is the provision of English-taught programs and all-English learning environment. It denotes that EMI is not pervasive in Taiwanese higher education institutions, and signifies an equation between EMI programs and international higher education.

2.2 The international promotion of higher education

Focusing on the 'admission' webpages, apart from procedures and requirements for application, information about tuition fees and scholarships are foregrounded on all selected websites. In Taiwan and some non-English dominant countries, the relatively low tuition fees and the availability of scholarships are critical incentives for international students and usually become the determinant of their ultimate decisions. As to the discourses of promotion, different discursive strategies can be identified on the websites of different higher education institutions.

For the prestigious or higher-ranked universities, conventional structures and linguistic features are often adopted in order to assert their authority. For the young or lower-ranked universities, multiple strategies are employed in order to create a personified relationship between universities and prospective students.

2.3 Approaches to English and Englishization

For the majority of the selected websites, English version is the only version of language other than Chinese. To a great extent, English is 'the channel' to be international. Although English version of university websites in Taiwan are commonly available, through a detailed examination of the twelve selected university websites, the English versions usually are not equal to their Chinese versions to various degrees in terms of content and visual arrangement, information emphasis, and webpages layout and design. In a way, the extent of Englishization of a website reflects the range of information and contents a university intends to unveil and the amount of resources an institution could exert in the process of translation and reproduction.

3 Conclusion

Through the examination of the selected university websites in Taiwan, this study suggests that international higher education is conceptualized by the discourses of international connections and recognition, the number of foreign students and faculty members, and the extent of English-medium instruction. The discursive and semiotic strategies employed by different types of universities can be regarded as representations shaped by and shaping the institutional, local and global contexts of higher education. Overall, the discourses, strategies, and semiotic representations identified on the selected university websites reveal the limited strength and disadvantageous condition of Taiwanese higher education institutions in the English-dominated, global market of higher education.

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The Effects of Approaches to Teaching and Learning on Students' Productive Skills in International Baccalaureate Language B (English)

Yuya AKATSUKA¹

¹Waseda University Honjo Senior High School

akatsuka@waseda.jp

Abstract

This is an interim report on the effects of approaches to teaching and learning (ATL) on students' productive and interactive skills in 'Language B', one of the foreign language subjects of the Diploma Programme offered by the International Baccalaureate (IB). Although some research (Akatsuka, 2017; Kawano, 2016) introduces the characteristics of ATL for Language B, its effects toward fostering learners' productive and interactive skills have not been examined. English courses in Japanese article 1 high schools should be designed to foster students' higher order thinking skills (HOTs) (MEXT, 2014), and Language B is believed to foster these skills. To analyse these effects, the learners' intentions toward improving their productive and interactive skills are measured by a questionnaire. The results indicate that although the participants increased their intention toward productive skills, their intention toward interactive skills did not increase.

Keywords

International Baccalaureate, diploma programme, Language B, productive skills, interactive skills

Introduction

Even though the MEXT claims that fostering students' productive and interactive skills is important, some researchers point out that EFL textbooks authorised by MEXT (hereinafter Japanese EFL textbooks) are not designed to acquire these skills (Akatsuka, 2017; MEXT 2011). In contrast, the EFL textbooks widely used at IB schools and match IB curriculum requirements (hereinafter IB EFL textbooks) are designed to acquire these skills (Kawano, 2016). In this study, English courses were designed based on ATL of Language B, and English lessons based on Language

B ATL were conducted by a Japanese EFL teacher who has a Language B teaching certificate. The lessons were conducted in a non-IB Japanese senior high school in the 2nd grade. In this paper, the philosophy of DP assessment will be described. Then, the characteristics of Japanese national curriculum and the Language B curriculum will be compared. Finally, participants' intentions are analysed in terms of how much they improve their intention toward productive and interactive skills.

1 Description of the assessment of Language B

Assessment is the heart of IB programmes because it contributes to maintaining their quality (IBO, 2004). IB teachers must fully understand the IB assessment philosophy as it has 'a major impact on how the DP is taught within schools' (International Baccalaureate Organization, 2004, p.13).

In all DP courses and subjects, teachers are required to 1) use rubric(s) to assess learners' competence, 2) assess their awareness toward intercultural understandings, 3) assess their HOTs and lower order thinking skills (LOTs), 4) encourage learners to participate in a variety of learning activities and evaluate their competence through a variety of assessment instruments.

1.1 Assessment components of Language B

Language B has five assessment components (Table 1). The International Baccalaureate Organization (2004) states that 'assessment criteria are used on a regular basis in class activities'. Based on this philosophy, most IB school teachers encourage learners to understand the meaning and content of IB rubrics. For instance, teachers encourage learners to assess sample writing assignments

Table 1. Assessment instruments of Language B (Adapted from the International Baccalaureate, 2014)

Skills	Component	Duration	Examinees
Receptive skills (reading)	Paper 1	1.5 hrs	Assessed by the IB.
Productive skills (writing)	Paper 2	1.5 hrs	
Reading and writing skills	Written assignment	—	Assessed by teachers at IB schools and moderated by the IB
Productive skills (speaking)	Individual oral	15 mins	
Interactive skills	Interactive oral	—	

using rubrics individually, then discuss their ideas with their classmates.

2 Textbooks

Japanese EFL textbooks are mostly explanatory notes edited by authors, but the IB EFL textbooks contain a variety of authentic materials including a newspaper article and blog entry. In addition, the questions in the Japanese textbooks focus on checking students' understanding, but the IB's questions encourage students' discussion. Furthermore, the Japanese textbooks contain few writing topics; in contrast, the IB textbooks encourage students to write a variety of texts including an essay, letter and advertisement.

3 Methods

To analyse learners' (n = 82) intention toward improving their productive and interactive skills, a questionnaire was distributed that consisted of a 5-point Likert scale, from strongly agree '5' to strongly disagree '1'. To analyse the results, students were divided into two groups on the basis of their TOEIC score: upper-level learners and lower-level learners.

4 Results

4.1 Intention toward improving productive skills

Over 60% of upper-level learners and 82 % of lower-level learners answered strongly agree or agree (upper level: $r = .79$, lower level: $r = .71$). For writing activities, the lecturer provided learners with a variety of writing tasks and assignments, such as letter writing and essay writing. For speaking activities, the lecturer required learners to participate in individual and group presentations. In their free comments, most learners emphasised the importance of repetitive practice. These results indicate that the ATL of Language B may be useful for improving students' intention toward productive skills.

4.2 Intention toward improving interactive skills

Over 70% of lower-level learners answered disagree or strongly disagree ($r = .72$). In the EFL course, a lecturer asked learners a variety of questions that

required LOTs and HOTs, and they responded to these questions promptly. In addition, teachers encouraged learners to formulate and ask questions promptly of their classmates. The results, however, show that these practices did not correlate to an increase in their intention toward interactive skills. In the free comments, one learner stated that 'Prompt reply was so hard even though I came up my mind what I want to say in my mother tongue'. These results suggest that an EFL course should be designed to allow students sufficient time to interact.

5 Future research

One of the goals of Language B is to encourage learners to respond to complex questions (International Baccalaureate, 2014). However, in Japanese EFL courses, most Japanese high school EFL learners struggle with interacting; therefore, lectures need to provide students with opportunities for oral Q&A activities. Harada (2016) points out that Japanese university students struggle with prompt oral response and questions, and this research indicates the same is true in Japanese high schools.

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Statistical Learning and L2 Processing of English RCs

On-Soon Lee

Dong-A University

oslee@dau.ac.kr

Abstract

This study investigates why individuals differ in their success in learning language – in particular, why some second language (L2) learners learn more quickly and more successfully than others – by examining the correlation between ability in statistical learning tasks involving a nonadjacent dependency and success in processing English relative clauses (RC). Previous studies showed that reliable effects of working memory have been reported for first language (L1) sentence processing. However, the role of working memory in explaining individual differences in L2 achievement has been questioned in the literature. Therefore, this study attempts to address the issue of individual differences in L2 achievement, by examining a possible correlation between statistical learning (SL) ability for nonadjacent dependencies and success in processing English relative clauses.

Keywords

L2 sentence processing, English relative clauses, artificial grammar learning, statistics

1. Introduction

This study investigates why individuals differ in their success in learning language – in particular, why some second language (L2) learners learn more quickly and more successfully than others – by examining the correlation between ability in statistical learning tasks involving a nonadjacent dependency and success in processing English relative clauses (RC). Previous studies showed that reliable effects of working memory have been reported for first language (L1) sentence processing, but not for L2 sentence processing. For example, King and Just (1991). However, the role of working memory in explaining individual differences in L2 achievement has been questioned in the literature. This study attempts to address the issue of individual differences in L2 achievement, by examining a possible correlation between statistical learning (SL) ability for nonadjacent dependencies and success in processing English relative clauses.

I have two hypotheses (i) success in learning

nonadjacent dependencies on a statistical learning (SL) task requires an aptitude that is also relevant for dealing with such dependencies in natural language. Therefore, (ii) variation in learning nonadjacent dependencies on an SL task should be correlated with success in processing English ORs.

2. Experiment

2.1. Participants

Participants were 114 Korean learners of English as a L2, with 53 English native speakers as a control group. Both groups consist of undergraduate students, participating for course credit or money.

2.2. Materials

This study consists of two tasks – one involving SL task and the other involving the comprehension of English RCs. To measure individual variation in statistical learning ability, a statistical learning paradigm was employed by implementing an artificial grammar with minor modification from Gómez's (2002) nonadjacent dependency learning task. Here are examples of nonadjacent dependencies in the SL task. As in (1), the grammar employed in this study was based on three sets of dependency pairs (e.g., *pel – jic*, *vot – tood*, *dak – rud*). Two intervening words were inserted between the members of each dependency pair – two intervening 'words' were taken from a pool of 552 words.

- (1) **a. pel** rog gik **jic**
b. vot poy juf **tood**
c. dak vev fuf **rud**

The dependencies resemble those found in direct object relative clauses in a limited but relevant way: they hold across intervening material. For example, the intervening words between the head noun (the filler, *novelist*) and its gap marked with an underscore as in (2), which create a nonadjacent

dependency as in (1).

(2) The novelist_i that the poet admired _j wrote two masterpieces last year.

2.3. Predictions

There are two predictions in this experiment. First, Korean native speakers should be able to learn nonadjacent dependencies on the SL task, consistent with results from English native speakers (Gómez, 2002; Misyak & Christiansen, 2010; Misyak, Christiansen, & Tomblin, 2012). Secondly, higher grammaticality accuracy rates should correlate with (i) higher comprehension accuracy rates in processing English ORs and (ii) faster reading times at the critical regions. As seen here, we expect significant difference between good and poor statistical learners in object relative clauses, but no in subject relative clauses.

2.4. Results

Let us consider the correlation between statistical learning and processing English RCs among advanced L2 learners. As seen in figure 1, there is no significant difference between good and poor statistical learners on SRs [$t(63) = .162, p = .872, \eta(47) = 1.795, p = .091$, respectively], but a significant difference is observed for ORs across advanced and intermediate L2 group [$t(63) = 2.405, p = .020, \eta(47) = 4.840, p = .0001$, respectively]. This indicates that good statistical learners with higher grammaticality accuracy rate in the SL task comprehend English ORs significantly better than do poor statistical learners. Moreover, a simple linear regression showed that mean grammaticality accuracy on the SL task is correlated with the comprehension accuracy for English ORs [$t(112) = 3.269, p = .001$].

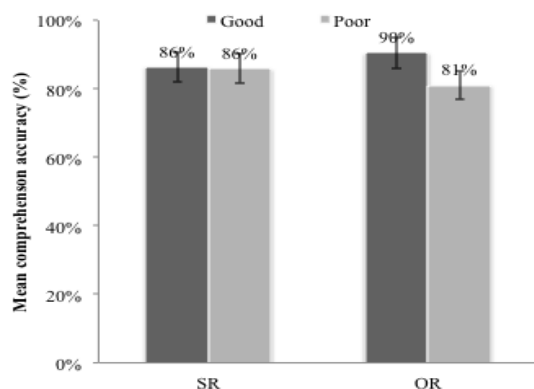


Figure 1. Mean comprehension accuracy for advanced L2 groups

Findings from all L2 learners showed that (i) Korean native speakers are able to track nonadjacent dependencies in an artificial language,

just as English native speakers are, that (ii) a correlation between nonadjacent statistical learning and processing ORs is observed, in that good statistical learners comprehend significantly better in the OR condition than poor statistical learners do. Moreover, closer inspection reveals that the correlation between the SL task and processing English ORs is manifested in the performance both of L2 learners. In both of advanced and intermediate L2 groups, good statistical learners comprehend ORs significantly better than poor statistical learners do.

3. Concluding remarks

Results raise the possibility that individual differences in L2 achievement can be explained at least in part by reference to variation in statistical learning ability, at least in the case of nonadjacent dependencies.

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Praising Remarks in Compliments across Languages: The Multifaceted Aspects

Sakulrat Worathumrong¹ and Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin²

¹Srinakharinwirot University, ²Chulalongkorn University

sworathumrong@gmail.com, Sudaporn.L@chula.ac.th

Abstract

Theoretical definitions of compliment (C) refer to the term as “the speech act of explicit or implicit attributing credit to the hearer (Holmes 1988). Brown and Levinson (1978) highlight an interactional function of C as “*an affective speech act to show a phatic expression or maintaining or increasing rapport between the speaker and the hearer*”. Our data of cross-language C study in American English, Thai, Hindi, Urdu, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, and French are theoretically thought provoking and show quite a lot of examples that lead to a better understanding of Cs in various linguistic aspects. The main data were collected from the study of conversations in six novels, the use of written Discourse Completion Tasks—WDCT, and the corpus of the international FC website of a famous Hallyu star. Not only the positive praising remarks were found, the negative remarks, e.g., “that’s disgusting”, “awful”, “devil”, “killer”, “killing”, “crazy”, “maddy”, “/thu3 reet2/ (dreadful)”, “/baa2/ (crazy)” were also found as well as the emotive words like interjections and intensifiers, e.g., “wow”, “oh my god”, “OMG”, “Yo”, “Oh”, “/oo2 hoo2/ (wow)”, “/ba3/ (oh)”, “/ai guu/ (oh)”, “/oo moo/ (OMG). The negative remarks exemplify the importance of context-bound C expressions expressing bonding between the people giving the Cs and the ones receiving them. The C expressions could be Speaker Oriented or Hearer Oriented depending on the relation between the interlocutors. These evidences emphasized the multifaceted linguistic aspects of pragmatics, semantics, syntax, etymology, and phonology of praising remarks in C expressions of different languages. The findings from this study shed more light to the conceptualization of the pragmatics of giving Cs across languages.

Keywords

Praising remarks; Compliments; Linguistics aspects

Introduction

Theoretically, C is an affective speech act to show phatic expression or maintaining or increasing rapport between the speaker and the hearer (Brown and Levinson, 1978). Holmes (1988) also defined C as the speech act of explicit or implicit attributing credit to the hearer. Our data of cross-language C study in American English, Thai, Hindi, Urdu, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, and French are theoretically thought provoking and show quite a lot of examples that lead to a better understanding of Cs in various linguistic aspects.

1 Research Methodology

The data both in English and in Thai were collected from the three main sources: 1) the conversations in six novels by the American and the Thai authors, 2) the written Discourse Completion Tasks (WDCT), and 3) a small corpus built from the international FC website of a famous Hallyu star. The WDCT design took into accounts the setting, topics of Cs, and interpersonal relationship factors between hearers and speakers (i.e., sex, relative age, degree of proximity, and social role. Besides English and Thai, the cross language supporting data were based on several unrelated languages including Hindi, Urdu, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, and French. They were collected from Chulalongkorn university’s international students and scholars from India, Korea, Japan, Vietnam, and France.

2 Results and Discussions

The results showed five linguistic aspects, i.e., pragmatics, semantics, syntax, etymology, and phonology of praising remarks in C expressions of different languages. Pragmatically speaking, the praising remarks consisted of head act [H] and supportive move (S). The [H]s could be either speakers or hearers oriented. The overall topics of

Cs as related to the hearers included physical appearance, ability, characteristics, belongings, luck, and family. Three types of remarks were found across languages: the positive praising remarks [e.g., “nice”, “बढ़िया” “친절한”, “tót”]; the negative remarks [e.g., “that’s disgusting”, “awful”, “devil”, ‘dying’, “killer”, “killing”, “मार डाला—killing” “chét—killing”, “crazy”, “maddy, “/thu3 reet2/ (dreadful)”, “/baa2/ (crazy)”]; the emotive words like interjections and intensifiers [e.g., “wow”, “oh my god”, “Yo”, “Oh”, “/oo2 hoo2/ (wow)”, /ba3/ (oh)”, “/ai guu/ (oh)”, /oo moo/ (OMG)]. It is observed that the use of negative remarks is a phenomenon in giving Cs across languages among intimates. The use of these remarks exemplifies the importance of context-bound C expressions expressing bonding between the people giving the Cs and the ones receiving them. Although the remarks denote negative meanings, etymologically, some of them started to denote positive meanings for a long time, e.g., ‘smashing’ (from 1911); ‘to kill/ killer’ (by 1900); ‘crazy’ (by 1927). These remarks could be considered as an evidence of implicit Cs attributing credits to the hearers. However, for them to behave as an affective speech act, the C givers should be aware of whom they use the remarks with. Semantically, Cs can be explored in terms of five metaphorical concepts. Two concepts are related to emotions: excitement (e.g., smashing) and mythical (e.g., legendary; surprise). The other three are related to different senses: visual (e.g., bright; great; grand), tactile (e.g., hot; cool), and gustation (e.g., sweet). The concept of visual perception appears to be more prominently used in giving Cs. Interestingly, the intensification through lexical representations found in the [H]s of C expressions were common across languages. The lexical representations included ‘very (much)’ and ‘really’. Semantically speaking, these representations involved concept of quantity (i.e., very much) and of truth, authenticity, certainty (i.e., really). The intensification phenomena could be said to reinforce rapport between the speaker and the hearer. Syntactically speaking, most of the praising remarks were statements or declarative. One word statements were common. Some praising remarks were questions or interrogatives. Many exclamatory sentences with interjection and emotion words and punctuation marks were also found. Phonologically speaking, some Cs were emotively marked by reduplications, exclamation marks, capital letters, long vowels and short vowels. These features were used to show emphatic tones which are the rise and fall intonation patterns proposed as universal convolution (Luksaneeyanawin, 1998; 2007) conveying the semantic abstract of contrariety.

3 Conclusions

The evidences found across languages emphasized the multifaceted linguistic aspects of pragmatics, semantics, syntax, etymology, and phonology of praising remarks in C expressions of different languages. The findings from this study shed more light to the conceptualization of the pragmatics of giving Cs across languages. The praising remarks found as [H]s are oriented towards overtness and those found as (S)s are oriented towards covertness. The overt Cs are usually represented through the positive remarks while the covert Cs are represented through the negative and emotive remarks. Across unrelated languages, the use of negative remarks appears to be a phenomenon in giving Cs among intimates. The degrees in expressing overtness or covertness through the use of the three types of remarks highlight the importance of context-bound C expressions expressing the level of bonding between the people giving the Cs and the ones receiving them.

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EFL Teaching Method: The World Café Activity

Eunhee Han

Korea Nazarene University

ehhan@kornu.ac.kr

Abstract

The purpose of this presentation was to share the EFL teaching activity which is called the World Café. The presentation begins with language teaching methods in a practical orientation to L2 teaching and learning. It focuses on learner-centered cooperative learning in order to introduce the World Café activity in an EFL classroom. The World Café activity's basic concept is described as designing and applying of the activity. The presentation concludes with sharing a teaching practice applying the World Café in an EFL classroom and suggests the effects of this activity.

Keywords

EFL, teaching approach, activity

Introduction

Various EFL teaching approaches are introduced and applied in a classroom in order to enhance learning and teaching effectiveness. Among many different approaches, it is easily distinguished in teaching a foreign language between language-centered methods and learner-centered methods. Indeed, all methods can be applicable when teaching a foreign language however; to make active learner involvement a learner-centered method that can be more effective. The World Café activity is a cooperative learning process among learners using meaningful dialogue and collaborate thoughts. The present presentation is a replication of an activity done in the early 1990s by Brown (2002) and the presenter shares the World Cafe activity applied in EFL teaching in Korea.

1 Language Teaching Methods

In the nature of foreign language teaching and learning, the language teaching methods utilize in

many different ways in terms of deriving appropriate classroom practices. Moreover, as Richards (1987) emphasized, most language teachers seeks to find the right method whereas “ultimately an effective language teaching method will be developed (p. 11).” Despite finding the most effective teaching method, Nunan (1998, p. 3) argued that “all methods have one thing in common...that there is a single set of principles which will determine whether or not learning will take place.” Thus, it is important that learning should be involved actually in a classroom with collective evidence. Language teaching methods commonly introduce two categories: Language-centered methods which are focused on linguistic structures and learner-centered methods in relation to learner needs.

1.1 Language-Centered Methods

Language-Centered method emphasizes the language itself. In other words, it is concerned with linguistic forms. This method follows the linguistic structure through form-focused activities and learners are expected to rely on systematic practice. It makes language learning more intentional than incidental (Kumaravadivelu, 2009).

1.2 Learner-Centered Methods

Different from language-centered methods, learner-centered methods are basically concerned with learners. They focus on learners' needs through providing opportunities to practice meaning-focused activities. According to Kumaravadivelu (2009), the ultimately goal of this methods is to lead the learner fulfilling grammatically accurate and communicatively fluency in a target language.

2 World Café Activity

According to Schieffer, Isaacs, and Gyllenpalm (2004), the World Café activity “is a user-friendly

method for creating meaningful and cooperative dialogue around questions that count. As an organizational or social design process the World Café offers a practical way to enhance the human capacity for collaborative thought (p. 2). They emphasized that the World Café underlying beliefs are that each person has individual understanding of the world, shares and collects thinking, and accesses others' experiences. The main purpose of practicing the World Café is to think together through collaborative learning.

2.1 World Café Activity: When to Apply

When to apply an appropriate activity is one of crucial questions for teachers when designing a class. Schieffer, Isaacs, and Gyllenpalm (2004, p. 3-4) suggested to employ the Word Café:

- 1) to clarify the context,
- 2) to explore the questions,
- 3) to encourage learner's contribution,
- 4) and to collect ideas

2.2 World Café Activity: How to Design

Brown (2002) suggested that in order to design a World Café activity, a teacher needs to set a purpose, a number of students, and variable factors. It is important to remember that all members need to participate in meaningful conversation by contributing their ideas and viewpoint.

2.3 World Café Activity: Applying the activity

There are many ways to apply the World Café in a classroom especially students participation is needed through dialogue and conversation. Schieffer, Isaacs, and Gyllenpalm (2004, p. 7) suggested the basic principles when applying the World Café activity:

- 1) Focus on the most important issue
- 2) Each member needs to contribute his/her idea
- 3) Speak frankly
- 4) Listen carefully to understand
- 5) Connect ideas
- 6) Listen together
- 7) Think with doodling, drawing and other incentives

3 Teaching Practice: A Teacher's Reflection

The participants of the World Café activity were 150 students in one university in Korea. All participants were enrolled in liberal arts in 4 different English courses, and their majors were

varied since these courses are opened to all students. The World Café activity was applied to each course two different times within a semester. Course A employed the Word Café when collecting ideas was needed. Course B and C were employed when exploring the question. Course D was employed when clarifying the contest. An instructor self-reported that the World Café activity was successful as shown:

- 1) Students were active compared to listening to the instructor's lecture only,
- 2) Students shared their ideas voluntarily,
- 3) And the classroom looked alive or lively.

4 Conclusion

The current presentation shares the World Café activity in an EFL classroom as a case study of the instructor's reflection after applying the World Café in her classes. The result indicates that the World Café activity may be useful for designing EFL class. It may be useful especially since the students are asked to contribute and participate to the class with their ideas and viewpoints. This presentation concludes with a suggestion of applying the World Café activity and its possible effects.

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On the Relationships between Anxiety Factors and Reading Proficiency in English among Korean College Students

Kim Kyong-Chul, Park Hyesook

Kunsan National University

mosobbol@daum.net, sapark@kunsan.ac.kr

Abstract

This study investigates the effects of English reading anxiety on the process of English reading as a foreign language. The study attempted to solve the research questions regarding what factors constitute the English reading anxiety of Korean college students and what relationships are between the English reading anxiety factors and English learners' reading proficiency. The participants of this study were 366 Korean college students who were preparing for TOEIC test. Modified FLRAS(Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale) and the TOEIC R/C scores were used to collect data and the data was analyzed statistically through factor analysis, one-way ANOVA and correlation analysis. Through factor analysis, 4 factor components were extracted: 'general reading anxiety(GRA)', 'self-confidence lack anxiety(SLA)', 'lengthy text anxiety(LTA)', and 'lexical anxiety(LA)'. The result of ANOVA analysis showed that there was a significant effect of reading anxiety on English reading proficiency, and the correlation analysis indicated that there was a significantly negative correlation between English reading anxiety and English reading proficiency, in particular, for the higher group of English reading proficiency.

Keywords

Modified FLRAS(Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale), Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA),

Introduction

The language anxiety has a relatively strong association with their performance. There was an effort made by Horwitz, Horwitz, &Cope(1986) to separate the form of anxiety that is specific to a language learning situation from other anxiety in

order to conceptualize language anxiety, and it gave another phase to understand what triggers anxiety in language learning.

1 Method

1.1 Participants

The 366 college students of a Korean university participated in the study. In fact, the distribution of the TOEIC scores of the participants was wide ranging from 135 to 830, and the average TOEIC score was 388. As a measurement tool for the study, 8 questionnaire items (21-28) were added to the original reading anxiety questionnaire (FLRAS) to test the reading anxiety of the lengthytext. And the reading scores of the mock TOEIC scores (495 points) was used as the reading achievement instrument.

1.2 Procedures

The collected data were analyzed using the SPSS PAWS 18 statistical program. First, the mean and standard deviation of the anxiety of each item were surveyed using descriptive statistics. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to examine the factors that constitute the subjects' English reading anxiety. In order to investigate the relationship between English reading anxiety and English reading achievement, one-way ANOVA and Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) were calculated.

2 Results

1.1 Characteristics of Reading Anxiety of Korean College Students

1.1.1 Descriptive statistics on reading anxiety

To investigate the general characteristics of English reading anxiety of Korean college students, we examined the mean value and standard deviation of the questionnaire items. The reliability coefficient

of the questionnaire consisted of 28 questionnaires was as high as .850. The average score of the 18 questionnaire item 'I am not satisfied with my ability to read English at present' in the English reading anxiety questionnaires is 3.97 which gained the highest mean. This may be a reflection that many students are very anxious about reading English.

1.1.2 Factor Analysis of Internal Constituents of Reading Anxiety

Factor analysis was conducted using the SPSS PASW 18 statistical program to determine the factors that constitute the English anxiety of Korean college students. The KMO measure was .847 and the significance level of the sphere formation test was .0000. For the factor analysis, the main axis factor analysis was chosen and the direct oblique method was used instead of Varimax to allow the correlation between the factors to be zero (Direct Oblimin). The 4 extracted constructs through the factor analysis of reading anxiety questionnaire accounted for 54.35% of total anxiety variance.

Table1. Composition of Reading Anxiety and Questionnaire Items

Anxiety factor	Q.I Number	Cronbach's Alpha
GRA	4,5,6,7,17,22,23	.78
SLA	12,13,14	.74
LTA	18,21,27,28	.63
LA	1,2,3,10,11	.68

Note: GRA/general reading anxiety, SLA/self-confidence lack anxiety, LTA/lengthy text anxiety, LA/lexical anxiety

2.1 The Relationship between Learners' Reading Achievement and Reading Anxiety Factor

Based on the total score of anxiety items in the questionnaire, all participants were divided into high scored group and lower scored group. Anxiety was regarded as an independent variable and variance analysis was performed with reading score as a dependent variable. The results showed that anxiety had a significant effect on learner's English reading performance ($F(1,364) = 12.465, p = .000$).

The participants' reading achievement and reading anxiety were found to have a negative relationship of -.216. For more detailed analysis, we analyzed the correlations between 'general reading anxiety (GRA)', 'self-confidence lack anxiety (SLA)', 'lengthy text anxiety (LTA)', and 'lexical anxiety (LA)'. It also shows the correlation between reading scores and reading anxiety factors. As a result of the above correlation coefficient, all the subscales of reading score and reading anxiety

showed negative correlation with reading scores.

Table2. Correlation between Reading Anxiety Factor and Reading Achievement (Pearson correlation coefficient *, N = 366)

	TOEIC(R/C) Score
r	-.216**
GRA	-.185*
SLA	-.216**
LTA	-.136**
LA	-.105*

In the higher group, all the factors of anxiety showed statistically significant relationships with the reading score. As a whole, -.323 suggests that learners with high reading anxiety have a negative relationship with English reading scores. In the case of the detailed anxiety factor, the negative correlation coefficient of -.301 was the highest.

Table3. Correlation between Reading Anxiety Factor and Reading Achievement of the Higher Group (N = 144)

	TOEIC(R/C) Score
r	-.323**
GRA	-.167*
SLA	-.288**
LTA	-.301*
LA	-.218**

3 Conclusion

First, the level of English reading anxiety of Korean college students is comparatively high. The most significant reading anxiety is 'lengthy text reading anxiety.' Second, the more language learners are under reading anxiety, the lower reading proficiency is. In particular, for the higher group there is a significant correlation between students' reading score and the reading anxiety factors ('evaluation anxiety', 'self-confidence lack anxiety', 'general reading anxiety'). Last, there is a significant difference in anxiety according to the length of the reading text for both the higher group and the lower group on reading achievement.

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For EIL: Not for English as an international language, but for English as an intercultural language (EiCL)

Kangyoung Lee

Chungbuk National University

kangyounglee@cbnu.ac.kr

Abstract

This presentation aims to present the body of the knowledge on the recent model English, so called English as an intercultural language (EiCL). This is mainly because (1) EiCL advocates that the English language has become a heterogeneous language with multiple norms and grammars bound predominantly for communication, comprehensibility, and culture (Sifakis, 2004) and (2) EiCL is not only to promote intercultural multidialectal English users (Lee, 2013) among world Englishes but to diminish the so-called native-speakers' linguistic and cultural dominances. In this framework, EiCL is defined as both a new working approach among many different models of English and a new field of study in English language teaching in the postglobal world.

Keywords

English as an intercultural language (EiCL), multidialectal English users,

Introduction: The EiCL Paradigm

While those who focus on the study of language itself play a crucial role in enhancing awareness of the present varieties of English and de-emphasizing a reliance on *inner circle* Englishes, it has been suggested that this is not enough, that what is called for is a new paradigm that empowers individuals to view English as *universal* and at the same time enables them to develop critical skills to bridge intercultural gaps or to *cross borders*, as Giroux (2005) would put it. For some, this new framework is *English as an Intercultural Language (EiCL)*.

Lee (2009, 2012, 2013) has raised English teachers' awareness of what EiCL is and is composed of, and ultimately how it can contribute to the development of the language proficiency and be actually realized into the contemporary ELT classrooms by providing some of the teaching activities conducted in his classes. Recently,

Lee and Green (2016) concisely delineate the EiCL paradigm by identifying the following principles:

(1) EiCL sees English as a heterogeneous language with multiple norms and grammars with the focus on its diversity users speak/listen to. The multiple nature of English should allow that all the varieties of English relate to one another on a single level rather than on the three hierarchies as in Kachru's three circle model of English. Thus, the notion of both 'being-native' and that competency determined by native speakers/listeners of the language is the primary goal and educational criteria, should be rejected;

(2) it is used chiefly within the C-bound approach in which mutual 'communication, comprehensibility, and culture have always been needed to be characterized as the main phenomenon in English today. EiCL prioritizes the process of cross-cultural comprehensibility between learners as a communicative goal in itself rather than on notions of accuracy and standards, since the language has predominantly been user-dependent, situation-specific, and comprehensible-oriented in the world. Therefore, EiCL supports English being 'descriptive' of how it functions today for communication in the world, not prescriptive of how the language should be used – empowering all the varieties of English today.

(3) it is "multicultural" in that speakers of more than one country and culture are almost always involved; therefore, it should accommodate the active role of users of all the variety as "agents" in the spread and development of English(es). They are contributing to the shaping of the language and the functions it fulfils in future;

(4) it aims to create 'multidialectal users of Englishes with intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitude in communication.'

Here, from the EiCL paradigm, the communicative approach (ie., the mere exchange of information) is not the objective of language learning/teaching. Instead, EiCL seeks to focus more on the construction of social

and personal identities in language learning/teaching; in this case, a *constructivist, ethnographic approach* is more appropriate. Although communication is a vital aspect of EicL, the communication in and of itself (too often based on *inner circle* expectations about how conversations should unfold) is not the final goal.

Secondly, a major focus of EicL is the development of *intercultural competence*. (Byram, 1997). This begins with an understanding that culture is a dynamic, contextual, and multidimensional process, not a fixed set of rules, values and behaviors and that language and culture are inherently intertwined and inseparable (Choudhury, 2013; Paige, Jorstad, Paulson & Klein, 1999). Cultures should not be viewed as superior or inferior, merely different (Robinson-Stuart & Nocon, 1996). In the development of intercultural competence, Byram's (1997) framework of the four mainstream aspects of *saviors* (i.e., knowledge, skill, attitudinal, and critical/cultural awareness aspects) is one framework that has been utilized. Other important intercultural skills (Choudhury, 2013) to develop are "the ability to ask questions, to listen and seek clarification, to negotiate and identify common ground, and to avoid prejudging or stereotyping" (p. 23). To do that, EicL advocates that users of English(es) seek to instill notions of *empathy* pre/during/post interaction. Practitioners of EicL are therefore encouraged to suspend judgement about cultures other than their own and attempt to view the world through the eyes of others.

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Setting tangible goals for speech presentation skills for Japanese EFL learners

Eiichiro Tsutsui¹

¹Fundamental Education Center, The University of Kitakyushu

e-tsutsui@kitakyu-u.ac.jp

Abstract

The purpose of this study is two-fold. Firstly, we provide sustainable lesson plans and set goals for speech presentation skills. Secondly, we find a way to establish tangible, intermediate goals for Japanese EFL learners. In doing so, after obtaining informed consent, we asked 253 students to prepare a 1-minute speech about introducing their friend to the class audience. In this study, we used data from A1- and A2-level students that may account for 80% of Japanese EFL learners according to Negishi and Tono (2014). We also asked an upper-intermediate learner of English to transcribe their speeches. The words the transcriber couldn't catch were counted and later used as an (un)intelligibility index. We obtained objective measurement values such as words per minute, the total number of words, readability, and vocabulary level (i.e., the ratio of 1K+2K words to the total number of words). Then, we calculated intermediate, numerical targets, set up levels and profiled learners of each level by looking at learner characteristics and their error types.

Keywords

CAF, Learner Profile, Speech Skills

Introduction

This research study aims to explore basic-level learners' independent learning and pay more attention to raising learners' awareness for how to improve speech presentation skills. As ICT is frequently used in various educational settings, students have more time to work on e-learning activities. For the convenience of eliminating teachers' and learners' time for grading and marking, many current e-learning tools and activities tend to emphasize repetitive drills and closed-ended tasks. This study may help find a way to shift from closed-ended tasks to more open-ended tasks that can hopefully enhance learners' practical skills such as speech and presentation skills. Another motivation for this study comes from current needs to measure and test speaking ability that can be seen in the

MEXT's report (MEXT, 2015). In the report, speaking and writing should be measured more reliably in parallel with listening and reading. CEFR provides grand-scale broad bands but does not present precise objective reference values that can give learners more information on how to advance to the next upper level. So, at this moment, some learners may find it difficult to improve their practical skills independently and to establish learning target plans. Therefore, this research study can hopefully help learners have more options to learn speaking and presentation skills.

1. Observable values for L2 speaking

The CAF studies are helpful for measuring observable values in L2 speaking. CAF stands for complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Theoretical arguments for defining CAF have started since the 1970s, and more scientific research studies have been carried out since the 1990s by Foster & Skehan (1997) among other researchers, according to Housen, Kuiken & Vedder (2012).

Table 1: Observable variables

Objectivity	Facets Subskills	Observable values	Tools
Objective reference values	Complexity	Readability indices	Microsoft Word
		Vocabulary profile indices	Lextutor
	Accuracy	Marks	Grammar Checker
	Fluency	WPM	Microsoft Word
Subjective rating	Complexity	Marks	Peer Review
	Accuracy		
	Fluency		

In this study, we chose to use observable values that can be easily calculated by learners with the use of such data-driven tools as Compleat Lexical Tutor v.8.3 (<http://lextutor.ca/>) and a readability statistics

report in Microsoft Word. As shown in table 1, we made use of several reference values: readability marks and the occupancy rate of the high-frequency (1K+2K) words, grammar checker marks as accuracy, and the number of words per minute as fluency. The advantage of using these indices is that learners can calculate and observe scores by using ICT devices or through peer review.

2. Participants

Our participants were 253 university students. We used data from 239 A2-level speakers of English. Some were not in the range of A2 CEFR level or did not fill out the consent form properly. Consequently, 14 (out of 253) were removed from the study.

3. Results and Discussion

In order to yield stepwise target values, we attempted to divide our participants into several levels by using the latent rank theory model. From the perspective of the model fit indices, six groups seemed plausible and practical. The gradual target values of WPM are given in Table 2.

Table 2: Learner Profile (sorted by WPM)

WPM	N	Test Scores	V(%)*	R FKG*	G*	PR*
Step 1 0.0-59.9	12	353.3	80.7	3.7	99.1	1.7
Step 2 60.0-79.9	45	418.0	83.9	3.8	99.6	3.4
Step 3 80.0-89.9	45	420.1	83.5	4.2	99.4	3.6
Step 4 90.0-104.9	60	396.1	83.9	4.2	98.9	3.9
Step 5 105.0-119.9	52	412.9	83.6	4.4	98.6	3.7
Step 6 120.0-	25	421.4	84.3	4.1	97.8	3.7

Note: *V(%): 1K + 2K (%), *R FKG: The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, *G: Rate of Intelligible words. *PR: Peer review marks (on the scale of 1 to 5).

The problem with these values is that they are not always linearly definable. In general, WPM is said to be highly correlated with proficiency indices for the beginner or intermediate learner level, but in this study, there is no correlation between WPM and proficiency test scores ($r = .10$, $p > .1$, $N = 239$). Twenty-five students exceeded 120 WPM, but only about 10% of the total did. In other words, 120 WPM could be a bit too high for the target of A2 level learners. Among the students who achieved 120 WPM, contradicting results can be found. The utterances by 120WPM achievers cannot be transcribed by an advanced level listener (i.e. a

transcriber). It should be noted that heavily prioritizing speech speed could lead to unintelligible utterances. A noteworthy level trend is that accuracy (i.e. intelligibility) is maximized within the range of 60 to 90 WPM. Regarding vocabulary, the occupancy rate of the high-frequency vocabulary (1 K + 2 K) comes closer to 90% as the level increases. In other words, the higher the level is, the more likely it is to avoid difficult vocabulary. On the conference site, more data and analysis will be given.

4. Summary

We attempted to find a way to allow students to mind their speech level and set up their practice plans. Presenting tentative numeric goals could be useful for learners. With the use of ICT and other online tools, a wide variety of methods for self-reflection, self-training, and self-diagnosis are available. In this study, level trends and shared problems within the level group can be seen. This learner level profile will help deepen our understanding of independent learning and learning support for basic-level learners.

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Implementing Action Research to Improve Preparatory English Programs at a University in Korea

Meong-Hee Seong

Eulji University

seong@eulji.ac.kr

Abstract

This paper aims to serve as a case study for universities looking to improve their preparatory English programs for incoming students. In order to do this, the University Preparatory English Program (UPEP) was conducted at a university in Korea for two weeks in January of 2017. This program happens every winter shortly before the academic year begins and is designed to prepare students academically and socially for the rigors of university life. Research questions were set based on the findings of the 2016 program identified through students' questionnaires and instructors' surveys and meetings. Participants in the 2017 program included 50 students and five native English-speaking instructors. The feedback came in the form of students' questionnaires and instructors' questionnaires and daily journals. The further development of UPEP is an ongoing process through action research methods to continuously build on the strength of this program each year. Accordingly, suggestions are provided for the coming years.

Keywords

University Preparatory English Program, action research, case study

Introduction

A vast amount of studies have shown that immersive English camps are positive for language acquisition (Cho, 1999; Lee, 2011; Rha 2009; Yoo, 1999), but little research has been conducted on programs tailored specifically to improving life holistically for incoming university students. This study takes a different approach to analysis of the program when compared to a traditional English camp. This study attempts to improve the program, based on this feedback, by utilizing action research methods.

1 Overview of 2016 UPEP

The UPEP is an English immersion program

designed for incoming students entering their first year of E. university in Gyeonggi area, Korea. The aim is to prepare these students for the upcoming semester, academically as well as socially. The program is a great chance for students to meet their peers and form friendships that will hopefully last throughout college and into the future. It also introduces them to university-style classes, but in a more relaxed, immersive English setting.

UPEP was a two week program, so the goals for language acquisition were less about quantifiable knowledge, and more about comfort with English communication skills. This means that students should experience a boost in confidence both in the classroom and when communicating with a native speaker (Lewin & Seong, 2016).

The problems identified from the 2016 UPEP were: Student attendance was not at an optimal level; Some were coming late, and some were missing entire days; Students felt that the hours for the program were too long; Students found the final project too stressful; Students wanted more icebreaker activities and other activities relating to college life; Students preferred classes planned by the professors and not based strictly on the book.

2 Research Method

2.1 Participants

The participants for this study were incoming university students. There were a total of 50 students (Male: 14, female: 36) at the end of the 2017 program, same with the program in 2016. The student participants came from different high schools around South Korea, and were all accepted to E. University for the spring semester of the 2017 academic year. Additionally, five native English speaking professors participated in UPEP. The five native English speaking instructors were full-time faculty members at E. University with experience teaching students of all skill levels. The instructors

came from multiple countries; with two from the USA, one from Ireland, one from England, and one from New Zealand.

2.2 Research Questions

Based on the findings of the 2016 UPEP, the hypotheses were set as follows: 1) Will changing the class schedule for the program improve the program? 2) Will a change of the program contents improve the program? 3) Will the introduction of daily journaling at the end of each class improve the program?

2.3 2017 UPEP Class Operation

The following changes were made when comparing the 2017 program with 2016. First, for research question one, the start time changed from the morning to the afternoon. This was changed in order to answer student concerns and improve attendance and tardiness. Second, for research question two, a homeroom class was added where teachers planned extra activities related to university life and students had a chance to work on the final project. Classes were also shortened to 50 minutes each, but the 2017 program had one extra class. Additionally, the final project was changed from a group video to a group role play because it was decided that two weeks is not enough time for creating and editing a video. Third, research question three, daily journaling was implemented at the end of classes each day. This meant students used the final five to ten minutes each day to write their reflections from the day in a journal. This was utilized as an important way for students to unwind while providing useful feedback on the program.

2.4 Procedure and Data Collection

In order to track student morale throughout the program, journal entries were given daily to measure the perceptions and feelings of the students for the duration of the two weeks. The questionnaires were combined with journals which were given at the end of the fourth class each day. Professors handed both of these out to students in the final five to ten minutes of class. The journal entries consisted as 10 questions and 5 open questions.

Moreover, a final questionnaire was taken at the end of the program where students gave feedback on their overall opinions of the program. The student questionnaire contained four categories measuring their perceptions on: UPEP, the instructors, post program self-reflection, and overall satisfaction. The four categories contained a total of 23 questions and were adopted from Seong, Reed, and Chang's questions from 2012. 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."

3 Results and Discussions

To analyze the impact of the changes on the 2017 program, the final questionnaires from 2016 and 2017 were compared. The results support the belief that continuing this method of research is positively impacting UPEP. For starters, all 23 questions had higher scores in 2017 when compared to 2016. This is a significant indication of success on the Five-point Likert scale used for the questionnaire. It illustrates the student perception that the overall program was better. The improvement in scores for the program can be attributed to the research and suggestions by Lewin and Seong from their paper in 2016, as well as the ongoing action research process. Furthermore, there were no "strongly disagree" responses for 47 students on all 23 questions on the 2017 final questionnaire. This means that out of a total of 1,081 questions answered, none of the students found anything strongly negative about the program.

If we look into the research a little closer, for the 2016 final questionnaire there were nine items which had over 80% agreement. This means that nine items from the 2016 questionnaire had 80% (or more) of the students answering 'agree' or 'strongly agree' in a positive manner. For the 2016 UPEP, this required 40 or more of the 50 students to respond *agree* or *strongly agree*. However, in 2017 there were 19 items which scored over 80% agreement, leaving only four items without this agreement level. For the 2017 UPEP, this required 38 or more of the 47 students to respond *agree* or *strongly agree*. This shows an increase from 9 to 19 items with over 80% agreement from 2016 to 2017. Similar to the higher scores for all 23 questions, this indicates a stronger overall program.

The suggestion for UPEP 2018 were as follows. First, *change the journaling schedule from every day to twice a week*. The journals proved to be beneficial for student progress and identifying problems, but noticeable burnout occurred throughout the two weeks. Student responses became shorter and less thoughtful toward the end of the program. Decreasing the amount of journal entries would keep students from experiencing burnout and would also encourage more meaningful responses. Second, *keep the later starting time unless students or instructors request otherwise*. As stated, it is difficult to suggest an exact time but it is beneficial to use action research to find a time that all participants can agree upon. Third, *continue to use a Homeroom class to start each day of UPEP*. The overall response from students and professors was positive so it should be tried again.

Relationship Between Assessment and Interlocutors' Performance with Two Types of Oral Test

Junko Negishi

Tsurumi University

negishi-j@tsurumi-u.ac.jp

Abstract

This study explores how two types of oral test impact the performances of Japanese learners of English. Twenty-four Japanese university students participated in two paired and two group oral interactions, and their performances were videotaped with their consent. Five raters later assessed their performance. The transcribed data were analyzed qualitatively (interactional patterns and interactional functions) and compared with the ratings. The results indicated that group orals tended to receive better scores with fewer Expert/Novice interactional patterns and interactional functions. Interaction in a group of three is likely to be better, as speakers speak more equally and get better scores.

Keywords

English speaking test, performance, assessment, oral interaction, paired or group oral test

Introduction

To assess second language learners' English-speaking ability, paired or group oral tests have been administered as a part of tests such as First Certificate in English (FCE) and College English Test-Spoken English Test (CET-SET) for Chinese learners of English. This is because communications are carried out between interlocutors, and such a co-constructed nature of interaction works as a washback in classrooms and in improving English language ability. Therefore, various studies related to paired or group oral tests have been carried out. Studies have been mostly conducted to investigate the impact of interlocutors. However, few studies have investigated the impact of the number of speakers. Liski and Puntanen (1983) reported that participants in bigger groups spoke less than those in small groups. Nakatsuhara (2011) implied that groups of three would be more appropriate than groups of four, as the latter tended to resort to mechanical and unnatural turn-taking systems. Some studies have compared differences between

interview and paired tests. Nevertheless, limited research compares paired and group oral tests. This study attempts to explore the differences between the two types of tests in which participants performed in both paired and group-of-three oral activities. Since it has been reported that quantitative features, such as the total number of tokens, showed stronger correlations with raters' assessments, this study solely investigates the relationship between assessment and interlocutors' qualitative features.

1 Methods and data analysis

1.1 Methods

Twenty-four Japanese students from two universities took the two oral performance tests as part of their classroom activities. Their TOEIC scores were approximately 350 to 960.

They took part in two paired oral interaction tasks (Paired oral, hereafter). They were paired twice with different interlocutors on the topics of "family" and "school." Their talk was video-recorded and later edited to 200 seconds. They also participated in two group oral interaction tasks in a group of three (Group oral, hereafter) with different interlocutors on the topics of "dreams" and "English." Their videotaped talk was edited to 300 seconds.

Five Japanese teachers of English, who received assessment training, assessed the participants' performance holistically by utilizing the CEFR-J (ver. 1.1; Tono, 2013), the Japanese version of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

1.2 Data analysis

First, the five raters' CEFR-J scores were transformed into numbers: 1 for A1.1 (lowest), 2 for A1.2, ...9 for B2.2, and 10 for C1 (highest). No ratings were observed for Pre-A1 and C2.

Second, by utilizing transcribed texts, the participants' spoken data were analyzed qualitatively in two ways, using one-thirds of the data by two

researchers, including the author; after consensus by the researchers, the author analyzed the remaining data.

One type of analysis followed what Storch (2002) constructed by applying methods of conversation analysis (CA) to explore L2 learners' discourse in a paired test. The model introduced four role relationship patterns: Collaborative, Dominant/Dominant, Dominant/Passive, and Expert/Novice. Collaborative interaction is a desirable pattern.

Another type of qualitative analysis followed what He and Dai (2006) called interactional language functions (ILFs) to investigate CET-SET, a face-to-face small group test carried out mainly by three group members. In this study, the following coding scheme was developed to define interactional functions (IFs, hereafter), for Japanese learners of English, based on He and Dai (2006).

- IF-1: Asking for information or opinion
- IF-2: Agreeing or supporting
- IF-3: Disagreeing, challenging, or persuading
- IF-4: Modifying or developing
- IF-5: Negotiation of meaning

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Overall scores

As described in 1.2, the ratings were transformed into numbers. The average scores were 5.28 and 5.59 for Paired oral and Group oral, respectively. The participants received slightly higher scores in Group oral than in Paired oral.

2.2 Storch's dyadic interaction patterns

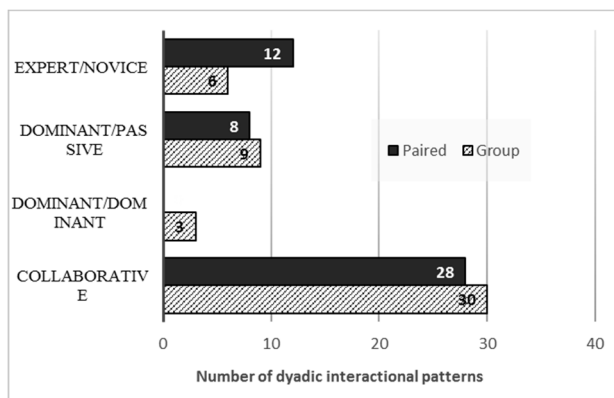


Figure 1. Number of Storch's four dyadic interaction patterns observed in two oral tests (N=48)

Figure 1 shows the number of dyadic interaction patterns Storch (2002) constructed. Although the Paired and Group orals were carried out by the same participants, the number of Expert/Novice interactional patterns in Paired is twice that of Group oral. This phenomenon might cause the score

difference between Paired and Group orals.

2.3 Interactional functions (IFs)

Figure 2 shows the average number of IFs the speakers use in Paired and Group orals. Except for IF-3, Paired orals use more number of IFs, which suggests that more use of IFs leads to lower scores. Specifically, the number of IF-5 (negotiation of meaning) in Paired is nearly 1.5 times more than that of Group oral. Negotiation of meaning is believed to be necessary for second language learners to improve their interlanguage ability; however, such interactions may sound less proficient as they show their incapability in carrying out conversations with interlocutors.

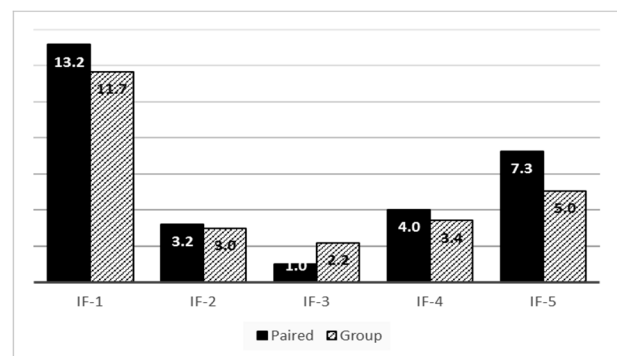


Figure 2. Average number of IFs used in two oral tests (N=48)

2.4 Conclusion

Nakatsuhara (2011) reported that interactions in a group of three are more appropriate than in a group of four. This study showed that interactions in a group of three might be more appropriate than in Paired oral. Although group orals are not yet widely used as a test battery, we should consider including them as low-stakes tests in the classroom.

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How Are Affix Knowledge and Vocabulary Size Linked in L2 Learner's Active Vocabulary?

Norifumi Ueda¹, Eiichiro Tsutsui², Kazuharu Owada³ and Michiko Nakano⁴

¹Komazawa University, ²University of Kitakyushu, ³Ritsumeikan University, and ⁴Waseda University

¹ueda@komazawa-u.ac.jp, ²e-tsutsui@kitakyu-u.ac.jp,

³qwq03702@nifty.com, ⁴nakanom@waseda.jp

Abstract

In this paper, we developed a productive vocabulary test about English affix knowledge to examine the relationship between L2 vocabulary size and L2 learner's knowledge of English affixes. The results suggests vocabulary size cannot perfectly explain affix knowledge of the L2 learner.

Keywords

Active vocabulary, L2 vocabulary acquisition, knowledge of affix in English

Introduction

In applied linguistics, acquiring L2 vocabulary has been an important theme. The vocabulary knowledge consists of various factors (Nation, 2013). Mochizuki & Aizawa (2000) examined the relations between vocabulary size and affix knowledge in L2 learners of English Affixes. Their results suggest "Affix leaning and vocabulary size appear to be linked. "A large vocabulary seems to be needed before complex word structures are mastered." (Millton, 2009; 113). Ueda, Tsutsui, Owada and Nakano (2016) developed a vocabulary test to evaluate a vocabulary knowledge about English affixes, and conducted the experiment to Japanese L2 learners of English and reported that word frequencies can affect L2 learners' understanding affixes.

1 Passive vocabulary and active vocabulary

1.1 Passive and active vocabulary

Vocabulary knowledge is generally divided into two types: receptive/passive and productive/active lexical knowledge, or passive and active lexical knowledge. (Millton, 2009; 13). Receptive lexical knowledge includes meaning recognition and meaning recall, while productive lexical knowledge

refers to form recognition and form recall (Nation, 2013; 47).

1.2 Passive vocabulary test and active vocabulary test

Laufer and Goldstein (2004) propose the frame work for the vocabulary test to examine passive and passive vocabulary knowledge. Table 1 shows the framework of vocabulary test by Laufer and Goldstein (2004, 407)

Table 1. Vocabulary test framework proposed by Laufer and Goldstein (2004, 407).

	Recall	Recognition
Active (Retrieval of form)	1. Supply the L2 word	3. Select the L2 word
Passive (Retrieval of meaning)	2. Supply the L1 word	4. Select the L1 word

For the test to evaluate active recall of L2 words, L2 words, or word forms, equivalent to L1 words are required to supply. On the other hand, L1 words equivalent to L2 should be supply in the test for active recall. As for the vocabulary test for active recognition, the L2 word equivalent to the L1 word should be selected from the choices, while the L1 word is requested to select from the choices in the passive recognition test. Here is the examples for the test format to evaluated vocabulary knowledge. (This example is a test for German-speaking learners of English. German *hund* refers to English *dog*.)

1. Active Recall: d_____ *hund*
2. Passive recall: dog *h*_____
3. Active recognition: *hund*
a. cat b. dog c. mouse d. bird
4. Passive recognition: dog
a. *katze* b. *hund* c. *maus* d. *vogel*

(This example is adopted from the example in Schmitt (2010), 84-85.)

2 A new vocabulary test for evaluation

of English affix knowledge

We developed a new vocabulary test to evaluate L2 learners' knowledge of affixes in English. This vocabulary test is a test for productive vocabulary; however, different from Laufer & Goldstein's active recall test, not only recalling the L2 word but knowing affix formation is required in this test.

There are two types of test items in the vocabulary test. In Section 1 and 2, it is required for the testtakers to change the word in a parenthesis to the correct form according to the context. The aim of these sections are to examine the testtakers can use correct word form by using the knowledge of English affixes. In the following example, testtakers are asked to change the word form of 'deep' according to the context. In this case, 'depth' is required as the correct answer. Section 3 to 5 includes the test items that the testtakers are requested to choose one of the word choices according to the context and also change its word form to make the sentence grammatically correct. This means that the testtakers must understand the meaning of the sentence and change a choice to the appropriate word form. See the example below. (The example is Section 5):

1. The hotel clerk is now checking the () of our room.
 2. () speaking, doing exercise is good for your health.
 3. Olivia is a very () person.
 4. The town has started the () of a new bridge.
- [Choices]
construct, available, religion, general

In the active recall vocabulary test by Laufer and Goldstein (2004), the first letter of the target word is given to minimize the suppliance of other English words. The form of the test items in Laufer and Goldstein (2004) can make the question easier for the testtakers because the first letter of the target word can be a cue for the answer. The test developed by the authors remove this problem.

As in Ueda et als. (2016), the target words are English words with affixes, which are from Level 3 to 5 in the list of Bauer and Nation (1993). And also, the word frequencies of the target words are from Level 3 to Level 5 of JACET 8000 in these words

3 Experiment

Two experiments were conducted. The purpose of Experiment 1 was to examine whether English proficiency level (230-720 in TOEIC scores) can affect the test scores. 155 Japanese university students of the different English

proficiency levels participated in Experiment 1. The participants were asked to take the test for productive vocabulary knowledge developed by the authors. The results of the test were compared from the viewpoint of English proficiency level.

Experiment 2 aims to evaluate whether there is a correlation between L2 affix knowledge and L2 vocabulary size. Thirty-one Japanese students at different English proficiency levels took three vocablurary tests: Vocabulary levels Test (VLT) for recognition (Nation, 1990), VLT for production (Laufer & Nation, 1999), and the test developed by the authors. Web version of VLT provided on the website by Cobb were used for Experiment 2. The scores of each test were compared.

The results of Experiment 1 suggest there is few correlations between proficiency levels and knowledge on English affixes. The results of Experiment 2 shows there is a weak correlation between the scores of VLT for production/recognition and those of English affix test. From these, we cannot insist that the vocabulary size perfectly explain affix knowledge of L2 learners.

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A New Approach For ESL Teaching: Flip It!

Youngjoo Bang

Myongji University

yjbang@mju.ac.kr

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the effects of flipped learning in English achievement in an EFL university classroom. Data were collected from 133 participants who were assigned to the experimental groups (flipped learning) or control groups (non-flipped learning). Both qualitative and quantitative data were analyzed in this study to gain insights into the participants' flipped classroom experiences. The findings show that the flipped learning is associated with significant improvement in the students' learning outcomes. Also, the result shows that flipped learners were highly positive in satisfaction, instructional effectiveness, desire to learn, and student engagement. It is hoped that the current study will help to fill the gap in the literature on the flipped classroom and offer data either in support or against the flipped model.

Keywords

Flipped learning/Flipped classroom

Introduction

Flipped learning have attempted to allocate more class time for active learning approaches by making the most of the advanced technologies to support a blended learning approach (Baepler, Walker, & Driessen, 2014). A typical flipped classroom provides students with access to online video lectures prior to in-class sessions so that students are prepared to participate in more interactive activities such as problem solving and discussions. Students benefit from the outside classroom because they can allocate their time and pace their online learning to meet their individual levels of comprehension. In face-to-face classroom sessions, students have the opportunity to participate in more active and interactive group works rather than passively listening to lectures. the present study sets out to flip the classroom for EFL learners at a university to examine its pedagogical potential in language learning. The research questions that guided

this study are as follows:

- 1) Were there any differences in the participants' learning outcomes between the flipped classroom and the conventional classroom?
- 2) What was the participants' perception of their learning experiences in the flipped classroom?

Theoretical Background

1.1 Flipped Learning (FL)

Although not every flipped classroom looks exactly the same, each implementation will differ due to a variety of factors such as class size, teaching style, technology, and resources. Strayer (2007) suggests a conceptual framework of flipped classroom in the following diagram (Figure 1). He claims that the learning environment in FL model is influenced by “the extensive use of educational technology outside of class” and “active learning during class time” (p. 15).



Figure 1 Theoretical Framework of FL
(Adapted from Strayer, 2007)

Methods

1.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 133 students enrolled in the required English course at a university in Korea. The participants were 50 females and 83 males and their majors were various. None of the participants

had any flipped classroom experience prior to this study.

1.2 Data Collection and Data Analysis

To investigate the students' learning outcomes comparing FL and CI, the instruments utilized in this study were a pre and posttest which was designed to assess the students' acquisition of the learning materials. a questionnaire was administered to the experimental group at the end of semester to understand the perceptions of the participants about FL experience.

Results and Discussions

1.1 Participants' Achievement in FL and CI

Place figures and tables in the paper near where they are first mentioned, if possible. Wide figures and tables may run across both columns. Table 1 is an example of tables. Insert a line between text and figures/tables. Titles of tables should be appeared on the top of the table. Use a 10-point Arial font in tables.

Table 1. CI and The FL Group's Pre and Posttest

Test	Type	n	M	SD	Min.	Max.
Pretest	FL	66	10.95	4.75	4	20
	CI	67	10.96	4.19	4	20
Posttest	FL	66	19.95	5.33	10	29
	CI	67	16.70	4.47	9	25

Note. FL: Flip Learning, CI: Conventional Instruction

1.2 Participants' Perceptions Toward FL

1.2.1 Satisfaction

Table 2. Satisfaction With Flipped Classroom

item	M	SD
I am generally satisfied with flip learning approach.	3.50	1.01
I am satisfied with the structure and instructional design of flip learning.	3.45	0.99
I prefer the flipped classroom to the conventional classroom	3.27	1.09

1.2.2 Instructional Effectiveness

Table 3. Instructional Effectiveness

item	M	SD
Flipped learning approach greatly helped my learning outcomes.	3.83	0.94
Flipped classroom is more effective and efficient way to learn.	3.41	1.12

The time and effort I spent in the flipped classroom was worthwhile.	3.55	1.10
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1.2.3 Desire to Learn

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Desire to Learn

item	M	SD
FL enhances interest and motivation for learning	3.42	1.01
FL increases the level of concentration on the lesson	3.59	0.94

1.2.4 Students Engagement

Table 5. Perceived Learning Engagement

item	M	SD
I participated and engaged myself more in learning in the flipped classroom.	3.55	1.01
I devoted myself more to the instructional/ class activities in the flipped classroom.	3.44	1.05

Conclusions

With the multiple sources of data collected in this study, the analysis of the comparison between posttests for each treatment, questionnaire, and the interviews revealed that the study has yielded generally positive results on the students' flipped learning. Concerning the specific impacts of this pedagogical approach on student learning, this study demonstrates students' academic achievement and attitude are likely to increase by self-regulated learning, more motivated, active and collaborative learning compared to those in the conventional classroom. The positive results of this study are restricted to the specific research context and the learning environment. However, the major strength of this research is to pave the way for further research, and for effective implementation of new and innovative instructional design in EFL classroom.

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Teacher Tailors: Enhancing Language Learner Motivation through Material Adaptation

Seiko Oguri, D. Patrick Allen, Tetsuo Kato

Center for Languages and Cultures, Chubu University

center@lc.chubu.ac.jp

Abstract

This presentation will discuss the design of the second year program in a collaboratively taught blended learning course for the robotics engineering major at Chubu University, Japan. It will explain how teachers in the course adapt course materials, both online and face-to-face (F2F), in order to adequately match students' language aptitude and scaffold intake and output. Also, the presentation will describe the steps and tools used in the course to make learning materials more relevant and intrinsically interesting. Finally, it will show the process through which teachers in the course choose and alter course materials to blend the F2F and online components and how they coordinate lessons and adapt materials with online tools such as Glexa.

Keywords

blended learning, motivation, material adaptation, TELL, teacher roles

Introduction

One of the most challenging aspects of designing a course is developing materials that not only properly scaffold students toward mastery of a language focus, but do so in a way that is authentic and engaging. Utilizing a blend of traditional, e-learning, and supplementary materials in a technology enhanced language learning (TELL) environment, the Center for Languages and Cultures at Chubu University is now in the fourth year of its blended learning curriculum with the robotics department.

1 Curriculum Goals

At the inception of this program in 2014, 99% of the incoming freshmen (n=80) felt anxiety, reluctance, or outright rejected learning English. Therefore, a curriculum had to be developed that would motivate the students enough to become personally invested in acquiring the communicative English skills many professional robotics engineers need for international projects.

Since the students are typically low aptitude and have little motivation to learn English, the focus of the curriculum during the first two years is on reducing students' anxiety towards English, developing a willingness to communicate, encouraging them to self-regulate, and finally helping them acquire basic language and cultural awareness skills. The second-year course also emphasizes F2F pair and group work to build confidence through peer support and maximize opportunities for students to speak. Another goal for the second year is to develop learner autonomy. Thus, creating lessons and materials that are not only interesting, but of value to the students is crucial.

2 Course and Material Design

Sophomore students in the curriculum meet for face-to-face classes once a week for 90-minute sessions, split between time in a language workshop and time in a language production class. A highly customized e-learning component is blended into the course to help students continue to practice the target language autonomously. Consequently, materials for these three components must be blended synergistically.

2.1 Material Development Procedure

In order to achieve synergy among the materials from each component in the course, the resources used in each component are evaluated and adapted through a specific process. First, each material is categorized into four different foci: grammar and structure, vocabulary and expressions, language skills, and strategies.

Next, the materials are evaluated not only against the students' current language ability, but also their level of motivation and drive to learn the targeted skills. Once the materials are thoroughly analyzed, a decision is then made as to whether they need adapted or supplemented. Finally, materials are then worked into the framework of a lesson plan.

2.2 Multiplicity of Options

Due to the rigorous evaluation process and the inherent time constraints of a 15-week course, adapting materials is not always easy. However, the online components of the curriculum provide the teachers with a variety of ways to adapt or supplement the materials, allowing for more flexibility and for spontaneous changes to be made more smoothly.

Since there are a multiplicity of options teachers have to tailor activities to student needs, teachers must make several choices regarding material use. First, they must decide whether or not the materials need to be adapted. Once the materials are suitable for the class and students, then teachers choose to either use the material in class or out of class, whether it will be online or offline, and if it will be group, pair or individual work.

Moreover, the learning management system (LMS) Glaxa adds to the choices through a variety of activity types, such as matching, clozes, sentence completion, and sentence/word reordering. These materials can be used for warm-ups to prepare students for the F2F class, or as review materials to help drill grammar and vocabulary. These activities on Glaxa are also highly customizable, allowing for activities to be on a timer or attempted multiple times. With effective use of these tools, teachers can devote the F2F time for more authentic and, often times more complex, language activities.

3 Teacher Roles

An important role of teachers in the course is to develop lessons and materials that are intrinsically valuable to the students. For material development, this means tailoring activities so that they are relevant to the language goals, authentic, and inherently useful to the students. As such, feedback from both students and teachers is important for understanding what materials and activities are effective and the best way to present them.

Glaxa helps by providing a platform where teachers can develop a variety of materials for students to practice language structures and skills on their own and at their own pace or for activities to be developed that challenge students or assess retention with timed activities. Therefore, part of the teacher's role is to monitor both in-class and online student performance and use that feedback to decide how to use available resources in a way that encourages students' self-efficacy and maximizes the amount of time available for F2F learning opportunities. For example, a reading activity can be scaffolded into a class discussion, which can then be turned into a cloze on Glaxa that reinforces vocabulary they may have struggled with in class. Through feedback from F2F classes and Glaxa, teachers are able to quickly diagnose problems and address issues in the

following lessons or activities. Thus, teachers become lesson tailors, measuring student performance and adjusting resources to best fit them.

4 Conclusion

How has this approach to material development worked? Students' attitudes toward English, willingness to self-regulate, and their general English ability have all improved on average, despite only being in class for 90 minutes a week. As for motivation, over 80% (n=93) of students, polled in 2016, expressed a desire to be able to speak English. In addition, 97.3% (n=80) of the 2014 class indicated an improved attitude toward learning English.

Also, material usage has also found more teacher involvement and creativity over time. In the spring of 2016, 19% (n=525) of activities in F2F classes were from the text, most of which were activities to review grammar or build vocabulary. In the fall semester, this number dropped to only 12% (n=480) of the activities used. In turn, more than 80% of activities were arranged or supplemented to be more intensive and communicative.

Through success in these intensive F2F activities, students see the benefits of the online autonomous work each time they enter the F2F class, encouraging them to continue training. This is seen in how students highly value the blended learning environment with 93% (n=93) valuing Glaxa in their learning and 90% preferring it for homework. Most telling, however, is that when these students entered in the third-year content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classes, they had the skills, confidence, and drive needed to succeed.

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Development of summary test by using the comic in English for English learner

Toshihiko Takeuchi^{1,4}, Shogo Kato^{2,4} and Yuuki Kato^{3,4}

¹Tokyo University of Social Welfare, ²Tokyo Woman's Christian University,

³Sagami Women's University, ⁴Center for research of Educational testing

takeuchi19@mail.goo.ne.jp, shogo@lab.twcu.ac.jp,

y-katou@star.sagami-wu.ac.jp

Abstract

The authors research measures the learners ability to digest the contents of comics. The authors gave participants of the experiment comics with around 100 frames and the participants were asked to summarize the comic in 5-20 frames. The previous studies demonstrated that if they collected frame's that were popular with other participants and arranged them simply then they digested the content well. In other words, collective intelligence was effective to digest comics. In this research, we will review the researchers' previous work. Then we propose a method to measure English ability by summarizing manga using experiment participants. In future, we expect to use comics in English tests.

Keywords

informal learning, quiz, summary, test

Introduction

There are many English proficiency tests, but the ability to summarize English sentences is a particularly advanced and important ability. However, for elementary English learners, the usual test of "summarizing English sentences" may be difficult and may not attract interest. Therefore, researchers propose an English summary test using manga. Specifically, it is the following test.

[1] Translate one story of Japanese manga into English and give it to learners. We basically translate the words in the manga, but leave the pictures as they are.

[2] The learner then selects frames that best summarize the story. We limit this selection to between 5%-20% of the entire story.

[3] We will score the learners answer. At this time we use the scoring standard that "it's better to pick the frames by other people".

1 Previous research

1.1 Collective intelligence works well for summaries of manga

In the past, the authors gave 119 college students a total of 108 frames of story-manga and summarized them to 5% - 20%. The manga we used for the experiment is the first 108 of the second episode "The Taste of That Day" out of the manga "Today's Burger 1" written by Rei Hanagata and Umetaro Saitani. After that, the authors analyzed 113 people who were valid responses. (Takeuchi et al. 2016a) We selected n frames in the order of the highest selectivity, and arranged them in chronological order in manga. As a result, the upper three frames (selectivity 85% or more), the upper 6 frames (selectivity 70% or more), the top 15 frames (selection rate 50% or more) were very good summaries. Figure 1 shows 6 frames with a selectivity of 70% or more. We think that it is a very good summary of the original story. So we had the hypothesis that "collective intelligence works very well when summarizing comics".

1.2 Additional Experiment

There was a refutation that "The collective intelligence worked well because the manga we used in the experiment was a simple story with a clear entrance and conclusion. In manga with more complex stories, such as girls' manga, the summary does not succeed in that way".

So we conducted additional experiments in the fall of 2016. Participants in the experiment summarized manga for men ("Today's Burger") and manga for women ("Girl's dining table").

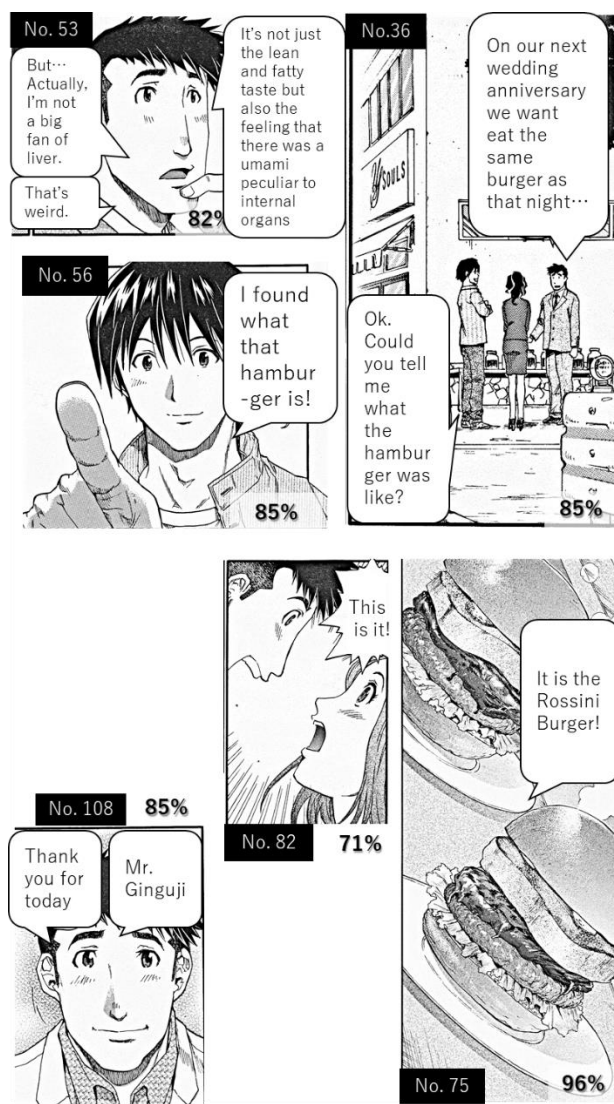


Figure 1. The upper 6 frames (selectivity 70% over)

As a result, in the summary of manga, we found that the method of selecting "top n places selected by a large number of people and rearranging them in the order of comics in manga" also works for women manga. (Takeuchi et al., 2016b).

2 Scoring method

We made a rating criteria for summarizing n-frame story manga into k frames. "The ability of the abstract is high is the person who selects the top k frames in descending order of selectivity chosen by many other people". Using this idea, we can measure the ability to summarize comics. (Takeuchi et al. 2016c)

For example, let's assume that 100 people summarized the story manga (consisting of 100 frames in all). As a result, let us assume that the

number of people who chose each frame and the frame number were equal. If someone selected Frames No 80, No 90, No 100, the best choice was to select Frame No.98, 99, 100. Therefore, the abstract ability of that person becomes $(80 + 90 + 100) / (98 + 99 + 100) = 0.909$ points.

3 Proposal of application to summary test of English

There are several merits to using manga and collective intelligence to test English abstract ability. For English learners, rather than summarizing English sentences, it would be more fun to read English comics and to extract necessary pieces for summaries. Also, you can clearly show the score of the participants abstract ability. The standard of scoring is also easy to understand if collective intelligence is used.

4 Conclusion

From past research, we showed that collective intelligence works very well for comic summaries. We also showed that if we assume that collective intelligence is always correct, we can score the candidate's abstracting ability regardless of which frames the candidate chooses. So we would like to propose to use manga for English summary test.

Acknowledgements

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Individual Differences in Inverted Kanji recognition by learners of Japanese from non-Chinese character culture areas: Correct rates, eye movements, and spontaneous air writing

Yoko Okita

International Center, Juntendo University

y-okita@juntendo.ac.jp

Abstract

This study examined relationships between eye movements, spontaneous air writing and correct rates (CR) of recognition of Inverted Kanji by Japanese second language learners from non-Chinese character areas (JSLNS). In the Cross-sectional group, spontaneous air writing was found in 5 participants and not found in 18 participants. No significant differences were found between with and without spontaneous air writing due to large individual differences. In the Longitudinal group, experiments were conducted twice with a 6-months interval. CR had improved in the 4 participants with spontaneous air writing. CR did not improve or was stagnating at 80% in the 12 participants without spontaneous air writing. Spontaneous air writing seems to be a good indicator of Kanji learning. Longitudinal studies are necessary to understand development of Kanji learning.

Keywords

Eye movement, Kanji Recognition, Learners of Japanese as a second language

1. Introduction

Radical position is inverted in Inverted Kanji. Several studies show that knowledge of radical position is important in Kanji learning. Therefore, we supposed that correct rates of recognition of Inverted Kanji reflect mastery of Kanji learning. Air writing, writing a character by finger in the air, was a unique behavior for those who use Chinese characters in their mother language when they try to reconstruct a Kanji character from its components (Sasaki and Watanabe, 1984). Writing a Kanji character is most popular Kanji learning strategy. Therefore,

spontaneous air writing during Kanji character recognition reflects trace and depth of hand writing practice in Kanji learning. Eye movement is also a good indicator of cognitive processes. This paper explores cognitive mechanisms of air writing by examining the relationship among air writing, eye movements and Kanji learning by JSLNC.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

Forty five JSLNC participants (20 men, 25 women, *Age*=28.6 years, age range: 23-35 years) were recruited from universities in Tokyo. All participants were beginning level learners of Japanese. All participants have received at least 100 hours of Japanese classes. Twenty two participants were tested one time under a cross sectional design. The other fourteen participants were tested twice with a 6-month interval. Seven out of the 22 participants took three hours of Japanese language classes per week during the interval of the 6 months and the remaining seven participants did not take any formal Japanese classes.

2.2 Stimuli

The stimulus consisted of 5 characters groups, 20 Real Kanji (Real), 15 Vague, 15 Pseudo, 15 Inverted and 15 Korean characters. Vague had small wrong graphic features which were found in writing mistakes by JSLNC. Pseudo had a wrong combination of a radical and other parts. Radical position is switched in Inverted. Twenty real Kanji were chosen from 317 Kanji in the textbook and five real Kanji were complex and not taught in the textbook. In this study we focused on Inverted Kanji.

1.3 Procedure

A character was presented on a computer monitor and remained until a participant hit a key. All stimuli were presented randomly by computer and presented on the monitor until a participant hit a key. Eye movement and responses were measured and recorded with Tobii X2-30. A short practical session was conducted before the experiment. Mann-Whitney tests were used to compare medians between air writing and without air writing groups in the cross-sectional group.

2 Results and Discussion

In the Cross-sectional group, the number of participants with spontaneous air writing was 8 and that of participants without spontaneous air writing was 15. Mann-Whitney tests indicated that there was no difference in the CR ($U(22) = 40, p = 0.195$) of Inverted between with air and without air writing groups. Table 1 shows mean correct rates and SD of the Cross-sectional group.

Table 1. Mean CR and SD of the Cross-sectional group

	N	CR	SD
Air writing	8	0.71	0.25
W/O Air writing	15	0.56	0.35

Figure 1 showed 1st and 2nd CRs of the 22 participants of the Longitudinal group.

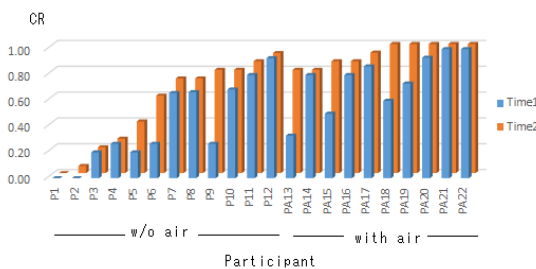


Figure 1: Correct rates of the Longitudinal group

In the Longitudinal group, spontaneous air writing was not found in the 12 participants (P1-P12), and was found in 10 participants (PA13-PA22). The three participants, PA15, PA19, and PA18, exhibited spontaneous air writing only in the second time of the experiment. Correct rates of the four participants had improved significantly. The participants without spontaneous air writing

were either weak learners with little improvement or learners whose CRs were stagnating at from 60 to 80%.

In the cross-sectional group, there was no difference of mean CRs between with and without spontaneous air writing. Probably because there were large individual differences in CRs within groups. In the longitudinal group, significant improvement of CRs was found in the four participants with spontaneous air writing. Participants without air writing in the both 1st and 2nd times did not show improvement. The CRs of participants without spontaneous air writing was staging at around 80%. It seems that longitudinal studies are required to understand the relationship

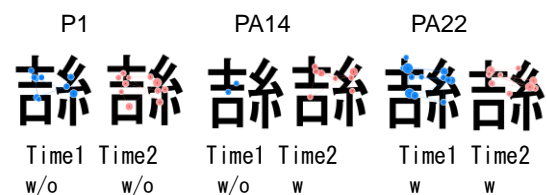


Figure 2: Examples of eye movements

Figure 2 shows examples of eye movements of the three participants, P1 PA14 and PA22. Spontaneous air writing seems to be a good indicator of Kanji learning. A large circle means longer fixation which indicates thinking. During air writing, eye movement is fixed at one point and longer fixation is recorded. Even P1 whose CRs were low exhibited longer fixation. Spontaneous air writing, rather than eye movement is a good indicator of Kanji knowledge.

3. Conclusion

Individual differences were large in correct rates and eye movement. Spontaneous air writing seems to be a good index of Kanji learning processes. To understand Kanji learning processes from CRs or eye movement, longitudinal design is recommended.

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A Study of CLIL Activities for Pharmacy Students: Language Use and Comprehension by ICT Materials

Yuko Tominaga

Seisen Jogakuin College

yukotominana@yahoo.co.jp

Abstract

The objective of this research is to detect how CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) activities work well to pharmacy students. The participants were the 80 freshmen (age 18 to 20) of a college of pharmacy in Tokyo, Japan. Their skills of English varied because the passing mark of the entrance examination was dominated mainly according to the score of chemistry and math. However, most participants had knowledge of English forms and meanings (grammar and vocabulary) to some degree except for functions (language use or communication). In order to reinforce their language use, CLIL was introduced to their English class from April in 2015 to January in 2017. In their classes ICT materials were also used as an introduction for each topic. The instruction and materials were really helpful to have them understand facts or systems on health and science. Thanks to the audio-visualized materials, they were able to develop not only their receptive skills but also their productive skills by the awareness of language functions. This research especially focused on their academic writing skills and showed how they had learned the way of writing their paragraph logically referring to their background knowledge they acquired from ICT.

Keywords

CLIL, ICT, language functions, writing skills

1 Introduction

In EFL classrooms, many learners are struggling with learning English, and also many teachers are struggling with teaching English. In EFL settings, it is difficult for learners to have opportunities to use English in their daily life. In the settings, classrooms should be ideal places where they can use English as much as possible.

In order to detect some clues to and make suggestions for better teaching English to learners

in EFL settings, this paper, in the perspective of the use of knowledge of their background, attempted to analyze some activities for the learners focusing on CLIL aspects: content, communication, cognition, community. By using ICT materials based on the contents of the textbook: *CLIL Health Sciences* (2013), this study investigated how the participants understood facts or systems on health and science and found clues to unfamiliar words or expressions making use of their background knowledge already they had learned. Moreover, the sheets of a paragraph that the participants wrote as each post activity were analyzed based on academic writing, especially on paragraph writing which consist of a topic sentence, supporting sentences, a concluding sentence, transitions, and so on. It is expected, as a result, that significant awareness – when and how learners have their eyes opened to autonomous learning – would be suggested for better teaching.

2 Method

2.1 Participants

The participants were 80 freshmen (age 18 to 20) in a college of pharmacy in Tokyo, Japan. According to the deviation value of universities around Japan, they belonged to a relatively higher rank. Some students who had some special background were erased from the participant list in advance. For example, the students whose parent was a native speaker of English or who had stayed in a country where English is spoken more than a year.

2.2 Materials

The ICT materials used in this survey were based on the textbook on health and science which was prepared for this class. All of the ICT materials were authentic and downloaded from the websites relating to it. One of the websites was “Make Me Genius” (www.makemegenius.com). For example, some of the topics were ‘Diet and Exercise’, ‘The Human Immune System’, ‘Brain and Nerves’, ‘The Use of Drugs’, and so on. The audio-visualized

materials, which took four to six minutes, were prepared for each topic of the textbook. By using these materials before the textbook, the participants were able to understand more clearly the contents of it with the images. The textbook included materials for reading (180 to 250 words), listening, discussion, research, presentation, and so on in each unit.

2.3 Procedure

This survey was conducted in an English class of a college of pharmacy in Tokyo from April in 2015 to January in 2017.

Before the participants worked on the textbook, they watched the audio-visualized images and knew the background of the content they would work on. After some activities, they wrote a paragraph on the topic. They were allowed to discuss with classmates to exchange their ideas. These activities were helpful for the participants to consider their ideas logically. Their paragraphs were evaluated twelve times in a year according to the original writing scale focusing on the contents and logical styles including a topic sentence, more than three supporting sentences and examples, a concluding sentence, and transitions. The range of the score was zero to 12. This procedure of the class was organized with four aspects: content, communication, cognition, community. The four factors are based on CLIL concept, and they are significant contributors.

3 Results

The score of the twelve writing sheets for each participant was analyzed. As they noticed not only language forms and meanings but also the functions of language by watching the images to build background on each topic, they tended to understand the contents better and write their paragraph longer and more logically. Originally, they had the knowledge of language forms and meanings in the exam-taking techniques. Once they noticed the functions, it seemed to be easy for them to use English in the class. Moreover, some of the participants were able to take high scores in TOEIC held in December, 2016. However, at this point, since the previous TOEIC date of them did not exist yet, the correlation was not be stated positively. The effectiveness was judged only by their comments or impressions at that moment.

4 Conclusion

This research is imperfect at the moment and needs more detailed analysis. However, according to their comments, more than 60% of the participants mentioned that they noticed what "the language use" was. They seemed not to be used to use English yet. They were struggling with learning

English. Some of the participants also mentioned that they had a dream to be able to use English freely in the future in the medical or pharmaceutical field. They might be irritated, because there are walls of a lot of unfamiliar specialized vocabulary. In order to make their dream come true, teachers always need to choose well-thought materials and pay attention to what their students have learned or are interested in. CLIL along with ICT offers some of the useful activities for the practical teaching and learning.

The purpose of learning foreign language is to learn not only language use but also the way of communication with people in the world. For the learners, it is important to have a new viewpoint to enjoy studying foreign languages. The use of CLIL with ICT based on authentic resources in class would help them find another new entrance to learning foreign languages.

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A Study of the differences in the process of learning the usages of English preposition “of” among the learners in different L1s

Kota Wachi

Shiba Junior/Senior High School

Rsc36319@nifty.com

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of learners' different L1s in the process of learning the usages of English preposition “of” from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. In Wachi (2016), we examined the effect of Japanese learners' L1 in learning the usages of English preposition “of.” As a result, we found that their L1 had some positive effects for the prototype meanings, but also had some negative effects for the peripheral usages. It caused an overuse of “of.” We also found that the subjects' proficiency level had some effects in learning the peripheral usages of the target word.

Based on these results, in this study, we examine how the subjects' different L1s affect subjects' learning the usages of English preposition “of.” Subjects who have different L1s participated in this experiment, and we found that there are similarities of the effect of learners' L1 between Japanese and Korean, who have similar correspondences of English preposition, “of.”

Keywords

Preposition, L1 Constraint, Core meaning, Prototype Theory

1 Previous Studies

1.1 Review of Lindstromburg(2010)'s Study on the meaning of “of”

Lindstromburg (2010) examined the meaning of “of” in detail. We can say that his analysis is based on the same idea of Tanaka(2014)'s core-meaning theory, then, we list up the functions in his analysis into some functions as follows;

- 1-a) integrative-intrinsic
- 1-b) PART-WHOLE
- 1-c) PRODUCT-SOURCE
- 1-d) ACT-AGENT
- 1-e) SUBSET-SET

1-f) EXAMPLE-TYPE

1-g) ENTITIES-UNIT/GROUP/AMOUNT

- 2) integrative-appositive
- 3) trace of spatial

As for function 1), the trajector (TR) and the landmark (LM) are integrated. In function 2), the integration of TR into LM amounts to near identity of one to the other.

He mentioned some other examples of integrative meaning, and he pointed out that how we mentally integrate the TR and LM depends on our knowledge of the world, as in 1-b) to 1-g).

In addition, as for function 3), “of” never has the robust spatial meaning of separation although it is possible to think of contexts in which it may appear that it does. However, in modern English we can find many examples of “of” that could indicate spatial separation, especially in the idioms.

1.2 Wachi (2016)'s Study about the effect of Japanese learners' L1

Based on Lidstromburg(2010)'s study, adding two different functions as the usages of “of”---time and possession---, Wachi (2016) examined how Japanese Learners of English (JLE)'s L1(Japanese) affected in the process of learning the meanings of English preposition “of.” The participants of this study were divided into three groups by their proficiency. Through the experiments, we found the three things below;

- 1) There are no differences in understanding the prototypical meanings among the groups regardless of their proficiency.
- 2) Their L1 “-no” has some positive effects for the prototypical usages of “of,” but has some negative effects for the peripheral usages. They may cause an overuse of “of.”
- 3) As their study goes on, the usages of “of” are understood more accurately in their mind.

2 Experimental Study

2.1 Purpose of this study

Based on the limitation of Wachi(2016), We set the purposes of this study as follows;

- 1) to examine whether both subjects' groups have correct knowledge of the meanings of "of"
- 2) to examine whether there are any differences between the subjects who have different L1s that have some similar usages of the correspondences of "of."

2.2 Participants

The participants were 12 Japanese university students and 9 Korean university students. They have experiences of English Education in their own countries for more than 10 years, and some of the participants have lived abroad.

2.3 Correspondences of "of" in Japanese and Korean

Both Japanese and Korean have correspondences of English preposition "of"--- "-no" in Japanese and "-ui" in Korean, as in (1) to (3).

- (1) the development of a country
- (2) kuni-no hatten
- (3) nara-(ui) palchon

However, as we can see in (3), Korean correspondence "-ui" is often omitted especially in the spoken Korean language, except in the case below;

- a) if N1 has rather abstract meaning in the "N(Noun)1-ui-N2" construction((3) is the case of this condition).
- b) if N2 is originally made from a verb.

Therefore, we assume that Korean correspondence "-ui" has rather weaker effects to Korean subjects' leaning the usage of English preposition "of," compared to the case of Japanese correspondence "-no."

2.4 Experiments

We used the same procedure of the experiments as Wachi (2016): The participants were asked to answer two types of questions; 1) to fill in the blanks in the sentences with appropriate prepositions and 2) to judge the similarities between the sentences with different usages of English preposition *of* shown in the previous sections. The data for question 1) were used to examine the effect of their L1 and the data for question 2) were analysed by Multidimensional Scaling (MDS). The configurations and the results were analysed. From the results of this, we examined how each meaning of English prepositions extends in the mind of participants.

2.5 Results

In Experiment 1), fill-in-the-blank questions, we found almost the same results of understanding the meaning of target preposition, contrary to our expectations. That is, their L1 has positive effects on the understanding of the prototypical meanings, on the other hand, it has some negative effects on the understanding of peripheral usages.

However, in Experiment 2), judgement of the similarities of the meanings of the target preposition, there are some differences between two groups.

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Development of Digital Textbooks and an Advanced E-Learning System for In-Class English Language Teaching

Guillermo Enriquez¹ and Satoshi Yoshida²

¹Zoiccs Co., Ltd., ²Global Education Center, Waseda University
enriquez@zoiccs.co.jp, syoshida@aoni.waseda.jp

Abstract

This paper is a progress report of our collaborative research project to develop an advanced e-learning system for in-class teaching. The current version of this system is specifically designed for teachers of English language classes and includes applications for teachers, students, and data servers. Each of these applications works as a packaged software and enables teachers to send digital teaching/learning materials (e.g., reading materials, grammar and vocabulary exercises) to students, to give an immediate feedback to students' responses on the materials, to monitor students' learning progress and so forth. To examine the usability of the software, we conducted a simulation experiment with actual use in classrooms in mind. Also, we had a discussion with English teachers to learn how to make use the system in daily classroom teaching. On the basis of the simulation experiment and discussion, we slightly updated each of the application and added some new features to the system. In our presentation, we will demonstrate how the system works, propose an effective way to use the system in classroom and then further discuss with our colleagues the potential use of this system in English language classes.

Keywords

E-learning, Digital Teaching/Learning Materials, Active Learning,

Introduction

In Japan, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) and its advisory boards have published several guidelines for promoting the effective use of information communication technology (ICT) in schools to increase the quality of school education (e.g., MEXT, 2011). Among a number of expected ICT-enabled innovations mentioned in the guidelines, digital textbooks and/or digital teaching/learning materials have received remarkable attention due to their inherent potentials to bring about significant changes

in our teaching/learning styles. In fact, these materials have been gradually introduced into the classroom at the elementary and secondary schools in Japan and used as a supplementary material to conduct easy-to-understand lectures. At the higher education institutions, furthermore, these digital teaching/learning materials can serve as a data sharing tool that enables students to enjoy mutual communication with their teachers and peers, which is expected to facilitate their deeper understanding of the academic subjects. As such, the potential feature of digital materials seems to meet the needs from educators who wish to incorporate some basic elements of active learning in their classroom teaching. In the light of the situation, we started our collaborative research project to develop an advanced e-learning system designed to work with digital teaching/learning materials and support teachers to better present and gather information during class sessions.

1 Our previous research project and the aim of current research project

To further our studies into the utility of interactivity in digital textbooks, digital workbooks, and exercises, we needed to set out a clear set of requirements for the system. In our previous collaborative research (e.g., Enriquez, Yoshida, & Nakano, 2015), we developed interactive widgets using JavaScript which were modeled on well-known exercises, such as fill-in-the-blank or sentence re-ordering, and embedded into digital textbooks made using Apple iBooks Author. The interactivity achieved in those approaches was a good step in the right direction, however, we concluded that they somewhat limited the scope of *when* the system would mostly be used. The system was deemed better suited to self-study and out-of-class homework or review. While this has value, we wanted to focus on a system which would support an educator during class time. To that end, we

reassessed our requirements as follows:

1. Customizable Interactions - Teachers must have flexibility in how content is presented to the students. It is not realistic to ask educators to learn how to program and create their own interactions. As such, the system should have a variety of interaction modes which the teachers can then utilize with their own creativity to produce the desired interactions.

2. Platform Independence - Not all schools have the resources to provide mobile devices such as tablets for each student. However, many students now have their own personal devices which could be utilized for educational purposes in class. As it is not realistic to require all students to purchase a certain type/brand of device, it is necessary for students to be able to use the system regardless of what device they own, or desktop machines for that matter, with a consistent look-and-feel of the system regardless of the platform machine.

3. Internet Connectivity - While educators may be divided as to whether the use of the internet during class time is efficacious or not, the possibility should be there for two main purposes; the download of managed content and searching for information; the latter at the discretion of the educator. We envision a system where content is downloadable from a server, streamlining the process of disseminating content. Moreover, the educator can be sure that the students are viewing the most current version of any content they are providing.

4. Data Collection - A frequent concern with educational method research is the difficulty in acquiring quantitative data. Certainly, it is possible to look at grades etc. after the class is over. It is also possible to, for instance, video record the class and afterwards measure responses times. The results of these approaches have been used for Educational Data Mining (EDM) in the past. However, we hoped to collect these types of data in real time, as class is being conducted. As we envision a system that runs on mobile devices, there is a large suite of sensors already included, and by bring these to bear, we can collect huge amounts of data, which can then be fed into machine learning algorithms and possibly allow us to perform EDM analysis not only after a class or semester has concluded, but as it in progress, potentially proving the educator with information to better tailor their approach.

For our current avenue of study, we decided to use a software suite being developed by Zoiccs Co. Ltd., Japan, which provides us with all the above-mentioned capabilities. This suite, which is still

currently in development, is planned as a comprehensive system to create and present content, monitor student interaction, and evaluate data collected.

2 Simulation experiment and discussion with English teachers

We conducted a simulation experiment to examine the usability of the software, an alpha development prototype being produced by Zoiccs Co., Ltd., Japan. With actual use in classrooms in mind, we set up several devices and tested multi-device connection between the server, teacher, and student applications. The result suggested that the system can handle multi-device connections, monitor students' interaction, record activity logs of the students, and summarize the data collected during the session. The result also suggested however that the system might consume a lot of battery of the devices connected to the system. Moreover, the system required being the only application running. The reality of using these types of systems in real classes is that students will occasionally need to turn the screens off or use other applications, such as browsers. These issues are among others being addressed in subsequent versions of the system.

We also had a discussion with English teachers on how to make use of the system as a whole in their classrooms. In this discussion, we learned that we should create more options for exercises, change some parts of GUI, and think of more effective ways to show the summary statistics of the students' responses or to see their learning progress in the classroom. With their comments and feedbacks, we updated the software.

3 Future study

With the updated software, we are planning to conduct a usability survey in an actual classroom. To this end, the second author of this study has been creating digital teaching/learning materials for regular English classes and some specialized courses for linguistics and intercultural communication.

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Pre-service Teachers' Reflective Practices in Teaching English to Elementary School Students

Hyun Jin Kim

Cheong Ju National University of Education

37hjkim@hanmail.net

Abstract

The purpose of the study is to analyze pre-service English teachers' reflection on their teaching activities and find out the topics and levels of reflection manifested in their reflection paper. 27 pre-service English teachers participated in teaching practicum and wrote their reflection paper about their teaching. The analysis of their reflection paper shows that many of the pre-service teachers wrote about transactions (different phases of teaching activity), different class management problems, and possible solutions to deal with those problems; their reflection varied from descriptive to comparative to critical reflection levels; and the pre-service teachers recognized reflection paper writing as contributing to develop their reflective thinking and teacher efficacy.

Keywords

Pre-service teachers, reflective teacher education, elementary English education, teacher efficacy

1 Introduction

The necessity of and interests in reflective teaching for teacher professional development has increased in foreign language teacher training area. Reflective teaching refers to pre- and in-service teachers' reflection on their teaching for their professional growth through teaching experience in classrooms instead of acquisition and practice of knowledge. Various teaching strategies such as writing diaries, class observations, making portfolios, writing reflection paper, and class case studies have been used as tools for raising teachers' self-reflection and self-efficacy and professional growth. Teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's perception or recognition of

his or her competency in performing a teaching task without considering others' accomplishments of the task (Noormohammadi, 2014; Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 2007). Among those strategies, reflection paper writing has been popular since it has pre- and in-service teachers identify and reflect on the issues and problems in their classrooms and explore possible solutions. For the purpose of the study, the following three research questions have been raised:

- 1) What kinds of topics do pre-service English teachers identify and reflect on in their reflection paper?
- 2) Which levels of reflection do pre-service English teachers perform in their reflection in writing reflection paper?
- 3) To what extent does reflection paper writing contribute to pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy in profession training?

2 The method

27 pre-service English teachers participated in the study. They participated in teaching practicum at elementary schools in the spring semester of their senior year. They observed their own and peer pre-service teachers' English classes and wrote reflection papers. They were asked to write reflection according to the following probing questions (Kim & Yi, 2012):

- 1) What is the problem or issue that you identified?
 - 2) Why do you think it is a problem?
 - 3) What is the context or situation of the problem?
 - 4) What could be a possible solution for it?
 - 5) How can you deal with the problem?
 - 6) What can you learn from the problem?
- Their reflection papers were collected after the

practicum and analyzed according to the research questions. Using content analysis method, the topics of reflection were elicited and classified into each category. Also, each content of reflection was identified according to Jay and Johnson's three levels of classification (2002): descriptive, comparative, and critical reflection.

Table 1. Dimensions of reflection (Jay & Johnson, 2002)

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Descriptive	Describe the matter for reflection
Comparative	Reframe the matter for reflection in light of alternative views, others' perspectives, research
Critical	Having considered the implications of the matter, establish a renewed perspective

3 Results and conclusion

Concerning the first research question, three major topics were identified in the pre-service English teachers' reflection: problems and solution regarding teacher profession and relationship with students, problems and solution regarding class management, and problems and solution regarding policies or environments. Among those topics, problems regarding class management account for more than half of the cases (52.7 percent) and solutions for it make up 26.1 percent of the total amount of the topics.

As for the second research question, all three levels of reflection were found in the pre-service English teachers' reflection paper. Comparative level of reflection (47.3 percent) was found more than descriptive level of reflection (39.4 percent), and critical reflection was also found in their reflection (12.8 percent). It means that more cases occurred where many of the pre-service teachers experienced the intellectual process of "setting the problem" of determining what it was that would become the matter for reflection than cases where they thought about the matter for reflection from a number of different frames or perspectives. Also, at 'not that low' frequency pre-service teachers carefully considered a problem that has been set in light of multiple perspectives occurred in their reflection process.

Finally, concerning the third research question, the analysis of the pre-service teachers' reflection

indicates that they evaluate writing reflection paper valuable for developing their reflective thinking about teaching practice and teacher efficacy, and eventually promoting their profession as a foreign language teacher.

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Motivational Dynamics in an Online Cross-Cultural Discussion Program

Satoshi Yoshida

Global Education Center, Waseda University

syoshida@aoni.waseda.jp

Abstract

This replication study aims to examine the applicability of a new research approach called Dynamic Systems Theory (DST; e.g., Ellis, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 2015) to a study on L2 learners' motivational fluctuations in an online cross-cultural discussion program. As in my previous study (Yoshida, 2016), this study partially adopted and adapted the research method employed in Waninge, Dörnyei and de Bot (2014). The procedures for data analysis were as follows; (1) conducting real-time assessments of students' motivation with an instrument called Motometer, (2) recording all the online sessions on PCs, (3) coding the video data and (4) summarizing the data collected with Motometer and video data on Data Composite Charts. On the basis of the Data Composite Charts, I discussed the dynamic nature of learners' L2 motivation, focusing in particular on its *change, stability and contextual dependency*. By comparing the results in both the present and the previous studies, I also examined the replicability of the results, focusing on whether DST guided approach can illustrate the above three features of motivational dynamics, and then, discussed the applicability of this approach to L2 motivation research.

Keywords

L2 Motivation, Motivational Dynamics, Dynamic Systems Theory, Online Discussion,

Introduction

In the field of L2 motivation (i.e., motivation in learning second/foreign language) research, there has been a growing popularity of a new research approach called Dynamic Systems Theory (DST; e.g., de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007; Ellis, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 2015). This reflects a fact that L2 motivation researchers have started to research learners' motivation "through a small lens" (Ushioda, 2016, p. 564), that is, they have sought to investigate L2 motivation at an individual level rather than at the

general or macro level.

With this research trend in mind, I have been conducting a research study among the participants in an online cross-cultural discussion program. In line with the previous study, the main aim of the present study was to examine the applicability of the DST approach to a study on L2 learners' motivational fluctuations. By comparing the results in both the present and the previous studies, I also discussed the replicability of the results.

1 Background of this study

1.1 Dynamic Systems Theory

In short, DST is said to be a sort of a *complexity theory approach* to SLA (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 1997, 2008, 2011) which considers most of the topics in the field of SLA as a *dynamic system* and "views all systems as complex and constantly adaptive involving interactions among the many components that comprise the system" (Ellis, 2015, p. 314). In the same manner, DST also views the object of study as a *complex adaptive system* and acknowledges *interconnectedness* among the elements of the system and the existence of "nonlinear manner of self-organisation and emergence" (Waninge et al., 2014, p.705). As opposed to a traditional approach that can only deal with *linear cause-effect relationship(s)* between variable(s), therefore, the DST approach allows researchers to examine *nonlinear relationship(s)* among the objects of study.

1.2 DST and L2 Motivation Study

Ushioda (2016) argued that researching L2 motivation through such a small lens allows L2 motivation researchers to elucidate not only how motivation plays its role in L2 acquisition or language development process but also how motivation relates to some specific event in the classroom and then fluctuates during learning periods. In other words, there are said to be at least three research objectives in a DST guided motivation

study, each of which is concerned with (1) *change*, (2) *stability*, and (3) *contextual dependency* (Waninge et al., 2014).

1.3 Previous Study

As mentioned above, I conducted some surveys among the participants in the target online cross-cultural discussion program (Yoshida, 2016). As a result, I found that the DST approach would have a potential to illustrate (1) *change*, (2) *stability*, and (3) *contextual dependability* in learners' motivation. However, I also found some methodological and substantive issues (see Section 4) that should be further examined in future study. On the basis of these findings, I thus tentatively concluded that the DST approach would be applicable to a study on motivational fluctuations in the target program.

2 Method

2.1 Participants

The participants in this study were 5 Japanese university students who joined the target online program as a part of class activities in an elective English class. In the program, they had a discussion with Asian students.

2.2 Instrument

To conduct real-time assessments of learners' motivation during the program, this study employed a modified version of Motometer (Waninge et al., 2014). As in the previous study (Yoshida, 2016), this instrument was designed to assess the *effort* and *enjoyment* at 5-minute intervals. To conduct an overall analysis of the sessions, ten-item self-rating questionnaire was also distributed after each session.

2.3 Procedures for Data Analysis

The Motometer surveys were conducted in two sessions. The main topics discussed in each session were Country Images and Pop Culture, respectively. The procedures for data analysis were as follows: (1) conducting real-time assessments of students' motivation with the modified Motometer, (2) recording all the online sessions on PCs, (3) coding the video data, (4) summarizing the Motometer data and video data on Data Composite Charts.

2.4 Research Questions

As in the previous study, research questions 1-3 were adopted from Waninge et al. (2014).

RQ1: Is there variability to be found in students' in-class motivation?

RQ2: Is there a detectable stable level, or attractor state, in students' in-class motivation?

RQ3: If there is variability and stability in students'

motivation, can this be accounted for by the classroom context?

RQ4: Is the degree of perceived effort proportionate to that of enjoyment?

3 Results

Figure 1 shows the Data Composition Chart for Participant 1. (Because of the space constraint, event information observed in the sessions was omitted.)

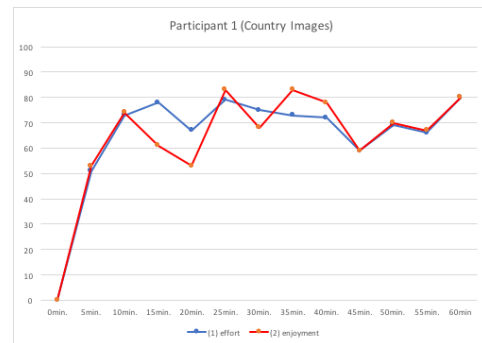


Figure 1. Data Composition Chart (Participant 1)

4 Discussion and Conclusion

As a result, I found a lot of variability between and/or within the participants in their effort and enjoyment (RQ1). Some participants showed relatively high degrees of effort and enjoyment in the two sessions (RQ2). I also found that some external stimuli (e.g., unexpected noise, other students' behaviors, topic(s) being discussed) sometimes undermined the participants' motivation (RQ3). As for the RQ4, it is still inconclusive as in the previous study because some students showed almost the same degrees of efforts and enjoyment but others showed some differences. To sum up, as in the previous study, I found that the DST approach would be applicable to a study on learners' motivational dynamics in the given context. However, I also found the following methodological and substantive issues as in the previous study: (1) "Motivation" assessed by Motometer might be incompatible with the existing theories (conceptual issue); It was found to be impossible to compare the participants' motivational dispositions because of the lack of benchmarks in the scale (methodological issue); Real time assessment (rating motivation at 5-minute interval) might bother the students' ongoing discussion (substantive issue).

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English Language Education Policies in Asian Context

Bok- Myung Chang

Namseoul University

cbm0709@hanmail.net

Abstract

This research aims to survey and compare the developmental characteristics of English language education in Asian countries. This research emphasizes the important role of English education and the future of English language education in Asian countries. Also this study focuses on the characteristics of English as an International language, and emphasizes the role of English as a tool for inter-cultural communication in the world.

Key Words: Kachru's model, Asian countries, English language, the policy of English language education, roles of English language education

Introduction

The history of English language in Asian countries is very important to understand the characteristics of English language education comparing with those of the countries which belongs to the Inner circle. The information of historical background for Asian Englishes is very important to set up the roles of English language education in Asian context. So this research focuses to survey the development of English language and define the roles of English language education in Asian countries: Singapore, Philippine, Hong Kong, China, Malaysia, Taiwan, Japan, and Korea. Through the developmental survey of English language in Asian context, this study pursues to define the roles and status of Asian Englishes and to suggest the guidelines of the policies of English language education in Asian countries.

1. Historical Survey on English Language in Asian Context

The history of English language in Asian countries is closely related to the dispersals of English which consists of two kinds of dispersals. The first one involved the migration of many people from the south and eastern part of England to America and Australia. The second one involved the colonization of Asia and Africa, and led to the development of a

number of second language varieties. English dispersals in South-East Asia and the south pacific started in the late 18th century. The main countries involved were Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, and the Philippines. Stamford Raffles, an administrator of the British East India Company, played an important role in the founding of Singapore as part of the British colonial empire in 1819. Around the same time, other major British centers were founded in Malaysia, and in 1842, Hong Kong was added to Britain. After the Spanish-American War at the end of the 19th century, the United States was granted sovereignty over the Philippines. Through the above historical development, English came to play very strong influence over many Asian countries. This section surveys the development of English language education in Asian countries: Singapore, Philippine, Hong Kong, China, Malaysia, Taiwan, Japan, and Korea. Historical survey on the development of English education is very important for defining the roles of English language education and giving the directions for English education in the future.

2. Research Methodology

The purposes of this study are as follows: the first one is to trace the dispersal of English from the 18th century and the development of English in Asian countries, the second one is to explain the development and characteristics of English language education policies in Asian countries, and the third one is to emphasize the important role of English education and the future of English language education in Asian countries. The data for this research is based on the textbooks and materials for the development of English language and education policies from the governments of Asian countries.

3. The Roles of English Language Education in Asian Context

On the basis of the historical survey on the development of English in Asian countries, the

roles of English language education in Asian countries can be defined into three categories: the first role is to recognize the importance of NNS (Non-Native speakers) interactions in communicating through English and to encourage their interactions and to create the environment to activate their interactions in daily life in the globalized world. The second one is to emphasize the bi-directionality in communicating among NS and NNS in the globalized world. The third one is to acknowledge the effectiveness of NNS teachers in teaching English in Asian countries and cultivate good NNESTs (Nonnative English-speaking Teachers) who are well qualified for teaching English in each country.

3.1 The importance of non-native speakers' interactions in Asian context

One role of English language education in Asian countries is to recognize the importance of NNS interactions in communicating through English, to encourage their interactions and to create the environment to activate their interactions in daily life in the globalized world.

3.2 Bi-directionality to communicate in globalized world

The purpose of English language education in Asian countries is to emphasize the bi-directionality in communicating among NS and NNS in globalized world.

3.3 English language teachers: Non-native speakers of English

Another purpose of English language education in Asia is to acknowledge the effectiveness of NNS teachers in teaching English in Asian countries and cultivate good NNESTs who are well qualified for teaching English in each country.

4. Conclusion

As a conclusion of this study, the essential role of English language education in Asian context can be summarized like this. Asian Englishes play the bi-directional roles: the first role is to establish the identity of each cultural and ethnic group by using both English and each group's mother tongues in Asian context. The other is that English plays a role as a window to the world. In this process to open the window to the world, Asian Englishes can play the important roles like these: to teach English as a way of speeding up national development, to teach English as a way of understanding other cultures, and to teach English as a tool of international communication in the globalized world. The number of the people who speak English as a second or foreign language in Asian countries is

increasing very rapidly, so the Asian English plays a very important role in the globalized world. Considering these circumstance, it is very important to survey the distinguishable characteristics of Asian Englishes so that we can define the roles of Asian Englishes and set up the goals to direct English language education in Asian context.

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The Awareness of Intercultural Competence of Senior High School Students in Japan

Yuko KOYAMA¹, Takako MACHIMURA² and Kouichi ANO³

¹Graduate student, Bunkyo University, ² Part-time lecturer, Bunkyo University, ³ Professor, Bunkyo University

¹b6g62004@shonan.bunkyo.ac.jp, ² mtakako@shonan.bunkyo.ac.jp,

³ k-ano@shonan.bunkyo.ac.jp

Abstract

In the global world, people with different cultural backgrounds need to work together.

Koyama (2016) analyzed three high school English textbooks in Japan and mentioned that it is important for students not only to improve their English skills but also to learn roles of culture in their English classes.

The purpose of this study is to clarify the awareness of intercultural communicative competence (hereinafter referred to as ICC) of senior high school students in Japan.

The results show that many students have positive attitude for different culture or communication with people with different background. The recognition of “culture” is different depending on the students. As for intercultural competence (hereinafter referred to as IC), the awareness of English textbooks or the teachers’ approaches are considered.

Keywords

English education, awareness, high school students, intercultural communicative competence

Introduction

In the global world, people with different cultural backgrounds need to work together to build a society in which they can live together, accepting diversity.

It gives important suggestions for English education in Japan. Students need to improve their English communication skills, not only linguistically but also in terms of positive attitude, knowledge, skills for communication.

1 Background

1.1 Intercultural Communicative Competence

Byram (2008) mentions the importance of IC. It consists of four dimensions: attitude, knowledge, skills and critical cultural awareness. In fact, without IC, people may cause serious misunderstandings or conflicts in communication even if they are linguistically competent in the target languages. The model of ICC is also proposed. It consists of four competences: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and intercultural competences. By learning ICC, people will be able to interact with people from other countries and cultures in a foreign language.

1.2 Culture

As for ICC, Byram (2008) mentions it is important to focus on different social groups and individual.

2 The purpose of this study

The purpose of this study is to clarify the awareness of intercultural communicative competence of senior high school students in Japan. Especially, the textbooks and teaching approaches are focused in this study.

3 Procedures

Questionnaire is used to collect the information. The procedure is as follows:

(1) The questionnaire items were defined in

terms of not only IC but also high school English textbooks. As for IC, the description of Byram (2008) is referred and adjusted for high school students. 14 questions were as follows: 12 questions with four multiple choices (strong agree, agree, disagree and strong disagree) and two open-ended questions.

- (2) The answers were collected from two high schools in different regions.
- (3) Interviews were conducted with two teachers about their approaches using high school English textbooks in terms of IC in their classes.
- (4) All the data was analyzed based on the descriptions of Byram (2008).

4 Results and discussion

175 students responded to the questionnaire.

4.1 Multiple choices questions

Table 1. shows the result of awareness of IC. The positive answers of Table1 includes “strong agree” and “agree.”

Table 1. The result of awareness of IC

Descriptors	Positive answers (%)	
	A high school	B high school
Attitude	78.0	82.6
Knowledge	86.0	83.8
Skills of interpreting and relating*	96.0	96.3
Skills of discovery and interaction*	78.5	70.1
Critical cultural awareness	88.0	76.6

Note: * Attitude for skills.

Overall, the positive awareness or attitude for IC were found.

Figure 1. shows the recognition of “culture.” It is also an important point for ICC as Byram (2008) mentions.

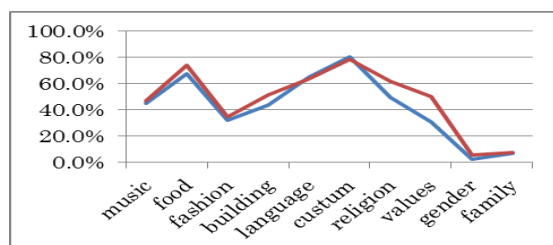


Figure 1. The recognition of “culture”

Note: *A high school ■ B high school ■

The percentage of religion and values

of A high school is comparatively high. That is because the students exchange their opinions about topics of their textbook in the class.

4.2 Open-ended questions.

Some comments are found in the next question: what makes you become interested in culture?

Answers:

- (1) When I went on a school trip in Taiwan, I became interested in the culture of Japan and other countries.
- (2) Teacher’s talk in classes.
- (3) TV programs and movies

5 Implications

Some implications are found as follows.

First, as for the recognition of “culture,” teachers took the opportunities to exchange opinions with their classmates in class. It would be one of the effective approaches for students. By doing it, students could be aware of suggestive culture such as value, region and so on.

Second, to grow the positive attitude for ICC, the following points would be effective.

- (1) Asking questions that related to the topic to deepen students’ knowledge.
- (2) Using movies which related to the topic in introduction, comprehension and so on.
- (3) Treating topics that related to school events such as a school trip and international exchanges.

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Japanese English learners' sensitivity to the transitivity of English verbs presented in the animation context

Kazuharu Owada¹, Eiichiro Tsutsui², Norifumi Ueda³

¹Ritsumeikan University, ²The University of Kitakyushu, ³Komazawa University

owada@fc.ritsumei.ac.jp., e-tsutsui@kitakyu-u.ac.jp, ueda@komazawa-u.ac.jp

Abstract

There are some English verbs which can be used both intransitively and transitively. The verbs such as *break*, *close*, *melt* can appear in intransitive active, transitive active, and passive constructions. Although native English speakers know in what kind of context a target verb is used in a certain construction, previous studies have shown that English learners find it difficult to choose an appropriate construction of a target verb.

The purpose of this paper is two-fold. First, we examine Japanese English learners' (JELs) sensitivity to the transitivity of such English verbs by using an animation-based acceptability judgment task, in comparison with some native English speakers. Second, we investigate which construction of such verbs JELs tend to use in an animation-based composition task.

Keywords

transitivity, unaccusative verbs, animation

1 Introduction

EFL learners are said to have difficulty with two types of unaccusative verbs: alternating unaccusative verbs (i.e., *break*, *close*, *melt*) and non-alternating unaccusative verbs (i.e., *appear*, *fall*, *happen*) (e.g., Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995). Some previous SLA studies have shown that Japanese English learners (JELs) tend to prefer the passive of an unpaired (i.e., non-alternating) unaccusative verbs (e.g., **An accident was happened*) and prefer the passive of a paired (i.e., alternating) unaccusative verb (e.g., *The glass was broken* rather than *The glass broke*) in contexts where the intransitive is called for (e.g., Hirakawa, 2003; Oshita, 2000).

Regarding the acquisition of such verbs, some previous studies (e.g., Hirakawa, 2003) use illustration in a grammatical judgment task (GJT). However, we argue that it might be difficult for learners to imagine in their head a context where

these intransitive verbs are used despite the use of illustrations. Some might reject *The door closes*, for instance, just because they might think that a door is highly unlikely to close by itself. Therefore, in order to address this problem, this study uses animation for both animation-based acceptability judgment tasks and composition tasks.

2 The present study

The present study consists of two parts: Study 1 and Study 2. The research questions in each study are presented as follows:

RQ1: Which constructions of verbs (i.e., *melt*, *drop*, *fall*) will JELs prefer in an animation-based acceptability judgment task, compared with NSs? (Study 1)

RQ2: Which constructions of verbs (i.e., *melt*, *drop*, *fall*) will JELs prefer in an animation-based composition task? (Study 2)

2.1 Study 1

2.1.1 Method

Participants

Fifty-seven first- and second-year English majors at a Japanese private university participated in this study.

Procedure

The participants were asked to judge the acceptability of intransitive, transitive, and passive constructions of a target verb after watching about 10-second animation video. This acceptability judgement task was based on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*not natural*) to 5 (*natural*). We avoided the use of such words as 'grammatical' and 'acceptable' so that the participants could judge the naturalness of each sentence based on the animation they have watched.

Target verbs in Study 1

The target verbs in this study include *melt* (2 contexts), *drop* in (2 contexts), and *fall* in (2 contexts), as in Table 1.

Table 1. Target verbs in Study 1

Verb	Context
<i>melt</i>	1 A snow man melts in the sun.
	2 A person melts the snow man.
	3 An ice cream melts in the sun.
	4 Ice in the lake melts in the sun.
<i>drop</i>	1 A couple of books drop out of a bag without the owner noticing it.
	2 A person drops the books in surprise.
<i>fall</i>	1 A person falls down the stairs on her own.
	2 A person is pushed and falls down the stairs.

2.1.2 Results

The results for *melt* (Context 3) show that JELs preferred the passive much more than the NSs, as in Figure 1.

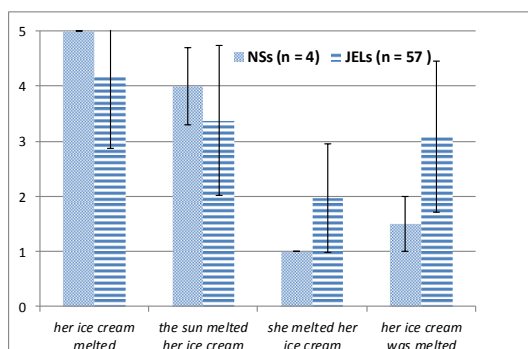


Figure 1. The results for *melt* (Context 3: An ice cream melts in the sun)

Note: 1 (not natural) to 5 (natural). Error bars indicate SD.

Two findings can be drawn from the results of all the target verbs. First, JELs preferred the passive much more than the NSs in most of the contexts. Second, JELs wrongly accepted the transitive and passive forms of *fall*.

2.2 Study 2

2.2.1 Method

Participants

The participants, who were different from Study 1, were 27 Japanese learners of English majoring in English as freshmen at the same Japanese university as in Study 1.

Procedure

They were asked to describe a situation in writing by using a target verb after watching the same animation used in Study 1.

Target verbs in Study 2

The target verbs are the same as in Study 1.

2.2.2 Results

The results for *drop* in two contexts are shown in Figure 2.

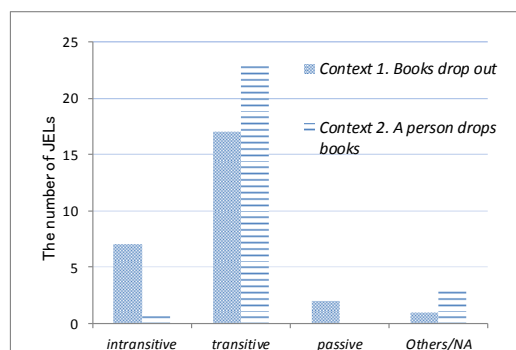


Figure 2. The results for *drop* in two contexts (N = 27)

Three findings can be drawn from the results of all the target verbs. First, more than 50% of the JELs preferred the intransitive of *melt* in four contexts. Second, more than 60% preferred the transitive of *drop* in two contexts. Third, more than 80% preferred the intransitive of *fall* in two contexts.

3 Conclusion

Regarding the first research question, this study suggests that JELs and the NSs showed similar sensitivity to the transitivity of the target verbs, and that JELs accepted the passive more than the NSs in some contexts, except for *fall*. As for the second research question, this study indicates that JELs preferred the intransitive of *fall* and the transitive of *drop* in the composition task.

Moreover, there were very few instances of ungrammatical transitive and passive forms of *fall* in the composition task. In other words, given that the participants in both studies had the same English proficiency level, JELs responded quite differently in the composition task than in the acceptability judgment task.

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Gratitude Strategies for Korean Learners of English Based on Social Distance and Status

Jaehwang Shim¹ and Jooyun Kim²

¹Kookje University, ²World Cyber College

julyshim@hanmail.net, jooyunk217@naver.com

Abstract

This study investigates the degree of gratitude in Korean EFL learners of English in different situations. Data were collected from 84 undergraduate students studying at a university near Seoul. A self-assessment questionnaire (SAQ) was administered to examine the understanding of gratitude in different social distance and status. The results illustrated that the students revealed certain similarities in terms of the degree of gratitude. The results show that the two contextual factors do not significantly affect the intensity or degree of gratitude.

Keywords

interlanguage, pragmatics, gratitude, thanking, SAQ

1. Introduction

Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) define that gratitude or thanking is a kind of illocutionary act as speaker's performs to the hearer. In the cases of expressing gratitude, it ranges from simple, phatic utterances to lengthy communicative events mutually developed by both the giver and the recipient of gift, favor, reward, or service (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986). This study searches for the degree of gratitude based on the social distance and social status in Korean EFL university students. To attain the research object, the research questions are followed.

1. How do Korean EFL learners of English understand the gratitude? 2. How do they feel the degree of gratitude depending on the different situations? 3. Does each gender feel the different degree of gratitude in terms of frequency?

2. Literature Review

Among cross-cultural research on the gratitude in speech acts a lot of studies have investigated the

comparison of expressing gratitude in English and other languages (Cheng, 2005; Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986; Hinkel, 1994; Hymes, 1972; Rubin, 1983). Most of studies searched for the differences or similarities in gratitude expressions, especially in American ESL and EFL context.

3. Research Method

3.1. Participants

The participants were 84 undergraduate students of three classes at a university near Seoul. They were taking three credits course of Practical English and English Writing.

3.2. Instruments

As other previous studies did, this study modified some topics and expressions in the scenarios to meet Korean college life and everyday social context. Table 1 displayed the contents of ten scenarios.

Table 1. The Distribution of Contextual Factors

Items	Situations	Place
1	Installing new computer program	dorm
2	Clean the room	dorm
3	Salary raise	company
4	Recommendation letter	campus
5	Preparing PPT or text materials	campus
6	Offering tissue to clean up	cafeteria
7	Returning a smart-phone	taxi
8	Guiding to check in	airport
9	Helping the door open	building
10	Bringing coffee with cookies	classroom

The SAQ measured participants' level of self-confidence in their own pragmatic abilities. Rose and Connie (2001) argued that the SAQ was an instrument of an interesting pretest and posttest indicator of self-confidence.

Situation 1: You have a problem of installing new

computer program. You ask one of your classmates to help you. The friend solves the problem and says “I will help you anytime if you want.”

Rating: I think the degree of gratitude in this situation would be _____ .

4. Research Results

4.1. Degree of social distance

Participants were asked to rate the degree of their gratitude to the given scenarios in SAQ. The scale was ranged from 1 to 5, in which the number 1 meant the highest degree of gratitude, and the number 5 indicated the lowest degree of gratitude. The result show that the reliability is affirmative in ten items (Cronbach's alpha= .71 in 95% of co-efficiency).

Table 2. The Social Distance (+)

Gender	Items	1	2	5	6	10
Male	mean	2.22	2.61	1.86	3.22	1.83
	S/D	1.0450	.9936	.9900	.7968	1.1084
	%	44.2	41.2	44.7	48.7	38.2
Female	mean	2.10	2.79	1.73	2.54	2.23
	S/D	1.1344	.8742	.8688	.8241	.9728
	%	55.8	58.8	55.3	51.3	61.8
Total	mean	2.16	2.71	1.79	2.83	2.06
	S/D	1.0921	.9258	.9193	.8758	1.0454
	%	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.

Table 3. The Social Distance (-)

Gender	Items	3	4	7	8	9
Male	mean	1.36	3.22	2.94	2.61	2.97
	S/D	.7232	.7968	1.0126	.9936	1.1335
	%	40.5	48.7	46.9	45.2	51.4
Female	mean	1.50	2.54	2.50	2.38	2.10
	S/D	.9893	.8241	1.1109	1.0842	.8810
	%	59.5	51.3	53.1	54.8	48.6
Total	mean	1.44	2.83	2.69	2.48	2.48
	S/D	.8829	.8758	1.0863	1.0468	1.0808
	%	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.

4.2. Degree of social status

Table 4 indicates the scores of three situations, in which the social status between a speaker and a hearer is equal (S=H). For example, in the situations, the hearers are all friends to the speaker. As the table shows, the scores indicate the affirmative degree of gratitude to friends. The mean scores of female are 2.10, 2.75, and 2.31, whereas those of male are 2.22, 2.61, and 2.44.

Table 4. The Social Status (S=H)

Gender	Items	1	2	5
Male	mean	2.22	2.61	2.44
	S/D	1.0450	.9936	1.0541
	%	44.2	41.2	44.2
Female	mean	2.10	2.79	2.31
	S/D	1.1344	.8742	1.1328
	%	55.8	58.8	55.8
Total	mean	2.16	2.71	2.37
	S/D	1.0921	.9258	1.0952
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0

Gender	Items	1	2	5
Male	mean	2.22	2.61	2.44
	S/D	1.0450	.9936	1.0541
	%	44.2	41.2	44.2
Female	mean	2.10	2.79	2.31
	S/D	1.1344	.8742	1.1328
	%	55.8	58.8	55.8
Total	mean	2.16	2.71	2.37
	S/D	1.0921	.9258	1.0952
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0

5. Conclusion and Implication

First, the participants showed the similar responses of gratitude regardless of social distance or social status. Second, the aspect of gender did not show any significant difference though the diverse intensities of situations were given to the participants. Third, regarding gender, the results do not show any significant differences in ten given situations. Therefore, the results demonstrate that the various strategies or items on gratitude should be taught in English class, and more gratitude expressions or items should also complement textbooks and additional materials.

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A Preliminary Study on the Linguistic Prejudice against Korean-Accented English

Bohyon Chung and Hakmoon Lee

Hanbat National University

bchung@hanbat.ac.kr, hakmoon@hanbat.ac.kr

Abstract

This study was conducted to address the linguistic prejudice against Korean-accented English among Korean speaking learners of English (KSLs). Seventy-eight participants participated in this study. They were first year undergraduates in three majors. A questionnaire survey containing 36 items was administered via using the Measure of Prejudice Against Accented English (Ura, Preston & Mearns, 2015). The results suggest that the prejudice could be analyzed in terms of five factors: credibility, social status, initiative, English proficiency, and language preference. In addition, major of participants were significant predictors in determining the prejudice levels of credibility and social status factors.

Keywords

Korean-accented English, foreign accent, prejudice, language attitude

Introduction

The wide usage of English as a lingua franca has made a case for creating new English accent varieties. Though the notion of world Englishes becomes pervasive, people regard the new varieties of English as debatable ground. The previous literature suggests that both the English language learners and teachers in east Asian context were found to display somewhat negative attitudes toward first language (L1)-accented English. It is important to note that it is still controversial as to whether the foreign English varieties should be necessarily reducing the intelligibility of their speeches

Intended to provide the bases for understanding intelligibility of Korean accented English, the purpose of this study is to examine the properties of the prejudice against the Korean-accented English and a potential determiner affecting their levels.

1 Research questions

Two research questions were created to analyze the

prejudice against Korean-accented English.

- 1) Which constructs can be formulated to describe the prejudice against Korean-accented English?
- 2) Do learners have different levels of the prejudice based on their major?

2 Methodology

A total of 78 undergraduate students participated in the study. The participants were all enrolled on compulsory English classes as part of their course of study. The majors of participants were industrial design (37.2%), advanced material engineering (34.6%), and English language and literature (28.2%). Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Allan, 2004) served as the basis for determining the English proficiency levels of participants. The one-way ANOVA test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in OPT performance between the majors ($F(2, 75) = .163, p = .850$).

A survey questionnaire which was adapted from a questionnaire developed by Ura and colleagues (2015) was conducted. As the original questionnaire were targeted towards any foreign-accent speakers, the items were rewritten in terms more specific to Korean-accented speakers. The responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree.' The reliability of the questionnaire was determined by Cronbach Alpha Coefficient which was .947. The collected data from the questionnaire were analyzed using the SPSS. Based on participant responses to the questionnaire, descriptive statistics, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and a one-way ANOVA were carried out.

3 Results

3.1 Findings: Research Question 1

An EFA revealed five factors consisted of the prejudice against Korean-accented English. The five constructs are described as follows:

-Factor 1: Credibility (asserting that speakers with a

Korean accent are less trustable)

- Factor 2: Social status (indicating whether Korean-accented speakers were thought to have less status in education, social class, intelligence, and so on)
- Factor 3: Initiative (referring to Korean English speakers lacking activeness which may lead to difficult to be involved in a discussion and a community)
- Factor 4: English proficiency (referring Korean-accented speakers as seeming less fluent in English language)
- Factor 5: Language preference (promoting English speaking countries accents, emphasizing the importance of phonological acquisition beyond general English learning)

The five factors above accounted for 61.93% of the total variance in the prejudice toward Korean-accented English. Factor 1 had the largest variance ($V = 20.3$). Factor 2 had a variance of 19.25, factor 3 had a variance of 8.48, and factor 4 of 7.63. Factor 5 had the smallest variance ($V = 6.27$).

3.2 Findings: Research Question 2

The one-way ANOVA test was performed to examine whether the differences in factors associated with the prejudice can be found according to the major of participants. The findings revealed that there were significant differences in two factors: (1) F1: Credibility ($F(2,75) = 3.592, p = .032$) and (2) F4: Language proficiency ($F(2,75) = 7.387, p = .001$).

Interestingly, Tukey post-hoc comparisons illustrated similar patterns in responses. Participants majoring in English language and literature tended to agree more with both factors than those in industrial design ($p < .05$). That is, students whose major is English language and literature were more likely to think that speakers with Korean-accented English would be less trustworthy and less fluent in English comparing to those who majoring in industrial design. The results of the mean differences between the two factors in respect to the major of participants are shown in Figure 1.

4 Discussion and conclusion

Two primary findings were observed in the current study. First, five factors associated with the prejudice against English by Korean speakers emerged: (1) credibility, (2) social status, (3) initiative, (4) English proficiency, and (5) language preference. Second, the levels of prejudice attitudes varied when students were subdivided according to their majors. Specifically, students in an English related major presented negative attitude on two sub-factors: F1,

credibility and F4, English proficiency. On the contrary, students majoring in industrial design showed statistically lower level on two factors than those who majoring in English language and literature.

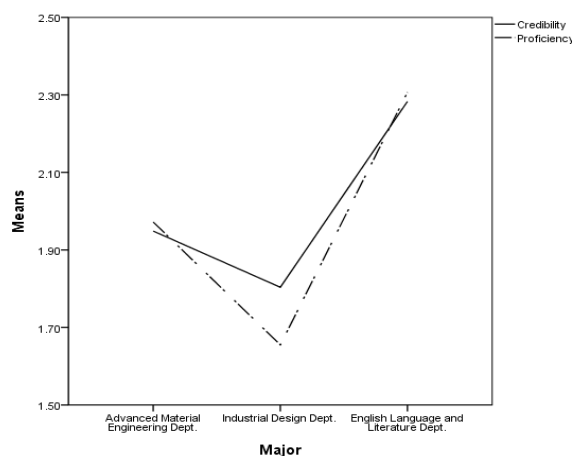


Figure 1. Mean Differences between Credibility and English Proficiency Factors Depending on Majors

Although English users are becoming increasingly diverse, the potential impact of linguistic prejudice against speakers with foreign accents has not been discussed as explicitly as other individual differences. A unique aspect of the present study is our research provided evidence that linguistic prejudice plays a critical role in negative attitudes toward L1 accented English depending on which academic field they are engaged in. It is desirable to conduct similar studies with speakers from different majors and different English varieties to generalize the findings of this study.

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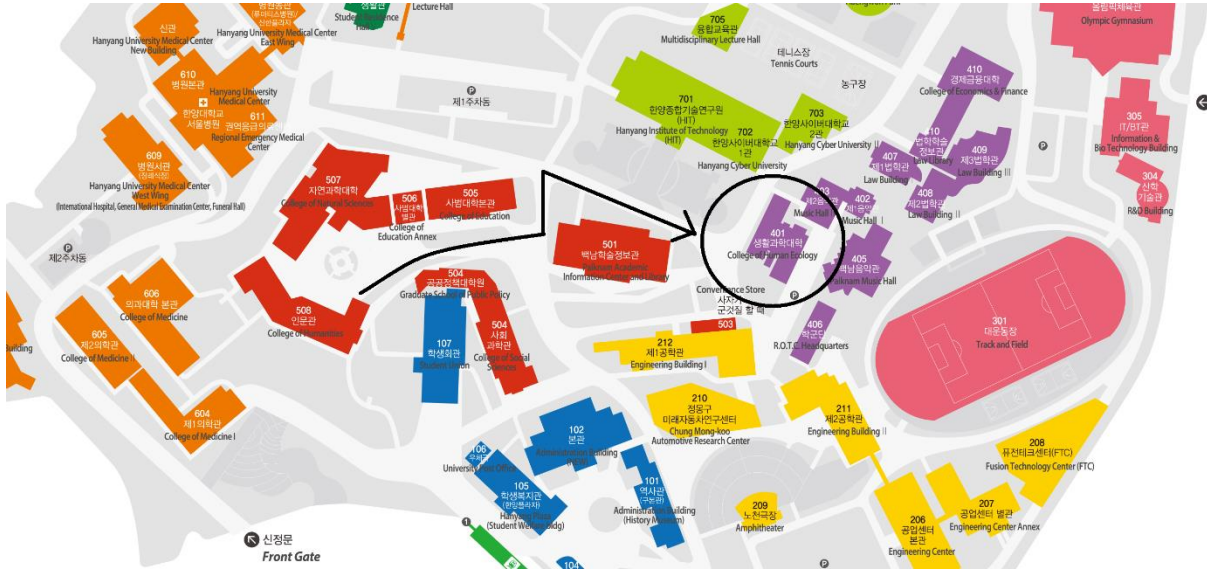
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Direction to the Cafeteria

For Lunch



7F, Cafeteria for Faculty and Staff Members
College of Human Ecology (BLDG no. 401)

- ❖ Lunch voucher is in the name tag.
- ❖ Special Meal Requesters: Halal lunch box will be provided at the cafeteria.

