Extended Summaries

The 26th Korea TESOL International Conference – 2018

clear understanding
confident listening reading
smooth writing
flowing fluid FLUENT speaking
natural competent connecting
comprehensible

Focus on Fluency

26th Annual

The 2018 Korea TESOL International Conference

October 13-14, Sookmyung Women's University, Seoul

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Scott Thornbury
Jill Hadfield
Ki Hun Kim
Steven Herder
Jill Murray
Jennifer Book
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and more

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Extended Summaries

The 26th Korea TESOL International Conference – 2018

Select Summaries of Conference Presentations

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Voicing Pattern Learnability of Interdental Fricatives

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The present study tries to demonstrate how phonetic knowledge of the interdental fricatives in English develops in EFL learners. A total 144 students in Japan responded to the question of whether the focused sound, represented by the digraph “th,” should be voiced or not. Results show that the judgment scores for the sound appearing in the 20 items of words did not correlate with the participants’ proficiency scores on the whole. In particular, the voiced sound in some less frequently appearing words was not correctly identified because of inference and association with some sound-symbol correspondences that they knew. The word-initial “th” sound was relatively difficult to acquire not only because the interdental fricatives do not occur in the phoneme inventories of their L1 but also because the word-initial voiced obstruents are in a phonologically irregular placement in their L1. Thus, the development of L2 phonetic knowledge, L1 phonological transfer, and the application of the mental lexicon were observed, and those properties should require more attention in L2 education.

BACKGROUNDS AND PURPOSES

Sound recognition depends on first languages. For example, Koreans may have difficulty distinguishing [p] and [b] for the identically spelled letter /b/ in English. Japanese may have the same issue in discriminating [z] from [s] in word-internal or word-final position (Asai, 2015; Baker, 1980). In the languages of the world, voiced fricatives appear less often than their voiceless counterparts; in particular, interdental fricatives are rarely used phonemes. Interdental fricatives are unique sounds, and thus may be substituted with other sounds, which are familiar with to speakers (Brannen, 2002; Teasdale, 1997). High proficiency is needed to achieve the perception and production of such distinctive sounds (Schmid et al., 2014).

The present study aimed to learn about the phonetic recognition of the interdental fricatives in English among EFL learners at the present-day college level in East Asia.

SURVEY METHODS AND RESULTS

The participants in the present survey were 144 students enrolled in their first year at two four-year universities in Japan in 2017 and 2018. The participants’ proficiency levels varied broadly from the high-beginning level to the low-advanced. The words in question were therefore selected in a wide range of difficulty to wit as follows: *mouth*, *teeth*, *thought*, *though*, *thus*, *author*, *smooth*, *growth*, *worthy*, *clothe*, *thumb*, *sympathy*, *seething*, *methane*, *tether*, *wreaths*, *thatch*, *thirtieth*, *mouther*, and *orthoepy*. The 160 participants judged whether the /th/ letter set in those 20 words should be sounded [θ] or [ð] and entered their answers on the paper-based worksheet.

Figure 1 shows the distributions of ratios of answering correctly to the phonetic knowledge questions as a function of proficiency test scores by six question groups: word-initial voiceless, word-internal voiceless, word-final voiceless, and word-initial voiced, word-internal voiced, and word-final voiced.

DISCUSSIONS

On the whole, the judgment scores for the sound appearing in the 20 word items did not seem to correlate with the participants’ proficiency levels. However, as seen in Figure 1, the ratios of

answering correctly for the word groups of word-internal voiceless, word-final voiceless, and word-initial voiced reflected the proficiency levels of the learners.

The ratio of answering correctly for the word-initial voiced sounds by low-proficiency participants was below a chance level of 0.5. This means that those participants associated the sound in the words with some other words they already knew.

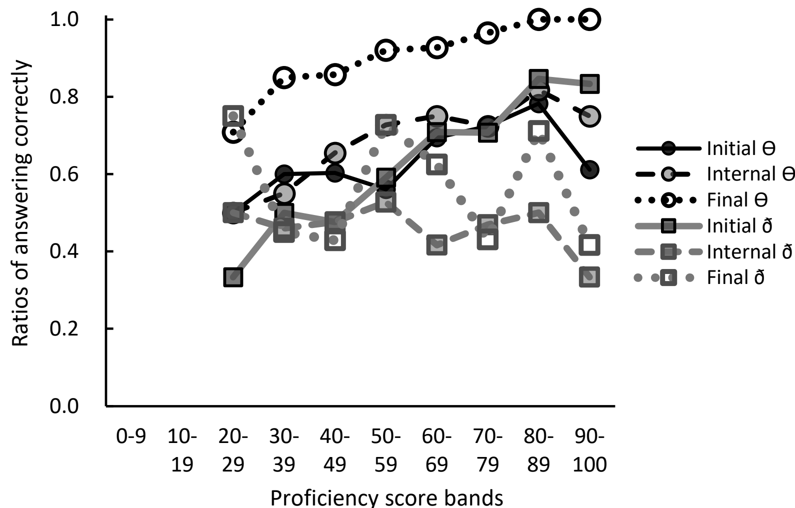

FIGURE 1. Interdental fricative knowledge distributions by sound position.

The question group of word-internal voiced sounds includes some difficult words. The answer to those words needs some inference, and can reflect a participant's ability to guess based on her/his phonetic and lexical knowledge. The low score in this section indicates direct employment of their phonetic knowledge and the degree of the internalization of the phonological system.

Furthermore, the word-final "th" questions resulted in a low score since East Asians tend to transfer their L1 phonological recognition that the sound "s" after long or consecutive vowels is likely judged as voiceless. Learning those phonetic configurations is a tough task. Thus, EFL learners' learning patterns involve both phonological and phonetic factors to which teachers should devote increased attention.

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Learning Purposes Can Govern Reading Strategies

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The present study investigated the English learning purposes and reading strategies of 422 students in three Japanese universities. According to their responses to 15 questions, their learning purposes were classified into four categories: (a) self-growth or development, (b) social needs in the future, (c) school requirements, and (d) pressure from family or from competition with friends. The reading strategies were sorted into three main groups: (i) confirming comprehension, (ii) leveraging prior knowledge and utilizing information, and (iii) finding key words and grasping key points, according to 16 questions. We found significant correlations between the strengths of the learning purposes of both (a) self-development and (b) social need and the scores to the frequent use of all three reading strategies. On the other hand, we obtained no remarkable relationship between the purpose of (c) school requirements and the self-judgment on the use of reading strategies in question. The present study, therefore, suggests the importance of students' motivation for self-development in learning and of positive situations in the circumstances for encouraging learning.

INTRODUCTION

Language educators believe that a learning purpose is important for learners. The learning purposes of young adults can be discussed in the context of belief in oneself or a target image in the near future (Nicholls et al., 1984). More studies on the commitment to learning are still expected because learning purposes can vary among individuals and may change or diversify according to the social conditions. The establishment of autonomous learning in reading will not only promote the development of other English skills but also extend the students' possibilities in various academic and business fields with the language skills.

STUDY PURPOSE

In order to know the importance of learning purposes in contemporary classroom situations, this study tried to quantify learning purposes and investigate the relationship between learning purposes and reading strategies.

CATEGORIZING LEARNING PURPOSES

The subjects were 422 students at three four-year universities in Japan in 2017 and 2018. The present study used 15 questions to determine what kinds of learning purposes the students had. English learning purposes are classified into the main four categories: (a) self-growth or development, (b) social needs in the future, (c) following school curricula where English was mandatory for three or four semesters, and (d) mental pressure from family members who support the student financially or from competition or comparison with friends (Ichikawa, 1995). The scores obtained were converted into points from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 1, which is tentatively called "purpose strength."

GROUPING READING STRATEGIES

The present study adopted the grouping of reading strategies: (a) reading carefully for accurate interpretation and self-checking comprehension, (b) leveraging prior knowledge and utilizing

information presented in the passage, and (c) finding key words and grasping key points. The subjects answered 16 questions, and the scores were summed up within each group.

Learning Purpose Results

As a result, the purpose of social needs in the future (2) collected the most responses, and the purpose of self-development (1) showed the highest average scoring point. Figure 1 shows the distribution of purpose strength of the strongest learning purpose.

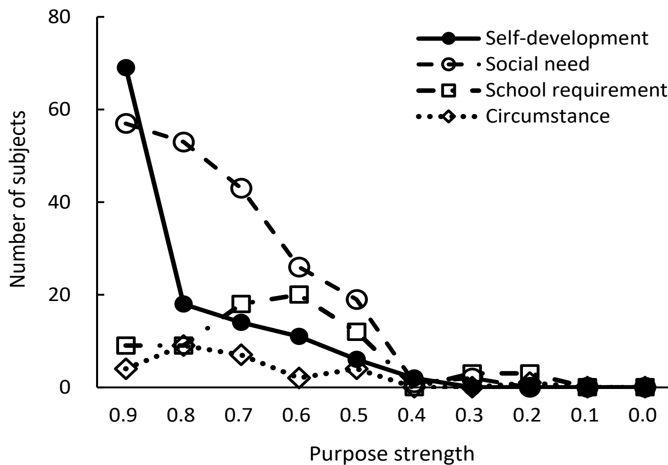

Figure 1. Purpose strength distributions of the strongest learning purposes.

Learning Purposes and Reading Strategy Uses

As a whole, the stronger a student's learning purpose was, the greater her/his cognition of reading strategy use was. We found significant positive correlations particularly between the strengths of the learning purpose of self-development (1) and the scores to the frequent use of all three reading strategies. Figure 2 shows the distributions of reading strategy use in the case of the self-development purpose (1). Also, when a student chose the social need purpose (2), the subject seemed to employ the reading strategies slightly more frequently than those with the school requirement purpose (3) and the circumstance purpose (4).

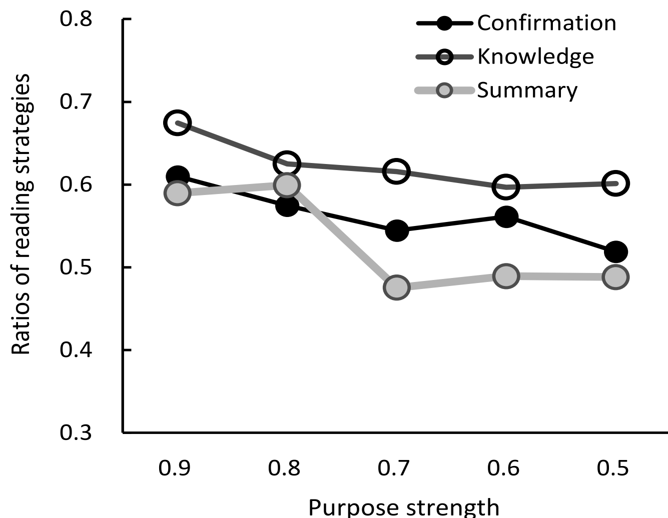

Figure 2. Reading strategy use for the purpose of self-development.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study suggests the importance of (a) both short-term and long-term visions in learning (Husman & Shell, 2008), (b) students' motivation for self-development in learning, and (c) positive situations in one's life circumstances for encouraging learning.

NEED FOR FURTHER STUDY

The learning purposes were not described with the intention of offering concrete plans. Only 16 questions on reading strategies were used in the present survey (Matsumoto et al., 2013). There should be additional items in reading strategies because the strategies concerning understanding can vary greatly among individuals and situations.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study investigated the English learning purposes and reading strategies of 422 students in three Japanese universities. We found significant correlations between the strengths of the learning purposes of both self-development and future necessities at business or in communities and the scores to the frequent use of all three reading strategies. The present study therefore suggests the importance of the student's motivation for self-development in learning, positive situations in the circumstances for learning, and the facilitation of the student's autonomous learning for their long-term self-fulfillment.

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Developing Students' English Essay Writing Fluency and Confidence Through Freewriting

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INTRODUCTION

English is a second language for most Filipinos. An individual Filipino is trained to use this language in schools from their early childhood education to tertiary levels. Despite the years of learning experiences on the use of the language, using it properly is still a challenge for many Filipino students.

Among the macro skills in communication, writing is perhaps the most complex and takes the most time to master (Sharma, 2018). Hence, developing writing fluency using a second language could be a great challenge. Atasoy and Temizkan (2016) defined fluent writing as the act of writing the maximum number of language units in a short period of time while also paying attention to accuracy, the coherent and consistent organization of ideas within the text, and the usage of words and sentence in a complex manner. Under this premise, this study aimed to determine the effectiveness of utilizing guided freewriting in developing fluency and confidence of Grade 12 humanities and social science students at Governor Juanito Reyes Remulla Senior High School (GJRRSHS) in the city of Imus, Philippines.

ACTION RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study primarily investigated the effectiveness of guided freewriting in developing students' English essay writing fluency and confidence. Specifically, it sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of fluency in the quantity dimension (words per minute – WPM) of the participants in English essay writing before and after employing guided freewriting?
2. Is there a significant difference between the pre- and post-guided freewriting WPM?
3. What is the quality dimension level of fluency of the participants in English essay writing in their pre- and post-guided freewriting outputs?
4. Is there a significant difference between the pre- and post-guided freewriting outputs' scores in the quality (organization, content, language use, and mechanics)?
5. What is the level of confidence of the participants in English essay writing before and after employing guided freewriting?
6. Is there a significant difference in the confidence level of the participants in English essay writing before and after employing guided freewriting?

METHODS

Participants to this study were randomly selected 30 grade school 12 senior high school students of GJRRSHS during the second semester of the school year 2017–18. Data on their English essay writing fluency were gathered by evaluating their essay outputs wherein guided freewriting was employed.

The instrument used to determine the effectiveness of guided freewriting in developing students' English essay writing fluency in the quality dimension was adopted from Weir (1990) as cited by Hwang (2010). To determine the effectiveness of guided freewriting in developing the English

writing confidence of the students, the researchers devised a self-made instrument with a four-point Likert scale.

A schedule was set for data gathering so as not to disrupt classes after securing a permission from the school head. The creative writing teacher of the section was informally interviewed to determine the writing strategies that she utilized in teaching essay writing. It was found out that guided freewriting was used in some of the writing activities in the class. She was able to tell which essays titles were produced using guided freewriting. To validate this, the researchers interviewed three students from the class who supposedly wrote essays using guided freewriting. The pretest outputs included the essays that the students wrote without the guided freewriting technique. They were given 15 minutes to write an essay on a topic given by the teacher. They were allowed to pause and edit their work during the time allotted. After 15 minutes, they were given another 15 minutes to write their final draft. The posttest outputs were the same topics as they did in the pretest, the previous day. This time, students were asked to write without pausing and editing their works for 15 minutes, after which they were also given 15 minutes to write their final draft. The two final outputs were compared as to quantity and quality.

The WPM of the outputs were determined by counting each word written during the pretest and posttest activities. Data were tabulated using excel. A paired *t*-test was used to determine the difference in their WPM before and after applying guided freewriting as well as the pretest and posttest scores in the quality dimension (organization, content, language use, and mechanics). They were described using cross tabulation. Descriptive statistics using mean gain was employed to determine the effect of guided freewriting to the confidence of the students.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study revealed the following:

1. WPM before and after employing guided freewriting in each essay is shown in Table 1. It can be gleaned that the posttest WPM in all of the outputs are higher than the pretest WPM. A significant increase can be concluded using a 95% level of confidence.

Table 1. Cross Tabulation of Pretest and Posttest WPM

	Output No. 1		Output No. 2		Output No. 3	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Mean	4.37	5.01	4.25	5.25	4.53	5.54
SD	1.48	1.64	1.59	1.56	1.61	2.01
Min	2.20	2.73	1.60	2.73	2.13	3.00
Max	7.00	8.93	6.80	8.87	8.37	11.60
Significance	$t(29) = -3.713$ $p < .05$ Significant difference		$t(29) = -3.472$ $p < .05$ Significant difference		$t(29) = -3.472$ $p < .05$ Significant difference	

2. The fluency level of the participants before and after employing guided freewriting are shown in Table 2. With a 95% level of confidence, the average scores of the post-freewriting outputs are higher in all of the components of the quality dimensions used in this study. There is a significant difference in the pretest and posttest scores.

TABLE 2. Cross Tabulation of the Pretest and Posttest Fluency (Quality Dimension)

	Output 1 No. 3								Output No. 2								Output No. 3							
	Organi-zation		Content		Lang. Use		Mecha-nics		Organi-zation		Content		Lang.		Mecha-nics		Organi-zation		Content		Lang. Use		Mecha-nics	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
μ	14.17	15.63	7.07	8.07	9.17	10.43	3.23	4.40	14.57	16.0	7.00	8.10	7.80	10.17	3.20	4.27	14.83	16.30	7 .00	8.00	9.17	10.27	3.20	4.27
σ	2.34	1.97	0.87	0.58	0.75	0.73	0.50	0.50	1.76	1.16	0.53	0.61	0.71	0.65	0.48	0.45	1.34	1.37	0.53	0.37	0.70	0.64	0.48	0.45
t	-4.085		-4.629		-4.826		-5.00		-4.900		-5.032		-5.164		-5.060		-4.982		-4.743		-4.533		-5.060	
	t(29) = -4.085, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -4.629, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -4.846, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -5.000, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -4.900, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -5.032, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -5.164, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -5.060,p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -4.982,p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -4.743,p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -4.533,p < .05 Signifi-cant difference		t(29) = -5.06, p < .05 Signifi-cant difference	

Note. df = 29; α = 0.05; critical value = 2.045.

3. The confidence level of the participants before and after employing guided freewriting is shown in Table 3. Using mean gain, students' confidence that they can organize ideas significantly increased with a mean gain of 1.07 in a four-point Lickert scale. Students' confidence that they can give clear and coherent ideas has a mean gain of 1.20. In terms of language use, students' confidence level increased by 1.03. Moreover, students became more confident that they can observe writing mechanics with a mean gain of 1.14 confidence level. Finally, when asked for their level of confidence in writing good essays about familiar topics, the pretest and posttest mean revealed a difference of 0.97, telling of a significant difference.

TABLE 3. Descriptive Statistics of the Confidence Level of the Participants

	Confidence in organizing ideas			Confidence in giving clear and coherent content			Confidence that appropriate language will be used			Confidence that mechanics will be observed			Confidence in writing good essays about familiar topics		
	Be-fore	Af-ter	μ Gain	Be-fore	Af-ter	μ Gain	Be-fore	Af-ter	μ Gain	Be-fore	Af-ter	μ Gain	Be-fore	Af-ter	μ Gain
μ	2.60	3.67	1.07	2.63	3.67	1.20	2.80	3.83	1.03	2.63	3.77	1.14	2.73	3.70	0.97
Σ	0.60	0.61		0.61	0.48		0.61	0.38		0.61	0.43		0.64	0.47	
	$t(29) = -4.619$ $p < .05$ Significant Difference			$t(29) = -4.727$ $p < .05$ Significant Difference			$t(29) = -4.964$ $p < .05$ Significant Difference			$t(29) = -4.907$ $p < .05$ Significant Difference			$t(29) = -4.529$ $p < .05$ Significant Difference		

CONCLUSION

This study concludes that guided freewriting develops the writing fluency of students in English essay writing, both in the quality and quantity dimensions. WPM of students will improve by letting them write non-stop for a given short period of time without too much emphasis on grammatical accuracy. Moreover, guided freewriting improves the confidence of the students in writing English essays in terms of organization of idea, cohesion of the content, use of language, mechanics, and writing good English essays about familiar topics.

Following the findings of this study, the researchers recommend that guided freewriting be used more often in English essay writing activities. Furthermore, teachers of English employing guided

freewriting for their students' essays should coach other teachers of learning areas using English as the medium of instruction. This way, English writing fluency could be integrated in the students' subjects; thus, developing their English writing skill further. Nevertheless, essay writing is done not only in language-related classes but in almost all other classes as well. The researchers also recommend more research to be conducted in order to validate the findings of this study.

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Needs Analysis of the English Up-Grading of Two Different Stakeholders

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This study was an effort to examine the extent to which the English up-grading of the non-English teachers and staff of State Islamic University, Malang Indonesia (SIUM) matches its stakeholders' needs. These stakeholders include the non-English teachers and staff who took a month-long English up-grading at Indonesia–Australia Language Foundation (IALF). It compares the results from classroom observations and teacher and staff interviews and surveys, there by exploring English needs from various perspectives in order to gain an overall understanding. The findings of the present study confirm previous research about the multiple roles of English used by the two different stakeholders. The results of the analysis of the two cohorts of stakeholders at SIUM see English as fulfilling several goals that need to be addressed in international relationships and one's future career: writing journal publications, using English in teaching, and using English for service excellence. It implies that there is a need to strengthen stakeholders' English practical ability and to strengthen the overall intercultural quality toward their real English usability.

Background and Purpose

During recent years, English has increasingly become important for learning many subjects, especially at the university level, which relies to a great extent on textbooks written in English. In other words, English serves as a language of learning and a window on the world of science and technology. The English up-grading that is offered to the faculty members of the State Islamic University of Malang (SIUM) began with some assumptions rather than being based on a needs analysis.

A needs analysis (NA) plays a vital role in the process of designing, developing, and implementing any course, whether it be English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or general English courses or others (Hamp-Lyons, 2001; Finney, 2002). Leki (2003) further suggests that English courses are more beneficial if the goals reach beyond class assessment towards the real and future needs of learners and other stakeholders. In line with this, the purpose of this study is to gather information on the needs of faculty members of SIUM for learning English and to identify the most fundamental needs of faculty members for learning English.

Survey Methods and Results

The survey method is frequently used to collect descriptive data (Borg & Ball, 1979). They stated further that surveys are used simply to collect information. The aim of using the survey method is to get the fullest and most authentic description of the field of study. The participants were 9 academic staff and 6 staff who answered what reasons and skills are needed for learning English. Faculty members from diverse discipline were chosen in order to get information about the needs of their learning English.

Teachers

For the purpose of this study, there were 9 teachers involved in the English up-grading at IALF Bali, Indonesia. Each teacher in a department is usually assigned to teach in their area of expertise and to teach in more than one language. The teachers consisted of the key policymakers from the various

faculties. They varied in their teaching experience, academic qualifications, their English backgrounds, and overseas experience.

Faculty Staff

The potential group from which this sample was drawn consisted of 6 staff working in bachelor degree programs. The sample was taken from all faculty staff. At the time of the study the majority were of the age range 30–40 years. They are categorized into two different types of workers. Two of them were part-time and four were full-time staff (civil government). Four had master's qualifications either from Indonesia or from overseas and two had a bachelor's qualification.

The instrument for collecting the data about the teachers' needs in learning English is a questionnaire. In developing the questionnaire, the writer refers to factual information gathered from the writer's observation. The questionnaire consists of items regarding English instruction and what their needs are for that instruction.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the result of data findings about target needs, it was found that the respondents need English up-grading due to the demand of the target situation that is the program of the university toward becoming a world-class university. The respondents realize that English up-grading is very important to help them in supporting their study and future career because English is beneficial for every aspect of their career. They claimed that speaking and writing are the two most important media that will be used in their international networking and journal publication.

The most dominant needs of the respondents related to the target needs toward learning English showed that eight respondents (88.9%) claimed to develop their career, to teach their subject matter in English, and to widen International relationship. In line with this, they had to join this program to fulfill the university demand to reach the level of World-Class University (WCU). Almost all of the respondents – six respondents (66.6%) of the total of 9 respondents – answered in the questionnaire that they chose speaking as the major skill they needed to master immediately. They also stated that speaking and writing were the most dominant media that would be used in their future career. Meanwhile, the majority among the six respondents of faculty staff, four of them (66.7%) claimed that learning English provided them with the skill of service excellence that they believed would improve their life opportunities. Only two of the respondents (33.3%) stated that they needed English for overseas training and scholarship.

Considering all facts found in the needs survey, the faculty members needed speaking skills as the priority subject to be stressed for their routine activities in academic matters. In line with this, the respondents are required to develop their language skills after finishing the course; they should be able to understand oral English that takes the form of explanations, statements, questions, and instructions. Further, they should be able to express themselves in oral communication as they often converse with colleagues, visitors, professional activities, and people in general. Thus, this implies that the speaking skill has a prominent place among the target respondents toward their work activities, compared with listening, reading, and writing.

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Using Technology in an English Speaking and Listening Class of Mongolian Learners

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The study aims to investigate how effective a technology-based teaching method is in English speaking and listening class through conducting a case study from students who have taken the course, and it explores students' satisfaction with technology-based teaching. In order to find answers to the research questions directed in line with the overall purpose of the study, the qualitative research method was applied. The research data were collected via Google Drive. The data collected in the study were gathered under two main themes depending on open-ended questions directed to the teachers regarding technology use and on the related literature. The results of the case study showed that most of the students prefer the use of technology, especially the Internet, in developing their second language skills. However, it seems that some websites don't actually develop their speaking and listening skills. Through this practical study, we suggest the drawbacks and limitations of the current English language learning tools and conclude with certain suggestions and recommendations.

CONTEXTS AND PARTICIPANTS

Our English language class is a mix of students having different nationalities, gender, exposure, language levels, and family backgrounds. Teaching all those students with one curriculum is tough for us as language teachers, so the curriculum and lesson plans needed to be adopted to the students' needs while bringing innovations into our teaching methods. We have many ways to enrich the lesson with the world of technology: computers, English language learning websites, computer-assisted language learning programs and blogs, electronic dictionaries, PowerPoint, Prezi, and mobile apps. In order to assess how typical English language classroom students can reap benefits from technology, especially websites, to learn English as a second language, and how satisfied they are with use of the Internet, a questionnaire form was used. Forty-five (45) sophomore students in the Department of British and American Studies at the National University of Mongolia were involved in the questionnaire. Their English language level was upper-intermediate according to the curriculum.

FINDINGS

The collected results showed that half of the students use the Internet 4–5 times a day while there was no one who doesn't use the Internet. Twenty-four percent (24%) said they used it every single hour, while another 24% answered they surf the Internet 1–2 times a day. It shows that they have no problem with Internet usage. Most students agreed that Internet-based teaching can be more effective than the conventional teaching method.

Twenty percent (20%) of the students said their English language speaking and listening skill has not been improved much during class time while 40% of them answered their level was greatly increased with the help of the internet usage during class time.

Eighty percent (80%) of the students responded that using the Internet during the lesson time is much more fun. In other words, it showed that students' motivation to learn the language was high.

The question "Do you pay much more attention to the lesson when the Internet is used?" was answered 50:50, which showed that the deviation was high. Therefore, it is hard to conclude. Eighty percent (80%) of the respondants said that it saves time if the Internet is used.

We can conclude that most students showed a positive attitude towards Internet usage while teaching the speaking and listening skills.

Eighty percent (80%) of the students said that they were satisfied with the lessons taught with interesting websites and programs.

Ninty percent (90%) of the respondents answered that their vocabulary can be enriched with the help of the Internet. Accumulating all those responses given above, we can conclude that almost all students are eager to use the Internet and are completely satisfied with it.

The students said that websites such as Kahoot, TED Talks, IELTS Online Tests, and IELTS Liz can develop both listening and speaking skills. In other words, they evaluated those websites equally, but TED Talks, and IELTS Liz showed much high satisfaction. Kahoot was the lowest.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Using technology in learning a second language has become a real necessity nowadays. This article has reviewed briefly how technology can be utilized in developing the language skills of the learner. The case study was also carried out to estimate the acceptability of some students for the utilization of technology to enhance their language skills. The results of the case study showed that most students prefer the use of technology, especially the Internet, in developing their second language skills. However, it seems that some websites don't actually develop their speaking and listening skills.

We can record the following concluding remarks and recommendations:

- As technology has developed, the incorporation of this medium into the instruction process becomes necessary.
- By using modern technology, theory and practice in second language learning can be matched together.
- We should follow the modern technical ways for effective learning and teaching of a second language.
- English language teachers should encourage their students to use technology in developing their language skills.
- Educational institutions should modernize their technical instruction capabilities by using new equipment and laboratories for supporting the teaching process.

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Grammar Pedagogy in Primary Schools

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INTRODUCTION

Ten years down my education journey, and as a student-teacher now in 2018, I was introduced to various grammar pedagogical approaches in my undergraduate teacher education. Informed by research-based and proven strategies and instructional methods, as well as debates over how grammar should be taught, I reflected upon the Singapore's English language (EL) education system that I was educated in and thought of how that would affect me in my professional preparation as a primary school EL teacher.

Is there a grammar for teaching grammar? There seems to be no undisputed answer as yet to this question. The debate over the type of grammar teaching approach – prescriptive or descriptive, deductive or inductive, whether the pedagogical focus should be on forms, form, or meanings, or even to teach or not to teach grammar – has been ongoing. Almost two decades ago, Borg (1999) recognized these "ill-defined domains" in grammar teaching (p. 157). In the face of these uncertain controversies pertaining to the teaching and learning of grammar, there is a need to examine (a) the educational context in which pedagogical grammar is situated and (b) the grammar pedagogy adopted by EL teachers, who personally may hold a set of perceptions about grammar teaching and learning.

This study is be guided by the following questions:

- How is grammar being taught in the EL classrooms in Singapore?
- Why is grammar taught the way it currently is?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ellis (2006) recognized that there are many approaches to grammar teaching, and it should not be limited to any one way when defining what constitutes grammar teaching. This broader definition reflects the ongoing debate surrounding grammar pedagogy. Hence, grammar pedagogy involves, but is not restricted or mutually exclusive of, the following: (a) massed or distributed, (b) intensive or extensive, (c) explicit or implicit, (d) deductive or inductive, (e) focus on forms, form, or meaning. Recognizing these contended issues on grammar pedagogies, Ellis (2006) thus concluded that it "is important to recognize what options are available, what the theoretical rationales for these options are, and what problems there are with these rationales" (p. 103).

ASSESSING THE LOCAL EDUCATION LANDSCAPE

Singapore's English Language Syllabus (Ministry of Education, 2010) explicitly states that possessing a strong grammar foundation "will enable pupils to use the language accurately, fluently, and appropriately for different purposes, audiences, contexts, and cultures" (p. 81). The great value placed on grammar by the Singapore's primary education system is coupled with the national literacy reform program (i.e., STELLAR), implemented since 2010.

Methods

Four primary school EL teachers with an average of about 18 years in the education fraternity, teaching primary EL, ranging from lower- to middle- and upper-primary, were asked to participate in the study, through purposeful sampling (Patton, 2002). This study adopted a case study approach: an in-depth analysis of a phenomenon within the boundaries of an EL department in a particular school in Singapore. Two research tools were used in this case study: a questionnaire and an interview.

Materials

The questionnaire, adapted and modified from Burgess and Etherington (2002), sought to provide insights into the teachers' beliefs on the role of grammar, how students should learn, and some challenges faced by teachers and students. This current study followed up the questionnaire with an interview based on the questionnaire responses. The interview provided greater depth in understanding each unique case study presented by the individual teachers. The semi-structured interview allowed the teachers to share their personal views and challenges with their grammar pedagogy with respect to their school profile, the level(s) taught, and the class of students. The interview thus aims to uncover the link between the teachers' language awareness and their instructional practices in the EL classroom, in relation to the EL syllabus, teaching resources, and finally, the EL education landscape in Singapore.

Analysis: Findings and Discussion

How is grammar being taught in the EL classrooms in Singapore?

1. **Contextualized presentation of grammar with STELLAR**
   From the teachers' responses, it seems that STELLAR has a dominant presence in primary language classrooms, for a meaningful and contextualized presentation of grammar items. All the teachers narrated their typical EL lesson by introducing the lesson with reading and comprehending the set STELLAR text, before capitalizing on the text to work on language features such as vocabulary or grammar.
2. **Grammar is explicitly taught with metalanguage**
   Grammar items, rules, forms, examples, and exceptions are explicitly conveyed to students in their grammar lessons. The teachers saw the need for students' conscious knowledge of grammar for language learning and improvement, employing metalanguage to discuss the target grammar features.
3. **Grammar is taught with language production**
   Grammar comes in different language components and skills, and the meaning made in the production of language sits on the use of grammar in terms of viewing with listening and reading, and representing through speaking and writing.
4. **Practice through a worksheet culture**
   Grammar taught in class is said to be reinforced with practice through worksheets to emphasize the target item, and this follow-up is preparation for the examination.

Why is grammar being taught the way it currently is?

1. **Grammar teaching is spearheaded by policies and resources**
   The teachers spoke favorably of the 2010 EL Syllabus and STELLAR, which provided teachers with "more focus than before, [and] an overview of the progression," in the mastery of language skills.
2. **Grammar teaching is informed by the teachers' perceptions of the role of grammar**
   It was inferred that teachers presented a strong belief that grammar plays a central role in language. It was also gleaned from the surveys that the teachers perceived that grammar holds a communicative role. This supports why grammar was being taught with language production, together with the viewing and representing skills
3. **Grammar teaching for the examination**
   Worksheets are hence commonly perceived by these teachers as platforms for error correction after the practice of structures. There seems to be a strong link between the belief in grammar practice with worksheets and preparation for the examination. This could stem from a possible belief in adopting a practice-oriented grammar learning through worksheet practice was a beneficial preparation towards the language examinations at the end. Despite this slant towards practice for the examination, a dilemma between this approach and adopting other grammar pedagogies was gleaned.
4. **Grammar teaching is guided by teachers' experiences as a student and a teacher**
   Teachers recalled that when they were schooling, grammar items are taken out of context and taught separately – the "drill-and-practice" fashion. As the teachers have a wealth of experience teaching the language, they moved on to share their teaching experiences as trainee teachers, comparing the materials and syllabi over the years, and how this experience might have shaped their grammar pedagogy with EL syllabus 2010 and STELLAR.
5. **Grammar teaching varies with teachers' perceptions of students' learning abilities and preferences**
   The recall of anecdotes shared by the teachers showed their consideration of students' entry point prior to the language lesson shows that teachers adopt different strategies due to the unique profile of their students (e.g., Grammar Monopoly game designed by students, grammar games, inductive teaching etc.).

Redefining Grammar Pedagogy in Singapore's Primary Schools

Acknowledging that policies seem to have an overarching influence on the grammar pedagogical voice of the teacher, the education system could explore the advantages of implicit grammar learning and weave in such an approach to encourage language teachers to adopt it in their language teaching as well. It would be an avenue for students to build their bank of subconscious grammar knowledge, which would be further enhanced with the successes in the recommended explicit grammar instructions with metalanguage.

Is there a grammar for teaching grammar? This research hence answers that "yes, maybe" there is a grammar for teaching grammar, and this lies in the teacher and the teacher's clear understanding of what is in the syllabus, the teaching experiences accumulated, and most importantly, the grammar and language needs of the students, where this grammar for teaching grammar has to be closely catered and customized to the teachers' understanding of these.

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Using Interactive Mobile Devices to Enhance TOEIC Vocabulary Learning

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In this study, TOEIC vocabulary learning were integrated with video lectures on ilearn platform, interactive practice, tests, game-based learning activities, and self-evaluation checklist. A one-month experiment was conducted to determine the effectiveness of the mobile device on vocabulary development, digital learning engagement, and teacher-student interactions. We also measured 50 recruited student preferences for utilization of the various mobile devices in blending learning environment. Data were collected on the iLearn platform, Kahoot, and in-class performance. Two results were found. Students' learning motivation and vocabulary expansion were promoted with mobile device learning. The smart phone was the students' first choice for mobile device learning. This paper adds to the body of pedagogical conclusions.

INTRODUCTION

Interactive mobile device learning can be used to facilitate self-directed learning as well as to provide for teaching assessment. These devices can also be used to supplement interactive testing and course feedback collection. Platform learning courses with a test, game-based learning, and the interactive programs have been highlighted as a common tool for promoting teacher–student interaction in several studies (Pesare, Roselli, Corriero, & Rossano, 2016; Hirumi, 2002). Students' motivation and their retention on the mobile learning programs could be promoted when the target mobile learning programs were implemented into the blending learning environment (Manwaring, Larsen, Graham, Henrie, & Halverson, 2017). In Saha and Sing's study (2016), the result showed that online learning and game-based learning could "foster learners' interest in language learning but also help to teach new items, practice language forms, and revise what has been leaned before to speed up learners' pace of language acquisition" (p. 12).

An experiment was conducted to determine the effectiveness of the mobile device on vocabulary development, digital learning engagement, and teacher–student interactions. We also measured student preferences for utilization of the various mobile devices in blending learning environment.

METHOD

In this experiment, TOEIC vocabulary learning was integrated with four video lectures on the iLearn platform, interactive practice, tests, game-based learning activities, and a self-evaluation checklist. Students were asked to learn TOEIC vocabulary on the iLearn platform on their own. The full program included four online lectures. Each lecture contained two video lectures, a lecture test, and a self-evaluation questionnaire. The length of each video lecture was 20 minutes. TOEIC vocabulary would be introduced in the first video lecture. Interactive TOEIC practice would be shown in the second video lecture. A test explanation film was provided as a student supplementary resource. Students were given a week to complete one video lecture. The teacher used Kahoot, an interactive mobile learning program, to test students' recognition and comprehension of the TOEIC vocabulary on one video lecture in class right after the students completed one lecture.

Sixty students were recruited from a junior college in the north of Taiwan. Ten students could not complete all the course requirements. Thus, the valid data was from fifty students. Fifty students used different mobile devices to learn the TOEIC English vocabulary words during one month. These students used their smartphones, laptops, or tablets in the classroom and at home.

Data were collected on the iLearn platform, Kahoot, or Quizlet and in-class performance. Qualitative data were obtained from the students' assignments, in-class performance, and participation. Quantitative measurements were obtained through statistical analysis of students' tests, immediate feedback, questionnaires, a learning engagement questionnaire, and learning progress on mobile devices.

RESULTS

Two results were found. Students' learning motivation and vocabulary expansion were promoted with mobile device learning. We are also able to demonstrate that the smartphone is the students' first choice for mobile device learning. Students rated the smartphones' convenience, portability, and multimedia support capabilities superior to the other electronic device choices.

CONCLUSION

Students showed a positive reaction to the TOEIC video lectures and mobile devices when the teachers integrated TOEIC video lectures and mobile devices into in-class TOEIC vocabulary learning.

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EFL Learners' Perceptions of Developing L2 Proficiency Through Debate

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INTRODUCTION

Debate has long been regarded as an active learning strategy to promote critical thinking and creativity (Walker, 2003), and to reach academic success (American Debate League, 2018). For L2 learners, debate is believed to expand vocabulary, enhance grammar accuracy, facilitate speaking fluency, and develop sociolinguistic appropriateness (Brown et al., 2014). Due to the interactive and impromptu nature of debate, requirements of cognitive and linguistic capabilities for debate participants are demanding. For foreign language learners who develop their critical thinking in a L1 environment but are required to form arguments in L2 classroom, they may perceive debating more difficult when compared with other speaking activities such as chatting and discussion. Though students' perception toward task difficulty may influence learning outcome (e.g., Syukri, 2016), rarely have studies covered learners' affective factors, i.e., whether EFL learners have enough confidence to perform debate, or whether they are affected by anxiety and the tension of speaking in public.

The present study aims to explore EFL learners' perceptions of learning L2 through debating in class. The perceived learning outcomes are twofold: first is the effect on language ability, and second the effect on critical thinking development. In addition, the perceived affective influences are also two-fold: the motivation and the desire for collaboration. Note that perceived public speaking anxiety is investigated separately, considering that anxiety is too vague in nature and is difficult to measure, and thus should be treated sparingly.

The research questions are as follows:

1. What are the EFL learners' perceptions on the learning outcomes?
2. What are the EFL learners' perceptions on the affective influences?
3. How does learning through debate influence EFL learners' level of public speaking anxiety?

METHOD

Participants and Background

A total of 33 EFL students from a university in Taiwan participated. They were English majors in their junior and senior year. The estimated English proficiency level of these students is intermediate to high-intermediate level. These students took an elective course called Speech and Debate. They were told in their first class that they would hold a debate competition with a group of students from another Taiwanese university at the end of the semester. During the first half of the semester they were trained to give informative speeches; the trainings included speaking styles and visual supports. Then they spent another half of the semester learning verbal delivery skills and negotiation skills. The rules and procedures of debate were given to students of both schools through video conferencing to ensure fairness; all students received the same instruction on debate.

Instrument

Self-survey. A five-point Likert-scale survey was developed to investigate the perceived learning outcomes and affective influences. The total of twenty-two (22) statements were designed to survey the students' perception of language abilities (4 items), critical thinking (5 items), motivation (5 questions), collaboration (5 questions), the general opinion (3 questions). The students were asked to evaluate their level of agreement on the scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Personal Report on Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA). The PRPSA survey designed by McCroskey (1970) was adopted to measure the students' public speaking anxiety. The PRPSA has been used frequently in studies carried out in EFL contexts (e.g., Chen, 2009; Hsu, 2012) and thus was regarded as suitable for the study. The students were asked to rate on a five-point Likert scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), to indicate their level of agreement on each statement. Following the assigned calculation formula, the total score should fall between 34 and 170. The anxiety level is considered high if the score is above 131, low if below 98, and moderate if score is between 98 and 131.

Results

Results of the Self-Survey

The results of the self-survey indicate a positive impression on the students' perception of learning through debate. The lowest mean of the 33 participating students was 3.8, while the highest was 4.5. Table 1 reports the mean of each category, suggesting that critical thinking ability ($M = 4.14$) was perceived to be the greatest gain in the learning process, compared to language ability ($M = 3.93$), motivation ($M = 3.93$), and collaboration ($M = 3.99$). The mean of general evaluation on the debate learning was 4.14, indicating high satisfaction of such learning experience.

Table 1. Results of Mean of Statements in Each Category

Category (Number of Statements)	Learning Outcomes		Affective Influence		General Opinion (3)
	Language Ability (4)	Critical Thinking (5)	Motivation (5)	Collaboration (5)	
Mean	3.93	4.14	3.93	3.99	4.14

Results of the PRPSA

The PRPSA score indicates the level of perceived anxiety of public speaking: the lower the score, the lower the level of anxiety. A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the PRPSA scores before and after the debate. The results are reported in Table 2. There was a significant difference in the scores on the pretest ($M = 120.24$, $SD = 17.26$) and on the posttest ($M = 109.88$, $SD = 15.19$), $t(32) = 1.69$, $p < .00$. The results suggest that anxiety was reduced after running the debates.

Table 2. Comparison of the PRPSA Scores Before and After the Debate

	n	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*
Pre-PRPSA	33	120.24	17.26	32	1.69	.00***
Post-PRPSA	33	109.88	15.19			

FINDINGS

1. The students agreed that they can argue more effectively by spotting weaknesses in an argument and by supporting their own viewpoints with evidence. The findings confirm that debate is as beneficial for critical thinking development in language subject as in other subjects like science (Scott, 2008).
2. The listening skill (M = 4.1) ranked the highest compared with the reading skill (3.8), vocabulary (3.9), and speaking (4.0). Debate is a type of communication in which understanding arguments of the other side of an issue is necessary for rebuttal. The interactive nature of debate results in meaningful listening (Krieger, 2005).
3. The results may suggest that the competitive spirit comes from the urge to be better than others, particularly those from different communities. Students agreed that debating students from another school increased their motivation to improve their speaking ability (M = 4.1) slightly more than debating their own classmates (M = 4.0).
4. Comparing to the motivation driven by the desire to win, the present study shows that the desire to collaborate and the appreciation of collaboration (M = 3.99) were rated higher than motivation driven by competitiveness (M = 3.93). Though competition brings greater situational interest and enjoyment, collaboration is found to lead to stronger intentions to participate in the activity and to recommend it to others (Plass et al., 2013).
5. Overall, the students rated quite high in the statements related to debate. They were glad to learned how to debate (M = 4.5), showing a high level of satisfaction of the learning experience.
6. The PRPSA showed that the students' public speaking anxiety level was significantly lower after the debate training, suggesting that, after learning through debate, the anxiety of speaking in public was reduced.

CONCLUSION

Findings of the study confirm the positive value of debate in developing L2 proficiency from various perspectives. The participants reported perceived improvements in language ability and critical thinking, and became more motivated, driven by competition and collaboration. The experience gave them high degree of self-fulfillment and thus led to a high level of satisfaction. Therefore, an extensive use of debate in EFL classrooms is recommended.

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Implementing Self-Access Language Learning to L2 Conversation Course Curriculum

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This study attempts to implement self-access language learning (SALL) in the curriculum, in the hope to increase learners' motivation in learning English and promoting learners' speaking fluency. SALL is an approach that assists learners in shifting from teacher dependence to learner autonomy (Gardner & Miller, 1999). Two intact classes, forty students each, underwent a crossover design, in which both classes prepared their own projects of SALL, including the methodological package of enhancing speaking ability. Conventional teacher-directed instruction was implemented as a comparative control group to detect the effectiveness of SALL. The result reveals that there is a significant difference between SALL and conventional methods in terms of speaking fluency by using rubrics for evaluation. A self-check motivation questionnaire also produced higher scores than the conventional one.

Introduction

Speaking and writing are regarded as "productive skills" compared to reading and listening as "receptive skills." Speaking in second or foreign languages is even more difficult than other skills. In a typical ESL classroom, with a relatively high numbers of learners in Taiwan, it seems to be a demanding work for teachers to push speaking for each one of the learners, not to mention promoting speaking fluency. In addition to a teacher-led conventional way of instruction, such as dialogue practices and information-gap activities, another type of approach can be integrated into the conversation curriculum, which is self-access language learning (SALL). SALL is an approach "which facilitates learners to shift from teacher dependence to learner autonomy" (Gardner & Miller, 1999 p. 8). Other than teacher's direct instruction, a learner has more opportunities to gain control over their learning and to learn to be a more responsible language leaner. In an optimal state of language learning, SALL expects to assist a learner to become an autonomous learner. In accordance with Gardner (2017a), there are five models of SALL: (a) a (physical) self-access center, (b) online self-access, (c) self-access in the classroom, (d) self-access in the course, and (e) hybrids of the above four. To foster autonomy, one of the models has been implemented across the globe is the establishment of self-access learning centers, running in various educational and cultural environments and accompanying in diverse styles of learning (Benson, 2001).

In this study, the implementation of SALL is as in (d), self-access in the course, the so-called "integrated SALL." Within integrated SALL, there are five models: (a) self-access course, (b) course with optional self-access component, (c) course with compulsory non-credit self-access component, (d) course with compulsory credit-earning SALL, and (e) course with homework exercises labelled "self-access" (Gardner, 2017b). In this current study, (d) was adapted to best meet the learners' need and to fit the institutional setting.

Current Research

The current study was designed to enhance learners' speaking ability, raise their willingness into speaking in public, and foster autonomous learning. To this end, two classes of 40 each underwent a

crossover design with two types of treatments, conventional (dialogue practices, mini-roleplays, information-gap activities, etc.) and conventional+SALL (learners' self-learning project in promoting speaking) through an 18-week academic semester. Data were collected from sophomores, distributed as pairs, in an English conversation course in a junior college. Metacognitive strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) were introduced to guide learners' on their self-learning projects in promoting speaking. Learners' speaking performances (i.e., mini-talks) were evaluated via rubrics with reference to their pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, fluency, confidence, and time control by quantitative analysis. Learners' self-learning projects included self-reflection logs (i.e., planning, monitoring, and evaluating records), peer and instructor's feedback, audio-/video-recorded talks were examined by qualitative analysis. A developmental language progress and motivation questionnaire was distributed to understand learners' mental flow in SALL.

RESULTS

The findings show that the conventional+SALL treatment outperformed the conventional one in both classes in terms of speaking performances. The majority of the learners enhanced their speaking skills. Self-reflection logs provided learners with a means to learn how to learn and effectively raise learners' awareness in taking responsibility for their own learning, which is in line with what Lai, Gardner, and Law said about self-access: "diagnosing their learning needs, and finding their own preferred ways of learning and reflecting on their progress" (2013, p. 281). Both peers' and teachers' written or oral feedback help learners monitor their speech productions (voice/video-recording talks) in order to mend their speech flaws and reflect on their leaning progress. The learning developmental flow and motivation questionnaire suggested that with SALL, the more learners take charge of their own learning, the more they perceive themselves to be motivated and autonomous learners. There is a strong correlation between learners' speaking performances and high questionnaire scores.

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A Comparison of the Language Awareness Between Student Teachers in Two Teacher Education Programs

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Introduction

This study aims to examine the teacher language awareness (TLA) of pre-service student teachers from the National Institute of Education (NIE). These student teachers undergo two distinctly different initial teacher preparation (ITP) programs, namely, the Bachelor of Arts/Science (Education) Programme and the Postgraduate Diploma in Education Programme (hereafter referred to as BA/BSc and PGDE, respectively). This study would ascertain if there are any patterns or associations between their levels of language awareness, in relation to grammar, with the ITP programs they are undergoing. The level of TLA teachers possess would determine their knowledge of the language and their preparedness for teaching grammar. This study would also be useful in determining the merits of each NIE ITP program and how it could hone student teachers with the required skills, knowledge, and competencies required of an English language teacher.

Teacher Language Awareness

Teacher language awareness (TLA) is conceptualized as "the knowledge teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively" (Thornbury, 1997). TLA enables the English language (EL) teacher to perform different roles (i.e., language user, analyst, and teacher) successfully. These three roles are outlined as a teacher's ability to use language proficiently (user), recognize how language systems function (analyst), and provide language learning opportunities in the classroom (teacher) (Edge, 1988; Andrews, 2003). Each teacher's language awareness could potentially have a significant impact on one's pedagogical practice. Andrews (2001) emphasizes the importance of a language teacher in being able to reflect on "both her explicit knowledge of the relevant grammar rules and her own communicative use of the grammar item" (p. 77). He posits how the concept of TLA is closely related to a language teacher's communicative language ability (CLA) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), as depicted in Figure 1.

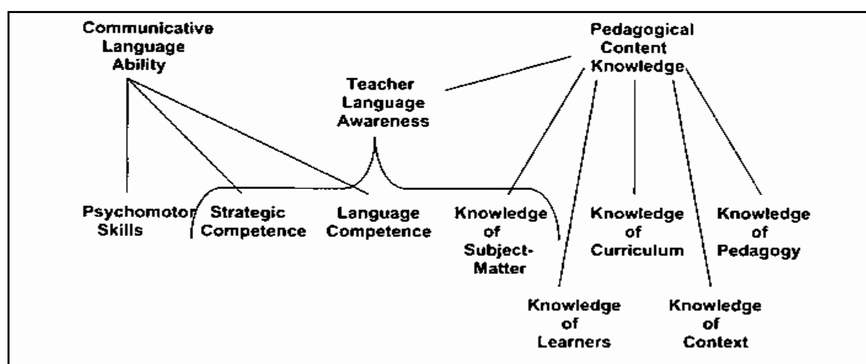
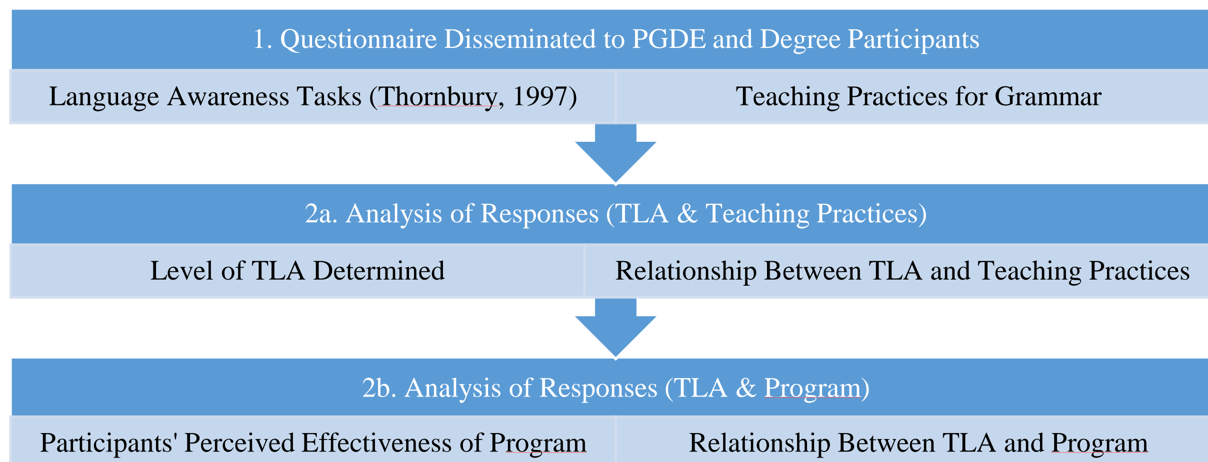


Figure 1: Relationship between Teacher Language Awareness (TLA), Communicative Language Awareness (CLA), and Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK). (Andrews, 2001)

METHODOLOGY



FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Determining Level of Teacher Language Awareness

A teacher's competence in the language and ability to engage students in learning the language affects the style of engagement in the language classroom (Andrews, 2001). The lack of either would imply ineffective teaching and learning of the language. Differing levels of engagement were evident in the participants' responses. Andrews' (2001) model for styles of teacher engagement consists of two continuums: knowledge and awareness (vertical continuum) and engagement (horizontal continuum), as shown in Figure 2.

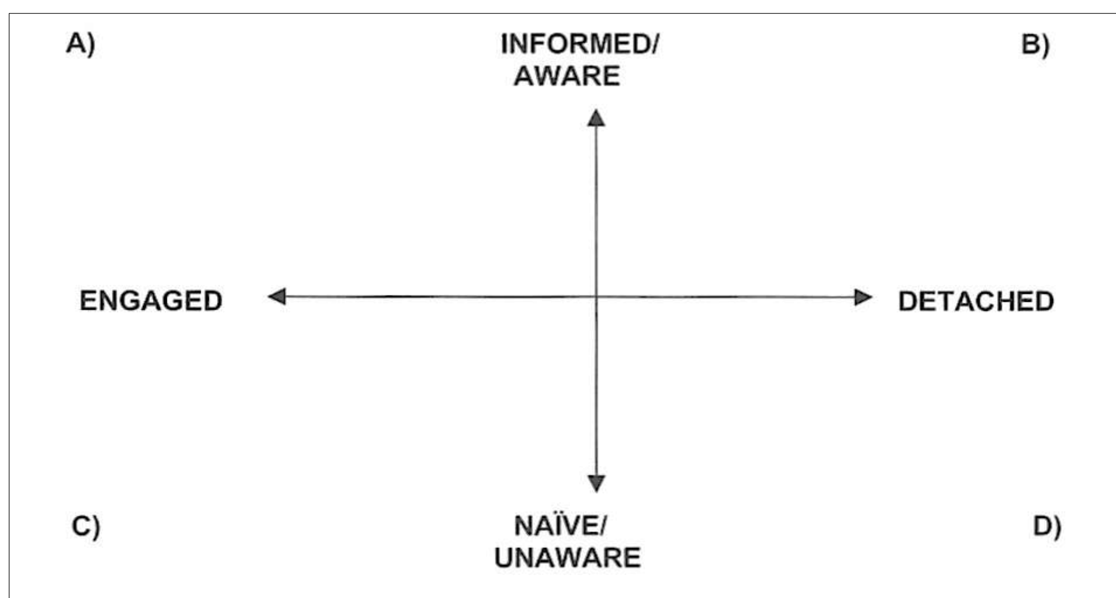


Figure 2. Styles of Teacher Engagement. (Andrews, 2001)

As current studies have yet to establish a specific grading model on levels of TLA, this study classifies the participants into categories derived from Andrews' (2001) conceptualization of the multiple aspects of TLA (see Figure 3).

Level 3: Highest, Most Aware	**Level 2: Average Awareness**	**Level 1: Lowest, Least Aware**
• Level A of Teacher's Engagement • Strong language proficiency as language user, few errors in language or grammar used • Show ability to explain and correct errors by students • Strong sense of confidence to teach grammar	• Level B or C of Teacher's Engagement • Possess several errors in language or grammar used • Less able to explain and correct errors by students • Weaker sense of confidence to teach grammar	• Level D of Teacher's Engagement • Possess many errors in language or grammar used • Show inability to explain and correct errors by students • Little to no confidence to teach grammar

Figure 3. Levels of Teacher Language Awareness.

Relationship Between Teacher Language Awareness and Teaching Practices

The level of TLA possessed by the BA/BSc participants is determined to be higher than that of the PGDE participants, through consideration of how they performed in the language awareness tasks. The teaching practices of the PGDE participants seem to be restricted to the Present-Practice-Produce approach, while degree participants proposed a wider range of practices, drawing relevance to the use of Strategies for English Language Learning and Reading (STELLAR) approaches used in the language classroom (i.e., contextualized grammar teaching with both explicit and incidental elements). Notably, both groups of participants still possess inconsistencies in their knowledge and stances towards grammar. This could be addressed and developed more in the respective programs.

Relationship Between Initial Teacher Preparation Program and Teacher Language Awareness

All participants highly attributed their competence in teaching grammar to their own programs, citing reasons such as the effective provision of hands-on practical experience and feedback from microteaching. Degree participants cited more opportunities in gaining additional experiential knowledge through more practicum experiences and microteaching sessions over the course of their four-year-long program as compared to the PGDE participants. Coincidentally, the latter expressed the need for their program to be longer than 16 months and for more practical experiences be provided to enhance learning.

CONCLUSION

This study has shed light on the teacher language awareness levels of a sample of student teachers from the PGDE and BA/BSc programs at NIE, along with first-hand student perceptions on how each of their ITP programs has contributed to their competence in teaching grammar as a future English language teacher. Participants from both programs highly attributed their competence in teaching grammar to their

respective programs, citing reasons such as the effective provision of hands-on practical experience and feedback from microteaching. Beyond the differences in level of TLA between students of the respective ITP programs, this study essentially provides insight on features of each teacher education program that contribute to teacher preparedness in the area of language teaching: the experiential element and the exposure to more ways of teaching grammar. As the characteristics of each ITP program contribute to a teacher's competence, confidence, and experience, it is critical that this aspect of teacher education and teacher language awareness be explored in future related studies so as to ensure that the missing elements in the PGDE program are addressed.

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The Benefits and Drawbacks of Body-Coda and Synthetic Phonics Approach

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Introduction

Due to the complicated relations between English letters and sounds, some Korean researchers suggest that English phonics should be modified considering the characteristics of conventional Korean word teaching strategy so that learners can use Korean as a tool in English word reading. In English-speaking countries, however, many researchers argue that students need to learn explicitly and systematically how to blend individual phonemes together and synthetic phonics is the more effective way of word reading. Therefore, this study was conducted to examine the effectiveness of phonics instruction with young Korean English learners. The way in which English phonics is approached when teaching Korean learners seems to differ from the way in which phonics is taught to native English-speaking learners due to contrastive differences between the English and the Korean languages. This experiment focused on comparing the benefits and drawbacks of the two approaches by teaching one group of young Korean English language learners (ELLs) using a body-coda approach and another group using a synthetic approach (e.g., /p/, /i/, /n/, pin), which is known as more effective than the analytic approach and widely used to teach English in English-speaking countries.

Participants

The participants of this study were eight first-graders (4 girls and 4 boys) who go to the same elementary school in Suwon, Korea. Most of them were only able to read some alphabet letters. All the children were non-readers prior to phonics instruction. Seven of them had no experience receiving private English education, and one of them had just begun going to an English Academy two months before the experiment. They were randomly divided into two experimental groups: one received a body-coda approach and the other receiving a synthetic phonics approach. Both groups consisted of 2 girls and 2 boys. The average age of the body-coda group was 6 years and 10 months, and for the synthetic group, 7 years old.

Methods

An action research approach was adopted to use for improving practice. It involved action, evaluation, and critical reflection usually with small groups. The class was held intensively three times a week for a month. The researcher participated as an educator as well as an observer and analyzed the progress of each child carefully. Also, the children's parents gave feedback on the outcomes of their children. The children were first assessed on alphabet letter identification and word reading. Each participant received an individual test. Also collected were quantitative data from pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest assessments; and qualitative data from interviews, surveys such as questionnaires, class observation, and reflection notes.

TABLE 1. Example of Graphemes, Target Words, and the Body-Coda of Target Words

Week	Graphemes	Target Words	Body/Coda
1	s, t, i, p, n	tin	ti – n
2	a	pat	pa – t
3	h, c	hat	ha – t
4	e, d	net	ne- t
5	k, l	lid	li – d
6	w, o	top	to – p
7	b, u	bug	bu – g
8	g	dog	do – g
9	m	mess	me – ss
10	r	luck	lu – ck
11	oa	coat	coa – t
12	ee	deep	dee – p

RESULTS

Each child was tested before phonics class, right after the whole session, and one month later. Both groups showed an improvement of on posttest and delayed posttest.

TABLE 2. Descriptive statistics of Letter Identification and Word Reading

Letter Identification	*n*	M1	M2	M3
Group A	26	20.5	22.75	22.25
Group B	26	14.25	19	21.5
Word Reading	n	M1	M2	M3
Group A	27	2.25	25.25	21.75
Group B	27	0	22	20.5

Note. *n* = number, Group A = body-coda, Group B = synthetic, M1 = Mean of pre-test, M2 = Mean of post-test, M3 = Mean of delayed post-test.

CONCLUSIONS

Most children showed significant improvement on letter identification and word reading regardless of which phonics approach they were taught. The result supports the argument that ELLs should be given explicit instruction on phonemic awareness even when their English proficiency is not fully developed (Vaughn & Linan, 2007). Teaching English reading by the body-coda approach probably did not produce superior results over the synthetic phonics approach to young Korean learners. Using the same methods as teaching Korean to Korean children in English word reading could help students learn English words easily in the beginning. However, they did not differ from the children taught by the synthetic phonics approach later on. Initially, the body-coda approach worked well, however, in the second half of instruction, there was no big difference between the two groups. Overall, both approaches were very effective for children learning to read English words.

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Memorization as a Vocabulary Learning Strategy Among Korean EFL Students

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Developing vocabulary skills is known to be a fundamental skill among Korean EFL students because they believe that improving vocabulary is one of the essential factors in enhancing proficiency in EFL. The purpose of this research is to determine whether Korean EFL students use memorization as a learning strategy to improve their vocabulary, to determine the effectiveness of memorization in improving vocabulary skills, and to identify the advantages and disadvantages. Using a survey, the researchers found that Korean students use memorization as a strategy in improving their vocabulary skills. However, the results from three sets of tests using the *t*-test showed that memorization is not an effective strategy in building vocabulary skills for students at Korean International School Philippines (KISP). The interview conducted with the two teachers revealed that memorization needs revision for it has different advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, memorization as a learning strategy needs critical revision and development for efficiency since memorization is inevitable for EFL who are beginning to learn the English language.

Context/Participants

The participants in this study were composed of 18 Korean students and two expert teachers. They were selected from the Korean International School Philippines (KISP) located in Bonifacio City. The English classes at KISP are handled by both Filipino and Korean teachers.

METHOD

Data Collection/Analysis

To compare and contrast the results, the researchers have used triangulation consisting of pretest and posttest experiments, interviews, and a survey. Firstly, for the pretest and posttest experiments, the researchers selected vocabulary items from a TOEFL intermediate reading book and gave the test, which included a short paragraph. By reading the context clues, students filled in the blanks with appropriate vocabulary. Moreover, students had to create their own sentences using the given vocabulary. The pretest was given before the treatment. After the pretest the students were required to memorize the given vocabulary over three days to take the posttest. In order to clearly identify the effectiveness of memorization, the results were calculated and analyzed using the *t*-test method. Secondly, for the interview, the researchers interviewed "D. Seo," a male Korean English teacher, and "R. Maraya," a male Filipino English teacher, at KISP. The questions were about the opinion of the two professionals on the effectiveness, advantages, and disadvantages of using memorization. Lastly, for the survey, the researchers generally asked about the perspectives of students on memorization, their learning preferences, and most importantly, if they use memorization as a learning strategy in building up their vocabulary skills.

RESULTS

Pretest and Posttest Experiment

The total of three sets of the pretest and posttest experiment results showed no significant difference on the treatment, memorization. For all three sets of the test, the *t*-value was less than the critical *t*-value (see Table 1). Therefore, the researchers have concluded that memorization as a strategy in improving vocabulary skills was not effective for the 18 Korean EFL students in KISP.

Table 1. Pretest and Posttest Results

	Mean (X)	Standard Deviation (Sx)	Degrees of Freedom	*t*-value	Critical *t*-value	Significance of Level
Set 1 Result						
Pretest	10.29	5.51	16	-2.97	2.12	0.05
Posttest	13.35	3.99	16	-2.97	2.12	0.05
Set 2 Result						
Pretest	10.76	3.95	16	-2.89	2.12	0.05
Posttest	13.53	3.91	16	-2.89	2.12	0.05
Set 3 Result						
Pretest	10.28	5.68	17	-5.06	2.11	0.05
Posttest	15.61	5.32	17	-5.06	2.11	0.05

Interview

According to D. Seo and R. Maraya, (personal communications, June 16, 2017), memorization is a learning strategy frequently used by Korean students when acquiring vocabulary because it functions as the fundamental step that has been taken in order for the Korean EFL students to enhance their vocabulary knowledge. According to D. Seo, (personal communication, June 16, 2017) the advantage of memorization is that the students can learn several vocabulary items in a short period of time. On the other hand, R. Maraya (personal communication, June 16, 2017) has claimed that memorization can sharpen the minds of the students and it is an ingredient in building vocabulary in the beginning. On the other hand, for disadvantages, according to D. Seo, (personal communication, June 16, 2017) Korean English education does not focus on application but it focuses on the meaning of the vocabulary. Therefore, due to the memorization being without any application, students memorize the word, but they do not know how to use it in different situations. Similar to this, Mr. R. Maraya claimed that "if memorization is the sole purpose of the lesson, it does not serve any purpose at all because there is no appreciation of meanings of memorization" (personal communication, June 16, 2017). In order to make memorization a good strategy, students must give importance to applying the vocabulary items in a real context. Both teachers strongly claimed that there should be a revision in memorization strategy where students can apply and use it as their own.

Survey

In order to find out if EFL learners use memorization as a strategy in building vocabulary skills, the researchers conducted a survey using Google Forms. The results showed that all the students (100%) had used memorization for building vocabulary skills. For the frequency level on the use of memorization, some students answered that they have always used memorization (27.8%), most of the students answered "often" (50%), fewer of the students responded "sometimes" (11.1%) and "seldom" (11.1%). However, most of the students have not used memorization voluntarily. They have used it to fulfill requirements of their parents, school, and academy (83.3%). From these results, the researchers were able to infer that it is natural for Korean EFL students to be exposed to memorization as a strategy. In addition, when it comes to students' application of memorized vocabulary items in a real-life context, most of the students answered that they apply the word in real contexts "sometimes" (72.2%), while some students answered "seldom" (16.7%). This is because most of students (50%) do not know which context is appropriate for a certain vocabulary item. The results revealed that most students memorize 80–100 vocabulary items at once (50%). Despite this fact, a majority of the students (66.7 %) answered that memorization is an effective strategy in building vocabulary skills.

Conclusions

The research was carried out at Korean International School Philippines with 18 grade-9 students, and one Korean and one Filipino English teacher. The triangulation method, consisting of pretest and posttest experiments, a survey, and interviews, was done in order to answer the four research questions. The survey revealed that all students were using memorization to build vocabulary, and most of the students thought that it was actually an effective strategy. However, the results showed no significant difference in the three sets of tests. Moreover, the interview with the two teachers showed that memorization needs to be revised and developed to be an effective strategy. The overall results showed that memorization is a traditional strategy that Korean EFL students use but that it is not an effective strategy for the 18 grade-9 Korean students at KISP. Therefore, it needs revision in such a way that students can apply the vocabulary items in different situations.

Recommendation

For the sake of future researchers who are willing to conduct similar research, the researchers recommend further study on the effectiveness of using context-based education. According to Wang (2011), context-based learning is an effective strategy in motivating students to use appropriate vocabulary in the right situations. The researchers think that the effectiveness of integrating memorization and context-based education would be innovative for Korean EFL education.

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Voice Contrast in Japanese Speakers of English and Markedness Universals

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Arata Fujimaki (Tokai University, Tokyo Japan)

This study investigates voice contrast by Japanese speakers in their L2 (second language) of English, in particular percent correct voicing of English obstruent phonemes. We asked five Japanese native speakers to be recorded reading a text and word list containing voiced /b/, /d/, /g/ /v/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /ð/ and voiceless /p/, /f/, /k/, /t/, /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /θ/. Obstruents were in initial, medial, and final word positions. Text and word list were read (three times each with 1,380 tokens total). Calculation was summation of data for all voiced obstruents. Congruent with markedness universal studies in the literature, results showed difficulty of English voiced obstruents was greater than voiceless. Also, voiced final obstruents were most difficult. Assessing stylistic variation for final voiced obstruents, the word list was more difficult than text apparently due to vowel epenthesis. Interestingly for Japanese reading the text, overall order of difficulty of voiceless obstruents was [medial ➔ final ➔ initial] although much less difficult than voiced. Data were compared to a previous study of Korean speakers of English reading identical text and word list.

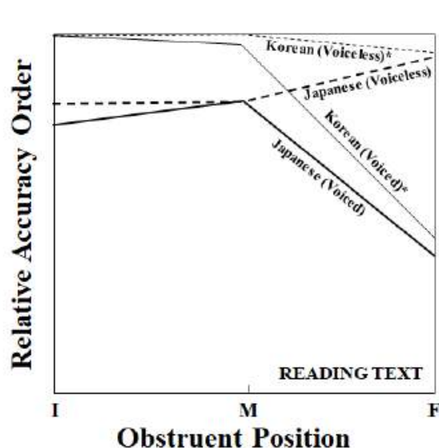

Figure 1. Relative accuracy order vs. obstruent position for Japanese native speakers' correctly voicing English obstruents in a reading passage. Data from Korean study *(Major and Faudree, 1996) is also shown.

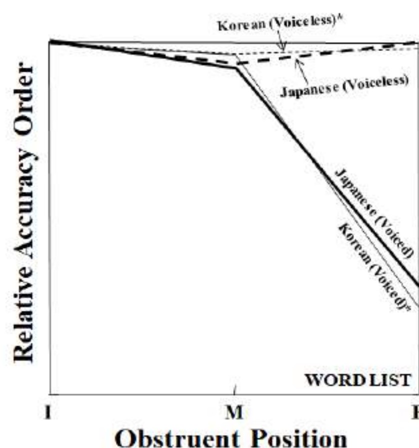

Figure 2. Relative accuracy order vs. obstruent position for Japanese native speakers' correctly voicing English obstruents in a word list. Data from Korean study *(Major and Faudree, 1996) is also shown.

Background and Purpose

For the L1 (first language), there is a wide body of research that indicates similar acquisition orders exist across the world's languages. (Jakobson, 1968; Templin, 1957; Wellman, Case, Mengert, & Bradley, 1931; Kim & Stoel-Gammon, 2011). For obstruents, children acquire voiceless before voiced. Frequency of devoicing usually follows final ➔ medial ➔ initial, the final being the highest. For manner of articulation, stops /b/, /d/, /g/, /p/, /k/, /t/ are usually acquired first, followed by fricatives /s/, /ʃ/, /v/, /z/, /ʒ/ and affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/, the exception being /f/ acquired at the same age as stops. With their high markedness, the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ are usually acquired in later childhood. It follows that extensive research has been carried out to determine if L2 acquisition follows the principles of natural languages (L1) and if there

are patterns conforming with universal grammar (UG). Studies include investigating natural order (Eckman, 1977; Krashen, 1977), discourse and functional syntax (Givon, 1984), writing (Bollinger, 1999), prosodic structure (Amaro, 2017), and phonology (Major & Faudree, 1996).

This study is based on phonology. Participants read an identical text and word list as that of Korean speakers of English in Major and Faudree (1996) carried out at Arizona State University. The purpose of this study, therefore, is twofold: (a) to determine if voiced obstruent acquisition order in Japanese speakers of English follows that of markedness universals (MU) and (b) to compare with the Korean speakers of English data.

METHOD

Five native Japanese speakers, students between the ages of 18 and 22 attending Tokai University, participated in this study. They were classified as beginning level in English pronunciation since their contact with English native speakers in Japan was limited. Each participant was recorded reading a text and word list. Key words had target obstruents in initial, medial, and final positions. They were voiced /b/, /d/, /g/ /v/, /z/, /ʒ/, /d͡ʒ/, /ð/ and voiceless /p/, /f/, /k/, /t/, /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /θ/. Words were identical in text and word list. All obstruents were chosen so they would be in vowel environments, that is, #CV, CVC, and VC#. The words were transcribed carefully by the authors. Resulting total number of tokens was [16 obstruents x 2 [text + word list] x 3 [initial, medial, final] x 3 [each word read 3 times] x 5 [number of participants] = 1,440 – 60 [English does not have initial /ʒ/, initial /ʒ/ and /ʃ/ were excluded] = 1,380 tokens total.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figures 1 and 2 show results of Japanese learners of English of this study for the reading passage and word list, respectively. Data of Korean speakers from the literature by Faudree and Major (1996) is also included. Figure 1 shows that in the reading passage, Japanese pronounced voiceless obstruents with higher accuracy than the voiced ones. Accuracy of Japanese pronouncing English voiced obstruents was highest for medial, followed by the initial, then the final: [medial ➔ initial ➔ final]. The high accuracy for medial voiced can be explained by intervocalic voicing in the VCV structure. Surprisingly, Japanese pronunciation of voiceless obstruents had highest accuracy in final position. This was unexpected and may be due to teaching methods in the author's class.

Figure 2 shows that in the word list, Japanese pronounced voiceless obstruents nearly perfectly. For voiced obstruents in the word list, accuracy followed markedness universals. It was highest for initial, followed by the medial, then final: [initial ➔ medial ➔ final].

Figure 2 shows that for the word list, the Japanese participants had nearly the same accuracy as those in the Korean study for all data sets. On the other hand, Figure 1 shows that for the reading passage, Korean students had higher accuracy. This may be due, in fact, to their six-month stay in the US at the time of their participation. They may have received skills reading English passages out loud at the university language center.

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Achievement Goals and Foreign Language Performance in Korean Students

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Achievement goals have been mostly well researched in motivation literature, demonstrating that the achievement goals that students adopt influence their motivation and performance. Research in foreign language learning (FLL) also has shown that goals are relevant in English learning and ultimately influence academic performance. Nevertheless, research on this significant motivational factor among Korean students has received little attention. This study examined the relationships between achievement goals and academic performance among 228 Korean high school students. Structural equation modeling was conducted to test the hypotheses. The findings showed that mastery-approach and performance-approach goals correlated positively with performance, whereas performance-avoidance goals correlated negatively. The findings indicate that students' achievement goals in FLL are significantly associated with academic performance, emphasizing that teachers should consider these motivational aspects in their instruction.

INTRODUCTION

Achievement goals in academic contexts have been well researched constructs in motivation literature. A large body of research shows that the achievement goals that students adopt influence their motivation and performance (Elliot, 1999; Ranellucci, Hall, & Goetz, 2015). Having recognized the importance of motivation in learning, educational researchers have conducted countless studies on achievement goals (e.g., Lee, 2014; Pekrun, Elliot, & Maier, 2009). Research in foreign language learning (FLL) has also shown that achievement goals are relevant in English learning and that they ultimately influence academic performance (Lee, 2014; Liem, Lau, & Nie, 2008). Nevertheless, research on this significant motivational factor in FLL among Korean students has received little attention. This study will concentrate on Korean high school students' achievement goals and performance in English class.

Achievement Goals and Academic Performance

Achievement goals are defined as "competence-relevant aims that individuals strive for in achievement settings" (Pekrun, Elliot, & Maier, 2009, p. 115). Elliot (1999) proposed a 2 x 2 goal framework including mastery-approach goals concentrating on a positive absolute standard (attempting to achieve intrapersonal competence), mastery-avoidance goals concentrating on a negative absolute standard (attempting to avoid intrapersonal incompetence), performance-approach goals focusing on a positive normative standard (endeavoring to attain normative competence), and performance-avoidance goals focusing on a negative normative standard (attempting to avoid normative incompetence). This 2 x 2 goal framework is considered in the present study.

Earlier research on the relationship between students' achievement goals and academic performance suggests that mastery-approach and performance-approach goals are positive predictors of performance (e.g., Bipp, Steinmayr, & Spinath, 2012; Lee, 2014), whereas performance-avoidance goals negatively predict academic outcomes (e.g., Pekrun et al., 2009). Meta-analysis by Hulleman and colleagues (2010) summarizes that mastery-approach and performance-approach goals are documented to

be positively related to academic outcomes, while mastery-avoidance and performance-avoidance goals tend to be negatively associated with academic performance. Research on achievement goals in FLL has suggested that achievement goals are highly associated with English learning (e.g., Luo, Hogan, Yeung, Sheng, & Aye, 2013); thus, they should receive empirical attention in the field of FLL.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

1. What are the mean levels of achievement goals in FLL among high school students in Korea?
2. What are the relationships between students' achievement goals and academic performance in FLL?

   Hypothesis 1. Mastery-approach goals are positively related to academic performance.

   Hypothesis 2. Performance-approach goals are positively associated with performance.

   Hypothesis 3. Performance-avoidance goals are negatively associated with performance.

METHODS

In total 228 Korean high school students participated in this study. Voluntary students completed both the questionnaire measuring achievement goals and an English performance test. The Achievement Goals Questionnaire-Revised (Elliot & Murayama, 2008) was adapted to measure mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals for learning English. The Alpha coefficients were .76/.75/.78/.82 for the mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals, respectively. To measure students' academic performance, a performance test and students' self-reported final grades from the previous school year were assessed.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations among all study variables. The overall means of participants' achievement goals were well above the midpoint (2.5) of the scale, with performance-approach goals being the highest (M = 3.55, SD = .86).

TABLE 1. Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. MAP	–							
2. MAV	.33**	–						
3. PAP	.69**	.28**	–					
4. PAV	.19**	.50**	.36**	–				
5. English grade [a]	.21**	.05	.40**	-.22**	–			
6. Test score [b]	.27**	-.07	.22**	-.14*	.36**	–		
7. Gender [c]	.06	.03	.11	.02	.32**	-.10	–	
8. Age	.14*	.09	.12	-.03	.13	.36**	.02	–
Mean [d]	3.33	3.08	3.55	3.26	71.12	2.54	1.17	16.43
SD	.86	.84	.86	.95	19.23	1.34	.98	.64

Note: MAP = mastery-approach goals, MAV = mastery-avoidance goals, PAP = performance-approach goals, PAV = performance-avoidance goals. Academic performance = [a] Possible range 0-100 (100: highest), [b] Possible range 0-5 (5: highest). [c] Gender was coded 1 = boys and 2 = girls. [d] Possible range 1-5. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) using Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2012) was conducted to test the study hypotheses (Figure 1). The path coefficient from mastery-approach goals to academic performance was positive, demonstrating a value of ß = .31, $p < .01$, whereas the effect from mastery-avoidance goals to performance was not significant. The path coefficient from performance-approach goals to academic performance was positive, presenting a value of ß = .36, $p < .01$, whereas the effect from performance-avoidance goals to performance was negative, displaying a value of ß = –.19, $p < .05$.

Discussion and Conclusion

Performance-approach goals had the highest means among the Korean students, explaining high competition in academic achievement. Dekker and Fischer (2008) suggest that Eastern collectivists tend to exhibit high achievement motivation because they wish to earn social recognition through their competence demonstration. These situations might have rendered higher performance-approach goals among Korean high school students. The results of SEM for relations between achievement goals and academic performance showed that mastery-approach and performance-approach goals were positively related to performance, whereas performance-avoidance goals were negatively related to performance. These results are in line with previous findings that mastery-approach goals had a positive relationship with learning (Meece et al., 2006) and academic performance (e.g., Bipp et al., 2012; Lee, 2014), and that performance-approach goals had a positive association with academic performance, while performance-avoidance goals presented a negative relation with performance (Lee, 2014; Pekrun et al., 2009).

The findings emphasize that language teachers should consider motivational aspects of students in their instruction, given that these individual factors could potentially affect academic performance in FLL. This highlights the importance of regarding students' achievement goals as one of precursors of their academic outcomes. It is important to recognize that mastery-approach and performance-approach goals may be advantageous for students by improving their performance in FLL, while performance-avoidance goals may be destructive to students by negatively influencing performance. Thus, it is crucial for language teachers to encourage students to adopt mastery-approach goals or performance-approach goals, but dissuade students from adopting performance-avoidance goals.

In conclusion, the present study attempted to fill an important gap in the current FLL literature by focusing on achievement goals, one of the under-examined motivational factors in FLL. The findings indicate that students' achievement goals in FLL are significantly associated with their academic performance, and accordingly teachers should take these motivational factors into consideration in their classroom. The results expand scientific knowledge about FLL and contribute to the practical improvement of language teaching, by producing new insights on students' achievement goals in foreign language classrooms. This study also has educational implications for English teachers by underscoring the consideration of motivational perspectives from students in their instruction and provides a basis for effective strategies to improve students' learning. Finally, this research is significant in that it has made an attempt to integrate psychological perspectives from motivation research into the FLL field, thus, contributing to interdisciplinary research in this field.

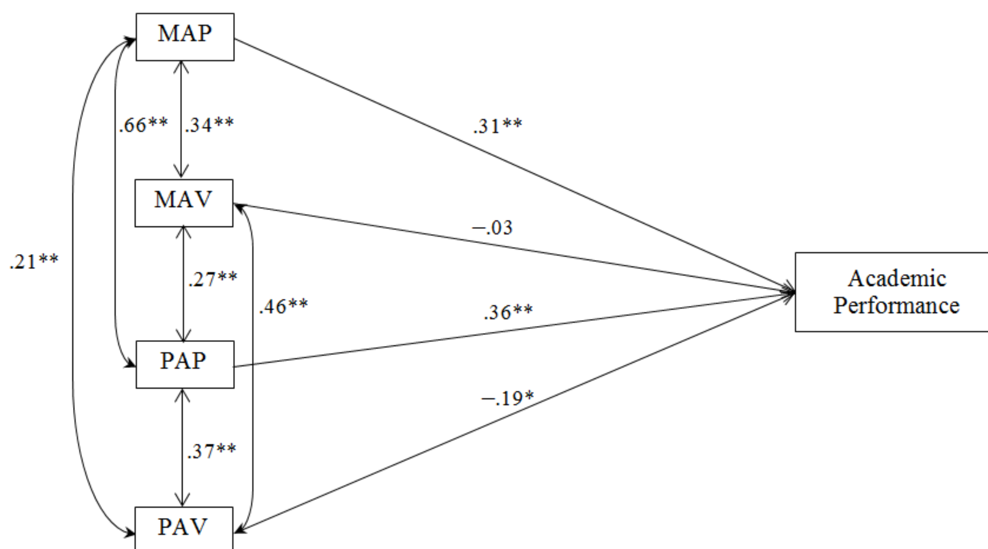

Figure 1. Structural Parameter Estimates of Achievement Goals and Academic Performance.
Note: MAP = mastery-approach goals, MAV = mastery-avoidance goals, PAP = performance-approach goals, PAV = performance-avoidance goals. Model fit: χ^2 (110) = 249.78, CFI = .93, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .055. *p < .05. **p < .01.

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An Exploratory Study of Preservice Teachers and Their Self-Efficacy Beliefs as Teachers of English Language Learners

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INTRODUCTION

Students who speak languages other than English comprise a growing population in U.S. schools. As a result, many general education teachers find English language learners (ELLs) in their mainstream classrooms (Samson & Collins, 2012). However, they are often inadequately prepared to work with culturally and linguistically diverse students, resulting in a need for better ELL preparation of mainstream teachers (de Jong, 2014).

PURPOSE OF STUDY

Teacher self-efficacy beliefs (TSEB), or teacher perceptions of their confidence and preparedness, can provide important insights relevant to teacher professional development and preparation in teacher education programs (Zee & Koomen, 2016). TSEB is defined as a self-assessment of the competence to perform a specific task within a certain context, or a judgement of the ability to perform a desired activity (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Recognizing the importance of investigating TSEB, this study examines elementary preservice teachers and their preparation to work with ELLs through microteaching activities. Two research questions guided this study: (a) What are the self-efficacy beliefs of preservice teachers about teaching ELLs before and after microteaching experiences and (b) how do four preservice teachers construct their self-efficacy beliefs regarding teaching ELLs through microteaching experiences?

FINDINGS

The data – consisting of surveys (n = 55), individual interviews with preservice teachers (n = 4), classroom observations, and lesson plans – were analyzed with the use of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Findings indicated that the self-efficacy beliefs of preservice teachers were enhanced after having participated in ESL microteaching experiences (Ogeyik, 2009). However, the data also revealed that the preservice teachers still felt some anxiety and emotional concerns about teaching ELLs (He & Yan, 2011). Moreover, their self-efficacy beliefs varied by ELL characteristics (situational factors) and setting (contextual factors). Results further revealed that three factors shaped the construction of TSEB, namely, ELL-related knowledge from course work, field experiences working with ELLs, and personal and professional exposure to linguistic and cultural diversity, including their own language learning experiences.

CONCLUSIONS

Inquiries about the influence of purposeful field placements and ESL microteaching experiences for teacher candidates in settings with culturally and linguistically diverse students can yield valuable insights (Villegas, SaizdeLaMora, Martin, & Mills, 2018). Future studies of teacher preparation coursework for preservice teachers that embed linguistically responsive theories and practices can inform teacher

candidates as they strive to enhance their preparation and self-efficacy beliefs for ELLs (Lucas & Villegas, 2010, 2013).

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The Use of VoiceTube for TEFL Listening Fluency

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The use of VoiceTube offers multiple-functional assistance to listening comprehension with technological affordances and extensive listening. In this study, VoiceTube was used as a platform for English learning, offering language learners maximum flexibility to obtain English listening video resources. The purposes of this study were mainly (a) to develop the listening fluency of TEFL university students with the use of VoiceTube video materials and (b) to examine TEFL students' attitudes towards the use of VoiceTube in teaching listening. Regarding the data analysis, mean, percentage, and *t*-test scores for the dependent sample were employed. The result indicated that (a) the students' English listening comprehension ability increased significantly after learning with video tasks and (b) students had positive attitudes towards using VoiceTube videos in teaching listening skills.

INTRODUCTION

Listening is crucial in language learning and real communication (Rost, 2002; Vandergrift, 2007). Traditional listening materials present the target language in a simplified manner, lacking language context and authenticity of natural speech. In the EFL classroom, the emphasis of listening class is mainly on a means of preparing learners to take standardized tests. The study of *Fortune* 500 Corporations of Wolvin and Coakley (1991) found that listening was perceived to be important for communication in the workplace. In real-life communication, listening is an active process, which is created through the interaction of critical thinking, language expression and use, and note-taking. Multimedia-enhanced video materials were used as an alternative instructional tool for listening training because they are a rich source of conversation, authentic context, and dialogue by English speakers. The advance of multimodal classroom practice focus on the active roles of EFL learners in the coming input, engaging their socio-cognitive processes (Pica & Doughty, 1985).

EFL LISTENING AND TECHNOLOGY

Listening Fluency and Listening Comprehension

Listening fluency is of great concern in the EFL field (Helgesen & Brown, 2007); the degree of automatic processing of how much is understood and what is said has been correlated (Segalowitz, 2003). Vandergrift (2007) explains the construct of listening fluency by exploring how much spoken language is comprehended. Natural input is transferred into communicative output. Real-life listening as an interactive process relies mainly on the side of the listener to give feedback, but EFL classroom conditions are limited with teacher-provided feedback and predictable context. Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) model of L2 listening asserts that being successful L2 listeners, learners automatically engage several interactive strategic processes for meaning construction.

The Use of VoiceTube for Visual and Schema

Multimedia offer individualized access to target video materials that the learner can use, interact with, and examine in an autonomous format. Mirvan (2013) claims that employing video materials in a classroom can enhance learner motivation to learn since it can expose them to a wide variety of situations that can help them comprehend similar situations in real life. VoiceTube, as an online platform, offering language learners maximum flexibility to obtain rich English resources, with its wide variety of topics and level selection.

It is suggested that images enhance comprehension, storage, and recall of information (Pavio, 1965). The multiple-functions of VoiceTube were displayed as Figure 1. The applications of VoiceTube are composed of the features (a) easy access, (b) theme-based visual connection, (c) a variety of channels of input, (d) a selection of English proficiency levels, (d) learning modes, (e) language captions, (f) repetition, (g) a dictionary, (h) a word bank, (i) flow of natural words, and (j) speech rate.

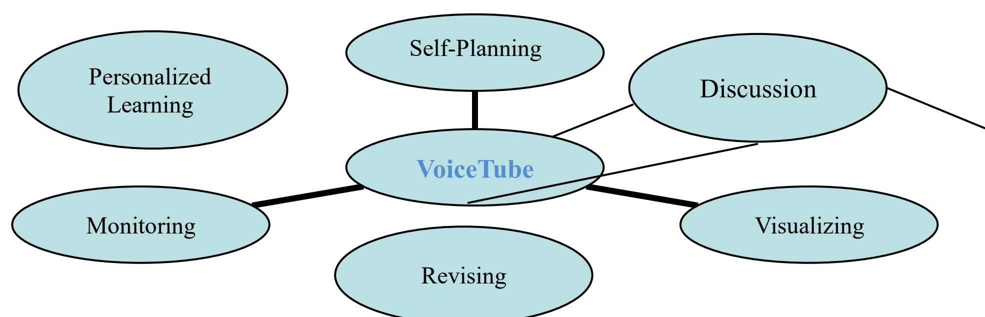

FIGURE 1. The Function of VoiceTube.

VoiceTube provides learners with different learning modes, which can be a link between speaking and listening practice. The subtitled videos (multimode input composed of visual, audial, and textual modes) employed in listening enrich comprehension, enhance recall of information (Svensson & Borgarskola, 1985), and stimulate more learner output (Garza, 1991). Shapran et al. (2011) conclude that multimedia-supported listening makes it possible for learners to combine sounds and images in a way similar to how they would be used in a communicative situation outside the EFL class.

METHOD

Fifty-two English sophomores of a technology university in Taiwan composed the study population. The one-group, pre-test–post-test design was implemented after sixteen-weekly treatments. The instruments were (a) video lessons and exercises, (b) English comprehension tests (pre-test and post-test), and (c) a questionnaire of TEFL learner attitudes. Fluency tasks were designed for three criteria: (a) text-familiarity, (b) meaning-making, (c) a combination of bottom-up and top-down input processing.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

The mean score (4.12) of the questionnaire of 52 TEFL university students, the mean score of the text quiz, and the comparative result of the pre-test and the post-test (at a significance level of 0.012) of the

listening comprehension test indicated that the university TEFL learners had a positive attitude toward the use of VoiceTube video materials. The advantages of using VoiceTube include (a) TEFL learners can be guided to trigger engagement in the language input and (b) activating schemata and captivating easy access to authenticity. The findings found that that using authentic materials improves student's listening comprehension and fluency by means of the interaction of visual images and sounds, which stimulate student's perception. It also helps learners in developing listening fluency in learning new themes and in encouraging autonomous learning. Designing fluency activities associated with video-based instruction, such as self-questioning, giving feedback, group discussion, and oral presentation, can also develop students' listening and speaking skills spontaneously. A study on using other authentic materials such as movies or news commentaries should be conducted by comparing two groups of students for promoting other language skills.

As pedagogical implications, for development of listening fluency, it was suggested that the listening instructors could encourage students to cooperate with group members in learning English listening. Second, the VoiceTube materials incorporated with activities and tasks are more meaning-centered, scaffolding with visual input. Third, the stages of listening need to involve EFL learners with comprehensive input and output. Fluency truly occurs, as interactive processing asks for activities with clear communication input and speed, as well as a greater level of familiarity with texts, topics, and experiences.

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Toward a Better Discussion in English: Quantitative Perspective of Feedback

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This presentation aims to introduce the egg-shaped microphone array that gives feedback from a quantitative perspective to its users, and to examine the possibility of improving discussion skills and self-monitoring in English. In the classroom, teachers have difficulty giving their feedback simultaneously to each student and evaluating their performance. Therefore, we will introduce a simultaneous, objective, and teacher-/learner-friendly device that can support learners' collaborative learning. It can record the utterances of people and analyze the verbal data from a quantitative perspective after recording. In this presentation, we will also share the comments of the five participants regarding their self-monitoring.

INTRODUCTION

After searching the keywords "discussion" and "active learning" on the Internet, many web pages appear with the top three rankings: "Promoting Active Learning" (Stanford University), "Active Learning for the College Classroom" (the Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry in California State University, Los Angeles) and "Active Learning Strategies" (Berkeley Center for Teaching & Learning, University of California). This shows that the term "active learning" has drawn the attention of teachers in educational settings. Active learning refers to a form of learning where students are actively involved in the learning process (Bonwell & Eison, 1991). The Central Education Council of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), Japan (2012) suggests group discussion, group work, and debate as effective approaches in active learning. That is, the main focus is placed on the interaction with others in a group. However, some possible problems remain. The first problem is related to the evaluation/assessment process for the group work. According to Aichi Sangyo University (2014), teachers experience difficulty in recognizing how each student in a group has contributed to overall group work because one teacher cannot simultaneously listen to all the utterances of all the group members. Therefore, teachers fail to offer appropriate feedback to their students. The above situation motivated the second author of this paper to develop the egg-shaped microphone array explained in detail in the next section.

OVERVIEW OF DISCUSSION ASSESSMENT SERVICE

The discussion assessment service (hereafter, Hylable DAS) is a cloud service provided by Hylable Inc. that automatically quantifies and visualizes a discussion using microphone array processing technology. It is a recording device with multiple microphones placed in different positions. By utilizing the transfer path differences from a sound source to all microphones, the service can detect the utterances and estimate their directions of arrival (DoAs). The user can use Hylable DAS (Figure 1) with the following two steps: first, place an egg-shaped microphone array at the center of a discussion group; second, record the discussion. Then, the microphone array automatically uploads the recording to the service and automatically analyzes and visualizes the discussion.

FIGURE 1. Recording of a discussion.

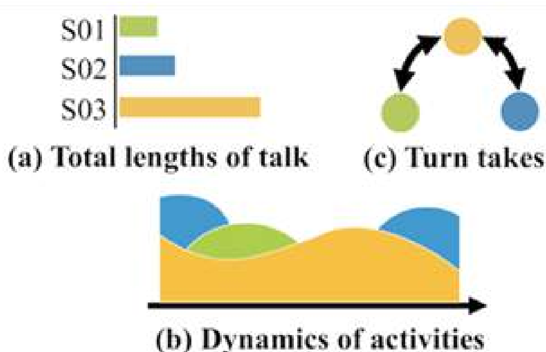

FIGURE 2. A sketch of discussion visualizations.

Figure 2 depicts a visualization that Hylable DAS provides. Section (a) shows the total length of speech of each participant. We can compare students' participation quantitatively; (e.g., 'S03 spoke the most and S01 spoke the least). It is also possible to assess the students chronological activity change by comparing the same data from other discussions. Section (b) shows the dynamics of each participant. We can find that S02 and S03 spoke at the beginning of the discussion, then, S02 stopped talking, and S01 joined the discussion. Since the service also provides a playback function of the recording along with the dynamics, we can replay the utterances of S01 efficiently using the visualization as a guide. Otherwise, we need to listen to the recording carefully to find S01's utterances. Section (c) shows the turn-takes, (i.e., who talked after whom). Each circle corresponds to each participant, and each arrow corresponds to the interaction between them. The size of the circle is proportional to the number of the self-turn-takes, and the thickness of the edge between the circles is proportional to the number of turn-takes between them. The service assumes that a turn-take occurs from A to B when B speaks after A.

The current version of Hylable DAS does not include the automatic speech recognition (ASR) function because the ASR performance degrades sharply in natural conversations. Although ASR accuracy is impressively high when the speaker clearly *commands* to the system, the accuracy in natural conversation is still a challenging problem. In contrast, DoA estimation is more robust in noisy environments, such as classrooms. By removing the ASR function, the service conducts an automatic analysis of group discussions that occur in parallel in the same classroom. In fact, the service robustly visualized the group discussions of a class consisting of around forty students in an elementary school.

Hylable DAS is not designed to show "you are better if you speak more." Instead, it is designed to

enable students and teachers to easily review their discussions in an evidence-based way to improve their behaviors in discussions. For example, the users can easily ask "the amount of utterances of S01 is the smallest, but activity exists at this time. What did he/she talk?" by replaying the actual data.

SURVEY METHODS

The participants were five female graduate students at Kyoto University. Three were master's students (S02, S04, and S05) and two were PhD students (S01 and S03) in psychology. S02 was an English native speaker, while S01 was a very proficient English speaker. At the end of the first semester in 2018, they discussed their collaborative research in English. The discussion was recorded by the device. After checking the feedback data (some are shown in Figure 3), they shared their thoughts from the perspective of self-monitoring each other.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The feedback report by DAS showed that S04 was the best contributor for a smooth discussion. In fact, the amount of S04's utterances was the largest. Judging from the numbers of turn-takes from S04 to other members, S04 gained many reactions from other members. However, focusing on the questions posed in the discussion (as one of the self-monitoring perspectives), the participants found that S01, whose amount of the utterances was small, produced some important questions that led the discussion to the core of the necessary matters that had to be discussed first to decide the main theme of their study. In addition, the participants noticed that S04 mainly tried not to state her own ideas but support another member's comments or suggestions. That was one of the possible reasons why the amount of S04's utterances was the largest and led the whole discussion. Using the Initiation (I)-Reaction (R)-Evaluation (E) framework (Edward & Westgate, 1994), they noticed that there was a deep-thinking question that made a speaker explain her idea more precisely after a shallow question was posed. This shows that a supportive interaction appeared in their discussion. As shown above, using the results produced by DAS, the participants could recognize the details of their performances easily with the quantitatively analyzed data, reflect on their discussion processes, and gain important self-monitoring perspectives toward engaging in a better future discussion.

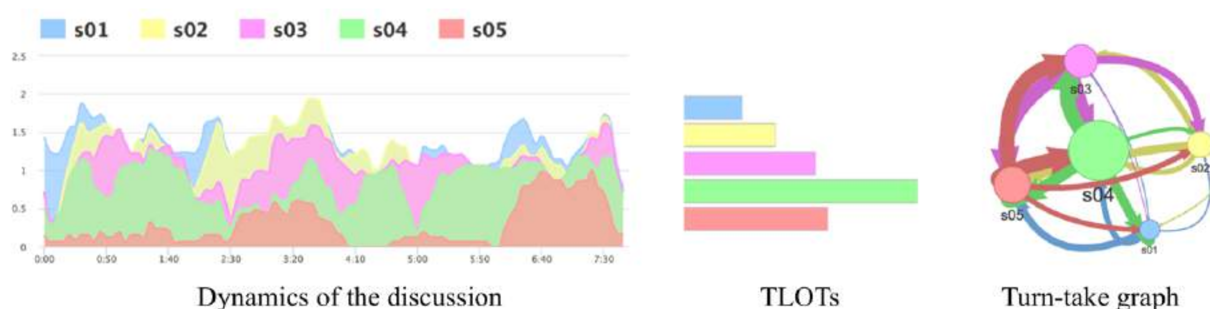

FIGURE 3. Visualizations of discussion by five participants.

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Google Classroom and Google Forms in the EFL Classroom

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New technologies bring English teachers powerful tools to support their English teaching practice. This paper presents the results of a small-scale case study on how the application of Google Classroom and Google Forms benefit students in learning English as a foreign language. A broad view of the functionalities of Google Classroom as a learning management system is provided and the uses of Google Forms for practice and assessment are described as well. The implementation of the two learning-enhanced tools was conducted within 10 weeks at a provincial university in the north of Vietnam. Thirty-four first year non-English majors participated in the study. To collect the data, in-class observation, a questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews were employed. The findings revealed that applying Google Classroom and Google Forms is effective in teaching and learning English. Pedagogical implications and difficulties encountered are also discussed in the last section the article.

Google Classroom

Google Classroom is a free web-based platform officially launched by Google in 2014. It aims to help schools and teachers simplify creating, distributing, and grading assignments in a paperless way. In March 2017, it was opened to any personal Google users to join, create, and teach a class. Google Classroom is now also available as a mobile app in iOS and Android devices. A lot of technology experts and educators (DiMaria, 2016; Wylie, 2017; Cortez, 2017; Regan, 2017; Bielefeld, 2016; Scragg, 2018; Brown & Hocutt, 2015; and Pappas, 2015) evaluate Google Classroom as beneficial learning management system for both teachers and students in and outside the classroom. The researchers believe that Google Classroom is a powerful and effective tool for teachers striving for a paperless classroom. This is how Google describes Classroom: “Classroom saves time and paper, and make it easy to create classes, distribute assignments, communicate, and stay organized.”

It takes only a few simple steps to set up Google Classroom. First, you sign in to Google with an email address. Second, go to classroom.google.com. Then, click on the button “Create or join a class.” You can create a class by sending the class code to your students via email.

Google Forms

Google Forms is another product developed by Google along with Docs, Sheets, and Slides in the G Suite for Education. The primary purpose of Google Forms is to create different types of forms to collect information in surveys or to register for events.

Google Forms is also a popular assessment tools for teachers who work with G Suite for Education. According to Wylie (2015), it is among the five most effective formative assessment tool for teachers to use in the classroom. Meanwhile, Randall (2013) assures that there is no good reason not to use Google Forms. Similarly, when giving 5 reasons to choose Google Forms for the classroom practice, Love (2014) strongly recommends employing Google Forms for it is an “excellent” free app. You can create a form simply by navigating to *http://drive.google.com* with your Google account and clicking on the red “Create” button. Google Forms features various question types for your assessment. They include these:

- Multiple choice – choose one answer from a given selection
- Checkboxes – choose one or more answers from a given selection
- Text – for short free form answers
- Paragraph text – for longer free form answers
- Choose from a list – a drop-down list of answers to select from
- Scale – a customizable Likert scale question
- Grid – the ability to choose an answer from a rubric-style grid
- Date – choose a date-formatted answer
- Time – choose a time-formatted answer

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Context

The university where the study was conducted possesses good technological facilities for teachers and students. There are five labs. Each lab is equipped with forty desktop computers with high-speed Internet connection, a projector, a screen, two speakers, and an amplifier with microphones. Among the labs, two are specially equipped for English language teaching and learning with a headset for each computer. Wi-Fi access is also available on the campus. So, the students can easily use laptops and mobile devices (tablets and smartphones).

Along with many other subjects, English is compulsory for students of all majors. Compulsory English is comprised of General English 1 (GE1), General English 2 (GE2), General English 3(GE2), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). English is taught for the four consecutive terms of the first two years. The *New English Files* series (2005 edition) by Oxford University Press (from elementary to intermediate level) are chosen as the coursebooks for GE1, GE2, and GE3. The English teaching and learning process of each term is scheduled for 15 weeks. Each week has three 50-minute periods in class.

New English File Pre-intermediate is a four-skills coursebook. The package contains a student's book, workbook, teacher's book with test and assessment CD-ROM, and class audio CDs. It features three main contents: grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation in 9 units. Each unit is made up of 6 parts: A, B, C, D, Practical English, and Revise and Check.

Participants

The participants of this study were thirty-four students of a class of General English 2. They were in the second terms of their first year. They were students majoring in nursery teacher training and primary teacher training. They all possessed either iOS or Android smartphones. Among them, 14 students had laptops and 17 students possessed desktops computers at their place of residence. All the students used Internet service for about 3 hours in their daily life.

Research Question

How does the application of Google Classroom and Google Forms benefit students in learning English as a foreign language?

Data Collection Instruments

To collect the data, in-class observation, a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews were employed.

Integration of Google Classroom and Google Forms

Google Classroom was integrated in to the teaching and learning process as a learning management system to manage the class, distribute assignments, send announcements, keep contact, and discuss and share ideas online. One class named GE2 2017-2018 was created with 34 students in which there were 8 topics in the stream (Translation, Reading, Listening, Grammar, Pronunciation, Notifications, Practical English, and Vocabulary).

Google Forms was used as an assessment tool to create assignments, formative and summative tests, and practice tasks in the textbooks, 76 forms in total (1 – Translation, 7 – Reading, 8 – Listening, 17 – Grammar, 8 – Pronunciation, 1 – Practical English, 11 – Vocabulary).

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

Overall, the students showed a positive attitude and a high level of motivation in the learning process. The data showed a moderate level of agreement among learners that the application of Google Classroom and Google Forms created an enjoyable learning environment. They confessed that the learning became easier for them and that they had a lot of fun in the way the knowledge contents delivered and gained. The students also stated that the application of the two tools helped them to become more autonomous learners. They all confirmed that they had completed a heavier workload than during the previous term. They could track their progress and manage their learning.

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Making Words Work: Lexical Expertise in Academic Writing

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> "The difference between the almost right word and the right word is really a large matter – 'tis the difference between the lightning-bug and the lightning." — Mark Twain

INTRODUCTION

For better or for worse, research writing in English is now rapidly proliferating in terms of both quantity and diversity. The growing necessity to write for publication in English is a high-stakes, identifiable requisite within EAP. Academic writing teachers often work hard to cross the gap between their students' current abilities and the requirements of institutions, exams, supervisors, and editors. A common "bridge" over this gap is using one of the prefabricated, data-driven academic word lists (e.g., Coxhead, 2000; Gardner & Davies, 2013; Paquot, 2010) to help novice writers focus on the most needful scholastic lexis. Scholarly writing requires specialized lexis and novice academic writers need to effectively use that specific brand of vocabulary before they can enter the English-medium intellectual discourse community. The identification and listing of "academic words" (e.g., Coxhead, 2000) for teaching and learning is a tool to reduce the lexical density barrier in academic reading comprehension. It stands to reason that the same "threshold words," as laboriously identified by computerized corpus linguistics, should also be serviceable for productive use in academic writing.

There are two background suppositions to the working-from-word-lists approach. The first is that lexical learning is continuous, cumulative, and hierarchical so that the more common and more useful words tend to be learned first (Nation, 2001). Ideally, before studying academic lexis and undertaking academic writing in English, learners would have a bedrock vocabulary of common, useful words to act as a basis for learning and writing. In real life, particularly in EFL contexts, lexical development is jagged not linear, and there is no guarantee that a novice academic writer has that presumed basis of 2000 (Nation, 1990) or 5000 "common" English words before she or he sits down to write a research paper. The second assumption is that vocabulary learning and vocabulary use tend to be contextual so that less common lexical items, like *multicollinearity*, that may have very limited use outside of school are acquired as needed in their designated context. In academic contexts, rarified lexis can become high-value and high-use because of more frequent appearances in reading texts and increased utility in writing up research.

So specialized academic lexis is a necessary element for meeting reader expectations in academic writing. Necessary but not sufficient. As the Sokal hoax proved, a lot of contemporary academic writing uses polysyllabic lexis to actually obscure meaning and sound scholarly without saying anything. Conversely learner academic writing often has a clumsy, cliché sounding quality because of the overuse or misuse of perceived academic language. Good writing is something that is easy to recognize but often hard to define the specifics of. This research aims to quantify and analyze successful and unsuccessful academic writing to identify its specific elements in lexical terms. This in turn will better inform the teaching of academic writing.

Context for the Study

The Institute for Tourism Studies in Macau, which started a vocational college, has responded to increased job competition in the local tourism industry and the growing demand for master's degrees by instituting a mandatory fourth-year thesis paper in most majors, to better prepare seniors for the challenges of graduate school. This research-based English text is 7,000–10,000 words long, composed over a semester with one-on-one, subject-specific supervision. Language use in terms of both range and accuracy is only one of many criteria for assessment. The implementation of this project presented an opportunity to study a large pool of learner writing for the use of academic lexis as measured against the wider success of the texts in terms of grades. With the student's permission, 100 sample texts were selected for anonymization, analysis, and comparison.

Methodology

Using Coxhead's (2000) *Academic Word List* (hereafter, AWL) as the basis and *The Compleat Lexical Tutor* (University of Quebec at Montreal) as the research tool, the first step was to break the student texts down by word list and sub-lists for lexical analysis with two quantitative data goals: (a) first, to see how much AWL coverage the texts had, to assess the amount of academic lexis in productive use and (b) second and perhaps more interesting, the results allowed a comparison of the AWL usage with the marks the writers were awarded. The hypothesis being that writers who use more words from the AWL are likely to get a better grade. The assessment benchmarks were validated by a combination multiple marking, blind marking, and external assessment (for research purposes).

The next level of analysis was to investigate AWL use across grade strata, focusing on the accuracy of AWL use. Employing Laurence Anthony's *Ant Conc.* and *Ant Word Profiler* to look specifically at the AWL use and the surrounding co-text for text analysis and error analysis, twelve texts randomly selected from within their grading bands were analyzed in greater detail to determine how exactly AWL use translated in to text effectiveness or ineffectiveness.

Findings

The hypothesis that greater AWL coverage would correlate with better marks was partially born out. Overall high scorers used more AWL words but the differences were not very large in terms of percentage coverage:

- Students who used ~23.5% of AWL families scored 6–6.9/10
- Students who used ~25% of AWL families (+1.5%) scored 7–7.9/10
- Students who used ~27.5% of AWL families (+2.5%) scored 8–8.9/10

This limited but upward trend in AWL word use from lower to higher written-proficiency levels can be interpreted as meaning better writers used a larger variety of AWL words while less adept writers tended to rely on repeating a limited set of words that they felt sure in their knowledge of.

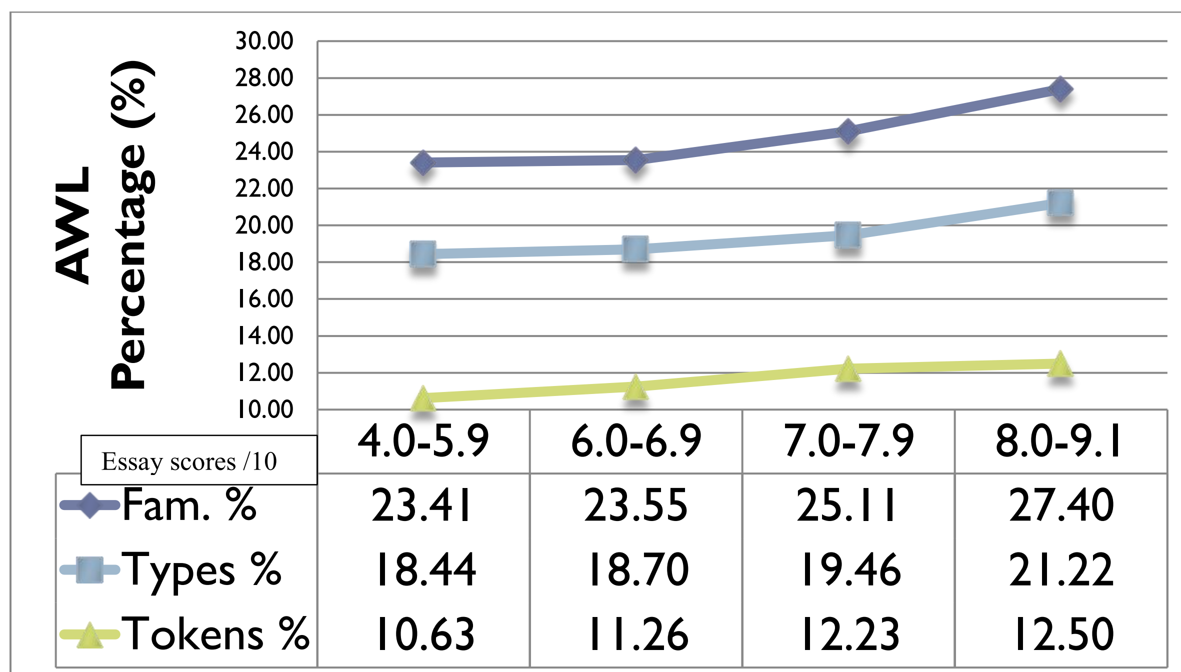

Figure 1. AWL Coverage and Written Proficiency Score.

The error analysis evidenced four broad categories of AWL use errors: (a) mis-collocation, where the writer uses the target words but fails to link it with an appropriate collocate in the co-text or phrase, for example, "the first factor in…" instead of the "the prime factor in …" or "money washing" instead of "money laundering"; (b) errors in lexical meaning where the writer used an AWL word but not selected the correct one (e.g., "Gambling is one of Macau's most important *exports*."); (c) an emergent category of errors in **colligation** (mis-colligation), not to be confused with collocation. Colligation is separate from collocation in that it involves elements of syntax, for example, "I **chose** to walk here instead of take the subway." rather than "I **selected** to walk here rather than take the subway" (Hoey, 2005). Lastly the broadest category to emerge was lexico-syntactic errors where an AWL word's mis-use was tied to related grammar errors more than anything else. For example, "A lot of research**es** have done on this subject."

Within these four broad categories, the twelve selected papers yielded 153 total errors, broken down into the following:

- Mis-collocation: 40 instances
- Error in lexical meaning: 40 instances
- Mis-colligation: 11 instances
- Lexico-syntactic error: 52 instances

Discussion

The most generalizable observation is that the use of academic lexis in learner academic writing has a positive relation with text effectiveness, but the increased range provided by the application of academic lexis is partly offset by the limited accuracy novice writers evidence in using the target academic lexis.

The pedagogical implication that follows is to teach academic vocabulary not as individual words but to teach the collocations and related lexical chucks (Lewis, 2006) of academic lexis (e.g., *factor* is on the AWL, but related phrases, such as *…the key factor in…* or *…is a factor of…*, are better candidates for teaching targets than the stand-alone word). Like other language users, academic writers do not build sentences words by words for the most part; they use prefabricated phrases and already processed strings of words when they write. Teaching these kinds of word units in combination with corpus data about academic lexis (such as the Coxhead AWL) is more likely to improve the lexical quality of learner academic writing than the teaching of individual (if high-value) academic words the way they are currently presented on word lists.

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Enhancing English Acquisition Through Music Related Activities

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INTRODUCTION

The use of music can make the entire learning process more enjoyable for students and create an open atmosphere for a communication class. Studies have shown that music can improve concentration, improve memory, bring a sense of community to a group, motivate learning, relax people who are overwhelmed or stressed, make learning fun, and help people absorb material. Music is often used in class by teachers in many different ways to help second language learners acquire a second language. This is not surprising since the literature abounds with the positive statements regarding the efficacy of music as a vehicle for first and second language acquisition. Creating a classroom mood may be one of the desired effects of classroom music. Yet, while students become more relaxed, they are also more attentive than usual, and therefore, more receptive to learning. These are but a few of the benefits associated with music use in the second language classroom. In this paper, I will introduce the possible effects that background music can have on an ESL class and present findings from a survey and opinions from Japanese university students in a survey of using background music in conversation class.

In recent years, the effect of background music on the language skills of language learners has been explored. Outside of the classroom, there has always been a significant use of music in different background situations to bring about desired effects in people. Shopping malls use music to stimulate people to spend money, doctors rely on music to soothe nervous patients, and employers use music to relax employees. The use of background music in the classroom is a relatively new concept. The concept of using music is not new to students, who often complete homework while listening to music. Students and music go hand-in-hand. Cantril and Allport (1935) conducted a study on students and music. They found that sixty-eight percent of students do school work with the radio on. A similar study conducted later by Beentjes, Koolstra, and van der Voort (1996) still showed that students regularly combined their homework with listening to the radio. With the introduction of CDs, MP3 players, many more radio stations, and expanded music technology, it would only make sense for that practice to continue. With this in mind, it becomes important for educators to understand the effects music has on the student's learning process and concentration.

The majority of the evidence tends to support background music due to its positive implications. Cool, Yarbrough, Patton, Runde, and Keith (1994) conducted a study that proved radio noise generally was considered to be somewhat helpful to students while studying. It kept them focused and on task. Howard Gardner, a Harvard graduate, wrote *Frames of Mind* in the early 1980s. It has since become one of the most influential books for education. Gardner believes that music creates a positive and relaxing environment in the classroom that allows for sensory integration to take place and improves concentration abilities.

In related fields, music therapists, music educators, and English as second language (ESL) teachers and foreign language teachers began exploring efficient methods for their use in language skill acquisition (Daniels, 2003; Gan & Chong, 1998; Hatasa, 2002; Hayashi, 1997).

The Present Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if the use of background music could make the entire learning process more enjoyable for students and create an open atmosphere for communication in the classroom. Music is often used in class by teachers in many different ways to help second language learners acquire a second language. This paper shows the efficacy of background music as a vehicle for first and second language acquisition. Using background music in the classroom has many functions, creating a classroom mood is one of the purposes of classroom music. Students with background music become more relaxed, they are also more attentive than usual, and therefore, more receptive to learning. These are but a few of the benefits associated with music use in the second language classroom. In this paper, I will introduce the possible effects that background music can have on an ESL class and present findings from a survey and opinions from Japanese university students in a survey of using background music in conversation class.

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Focus on Listening Fluency Inside and Outside of the Classroom

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INTRODUCTION

Listening is often cited as one of the most difficult skills to develop in a second or foreign language. In recent years, ELT listening pedagogy has experienced calls from several prominent researchers to focus on decoding/bottom-up processing (e.g., Cauldwell, 2013, 2018; Field, 2008). These researchers criticize traditional paradigms that focus on top-down processing for assuming too much of language learners' abilities to decode the stream of speech and for testing students' listening ability rather than teaching it. While decoding is indeed vital for listening comprehension, has the pedagogical pendulum swung too far in that direction?

This presentation will describe a teacher-created listening curriculum for intermediate to advanced learners of English that balances bottom-up and top-down processing activities. In this framework, decoding is seen as a tool to access comprehension and to develop listening fluency rather than the central focus. My aim is to provide practical tools that teachers can use in their own classrooms or to assign as self-study for their students. I will attempt to do this by providing a detailed description of how I developed a supplemental listening course for upper-secondary/pre-university students in Beijing, China. The listening course can stand alone as a single-skill course, be grouped with other skills, or simply be assigned as a self-study element of a larger language course. As learner needs differ quite dramatically among different levels and in various contexts, I will not recommend a specific teaching sequence or series of lessons. Instead, I will focus on the general organization of the course, using several websites to organize the content. It is up to teachers to decide on what content to use and how to adapt my ideas for their own contexts.

UNDERSTANDING THE PROCESS: LINKING READING AND LISTENING

Before planning a listening course, we must first attempt to understand the complex processes that take place as learners listen in a foreign language. Luckily, much useful information can be gleaned from more extensive research on reading. However, while comprehension processes might be similar, listening is typically viewed as a more difficult skill to master due to an array of variables (e.g., rate of speech, accent, and pronunciation). Most notably, listening often takes place with little opportunity for learners to rewind and revisit previous sections of text, forcing learners to rely more on working memory in order to comprehend aural input (Vandergrift & Baker, 2015). Our working memory is our ability to store the input we are receiving while simultaneously processing new information in real-time (Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015).

When we are reading, our visual senses jump from one chunk of words to the next, assuming the text is not too difficult. These arbitrary assemblies of letters to words, words to phrases, and so on, are linked to previous encounters with the same, or similar, arbitrary chunks and an approximation of meaning is constructed as the text is processed. Our auditory senses work in a similar way but have to contend with the added challenges of listening to a text rather than reading it (e.g., rate of speech and no opportunity to pause or backtrack, among others). Despite the differences between reading and listening, the processing style is similar. During listening, the phonological loop in our working memory uses sounds as material for

storage. This process occurs in both our native language and in a second language but may be fragmented in the processing of the L2 if we are not fully proficient (not being able to distinguish spaces between words, mishearing certain sounds while listening, etc.). Working memory needs to be activated (encountered in a text or retrieved for usage) numerous times in order for it to be stored in our long-term memory and as part of our knowledge structures.

When we are reading *fluently*, we only focus very briefly on about 80% of the content words and 50% of the function words in a text (Grabe, 2009, p. 23). Orthographic, phonological, semantic, and syntactic information for lexical items, and combinations of lexical items, are activated by the visual stimuli of the text linking with the reader's current lexicon (Grabe, 2009). If we acknowledge the 80% (content) / 50% (function) ratio, then we must also accept that readers are involved in hypothesizing or guessing the content to fill the 20% and 50% gaps, respectively. Fluent readers are able to do this with an incredible amount of accuracy due to the lower-level processes (see above) becoming automatized as a result of time spent reading and highly developed lexicons (Grabe, 2009). For non-fluent readers, decoding each letter to form words and each word to form sentences is most likely what is taking place, until these skills become automatized and better supported by working memory interacting with long-term memory. At the same time, fluent readers who encounter new/unknown words may draw upon lower-level phonological and morphological processing to make sense of the word. A similar process may occur when these readers encounter complex grammatical structures.

In attempting to apply what Grabe (2009) says about reading to listening, Field's (2008) argument confirms that many of the same processes can be applied. According to Field, we are not listening to each phoneme to understand words, and then constructing the words to make sentences. Field describes listening as "an online activity" (p. 129) that takes place as listeners receive the "acoustic features" (p. 127) of the text all at once. He affirms that "the final outcome of decoding is no longer in word form but is an abstract idea" (p. 129) that relies more on the "co-text" than a linear process of phoneme to sentence to overall meaning. However, Field does acknowledge that both bottom-up (decoding) and top-down (bigger picture) processing play a role in comprehension. If learners do not feel confident that they have decoded the signal accurately, they compensate by using more top-down/contextual knowledge. It would appear that the foundational concepts for reading, described by Grabe (2009), and listening, as illustrated by Field (2008), are in agreement. Decoding (bottom-up processing) is important for both fluency and comprehension. Background knowledge and top-down processing are also important. Therefore, an effective listening course should have dedicated activities for each. In the following section, and more so in the presentation, I will discuss how I addressed these issues in my own course.

A Digital Workspace for Decoding and Comprehension: Necessary Constituents for Fluency

In order to create a space where students can play with language both inside and outside of the confines of the classroom, I use a collaborative online workspace called "Padlet." Padlet is free (although there is a paid version with a few more features) and can be set up in minutes. Posts can be added that include audio files to be downloaded or streamed, videos, documents/PDFs, and links to outside sites/resources. The site is easy to use and can be accessed anywhere. Links and QR codes can be shared with students in order to invite them to a secure class page. Students may be granted access as only readers/listeners, or more interesting in terms of generating discussion, as writers, moderators, and admin,

depending on what permissions are given by the teacher. I allow students to comment on any post I make on the page.

On my workspace, there are five sections that students work through, two of them on a daily basis: (a) articles, book chapters, and videos related to listening in a second or foreign language; (b) a link to the class Listenwise page (see description below); (c) audio files for daily dictation; (d) feedback on daily dictation; and (e) links to student pages.

1. In the first section, I upload a variety of materials for students to use in order to learn about the process of listening, research studies regarding listening, and videos that include conference talks and other relevant clips concerning listening in general, teaching/learning listening skills, and the benefits of listening. I have found that making students aware of these resources helps to foster an interest in the area. In turn, their motivation to listen is typically enhanced.

2. Listenwise is a paid listening site that I use for both intensive and extensive listening practice. Each weekday, a new current event podcast is added to the site. These podcasts come complete with online assignments, transcripts, a feature to lookup unknown words in the transcript, audio speed controls, and various additional resources depending on the topic. There are also podcast lessons in the areas of science, social studies, and English language arts with the same additional features, yet these lessons also have a quiz that students complete on the site. The quizzes are automatically graded, and the scores are kept for each class the teacher has created. When students log in to the site, they see the lessons that have been assigned by the teacher along with the due date. Once they work through the quizzes, their scores are automatically compiled in a personal file for each student as well as a class file to assess the group as a whole. This site has proven to be an invaluable resource, as quizzes can be assigned in less than a minute and are automatically graded and saved. The clips the students are quizzed on range from approximately two to eight minutes and typically feature interesting content for intermediate to advanced students.

3. Daily dictation is where I upload short audio clips and have the students write down exactly what they hear. The students can listen as many times as they like/need to, practicing their decoding/bottom-up processing skills as they work through a short clip of no more than one or two minutes. Every weekday, a new clip is added. Students are expected to post their transcriptions every weekday on their personal pages in order to get feedback and discussion.

4. The day after a clip has been posted for the students to transcribe, the original text is posted in this section. Students can check their work against the original.

5. In this final section, links to the students' own Padlet pages are stored. Students are encouraged to store all of their transcriptions, reflections to listening assignments, and any other relevant material on their own student page. All of the links to the individual student pages are stored on the class page for ease of access. Students often enjoy seeing what each other is posting. They may also be able to comment on each other's posts, depending on how the page creator has set

the controls. Teachers may think of other ways to utilize individual student pages. More ideas will be discussed in the presentation.

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Utilizing Cell Phones in Improving Learners' Pronunciation and Fluency

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The advancement in mobile phone applications has made this device a useful tool for language learning. This talk reports on research that investigated the effectiveness of using the mobile phone's applications to improve students' independent speaking competence, especially pronunciation and fluency. Thirty-two (32) students were selected and separated into an experimental and control groups. This presentation will describe the treatment for the experimental group over fourteen weeks as well as the performance of the participants in both groups. Through analysis of the results of pretest and posttest, grading sheets and diaries, the findings reveal that participants with the treatment outperformed the ones in the control group and showed much improvement in fluency and pronunciation of a number of individual words and sounds.

Background and Purpose

The boom in educational technology has opened up more conditions and conveniences than ever for mobile learning. Over a few decades, many applications have been invented and integrated into electronic devices such as televisions, laptops, tablets, and smartphones to serve the needs of teaching and learning. Among these devices, the mobile phone appears to be the most popular due to its slim fit size, portability, and functionality.

Quite a few research findings have been reported to prove the effectiveness of this device. A study with Japanese students revealed that using the phone video-recording feature can help students use more words in their speech (Gromik, 2012). In another case study, 99% of the target students in the focused group associated the effectiveness of the smartphone with language learning development (Muhammed, 2014). Gheytasi, Azizifar, and Gowhary (2015) provided evidence of using smartphones in educational settings to help raise reading comprehension proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. The case study at International University was an attempt to explore the effectiveness of using the recording function on the mobile phone to help students improve their independent speaking competence.

Methodology and Results

A total of 68 students from two intensive English classes were asked to take the pretest, which included the two independent questions of the TOEFL iBT Speaking test. Students' responses were electronically recorded into audio files, which were then carefully graded by the researcher. To accurately analyze and evaluate the students' speaking competence as the starting point of the research, the ETS speaking grading rubrics was applied with the four main criteria: (a) general description, (b) delivery, (c) language use, and (d) topic development. Results of the pretest allowed the selection of 16 students for the experimental group and 16 for the control group.

During the course of the fourteen-week treatment, students in both groups worked with the same textbook and topic; they were requested to join the same activities in class such as vocabulary games, pair

work and group work. However, only students in the experimental groups were guided to use the mobile phone recording function to record their responses in class when they practiced individually or in pairs and at home when they were assigned more tasks. A diary was made to keep track of students' behavior and reaction towards using the phone's recording function. After fourteen weeks, students took the posttest in the same format and condition with the pretest.

RESULTS

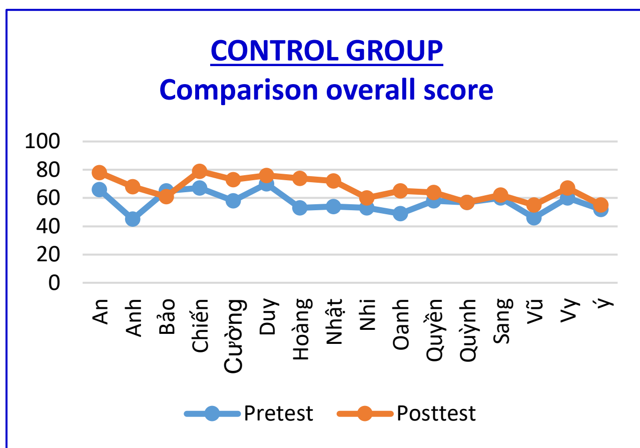

FIGURE 1. Pretest-Posttest overall score comparison of the Control group

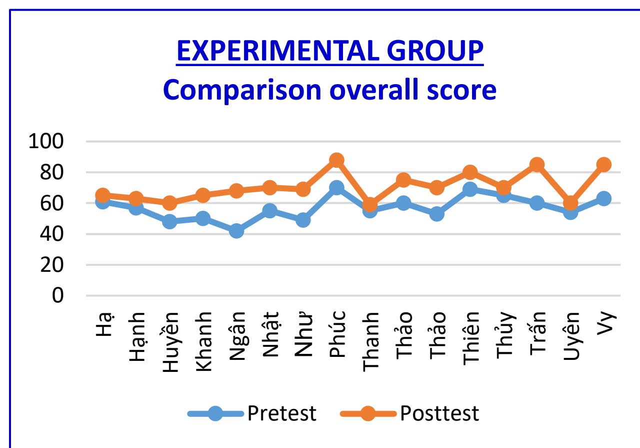

FIGURE 2. Pretest-Posttest overall score comparison of the Experimental group

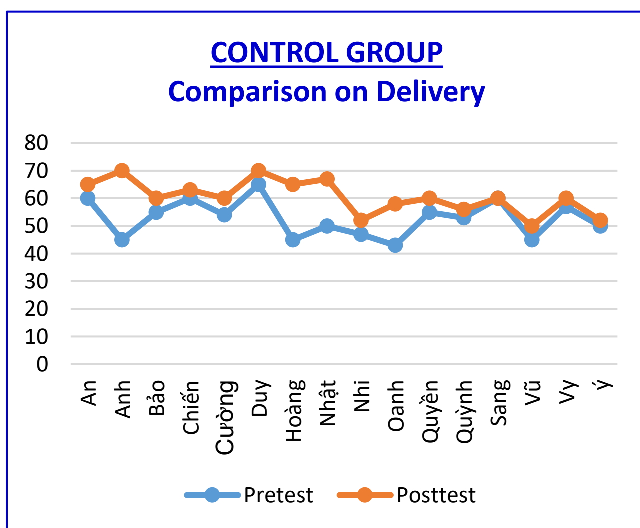

FIGURE 3. Pretest-Posttest delivery score comparison of the Control group

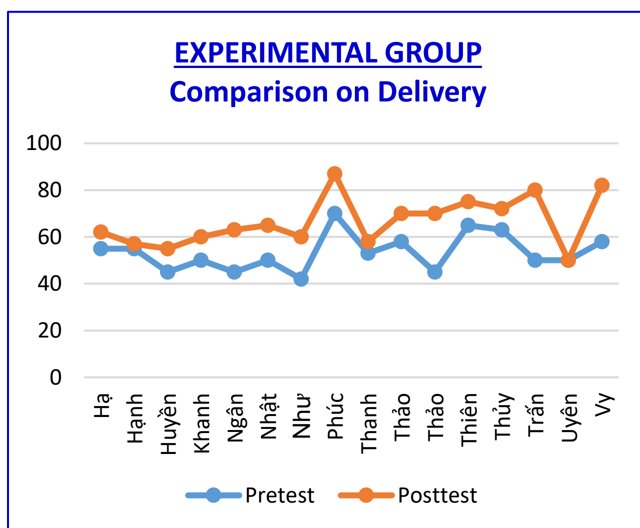

FIGURE 4. Pretest-Posttest delivery score comparison of the Experimental group

From analysis of pretest and posttest scores, both group showed improvement in the overall performance but the experimental group saw a higher average increase of 13.81 points compared to 9.56 points from the control group.

In the aspect of analytical assessment, performance on delivery, in other words, pronunciation and fluency, of the posttest witnessed a major difference of 13.25 points average increase whereas the average change for the control group was 7.75 points. Diary within the treatment period specified that students in the experimental group became well aware of some final sounds like /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /z/ … and showed less hesitation and used fewer fillers when delivering their responses.

DISCUSSION AND EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the research suggest that using the recording function on the mobile phone does have a positive impact on the effectiveness of the learning process. Although the result of the study is encouraging and motivating, this project needs to be carried out on a large scale with hundreds of participants to certify the benefits that applying the mobile recording function could bring to English language learners.

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Building Fluency and Community Through REAL Communication

Cheryl Woelk (Language for Peace Project, Seoul, Korea)

INTRODUCTION

Popular ideas of language learning often assume that learners at beginner and low-intermediate proficiency levels must reach a higher level of fluency to engage in real conversations and build strong community in the classroom. However, in practice the reverse is often true: creating intentional opportunities for authentic conversation and community-building can actually help these learners to achieve higher levels of fluency faster than focusing on transactional or academic language tasks.

COMMUNITY AND LEARNING

From brain science research in education, we know that a primary motivator for learning is a safe and supportive social environment. Studies have shown clearly that neural function required for creative thinking and retaining information is reduced when people are fearful or in a state of flight or fight. In other words, "If students are stressed out, the information cannot get in" (Willis, 2014). This means that the learning process is inhibited unless learners feel a relative degree of comfort. Also, social interaction is the primary context for learning (Kagan, 2014). Our brains are wired to solve problems in communication and collaboration with others. This means that a healthy learning environment should create opportunities for this kind of community collaboration.

COMMUNITY AND LANGUAGE

The social motivation of a strong community of learners can be both a context and a catalyst for increased language use. Communication is key to our relationships with others and to whether we get along. Conflict can be escalated or de-escalated in community based on the kind of language and ways of communication we use. To have the kind of secure community needed for learning, we need to talk with each other to get to know one another, address potential conflicts, deal with ongoing issues, and move on from any points of discomfort to encouraging and supporting one another. Language is thus a central aspect of building community.

COMMUNITY AND ELT

Given that a healthy community promotes learning, and language is central to building a healthy community, English language learning is naturally aligned with community as well. The kind of healthy community described provides a language-rich environment in which learners build their fluency, adding to their confidence and embracing the language as part of their identities. Community creates the space for learning language together, and learning to communicate better builds relationships in the learning community.

Building Community

Research from the field of community development suggests four specific steps that classroom members can take that result in stronger community: sharing stories, having fun, helping each other, and working together (Born, 2014). These are directly related to community-building in the English language classroom as shown by the following examples.

1. **Share stories with each other**. Telling stories about one's life and experience are an essential part of language learning. In one beginner-level class, learners made storybooks by taking pictures of a typical day in the life of the learner and writing simple sentences to describe the images. Learners then read their stories to each other.
2. **Have fun with each other**. Language games are another key aspect of many English classes. A simple example is a snakes-and-ladders-style board game in which learners roll a die and answer personal questions on cards depending on where they land. Questions are designed for learners to get to know one another better and can be adjusted in terms of difficulty or topic according to the class.
3. **Helping each other**. Pair and group work can be designed for this. In a low-intermediate writing class, learners were matched with each other as peer reviewers who would help them plan ideas for writing, give positive feedback on their drafts, and provide encouragement. The focus was on sharing knowledge and providing support for each other.
4. **Working together for a common goal**. Class projects can be a good tool for this. In one low-intermediate speaking and listening class, the class created a video about the class members' experiences as newcomers to the community that was shared with a local high school class studying immigration. The high school students wrote questions, the English class chose their favorites, and then the English learners planned, scripted, and filmed a video to answer the student questions.

REAL Communication Template

In the examples above, typical language learning activities were adapted to maximize opportunities for building community. The method for adapting activities can be summarized using the REAL (relational, engaging, authentic, and life-promoting) communication template (Dormer & Woelk, 2018).

R - Relational means that the activities are designed with the purpose of using language to build relationships. In the previous examples, storytelling, asking and answering personal questions, giving encouragement and positive feedback, and making decisions together are all language strategies that build relationships and help to solve problems in community.

E - Engaging points to the need for motivation and fun. Personal stories, familiar games, talking about their ideas for an assignment, and interacting with students from the local school all motivate students to use language and get involved in the activities.

A - Authentic refers to whether the task is something like learners might experience in daily life. Telling someone about their day, asking questions to get to know someone, giving feedback on a work product, and collaborating on a project were all tasks that the learners in the respective

classes would need in their lives.

L - Life-promoting means that activities can energize or support learners to go beyond a narrow focus on English. In the examples, using creativity to take photos, getting to know others and sharing about themselves, encouraging one another, and helping the local and newcomer groups to understand each other better can enrich learners' lives beyond an increase in English language proficiency.

Conclusion

Focusing on language first before trying to build community limits learners and may decrease interest and motivation, as well as learning ability in the classroom. Instead, using the REAL communication template, teachers of beginner and low-intermediate proficiency learners can focus first on community-building, which will create the context, motivation, and opportunity for increased fluency.

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Learning Lessons: Developing a University Reading and Writing Curriculum

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> "If a language course is not achieving the results that it should, or if the nature of the course causes dissatisfaction for the teachers or learners, then one of the first prerequisites for change is present. If the whole range of people affected by the change see the need for change, the conditions are ideal. Often, however, not everyone sees the need and those who are dissatisfied may have to convince those who are not. This often occurs when change in the classroom becomes necessary because our understanding of effective language-learning practices change."
> (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 174)

During the semester vacation between fall 2016 and spring 2017, our faculty at Seoul National University of Science and Technology OIE was tasked with creating a reading and writing course for implementation in spring 2017. Creating a language course can be a rare and exciting, albeit daunting, opportunity for teachers to have. Commonly, faculty teach courses that others created years before, and while teachers make modifications as necessary during and after each course presentation, current teachers are infrequently present during the course's nascent development stage. While our faculty was able to create and implement the two-credit Practical Reading and Writing course (PERW) on schedule, the prohibitive time constraint meant that we were unable to conduct the comprehensive curriculum needs analysis requisite for informing our pedagogical and curricular decisions. Therefore, following the conclusion of the first semester of PERW, the PERW Curriculum Committee relied on the standard-bearers of curriculum and program design to formulate a multi-step process for identifying stakeholders' needs and goals, assessing the existing course, and initiating and effectuating necessary revisions.

"Ways of doing needs analysis can be evaluated by the same general criteria used to evaluate tests – reliability, validity, and practicality," assert Nation and Macalister, authors of *Language Curriculum Design* (2010), which provides a thorough and detailed guide with valuable insights into the overall design process and the key elements of needs and goals. As the PERW Curriculum Committee mapped its needs analysis route, the committee relied heavily on Nation and Macalister's research. Although many additional resources have served and do serve as beacons directing our process, the committee found Kiely and Rea-Dickens' *Program Evaluation Language Education* (2005) beneficial for ideas on evaluating existing courses and tools to glean stakeholders' observations into how to make the course more useful, engaging, and relevant. Likewise, the committee members used Graves' *Designing Language Courses: A Guide for Teachers* (2000) to assist in understanding the context in which we found ourselves and for providing a comprehensive language course design model.

In this interactive workshop, presenters invite participants to engage in an abbreviated version of the language course design process using the presenters' authentic experience as a case study. In small groups, participants (a) consider major steps in the process, (b) learn how the presenters approached the steps, (c) examine the advantages and disadvantages of the presenters' decisions, (e) contribute their own

perspectives and insights to the course development, and ultimately, (f) learn from the presenters' and their own critical analysis and reflections.

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From Voiceless to Fearless: Designing Innovative Tasks to Enhance Fluency

Maria Luz Elena N. Canilao (Ateneo de Manila University)

Introduction

How can teachers inspire voiceless language learners in the 21st century to own English and use it fearlessly? How can learners become eloquent communicators and connect with speakers from various parts of the world? How can English empower students and promote cultural and linguistic diversity? These are the main questions that this workshop addresses. It proposes an enhanced framework based on the Materials Design Model (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) to guide participants in producing integrated lessons for enhancing students' fluency. It demonstrates how tenets of *Education in a Multilingual World* (UNESCO, 2003) and Global Englishes (Gallaway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; Vettorel, 2015) may be applied in choosing the input, composing content-focus and language-focus activities, and creating tasks to develop learners' communicative and intercultural competence.

Voiceless in the English Classroom

Language learners often remain silent and passive in the classroom because they find it difficult to express their ideas in English. They are afraid of making mistakes in grammar and sounding different from their friends and classmates who are regarded as fluent speakers in English. They may feel insecure and isolated, thinking that they have no right to own and use English. Deep down, they may also feel resentful if it is forced upon them and if they see no point in learning it. Thus, reducing the affective filter (Krashen, 1981) is crucial in helping them to acquire it.

Teachers of the English language have their own knowledge of the affective filter because of their own language learning experiences. They understand how it works because they themselves were students who had to develop their English language communication skills. This insight may actually be the starting point for exploring various ways of building the confidence of their students. Teachers may encourage learners to become fearless speakers by establishing a non-threatening and fun atmosphere in the classroom, allowing them to use various tools and resources that will help them communicate their ideas in English, acknowledging their efforts instead of emphasizing their errors, and making them aware of the joys and benefits of learning English.

Innovative in Creating Materials

Fluency involves the awareness to fulfill a particular purpose, the sensitivity to choose appropriate expressions according to the communication context, and the ability to convey messages effectively. Providing a specific situation that demands the use of English is crucial in enhancing fluency. Teachers, therefore, need to design lessons that utilize authentic texts and tasks to make them relevant and meaningful for students (Nunan, 2004).

Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) Materials Design Model offers a framework that teachers may use in creating innovative tasks. It includes a primary input (e.g., a video, a short story, a personal account, an advertisement) that may serve as a sample or model of communication, content-focus activities that allow

learners to understand the input, language-focus activities that enable them to learn the language, and the culminating task that provides opportunities for learners to engage in lifelike communication.

In choosing the input, teachers have to take into account their pedagogical objectives as well as their learners' context and culture. Students' high level thinking skills may be sharpened through content-focus activities and their critical language awareness may be heightened through language-focus activities. The final task may approximate actual communication situations (e.g., informative speeches, debates, multimodal presentations) to improve their productive skills.

Fearless in the 21st Century

As stated in *Education in a Multilingual World* (UNESCO, 2003, p. 16), "Language is not only a tool for communication and knowledge but also a fundamental attribute of cultural identity and empowerment, both for the individual and the group." The English language has evolved into Global Englishes, and it now belongs to speakers from various regions and backgrounds (Gallaway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015). Teachers have to be trained in exposing language learners to English varieties because it is essential in helping them connect with different English communicators (Vettorel, 2015). Living in the 21st century means interacting with speakers from several parts of the globe. For them to be truly empowered, learners have to realize the importance of embracing their own distinct voices to reveal their identities and respecting other people's unique accents to uphold cultural and linguistic diversity and equality.

Hence, in choosing input for enhancing fluency, teachers may consider samples that show how speakers from different countries communicate effectively in English (e.g., online videos promoting tourism). Content-focus activities may include exercises for listening and reading comprehension (e.g., interpreting and evaluating the online videos' messages and images) and language-focus activities may involve recognizing how language use varies across cultures, countries, and contexts (e.g., comparing language expressions in English). Lifelike tasks may indicate the specific communication purpose, audience, and context. The following outline indicates a sample task.

Purpose: to inform tourists about your region (popular attractions and dishes, culture, other interesting details) and to encourage them to visit your region
Audience: young travelers from different parts of the globe
Context: promoting tourism in your region through a short video

My research discoveries have taught me to use the Materials Design Model more strategically and critically by incorporating the principles of *Education in a Multilingual World* and Global Englishes in developing my lessons and conducting them in multicultural classrooms. I have learned the value of creating innovative tasks with a particular purpose and context for communication. I have seen the impact of expanding the students' capacity in utilizing linguistic and non-linguistic resources to relay their ideas freely and confidently. These are some options that other teachers may consider in enhancing English language learners' fluency.

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Integrating Critical Thinking Skills into EFL Programs

Anthony S. D'Ath (Korea University, Seoul)

This workshop will demonstrate how techniques in critical thinking can be integrated into an academic English program for EFL university students in Korea and possibly extended to other relevant EFL programs. In doing so, it will be demonstrated how second language skills are enhanced for the student, along with concise methods for the teacher to enhance those skills in his or her students.

INTRODUCTION

Courses in critical thinking can cover a wide range of skills from basic concepts in logic through to contextual and critical analysis of ideas. In ESL and EFL fields, more focus is often placed on the expression of ideas in the context of debate or in more basic exercises that involve formulating assertions on contested topics. At advanced levels, arguments to inquire and negotiate are occasionally introduced, along with evaluation of sources.

Students' native language may more effectively provide some of the mechanics for developing the skills to perform the above-mentioned activities. However, in accord with the modern demand for content-based language programs, this workshop will present material in English that has been used to teach nonnative speakers some basics in logic and furthermore enhance not only comprehension of the language but also in some cases articulation, along with overall proficiency of English communication.

Attendees will be presented with material that has been applied in a university-level academic English program for EFL students and a three-credit Critical Thinking in English elective. The workshop is divided into five segments with a narrower skillset being applied to each segment. Participants can briefly engage in some of the exercises pertaining to that skillset (see Figure 1).

THE WORKSHOP SEGMENTS

Segment 1: The Basics

This segment introduces the very basics in logical concepts. It will be shown how mastery of these concepts can provide greater ease in approaching some of the more challenging tasks presented further on. Basic definitions of such terms as *propositions*, *premises*, *conclusions*, *inferences*, *arguments* (deductive and inductive), *validity*, and (propositional) *truth* are given. Participants can also undertake some exercises that have been given to students that require distinguishing these terms.

Segment 2: Argument Paraphrasing, Diagramming, Problems in Reasoning

With the "fundamental" building blocks presented in the first segment, it will then be demonstrated how extensions can be made into techniques of paraphrasing and diagramming arguments. The dynamics of

argument diagramming can be particularly challenging, and along with paraphrasing, can be a powerful teaching tool. Another useful cognitive function of distinguishing arguments from explanations will be briefly touched on. Finally, using some of the above skillsets, techniques in solving problems in reasoning will be presented with participant activities.

Segment 3: Exploring the Uses of Language

How can awareness of the underlying uses of language be utilized to aid language proficiency? Here I briefly present relevant material in the basic functions of language, discourse serving multiple functions, emotive and neutral language, and exercises identifying agreement and disagreement in attitude and belief. Of course, these are huge topics, and I only want briefly to make mention of related exercises that have been used in the classroom and that have been effective in enhancing students' comprehension of English. Particularly the last two topics (emotive and neutral language, and exercises identifying agreement and disagreement in attitude and belief) are also useful building blocks for what follows in working with definitions.

Segment 4: Definitions

In some ways the topic of definitions has been the most challenging to teach in this field. Classifying disputes and definitions has led to some of the most vigorous interactions in lectures with students at a more advanced level. Some components of this topic are better suited to an actual critical thinking course or advanced English program as opposed to integrating components into other ESL/EFL programs. However, exercises in definitions and their uses (stipulative, lexical, précising, etc.), structures of definitions (extension – intension, denotative – intensional) have been used to engage students in challenging activities that can practically expand vocabulary in the second language.

Segment 5: Fallacies

What critical thinking course would be complete without material on fallacies? This topic has been utilized most effectively in my courses at all levels of second and foreign language proficiency. A common distinction is made between informal and formal fallacies, and it is the former that can most readily be adapted to language programs. Informal fallacies are presented in four categories: fallacies of relevance, fallacies of defective induction, fallacies of presumption, and fallacies of ambiguity. I will discuss how this material has been presented in the classroom along with the tasks given to students. Brief mention will also be made of formal fallacies, although much of this material is too technical to be used in language learning programs and has only been employed at more advanced levels in critical thinking programs.

CONCLUSION

There is a large array of material in critical thinking programs that can be successfully integrated into EFL programs or other similar programs in English for non-native speakers: from the basics in proposition, premise, conclusion, and argument identification into logical problem solving; to exploring some of the underlying uses of language, into working with structures of definitions; and finally (for the purposes of

this workshop), we then move into fallacy classification and identification. Within all these topics, students can be challenged with material and practical exercises that develop their comprehension and use of a second language as critical thinking skill itself is enhanced.

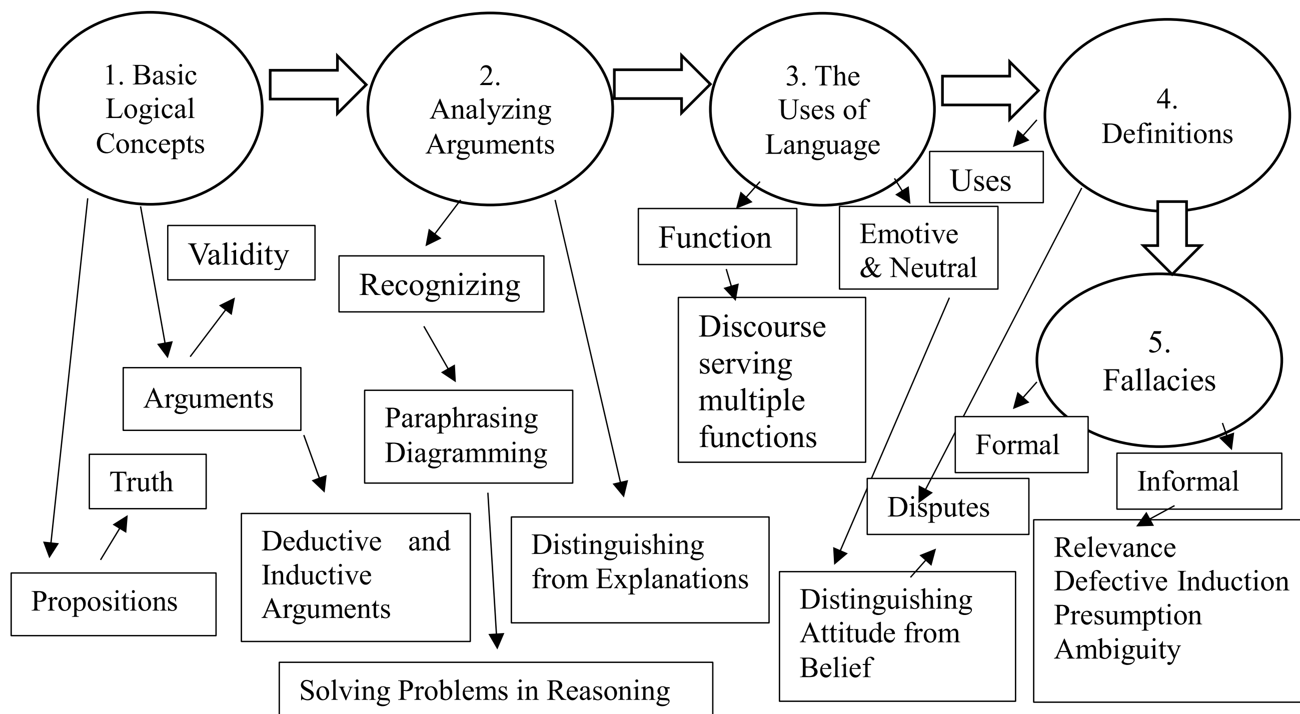

FIGURE 1. Skillsets of the Five Segments.

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A "THE" or the "A"? A Cognitive Grammar Approach

Kent Lee (Korea University)

Definite and indefinite articles have bedeviled learners for ages, and traditional grammar rules have not served them well. Such rules, along with traditional prescriptive grammar teaching, contribute to incomplete, inaccurate, and confusing descriptions of English articles, and leave learners without a reliable, systematic, or logical understanding of their use (H. Lee, 1997, 1999; Yoo, 2009). These markers, or delimiters (a term proposed as an alternative to "article"), include definite and indefinite delimiters, as well as bare (unmarked or "zero article") noun phrases, which modify nouns in context to express particular meanings and nuances.

An alternative approach is presented within a cognitive linguistic framework, which draws from cognitive psychology and considers the natural meanings of nouns and their use in context. This leads to a different understanding of delimiter and noun use, particularly in that their usage is described by patterns of meanings, rather than rules.

This workshop will provide more intuitive explanations of noun and delimiter usage, starting with basic patterns for bare singular and plural nouns, definite delimiters, and indefinite delimiters. Then, more specialized uses of these semantic patterns will be shown, which can better explain various complexities of delimiters that may be unclear to learners.

Presenting and exercising a comprehensive set of rules is not helpful for learners. However, the cognitive patterns presented here lend themselves well to more interactive types of learning, where one lesson or activity focuses on one particular pattern or function. Accordingly, this talk will present ideas for inductive, communicative, and interactive class activities and exercises for the various patterns.

General Approach

I start with the assumption that these forms are not strictly grammatical, and not just pragmatic, but dependent on speakers' and listeners' intended meaning of a noun in a given context. As such, their purpose is to specify or delimit the intended meaning of a noun in a specific context. A noun's meaning can vary greatly depending on context and speaker intention. For this reason, I prefer to call these forms "delimiters" rather than use the rather meaningless term "article."

For example, we can refer to coffee as a liquid material that is essential for higher brain functions; in that case, we use the bare noun *coffee*. But in other contexts, we use it differently. I can ask for *a coffee* at a coffee shop, and the intended meaning is clearly for a specific container and quantity of the elixir – an object, a thing, rather than a material. Many EFL students do not realize we can say this, because they have been taught prescriptive rules that have nothing to do with the real world and real English usage. The traditional rules do not work here, because so many nouns can vary between "mass" and "count" nouns, such that the mass–count distinction is useless.

Likewise, the first–second mention rule (*a/an* for first mention of a noun, *the* for subsequent mentions) breaks down because, in so many contexts, we violate this supposed rule. We say that a satellite is "in orbit," which is just as grammatically correct as "in an orbit" but with a different semantic nuance. I can "go by bus" or "take the bus" or "take a bus" to work – all valid, but with different nuances. Learners are also taught to use *the* with musical instruments, but we can say that "Luna plays piano" or "plays the

piano" – both valid but different. And a famous pop song begins with "In the jungle, the lion sleeps tonight" in flagrant violation of the supposed first mention rule.

This workshop will show how I have taught these forms in my classes, starting from basic patterns (*a/an*, *the*, bare singular nouns, bare plural nouns) and what they actually signify. From these, more specialized patterns and usages are derived, and it is often these specialized patterns that learners find confusing, and that are explained so poorly in textbooks. Understanding how these show natural, real-world, usage-based distinctions leads naturally to more intuitive ways of presenting, explaining, and practicing these forms. It is actually possible to teach these in ways consistent with an interactive or communicative learning classroom, for example, by focusing on one meaning pattern at a time, or comparing two related patterns, that express particular meanings in context. Various ideas will be presented for teaching and explaining these forms, especially for intermediate and advanced learners. These include inductive grammar lessons, and practice activities for particular contexts and topics.

Research Basis

My research began years ago by avoiding the standard grammar approaches and theoretical linguistic approaches, and instead by turning to cognitive semantics (Lyons, 1995; Taylor, 2002), as well as schema theory (Murphy, 2004) and other research in cognitive psychology, some of which forms the original basis for cognitive linguistics. Cognitive grammar assumes that grammatical forms convey a basic meaning in and of itself (Goldberg, 1995). This meaning can be extended by various well-known pragmatic mechanisms to derive new and more specialized uses of a form. By applying this approach to the data, I developed an analysis that started to address the more confusing and difficult usage patterns of delimiters and nouns. I developed an analysis and a set of lessons for teaching these forms, which I refined over the years.

To refine my analysis and my teaching materials, I conducted grammaticality/pragmatic judgment surveys and gave them to my students before and after the delimiter units. This helped to identify some of the more specific problematic patterns for learners. The results of these studies were presented at several applied linguistic conferences (Lee, 2014, 2016), as well as some pedagogical research along the lines of action research on the teaching approach (Lee, 2017a). I also conducted a preliminary study of corpus data, comparing L1 and L2 usage patterns, which provides some evidence for the various patterns and contrasts in this framework (Lee, 2017b). I am working on more research on this, which I hope to publish in the future.

Conclusion

In this workshop, I will not go into detail about the empirical research that I have done. Rather, I will explain and demonstrate my approach to delimiters, the different elements of the teaching approach and explain possible ways of teaching and practicing these forms.

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Building Vocabulary Skills and Classroom Engagement with Kahoot!

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INTRODUCTION

Kahoot, an Internet-based game platform, enables students to practice language skills, particularly vocabulary, in a fun and inviting atmosphere. Teachers can create quizzes, puzzles, surveys, and polls using Kahoot, and students can respond during class time using a smartphone. By mimicking a gameshow, on which students are contestants and the teacher is the host, Kahoot encourages students to compete with each other, which, research suggests (Wang, 2015; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016; Iaremenko, 2017; Wichadee & Pattanapichet, 2018), both increases motivation to learn and engagement with class material. These games help teachers and students study vocabulary and other aspects of language in a kinetic environment that, the results of our pilot study suggest, improves the students' vocabulary retention. This action research-based workshop presents the results of a pilot study gauging the efficacy of Kahoot as a means of increasing student vocabulary retention in university EFL students in South Korea. It demonstrates implementing Kahoot via hands-on exercises, tutorials, and a discussion of best practices gleaned over the course of the pilot study.

THE PILOT STUDY

By building Kahoot quizzes around sets of vocabulary words derived from textbooks used in both experimental- and control-group classes, the pilot study assessed the impact Kahoot had on vocabulary retention and classroom engagement, working with the assumption that the platform would improve both. In total, 51 students participated in the pilot study; there were 37 students in the experimental-group classes and 14 students in the control-group classes. Experimental-group teachers used the same Kahoot quizzes to present vocabulary words to their students, both as multiple-choice questions and as fill-in-the-blank questions. Experimental-group teachers were not instructed to use Kahoot in a specific way, though most used it as an introductory or concluding activity. The pre- and post- tests included both multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank questions (12 of each) and was comprised of vocabulary words used in the Kahoot quizzes played by students in experimental-group classes.

The study was conducted at a South Korean university in 2018, at which all incoming first-year students are placed into levels using a diagnostic test (10 multiple-choice questions and a timed writing assignment). According to Marsonet, students whose score fell in the bottom 30% of overall scores were placed in Level A classes, the middle 40% were placed in Level B, and the top 30% of students were placed in Level C. Students who missed the university diagnostic test were placed into Level B by default (personal communication, August 24, 2018). Students who participated in the pilot study were all enrolled in Level B classes. Though final results of the pilot study are pending, pretest and posttest data, our empirical evidence, and the automatically generated scores from each Kahoot quiz all suggest that Kahoot improves vocabulary retention while fostering a positive learning environment and a meaningful learning experience.

WHY KAHOOT IN EFL?

Including gamification techniques in class has numerous benefits for EFL students, from increasing motivation and feelings of self-determination as language learners to maintaining focus on course materials and encouraging often-quiet students to participate in class. It is important to note, as did Licorish, Owen, Daniel, and George (2018), the distinction between "game-based learning" and "gamification." In the former, teachers use games to achieve an educational outcome, while in the latter, teachers include gaming elements into non-gaming environments (p. 2). Kahoot is a gamified approach to student-response systems (SRSs), which are not uncommon, but which are bulky and obsolete, since students can bring their own devices (smartphones or tablets) to class (Wang, 2015). There are myriad benefits to a gamified SRS (GSRS) such as Kahoot. Wang (2015) summarized them succinctly: "Based on observations and feedback from teachers using Kahoot, the main difference between a game-based student response system (GSRS) and an [*sic*] classical student response system (SRS) is the energy and engagement the gamification creates" (p. 2). Indeed, students in the experimental group of our pilot study often came to class asking if Kahoot was on the schedule for the day and, in some cases, they formed heated rivalries that lasted throughout the study.

In addition to being logistically easier to implement than a traditional SRS, Kahoot has the potential to intrinsically motivate language learners and create a meaningful learning experience. Malone's theory of intrinsically motivating instruction has three categories for making things fun to learn: *challenge*, *fantasy*, and *curiosity* (as cited in Wang, 2015, p. 2, emphasis in original). As a GSRS, Kahoot was designed with these principles in mind:

> The *challenge* is to answer unknown questions and try to beat other players, the *fantasy* is to be part of a game show, and the *curiosity* is provided both through inviting graphics and audio as well as solving a cognitive puzzle (finding the correct answer and wait to see if it was correct or not). (Wang, 2015, pp. 2–3)

Wang (2015) also found that class attendance was much higher when using Kahoot, so much so that nearly 100% of students stayed focused on the task at hand and 94% of students wanted to use Kahoot in class at least once per week (p. 4). Novak's model of meaningful learning may provide a view to understanding Kahoot's potential effectiveness. Licorish, et al. (2018) wrote that, in that model

> Teachers encourage students to engage in deeper learning rather than rote memorising, which occurs during GSRS use. […] Students who have been taught through deep learning strategies (such as GSRS use) become highly engaged and, as a result, are able to apply their deep learning strategies to their study practices. (p. 3)

Novak (2010) wrote that deep, meaningful learning takes place when learners choose to substantively integrate new concepts with their existing cognitive structure. Meaningful learning also leads learners to feel in control of newly acquired knowledge and therefore are able to apply it to the pursuit of further meaningful learning, which is a strong intrinsic motivator (p. 22). As Kahoot is designed to intrinsically motivate students and facilitate meaningful learning, implementing it in the EFL classroom could lead to students acquiring more English words, retaining them longer, and being active and engaged class participants.

How to Implement Kahoot in an EFL Class?

Participants in the Kahoot workshop based upon this research will learn time-saving tips, strategies for creating and sharing Kahoots and how to mesh them into their existing curricula. The workshop includes live demonstrations of both effective *and* ineffective Kahoots, tutorials on how to make Kahoots that interest and benefit students, and other useful advice and recommendations. Some strategies from the pilot study include

- trying to lessen reading time for students during gameplay. If students are to define a word as part of a Kahoot quiz, list the definition and then offer multiple words for students to choose from, rather than listing four possible definitions for a single word.
- using the "Jumble" Kahoot for simple syntax practice. The "Jumble" feature rearranges words on the screen and students use their phones to place them in the correct order. This type of game works well for short, simple sentences but can be quite confusing with longer or complex sentences.
- being consistent with gameplay. Many students in the pilot study began expecting to play Kahoot either at the beginning or end of each class session, so consistency is key in maintaining a positive classroom environment.
- keeping the Kahoots short. Though the pilot study did not consider the "wear out" effect (students growing tired of Kahoot), empirically, the researchers observed that most students grew tired of playing Kahoot when asked to answer more than 12–15 questions on a given class day.

The workshop will detail how to save time in making Kahoots as well as how to share them among colleagues and collaborators. It will also include a discussion of how to use Kahoot alongside other multimedia-assisted language-learning (MALL) strategies.

Conclusion

Kahoot is an effective way to create intrinsic motivation among language learners and to engage them with the classroom and their peers. Such engagement and intrinsic motivation are key to encouraging language acquisition and long-term retention. Kahoot provides an enjoyable and meaningful learning environment that, if implemented carefully and consistently, increases the likelihood of vocabulary acquisition in EFL students. Though more research is needed to fully understand Kahoot's efficacy in the university EFL classroom, it is nonetheless a promising addition to it.

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