THE 27TH ANNUAL KOREA TESOL INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

Advancing ELT: Blending Disciplines, Approaches, and Technologies

October 12-13, 2019
Sookmyung Women's University
Seoul, Korea

Invited Speakers
Rod Ellis
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Curtis Kelly
Kara Mac Donald
Bodo Winter
Birsen Tutunis
Stephen Ryan
Heyoung Kim
Peter Roger

Invited Panels
Women in Leadership
   in ELT
Women in Leadership
   in Korea

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Extended Summaries

The 27th Korea TESOL

International Conference – 2019

Select Summaries of Conference Presentations

Editor: David E. Shaffer

Published by Korea TESOL
September 15, 2019

Korea TESOL
KOTESOL · 대한영어교육학회

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Drawing on Skillsets Outside of ELT to Inform Instructional Practice

Kara Mac Donald (Defense Language Institute, Monterey, California, USA)

There is an immense benefit to understanding skill transfer: how skills from a previous field of study, profession, and/or personal discipline inform you as a language teacher. There is even a greater value in explicitly drawing on this diverse skillset for instructional practice, as making conscious connections between the overlap of skillsets permits deliberate and effective use of these skills. Then deliberate, thoughtful and measured actions can be implemented for student learning outcomes. Also, the act of assessing the overlap of skillsets between distinct fields is a form of reflective practice and professional development. Identifying both the hard skills and soft skills you possess from professions and/or disciplines outside ELT should be easy. Connecting the skills and practically identifying how they can inform and enhance your ELT is key and may be challenging. The session begins by describing skills transfer to frame the examination of subsequent sample case studies, followed by a description of a "rubric" for attendees to assess their own skillsets as well as resources for further reading and use.

BACKGROUND

Assessing skillset transfer started with work examining how ELT professionals could harness and re-market existing ELT skillsets for other ELT positions to secure job security in a shrinking market. The parallel and almost simultaneous examination of skill transfer among ELT professionals from previous disciplines and diverse personal activities emerged. Continued work and interviews in preparation for the KOTESOL 2019 International Conference presentation have shown that maybe they are not exclusive from each other, but may inform one another. So, the identified focus in the abstract is addressed and made more practical by broadened the factors that an ELT professional brings to the profession.

Based in North America, where the English as a second language (ESL) industry has been experiencing significant changes, from demographic shifts to fluctuating international student mobility trends to reductions in state budgets and a rise in contract work, the presenter has witnessed teachers encountering an increasingly competitive job market. Insecurity of employment and degree viability loom over many teachers and create stressful realities. Agency and professional self-awareness are key for ESL teachers to secure meaningful and personally challenging employment when faced with industry change. These educators in this ever-changing employment market, both novice and experienced professionals, can benefit from examining their skillsets to strategically move into other sectors of education.

In collaboration with other mid-career colleagues, the presenter has conducted various conference panel sessions and published pieces on ESL professionals assessing their skillsets to market themselves for positions outside the classroom for both lateral and upwards mobility within education in the areas of administration, student services, and faculty development. The objective has been to offer ESL professionals at all career stages strategies to identify skillsets and growth areas, targeted professionals development opportunities, ways to translate skills, and areas of growth within education related to the ESL/EFL career field.

This work then lead the presenter, with another group of mid-career educators, to examine the opposite side of the coin in some way; understanding how the diverse skillsets of ELT professionals inform classroom instructional practice, since in many cases ESL/EFL teachers often come to the field with a degree outside of education and/or prior career experience. Additionally, the range of personal, amateur, and professional activities ELT teachers participate in also informs who they are in the classroom and, therefore, how they approach their instructional practice (Stillwell, 2013).

Previously based in Korea, the presenter is familiar will how the Korean English as a foreign language (EFL) industry has also been experiencing significant changes, from demographic shifts to changing international student trends to reductions in government programs and budget, and visa and educational policy changes. So, English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers, both native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), have faced the effect of a shrinking job market. EFL professionals in Korea can leverage and market their skillsets, from ELT experiences and non-ELT experiences to be competitive in the current job market by highlighting this diversified skillset.

DESCRIBING SKILLS TRANSFER

Skills are talents and the abilities that fall into soft skills, hard skills, domain-specific skills, and general life skills. All skills matter, even if acquired informally like through volunteer work, community service, networking events or personal hobbies or activities. These skills can be assessed from a wide range of experiences, jobs and industries can be assessed, and applied to tasks in other disciplines (Lorenz, 2017), like ELT.

Case Study Examples

Connecting the skills and practically identifying how they can inform, enhance, and provide a competitive advantage in the Korean ELT industry, and beyond, is key but may be challenging if an individual has simply, only, and exclusively seen oneself as a platform classroom teacher of English. Case study examples of ESL/EFL individuals are described to illustrate the outcome of the process one would go through, which is primarily an abstract conceptual analysis of a variety of experiences and the quantifiable skills gained, matched with the identified tangible positive impact on a particular job or sub-task of a job position.

Skill Transfer from ELT for Lateral or Upward Mobility

Classroom English Teacher to Online Course Curriculum Developer
A middle-aged, mid-career English teacher with a master's degree in TESOL, supported by a bachelor's degree in a similar discipline, found that he/she was increasingly struggling to secure academic and test preparation course positions. She reviewed what she did every day at a classroom level with respect to lesson objectives, essential questions, lesson design, activity development, and formative and summative assessment, and framed those job activities within backwards design for curriculum development. She got the job. The session shares the analysis process this teacher went through to reframe classroom instructional skills for a curriculum development job and how she presented these skills in a hybrid resume.

Classroom English Teacher to Product Publisher Sales Representative
A young, early-career English teacher with a master's degree in TESOL, found that he/she was set up for prescribed classroom teaching opportunities but unable to earn the needed income for a reasonable lifestyle. Through volunteering in an ELT association, she gained advertising and business administration skills, and added these to her resume, and she landed a product representative position for an ELT company and does marketing, including ELT conference booth sales and marketing. Her analysis process is shared in the session.

Skill Transfer from Outside ELT for Classroom Practice/Lateral or Upward Mobility

Amateur Competitive Athlete and Teacher Trainer
A mid-career classroom teacher, with a bachelor's degree in law and a master's in FLT, sought job security with a shrinking demand for his foreign language in the market and acquired a teacher trainer

position. Just as with classroom teaching, he instinctively integrated sport training analogies and approaches to training students for short- and long-term proficiency goals. The session describes his process and approaches of how sport psychology and athlete training informed teacher training and instructional practice.

Systems Engineer and Test Prep Teacher

A recent graduate with a BA and MA in engineering, seeking to bring in income while waiting to land that ideal first job, taught for a cram, academic test prep school. He not only taught the needed subject matter skills but the test format and the larger structure of strategies and scoring. For those in test prep, teachers know the testing strategies inside and out. Yet as a young man with subject matter expertise only, he was still able to view and understand the test on another level without instruction or coaching as he used his system analysis skills to interact and teach the test. The session shares the skill transfer and how he instinctively assessed and applied these to ELT test prep.

CONCLUSION

Discipline specific job skill transfer is not necessarily easy. Reflecting and "going back" to assess non-ELT domain skills can be a nuisance if detached from that domain. Assessing current activity in non-ELT domains can be invigorating, but maybe there is not mental space in a day to do so. Assessing what you have done from a different professional discipline perspective takes deliberate intent and an action plan. The session provides not only case studies of what others have done but also a frame to examine your skills and a "rubric" to assess your skillsets as well as resources for further reading and use.

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Utilizing Multi-literacies to Develop Indonesian Students' Critical Literacy on News in Social Media in the EFL Context

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INTRODUCTION

Accessing social media has been a daily need for Indonesian society to get information. According to the survey by Mark plus Insight in 2010, it is shown that Indonesian internet users were tending to relinquish conventional media as their main source of information. The survey findings showed that the internet had become the first preference for seeking information and entertainment after television. Indonesia is among the top three countries in the word in terms of the number Facebook users. Moreover, in 2012, the highest increase in the number of Twitter users in the world, at 44.2%, occurred in Indonesia (Ambardi, 2014). The fact that fake news spread widely and wildly unpreventably needed some actions to be taken for educating society. Schools play an important role in educating people to have critical literacy skills. This research was conducted with 32 secondary school students aged 14 to 16 years old. This research used an online simulation game and the CARS checklist for evaluating sources, and then the students performed oral presentations to discuss the results and created a poster campaign at the end of the project.

PURPOSE

The most problem in Indonesia recently is related to the spread of fake news widely through social media. This has caused some conflicts in certain areas and distrust for many things such as government programs, some health issues, hoaxes about culture and social life, natural disasters, scientific facts, etc. Critical literacy skills are needed to educate the people to examine information and news in social media. This paper aims at describing how to develop critical literacy on news in social media by applying multi-literacies pedagogy in the ESL classroom.

CRITICAL LITERACY

Wray (2013) explained that critical literacy is not a new concept. It changes from context to context and is known in different parts of the world by term such as critical language awareness, critical social literacy, and critically aware literacy from different approaches. With critical literacy rests an assumption that language education can make a difference in students' lives. Teachers who value critical literacy will thus tend to have a stake in social change and will encourage their pupils to investigate, question, and even challenge relationships between language and social practices that give advantage to some social groups over others. Critical literacy sees that language cannot be separated from culture and social practices. The way we use language to communicate in writing and speaking is never neutral or value-free. Critical literacy involves the activity of analysis and evaluating. When we read a text, we do not only try to understand the meaning, but deeper than that, understand the social context, discover the deep meaning, and apply that meaning to our own context. Critical literacy skills give a student a deeper thinking skill – an understanding that no language media is neutral and the way language is used affects the ways students see something.

Understanding News in Social Media

Registered complaints about news programs' quality have increased in the Complaints Division of the Press Council. In 2007, the government and individuals filed 319 complaints (regarding either sources in stories or subjects in news stories). The number of complaints increased to 424 in 2008, and 442 in 2009.

In response to the increasing numbers of complaints, the Press Council eventually issued the Cyber Media News Coverage Guideline (Peraturan Dewan Pers No. 1/2012 tentang Pedoman Pemberitaan Media Siber). This outlines several ethical standards for cyber-journalism that include, among other things, the requirement for journalists to perform due verification, checking both sides of a story, and granting the right to reply. Thousands of news portals and blogs appear every day, and people easily spread the content without filtering it.

In this research, students are taught how fake news is made and spread using the *Fake It Make It* online simulation game. Students were actively involved in the learning process so that they could get real experience in the making of fake news, and they learned the technique, purpose, and benefits of spreading fake news. This activity trained the students in such skills such as analyzing, planning, vocabulary and reading comprehension, and making decisions. From observation and interviews, it was found that students would rather learn more how fake news is made using the simulation game than to read text or watch a video. After playing the simulation game, students did mind-mapping and presented their game results in a classroom discussion.

CARS Analysis

After playing the game and presenting the result, the next activity was reading and analyzing news text using the CARS checklist evaluation. Students read news and then analyzed the content in a group. The following is the analysis result using CARS; the news they analyzed, taken from social media, were mostly misleading.

Component	Indicator	Findings
Credibility	1. The author's credentials 2. Quality Control	1. Most, 27 of 32 news are **anonymous**, shared by hundreds even thousands of people. When students traced the accounts who share the news, most were fake accounts, no identity or clear name. 2. Statements issued in the name of an organization have almost never been seen. 3. There are some quotes and resources, but when they were checked, they were not the real people. There were no such experts or resources in that institution.
Accuracy	Timelines Comprehensiveness	1. The news about Mega trust earthquake in Banten was shared many times, it was said to be from the Geology faculty of ITB. In reality, the time of news is not mentioned when it was made, but every time an earthquake happens, the news was broadcasted though there is no exact date or day, and it can be used for reporting different events. 2. Comprehensiveness of the news is usually added with pictures to prove its accuracy. The fact is that almost all the pictures used in the news were not related to the news at all. The pictures used are different occasions or events from the news they share in social media.
Reasonableness It involves examining the information for fairness, objectivity and moderateness	Fairness Objectivity Moderateness	Mostly the news analyzed in this research can be seen by the indicator of moderateness. Some clues to a lack of reasonableness are: a. **Intemperate language**. The words are full of anger or violence. This kind of news is mostly related to political movements, certain political parties, and organizations. b. **Exaggerated claim**. This indicator was found in sample news reporting about a cyber-attack on the government's biggest bank in Indonesia.

		c. **Conflict of interest**. This indicator was found in sample news about the vaccine. At the end of the news, the news writer promoted some health supplement to replace vaccine.
Support Support for the writer's argument from other sources strengthens their credibility.	1. Bibliography and references 2. Corroboration	None of the sample news taken from social media added additional references.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Developing students' critical literacy skill is useful for educating people about the dangers of fake news (hoaxes). People must be skillful at questioning the news they get. Fake news has a big impact on society and can possibly be a threat to society, especially in Indonesia.
2. Using multi-literacies pedagogy motivated the students to learn about social issues. Various media that students use to learn about fake news created enthusiasm and deeper understanding. From interviews, it was found that as students became involved actively in simulating to create fake news, they found it is important to filter the news from social media. Students made a commitment to prevent hoaxes by actively campaigning to their relatives and friends. At the end of this project, students created a poster using the Canva application and shared their anti-hoax campaign through their social media.

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Exploring L2 Construal of Japanese and Korean University Students

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In Cognitive Linguistics, an approach to linguistics that rejects language as an autonomous entity and emphasizes the linkage of language structures to elements and structures outside language, a fundamental principle is that semantics is not objective, but is bound up in the perspective of the speaker/listener. This perspective requires that we consider not only what is being discussed but also try to understand the perspective from which the speaker is acquiring/presenting his or her information. A cover term for how speakers arrive at this perspective(s) is referred to as *construal*. Previous research in English classrooms in Japan has pointed to raising learner awareness of the differences in construals between their L1 and L2 as an effective strategy for language learning. Our research project is to investigate how construal may be different for L2 learners and how these differences can be exploited in the language classroom, and in this presentation, we will compare and contrast aspects of construal in Japanese and Korean university students. After presenting an introduction to construal, the presentation will briefly discuss the interviews used to gather this data, which follow the Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI) protocols, provide an interesting resource for researchers, and then discuss our preliminary findings.

INTRODUCTION

Linguistics has generally focused on the production of language rather than the reception of language. The reasons for this are straightforward: The most accessible data the linguist has is his or her own insights and on this introspective data, the foundations of linguistic theory have been built. This reliance on such data has unintentionally deemphasized the need for a theory of how language is received and understood. However, there still is an asymmetry in that data about reception is much more difficult to obtain and organize than data about production.

One of the concepts that has been put forward in Cognitive Linguistics (CG) to help redress this imbalance is the notion of construal. Like a number of ideas in Cognitive Linguistics, construal is taken from psychology, where it is defined as the process or method that viewers initially perceive, then comprehend, and finally interpret the world around them. This results in the ability to understand (i.e., construe) a situation in alternate ways. This ability is a cornerstone of CG (cf. Langacker, 1987) because it accounts for a great deal of phenomena that are unexplainable if it is assumed that semantic content has a one-to-one relationship with truth conditions.

While the vast majority of work with construal focuses on L1 speakers, our research focuses on L2 speakers and their production of L2 in the process of explaining situations, which we believe will give us some insight into the construal processes as well as provide useful information and techniques for language teaching.

WHY IS CONSTRUAL IMPORTANT?

In his recent plenary to the 2019 International Cognitive Linguistics Conference, William Croft argued that the difference between the words *leaf* and *foliage* was one of construal (Croft, 2019). An EFL practitioner might look at that claim suspiciously. After all, *leaf* is a more basic vocabulary item, acquired relatively early, while *foliage* is a word that is not necessarily in the vocabulary of all native speakers. Furthermore, *leaf* is multivalent, used in phrases such as *turn over a new leaf* and *gold leaf* as well as undergoing functional shift as in *leaf through a book*, none of which apply to the vocabulary item *foliage*. All this is true, but Croft's point, that the difference between phrases *the leaves are beautiful this time of*

year and *the foliage is beautiful this time of year* is fundamentally one of construal. In the first, the speaker is taking the leaves as individual items, thus requiring the plural. In the second, the speaker is taking the individual items as a collective group, hence singular.

Perhaps a better example might be the vocabulary items *players* and *team*, as in *the players are playing well tonight* and *the team is playing well tonight*. While these are practically equivalent in meaning, we can see that *players* identifies individuals while *team* identifies the collective. Hence, the phrase *the players are playing well tonight* but *the team isn't doing so well* makes perfect sense. On the other hand, *the team is playing well* even though *the players are playing poorly* seems like a non sequitur.

These examples give us an idea of how construal can help us to explain questions of word choice in grammar in a way that avoids rule-based solutions and provides a better scaffold for learners to understand and acquire the language. When viewed in this way, we can see that construal provides powerful explanations not only for word choice but also for difficult grammatical phenomenon such as alternation between indefinite and definite articles, singular–plural distinctions, and verb tense choice, among others. However, to understand how construal can be used for language education explanations, we must understand the mismatches possible with how L2 learners construe a situation versus how L1 speakers do so. In this presentation, we hope to set out some ways to do that (cf. Ohashi, H., Kawase, Y., Koga, K., Cho, K., and Murao, H., 2019).

THE LINDSEI CORPUS PROTOCOLS

To collect data, we followed the Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI) protocols (Gilquin, de Cock, & Granger, 2010), and one of the purposes of this presentation is to introduce the LINDSEI Corpus as a potential model for working with L2 speakers, especially in Asian EFL contexts.

The LINDSEI corpus was started in 1995, and the goal was to provide a spoken counterpart to the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE). In its finished form, it consists of transcripts of advanced learners following a set protocol. Because it was initiated in Louvain, Belgium, the initial core was of French mother-tongue learners of English, for a total of about 100,000 words of learner language and followed by 11 other groups, all available on CD-ROM.

The protocol consists of three tasks, a set topic, free discussion, and a picture description utilizing a four-frame picture, transcribed using a set of conventions, and linked to further data about the speaker. However, the corpus has several weaknesses. The first is its age and lack of updates. Also, the picture used in the picture description is of relatively poor quality and the "story" of the picture is quite difficult. Based on initial linguistic research by Kawabata (2017, 2018), this project continues to build on the LINDSEI protocol in order to utilize the impressive infrastructure that the LINDSEI protocol represents, while making it more accessible for use in Asian-based English-as-an-L2 situations.

DATA COLLECTION

This study collected two sets of data: Japanese learners of English and Korean learners of English. A total of 10 Japanese college students participated in this study. They were studying English at a Japanese university, and no one lived in an Anglophone country for more than six months.

Following the original protocol, three tasks were given: First, the interviewer asked a few questions in English with participants responding in English. This was followed by the interviewer presenting a topic, allowing one minute for preparation, and asking the participant to make a speech on the topic. Finally, the participant was requested to provide a description in English of a four-frame picture that was originally created for [kaken info] and slightly modified for this research project. The first and second tasks are modifications to provide more support, and one of our tasks is to develop this as a replicable procedure.

A second set of data was collected using Korean learners of English, and a total of 12 students at a Korean university with similar backgrounds to the Japanese students were interviewed with some changes in the protocol made.

We will discuss both the protocol and a number of interesting results that have emerged from the data, attempting to place those results in a context that can be utilized not only by researchers but also by language teaching practitioners.

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The Effect of Flipped Pedagogy on Students' Written Complexity and Fluency

Laurence Craven and Daniel Fredrick (American University of Sharjah, Sharjah, UAE)

Flipped pedagogy (FP) has received much attention over the past few years, the central question being whether FP in and of itself can improve student writing. In this research, we answered the call in the literature to continue the experimentation on the efficacy of FP. Thus, the following study attempted to explore whether FP had a significant effect on university students' written complexity and lexical density. Complexity and lexical density were chosen as they are used to measure proficiency in a language. A total of 120 students in composition classes at universities in the USA, Bulgaria, and the UAE took part in this mixed methods study. In each location, the intact groups of students were taught either using FP (treatment), or using traditional teaching techniques (control). The first essay and the last essay written during the term were collected and analyzed for writing proficiency measures, specifically complexity and lexical density. The study also included a questionnaire that attempted to elicit students' attitudes toward FP. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between the post-tests of the experimental and the control groups, showing that the effect of FP did not increase students writing proficiency.

INTRODUCTION

Flipped pedagogy has received much attention over the past few years, the central question being whether FP in and of itself can improve student writing. We answered the call in the literature to continue the experimentation on the efficacy of FP. Thus, the following study attempted to explore whether FP had a significant effect on university students' written complexity and lexical density. Complexity and lexical density were chosen as they are used to measure proficiency in a language.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Flipped pedagogy (FP) is popular in all levels of education due to its focus on active and self-regulated learning, not to mention the relative ease with which educators can seamlessly incorporate technology (videos, social media, etc.) into it. Studies as to the effectiveness of FP have arisen since 2000, and from 2015 to 2016, research exploded across many disciplines to determine the efficacy of FP. Most studies focused on the effectiveness of assignments, using test and quiz scores to determine improvement, and quite often, the research concluded that FP does improve learning (Akcayir & Akcayir, 2018). Even earlier, FP brought excitement to many educators because the results of the efficacy of FP were positive. Mason's study (2013) in an upper engineering course showed that students did on par or better on quizzes and exams than those in traditional courses. However, even though there is an overwhelmingly positive view of FP backed by extensive research, Akcayir and Akcayir (2018) concede that a number of articles still challenge the notion that FP improves learning. Indeed, for every study showing the effectiveness of FP, there seems to be a counter study showing that the method of FP has marginal, if any, impact. In fact, the same negative and positive findings hold true for ALS in which FP is often practiced (Craven & Fredrick, 2018). It also seems that if there is any improvement in learning, that improvement is minimal. In Lo and

Hew's (2017) review of fifteen articles on the effects of flipped pedagogy, the researchers report that there was a "neutral" or positive impact on learning and a mixed report on student attitudes toward the learning process. In conclusion, one of the greatest points of FP research that must be corrected is for FP research to expand the primary focus of studying the effects of assignments in isolation (quizzes, test scores, etc.) and begin to emphasize the effects of FP on semester long studies. To underscore this point, consider that for ten years, from 2006 to 2016, only one study (Day & Foley 2006) examined student progress and the impact of flipped pedagogy over the whole semester (Zuber, 2016). Given the fact that students experience the effects of pedagogy over an entire semester and not just for an assignment, the impact of FP should be measured across assignments through a whole semester. For this reason, we have examined the first and last essays in various writing course which allows us to see both the general effects of FP on individual assignments (essays) but also to what extent FP affects a student's progression in writing.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The focus of the proposed study was to examine the effects of flipped pedagogy on the proficiency (measured as complexity and lexical density) of students' academic writing. The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. Does flipped pedagogy have an effect on students' complexity?
RQ2. Does flipped pedagogy have an effect on students' lexical density?
RQ3. Do students prefer flipped or traditional methods of teaching?

The study was conducted at universities in the USA, Bulgaria, and the UAE, where 120 composition students participated voluntarily in the study. The data was collected from composition classes. There were 120 participants of which 60 students were in the control groups and 60 in the treatment groups. The students in the treatment groups were then taught using FP throughout the semester and were taught using activities and teaching methodologies concurrent with FP. The students in the control groups were taught in a regular classroom using traditional teaching techniques (lecture, note taking, etc.). Their first essay submission during week four of the term and final essay of the term during week 13 were collected and analyzed for writing proficiency measures, specifically complexity and lexical diversity. It should be noted that the content of classes were identical with the same teaching, materials and assessment. Students were also given a questionnaire that used a Likert scale to discover their attitudes toward flipped learning.

RESULTS

In order to investigate the complexity and lexical diversity of the participants writing after treatment (the final essay at the end of the course), a one-way ANOVA was run. The results of the one way ANOVA showed no statistically significant difference at the $p = 0.5$ level between the treatment and control groups. The descriptive statistics suggested that after treatment, the essays written in the flipped group (treatment) had higher complexity measures than those in the traditional (control) classroom and produced more complex writing, but students in the traditional classroom produced more lexically diverse writing. However, for complexity, the results of the one-way ANOVA show that for mean length of t-units and complex nominals per clause, the results were non-significant. Non-significant results were also found for

clauses per *t*-unit. For lexical diversity MTLD and Voc-D, the results were also non-significant but closely approaching significance $F(1, 118) = .374$, $p = .055$ for Voc-D. The results of the questionnaire suggest that more than half of the students involved preferred flipped pedagogy and found it valuable and close to 80% of the students felt that they learned more about writing from flipped pedagogy than traditional pedagogy. The students also responded that they were more active and more engaged in the course.

CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Although the descriptive statistics showed that the students in the treatment group exhibited slightly more complex writing compared with the control group, the results were non-significant. This shows that no matter what teaching methods were used, the students produce similar written complexity in their final compositions. This shows us that traditional or flipped teaching methods do not have a different effect on student's written complexity or lexical diversity and therefore it does not seem to matter which method the teacher prefers. Before concluding, however, it is of paramount importance to examine what student preferences are. If both methods produce analogous results, selecting the teaching methodology the students favor could be preferable to increase motivation and student satisfaction. When analyzing the results of the questionnaire it can be seen that students, on the whole feel flipped classrooms are better than traditional classrooms because they are more engaging, and allow them to set their own schedule for studying. These results suggest that practitioners should think more about the intersection between pedagogical practice and student preferences regarding what pedagogical method they learn under. Perhaps while further studies explore the impact of FP, practitioners can implement a blended learning approach, where depending on the assignment and topic, a flipped or traditional approach could be interwoven to provide a seamless learning experience.

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The Removal of the English Subject from the Primary School Curriculum in Indonesia: The Case of Students' Cultural Identity

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In line with the increasing popularity of ELT around the globe, the Indonesian government has made a controversial decision by the abolishment of the English subject at primary school levels within the implementation of *Curriculum 2013*, worrying that imposing foreign language and culture can lead to a national identity crisis. This decision has caused major debates among Indonesian education stakeholders. Therefore, this paper aims to explore students' L2 cultural identity formation through the contextualized EFL pedagogy. I argue that second/foreign language acquisition in the Indonesian primary school contexts does not give negative impacts to L1 cultural identity. I propose that integrating L1 and L2 identities through linguistic and cultural hybridity, acculturation, and differentiated instructions can be an alternative avenue to avoid cultural identity crisis.

CULTURAL IMPERIALISM AND ENGLISH HEGEMONY

The export of the English language all over the world has been prevalent in the present day. It clearly depicts that English has been correlated with the globalization process in the area of economy, politics, finance, commerce, military, education, and culture. Looking back at history, there is extensive literature that shows how and why the language is widespread, and one of the reasons is due to the imperialism of the British and American troops (Bailey, 1993; Kirkpatrick, 2010). In the globalization era, English has been shifted from being an imperialist tool to being a multinational tool attempting to implicitly expand the Anglo-American territory, economy, and culture (Kirkpatrick, 2010). Bailey (2000) argues that the globalization of English will have two significant impacts. Firstly, it leads the society towards changes as a result of new life and the use of English as a global language. Secondly, English will influence other languages and cultures.

IMPACTS ON EFL CURRICULUM IN INDONESIA

The increasing dominance of English has given impacts to English curricula in Indonesia. In line with the new curriculum that has been implemented in the 2013 curriculum. Arif (2015) argues that the government has abolished this subject at the level of the primary school curriculum. The government argues that students in primary school levels need to focus on developing their national culture and identity, and students who are imposed immensely with foreign culture might lose their own identity. Nonetheless, some research has proved that younger L2 learners generally do better than older ones supported by the critical period hypothesis that learners in a certain span of age can learn language naturally and effortlessly (Ellis, 1994). This policy then receives a lot of critique where teachers and parents went on demonstrations to contest and protest against the abolishment of English in primary school education (Zein, 2017) believing that the mastery of English can prepare students facing the global challenges (Arif, 2015).

CULTURAL IDENTITY FORMATION IN SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

The dominance of English has significant implication in cultural identity transformation among those who use the language (Lie, 2017). Hall (1997b) defines cultural identity from two different lenses. Firstly, cultural identity is a form of one shared culture or a collective of "one true self" possessed by a group of people with a shared history and ancestry. The second view is that cultural identity acts as a process of becoming. As identity is constructed through difference (Bright, 2017; Deleuze, 1994; Hall, 1997a, b; Woodward, 1997), identity formation is perceived as relational. In this case, there is L1 identity because there is the existence of L2 identity. That is to say, one identity requires another identity to provide its existence (Ha, 2008; Woodward, 1997).

Second/foreign language learners in primary classrooms are positioned in multiple relationships and exposed to numerous social interactions and experience, which leads to the notion that the transformation and the interchangeability of students' cultural identities become inevitable. In EFL primary classroom practices in Indonesia, it is fundamental that the students develop an understanding of the difference between L1 and L2 culture that can help them define and reconstruct the way the students see themselves and their identities in the classrooms and the broader society. In this case, the formation of students' cultural identity occurs through transformation strategies (De Cillia, Reisigl, & Wodak, 1999) where there is transformation of meaning and expression when speakers switch between two languages. This switching also allows students to transform between L1 to L2 identities and to avoid cultural dissonance, the act of incorporating L1 and L2 identities seems to be crucial in EFL primary classrooms.

INCORPORATING L1 AND L2 IDENTITIES IN INDONESIAN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

In line with the collaboration of EFL pedagogy and the local/national cultures, English teachers need to be aware of first language maintenance where the learning environment should promote the preservation and the growth of students' cultural identities. Therefore, I propose some strategies to incorporate L1 and L2 identities in EFL primary classrooms through linguistic and cultural hybridity, acculturation, and differentiated instructions.

The Phenomena of Linguistic and Cultural Hybridity

Language and culture are interconnected and sometimes a concept in one language cannot be translated into another language or even the concept is missing in another language. In this case, English teachers in primary school can combine the use of L1 and L2 in giving instructions for the students. Code mixing often reflects identity mixing where the language hybrid is thus a cultural hybrid (Tam, 2009). In the Indonesian context, code-mixing is acceptable in classroom practices to introduce students to the target language and cultures. In this case, L1 identities can help students construct L2 identities. Code-mixing has also made it possible to incorporate L1 and L2 identities to negotiate meaning of their learning.

Acculturation in ELT Practices

The cultural values within L1 and L2 language and culture in ELT practices are inextricably bound up. Realizing the connection, applied linguists and language teachers have started to increase awareness

that teaching a second/foreign language without addressing the culture of the community is hard since violations of cultural norms of appropriateness in interactions between native and non-native speakers lead to breakdowns and failure in communications (Hinkel, 1999). Based on this relationship, ELT should not be viewed as a threat that can endanger the local and national culture and identity, yet, English practitioners should localize the EFL classrooms in primary school education rather than abolishing them. This means that the teaching of English as a global language does not solely aim at enhancing economic growth but also to enrich knowledge of the local and national culture through the medium of English language by involving national and local contents of their learning. Thus, the students will have inclusive space to develop their cultural identity and cross-cultural understanding through localizing EFL pedagogy. In this sense, students can construct their cultural identities as owners, meaning-makers, and authorized users of English as a foreign language as part of the acculturation process and identity negotiation.

Differentiated Instructions

One aspect that cannot be neglected is the concept of difference in second language acquisition. Dealing with learners' difference, distinguishing ELT practices based on the learners' ability called differentiated instruction can also be a good, yet challenging, strategy to teach young learners. Therefore, it is important to differentiate learning based on students' proficiency levels. Madya (2007) recommends three standard levels of the Cyclone English curriculum model called instrumental, functional, and appreciative standards to provide every child opportunity to learn based on their ability, rates of learning, cultural backgrounds, and the possibility to move between standards. With that kind of learning environment, students can avoid cultural identity crisis, and the process of learning can help them to find their learning phases. It is also essential for EFL teachers in primary schools in Indonesia to explain both the linguistic and functional elements of the target language as well as to help students understand English speaking cultures and cultural identities adjusted to their level of proficiency.

CHALLENGES IN CONSTRUCTING STUDENTS' CULTURAL IDENTITY IN EFL CLASSROOMS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN INDONESIA

There are some challenges faced by English educators in Indonesian primary school education in shaping and constructing cultural identity in the foreign language classroom. The first challenge is about negotiating L1 and L2 identities where the concern of education stakeholders in Indonesia is that EFL learning can possibly diminish students' cultural identity (Lie, 2017). The second challenge is to get rid of the myth and misconceptions of English that language and culture from English-speaking countries is superior to local language and culture. There is a tendency in Asian society to look up to Western cultures (Lin & Man, 2009). The next challenge is the negative attitudes of both teachers and students in EFL primary classrooms in Indonesia. Some teachers feel unconfident because they have a lack of competence in teaching English (Lie, 2017).

CONCLUSIONS

Teaching English for young learners in Indonesian primary school contexts is more concerned with introducing the students to a basic knowledge and understanding of a foreign language and culture. It is to

widen their perspectives that there are many ethnicities and languages out there. In relation to cultural identity, teachers need to give students an understanding that the formation of cultural identity is fluid and dynamic. Thus, educating them to be open-minded and building a sense of acceptance in the students' way of thinking that there are differences between individuals, between one culture and another, or one language and another can avoid cultural identity conflicts and other cultural dissonances. Considering that there are some alternative teaching strategies in EFL primary classrooms that can help students reconstruct their L1 and L2 identities, there is a need to re-evaluate the government's decision of removing the English subject from the primary school curriculum in Indonesia.

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Meaning-Focused vs. Form-Focused Activities in Elementary School English Lessons

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INTRODUCTION

Japanese elementary school 5th and 6th graders have been learning English under the name of "foreign language activities" since 2011. English is usually team-taught by homeroom teachers (HRTs) and assistant language teachers (ALTs) who are native or near-native English speakers. Some students enjoy team-taught (TT) English lessons a great deal and show high motivation to learn English, whereas others do not show any favorable attitudes toward such TT lessons or even English itself. What brings about such different student attitudes? The purpose of the present study is to discern any characteristic(s) that may contribute to how much children enjoy English lessons.

METHOD

The author visited a total of 39 classes in the 5th and 6th grades in 14 public elementary schools in Japan from November 2013 to February 2019 to observe English lessons and conduct questionnaire surveys. Each class of 45 minutes was visited only once and video-recorded for later analysis. A five-item questionnaire survey was designed and conducted to reveal Japanese 5th and 6th graders' different attitudes toward English lessons. Two of the questionnaire items (Q1 and Q5) were particularly relevant to this study: Q1, which was multiple-choice, and Q 5, which was open-ended. Q1 asked students whether they enjoyed English lessons or not. They were asked to respond on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 4 ("Yes, very much") to 1 ("Not at all"). Q5 asked students to write about the activity/activities they enjoyed and did not enjoy during the English lesson, and also asked for reasons. Mean class scores were used to measure students' levels of enjoyment of English lessons. The present study focuses on two 6th grade classes, E6-1 and K6-1, as shown in Table 1. These two classes were chosen for a comparison for the following reasons: (a) both classes consisted of 6th graders and English teachers who were not the children's main, homeroom teachers; (b) both classes included speech activities on the same topic ("What do you want to be?"); and (c) the E6-1 enjoyment rate of English lessons (3.64) in particular was found to be significantly higher than that of K6-1 (3.00), $U = 155.00$, $p < .01$, two-tailed. In other words, students in these two classes experienced a wide gap in enjoyment levels despite having had the same topic covered.

TABLE 1. E6-1 and K6-1 Enjoyment Rates of English Lessons

School Grade-Class	Enjoyment Rate	*N*	Main Teacher	Year
E6-1	3.64	28	ALT	2014
K6-1	3.00	20	JTE	2019

Note. The letters "E" and "K" represent school names. "JTE" stands for Japanese teacher of English, and ALT for the "assistant language teacher."

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Questionnaire results showed that 20 (71.4%) out the 28 students in E6-1, the more enjoyable class, made an explicit reference to the speech activity as particularly fun, while none in K6-1 did so. Students in E6-1 reported that they enjoyed telling their friends about their future dreams and hearing about friends' dreams in English. In K6-1, students reported that they enjoyed playing a card game, without making any mention of the speech activity despite the fact that it had occurred.

A close comparison was made between the speech activities of the two classes in order to identify any differences that might have brought about the different lesson enjoyment rates and student comments. In the highly evaluated E6-1, the ALT first read aloud three speech examples in the textbook very slowly, sometimes explaining new words in simple English. Students took notes while listening to the speech examples. Then, the ALT wrote four English sentences as a speech model (i.e., "Hello, I want to be a…, I like…, Thank you.") and instructed students to prepare brief speeches based on the model. The students did so in about 10 minutes. In practicing speeches, the students first practiced in groups of five and then did more practice with several more students individually. Near the end of the class, six boy students, all volunteers, delivered speeches individually in front of the whole class, and each of them received plenty of applause from the classmates.

In the less-enjoyed K6-1, the ALT first demonstrated three types of speech delivery in front of the whole class. In one type, he spoke in a barely audible voice; in another type he read his paper without looking at students at all; and in the third type he delivered his speech in an appropriate voice volume with eye contact and a smile. Then, students were asked to evaluate each speech delivery type. After their discussion of the ALT's speech delivery types, they were instructed by the JTE to practice in groups of five their speeches, which they had already prepared in the previous lesson, and they were also asked to assess group members' speeches in terms of delivery features such as eye contact, voice volume, and smiles.

The speech activities in the E6-1 seemed to have been more meaning-focused than those of K6-1. In E6-1, students took note of the speakers' names while listening to the speech examples in the textbook read aloud by the ALT, while also noting what the speakers liked, and what they wanted to be in the future. When it came to listening to classmates' speeches, students focused on the contents of speeches, and on what their classmates wanted to be in the future. On the other hand, the K6-1 students focused on the features of speech delivery or non-linguistic forms (non-semantic aspects) rather than speech contents or meaning. The meaning-focused speech activities in E6-1 may have brought about students' higher enjoyment rate than the non-linguistic, form-focused speech activities of K6-1.

CONCLUSIONS

Lightbown and Spada (2013) made reference to the cognitive perspective in second language acquisition, remarking that "there is a limit to how much information a learner can pay attention to" and that "leaners at the earliest stages will tend to use most of their attention resources to understand the main words in a message" (p. 108). As far as beginning language learners such as elementary school students are concerned, language activities should be designed in such a way that allows students to focus on meaning rather than on form, either non-linguistic or linguistic, since young learners tend to have difficulties in focusing on both meaning and form at the same time because of their limited attention.

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Teaching in the Wilderness of Mongolia to the Reindeer Children

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Since 2012, in our summer English training program, we have been teaching English to the Dukha children, who live on the border of Mongolia and the Russian Federation. Dukha people are a minority population in northern Mongolia.

Our main goals are:

- To give good English training to the Dukha children, especially English speaking practice. (Although Dukha communities in east and west taigas (boreal forests) are the main tourist destinations in northern Mongolia, there are not so many people who speak English. That is why we provideEnglish training there.)

- To have Dukha children read English children's fairytale books with color pictures, easy words and sentences to understand. (Through the children's books, we teach English new vocabulary, proverbs, and verb tenses, so children are very interested in reading them in their free time instead of killing time.)

We work with the Dukha children for two to three weeks. Based on the Dukha children's needs to learn, we create our own English curriculum. In 2012 and 2013, I brought US Peace Corps volunteers to the east and west taigas and taught English there. It was a successful training program.

Now we have Dukha students who are from the age of 6 to18 years old. First, we evaluate what their learning styles were. After that, we divide them into groups by their ages, English language levels, and learning styles. Before each lesson, we plan which teaching methods we will use in our training. When we teach to the kinesthetic children, we use more physical teaching methods and activities with movements and exercises. There is no Internet access in the Dukha Community, but when we work with the auditory students, we use some digital English lessons on CDs or cassettes. It is impossible to recharge our cellphones or computers in the Dukha Community, and we can't continue our listening English exercises for more in a few days.

There are some differences between the indoor and outdoor training we organize for the children. Also we use different teaching methods in the places where we teach. Here are some examples:

Indoor Training
- Studying in the classroom.
- Use an internet service and look for the information related to the lesson topic.
- Usually we have certain curriculum of the English lesson.
- Using more computers and DVD players for the listening exercises in CD and cassettes.

Outdoor Training
- Studying outside.
- There is no Internet to use and no electricity source to recharge anything.
- Usually teachers create lessons and the curriculum for the English training program based on students' needs and knowledge levels.

- Bringing English native speakers (tourists) to the classes and less listening to CD or cassettes.
- Using more kinesthetic teaching methods.

There are a lot of tourists from English-speaking countries coming to the Dukha Community, and one time we had the idea to bring some native English speakers with us – tourists. After talking to the tourists in English, our students' English pronunciation and understanding improved from day to day. Also the tourists corrected our students' English pronunciation and grammar mistakes in their conversation. That was an advantage over listening to CDs or cassettes in English. It was a "live" communication. So we understood that speaking to foreigners was very useful, as our students' understanding in English was also better at the same time.

At the end of the English training program, we always conduct research with the Dukha children and their parents, and have open discussions on how the training was, what the highlights were, and what activities we should improve for the next year. The Dukha parents are always appreciative of our English training programs.

FIGURE 1. Outdoor English Language Training: Whole Class.

FIGURE 2. Outdoor English Training Program: Reading Children's Books.

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A Study on Chatbots for Enhancing EFL Grammar Competence

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The purpose of this study is to investigate how the use of A. I. chatbots affects Korean EFL students' grammar competence. Participants were randomly divided in two chat groups. Over 16 weeks, the chatbot group engaged in chat with the chatbot, Replika. In the case of the human group, chat sessions were held in pairs. Pre- and post-grammar test results indicate that both chat groups significantly improved their grammar competence. More importantly, a statistically significant difference was found in the improvement between the two chat groups, suggesting the superior effects of A. I. chatbot use. This research provides insights into the use of chatbots for enhancing grammar competence in EFL classes.

BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

The rise of artificial intelligence (A. I.) will lead to the fourth industrial revolution. In particular, chatbots have continued to improve at a steady pace, stimulating a conversation through artificial intelligence. Following the trend, not a few studies on chatbots have been conducted related to language learning. Many of them have focused on how chatbots can be used for educational purposes, especially for English language learning. Nevertheless, little has been known about whether they are effective for English grammar competence. In this sense, there is a need to study the effects of chatbots on enhancing EFL grammar skills. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to investigate how the use of A. I. chatbots affects Korean EFL students' grammar competence.

METHOD

With Korean English as a foreign language (EFL) students, ten chat sessions were held for this study. Divided into two groups, they engaged in chat for 16 weeks with either a chatbot or a human chat partner. For a chatbot application, Replika was used. Participants in the chatbot group connected their social media accounts (e.g., Instagram, Twitter, or Facebook) to let the chatbot application understand them better. According to a previous study (Kim, 2016a), using such a new and innovative method for EFL learning inhibits affective filters. The human group was involved in chat in pairs. Kakaotalk Messenger was used for this group. For ten minutes, the two chat groups engaged in free chat. Free chat is known to incorporate foreign language students into friendly educational settings (Gonzalez, 2003). The pre- and post-grammar tests were based on the TEPS. Paired samples t-test was performed to examine changes in EFL grammar competence. An independent t-test was also run to compare the two chat groups.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Both of the two chat groups showed a significant mean score change between the pre- and post-grammar tests. That is, engaging in chat with either an A. I. chatbot or a human enhances EFL grammar competence. These findings confirm former research, suggesting that a chatbot is beneficial for foreign language learning (Kim, 2016b).

Between the two chatbot groups, a statistically significant difference was witnessed on the post-grammar test. The chatbot group enhanced their grammar competence more than the human group. These findings support former studies, indicating that chatbots are beneficial for foreign language learning (Kim, 2016a). Considering that English grammar skills are essential in Korean EFL contexts (Kang, 2017), chatbots seem to have more advantages over human chat partners.

CONCLUSIONS

Traditional teaching methods in foreign language classrooms can increase students' affective filters, making the students' language learning difficult with negative learning experiences (Brooks, 2018). However, the current study proves how A. I. chatbots assist EFL grammar learning by lowering the students' affective filters. A. I. chatbots, therefore, should be integrated into EFL classrooms.

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Online Self-Marking Typing, Speaking, Listening, or Reading Vocabulary Level Tests

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This paper introduces an Online Self-Marking Meaning-Recall Test (OSMMRT) and an Online Self-Marking Form-Recall Test (OSMFRT), both available at vocableveltest.org.

Item Format

OSMMRT items are presented in a non-defining context with the target word underlined (*I will think about it*). Test-takers are instructed to translate the underlined word into a single Japanese word within 30 seconds. The advantage of this format is that written receptive vocabulary tests aim to measure vocabulary to indicate a learner's ability to comprehend the same words as when reading, and when reading, learners recall the meaning of words, and do not recognize the meaning of the word read from options like a multiple-choice test (Kremmel & Schmitt, 2016). Second, a meaning-recall format does not overestimate a learner's knowledge of vocabulary relative to multiple-choice, matching, and yes/no formats (Kremmel & Schmitt, 2016). Even the limited overestimation of vocabulary knowledge is an issue considering that even a slight drop in coverage inhibits reading comprehension (Schmitt, Jiang, & Grabe, 2011).

OSMFRT items are presented in non-defining contexts with the target word underlined (*Please do it* ⇄). Test-takers are instructed to translate the underlined word into a single English word within 30 seconds. If a test-taker provides a legitimate but incorrect answer the test-taker receives the message explaining that their answer is valid, but not the correct answer for this question, and instructed to try again. The test-taker has another 30 seconds to answer the question. This format overcomes the limitation of the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (Laufer & Nation, 1999) of providing hint letters for items.

Question Type

Presently, the form-recall test is available as a reading test, and the meaning-recall test is available as a typing test. Listening (meaning-recall) and speaking (form-recall) tests are in development.

Wordlists

Test administrators can create tests based on the New General Service List (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2013), but soon also tests based on the BNC/COCA (Nation, 2012), the COCA (Davies, 2008), and a SUBTLEX-based wordlist created by Geffrey Pinchbeck, resulting in the availability of lemma, flemma, and the word family-based tests.

Word Bands

Presently, 500-word band test can be created with 100- and 1000-word bands on the way.

Sampling Rate

Test administrators can select the option of 30-words per band, and soon will have the option of selecting 10 and 60 items per band.

Steps to Reduce Cheating

Items have a 30-second time limit. Second, the online tests are designed so that the Internet browser being used by the learners cannot translate the contents of the page.

Public Item Banks

Test administrators can view the target words, item stems, and the bank of valid but incorrect answers for all items via a Google document. The google document cannot be edited but can be commented on. Comments will be considered, changes made where appropriate.

Bilingual Tests

A Japanese version of the test is available, and we are looking to work with others to produce other bilingual versions of the test.

Data Protection

Once a test administrator creates a test, they are provided with a link that they share with test-takers. Test-takers are not required to log in nor share their email. Test-takers are required to provide identifying information, but this can be their name, student number, or simply a number decided by the test administrator.

Immediate Feedback for Test-Takers

Test-takers receive immediate feedback on their results per test band as shown by Figure 1. Test administrators can also see the same results for each test-taker and mean data for all test-takers who have completed a single test.
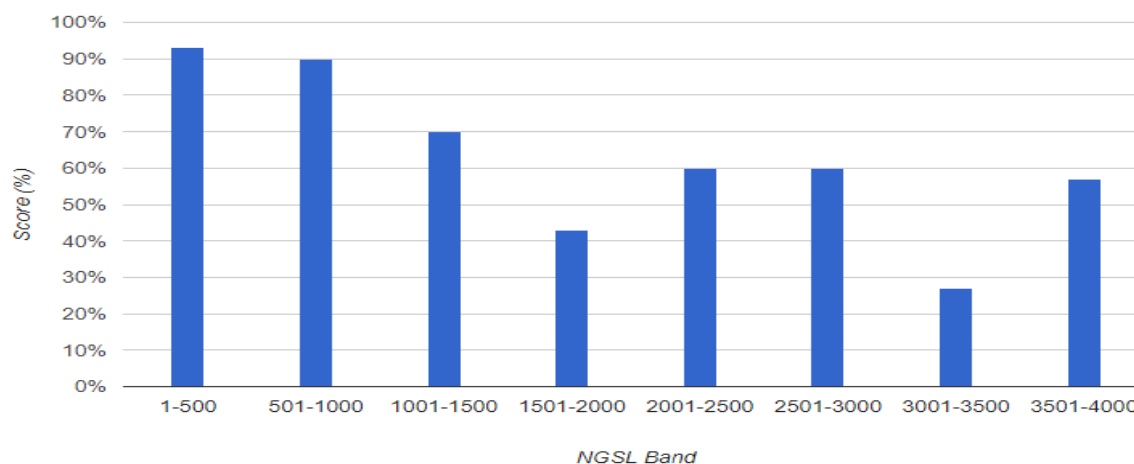
FIGURE 1. The graph form of immediate feedback that all test-takers receive.

Future Developments

The tests and vocableveltest.org site are under development. Assistance in providing versions of tests in other languages and to provide translations of the website as well as any suggestions are very welcome. For more information please contact the first author.

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Self-Construal with Achievement Emotions in FLL Among Korean Students

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INTRODUCTION

Educational contexts are formed by social and cultural variables (e.g., self-construal); thus, it is important to involve the socio-cultural perspective in learning research (Tanaka &Yamauchi, 2004). Since culture plays a fundamental role in shaping individuals' cognitive and affective processes (Elliot, Chirkov, Kim, & Sheldon, 2001), the consideration of cultural variables may help explain cultural transmission to individuals' emotional experiences. English is playing an important role as a global communication tool; thus, people invest much effort to learn English. Particularly, Korean students highly value achievement in English, and they are under achievement pressure from parents and teachers (Lee, 2014). This might cause them to experience more intensive emotions while studying English. Therefore, this study examined independent/interdependent self-construal and achievement emotions regarding foreign language learners (FLLs), and their relationships among Korean high school students.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESES

RQ1. What are the relationships between self-construal and achievement emotions in FLLs?

- Hypothesis 1. Independent self-construal is positively related to enjoyment, hope, pride, anger, and boredom.
- Hypothesis 2. Interdependent self-construal is positively related to anxiety, shame, and hopelessness.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

In total, 250 high school students participated in the present study (age $M = 17.54$, $SD = .62$, 60.1% girls). They were in 11th and 12th grades from six classes in a high school in South Korea. A brief introductory letter was provided to students, assuring them of the confidentiality of their responses. Students then voluntarily completed the questionnaire that assessed their self-construal and achievement emotions, during their regular English class.

Measures

Self-Construal

To examine independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal, the Self-Construal Scale (SCS, Singelis, 1994) was used. Participants rated 16 items on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach's Alphas were .69 for the independent self-construal scale and .64 for the interdependent self-construal scale.

Achievement Emotions

The Achievement Emotions Questionnaire–Language (AEQ-L), a modified version of the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire–Mathematics (AEQ-M; Pekrun, Goetz, Frenzel, Barchfeld, & Perry, 2011), was used to assess eight emotions in English class: enjoyment, hope, pride, anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, and boredom. This measure consists of items regarding three different academic situations

(class, learning, and test-related) and reflects different components of emotions (affective, cognitive, motivational, and physiological components). The scales contained ten enjoyment items (α =.83), five hope items (α = .72), six pride items (α = .74), seven anger items (α = .83), eleven anxiety items (α = .86), eight shame items (α = .81), six hopelessness items (α = .85), and five boredom items (α = .85). Participants responded on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

RESULTS

Structural equation modeling (SEM) usung Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2012) was conducted to examine the relations between self-construal and achievement emotions. Figure 1 displays the results of the SEM for the relations between independent/interdependent self-construal and achievement emotions. The model fit was χ^2 (4172) = 8322.67, CFI = .87, TLI = .85, and RMSEA = .072.

Independent self-construal was positively related to positive emotions enjoyment (β =.18, p < .01), hope (β = .22, *p* < .01), and pride (β = .21, *p* < .01), but negatively to negative emotions anxiety (β = -.15, *p* < .01), shame (β = -.17, *p* < .01), and hopelessness (β = -.18, *p* < .01). Interdependent self-construal was positively related to negative emotions anxiety (β = .12, *p* < .05), shame (β = .10, *p* < .05), and hopelessness (β = .12, *p* < .05). However, anger and boredom were related to neither independent self-construal nor interdependent self-construal.
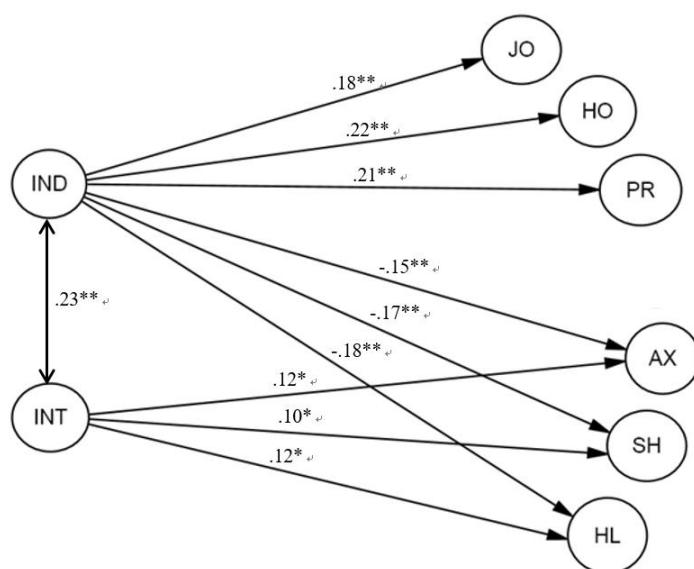
Figure 1. Structural Parameter Estimates of Self-Construal and Achievement Emotions.
Note. Only significant path coefficients are presented. Indicator variables, error variables, and correlations between error variables are omitted for simplification. IND = independent self-construal, INT = interdependent self-construal, JO = enjoyment, HO = hope, PR = pride, AX = anxiety, SH = shame, HL = hopelessness. *p < .05, **p < .01.

DISCUSSION

The results on the relations between self-construal and achievement emotions partially confirmed earlier findings. Independent self-construal was positively related to enjoyment, hope, and pride, and negatively related to anxiety, shame, and hopelessness, while interdependent self-construal was positively related to the negative emotions. This supports that independent self-construals tend to experience more positive emotions, while interdependent self-construals might promote negative emotions. For example, pride and enjoyment were more expressed in independent self-construals, while anxiety and shame were

more highly expressed in interdependent self-construals (e.g., Eid & Diener, 2001). Moreover, Chang (2001) suggested that independent self-construals tend to be more optimistic, while interdependent self-construals tend to be more pessimistic, explaining the result on the links between self-construal and hope/hopelessness.

Unexpectedly, independent self-construal was not related to anger and boredom. This might be due to the fact that emotions were examined particularly in the FLL context and due to the positive correlation between independent and interdependent self-construal (see Figure 1). Furthermore, the concept of self-construal might have not been fully cognized in teenagers, which might have concealed the theoretically postulated relations between self-construal and emotions. Despite some inconsistent findings, the main results of this study support that culture still plays a key role in the process of individuals' emotional experiences in FLLs. Therefore, foreign language teachers should be aware of students' cultural aspects in their classrooms so that they can have a positive influence on students' emotional experiences in learning a foreign language. On the other hand, researchers could also deliberate that culture might be changing over time and conventional theories might have been losing their applicability, considering some inconsistent findings. It might be time to reconsider the main theories of self-construal in cultural psychology, as some researchers have argued (e.g., Levine et al., 2003; Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002).

CONCLUSIONS

Given that studies on emotions in FLLs are lacking except for language anxiety, the present research contributes to developing a more comprehensive understanding of students' emotions in this domain. Considering the relationship between emotions and students' learning is much more important, especially in a foreign language classroom than any other subjects, since learners' self-perception becomes more susceptible when they do not have language skills to express themselves effectively (Arnold, 2011). Therefore, it is imperative that educators take the affective side of language learning into account in their classrooms. This study looked into a range of positive and negative emotions in the FLL classroom. The results of the present research would contribute to scientific knowledge about language learning, given that this investigation produced new insights on the students' emotions when learning a foreign language. These insights will help develop effective interventions to enhance positive emotions, learning, and academic performance (Astleitner, 2000). In addition, the present research urges that foreign language teachers be aware of students' cultural aspects in class for a positive influence on students' emotions in foreign language learning and performance. Most of all, the current research contributes to interdisciplinary investigation in the field of foreign language learning by integrating psychological perspectives from culture and emotion research into the field.

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Semantic-Based DDL Using Specialized Corpora for Japanese EFL Learners

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This study aims to investigate characteristic adjectives and "adjective + noun" collocations. By collecting the written language of British elementary and lower-secondary school students as well as Japanese lower-secondary school students, three special corpora were created. This study suggests that semantic-based data-driven learning (DDL) for Japanese EFL learners at elementary and lower-secondary school levels may assist in learning adjective use.

INTRODUCTION

With the growth of corpus linguistics, the amount of research on corpus-based teaching and learning has increased, both overseas and in Japan. However, most studies regarding corpus-based teaching and learning, especially data-driven learning (DDL), primarily focus on academic fields for university students. The DDL approach in elementary and secondary school levels is uncommon in educational fields overseas and in Japan. The aim of this study is to adopt written English from British elementary and lower-secondary school students as a target language, which is a small enough gap for Japanese EFL learners to use the DDL approach in the classroom.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1. Can any quantitative differences in student adjective use be observed among 5- to 9-year-old and 10- to 13-year-old British and Japanese students?

RQ2. Can any qualitative differences in student adjective use be observed among 5- to 9-year-old and 10- to 13-year-old British and Japanese students?

RQ3. Can the results of qualitative analyses help create authentic materials and a variety of DDL approaches in the classroom?

DATA COLLECTION AND BUILDING CORPORA

This study collected three written corpora. The first and second corpora included information drawn from the BBC 500 words competition held between 2014 and 2017 with 5- to 9-year-old (BBC_5-9) and 10- to 13-year-old (BBC_10-13) British student participants. The third was collected based on the written English task completed by 13- to 15-year-old (LC_13-15) Japanese students of a national secondary school from 2006 to 2008. These three written data were annotated with POS tags and a semantic tag. The annotated corpora would be effective for extracting adjectives and adjective collocations so that language use could be examined in detail.

METHOD

For the quantitative analysis, a word list was made from each corpus. Each corpus was reviewed, and the 20 most frequently used adjectives were studied to grasp characteristic uses. For the qualitative analysis, the correspondence analyses based on the POS tag and semantic tag were used to clarify characteristic adjectives in each corpus. The n-gram analysis showed the 20 most frequent collocation patterns of adjective + noun and classified some categories from adjective + noun collocations. Furthermore, the semantic analysis of adjectives revealed distinctive adjective use among the three corpora to assist in developing the DDL approach.

RESULTS

In quantitative analyses, the type/token ratio (TTR) of corpus size in BBC_10-13 was higher than in both BBC_5-9 and LC_13-15; LC_13-15 had the lowest TTR in corpus size. Regarding the TTR and adjectives, BBC_5-9 was much higher than BBC_10-13 and LC_13-15. The results show that British students use many more adjectives than Japanese EFL learners.

	T3+	O4.3	A5.1+	O4.2+	N3.2-	Z2	S7.1--	N3.7+	N3.2+	T3-	A5.1+++	N5.1+	E4.1+	A6.1-	X5.2+	E2+++	O4.5	A1.4	B2-	A1.3.3
BBC_5-9	63	245	104	64	109	1	1	49	82	48	22	51	24	50	9	10	23	31	32	8
BBC_10-13	54	184	49	55	84	0	0	67	36	66	40	46	33	40	13	7	21	26	16	3
LC_aLL	343	7	151	100	10	159	154	30	25	10	37	0	39	4	57	53	22	0	8	44
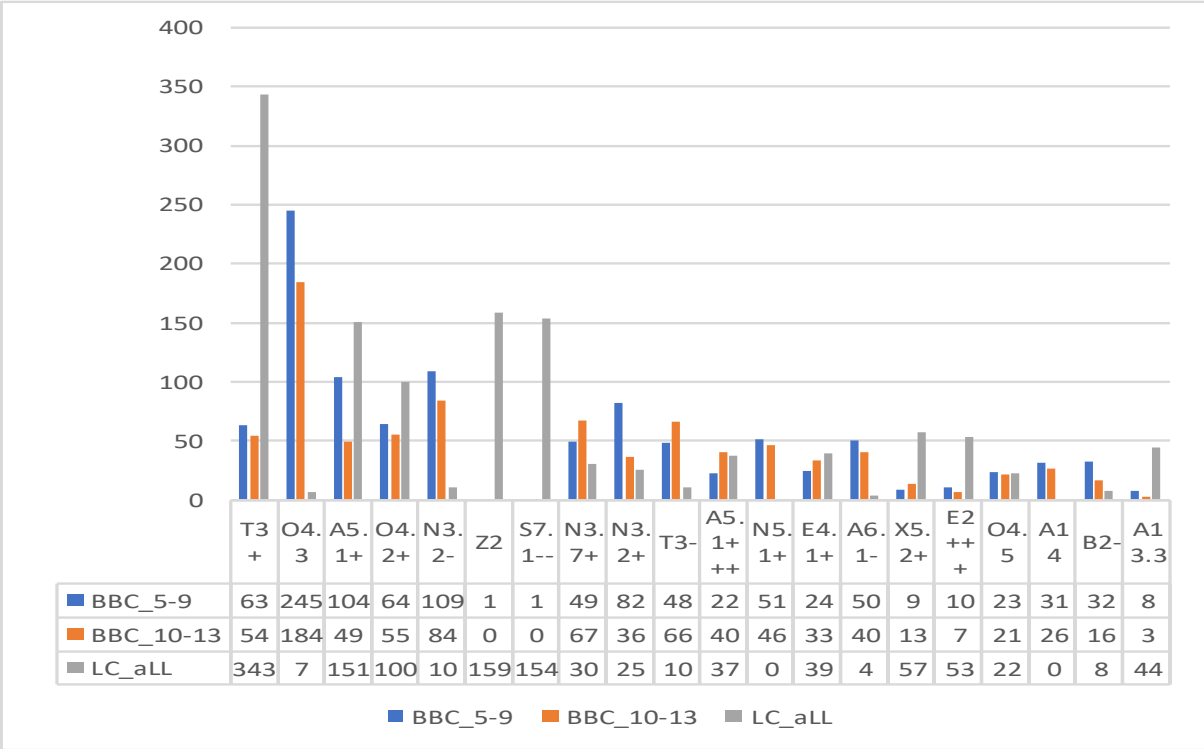
FIGURE 1. High-frequency semantic tags of adjectives among three corpora.

In qualitative analyses, this study showed, through correspondence analyses by POS tags and a semantic tag of adjectives, that distinctive semantic categories of adjectives could be identified. In addition, the bi-gram analysis could identify characteristic "adjective + noun" collocations in British students' language use. Based on these results, this study suggests two different types of DDL approaches, with the first based on an adjective frequency word list as an open-ended DDL approach, and the second based on semantic tag analysis of adjectives. These approaches would make it possible for Japanese EFL learners to learn different adjectives at the same time, even when they are divided into the same semantic tag category.

CONCLUSION

Considering the previous studies of DDL conducted both overseas and in Japan, there has been little DDL research focused on creating appropriate material for this level of Japanese EFL learners. This study is valuable in that it offers great originality in comparative language study and practical DDL approaches. Its basis of analyzing adjective use in 5- to 9-year-old and 10- to 13-year-old British students shows a smaller gap for target language in primary and lower-secondary school Japanese EFL learners.

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Effects of Speaking Instruction Using Differentiated-Flipped Learning on Speaking Ability

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This study intended to investigate the effects of speaking instruction using differentiated-flipped learning on Thai EFL undergraduates. To this end, 30 undergraduates from the Faculty of Agro-Industry who enrolled in the English for Professional Communication course in a public university in Bangkok, Thailand, participated in this instruction for 12 weeks. At the beginning of the course, the participants were required to do a speaking placement test with the intention to assess their readiness levels, and it was revealed that there were novice and intermediate levels in this study. During the twelve-week instruction, the participants participated in exploring the content and doing preparatory activities, which were differentiated based on the readiness, interest, and learning profiles via websites and social media. Then, the in-class activities were provided for the participants to practice speaking together with peers. All the activities were differentiated regarding the readiness, interest, and learning profiles. The data were collected by means of a quantitative method using the speaking tests at the end of each unit in order to assess the progress throughout the course. The speaking tests aimed to investigate the speaking ability in terms of the interpersonal and presentational modes of communication. The results indicated that there was a significant improvement in the participants' speaking ability in both novice and intermediate levels. This suggests that exploring and participating in both online and face-to-face activities benefited speaking ability. The study also proposes implications for planning speaking instructions to improve speaking ability in a diverse classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, technology is fast becoming a key instrument in language learning, especially the use of social media. According to Li (2017), it was revealed that social media was frequently used to share materials to complete assignments and facilitate student learning. Therefore, the process of teaching and learning is not limited to the classroom anymore (Hashim, 2018). Technology should be employed to enhance learning. Regarding speaking skill, it is a productive skill for which students need time to produce and practice. It is also a crucial form of expression used to exchange ideas and feelings as well as communicate with others (Jaramillo & Medina, 2011). However, students in an EFL context may have difficulty in developing their speaking skills due to lack of sufficient time to practice speaking. Surprisingly, practicing speaking with interlocutors who have different levels of English proficiency is one of the problems for Thai EFL students since it could cause frustration when practicing speaking in class (Khamprated, 2012). Besides, the fear of mistakes, shyness, and lack of confidence were the important factors that inhibit Thai students' speaking ability (Juhana, 2012). This study investigated the effects of speaking instruction using a differentiated-flipped learning approach on speaking ability with the intention to differentiate and flip speaking instruction to provide lessons and activities for students in a diverse classroom as well as provide plenty of time to practice speaking through both online and face-to-face platforms.

SPEAKING INSTRUCTION USING A DIFFERENTIATED-FLIPPED LEARNING APPROACH

Providing the four steps, namely, awareness, assurance, appropriation, and activation of teaching speaking (Harmer, 2015; Thornbury, 2013) with the intention to improve interpersonal and presentational skills via online and face-to-face platforms, the students had to explore the content before class time via a website that provided three modes of learning, including text, infographics, and video clips. That is, the students could select any modes of learning that worked best for them. Then, the students were asked to do the preparatory activities and shared them via a Facebook group. Another platform is face-to-face, where students could interact with peers and the teacher in the classroom. There was plenty of time to do the activities since the students had already learned the contents before class. Hence, the teacher could facilitate and give feedback while the students did the activities. All the activities were differentiated based on readiness, interest, and learning profiles (Tomlinson, 2017).

METHOD

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of speaking instruction using a differentiated-flipped learning approach on speaking ability of Thai EFL undergraduates. The data were collected through formative tests, which were designed based on the readiness levels at the end of each unit, five units in total. The data collection covered twelve weeks. Then, the obtained scores were analyzed using the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction/sphericity assumed and post-hoc test using the Bonferroni correction.

RESULTS

For the novice group, the results indicated that after the students participated in the speaking instruction using the differentiated-flipped learning approach, the average scores on the interpersonal and presentational tasks from five units were significantly different at .05. When focusing on the interpersonal tasks only, it was found that the average scores were significantly different at .05. In terms of the presentational tasks, it was revealed that the average scores were significantly different at .05. In sum, it could be stated that the novice students benefited from this instruction.

For the intermediate group, the results showed that after the students participated in the speaking instruction using the differentiated-flipped learning approach, the average scores of the interpersonal and presentational tasks from five units were significantly different at .05. When focusing on the interpersonal tasks only, the average scores were significantly different at .05. Regarding the presentational tasks, the average scores were significantly different at .05. That is, it seems possible that the students in the intermediate group also benefited from this instruction.

Surprisingly, the results from the post-hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction, which was used to identify the significant differences between each pair of the units in the novice group, demonstrated that there were some units that showed no statistical differences, including units 1 and 2, units 2 and 3, and units 3 and 4 from interpersonal tasks or between units 2 and 3, and units 4 and 5 from presentational tasks. Concerning the intermediate group, there were no statistical differences between units 1 and 3; units 2 and 3, 4, 5; units 3 and 4; and units 4 and 5 in the interpersonal tasks. For the presentational tasks, units 1 and 2, 3; units 2 and 3, 4; units 3 and 4; and units 4 and 5 were found to have no statistical differences. A possible explanation for these results was that gaps between the tests of each unit were too close.

To conclude, the speaking instruction using differentiated-flipped learning approach was effective in terms of improving the students' speaking ability in both novice and intermediate groups based on the statistical difference in the progress in the five units throughout the experiment.

RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the above-mentioned findings of this study, future studies on the current topic are therefore recommended. The interval between each test should be longer than four weeks in order to provide enough time for students to develop their speaking ability. Moreover, in the digital era, an online speaking test should be used as a part of the data collection. It may help reduce stress or anxiety from the test.

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An Analysis of Grammar in Indonesian English

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BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Indonesia has included English as one of the subjects in schools since independence in the 1945 curriculum. The government set English as the first foreign language to be mastered through an official decision of the Minister of Education, no 096, year 1967 (Kartono, 1984, p. 16), and later English became one of the compulsory subjects in the schools in which it is officially taught throughout secondary schools. English as a lingua franca in Indonesia in several aspects is limited to certain areas mostly in big cities where contacts with other people who are not familiar with Indonesian is possible.

The position of English in Indonesia is still in a debatable stance as Kachru (1986) posits Indonesia to belong to the Outer Circle whereas Kirkpatrick (2007, p. 27) designates English to be a foreign language in Indonesia, where English is not actually used or spoken very much in the normal course of daily life.

The Ministry of Education regulates textbooks as a main resource to achieve basic and main competency in education. Textbooks play a role as a guide for both teacher and students. Teaching materials should stimulate interaction, and it can be achieved by providing activities that involve situations and their real-time conversation. As the resources teachers use to deliver instruction, teaching materials can significantly increase student achievement by supporting student learning. The books used at schools are under the MoE's supervision (see PP Mendikbud RI, no 8, year 2016, article 6, paragraphs 2, 3, and 4).

Although it is a common belief that in terms of language use in textbooks, it is supposed to be the standard variety of English; that is, either American or British English, many English textbooks are now promoting other varieties (Uittamo, 2009; Schleijpen, 2015; Lee & Jun, 2016; Tu Cam Thi Dang & Seals, 2018). Hence, this study uses the textbooks used in schools in Indonesia issued by the government and/or well-known publishers as the source of data. This study also examines other published texts (those which can be accessed online) such as undergraduate theses of EFL learners, blogs, and tweets (Twitter status updates).

This study intends to find out (a) whether the English that is used in textbooks for English subjects written by Indonesian native speakers for senior high schools in Indonesia and other published texts mentioned above is different from Standard English, and to what extent the differences are; (b) whether the English used by Indonesian writers is different from the Standard English grammatically (in terms of morphosyntax), and what could be the justifications for those alterations. In addition, this study also intends to (c) find out whether the deviances can be classified as a variety of English or a learner's error.

VARIETY OF ENGLISH

A variety of English is not "non-standard English." It cannot be classified as a diffusion of English with the national language or a case of learners' errors. Errors are different from variety; error comes from ignorance, whereas variety comes from knowledge. Marina (2019, p. 13) stated that if those "deviations" are found in language learning classrooms, and cannot be justified by those contexts or processes, then those are considered as "errors."

Jowitt (1991) explains that deviation deals with the fact that in certain linguistic contexts, differences exist from the standard item, and non-standard items are, in a sense, substituted for the standard item. Similarly, Schneider (2011, p. 219) proposed that a distinction between an "error," or those which are deviant from some norms, and a consistent and acceptable new feature of a new variety of English, consisting of forms and features which are used regularly and by educated speakers of local English, should ultimately qualify and be accepted as elements of a new, emerging standard variety.

To successfully implement such a policy, codification will be required – the systematic and empirical analysis and description of educated indigenous forms of English in dictionaries and grammars. In addition, attitudes will have to change significantly, especially on the side of political authorities and educational gatekeepers – New Englishes would have to be endowed with overt prestige in the future. In addition, Trudgill (2011) defined *standardization* as consisting of the processes of language determination, codification, and stabilization. Language determination "refers to decisions which have to be taken concerning the selection of particular languages or varieties of language for particular purposes in the society or nation in question" (p. 71). Thus, codification is the process whereby a language variety "acquires a publicly recognized and fixed form." The results of codification "are usually enshrined in dictionaries and grammar books" (p. 17). Stabilization is a process whereby a formerly diffuse variety (in the sense of Le Page & Tabouret-Keller, 1985) "undergoes focusing and takes on a more fixed and stable form" (p. 70). Codification, as Bamgbose (1998) asserts, is "in the restricted sense of putting the innovation into a written form in a grammar, a lexical or pronouncing dictionary, coursebook, or any other type of reference manual (p. 4).

EXPECTED RESULTS

List of deviances found in textbooks:

1. Determiner
    - A. Indefinite
    - a. Introducing a topic
    - b. Singular generalization
    - c. Adding to mass noun
    - B. Definite
    - I. What kind of
        - a. Indicating common ground:
            - 1. Indicating backwards (anaphoric)
            - 2. Indicating forwards (cataphoric)
        - b. New and given information
    - II. Def cannot be used with:
        - a. proper noun
        - b. time expression
        - c. a group or class in general
        - d. quantifier
        - e. comparative

2. Preposition
    - A. Temporal
        - a. Date
        - b. Time
        - c. Adverb of time
    - B. Spatial
        - a. At
        - b. On
        - c. In
    - C. Other
        - a. Locative

3. Agreement
    - A. Subject – Verb

       a.   S – be
       b.   S – do
       c.   S - have
  B. Quantifier – Noun
       a.   Plural quantifier – Plural noun
       b.   Singular quantifier – Singular noun
  C. Noun – Pronoun
       a.   Object pronoun
       b.   Possessive pronoun

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Using a Radio Drama as Input in English Writing Courses

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BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

This paper aims to report the usefulness of a radio drama in writing classes at the university level. A lot of previous research has identified the merits of using films, TV dramas, and other audio-visual materials for developing students' listening abilities. However, there have been very few papers reporting on the usefulness of radio dramas used in foreign language classrooms, especially their use as input to stimulate writing practice. A radio-style drama of eleven episodes was used for English writing courses. In total, 167 students listened to each episode every week and worked on open-ended comprehension questions as an assignment test. Also, they wrote a 500-word summary of the whole story at the end of the course. A questionnaire was conducted to evaluate the course. Many students found it useful to use the radio drama to practice writing as well as listening, regardless of their English proficiency. Radio dramas have a powerful potential as useful materials for blending different skills improvement: listening and writing.

THE STUDY

Research Questions

The following two research questions are examined in this study:

RQ1. Do the students in this study also have positive attitudes towards the radio drama for improving English writing ability?

RQ2. Is the perceived usefulness of the radio drama affected by students' English proficiency?

Participants and the Radio Drama Used

Table 1 shows seven groups (A–G) of students with their majors and English proficiency.

TABLE 1. Students' Majors and English Proficiency

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

Acapulco Vacation was originally written by J. Harmer and D. Maybin in *Coast to Coast 3*, and the amended version by K. Tatsukawa et al. (Nan'undo, 2009) was used as the course book with 11 episodes.

Survey (Questionnaire)

A survey was conducted at the end of the courses and is contained the following items:

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

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

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

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

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Survey Results

The results of the survey of 167 students are shown in the Table 2.

TABLE 2. Results of Questionnaire for 167 Students

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

About the Materials (*Acapulco Vacation*)

More than 90% of the students liked the radio drama (see Q1) and thought it useful for improving not only their listening ability (Q3) but also their writing ability (Q4 & Q5).

About the Course

By using the radio drama as input, 82.6% of the students were motivated to write (Q6), and 85.0% answered that they had learned some techniques for writing in English by taking this course (Q7). As many as 97.6% thought that a radio drama is useful as English course material (Q8); in particular, 104 out of 167 students, equivalent to 62.3%, strongly agreed with the statement.

Correlations Between Students' Proficiency and Survey Answers

No strong correlations were found between students' proficiency and survey answers (see Table 3). The students were divided into two groups based on their English proficiency. Figure 1 shows average scores for each question item for the whole group of students, the higher-proficiency group, and the lower-proficiency group. The lower-proficiency group gave a slightly more positive evaluation of the use of the radio drama.

Table 3. Correlations Between Students' Proficiency and Question Items
(Spearman's Rank Correlation)

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

$^*\ p<.05,\quad ^{**}\ p<.01$
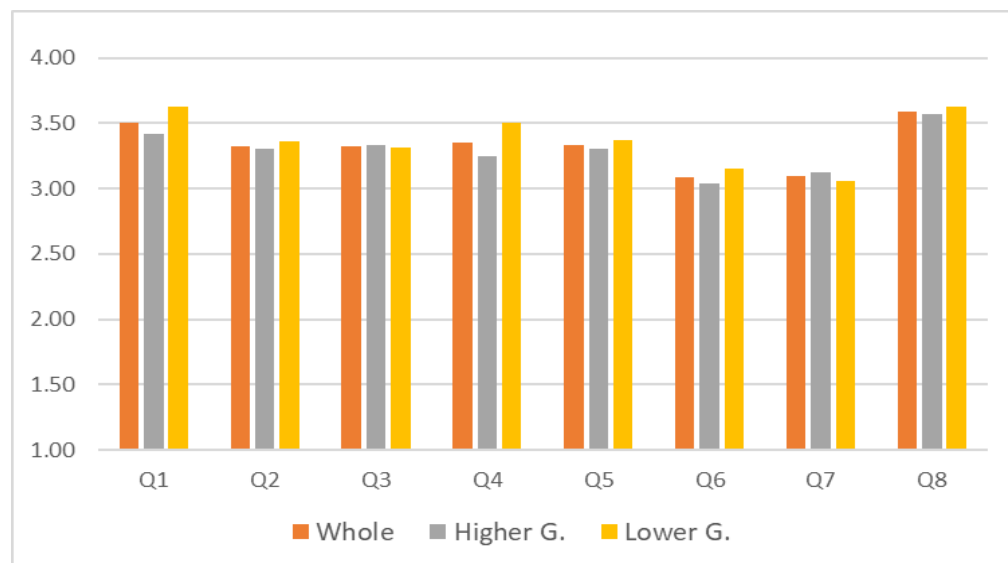
FIGURE 1. Results of students' responses for the whole group, the higher-proficiency group, and the lower-proficiency group.

Participants' Comments

Qualitative feedback was also obtained through students' comments. Overall, these were positive comments about the use of the radio drama as input for writing English. Some popular words seen in the comments were "enjoyable," "exciting drama development," "interesting," and "easy to study."

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

From the survey results and discussion above, it may be concluded that using a radio drama can be a novel way of creating positive attitudes and motivation for writing in students.

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Engage and Motivate Your Students: Gamify Your Classroom

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Recent studies (Wang, 2015; Plump & LaRosa, 2017; Wichadee & Pattanapichet, 2018) have focused on successful integration of mobile devices and learning games into various classroom environments. Bicen and Kocakoyun (2018) used Kahoot! quizzes to elicit student perceptions of gamified learning, though little existing research is specific to *language*-learning classrooms. Kahoot! is a web-based learning game in which teachers design quizzes, project them onto a screen or marker board, and then allow students to respond using their smartphones (after installing the free Kahoot! app). To address the lack of EFL-specific literature, we provided seven EFL professors at a university in South Korea with identical Kahoot! quizzes, each of which were based on vocabulary word banks from the common textbooks used in their classes. We then asked them to use the quizzes in the most effective manner for their students over the course of one semester.

BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study commenced with the working assumption that online learning games were beneficial to students in terms of language learning, motivation, and class participation, providing that the teacher integrated the Kahoot! quiz with other course plans and objectives. The results of our study supported this assumption and suggested best practices for integrating learning games, such as Kahoot!, in university EFL classrooms. At the outset of the semester, the seven professors were familiar with Kahoot! quizzes and how to deploy them, but we did not provide guidance on how or when to use the quizzes. By leaving certain variables to the professors' discretion – e.g., the number of times they played Kahoot! quizzes on a given class day, the frequency with which they played Kahoot! quizzes throughout the semester, and how professors integrated Kahoot! quizzes into their existing class plans – we gleaned actionable findings for mobile device-enabled learning games broadly and for Kahoot! specifically.

At the end of the semester, we aggregated the professors' perceptions of Kahoot! and their suggestions for its successful classroom integration using a 20-question Likert-style survey and a focus group discussion, both of which addressed the following research questions:

RQ1. How should university EFL teachers implement and integrate online learning games in their classrooms?

RQ2. To what extent do online learning games motivate students and encourage them to be engaged and participate in class?

RQ3. To what extent do online learning games help teachers meet classroom objectives and help facilitate language learning?

By using Kahoot! as a lens, we developed a framework through which professors and classroom teachers with various student populations can effectively pair learning games with their existing curricula, learning objectives, and course requirements.

WHY LEARNING GAMES? WHY KAHOOT!?

Kahoot! diverges from other learning games by design. Whereas many learning games are designed to emulate a commercial game, according to Wang and Leibroth (2016), Kahoot! was designed specifically as a learning game for classroom applications (p. 2). Following the heuristics delineated in Malone (1980), which focus on creating challenge, fantasy, and curiosity (p. 2), Kahoot! develops intrinsic motivation in students. Wang and Liebroth (2016) assert that, in Kahoot!, the *challenge* is to answer questions and compete against classmates; the *fantasy* is the transformation of the classroom into a gameshow; and the *curiosity* comes from inspiring audiovisual elements and solving cognitive puzzles (p. 2, emphasis ours). Though Wang and Leibroth (2016) contend that the platform works as designed, Hung (2017) and our research underscore the importance of the teacher in successfully implementing Kahoot!, or any game-based student response system (gSRS), into the classroom.

CHALLENGE, FANTASY, AND CURIOSITY

Malone (1980) created a heuristic for creating and encouraging intrinsic motivation via learning games. Beyond simply being motivated by the competition to earn points and win the game, Malone (1980) wrote that effective learning games create challenges based on variable levels of difficulty, multiple goals, hidden information, and random chance. Goals that might seem unattainable to students create an intrinsically motivating challenge by integrating the element of chance and by making it difficult for students to figure out the optimal strategy to beat the game (pp. 50–52). Kahoot! quizzes challenge students by awarding points not only for selecting the correct answer to a question but by how quickly they did so and for the number of questions in a row that they can answer correctly. The degree of difficulty and chance, as well as other challenge-related game aspects, are dependent upon how the teacher designs the game.

Malone (1980) considered two types of gameplay-related fantasies: intrinsic and extrinsic. Most extrinsic fantasies depend upon the student correctly utilizing a skill; whereas, in an intrinsic fantasy, correctly utilizing a skill and the preservation of the fantasy are codependent. Intrinsic fantasies are both more interesting and more instructional. Because intrinsic fantasies also provide vivid imagery associated with the material being studied, they might improve students' memory of the material (pp. 58–59). Kahoot!'s extrinsic fantasy is that of transforming the classroom into a gameshow and students into contestants. While such a transformation is fun for students (and professors, too), the intrinsic fantasy, that arose in our study from students correctly recalling vocabulary words and being publicly rewarded for it in class, has the potential to motivate students and keep them participating in class. Successful competition in the quiz requires students to use and ostensibly develop their English language skills. As with creating an appropriate challenge, maintaining the intrinsic fantasy depends upon teachers and how they design and implement learning games in their classes.

Effective learning games, according to Malone (1980), also create cognitive and sensory curiosity in learners. Sensory curiosity depends upon the gameplay environment, which should be *novel* and *surprising* without being overwhelming, and should be designed with the students' existing skills and abilities in mind (p. 60, emphasis in original). To evoke cognitive curiosity, a learning game must have the potential to modify learners' higher-level cognitive structures (Malone, 1980, pp. 61–62), noting that

[T]he way to engage learners' curiosity is to present just enough information to make their existing knowledge seem incomplete, inconsistent, or unparsimonious. The learners are then motivated to learn more in order to make their existing cognitive structures better-formed. (p. 62)

Kahoot!'s colorful, inviting interface, which has built-in music and the option to pair stock or custom pictures and videos with quiz questions or puzzles, evokes sensory curiosity from the moment the professor deploys the game. There are many opportunities for Kahoot! to engage students' cognitive curiosity: by creating questions that pair a linguistic concept, such as a noun, with a representative photo, then asking for a definition; by giving four answer choices – e.g., a horse, A horse, a Horse, A Horse – and asking which phrase is correct in a certain context; and/or by presenting linguistic information in a variety of question formats, such as sentence completion exercises or multiple choice.

Because of the designers' attention to intrinsic motivation (see Wang, 2015; Wang and Liebroth, 2016; Wang, Zhou, & Sætre, 2016), Kahoot! is an appropriate lens through which to study how EFL teachers can best use computer- or mobile-based learning games to engage and motivate their students. While the platform itself is a promising addition to the EFL classroom, Hung (2017) noted several concerns to which teachers should attend before using a learning game in class, such as technical problems, student perceptions of the game as passive or of the class as unstructured, among others (pp. 989–991). Our research confirmed these concerns as well and was able to develop a framework for implementing learning games while avoiding such pitfalls.

USING LEARNING GAMES IN AN EFL CLASSROOM

Logistical difficulties regarding deploying Kahoot! caused the most-common difficulties among professors in our study, though professors in our study agree that the game's benefits made such difficulties worthwhile. According to two professors, students often took too much time connecting to the quiz, or were unable to connect to it, or had difficulty navigating the multiplayer feature. Another professor reported that students would often choose inappropriate nicknames or grow bored with the games and refuse to participate. Conversely, five professors reported that Kahoot! increased students' enjoyment of class and engagement with class: students were excited to use Kahoot! because it gave them an opportunity to use their smartphones in class, according to one professor; another professor reported that Kahoot! increased class participation and encouraged friendly competition.

To successfully integrate Kahoot, or any learning game, in class, our study suggests playing Kahoot! at the beginning of class as either a preview of the day's lesson or a review of the previous lesson, or after a break in a longer (three-hour) course, though the frequency with which teachers should play such games varies from class to class. Most (75%) professors thought playing Kahoot! at least once per week would be effective, with 25% reserving Kahoot! for special review sessions either before an exam or upon completing a chapter in the textbook. Only one professor reported that they would not use Kahoot! on a weekly basis because it appeared to be passive or because the students were disengaged; most professors who would play Kahoot! less often than every week cited other course requirements and objectives, such as creating a writing portfolio, as the deciding factor.

In addition to timing and frequency, repetition, student boredom and complacency is another concern with regard to learning games. As part of our study, teachers had to use the quizzes we made, which

were standardized using sentence-completion and multiple-choice questions. One professor mentioned that having the same style of quiz again and again bored the students, then suggested supplementing the quizzes from our study with quizzes unique to the specific class. Another professor noted that the study quizzes lacked any instruction in grammar, which prompted that professor to use Kahoot's "jumble" feature to supplement the quizzes from our study.

Though there were varying perceptions and recommendations regarding Kahoot's efficacy and its ability to increase learners' motivation in class, the results of our study are generally positive. During our conference dialog, we will delve into our research and provide further recommendations.

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Using Peer Review Through Blackboard to Improve Students' Presentation Skills in Vietnam

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BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

Peer review has proved effective in numerous studies and has been especially beneficial in teaching and learning communication and social skills, as it is greater in volume and more immediate than teachers' remarks (Topping, 2009). However, Vietnamese students, who are accustomed to rote-learning, seem unfamiliar with this strategy. This is a severe limitation in presentation classes, where audience's feedback is expected and where students are more concerned with the perception and acceptance of their peers than their teachers (Shaw, 2002).

Due to the limited range of this study, this paper aims to determine whether peer review can improve students' body language in presentation classes at International University (IU) by using Blackboard, an online learning platform. The study involves 113 Speaking AE2 (Presentation Skills) students divided into one experimental group ($n = 60$) and one control group ($n = 53$). These students all have an English competency of IELTS 5.5 or above.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1. Is there a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test for the experimental group?
RQ2. Is there a significant difference between the post-test of the control group and that of the experimental group?
RQ3. Can peer review improve students' body language in presentation classes at IU?

METHODOLOGY

Pre-test

Students in both groups are required to video record themselves giving a one-minute self-introduction in week 2, which also serves as a pre-test. A trained judge marks their use of body language according to the following criteria: eye contact = 2.5 points, posture = 2.5 points, hand gestures = 2.5 points, facial expressions = 2.5 points for a total of 10 points (rubrics provided).

Students in the control group just receive comments from the teacher. Meanwhile, students in the experimental group are asked to post their videos onto Blackboard and give written remarks on their classmates' body language using the above criteria.

In-class Procedure

For both groups, teachers use the same teaching slides and materials, and provide equal instructions and comments. Some key differences in the activities are shown in Table 1.

Post-test

The Speaking AE2 midterm test at IU was chosen as the post-test. In this test, students were evaluated by trained examiners on seven different criteria, such as voice techniques, use of language, organization, and body language. However, only the body language score was taken to compare with the pre-test. The criteria and rubrics for marking the body language were the same as for the pre-test.

Written Feedback

At the end of the course, students in the experimental group were asked to provide written feedback on the use of peer review for the course.

TABLE 1.
A Comparison of the Activities for Students in the Control Group and Experimental Group

Activities	Control Group	Experimental Group
1-minute self-introduction (video recorded – week 2)	✓	✓
Peer review on classmates' body language	X	✓
In-class assignment (video recorded – week 8)	X	✓
Peer review and peer scoring (based on provided rubrics)	X	✓

RESULTS

When comparing the body language scores of the pre-test and post-test for each group, we get the following results.

Sample	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean
pre exp	60	5.2000	1.2185	0.1573
post expe	60	7.4500	1.5341	0.1980

Estimation for Paired Difference

Mean	StDev	SE Mean	95% CI for μ_d
-2.2500	1.5363	0.1983	(-2.6469, -1.8531)

μ_d: mean of (pre exp - post expe)

Test

Null hypothesis	$H_0: \mu_d = 0$
Alternative hypothesis	$H_1: \mu_d \neq 0$

T-Value	P-Value
-11.34	<0.0001

FIGURE 1. Comparing the pre-test and post-test for the experimental group.

To answer our first research question, we make a claim that there must be a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test for the experimental group. As from Figure 1, the mean of the pre-test is 5.2. Comparing it to the mean of the post-test, 7.45, we can see a clear difference. To test this claim for accuracy at a 95% level of confidence, we make a null hypothesis, H_o, that there is no difference between the results of the pre- and post-test for the experimental group. The result shows that p (0.0001) $< \propto$ (0.05). Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected. In other words, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test.

Method

μ_1: mean of post-test experimental group
μ_2: mean of post-test control group
Difference: $\mu_1 - \mu_2$

Equal variances are not assumed for this analysis.

Sample	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean
post-test experimental group	60	7.4500	1.5341	0.1980
post-test control group	53	8.1698	1.1559	0.1588

Estimation for Difference

Difference	95% Lower Bound for Difference
-0.7198	-1.1409

Test

Null hypothesis	H_0: $\mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$
Alternative hypothesis	H_1: $\mu_1 - \mu_2 > 0$

T-Value	DF	P-Value
-2.84	108	0.9973

FIGURE 2. Comparing the post-test of the experimental group and that of the control group.

To answer our second research question, we also make a claim that there must be a significant difference between the post-test of the experimental group and that of the control group. To be more specific, our alternative hypothesis is that the post-test of the experimental group's mean score is higher than that of the control group at a 95% level of confidence. To test this claim, we made a null hypothesis, H_o, that there is no difference between the results of the pre- and post-tests for the experimental group. The result shows that the *p*-value (0.9973) > ∝ (0.05). Therefore, the null hypothesis is correct: There is no significant difference between the post-test mean scores of the control group and the experimental group.

The results reveal two important findings: (a) Students in the experimental group make a significant improvement from the pre-test to the post-test. (b) There is no difference in the results of the post-tests for the two groups. This leads to the answer to the third research question: Peer review does not play a role in improving students' performance within the range of the study.

Although the results did not yield the expected outcome, there was still positive feedback from students in the experimental group on this peer review strategy. The majority of the students understood the benefits of peer reviews and enjoyed reading their classmates' comments. The mystery, then, is why their results were not significantly better than those of the control group, given all the confirmed benefits of peer reviews. When asked about this, these students admit that they still do not have the habit of logging in Blackboard. They also find it hard to review their classmates' work as they are not used to taking on the role of critic. This finding is important in reflecting on Vietnamese students' habit of learning. It also acts as motivation for Vietnamese universities to take an active role in changing this habit.

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Developing Instructional Approaches to CLIL with Cognitive and Vygotskian Perspectives

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INTRODUCTION

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has gained positive reputation in ELT classrooms around the world because it nurtures both L2 capabilities and important academic subject knowledge simultaneously. As the approach receives popularity, researchers suggest different frameworks for CLIL programs in foreign language settings. For example, Lightbown (2014) suggests Nation's (2007) four strands, that is, distributing the amount of instructions equally on the four areas of language. Whereas, in European CLIL programs, Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010) suggest aligning instruction around the 4Cs, covering the four areas of culture, communication, content, and cognition.

These suggestions have been received favorably in Japan; however, there remain some ambiguities regarding how language teachers design each instructional phase in plausible and effective ways. The focus of this presentation is to look at some of the established instructional designs for CLIL, starting with Nation's four strands, the 4Cs, and other approaches. I will highlight some phase-approaches, activities of which are carefully aligned across the phases within the CLIL unit.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON CLIL

Researchers have observed that CLIL language programs, including the initial terminology, Content-based instruction (CBI), have positive effects on language learning. One advantage is that content learning intrigues motivation to learn. According to the French CLIL program implemented in secondary school, the most prevalent students' perceptions were "their interest in learning about the world outside of the classroom" (Cumming & Lyster, 2016, p. 94). Furthermore, students reported positively about learning forward-thinking ideas and expressed a sense of accomplishment for presenting their ideas in English (Yasunaga, 2019). Another noteworthy point is that students can enhance their literacy skills. Unlike CLT, CLIL involves deeper processing of abstract concepts in English.

INSTRUCTIONAL FRAMEWORKS

The Four Strands

Nation's four strands involve well-balanced instructions across the four areas of language, meaning-based input, vocabulary learning, meaning-based output, and fluency development. The meaning-based input involves learning language receptively through reading or listening. Around 95% of the language in the input should be within students' previous knowledge so that they can comprehend overall meaning of the text with ease (Nation, 2007). Language-focused learning involves explicit, decontextualized, and direct learning of such linguistic items as forms, word parts, spelling, and pronunciation. Next, meaning-focused output involves using language productively through speaking and writing in order to convey meaning. Finally, fluency development covers all four skills, listening, reading, speaking, and writing and aims to develop fluency through repeated reading, listening, writing, and speaking.

The 4Cs

CLIL programs adopt learning about subject matter, so students normally work on learning abstract

concepts while learning about language necessary for learning them. Traditional grammar-oriented programs involved, for the most part, teaching abstract rules of language, in that the programs aimed to have students be able to formulate L2 sentences accurately, without deeper concepts learning. CLIL programs, however, generally include learning about culture, communication, content, and cognition (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010).

Three-Phase Approach

Genesee and Hamayan (2016) put forward three-phase CLIL instruction that aligns learning activities, progressively sequencing across the instructional phase. The first phase is the *preview phase*. In this phase, the teacher presents the content and the language necessary for learning it. The teacher tries to connect the new knowledge and the language to the students' existent knowledge, while familiarizing them to both. It is the phase in which students receive explicit instruction on linguistic aspects and practice applying these to their contexts, guided practice, for example. The second phase is the *focused-learning phase*. In this phase, the teacher helps students learn the content further, applying the enquiry-based approach. According to Genesee and Hamayan, the teacher encourages students to investigate the concepts further through group-based guided activities, for example, to help them explore and discover the concepts more. The teacher needs to build effective learning environments, such as creating the appropriate zone of proximal development around the students' actual level of knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). The final phase is the *extension phase.* In this phase, the teacher tries to have his students attempt to relate the learned content to other subject areas, for example, investigating local, provincial, and national laws regarding renewable energy (p. 156). One beneficial aspect of the three-phase approach is that it takes a stance to design skill development activities progressively across the phase of CLIL units. Next, I will describe communication-oriented instructional frameworks, drawing on the policy of the National Standards.

Communication Goals for Learning Languages

The American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages describes standards for learning languages in which they broadly define practical performance-based assessment models in five goal areas: communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities. The goals of the communication area include three distinctive skills: interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational communication. The three modes consider how languages are used in differential occasions and for particular communicative purposes.

APPLYING VYGOTSKIAN PERSPECTIVES

Researchers suggest that interactional communication can serve as an important interface in oral, face-to-face conversations done in rudimentary thoughts and more advanced, higher-order thinking processes. Interpersonal communication can provide a basis upon which human cognition develops (Vygotsky, 1978). In the presentation, these considerations will be discussed and the framework to integrate interpersonal communication into the CLIL instructional frameworks will be discussed.

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Coding for Communication: BBC Micro:bit in the Language Classroom

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The BBC micro:bit is a tiny programmable computer and micro-controller that is about half the size of your bank card. It is a piece of open-source hardware with built-in features including two programmable buttons; a twenty-five LED matrix to display pictures and text; sensors like a thermometer, accelerometer, and light and magnetic sensors; radio, USB, and Bluetooth connectivity; and a number of connectors. The BBC micro:bit can be connected to external inputs like sensors or outputs like motors or even be used to control a tinfoil circuit that can be closed by your hand. Programs made using the free, easy-to-use and well-scaffolded block-coding environment available in your web browser (https://makecode.microbit.org/) are uploaded to the BBC micro:bit via USB. BBC micro:bit inspires young people to get creative and "is all about young people learning to express themselves digitally" (BBC, 2019).

The BBC micro:bit can be used to make any number of creations: from games or robots to real solutions to real world problems. All of this is achieved through the block-coding environment of MakeCode that allows learners to develop an understanding of coding concepts and processes through the use of a visually simple and intuitive program that is fun to learn and equally as fun to teach.

FIGURE 1. The BBC micro:bit.

Coding is the process of making a computer program that accomplishes a specific task. Any computer program is like a long set of instructions. The coder must use "computational thinking" to transfer their complex ideas and designs into the information processes computers use to function. This includes logically framing a problem and identifying, evaluating, and implementing solutions to achieve the most efficient and effective result. "Coding teaches problem-solving, organization, math, storytelling, designing, and more…. The beauty of coding is that it comes in handy for different aspects of life" (Tynker.com, 2019, para. 10). Computational thinking skills as a subset of analytical skills are applicable beyond the boundaries of computing into all problem-solving fields.

Coding languages are often written in English (this is the case with MakeCode for micro:bit) and in the EFL classroom, the language is the communicative vehicle through which these tasks are achieved. The methodology of task-based learning promotes the idea that "the most effective way to teach language is by engaging learners in real language use in the classroom. This is done by designing tasks – discussions, problems, games and so on – which require learners to use the language for themselves" (Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 1). In completing these tasks, learners are required to use all of the English language

knowledge available to them at the time to communicate with each other by sharing ideas to overcome problems. The BBC micro:bit and coding for it provide a perfect task for learners to tackle. Learners can be presented with a problem they need to solve, such as making a compass to help them find north, or they can define their own problems by interviewing their classmates on their ideal virtual pet, for instance. The possibilities are numerous and "combining English language and computer skills empowers children with critical skills for their future" (British Council, 2019, para. 3).

Learners are encouraged to plan and design their program using design-thinking skills. This involves first approaching the problem to understand its aspects. Following this, before dealing with the writing of the code in block code language, learners analyze the problems logically to write a set of instructions in plain language called pseudocode. This is a simplified representation of a computer code that can be written, read, and understood by coders of all levels as it omits details necessary for the machine to understand the program and lays out in basic terms what the program will do and in what sequence. Writing pseudocode is like planning out a story or any piece of writing; making sure that everything is in its right, logical place. While block coding doesn't involve coding syntax, learners can progress onto writing their code in any of a number of coding languages. The syntax of coding languages is quite specific and must be written correctly in order for other programmers to understand it, much like the grammar of English. Coding therefore teaches skills and habits that can be carried over into the English classroom.

In coding, a crucial skill is that of trouble shooting and debugging. Despite in-depth planning, the nature of computer processing is such that errors in code that is written may not be immediately apparent and may result in a program acting in unintended and often confounding ways. Within a classroom environment, learners are encouraged to communicate their intentions in pseudocode and to share ideas and solutions with their peers. In this way, the very act of coding in itself is a task, separate from the larger task the program is aimed at addressing and is necessarily a communicative act, despite the misconception of computing as a solitary occupation.

Communication is key too when it comes to sharing one's creation and reflecting on the process involved in making it. This can involve receiving feedback from classmates on their programs and revising their code to create second or third iterations. The BBC micro:bit can achieve impressive results and learners really are proud of what they have created.

The micro:bit is, though, more than just a device on which to learn programming skills. Activities based around the micro:bit can incorporate all aspects of S.T.E.A.M. (science, technology, engineering, art, and maths). Imagine your students being tasked with making a musical instrument controlled by the micro:bit. Scientific and mathematical knowledge helps them understand and program the pitches for the different notes, they use technology and engineering knowledge to wire the micro:bit to the instrument and connect all the component pieces. Art skills help them to design and build the housing, perhaps from cardboard, and all the while they'll have been planning and communicating in English. The breadth of tasks possible with the micro:bit presents a huge array of potential language on which to focus as an English teacher.

A great way to introduce the micro:bit to your students is by running a Code Club. Code Club is a program run by the Raspberry Pi Foundation, a registered UK charity. Code Club aims to promote digital literacy and make the learning of coding skills accessible to all. It currently runs over 13,000 clubs in over 160 countries. Their vision is "to give every child the skills, confidence, and opportunity to change their world" (Code Club, 2019).

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Game On: Impact of *Spaceteam ESL* on Listening Comprehension

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Video games are increasingly being recognized (in research and otherwise) as a classroom tool for language instructors to educate students in an engaging way. This research project adds to the growing research in using video games in the EFL classroom. *Spaceteam ESL* is one particular video game that has the potential for benefitting language learning students in and out of the classroom. This study shows the benefit this video game makes on students' listening comprehension skills. This study is a quasi-experimental mixed-methods research project that examines the impact of playing *Spaceteam ESL* on Korean university students' English listening comprehension skills. Results suggest that students' listening comprehension skills are enhanced after playing this video game throughout their semester. The results also suggest that students have a positive attitude towards certain kinds of video games in the classroom as a means to improve their listening comprehension skill.

INTRODUCTION

Spaceteam ESL is a video game available for free iOS or Android download. This is how playing *Spaceteam ESL* works and helps students with their listening comprehension. In this game, two players play on separate smartphones or tablets but work cooperatively to win the game. On each players smartphone screen is displayed the game's user interface in two parts: The lower half of the screen includes an instrument panel with labeled instruments, and the upper part of the screen is the horizontal command line bar. The words for the instruments are common English vocabulary (teacher-chosen or chosen by the game). The command line is where commands for the players to follow are displayed for a pre-determined period of time – usually about five seconds. See Figure 1 for the screenshots of the game being played with example control panel names and commands in the display panel (in white).
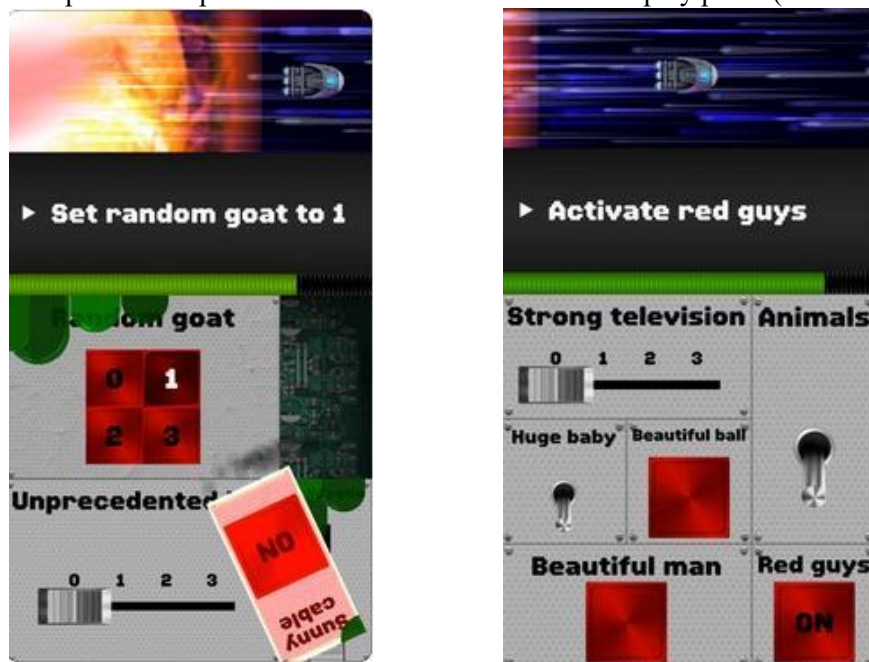

FIGURE 1. Screenshots of *Spaceteam ESL's* user interface: Mobile phone screen showing instrument panel and command line for Player 1 and Player 2.

The gameplay of this video game makes the game silly, fun, and educational. During gameplay, players must listen carefully to their partner for commands to adjust their instruments that appear on the partner's command line. When the first player hears a command given by the second partner, the first player presses the appropriate instrument in a timely manner. At the same time, the student must tell his partner the commands he reads on his own command line. Thus, players often need to tell their partner a command and listen for commands from their partner at the same time. This gameplay encourages students to communicate by listening and speaking clearly.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ 1: What is the impact of playing *Spaceteam ESL* on students' listening comprehension?

RQ 2: What are students' perceptions of using *Spaceteam ESL* during class time to enhance their listening comprehension skills?

METHOD

Participants

The students for this study are Korean citizens studying at a university in Suwon, South Korea. During their university studies, students must take a "College English" class, which teaches them English communication skills. Each weekly class is 150 minutes long.

Equipment

This quasi-experimental mixed-methods study used a pre-test and post-test design to identify the effectiveness of playing *Spaceteam ESL*. Four intact classes of students were used: Students from two classes acted as the experimental group (i.e., 36 students), and students from two other classes were the control group (i.e., 33 students). The groups were considered identical demographically (age, gender, language level). Any slight differences were found to be statistically insignificant. To start with, a pre-test was administered to both groups. This was Part A of the Listening Comprehension section of a recent institutionalized version of the TOEFL iBt (ET, 2018). After the treatment, the post-test was administered using the same test and a survey was administered to the experimental group. The procedure of this treatment occurred over the entire 15-week semester in both the experimental group and the control group. During this time, students from the control group participated in listening activities based on the coursebook, while students from the experimental group played *Spaceteam ESL*. A survey was also given to the experimental group about their perception playing *Spaceteam ESL*.

RESULTS

The results for this study were quite interesting and eye-opening. There was no statistically significant difference in the TOEFL pre-test scores for the experimental group and control group. In contrast to the pre-test scores, the post-test scores were significantly different. The post-test scores of the experimental group was significantly higher than the post-test scores of the control group. This answers research question 1 in the positive: Playing *Spaceteam ESL* helped students improve their listening skills. Playing this video game during the whole semester significantly improved their listening comprehension skills. There may be several game-related reasons for this. One is that to play the game successfully, the student needs to be in a state of readiness to listen to their partner's commands. A second reason is that each student is motivated to listen to their partner's abrupt and unannounced commands. The third reason is that the student is motivated to instantly comprehend and react to the command of their partner.

Regarding research question 2, the completed questionnaire data from the control group and experiment group were extracted and analyzed. The questionnaire contained 20 questions to be analyzed. The purpose of administering this test was to examine the difference in students' perceptions of usefulness and relevance to helping improve their listening comprehension skills between the control group and experiment group. The results of the survey showed students' felt and thought that playing the game helped them with their listening comprehension skills.

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Utilizing the Power of the Enthymeme for Language Proficiency

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For the purposes of this workshop an *enthymeme* is defined as a missing and assumed proposition in a syllogism in the form of either a premise or a conclusion. Enthymemes have been of interest to philosophers dating at least as far back as Aristotle, and much analysis has been given in terms of their identification and rhetorical value. The central claim of this workshop is that enthymemes can also be a useful tool to utilize for language acquisition, not only in terms of enhancing comprehension and effective communication in that language but also to improve grammatical structures and potentially break patterns of fossilized error. To support this claim, a logical technique is explained and demonstrated, allowing participants to solve given problems and determine for themselves the effectiveness of the claim.

INTRODUCTION

The definition of an *enthymeme* for the purposes of this workshop is "a missing and assumed proposition in a syllogism in the form of either a premise or a conclusion." The role of enthymemes in argument structures has received much analysis even in more recent times (Walton, 2008). For the purposes of this workshop, we will stay focused on enthymemes as employed in deductive logic, although there remain philosophically contentious problems here as well (Walton, 2001). Dating back to Aristotle, who is accredited with giving the first extensive treatment of the topic, claims are made of enthymemes being employed as rhetorical devices primarily in non-syllogistic forms of rhetoric (Braet, 1999). The definition can therefore easily be extended to any unstated assumption, with or without the logical necessity of a valid syllogism, but for the purposes of this workshop it is necessary to stay largely within the confines of syllogisms. Of what use can enthymemes serve in language acquisition? My central claim is that by taking cases of arguments found in common language discourse and converting these arguments, where possible, into syllogistic form, not only can comprehension of second or foreign language be enhanced, but grammatical structures can also be improved in the learner even to the point of breaking fossilized error patterns.

At this introductory stage, let's take a well-known example and first state it in common language discourse form: "All humans are mortal, so Socrates must be mortal. It is easy to supply the missing, in this case premise, without even converting the argument into syllogistic form. The enthymeme can be expressed as "Socrates must be human." This is an easy example also because, unlike other examples given further below, no other assumed propositions appear to be needed to make the argument valid. In the syllogistic form, the argument would be more precisely stated as:

All humans are mortal.   (Major premise)
Socrates is human.   (Minor premise)
Socrates is mortal.   (Conclusion)

In the course of this workshop and further below in this extended summary, a concise method will be given for identifying less obvious conclusions, along with major and minor premises. Although the sentence structure of this enthymeme is very simple (subject–verb–complement: "Socrates is human"), it should become evident to participants in this workshop how not only subject–verb agreement errors can be corrected but also even more challenging grammatical functions related to definite and indefinite articles.

KEY TERMS

Primarily, participants in this workshop need to be aware of the basic terms used in logic to identify arguments; the most fundamental being the term *proposition*: "an assertion that something is (or is not) the case" (Copi & Cohen, 2005, p. 7). A proposition is defined as having a truth function. The other key terms that need to be defined in relation to this are *inference*: "a process of linking propositions by affirming one proposition on the basis of one or more other propositions" (Copi & Cohen, 2005, p. 7) and *argument*: "a structured group of propositions reflecting an inference" (Copi & Cohen, 2005, p. 7). Within the argument, we define a *premise* as "a proposition used in an argument to support some other proposition" and *conclusion* as "the proposition in an argument that the other proposition(s), the premise(s), support" (Copi & Cohen, 2005, p. 7). We then move to the *syllogism* as shown in the form above, defined as "any deductive argument in which a conclusion is inferred from *two* premises" (Copi & Cohen, 2005, p. 217).

Next is the crucial task of distinguishing between a *major* and *minor* premise in a syllogism, along with what is known as a *middle term*. In the above example, the major premise contains the predicate of the conclusion: "mortal." The minor premise contains the subject of the conclusion: Socrates. The term that appears in both the major and minor premises, but not the conclusion, is "human." Hence, "human" is the middle term.

Finally, a *first-order enthymeme* is "one in which the major premise is missing" (see below). A *second-order enthymeme*, as was given above, is "one in which the minor premise is missing." A *third-order enthymeme* is defined as "one in which the conclusion is not stated."

Once these key terms have been sufficiently clarified, a commonly used technique can be demonstrated for correctly arranging arguments with enthymemes into a correct syllogistic form, thereby articulating an enthymeme that may or may not make the argument valid but, it is claimed, will assist in language acquisition and expression.

METHODOLOGY

In order to provide a sample of the kind of exercises that will be presented to participants and discussed in the main segment of the workshop, I present another relatively straight-forward example of an argument containing an enthymeme, demonstrate how to convert it into a correct syllogistic form, and state the enthymeme along with its correct order.

Take the informal argument form: "Transgenic animals are manmade and as such are patentable" (Alan E. Smith, as cited in Copi & Cohen, 2005, p. 285). An enthymeme can be identified here, and a procedure for converting the argument into its syllogistic form is given as follows:

Step 1: Identify the conclusion. If the conclusion does not appear, then it is a third-order enthymeme and the conclusion needs to be formulated, assuming the other premises to be true. In this case the conclusion is identified as "Transgenic animals are patentable."

Step 2: Identify the predicate of the conclusion, in this case, "patentable." The predicate of the conclusion is also to be found in the major premise. Because this term is missing in a major premise form, we can now correctly classify the enthymeme as being of first-order.

Step 3: Identify the subject of the conclusion, in this case, "transgenic animals." The subject term can be found in the minor premise: "transgenic animals are manmade." The minor premise and the conclusion can now be restated as follows:

All transgenic animals are manmade things.
All transgenic animals are patentable things.

Step 4: Ask what premise needs to be added in order to make the conclusion, at least, appear to be necessary. It can now be formulated as "All manmade things are patentable things." The middle term can

also be identified as "manmade things." The complete syllogism with the enthymeme now takes the following form:

All manmade things are patentable things.	(Major premise and enthymeme)
All transgenic animals are manmade things.	(Minor premise)
Therefore, all transgenic animals are patentable things.	(Conclusion)

It has been my experience in the classroom that, even at foundational levels of language learning, as soon as students grasp the vocabulary involved in the argument, there is almost a compulsion to correctly formulate what is missing in order to at least appear to make the conclusion necessary. There are all kinds of other philosophical contentions that come into play at this point because one can argue there are other unstated assumptions in the argument. It is assumed that there is a legal system in which such a patent can be made and that there is nothing else unique about transgenic animals that would disqualify them from such a patent (fallacy of accident). At a more advanced level, students can be asked to formulate such other assumptions that seem necessary to make the argument valid.

More on how fossilized grammatical errors can be corrected in examples like this will be discussed in the workshop. As a challenge to this and what was mentioned in the previous paragraph, consider the following example:

Although these textbooks purport to be a universal guide to learning of great worth and importance – there is a single clue that points to another direction. In the six years I taught in city and country schools, no one ever stole a textbook. (Jones, 1974, as cited in Copi & Cohen, 2005, p. 282)

(A solution to this argument with the formulation of enthymeme(s) will be briefly given in the workshop. You may correctly formulate an obvious enthymeme but think of others that are entailed.)

CONCLUSION

From the two simple examples given of first-order and second-order enthymemes (Socrates and transgenic animals), it can be seen how, assuming the student has sufficient grasp of the basic vocabulary, he or she is committed to expressing additional propositions that complete a syllogism. And the compelling nature of completing that syllogism should also appear evident. The required semantic structures can also fall into place through this "syllogistic compulsion," and as will be further explored in the workshop, broader assumptions expressed that aid in expanding comprehension in language acquisition. It is on this basis that I advocate my central claim that enthymemes have power to be utilized in language acquisition, both in terms of comprehension and fossilized grammatical correction.

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Curriculum and Vocabulary Instruction Practices Using a Dual Literacy Approach for Korean English Learners

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This paper explores the use of vocabulary activities to support literacy development and how it affects the vocabulary acquisition of elementary Korean English language learners. It documents one teacher's curriculum development of two units that offer a new perspective to ELL vocabulary acquisition by building vocabulary using morphological training then access and build on background knowledge through practical applications which lead to higher comprehension. This investigation explores (a) the role that curriculum plays on literacy development focused on the development activities that supports the vocabulary development of elementary Korean English language learners using Greek root words and affixes beyond vocabulary word lists, (b) uses grapheme, phoneme, morpheme awareness, integrated in a way that helps students understand how words are built, and (c) activates student knowledge in the application phase through personalized communication practice.

INTRODUCTION

This project sought to find a way to introduce vocabulary education beyond word lists to fifth- and sixth-grade ELLs residing in Korea. Although decoding literacy skills are undoubtedly a critical component in academic literacy learning, when used improperly students do not retain new knowledge and they won't activate background knowledge and stimulate high-level thinking skills. Uribe and Nathenson-Mejia (2008) state that vocabulary is essential for ELLs to develop comprehension through concept development and word usage. Vocabulary should not been seen as words lists but rather as the form, use, and semantics within a text. Vocabulary development goes beyond word definitions to require interaction and application of contextualized and decontextualized language. The relationship between these systems and communication or building on background knowledge is a key element of the units that comprise this project. With this in mind, the guiding question in developing the curriculum is as follows: How will the use of vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of the literacy of elementary Korean English language learners?

LITERATURE REVIEW

All research directly pertains to the curriculum developed, which was designed to ensure that grapheme, phoneme, morpheme awareness are integrated in a way that helps students understand how words are built. Affixations acquisition makes an argument for vocabulary instruction using meaning emphasis versus code emphasis literacy (Murray, Munger, & Hiebert, 2014). The success of morphological awareness training on Korean ELLs literacy building by analyzing a study of ELL's from linguistically different backgrounds is noted and indicates an opportunity to improve understanding of the best literacy practices for Korean ELL students.

Vocabulary Considerations and Effects on ELL Reading Comprehension

As Roessingh (2006) points out, vocabulary is essential for academic growth for intermediate to advanced English speakers. Second language learner's depth of vocabulary affects student reading comprehension. Special consideration should be made to help ELL students succeed in building their vocabulary to improve literacy and reading comprehension. Graves (2006) including two key points: 1. ELL require instructional accommodations such as vocabulary development support and more time. 2.

Teachers should help students organize and consolidate text knowledge with reviews and summaries, provide ample opportunities to interact with teachers and peers. Tactile tasks, rhymes, poems, games, pictures, demonstrations, and videos are helpful at enforcing ELL vocabulary acquisition.

Effects of Morphological Awareness

Studying Latin and Greek prefixes and suffixes is a helpful meaning-making tool and is central within this curriculum set. In addition, morphological construction exercises can help draw a parallel between Korean and English. Marinova-Todd, Siegel, and Mazabel (2013) and Cho, McBride-Chang, and Park (2008) cited that morphological awareness is central to a Korean students' ability to learn English vocabulary beyond memorization. When students understand how words can be broken apart to construct meaning, they are able to construct meaning of new words.

Being able to break English words down to their root, prefix, and suffix allows students to construct meaning of new vocabulary autonomously. This process of deriving a change in meaning from a similar word is referred to as a *derivational process* (e.g., *teach/teacher)* (Marinova-Todd et al., 2013).

Task-Based Learning

Vocabulary acquisition methods have been divided into two categories. Hinkel (2005) has divided vocabulary learning into two: receptive and productive. Receptive vocabulary, or passive, is knowledge needed for listening and reading. Productive, on the other hand, is knowledge needed to use the word for speaking and writing. This specific project will focus on the interplay between receptive and productive vocabulary acquisition.

Benefits of Phonological Awareness, and Meaning Emphasis vs Code Emphasis Benefits of Phonological Awareness

Kang (2010) notes that Korean has a shallow orthography. This means that Korean reading is more reliant on decoding. Literacy instruction usually involves working with letter and name combinations rather than sound combinations or manipulatives. Murray, Munger, and Hiebert (2014) note the English language has a high frequency of irregular words, which account for up to 50% of all words. Since sound patterns may appear in a variety of different spellings, it is important that these irregular words appear in high frequency and are arranged to show patterns and practiced often. Phonological awareness (PA) is often a foundational literacy building component in English.

METHOD

The goal of this project is to activate already acquired vocabulary and build on past knowledge in a meaningful way that will facilitate a link between speaking skills acquired and written literacy skills pertaining to Greek affixes and root words. Recognizing the benefits of dynamic instruction when teaching ELLs, the curriculum will rely on the use of multiple elements including phonological awareness and morphological awareness. It will be implemented with mixed emphasis on both meaning and decoding literacy techniques through task-based learning activities.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study aimed to find the direct contributions of morphological awareness (MA), the indirect contributions of MA, and cross-linguistic contributions of MA to reading comprehension mediated by vocabulary. Cross-linguistic transfer refers to students' ability to take existing knowledge about their L1

and identify, analyze, and transfer the knowledge to their L2.

The empirical evidence showed that there was a stronger positive correlation in both the direct and indirect effects of MA and English reading comprehension for EFL learners residing in Korea than for ESL learners residing in the US. Though both groups primarily utilized their knowledge of processing morphological structure to extract meaning, the ESL group used MA and vocabulary separately, whereas the EFL group relied on vocabulary knowledge that was activated by morphological processing skills (Bae & Joshi, 2018). These findings build on consistent research within the field, which proves that upper-elementary Korean ELL students who use MA training acquire enhanced literacy development.

Though morphological training units are often regarded as difficult to master in elementary education, there is evidence of its usefulness in building Korean ELL English literacy skills (Bae & Joshi, 2018). This research serves as a reminder that vocabulary education needs to be balanced between decontextualized morphological training and contextualized meaning-making in ESL education. Since affixes and root words do not require a great deal of contextual practice, they offer a natural scaffolding to allow Korean ELL students to recognize common words that have Greek root words and affixes, and learn new words using common affixes.

In the Korean education context, the curriculum serves to offer a way to bridge the gap between conceptual and practical vocabulary learning. In the Korean education system, teaching to the test is a reality that has caused significant gaps in students' usable knowledge. Mundy (2014) notes that TOEIC testing isn't beneficial for English proficiency; in contrast, it is proven that expressive language development is essential for Korean elementary students to acquire academic vocabulary that will allow them to achieve academic literacy within their secondary education careers.

Conclusions

In conclusion, this paper offers a new perspective on ELL vocabulary education using a morphological exercise paired with task-based conversation to answer the guiding question: How will the use of vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of elementary-level Korean English language learners?

Vocabulary instruction for ELLs residing in Korea should be re-evaluated to make considerations for activating knowledge. Using affixes within students' receptive and productive language instruction is an effective way to do this. This vocabulary building curriculum encourages students to learn how Greek originated roots, prefixes, and suffixes operate within the English language in order to enhance their L2 literacy development and then use their newly learned language in engaging discussions and tasks. This curriculum sought to offer a new perspective to ELL classroom instruction and will be adapted to fit the needs of educators in the future. Educators are encouraged to use this curriculum as an MA language support education tool to improve L2 proficiency.

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Integrating ESP into a Japanese Commercial University

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INTRODUCTION

English for specific purposes (ESP) has been an effective way to integrate English language learning with a specific commercial or vocational purpose in the university. Most studies that focus on ESP learners at the university or in the workplace show that many students have been considered low achievers in English, lacking basic English proficiency and motivation for learning English. This situation suggests that more attention needs to be paid to English for general purposes (EGP) in order to enhance the students' ability in the four language skills. In the classes at the commercial university where I teach, I try to integrate English with the knowledge and skills of the students' professional field. In these classes, students consolidate their knowledge and skills through learning ESP, they also increase their overall English proficiency. Most significantly, motivation for learning English is increased.

BACKGROUND

In this presentation I would like to look at the potential barriers to implementation of ESP courses for students with low proficiency of English, taking a commercial English course at a commercial university. The students at my commercial university are in specific fields of study, such as tourism, hotel management, business, or medical assistant. ESP students are usually students who already have some acquaintance with English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. An ESP program is therefore built on an assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required.

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

ESP has the advantage of best being acquired through the subject matter basically due to learners' genuine interest in the learning material. This would interest many of the students at a commercial university because it would be material that may be applied in their future employment. Also it may be linked to other classes that they may be studying at the university. Subject matter can be introduced by English language teachers throughout English classes by employing vocational materials. ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. The ESP focal point is that English is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners. Students practice using the language learned in class with mock situations in the classroom.

In ESL all four language skills – listening, reading, speaking, and writing – are equally stressed; in ESP the students' needs are analyzed and the syllabus is designed to meet the language skills that are most needed by the students. In my commercial university, the emphasis is on the development of the skills that the students are preparing for. For example, hotel management students would want to develop spoken skills, listening skills, vocabulary, and phrases that would be used in their specific field.

ESP combines English language teaching and subject matter. This kind of combination is highly motivating to students because students are able to apply what they learn in their future employment. Being

able to use the vocabulary and grammar structures that they learn in the class in a meaningful context and situation can be motivating and reinforces what is taught in the class. Students approach the study of English in an area of study that is already known and relevant to them, forming a connection for the student. Their interest in their field of study will motivate them to absorb the classroom material, interact with students, and take interest in the text. ESP assesses needs and integrates motivation, subject matter, and content for the teaching of relevant skills.

CONCLUSIONS

In ESP classes, students are able to learn languages, and they have opportunities to understand and work with the language in a context that they comprehend and find interesting. ESP provides a path for such learning opportunities. Students will study and learn English as study material that they find interesting and relevant, and which they can use in their professional work or further studies. In ESP, English should be taught not as a subject to be learned by the students nor as a skill that can be developed, but English should be taught in authentic contexts to have the learners realize its importance and usefulness in future employment or future studies. The material should be presented in ways in which the language is used in functions that they will need to perform in their fields of specialty or jobs.

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Picture Books: Tools for Teaching Pronunciation

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INTRODUCTION

For English language learners (ELLs), pronunciation is critically important as it affects intelligibility and successful communication (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2017). However, teachers often feel it is not easy to teach, in part because of the lack of effective resources (Smotrova, 2017). An accessible tool that can be used for teaching pronunciation is picture books. Teaching pronunciation through picture books meets the learner's need for pronunciation practice by promoting phonological awareness and one's awareness of sounds, as well as suprasegmentals, speech features like stress and intonation. By focusing on pronunciation one skill at a time, with the aid of picture books, teaching pronunciation becomes more effective and achievable.

Using picture books as pronunciation tools creates the opportunity to meet another vitally important learner need that is often overlooked: multicultural awareness. By selecting picture books that have a culturally responsive theme, teachers can help break the cultural barriers ELLs face when learning English (James, 2017). Multicultural picture books are valuable because while improving pronunciation, they also help ELLs connect their cultural identity to their English education.

To aid teachers in their instruction of pronunciation, picture books can be used for all levels of students by focusing on phonological awareness or suprasegmental features. Furthermore, selecting multicultural picture books as instructional materials allows ELLs to explore diverse cultures while improving their pronunciation.

BUILDING PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS

To improve pronunciation, beginning readers need to build phonological awareness – the connections between sounds they hear and letters they see. Phonological awareness encompasses the awareness of phonemes (segmental features), syllables, words, onset-rime, and rhyme. While there are other methods of teaching pronunciation, using authentic children's stories is motivating for ELLs and encourages learning (Rass & Holzman, 2010). This creates an environment that fosters pronunciation practice of phonological features while sustaining learner engagement in the stories.

As all of these pronunciation skills can be taught through reading picture books to students, teachers should select one skill at a time to teach (Mihai et al., 2015). This will avoid overwhelming ELLs' pronunciation practice and maintain their engagement with the story. To use picture books, ELLs can be tasked with identifying certain phonological features as they read along with the teacher. In addition, ELLs can practice reading sections of the story once they become confident with the skill. Building phonological awareness through picture books engages the learner while developing their pronunciation ability.

DEVELOPING SUPRASEGMENTAL FEATURES

Celce-Murcia, Briton, Goodwin, and Griner (2017) state that mastering suprasegmental features is important because they carry meaning and are vital for communicative competence. Stress patterns,

intonation, rhythm, and other suprasegmental features are superimposed onto words and sentences to signal grammatical differences, emotions, and prominence. Therefore, it is imperative that these pronunciation skills are taught in addition to phonological awareness. Once again, picture books are an effective resource for teaching pronunciation. They create a low-stress reading environment for ELLs by easing comprehension with the support of the pictures and avoidance of complex grammar (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2010). These aids help ELLs understand the story more easily, allowing them to focus on developing their pronunciation of suprasegmental features.

By combining suprasegmental practice with read-alouds, ELLs can listen to each skill as modeled by the teacher and then practice reading the story aloud themselves while applying the chosen suprasegmental pronunciation technique. When reading, ELLs can focus on strategically pausing between thought groups, stressing content words, reducing stress on function words, practicing connected speech, and improving intonation. Storybooks act as an engaging resource for ELLs to test out and practice the pronunciation skills of suprasegmental features.

SELECTING MULTICULTURAL PICTURE BOOKS

While the focus of using picture books is for pronunciation development, teachers must also consider the content of the stories. This creates an opportunity to build a culturally responsive classroom by selecting multicultural picture books. Multicultural stories invite ELLs to build cross-cultural awareness and explore their own culture through English. According to Cummins, Hu, Markus, and Montero (2015), using multicultural children's literature generates comprehensible input and output, and it makes a connection to the learner's life while activating cultural schema, thereby affirming their cultural identity and promoting cultural competence. Additionally, ELLs can learn about other cultures as these "texts [reflect] the racial, ethnic, and social diversity that is characteristic of our pluralistic society and of the world" (Bishop, 2003). It is important to build connections between the diversity in the world and the classroom. The implementation of multicultural children's picture books for pronunciation practice creates a channel to promote cross-cultural awareness and helps ELLs develop their own cultural identity in English.

CONCLUSIONS

As pronunciation is vital for increased communicative competence, teachers can look to picture books as a tool to introduce and practice pronunciation of phonological and suprasegmental features. Through listening to read-alouds and practicing reading themselves, ELLs can gain improved phonological awareness and command of stress, connected speech, and intonation. Moreover, teachers can select stories that allow ELLs to explore their own culture and others while practicing pronunciation. Instead of avoiding pronunciation instruction, teachers can look to picture books as an effective resource to enhance their lessons.

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Silence Recognition of Consecutive Bilabials

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INTRODUCTION

English sounds are not spelled in a consistent manner (e.g., Coulmas, 1996). For example, *rigor* has the word-internal sound [g] sometimes called "hard g," and *rigid* has [ʤ], the "soft g." The word *genre* has the affricate [ʒ] in word-initial position. Additionally, the word *ring* has the velar nasal [ŋ] in word-final position while the word *tough* has the voiceless labio-dental fricative [f]. *Van Gogh* can be pronounced [k] for the final gh sound, or the phoneme disappears in some areas of North America as *right* has no sound for the gh letters inside the word. The voiced velar plosive in the word *wagon* can be realized as the fricative [ɣ]. Such a phonetic variation does not commonly occur in some other languages. It may not be an easy task to learn such correct pronunciation, especially for beginning- or intermediate-level EFL learners.

Some historical reasons have caused such a variation of sounds in English spelling (Burchfield, 1985; Horobin, 2013, 2016; Shipley, 1945; Stenroos & Smith, 2016). Silent letters have some useful functions in the writing system (Albrow, 1972; Cook, 2004; Crystal, 1988; Venezky, 1970, 1999). Established orthographic patterns draw underlined lexical representations to effectively show the commonality among derived words and are considered as a nearly optimal descriptive system (Chomsky & Halle, 1968). Some previous research has covered the situations of orthographically supported mispronunciations, for example, *dumber* and *limbless* (Ranbom & Connine, 2011). A further study can focus on neighboring consonants, one of which is not pronounced at the labial position for EFL learners in East Asia.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The present study aimed at learning about the phonetic knowledge concerning the word-internal consecutive bilabial consonants in the English of EFL learners at the college level in Japan.

SURVEY METHODS AND RESULTS

The participants in the present survey were 202 students enrolled in first-year classes at two four-year universities in Japan. Their first language was Japanese, and their English proficiency was measured by a vocabulary and reading comprehension test (Asai, 2018; Asai, Konishi, Ishikawa, & Matsuoka, 2017). The words in question are as follows: *combing*, *combining*, *thumbing*, *thumping*, *numbly*, *humbly*, *crumbs*, *plumber*, *gumboil*, *dumbfound*, and *plumbago*. As a reference, *subtlety* and *subtracting* were added.

Figure 1 exhibits the rates of correct answers in the -mb- and -bt- questions. The maximum point of 1.00 on the horizontal axis shows full marks. The scores for the unrealized sound, indicated as the "m(b) score" with closed circles, correlated with the participants' English proficiency scores. Next, the scores for the pronunciations that agreed with the spellings, indicated as the "mb score" with grey squares, were nearly constant in terms of their proficiency. The rates of correct answers in the -bt- sound question were not constant, and showed a drop in a score range from 0.6 to 0.8. In comparison, those in the -(b)t- question almost monotonously increase to the perfect score.
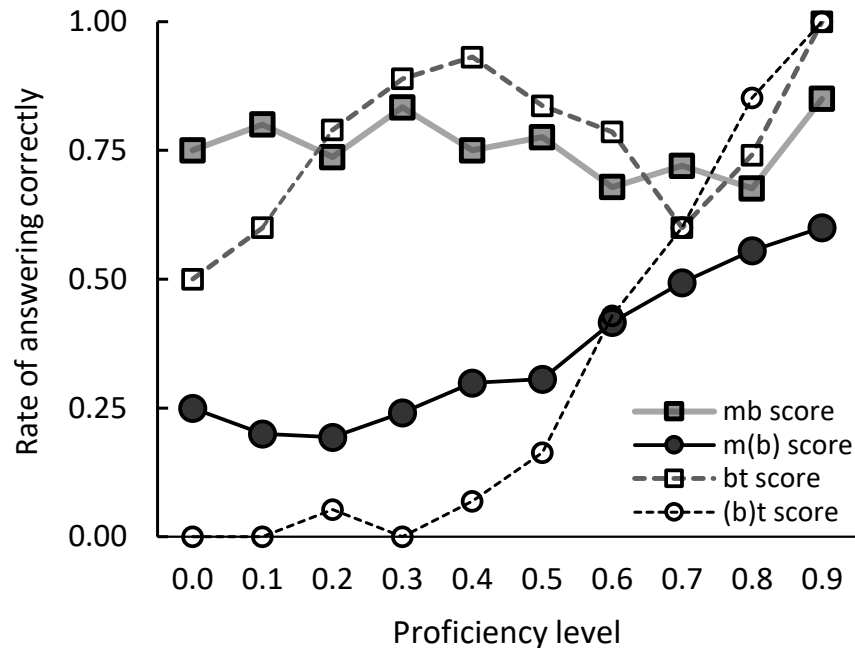
FIGURE 1. Distributions of correct answer ratios by proficiency level and sound pattern.

DISCUSSION

The scores for the unrealized sounds significantly correlated with the participants' English proficiency scores in vocabulary and reading comprehension, and such silent-letter judgments reflected their lexical knowledge. The beginning-level learners tended to judge the target sounds according to the spellings. The learners with relatively high proficiency were confused about whether the bilabial consonant sounds should be realized or should be mute.

In terms of infrequently used words, the scores for the realized sound dropped in a score range from 0.6 to 0.8, which indicated the high-intermediate proficiency level. That fact denotes the same tendency of the scores for the "(b)t score" marked with open squares on the word *subtlety* in Figure 1.

In sum, the silent-letter judgments reflected the participants' lexical knowledge. Their judgment tendencies for the [mb] phonemes in word-internal position demonstrated confusion with respect to where they would be sounded or muted, especially among high-intermediate-level learners. The importance of both visual and auditory inputs and outputs in current EFL settings for vocabulary building is suggested by the present study.

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Developing Intercultural Communication Competence via Raising Self-Awareness Activities in ELT

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Intercultural competence requires the understanding of context, appropriateness, and effectiveness. As mentioned in Byram (2002), Lustig (2010), and Frank (2013), it needs the full attention to attitudes, motivations, skills, and knowledge. On the base of these, experiential learning strategy is suggested by Frank (2013) via cultural collections, cultural observations, web quests, cultural informants, role-plays, or cultural journals. However, teaching intercultural communication for English-major students in a quite culturally homogeneous environment in Vietnam is a challenge because it demands the teachers to ensure not only to raise intercultural awareness but also to reduce stereotypes and overgeneralization for the students, most of whom have not had much intercultural exposure nor have gone abroad. Through this action research on developing students' intercultural communication competence, our paper will share some experiential strategies used in intercultural communication and in language, culture, and society lessons – raising self-awareness of students' own culture to understand otherness in intercultural interaction. These include project-based exploration of cultural behavior and perceptions, reflection papers of personal identity, and the use of intercultural materials (books, films, blogs, etc.) for groups' critical analysis. The teacher's role in developing intercultural competence is as a facilitator promoting student exploration of "cultural selfness" from which they can become aware of "otherness" in interaction. The results are changes of students' attitudes towards cultural differences, the enhancement of motivation, and the improvement of skilled actions.

PROBLEMS

Teaching intercultural communication in Vietnam is challenging because it demands that teachers ensure both raising intercultural awareness and reducing stereotypes and overgeneralization for the students, most of whom have not had much intercultural exposure or gone abroad.

Vietnamese students have some intercultural communication problems (via teacher observations, small chats, reflection essays, group presentations, etc.).

- Inferiority complex (*I have never been to America, so I don't know about them.*)
- Stereotypes (*As I know, the American people are …*)
- Overgeneralization (*I met an American guy, then, the American people are …*)
- Ethnocentric views/thinking: (*Foreigners must know Vietnamese culture when they come to Vietnam, so it's ok to treat them as Vietnamese …*)

BACKGROUND

"In language teaching, the concept of 'communicative competence' takes this into account by emphasizing that language learners need to acquire not just grammatical competence but also the knowledge of what is 'appropriate' language" (Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002, p. 5). However, to develop the learners' intercultural communication competence, teachers should pay attention not only to knowledge but also to attitudes, motivation, and skills (Byram, 2002; Lustig, 2010; Frank, 2013), and

internal and external outcomes (Deardoff, 2006). Our study focuses on changing students' attitudes towards cultural differences via experiential strategies.

Students can see themselves as "a culture." They have their own perspectives, values, attitudes, and practices; therefore, when they are aware of their own, they see the otherness in intercultural interaction. By promoting cultural self-awareness, students can become more tolerate of cultural differences, thus helping change their ethnocentric perspective to a more ethno-relative one.

Frank, (2013) suggests some strategies for cultural learning such as cultural collections, cultural observations, web quests, cultural informants, role-plays, or cultural journals. The teacher's role here is to raise students' awareness of their own culture from which they see the others, motivate them to explore their own cultural selfness, provide them knowledge of cultural information to enhance their conceptualization, and boost their critical skills of adaptation. However, teaching intercultural communication is not "the transmission of information about a foreign country" nor the requirement of visiting the target culture or country (Byram, 2002, p. 10). The teacher should involve the students in designed activities to relate what they are exposed to and discover how to adjust and adapt in intercultural interaction.

ACTIVITIES

We designed different activities and assignments for the students to do both in class and out of the class.

Project-based exploration of cultural behavior and perceptions. Students are asked to work in groups to conduct small-scale research by surveying/observing people around them. For example:

> *Design and conduct a small-scale survey on a particular community's common beliefs, values, and social norms.* (Suggestion: The "community" in your survey may consist of people in your community (your neighbours, classmates, students at your university, etc.), your age, in your course, same gender, your friends, etc.

Vlog or Blog of self-exploration. Students make a video recording, short clip, or blog exploring themselves entitled "How Something/Somebody Changes Me" (based on some videos, for example, "How Travel Changes Me" by Nas Daily https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CjZvyxUq8JA)

Reflection papers/essays. Students write a short essay (300–400 words) reflecting their changes after the course, for example:
> *What changes do you think the course brings about in you? Compare the time before and after you entered this course.*

Intercultural materials' (books, movies, articles, YouTube blogs, etc.) critical analysis. Students indicate any implications for intra-, cross-, inter-cultural communication drawn from the analysis. Example:

> Choose one source of communication (newspaper articles, advertisement, video clips on YouTube, comments on YouTube, blogs, episodes from films, excerpts from textbooks, news of any form, etc.) either from one specific country or from two countries for the purpose of comparison and contrast. Analyze the materials chosen using the concepts obtained from the course to see how cultural elements influence the way people communicate/behave.

CONCLUSIONS

The results reflect students' changes in their attitudes towards cultural differences. They become more tolerate and accept cultural differences, self-improve their skills, knowledge, and motivation to attain appropriateness and effectiveness. The changes can be from a very small thing, for example, the solutions to the disagreements and conflicts in their daily habits to a bigger perspective like a change in their worldview of LGBT people or Muslim people.

Moreover, students can also be reminded that intercultural communication is a continuum or endless process. Meeting people of different cultures and countries, being exposed to different cultural values and behaviors, experiencing the unexpected, even shocking cultural situations cannot be avoided in the future. The more they communicate, the richer the intercultural communication experiences they will have.

Students see the needs to develop their own critical cultural awareness. They learn respect for diversity, to have acceptance, empathy, solidarity, and reduction of cultural and social biases through exposure and experiences, sharing and cooperating.

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Japanese University Students' English Use out of the Classroom

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Students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) are often eager to improve their communication skills through various forms of development, like oral communication. However, what kind of willingness do they have to use it with non-native peers? This study looked into the desire Japanese university students have to use English with their non-native peers, outside of a classroom setting. By means of a mixed methodology approach, qualitative and quantitative data was collected on motivations towards the hypothesis that Japanese EFL students, largely, do not communicate in English outside of school with other non-native peers. All of the participants involved in this study are students at a university in Japan. In addition to an analysis of a survey, the results of an in-depth student interview were also examined. This study hopes to contribute to the understanding of why Japanese EFL students do or don't use English with non-native peers and explore the links between out-of-class behavior and motivations towards EFL study.

INTRODUCTION

English language education has been ongoing in Japan for over 150 years. Today, compulsory education of English lasts about five years, from ages 10 to 15, not including high school, which is not compulsory. However, the enrollment rate of high school in Japan, which is three years in duration, was over 98% as of 2013 (MEXT, 2013). Therefore, it can be assumed that the vast majority of students aged 10 to 18 study English for that duration. Furthermore, in post-secondary education, such as university and junior college, enrollment is at about 53% as of 2013 (MEXT, 2013). Many students typically continue studying English in post-secondary and in most cases are required to do so.

The Japanese government has described English proficiency as "crucial for Japan's future" (MEXT, 2014). Despite this, many students are hesitant to use their English, and their willingness to communicate (WTC) is relatively low in many cases (Fushino, 2011). The hypothesis is that many students studying English limit their use of English largely to classroom activities and do not make much, if any, practical use of English outside of the classroom setting. This study aimed to investigate the above hypothesis and the willingness of Japanese students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) to use English, in particular, how often they use English outside of the classroom and for what reasons, and to help glean information on what can be done to get students to use it instead of lose it.

METHODOLOGY

This study was aimed at answering the following research questions:
1. To what extent do Japanese EFL students use English with their peers outside of the classroom?
2. What reasons and willingness do they have for doing so, or not doing so?

A mixed methods approach with an initial survey that resulted in quantitative data was followed by an in-depth interview that resulted in qualitative data from participants. Not all participants from the initial survey were interviewed in the second stage of research.

RESULTS

The quantitative data (Figure 1) shows the amount that students used English with their non-native peers outside of the classroom for the groups from both 2018 and 2019. The results indicate that both groups of students either very rarely or rarely used English with their non-native peers outside of the classroom. In 2018, 80% of students claimed to very rarely or rarely use English with their non-native peers. In 2019, a total of 90% of students claimed the same of either very rarely or rarely using English. A combined two-year total of 219 out of 260 students (84%) said they either very rarely or rarely used English with their non-native peers. These numbers quite clearly indicate that students do not use English when they are with non-native peers outside of the classroom.
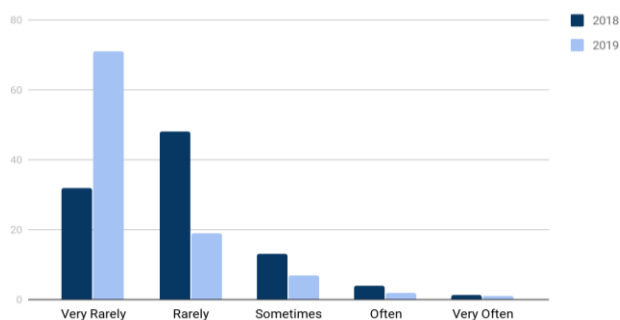

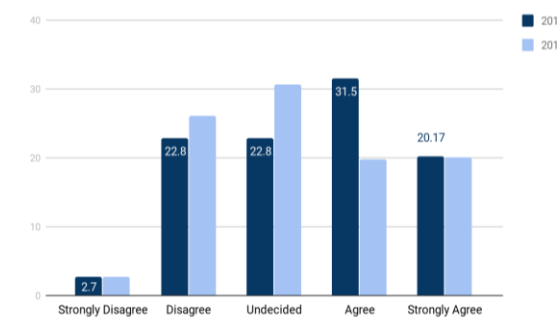**FIGURE 1.** Amount of English used outside of the classroom for each group.

FIGURE 2. Degree of agreement on importance using English with NNS peers.

The quantitative data results regarding whether or not students agreed or disagreed on whether they thought it was important to use and practice English with their non-native peers (Figure 2) shows a contrast in what they believed versus what they actually did. As previously stated, a combined total of 84% of students surveyed said they either very rarely or rarely used English with non-native peers outside of the classroom. Despite that, in 2018, over 51% of students agreed or strongly agreed that they thought it was important for them to practice English with their non-native peers. In 2019, 40.7% of students either strongly agreed or agreed that they thought it was important. A combined two-year total of 122 out of 260, 47% of students, either agreed or strongly agreed that they thought it is important to use and practice English with their non-native peers. This is in comparison to only 25% of students who disagreed or strongly disagreed in 2018 and 29% who disagreed or strongly disagreed in 2019. A combined total of 70 out of 260 students (26%) disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Questions from the interview gave a qualitative perspective to the quantitative results of the survey. Students ($n = 15$) were asked why they thought it was important to use English with non-native peers outside of the classroom. As previously mentioned, a combined total of 47% of students thought that it was either important or very important. The students gave a mixed array of positive, neutral, and negative responses indicating what they thought.

Of the fifteen students interviewed, about seven gave some kind of negative response. Three of those students directly said that they were embarrassed by their English pronunciation and that is why they did not use it often. Another student said that they could not imagine an instance where they would be speaking English to a non-native peer, indicating that they had no interest in doing so. One other student said that they did not have any opportunities to use English outside of the university. When asked why in regards to their response, they said they did not know anyone who would want to do that. This would lead us to believe they did not have the motivation to create any opportunities; therefore, they did not try.

Two students gave more neutral comments to the interview. One student said they thought it would be a good idea to do so, but they also were worried about their lack of good pronunciation. Another neutral student said again, they thought it would be good practice, but they were afraid of not knowing how to express Japanese language nuances in English.

The six remaining students all gave positive answers in the interview. One student said they thought that most people in the world are not native English speakers and that they thought it is a good idea to use English with non-native speakers. Two other students both had similar ideas in that they thought that they could learn from each other's mistakes while speaking English. One other student said that it may be difficult, but over time, they could adapt and get used to speaking English with their non-native peers.

CONCLUSION

The idea that university students are improving their English, especially their communication skills by communicating with non-native peers was proven to be wrong, but the idea that students are interested in doing so was shown to be somewhat promising. The vast majority of students do not communicate in English with their peers even though about half of them thought it is a good idea to do so. In this study, there was a lack of interviews done in comparison to the number of students surveyed. In the future, having more would perhaps give more insight into why so many of them said they do not use English with their peers. There are many possibilities as to why they do not, but the obvious answer that it is not their native language suggests that even though they think it is a good idea, they do not have the motivation or desire to do so and simply use the far more natural L1. Moving forward, because a large portion of students thought it would be a good idea, future research on what would motivate students to use English with their non-native peers outside of class as well as how to help students better understand the benefits of doing so would be helpful.

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Developing ESP Materials to Improve Cabin Crew's Productive Skills

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With the advent of globalization, the roles of the cabin crew and their communication competence have become a vital factor in the success of the aviation business. This presentation looks at content-based instruction (CBI) and English for specific purposes (ESP) course materials that the presenter explicitly designed for cabin crew. The purpose of this course material project was to develop learner-centered ESP materials that integrate CBI and situational language teaching as frameworks to meet the particular needs and unique characteristics of cabin crew. Through this presentation, attendees will gain a deeper understanding of an integrated approach of English materials for cabin crew and practical ways to develop their own materials.

BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

Air transportation has become a necessary part of globalization. As a consequence, the aviation market has also been thriving, with an increase in international exhibitions, business traveling, and a boom in tourism. In order to meet the demands of the times, a large number of international flight routes have been launched and operated. With this process, the role of cabin crew and their communication competence has become a vital factor in the success of the aviation business. Kankaanranta and Luhiala-Salminen highlighted this point as follows: "English has become the language of business and international communication" (as cited as Woodrow, 2017, chapter 3, Speaking). All this has resulted in the career of cabin crew to become one of the most attractive and desirable ones among Korean females.

The purpose of this project is to discover the needs of Korean cabin crew trainees, to develop situation-based ESP materials that include an integrated framework with CBI and situational language teaching, to expand their opportunities to have diverse situational learning experiences related to their unique working environment, and to support their English language proficiency development.

The following is the research question for the project:

RQ1. How can situation-based ESP materials be developed to meet the specific needs of cabin crew in the Korean EFL context?

MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Firstly, a needs analysis was conducted in the form of a questionnaire in order to pinpoint the learner's specific needs of learning English. Questionnaire results were analyzed by dividing them into the three categories of needs, wants, and lacks. Five priorities were established: (a) include aviation-specific topics and various situations, (b) include a range of key vocabulary, phrases, and frequently appearing structures related to their workplace, (c) provide opportunities of playing a specific role in different situations in role-plays, (d) help learners use frequent aviation-specific vocabulary and word forms, and (e) help learners develop fluency and spontaneity in speaking. Next, existing materials evaluation was conducted in two steps: first-glance analysis and in-depth analysis. Lastly, materials development was done following materials design principles of the four strands: meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output, and fluency development (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 89). Each activity aimed to offer one of these four strands.

KEY FEATURES OF MATERIALS

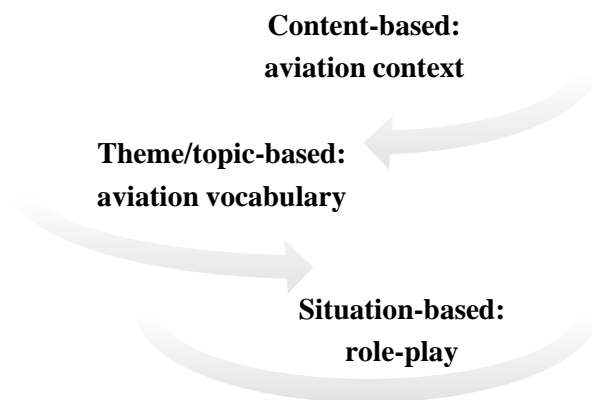Three integrated approaches to ESP for cabin crew materials that focus on the learners' specific needs:

Content-based:
aviation context

Theme/topic-based:
aviation vocabulary

Situation-based:
role-play

FIGURE 1. Three Integrated Approaches to ESP for Cabin Crew Materials.

IMPLICATIONS

This presentation aims to demonstrate an ESP materials development process for cabin crew. The review of preceding literature research resulted in several theoretical implications for the proposed course design and materials: Content-based instruction (CBI) can be a highly effective way of delivering ESP materials (Brinton, 2012). Moreover, since CBI is focused on "giving priority to communicating, over predetermined linguistic content, teaching through communication rather than for it" (Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p. 131), the coursebook should be organized by topics specifically related to the learners' job details in which they always need to communicate with customers and colleagues. Meaningful role-play related to real-life situations should be included as an output activity. This could involve helping learners by allowing them to put all they have learned into practice through role-plays that are likely to occur in the real world.

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Utilizing Sociocultural and Psycholinguistic Theories in the Language Classroom

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INTRODUCTION

This poster presentation will describe the origins of sociocultural theory and psycholinguistics as they relate to language teaching. Both theories attempt to explain how people acquire language. Broadly speaking, sociocultural theory suggests that language is learned by social interaction while psycholinguistic theory claims that language learning is an individual mental process. This presentation will also suggest that a combination of these theories may offer the best approach to language learning. Several classroom techniques stemming from each theory will be proposed

SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

Ellis and He (1999) explain the holistic approach taken by sociocultural theory (SCT), "From a sociocultural perspective on language learning, it is not appropriate to talk of input and output. One has to consider interaction as a totality, a matrix in which learning is socially constructed" (p. 299).

Swain and Deters (2007) elaborate, "SCT focuses on what tools the person is acting with (mediational means), where the action takes place, and why the person is acting (motives and goals)." They go on to explain the importance of mediational means: "A fundamental principle of SCT is mediation: Humans use physical tools and socioculturally and sociohistorically constructed symbolic artifacts, of which language is the most important, to control and master nature and themselves" (p. 821).

Wertsch (1998) explains the role of the individual is affected by mediational means: "SCT views individuals as agents-operating-with-mediational-means" (as cited in Swain & Deters, 2007, p. 821). Swain and Deters continue, "People are not free agents, but their behavior is enhanced or constrained by the tools they have available to use and the affordances present in (or absent from) their environment. (see e.g., van Lier, 2000, 2004)" (Swain & Deters, 2007, p. 821).

Each individual is also affected by his background as Swain and Deters (2007) explain, "A sociocultural perspective views individuals and their cognitive and emotional development as constituting and constituted by their social milieu. From an SCT perspective, individuals have histories that are complex and variable and that affect their actions and motivation to engage in L2 learning" (p. 823).

Swain and Deters also explain the theoretical basis for SCT: "This theoretical perspective [SCT] is based on the work of the Russian psycholinguist Vygotsky (1978, 1986), who argued that it was essential to incorporate the study of human culture and history in to the effort to understand the development of the human mind" (p. 821). Lev Vygotsky was an influential Soviet psychologist who studied child development. He observed interactions among children and also between children and adults in schools in the Soviet Union in the 1920s and 1930s. He concluded that language develops primarily from social interaction (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Lightbown and Spada (2006, p. 47) explain, "Sociocultural theory holds that people gain control of and reorganize their cognitive processes during mediation as knowledge is internalized during social activity."

PSYCHOLINGUISTIC THEORY

Vygotsky's ideas can be contrasted with those of Jean Piaget, the Swiss psychologist/epistemologist, who was "one of the earliest proponents of the view that children's language is built on their cognitive development" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 20). Vygotsky (1962) comments about Piaget in his book *Thought and Language*. It is not an exaggeration to say that he [Piaget] revolutionized the clinical method

of exploring children's ideas which has since been widely used. He [Piaget] is the first to investigate child perception and logic systematically" (p. 9). Vygotsky goes on to write that Piaget "developed the study of child language and thought" (p. 9).

According to Piaget, "the developing cognitive understanding is constructed on the interaction between the child and the things that can be observed or handled.... For Piaget, language was one of a number of symbol systems that are developed in childhood. Language can be used to represent knowledge that children have acquired through physical interaction with the environment" (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 20).

Piaget believes that children's speech can be divided into two groups: the egocentric and the socialized (Vygotsky, 1962 p. 14). According to Piaget, "In egocentric speech, the child talks only about himself … does not try to communicate." He goes on to describe egocentric speech as "incommunicable" (as cited in Vygotsky, 1962, p. 15). "Piaget argued that egocentric speeech serves no specific function and only reflects an ontogenetic stage in the transition from individual to social speech during childhood" (as cited in Appel & Lantolf, 1994, p. 437). "Piaget's sequence begins from non-verbal autistic thought, through egocentric thought, and then to socialized speech, and at the end, goes on to logical thinking" (as cited in Vygotsky, 1962, p. 20).

CONCLUSIONS

As can be seen above, there is a tension between the two theories. However, the language instructor needs to be careful about relying too heavily on either theory. Swain and Deters (2007) express their concern about "the balance between the cognitive and social, which Firth and Wagner (1997) argued 'has already shifted too far in the direction of the social'" (p. 831). Swain and Deters warn that "we must pay balanced attention to social, cognitive, and affective aspects that bear on the ways we learn an L2" (p. 831).

An understanding of both sociocultural and psycholinguistic theories can help the L2 instructor take a balanced approach to his/her teaching. Sociocultural theory emphasizes social interaction as a crucial role in language learning. Classroom activities such as pair practice and group discussions, therefore, should be used in L2 classrooms. At the same time, psycholinguistics theory, which focuses on individual learning processes, supports the use of individual learning activities such as explicit grammar instruction and the use of realia.

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Promoting Language Production Through Classroom Games

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INTRODUCTION

Games in the ESL classroom have the potential to increase student motivation and engagement, while creating a more learner-centered classroom (Cervantes, 2009). They also allow students to improve language functions such as communication strategies and vocabulary acquisition (Peregoy & Boyle, 1993). Students stop thinking about language and begin using it in a spontaneous and natural manner within the classroom (Schutz, 1988). Celce-Murcia and Macintosh (1979) state that in games, language-use takes precedence over language-practice, and games bring the student closer to the real-world situation through its task-oriented characteristics. Games can be a perfect tool to create a space for students to put their vocabulary and grammar lessons into authentic and real-time practice.

This presentation will be interactive and practice-based. Attendees will participate in several short demonstrations of games and will be shown how to use others that facilitate rapid production practice of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation to increase English fluency. All demonstrated games are adaptable for universities, high schools, and younger learners of all cultural contexts. At the end of the session, attendees will have an improved understanding of which games are suitable for their own students' learning needs and will feel increased confidence to apply these games in their own classrooms.

RATIONALE FOR USING GAMES IN THE CLASSROOM

1. Increases student motivation and engagement
2. Lowers the affective filter
3. Creates a more learner-centered classroom
4. Allows students to practice production in a spontaneous manner
5. Prevents over-lecturing by teachers

GAMES TO BE DEMONSTRATED

Board Race

Skills Targeted: Grammar and spelling
Procedure: Put students into two or three groups and have each group stand in a line facing the board. Teacher writes a question in the center of the board. One student from each team goes to the board and writes the answer. The first team to write the correct answer with no mistakes gets one point.

Back-to-Back

Skills Targeted: Vocabulary, confidence, and English speaking volume
Procedure: Students work in pairs. Each student has a different handout with a picture that uses lesson vocabulary and phrases. Students stand with their backs together, so that they cannot see the other's picture. They then ask questions about the picture using target vocabulary and grammar. A possible extension is to have one student describe a picture while the other tries to draw it.

Back to Board

Skills Targeted: Vocabulary and speaking
Procedure: Create two or more teams with the class. One student from a team will sit at the teacher's desk in the front facing towards their team and away from the board. The teacher then writes a word, phrase, or sentence on the board behind the student. The team is given a certain amount of time to give clues in English so that their representative can guess the item behind them. The other team keeps track of the time with their smartphones. Afterwards, the other team has a turn.

Clothespins

Skills Targeted: Vocabulary, image association, spelling, reading comprehension
Procedure: Create two or more teams with the class. Give each equal amounts of different colored clothespins. Spread pictures of target vocabulary items around on the floor. The first team able to throw a clothespin on the correct picture without it skidding off wins a point. This game can be made more complex by placing sentences or definitions of the target vocabulary on the floor instead of pictures.

Attendance Hot Seat

Skills Targeted: Class names, class rapport, speaking, and targeted vocabulary or grammar
Procedure: Choose a student to take the attendance for you. The student needs to ask classmates a question and receive an answer before being able to mark persons as present. The teacher can give guidance to the type of vocabulary or question structure that must be used to target certain lesson items. This activity also creates a feeling of trust in students, improving class rapport.

Reinforcing Grammar Structure Challenge

Skills Targeted: Grammar, sentence and question structure, vocabulary and speaking
Procedure: Group students into small teams of two or three. Ask teams to make you say a certain grammar structure as many times as possible in a given amount of time. The next team will complete the same activity but will be instructed to strive after a different answer. For example, if a teacher is reviewing questions with do, they could ask a team to make them say "Yes, I do" as many times as possible in one minute. The next team could be asked to make the instructor give a different short answer such as "No, I don't" or "Yes, she does."

Scavenger Hunt

Skills Targeted: Class rapport, knowledge of campus resources, vocabulary, understanding directions, reading comprehension
Procedure: Put students into groups of three or four. Give each group a list of items to be found during the scavenger hunt. The list may include target vocabulary, places, and other useful campus resources, or just-for-fun clues. Set a predetermined time for students to return to class, and tell them they will be disqualified if late. In their groups, students should find as many clues as possible and take a picture of the item, person, or place.

CONCLUSIONS

Games in the classroom can make lessons more engaging, and promote spontaneous and authentic language use in real time. The proposed games can be incorporated into a variety of topics and learning objectives. The aim of this workshop is for attendees to leave feeling empowered with new activity ideas to improve student motivation and engagement in their language classrooms.

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