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KOTESOL Proceedings 2014

Embracing Change: Blazing New Frontiers Through Language Teaching

Proceedings of the
KOTESOL / KAFLE International Conference
Seoul, Korea, October 4-5, 2014

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(Korea TESOL / KOTESOL)

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Foreword

The 2014 KOTESOL International Conference was notable for a series of firsts: the first time the conference was held at COEX, in Seoul, the first time KOTESOL joined forces with KAFLE, the Korea Association of Foreign Language Education, to co-host the conference, and the first time the conference was held the weekend of World Teacher's Day (October 5).

The 2014 KOTESOL/KAFLE International Conference was held on October 4-5, 2014, under the theme of *Embracing Change: Blazing New Frontiers Through Language Teaching*. The two-day Conference offered a keynote address by Michael Long, and Scott Thornbury, Ahmar Mahboob, and David Hayes as plenary speakers. Daniel Evans, one of the featured speakers, opens this volume of *KOTESOL Proceedings* with his paper on the "front tier" of pronunciation. In addition to Dr. Evan's paper, we also present 22 other papers by presenters at the 2014 conference. While most KOTESOL members, and presenters, come from South Korea or Japan, this year, the *Proceedings* include papers from KOTESOLers who no longer work in Korea: Kara Mac Donald, currently in the USA, who, with her co-presenter and co-author Unsoon Won, talks about using mobile phones and the Internet to facilitate teaching, and Amanda Maitland, now in Malaysia, who reports on work she carried out while in South Korea.

Change can take different forms: from embracing technology and bringing it into the classroom, as Norman Fewell and George MacLean do in their paper on the use of digitalized graphic novels in teaching EFL, as Kevin Ottoson does in talking about using social networking sites to assess study abroad programs, or as Brian Carlstrom does in using concordancing software to increase learner independence; to providing a new take on a familiar form, such as Craig Manning does in talking about how to end a class well, or as Alex Monceaux and Jesty Anak Daip do in presenting an innovative use of rubrics; to incorporating learning from other fields into English language teaching, as Samuel Crofts does here with a game from the world of business. We hope the range of papers in this volume of *Proceedings* helps you blaze your own frontiers through language teaching.

It is our pleasure to present to you this volume of *KOTESOL Proceedings 2014*. We would like to thank the authors of the papers collected here for their cooperation and patience with the editing process and, of course, for making their contributions to this volume. We would also like to thank our editors, Lindsay Herron, Elliott Walters, and Sarah Emory, for their sterling work. We hope that you will enjoy reading the papers in this publication.

Maria Pinto & David E. Shaffer
Editors-in-Chief

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Plenary Speaker

The Body Remembers

Scott Thornbury
The New School, New York, New York, USA

The title of this article comes from a book by the French mime artist Jacques Lecoq (Lecoq, 2002). Fundamental to Lecoq's artistry and to his training methodology is the view that the body is, effectively, an extension of the mind. And that the body itself – with all its movements and gestures – not only enacts, but physically *embodies* memory, thinking, feeling, and desire.

In a sense, Lecoq's insight pre-dates recent developments in both cognitive psychology and cognitive linguistics, developments that have already begun to re-draw the traditional division (also a French invention!) between the mind and the body. In the seventeenth century, Descartes formalized this separation (the so-called mind-body dualism) and, in the twentieth century, it was given a new lease of life thanks to developments in the computer sciences. The mind was re-imagined as a kind of computer: Pinker (1997, p. 92), for example, describes the mind as "the on-board computer of a robot made of tissue." Hence, "mental life can be explained in terms of a computational process" (Johnson-Laird, 1988, p. 26). Since mental life includes both language and language learning, these too have been construed as forms of information processing. According to this cognitivist view, for instance, language acquisition results when input and output engage in a feedback loop, such that input becomes intake. The whole process is not only described in the language of cybernetics, but it is effectively detached from any physical reality: it is both disembodied and asocial.

This "computer metaphor" has dominated the field of cognitive science, including second language acquisition theory, ever since the 1980s. However, in recent years, it has been challenged on at least two grounds: that cognition is *socially* constructed (and mediated), and that it is *embodied*. It is the second of these perspectives – what is known as *embodied cognition* – that I want to explore here.

Recall what you do when you're mentally calculating, say, how many students in your class have submitted their end-of-course assignments. Quite likely, you are running through a list of names in your mind, while at the same time marking them off on your fingers. Could you do the task as easily without using your fingers? Arguably not. In order to ease the task, part of the cognitive process has been off-loaded onto the fingers. In other words, it has been *embodied*.

Examples like these suggest that mental functions *extend* beyond the physical brain itself, and as Clark (2011, p. 81) puts it, "body and world come to share the problem-solving load with the biological brain." He goes on:

> Extended systems theorists . . . reject the image of mind as a kind of input-output sandwich with cognition as the filling . . . . Instead, we confront an

> image of the local mechanisms of human cognition quite literally bleeding out into body and world. (p. 70)

One way that cognition extends into social space is by means of gesture. As Streeck (2009, p. 171) argues, "gestures . . . occupy a unique position in human behaviour: they are bodily actions, but they are also cognitive actions." That is to say, they are not simply the way that the body re-enacts thought, after the event, as it were, but they are the physical tools by means of which we actually mediate our own thought processes.

As examples of how this seems to work in children's cognitive development, one study reported that third-graders who were asked to gesture while learning algebra were nearly three times more likely to remember what they had learned than classmates who did not gesture. Another experiment determined that college students who gestured as they retold short stories recalled the details of the stories better, suggesting that gesturing during recall helps retrieve the information from memory.

A further study demonstrated that fourth-graders learning how to solve a math equation identified the correct answers more often when they imitated a helpful gesture shown to them by an adult than when they simply repeated the adult's words.

In our own field – second language learning – similar results have been found. Drawing on research into L1 vocabulary learning, Lindstromberg and Boers (2005) showed that when learners were asked to enact or mime a "manner-of-movement" verb (such as *hurl, pounce*, or *sway*), better retention resulted than if they were asked only to explain it. Enactment also appeared to help prime learners to understand not only the literal but the figurative meanings of these verbs. Moreover, simply watching someone else enact the meaning of these verbs was equally effective, bearing out research in the field of cognitive neurophysiology "which suggests that simply watching the performance of an action may trigger imagery that is purely motoric" (2005, p. 244).

When cognition is envisaged as being both embodied and extended, these findings start to makes sense: as Gullberg (2008, p. 293) argues, "gesturing reduces cognitive load on working memory . . . . The argument is that by gesturing, speakers upload cognition onto an external representation, thereby liberating processing resources which can be re-assigned to memorization, planning, or other working-memory-intense operations." In other words, gestures serve a self-regulatory function by means of which speakers manage their internal thought processes. This may explain the fact that second language learners tend to gesture more in their second language than in their first: they are using their hands to think.

Evidence for this is the fact that learners will gesture a lot when doing a speaking task, *even when they are performing behind a screen and so cannot be seen*. "It is possible that L2 learners' gestures reflect their attempts to reduce the processing load of keeping words, grammar, and the relationships between entities in mind at the same time as planning what to say next. In this sense, gestures may help learners to keep talking" (Gullberg, 2008, p. 293). And, as an added bonus, gestures help build rapport and confer on their users the status of a legitimate interlocutor. "Learners who are seen to gesture are often more positively evaluated on proficiency than those who are not" (p. 293). This suggests that, if you are preparing your learners for a speaking test, encourage them to gesture!

By foregrounding the importance of gesture in second language learning, I should add that I am *not* saying that communication is largely non-verbal. (If this were true, we would not be able to communicate effectively over the phone). It is not that gestures aid expression by providing a visual "commentary": rather, it is that gestures help regulate the cognitive processes that underpin communication. Nor am I offering support to the view that some learners have a kinaesthetic learning style. On the contrary, I am arguing that *all* learning – and hence all language learning – has a kinaesthetic component, in the sense that "the body remembers." And thinks. And learns.

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THE AUTHOR

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Featured Speakers

The "Front Tier" of Pronunciation: A Right-Side-Up Approach

Daniel W. Evans
Saint Michael's College, Colchester, Vermont, USA

Pronunciation development is a crucial yet notoriously neglected aspect of English language teaching. It is the "front tier" of oral communication: Regardless of the level of language knowledge a learner has, it becomes useless if he or she cannot pronounce the language with a degree of accuracy sufficient to overcome the threshold of comprehensibility.

This paper will briefly review some of the approaches and techniques that language teachers have employed over the past several decades and suggest that most of them have been ineffective and have approached pronunciation from an upside-down perspective. That is, teachers have begun with and focused nearly all their attention on phonemic accuracy, usually in isolated syllables or words.

Conversely, a right-side-up approach to pronunciation development begins with and places the greatest emphasis on suprasegmental features such as T-group chunking, prominence of focal syllables, terminal/non-terminal intonation, and word stress and rhythm – components of pronunciation that have come to be recognized as having the greatest impact on comprehensibility in both speaking and listening. They represent the "front tier" of pronunciation.

A "front tier" approach views pronunciation as it affects comprehensibility in meaningful communicative contexts. Analysis of authentic language models in terms of the "front tier" features leads to cyclical imitative practice that gradually moves the focus down from the "front tier" to more discrete phonological aspects specific to the learner's language background and idiolect. Students strive to produce best-effort productions through techniques such as reading aloud, mirroring, and real-time vocal dubbing.

INTRODUCTION

The presentation on which this paper is based began with a quick preview of a pronunciation project in which a student of mine, a young Korean man, recorded his own voice and dubbed it into the original TED Talk, given by a Korean industrial designer Jinsop Lee (2013). The audience watched Mr. Lee on screen, but heard the voice of my student. This is an example of a technique I call Real-time Vocal Dubbing – a right-side-up technique.

I have been interested in the pronunciation side of English language teaching ever since I was a Peace Corps volunteer in Seoul in the early 1970s. One of my first tasks as an English teacher at Dongguk University was to coach students on their delivery of lines in an English drama to try to make them sound not only intelligible but also natural. It became clear to me that there was a lot more to producing clear, intelligible English speech than just the accurate production of individual sound segments. I am quite sure that I did not know the term "suprasegmentals" in those days, but I surely became aware of their importance at that time.

Over the years, as I continued my education and experience in the ELT field, I came to realize that not only was pronunciation an often neglected area of ELT but, moreover, whenever pronunciation was attended to, the treatment usually started with consonant and vowel phonemic difficulties – more often than not, never proceeded beyond that point to the ever-so-important suprasegmental domain. That struck me as a backwards or upside-down way to go about pronunciation work. Hence, the approach that I advocate starts with and places a major emphasis on what I refer to as the upper-level pronunciation skills. We can think of these as the "front tier" of pronunciation.

It is undeniable that Asian learners face significant challenges when it comes to mastering the sound system of English. This statement certainly includes, but is not limited to Korean speakers. I played an audio recording that demonstrated one Asian speaker trying hard to work on his oral production through the mirroring technique. This was an excellent strategy on his part, but he clearly had a long way to go; his speech was totally unintelligible.

But to show a marked contrast and to instill a degree of hope, a recording of a young Korean giving a graduation speech at an international school was presented in my presentation. His speech was clear and intelligible, demonstrating the goal that is attainable for Asian speakers.

Historical Perspective

For some historical background, let us take a quick look at how pronunciation was dealt with in some of the language teaching methods of the past century.

Grammar-Translation (Brown, 2007a, 2007b) is a method that is arguably still the most widely used way of teaching English around the world. This method ignored the oral aspect of language: no attention at all was given to pronunciation.

However, thanks in large part to the realities of WWII, we discovered that it was advantageous to have the ability to communicate with our enemies who did not speak English. So the **Audiolingual Method** (Brown, 2007a, 2007b) was invented, based on the most modern scientific ideas of the day. A great deal of attention was paid to accuracy not only in grammatical forms and vocabulary but also to pronunciation, through a great deal of repetition, mimicry, and drills such as the minimal-pair drill. From ALM, I learned the importance of oral production and that reasonably good levels of pronunciation can result from these habit-formation techniques.

The Silent Way, the brainchild of Dr. Caleb Gategno (1972), was a radically different method of teaching that made use of innovative color-coded materials – a different color represented a different phoneme of the language so that regardless of the writing system the language used, the pronunciation was clearly indicated. In addition, the instructor would elicit precise details of the sounds and suprasegmental elements from students though a rather agonizing process of silent elicitation and corrective feedback. While this method was not widely adopted in schools, learners who were taught this way were able to achieve surprisingly good results in pronunciation. From this method, I came to appreciate the importance of cognitive understanding, hard work, student investment, and the development of accurate internal representations of the sounds of the target language.

Neither **Communicative Language Teaching** nor **the Natural Approach** (Brown, 2007a; 2007b) has a specific agenda for pronunciation teaching. Rather, they depend on a process of natural acquisition for pronunciation as well as other aspects of language to develop through comprehensible input and communicative interactions. Even so, from these approaches, I have learned the importance of authentic materials, a communicative discourse-based view of pronunciation features, and a student-centered approach that gets the student involved in the selection and analysis of materials.

Pronunciation Innovators

A few other innovators in the field of pronunciation teaching that have influenced my thinking are worth mentioning. First, **Judy Gilbert**, the author of the *Clear Speech* textbooks that were first published in 1984 (1984, 2001, 2012) was one of the first authors to emphasize suprasegmental pronunciation features such as syllables, word stress, rhythm, sentence focus, and thought groups. She introduced gimmicks such as kazoos to demonstrate pitch variations and rubber bands to emphasize vowel length.

Bill Acton is another amazing innovator in pronunciation teaching. If you have never heard of or seen Bill's approach, I highly recommend that you visit his website, www.actonhaptic.com, where you can access some demonstration videos that will give you an idea of his highly unusual methods. Acton makes use of the connection between body movement and the learning and retention of pronunciation features. He has developed a system of gestures and movements that he associates with a wide variety of pronunciation features. While I expect this way of teaching is fun for the student and almost certainly produces good results, it is limited in its applicability to most teaching situations due to the degree of training both teachers and students need in order to master the system. Nevertheless, from Bill Acton I developed an appreciation of creativity and depth of cognitive association of sound with action and movement.

The basic technique of *mirroring* may possibly be attributed to Joan Morley (1993), and the Mirroring Project has been developed by a number of practitioners such as Monk, Lindgren, and Meyers (2004). It involves the analysis and exact mimicking the speech of models usually taken from movie or TV clips. This is a highly effective technique and is the basis for what I call a Right-Side-Up Approach.

A Right-Side-Up Approach

- Begins with and places a major emphasis on upper-level skills.

- Works its way down to lower levels through cyclical, focused rehearsals.
- Works with pronunciation as it relates to communication on a discourse level.
- Makes use of authentic audio/video materials and leads up to a best-effort production.
- Is student-centered; students have a big role in selection and analysis of materials.

ELEMENTS OF PRONUNCUATION

Let us see what I mean by "upper level" skills. My tornado diagram (Figure 1), represents the various skills involved in pronunciation. As you can see, there is a lot more to it than just producing accurate vowel and consonant sounds. I put these features in this order, in a tornado shape with the top larger than the bottom, for two reasons. The features near the top operate on the larger units, phrases and words; and the ones at the bottom represent individual sounds, the smallest unit. But more importantly, the upper-level skills are recognized by nearly all experts in the field as having a greater impact on intelligibility than errors in individual vowel or consonant sounds. When a speaker uses a sound that he or she has not internalized in the L2, the speaker will substitute the closest sound that is available, such as saying "dat" for "that." Usually the listener will recognize the "error" and mentally supply the correct form. Intelligibility is not compromised. However, with upper-level (suprasegmental) skills, since they operate on a less conscious level, errors are not so easily recognized as errors and have the potential for greater misunderstanding.

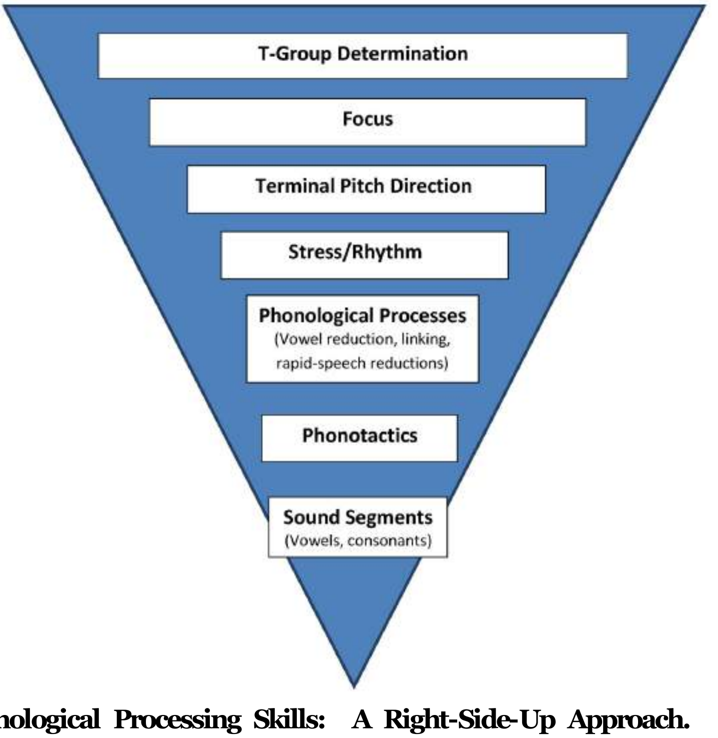

Figure 1. Phonological Processing Skills: A Right-Side-Up Approach.

So now let us take a look at each of the pronunciation elements to make sure that we all understand what they are and how they operate, and what some potential stumbling blocks for learners can be.

T-Group Determination

T-groups are the basic units by which speakers encode speech and by which listeners decode it. They are the bursts of connected sounds that a speaker produces with one breath. (The term "breath group" is also sometimes used to describe them.) The "t" in T-group can stand for "thought" or "tone." In terms of thought, it suggests that speakers determine the boundaries of T-groups according to semantic and syntactic criteria that "make sense" to a listener. For example, a speaker could say

Joe had a jumbo burger, French fries, and a diet Coke.

But a speaker would never utter

Joe had a jumbo burger French fries and a diet Coke.

The following sentence pairs contain the exact same series of words, but by manipulating the T-group boundaries, quite different meanings can be conveyed.

What's that on the road ahead?
What's that on the road? A head?

Sarah Palin says, "President Obama is out of touch."
"Sarah Palin," says President Obama, "is out of touch."

Focus

The other "t" in T-group, **tone**, indicates the fact that one syllable in each T-group is always assigned a focal stress, a point where the pitch rises significantly and draws the listener's attention to what is usually the most important content element. The importance of correct focus assignment is illustrated in the following examples:

It's drinking water. (i.e., water for drinking)
It's drinking water. (A creature is quenching its thirst.)

If he gets the chance, he'll kill us. (no presupposition)
If he gets the chance, he'll kill us. (presupposition that we were planning to kill him)

The combination of appropriate T-group determination and focus assignment is a highly powerful component of clear, intelligible speech. In discourse, these features

- Set off meaningful sets of words such as sentences, clauses, and phrases;

- Separate coordinate elements such as *either . . . or* items, items in a series, or coordinate adjectives;
- Set off parenthetical information such as discourse markers and non-restrictive clauses or phrases, appositives, and nouns of address;
- Provide emphasis such as fronting adverbial elements, indicating new topics, or specially stressing important words.

Terminal Pitch Direction

After the focally stressed syllable in each T-group, the pitch may do one of three things. It may fall, indicating the end of a thought as in

This is a pen. ⇘

Or it may return to a neutral level, indicating an unfinished thought to which more is to be added:

This is a pen ⇒ . . . *that writes in red.* ⇘

Or it may rise, indicating a question or emotion of surprise:

This is a pen? ⇗

Stress and Rhythm

English speakers expect to hear primary stresses on the appropriate syllables of content words such as

e<u>lec</u>trical not *elec<u>tric</u>al*
ge<u>og</u>raphy not *geo<u>graphy</u>*
ce<u>leb</u>rity not *cele<u>brity</u>*

And since English is a stress-timed rather than syllable-timed language, the rhythm depends on stressed syllables and ignores unstressed syllables. In other words, there is approximately the same amount of time between stressed syllables regardless of the number of unstressed syllables that may fall between:

CATS CHASE MICE
The CATS have been CHASing the MICE

Phonological Processes

Native speakers of English employ a variety of phonological processes that facilitate the articulation of sequences of sounds. Some of the most important ones for learners to recognize are vowel reduction, linking, and rapid speech assimilations and deletions.

tomato → /tə mey ɾə/ (unstressed vowels neutralizeded to schwa /ə/
come in → /kə mɪn/ (final consonant becomes initial sound of following syllable)

What are your going to do?→ /wʌʧə gɔnə duw/ (reductions/assimilations applied)

Phonotactics (Syllable Structure)

Phonotactic rules determine which sounds can occur in certain environments, which sounds can follow which other sounds, what the basic structure of syllables is, and the like.

Syllable-Initial Position

English allows up to three consonants in a cluster before the vowel in syllable initial position.

/spr/	spring	/str/	strike
/spl/	splash	/skr/	screen
/spy/	spew	/sky/	skew
/skw/	squeamish		

Syllable-Final Position

English allows syllable-final clusters of up to four consonants (in a few rare cases).

/sIksΘs/ sixths

Possible English Syllable Structure

It is conceivable that an English word could have three consonants clustered before the vowel and four consonants after the vowel, although to my knowledge no such word actually exists.

C C C V C C C C

Possible Syllable Structure for Asian Languages

Most Asian languages, including Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, do not allow consonant clusters at all. And in Japanese, the possible syllable structure is limited to CV, except for the allowance of a final nasal consonant.

C V C
(C V for Japanese)

Individual Sound Segments

At the very bottom of the tornado diagram of phonological processing features are the individual sounds, the vowels and consonants of English. Ironically, most pronunciation teaching efforts seem to be aimed at accurate production of the phonemes of English in isolation or within words devoid of meaningful contexts. Such practice has its place, but if that is all that is offered, the largest and most significant elements of oral communication are neglected.

Vowels

English possesses a rich assortment of vowel and diphthong phonemes, 15 according to the analysis I use, as illustrated below. This number is usually higher than the number of vowel distinctions in the native languages of English learners and can cause significant challenges for most learners.

feel $[i^y]$ fill [ɪ]

mate $[e^y]$ met [ɛ] mat [æ]

cot [a] caught [ɔ] coat $[o^w]$

look [ʊ] Luke $[u^w]$

luck [ʌ] lurk [ɝ]

bide [ay] bowed [aw] Boyd [ɔy]

Figure 2. 15 Phonemic Vowel Distinctions.

Consonants

The consonants of English that present problems for learners vary depending on the learner's native language. The good news, however, is that there will be more consonants that are the same or very similar than consonants that are very different or absent in the native language. A right-side-up approach will identify the problem sounds for each learner, who then can focus attention where it is needed. Certain features of English that are problematic for most learners include highly aspirated voiceless stops /p, t, k/ at the beginnings of words or stressed syllables, the flapping rule that converts intervocalic /t/ as in *writer* to a voiced alveolar flap that makes it sound similar to *rider*, and consonant clusters particularly at the ends of words where syntactic/semantic information such as plural or tense markers is often found. These features deserve special attention.

THE ACQUISITION PROCESS

So how do learners acquire the higher-level (or lower-level) pronunciation skills? First, I should say that pronunciation is often highly resistant to change; it is intimately tied up with one's perception of self or identity. The best teaching techniques will be unsuccessful unless the learner is fully committed and motivated to change. If that is the case, then I believe change occurs in a three-stage process. First, the learner develops conscious awareness of the feature and of how his or her own speech differs from the desired model. This is accomplished by analyzing the speech of the model in authentic, communicative situations; by imitating and practicing repeatedly; and finally, in using the feature in communicative interactions with others. The second stage is comprehension: Awareness of the features has an immediate effect on comprehension. By paying attention to T-groups and focus, for example, the speech of native English speakers becomes easier to understand. Thirdly, through repeated instances of hearing the features in speech, the features become acquired and integrated into the learner's interlanguage.

Techniques and Materials

I will discuss three basic types of activities that represent a "right-side-up" approach: (a) reading aloud, (b) mirroring, and (c) my own creation, Real-Time Vocal Dubbing.

Reading Aloud

Reading aloud is self-explanatory. A passage is chosen, then analyzed and practiced, and finally a best-effort production is performed and recorded (preferably by video-recording). The recording is important to give the student motivation for repeated rehearsals.

Here is part of a passage that has been analyzed and marked for T-groups, focuses, and terminal pitch direction.

The major part of an iceberg→
is hidden→
beneath the water↘
and only a small part of it,→
the tip,→
is visible→
above the surface of the water.↘

Another way to indicate these elements is through the use of intonation contour lines.

Mirroring

Mirroring involves selecting an appropriate model, usually a 1- to 2-minute clip from a movie, television show, commercial, or the like. YouTube and TED Talks are excellent sources of readily available models. The student and instructor work together to develop an analysis (as in the example above). Then the student engages in multiple practices starting with the upper-level features (T-group determination, focus, and terminal pitch direction). After these major elements are mastered, the student can then turn attention to features that appear lower on the tornado diagram, giving particular attention to the bits that prove troublesome. Finally, when the student (and instructor) is satisfied that he or she is ready, a best-effort production is created and recorded.

Real-Time Vocal Dubbing

Real-time Vocal Dubbing (RTVD) takes mirroring to a new dimension. It involves removing the audio track from a TV or movie scene and replacing it with the student's own recorded version to create a product that shows the professional actors (or announcers) on screen with the words of the student coming out of their mouths. This forces the student to produce the language not only in the same way as the actor, but also at the same speed. The natural speed actually, in many cases, forces the student to employ some of the natural phonological processes that native speakers use to facilitate their rapid speech. In addition, trying again and again to say the lines at the correct speed to fit in with the action on the screen provides a perfectly legitimate reason to repeat and repeat and repeat.

I asked my IEP students in a recent pronunciation class to choose a model for a mirroring project. Having students select their own model makes the process student-centered and gets them invested right from the start. In addition, I encouraged them to select a model from their own native language background who speaks English very well. This heightens their investment and motivation even more. Although I had told them about real-time vocal dubbing and showed them examples, I did not require them to do it because of time limitations in the course. However, some students took it upon themselves to create a RTVD project. They figured out how to do it all by themselves – students are so tech-savvy these days!

The first example shown was the one referred to in the beginning of this paper. It was a Korean boy dubbing the speech of another Korean from TED Talks (Lee, 2013). He did an excellent job, and in some ways sounded even better than the original. This is an example of the motivational effect of choosing a model from one's own native language background.

The next example shown was a joint project prepared by four Saudi Arabian young women. They took a scene from the TV show *Pretty Little Liars*, which features, conveniently, four young American women mouthing the words recorded by the Saudi women. These students put in a great amount of time practicing their lines and getting them to match the gestures and lip movements on screen in a rapid back-and-forth among four characters. The result was well done and highly enjoyable for our class to watch.

The presentation also demonstrated some RTVD projects done with television commercials. In this type of material, not only are the narrator's words important, but the background music is critical to set the proper mood. The technology we were using at the time, Windows Movie Maker, did not separate the vocal sound track from the background music, so to insert the students' vocal recordings the entire sound track had to be removed. Then, we selected appropriate similar music and reinserted it into the final product.

CONCLUSIONS

Pronunciation is a difficult area of second language learning and teaching to deal with because (a) learners may be resistant to change for a variety of reasons, mostly in the affective domain; and (b) teachers need to be well versed in the phonological system of English and especially understand the full range of skills and knowledge involved (i.e., the tornado diagram). But there is hope for motivated learners and knowable teachers. I think the key is a right-side-up approach that is learner-centered, makes use of authentic and relevant texts, provides adequate practice and feedback from the top down, and results in a best-effort final production through mirroring or real-time vocal dubbing.

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Presentations

Integrating Authentic English Interaction in Advanced English Content-Based Courses

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The authors set out to investigate an innovative approach to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction, which we term *authentic English interaction* (AEI). AEI, as defined by the authors, involves "real-world" English language use opportunities that relate to course-specific content via out-of-class class assignments. Students from five Advanced English classes at Seoul National University in Korea took entrance and exit surveys in the fall of 2013 to self-assess confidence, motivation, and fluency surrounding the AEI experience. Survey results indicate that incorporating AEI into advanced-level English courses, while presenting some unique challenges, does benefit and engage students in a variety of ways, including self-reported improvements in confidence, motivation, and fluency. In addition, students indicated that their AEI-based experiences broadened their knowledge and exposure to content-based subject areas. It is our overall recommendation that instructors consider including an AEI component in advanced-level English courses. With further course development, such a component could be seen as a viable model in EFL instruction.

INTRODUCTION

A significant difference between learning English in an English as a Second Language (ESL) context versus an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context relates to how regularly students actually have the opportunity to use the target language outside of the classroom. Language programs embedded within the EFL context face an additional challenge of exposing students to authentic and practical experiences using English. As EFL professors in Korea, we see a need for students to bridge English acquisition with exposure to and practical application of the target language. Multiple studies have already dealt with the pros and cons of using authentic materials inside the classroom (Joy, 2011; Roberts & Cooke, 2009; Wu, Yen, & Marek, 2011; Yoo, 2010). Furthermore, one study has suggested that a "social context" in the classroom (by attempting to add a "real" aspect to the setting) has a positive influence on motivation (Gholami, Rahman, & Mustapha, 2012). However, many classroom-based English courses struggle to demonstrate the usability of English outside the classroom; thus, these courses may face difficulty in motivating learners.

Additionally, the artificial classroom setting fails to reproduce many of the challenges and fears faced by EFL students when using English in the real world (Life, 2011). Although English is seen as a necessity in Korean society, some students have indicated insecurities or reluctance to use English *outside* of the classroom due to social stigmas and/or lack of opportunities. According to Life (2011), EFL students, particularly in Northeast Asia, feel discouraged from using English with non-native speakers out of a fear of being accused of alleged boasting of their English skills and/or a fear of being criticized for corrupting or minimizing the local language. Studies have also indicated that both teachers and students see value in including outside-of-the-classroom English interactions to increase confidence, motivation, and fluency (Wu, 2009; Wu & Wu, 2008). Therefore, the authors identified a need to provide our EFL students at Seoul National University (SNU) with chances to use English in an authentic context.

As one of the top universities in Korea, SNU is expected to lead the way in providing its students with a strong foundation of knowledge and by exploring cutting-edge educational methods. As a potential model for other Korean university English programs, as well as for SNU instructors, it is our responsibility to continuously examine and update our course offerings with the newest and most effective means of instruction.

AUTHENTIC ENGLISH INTERACTION IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

The objective of this study is to further develop existing Advanced English (AE) courses in the College English Program (CEP) at SNU by integrating Authentic English Interaction (AEI) components to determine the benefits students may procure from AEI-based learning. "Authentic English Interaction," as defined by the authors for the purposes of this project, involves "real-world" English language use opportunities that are tied to the course topic and class assignments. Students have expressed frustration that English study is made more challenging by the fact that they see it as irrelevant and impractical (Life, 2011). Because most students self-select by enrolling in their preferred Advanced English content courses in the CEP at SNU, the authors anticipated that students would recognize the relevance and practicality of the English skills taught in and out of class.

To fulfill AEI objectives, students would ideally meet in person with members of a particular community related to the AE course fields. During these meetings, students should communicate primarily, if not solely, in English in order to provide an experience that allows for the practical use of the language skills and content knowledge taught in class. The off-campus environment, free of instructor-presence, maximizes the real-life setting, which the authors consider ideal for AEI. One study has indicated the benefits of language learners working autonomously without their peers or teachers within local communities (Hillyard, Reppen, & Vàsquez, 2007). By similarly implementing AEI components in our classes, we planned to measure the effects on language learner motivation, confidence, and fluency. With the development of curriculum and the establishment of "real-world" contacts and projects, we anticipated SNU students would gain motivation to pursue AEI during and after our courses, which would encourage autonomous learning and build confidence in L2 speaking, a skill most often cited as a weak area for our students. This research project created what is for some students the first "real" English engagement in a context outside of the English classroom. We projected that this experience would better prepare our students for using their English speaking skills and allow students to pursue long-term connections with English after graduation.

This project was designed to build bridges to connect students with specific communities and professions that they have demonstrated as a primary interest area by their selection of the specific Advanced English courses in which they have enrolled. The project was also designed to provide a student-centered teaching model for instructors of advanced students in content-based courses.

Methods

The authors developed an entrance survey and an exit survey (see Appendix), to measure the impact that the project had on confidence and motivation, as well as to determine the extent to which the courses provided AEI opportunities. The entrance survey was distributed during the first week of the fall semester for students to complete outside of class; the same was done for the exit survey during the final week of the semester. Students were notified that the surveys would be anonymous and have no impact on their grades. Ninety-five students took the entrance survey, whereas only eighty-one students completed the exit survey, due to student enrollment fluctuation throughout the semester. Survey results were compiled and analyzed.

Three types of Advanced English courses at SNU were selected for the AEI research project. Due to the variable nature of the course content, each course pursued different avenues of achieving AEI. The details for how AEI projects were designed for each course are described below.

Advanced English: Prose

The theme of the course was journalistic prose, a focus that, within the realm of AEI, allowed students the chance to practice interviewing and article-writing skills. The class completed a content-based project in which students conducted an interview, wrote a profile article, gave a presentation, and led a discussion. A total of 38 participants in two courses worked in groups of two or three that were arranged according to topics of interest and the existing connections students had in the English-speaking community. The students independently researched and contacted potential interviewees in Korea. Among the interviewees were restaurant staff, U.S. military members, professors, international students with various talents, and business employees. After securing interviewees and writing interview questions, each group conducted and recorded the interview. Following the interview, students wrote an article and then gave a presentation about the experience and the article itself. Part of the presentation was dedicated to reflecting on the interview. At the end of the presentation, students facilitated a discussion about a theme that emerged from the interview.

Advanced English: Drama Workshop

The theme of the course was drama, and the AEI component in this course was designed to familiarize students with the theatrical process. Students selected one of three different types of AEI projects: interview a cast or crewmember, write up a theatrical review, or participate as a production assistant in a theatre or film production. A total of 31 participants from two courses worked individually on their projects. Professor Salcedo facilitated initial student contact with local community theatre directors, actors, producers, writers, stage managers, designers, and filmmakers due to his involvement with local theatre and production companies. After gaining permission among all parties, Salcedo provided contact information to both interviewers (students) and interviewees (community members). The students led one-on-one interviews, which accounted for the largest number of AEI projects for this course. As a second option, students attended live, staged performances of various shows, after which they sought quotes from audience members and cast or crewmembers. They then had to provide theatrical reviews detailing various theatrical aspects. For the third option, about a dozen students became on-set production assistants for different stage or film productions. For each of these various AEI projects, students had to provide a written report detailing their experiences and reflections of the entire process, along with transcripts when applicable.

Advanced English: Culture and Society

The theme of the course was culture, and the AEI component of the course involved an ethnography project, which required students to both solicit and conduct interviews in the community in English with a minority culture/subculture member. The overall aim of the project was to increase students' cultural awareness and understanding by exploring stereotypes and labels attached to specific subcultures. A total of eighteen students were enrolled and assigned to six groups of two to four members per group. Each group was then responsible for choosing a minority culture/subculture of interest to study. The criteria stated that the chosen minority culture must be able to communicate in English with the SNU students and the group must be located in Korea. The six groups selected the following subcultures: sexual minorities, foreign professors at SNU, biracial Koreans, Muslims in Korea, Korean adoptees, and vegetarians in Korea. The main components of the project included writing a blog in English with five entries, composing interview questions, interviewing at least one minority group member per student in English, writing a "field report" paper focused on interview findings, and finally, presenting their project to the class through a group presentation and discussion.

Results and Discussion

In the initial entrance survey, 77% of students reported that there are not enough opportunities to use English outside of the classroom in Korea, indicating a clear need for AEI. They responded by naming the following reasons for this lack: that English is not an official language, English is unnecessary in Korea, there are not enough foreigners, they feel fear/discomfort when speaking English with other Koreans and/or foreigners, they lack self-initiative, and that speaking skills are not emphasized in typical EFL instruction in Korea. According to one student,

> "The main reason is that Korea doesn't use English as its official language, so it's not a common situation to communicate with others in English outside of the classroom. Also, in Korea, there's a tendency that people use English mainly to take exams, not to talk [to] each other in English. (I think it's because English education focuses on grammar, not communication skills)."

Another student referenced a social stigma, stating, "English speaking outside of the classroom is making people think I'm showing off my ability."

Regarding actual AEI experience in 2013, 23 out of 56 students who responded relevantly and appropriately (not all responses were usable), indicated that they had never sustained a five-minute conversation in English outside of the classroom. The remaining 33 students that had sustained conversations in English did so while speaking with foreign friends and roommates, while traveling, in class or for other academic purposes, at work, with foreign tourists, over the phone, at social gatherings, while speaking English with Korean friends or family, while interacting with others on social media, and in English-friendly environments.

In the semester's entrance survey, 93% of students self-reported that they expected that using English in a real-life context outside of the classroom would benefit them in multiple ways, the most popular being maintaining or improving fluency. Reflecting a common sentiment among students, one responded, "I think the best way to learn real-life English is to USE it" [student's emphasis]. True to their expectations, 96% of respondents reported in the final survey that AEI had indeed improved their English ability. Moreover, students indicated that the AEI experience resulted in additional benefits, such as an increased knowledge about society, theater, and culture; the opportunity for new or unusual experiences; skill development in research and interviewing; and increased confidence, motivation, teamwork skills and camaraderie, participation, critical thinking, and communication skills. Referring to the AEI-infused course, one student wrote, "It helped me out in a lot of ways. Basically it helped me to improve my English speaking, writing, and reading. Plus, it helped me to broaden my view about ideology, cultural issues, and many social problems that I had not been aware of." Furthermore, 61% of the students responded that this AEI classroom experience had provided new opportunities for them to use English outside of the classroom. Mentioned one student, "I [made] a friend who lives in [another] country, and this experience gave me a [*sic*] wide knowledge about his country and culture." Ninety-three percent of the students also said that the AEI experience has positively affected their motivation to seek more opportunities to speak English in the future.

At the beginning of the semester, only 56% of the respondents reported that they were somewhat to very confident in interacting with others in English for a prolonged amount of time (5 minutes or more) outside of the classroom, yet in the final survey, 78% reported that they now felt confident in interacting with others in English for a prolonged amount of time outside of the classroom – a 22% increase. One student reported a direct improvement in confidence from the AEI component, stating,

> "During this semester, I worked at a small start-up. There, I had a meeting with

[an] international investor who can only speak in English. On this Skype meeting, based [on] the confidence I gained through the field research interview, I could relatively do well."

Although 55% of the respondents experienced difficulties while working on this project – the most challenging being finding and securing an interviewee and communicating with interviewees and participants – 96% felt that AEI was a valuable component in an English course. Additionally, 91% of the participants indicated that they would recommend this course to other students. In response to this question, one student remarked, "I would definitely recommend this course because students get to use English by communicating with *real people* in *real-life situations* and about *real-life topics* that really matter" [student's emphasis].

Limitations and Possible Solutions

The AEI component presented certain limitations for our AE courses. One limitation was the students' difficulty in finding appropriate interview subjects. Because many of them did not have connections within the community, several students asked the instructors to help them connect with English-speaking subjects/community members. This process was time-consuming and a burden for the instructors, particularly when the instructor took on the task of facilitating all contacts, as in the "Advanced English: Drama" course. In future sections of the course, students could be encouraged to select interviewees based on more accessible subjects; for instance, some students already have connections with potential participants, and instructors could send students to suggested online resources so that students might establish contacts on their own. In addition, teachers could dedicate class time to brainstorm community connections with students before groups are assigned, so that students would be able to propose viable interviewee options at the start of the project.

Instructors asked students to record their interviews so that they could refer back to the audio files for precision and accuracy in their reporting, while also providing instructors a way to verify amount and quality of AEI content. However, some groups were refused a recorded interview because interviewees had not expected it as part of the process. As a solution, students should gain permission to audio-record the session in the initial request for an interview. Additionally, teachers may encourage students to use clarification questions and conversation strategies to ensure thorough and shared note-taking responsibilities within the group.

Interviewee cancellation was not common, but it did occur. Some students waited until very close to the due date to set up interviews, without considering the possibility of cancellation and rescheduling. As a result, project deadlines were delayed. In the future, more time could be given between the assignment of the project and the deadline for the interviews, and instructors might encourage students to schedule interviews early on in the semester to protect against such conflicts and cancellations.

As with any group project, some students complained of difficulty working with others, sharing equal responsibilities, and/or coordinating group meetings with classmates. Aside from having students work individually, which, again, is undesirable for the scope of the project, an all-out solution to group work is an elusive challenge by its very nature. Additionally, some minor limitations involve the fact that students have to go off-campus for their projects, thereby incurring out-of-pocket expenses and consuming time.

Because the “Advanced English: Drama” course’s AEI component was designed with three different types of projects, there was a potential for imbalance in the amount of work done by each student. Future courses may structure projects to have more uniform parameters. Related, objective grading surrounding the diverse projects was a challenge. One suggestion is to devise a rubric that focuses on one particular aspect of the assignment (such as the written component of the projects), whereas the actual AEI activity itself could be graded on a pass/fail basis.

CONCLUSION

The inclusion of AEI in Advanced English courses at SNU has shown through the pilot courses to be an effective tool for increasing motivation, confidence, and language fluency. While there are certain logistical challenges to incorporating AEI in an EFL language program, the authors believe that many of these limitations could be mediated through further implementation and development in future semesters. As student feedback indicates, the need for and value of real-world English interaction far outweighs such challenges. As potential leaders in South Korea, SNU students should be equipped with much more than textbook English and merit the opportunities and rewards gained by the practical application of the English skills taught in the CEP.

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Appendix

Entrance Survey

Directions: Please complete the following survey and bring it to our next class. Your answers will not affect your course grade in any way.

1. How motivated are you to seek opportunities to speak English outside of class? (Circle one number.)

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Not motivated at all — Neutral — Greatly motivated

2. Do you think it would benefit you to use English outside of the classroom in a real-life context?

   Yes / No (Circle one.) If so, how? If not, why?

3. How confident do you feel about interacting with others in English for a prolonged amount of time (5 min. or more) outside of the classroom? (Circle one number.)

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Not confident at all — Neutral — Very confident

4. In this class, some of your assignments will involve speaking English in real-life situations outside of the classroom. On a scale from 1 to 10, how do you think this will affect your confidence to use English? (Circle one number.)

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Greatly decrease — No effect — Greatly increase

5. Do you feel there are enough opportunities to use English outside of the classroom in Korea?

   Yes / No (Circle one.) Please explain why or why not.

6. Approximately how many times have you had a sustained (5 min. or more) conversation in English with at least one other person outside of the classroom this year (since Jan. 2013)?

   ____

7. In which real-life situations have you had a prolonged conversation (5 min. or more) in English outside of a classroom setting (i.e., over the phone, with foreign friends, at a social gathering, etc.)?

Exit Survey

Directions: Please complete the following survey and bring it to our next class. Your answers will not affect your course grade in any way.

In this course, you were involved in a project, which required using English in real-life situations outside of the classroom. For the following questions, please respond to how this experience has had an impact on you.

1. How do you think this experience has affected your motivation to seek more opportunities to speak English in the future?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Greatly decreased motivation — No effect — Greatly increased motivation

2. A. How do you think this experience has improved your English ability?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Greatly decreased ability — No effect — Greatly increased ability

   B. Has this experience benefited you in other ways other than language ability? If so, please explain.

3. How confident do you now feel about interacting with others in English for a prolonged amount of time (5 min. or more) outside of the classroom? (Circle one number.)

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Not confident at all — Neutral — Very confident

4. Do you think this experience has provided new opportunities for you to use English outside the classroom? If so, how?

5. On a scale from 1 to 10, how valuable do you think this experience is in an English course?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Not valuable at all — Neutral — Very valuable

6. Did you experience any difficulties while working on the project? If so, please explain.

7. Would you recommend this course to other students? Why or why not?

Motivating Mouths: A Remedial Pronunciation Project for the Primary Classroom

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The overlap of pronunciation instruction and motivation was observed to be a unique and unexpected consequence of a pronunciation project geared towards remedial students in a Japanese primary school. The project was started after a proportion of students in an elementary school were found to have little to no knowledge of the sounds of English letters and to have little motivation to succeed with English. The project builds upon the MSP technique (Anderson, 2012), which uses simple mouth movements to explain how to make English sounds. The combination of low motivation and learning techniques that have engendered roadblocks for sound success make for a unique student set, and these challenges are highlighted. Stakeholder observations and project successes are discussed within the framework of future avenues for differentiated instruction research in Japanese elementary schools.

INTRODUCTION

Motivation in language teaching and learning has long been of interest to researchers and practitioners alike. From Gardner and Lambert's seminal work (1972) to the intrinsic/extrinsic debate (see Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 2001), and the cultural norms critiques in Ushioda (2013) to the game-changing work of Dörnyei (e.g., 1994), the study of motivation has produced thousands of studies, papers, and presentations. The entirety of the field is far from discovered, however, and one specific area is nearly bereft of scholarship.

In direct contrast, it may seem, to the plethora of research on motivation is the field of pronunciation theory and practice. If one looks at the field of pronunciation as distinct from linguistics, and indeed many do, then the amount of attention paid to it pales in comparison to most areas of English language teaching (ELT) lines of inquiry. There are many important reasons for the smallness of the field, which have been discussed elsewhere (e.g., Anderson, 2012), but the need for actionable theory has never diminished. The holes in the base of pronunciation theory have long dogged researchers: those of the definition of comprehensible output, how to measure intelligibility, what norms pronunciation should be measured against, and what parts of English pronunciation have become salient in ELF (see Jenkins, 2000, for ground-breaking work on this subject). Yet work on how best to incorporate pronunciation instruction has continued apace. This tense dichotomy can be problematic, but at the same time allows researchers rare carte blanche as to directing the body of knowledge. The current pilot study fits itself into many of these niches.

Literature Review

The impetus for the current pilot study was far from the world of motivation at its inception. A solution to a localized problem of a consistent and, it may be hypothesized, institutionalized lack of phonics understanding at a private Japanese elementary school was being sought. There are many overlapping layers that will be discussed later as to the reasons for and depth of the problem, but the concrete day-to-day problem had existed in that location for many years. One area that is essential to take into account is the rigid, change-resistant structure of the *senpei-kohai* (senior/junior) relationship hierarchy (see, for example, Bright, 2005; Rohlen, 1991; or Sano, 2014, for a discussion of the cultural implications). This in itself can act to institutionalize problems within a setting. Unfortunately, there seems to be a general lack of scholarship on phonics instruction techniques in Japan, Japanese elementary school EFL instructional techniques on the whole, and the lack of Japanese student buy-in (although McVeigh, 2002, offers a unique, if slightly slanted, perspective). There have been moves to try to document and explain the oft-tangential role given to most foreign English teachers (see Brown, 2005, or Meerman, 2003), and this situation was certainly experienced by the researcher in the study setting. It could therefore be assumed that although each school, region, and set of teachers will of course have their own contextual issues, the overarching issue of resistance to modern ELT techniques is one of the challenges that many teachers experience in Japanese schools.

It became clear through the implementation of the pilot study that, given the specific constraints, far more could be affected than the clarity of students' pronunciation or their aural phonetic discrimination ability. Motivation appeared almost immediately as an unplanned but essential factor in the study. It is this overlap that, it could be argued, proves the most exciting finding. There have been few studies looking at how motivation affects pronunciation acuity or how pronunciation training could affect motivation. Only Smit (2002) and Smit and Dalton (2000) have looked at how adults experience raised motivation levels after extensive pronunciation instruction. Smit's study, while fascinating, certainly needs to be repeated with different ages and in different cultural contexts. This current pilot study may help shed some more light on this interesting overlap of research fields.

Context

The pilot study was carried out in a private elementary school in Japan. While there are undoubtedly many differences between private and public school in Japan, most relevant here was the fact that this private school had 2 full-time native English speaker teachers (NESTs) that taught English twice a week to each class in each grade. That was two 45-minute periods a week, double what most public elementary schools schedule. This increased amount of English served to make the glaring issue of phonetic awareness clearer to the researcher.

The pilot study was planned and implemented in the 2013-14 school year

(March–March in Japan) with Grades 3, 4, 5, and 6 (which is roughly ages 8–11). The program was built especially for students in those grades who were deemed remedial in their phonetic and pronunciation knowledge. Remedial designation will be discussed below, but the reasons for limiting the subjects to those in Grades 3 to 6 were both institutional and instructional. The school did not want any kind of extra work for Grade 1 students, and the Grade 2 students were currently being introduced to and learning the phonetic system, and therefore categorization as remedial would have been preemptive.

As mentioned, only students who were deemed remedial in phonics and pronunciation were approached for the program. The researcher, the other NEST, and the two Japanese English co-teachers each recommended students that they felt had not kept up with the rest of each grade level in terms of their understandings of the English letter-sound pairings. This was done through informal observations in class, where the students who could not read with phonetic support (decoding) or who could not differentiate individual sounds in words either from listening or in speaking became quite evident. The higher the grade level, the more obvious the group, which was, essentially, those students left behind. One unique characteristic of the Japanese education (and cultural) system is the idea that the group moves as one (see Shields, 1993, for a thorough, if dated, overview). Therefore, there is usually no holding back (in terms of grade level) or offering special assistance to those students who may not be meeting minimum goals. This included a strong resistance by both the Japanese teaching and administrative staff to individualized differentiated instruction. Therefore, it was progressively easier for those teachers involved to spot the students who had failed to grasp the building blocks of reading and speaking as the grades progressed. It should be noted that although most of their peers had managed to learn the fundamentals, there was a rather persistent group of those who were underperforming in classroom activities; their issues seemed to deepen the divide as the years went on, rather than fixing themselves with development and maturity.

Of a school of 441 in the 2013-14 academic year (270 when Grades 1 and 2 were removed from the count), 41 students (and, of course, their parents) were approached for the pilot study. Of the 41 approached, 35 accepted. The researcher sought, and was granted, administrative permission for the program. This, in itself, was a process fraught with difficulties: The secrecy of joining had to be controlled, as the administration was much afraid of how parents would react if the teachers labeled their children as less able than others. While this may have been a valid concern of behalf of the children involved, it may also have been prompted by the private fee-based system of the specific school. However, the plan was approved by the relevant stakeholders, and the administrative support in contacting parents was extensive.

THE PROJECT

The researcher made a series of 26 videos, one for each letter of the alphabet, using the short vowels and the hard consonant sounds. These decisions were made due to administrative project length concerns and current reflections of the Grade 3 curriculum inclusion of the "Magic *E* Rule" (a common way to teach the long vowel sounds in a phonics approach), which would then take care of long vowels. These videos were each only 2-3 minutes in length and focused mainly on how to make the sound (using the mechanical sound production [MSP] technique the author developed in 2010; Anderson, 2012) and then on words that include the sound. The videos each ended with a very short tongue twister for the sound (e.g., for the /b/ sound, "baby boy").

The students were asked to watch one video a night at home and to practice the sound and tongue twister. They would then come to school the next day and approach either of the NEST teachers during any breaks (before and between classes, at lunch and after school) to say the tongue twister. Each participant was given a 5-page booklet (called a "passport") that the teachers would put stickers in when the student could accurately make the target sound. The student could not move on to the next sound until the previous sound had been correctly produced. Although this condition proved somewhat difficult to grasp for some students – who seemed to be going through the motions by duly coming to report to the NESTs without practicing with the videos at home – it soon became an effective model through student trial and error. This will become a salient feature for later comment.

One key component was that the teachers were actively watching the mouths of the students when they produced the tongue twisters. Therefore, sound production accuracy could be monitored. As the videos also included the written form of the sound (when the words were introduced), the students' knowledge of the letter-sound relationship could be increased. It is important to note that the phonetic awareness was not measured in any concrete way; rather, the project aimed to support struggling students by filling in the blanks that they may not have received or understood in the past. This lack of concrete testing of letter-sound relationship understanding is certainly something that could be addressed in a similar project, but did not seem necessary to the researcher in the changing scope of the current study.

RESULTS

As previously mentioned, 35 out of 41 students accepted the project. Of those 35, 29 finished the 26-letter video/tongue-twister pack within the winter semester of 2013-14. This means that 82% of students completed the project within a two-month timeframe. With weekends and holidays taken into account, that means that most of the students finished 26 videos in 38 days. This was a wonderfully positive finding, given the remedial status of the participants.

The idea of the project doing more than just offering a gap-stop of previous incomplete understanding began to emerge within the first week. The students who were deemed "remedial" for the purposes of this study (i.e., those with deficient phonetic awareness in comparison to their grade level and classmates' level) were usually those students who were falling behind in many other subjects and developmental areas as well. Although this knowledge was not at all part of the initial categorization (in terms of the NEST teachers' choices), it became quite clear when the Japanese classroom teachers (homeroom or main subject teachers) started to become aware of which students were in the program. The researcher then became the recipient of reflection on the program from three unexpected sources: Japanese classroom teachers (JCT), the reflections (in Japanese) of the students, and the Japanese parents of the students involved. What they had to say about the project, combined with what the researcher and the English department teachers observed both in and out of class, is where the most fascinating findings from this study are centered.

NEST TEACHER OBSERVATIONS

As was expected in the study design, the two NEST teachers (including the researcher) kept track of the student completion rate. It was therefore very easy to get the only numerical data this pilot project offers, that of the 82% completion rate. Given the low motivation of the participants and the new differentiated design of a task that had to be mastered before the student could go further (as opposed to progressing with the group *en mass*), the high completion rate seems likely due to increased motivation. Aside from the numbers, however, was the individual interactions with the students.

The remedial students chosen for this project had, at best, approached interaction with the NEST with apathy. At worst, pre-project interaction with these students could commonly include fear, tears, anger, or non-compliance. These students were not only not actively engaged with the language teaching/teacher, but they had in some cases removed themselves from the situation entirely. And yet 82% of then came back, day after day, during free time and of their own volition, to try a potentially face-risking task with a person that they did not entirely trust. They even persisted after they had failed. This persistence, in this specific task, was unheard-of from these particular students. The NESTs could easily see through these interactions the growing enjoyment and motivation of the specific students. These students also started to come alive in the English classes; raising hands or trying to answer when previously they had demonstrated avoidance behaviors of fake sleeping, fake incomprehension, or even physical disturbances. The NESTs started to notice increased homework undertakings (the remedial students didn't always finish set homework, but they had started to attempt it). The fact that this was attention to English homework that was additional to the homework tasks of the daily video made this a positive improvement by the students beyond that being asked for by the project.

Japanese Teacher Observations

The students in this particular school spent the overwhelming majority of their time with the Japanese teachers. With only 2 classes a week and a large language barrier, the NESTs were not in a very strong position to claim knowledge of students. Their grade homeroom teachers, however, with whom they spent 4 out of 6 periods a day, were in a much better position to comment. Being unsolicited comments, the researcher feels that this gave them even more weight. The JCTs began to informally mention to both the NESTs and the Japanese English teachers that the students involved in the project were showing the same raised interest and "aliveness" in other subjects as well. They too reported that the students were attempting homework and starting to answer questions in class instead of being disruptive. Not all behavioral issues were solved, and the project obviously did not become a panacea for all the struggling students; but the students were obviously feeling more positive in general.

Student Observations

The best voice for trying to understand how the project was affecting the feelings and motivation of the students was obviously the students, themselves. Again, since this method of feedback was not part of the original design (due to language barriers, the added work burden to JCTs that it would involve, and the previously mentioned administrative issue of secrecy), its existence only served to brighten the light on the link between the pronunciation project and student motivation. Students at this school were required to write a daily diary of reflections, feelings, undertakings, personal information, or anything else they felt like sharing. They wrote this in Japanese, so no language barrier to explaining things accurately existed. The JCTs were responsible for reading these diaries every day and commenting back to the students in writing via this medium. It was the JCTs who would find student reflections and share them with the researcher (sometimes through the help of translation and summary by the Japanese English teachers). The students involved would often write of their enjoyment of the videos themselves. More intriguing were quotes that reflected motivational processes:

> "It felt so good to get a sticker from Rheanne-teacher today! I hope to get one tomorrow" [where getting a sticker in the passport meant that the student had mastered the sound].
> "I love the sound K, my name has [a] K, I want to do M!"
> "I did V for my Mom and she smiled. [...] I want to make Dad smile too."

Whether intrinsic or extrinsic, the students were experiencing success and excitement for further work.

Parent Observations

In the daily journals mentioned previously, JCTs would often find parent comments about both the student entries and the JCT comments. These diaries, then, served the secondary function of becoming an avenue of communication between parents and JCTs. Parent contact was also guaranteed weekly through the many phone calls that the JCT was expected to make to each parent to speak about the achievement of the students. Through both of these mediums, the JCT would pass reflections back to the NESTs. It seems that many of the parents of the remedial students included in the pilot project were thrilled to have special attention paid to their children. Seemingly in opposite response to the administrative fears previous to the project, the parents seemed to embrace the project as a way for their children to succeed and keep up with peers. There were comments that expressed how happy they were that the school had given them a special additional resource (as this was a home-based, after-school project design).

A completely unlooked-for area of feedback came from many of the mothers. Mothers would comment that they too were watching the videos with their children after school and practicing the tongue twister at the breakfast table. The mothers reported enjoying learning the sounds. With an increasingly positive parental approach to the language (which was not necessarily always present for these remedial students, as reported via the JCTs), motivation to undertake the challenge of language learning could only increase. This previously untapped resource has been one of the developments of the project in the current 2014-15 school year. Getting more parents involved through home-based resources is proving to be an effective way for various kinds of English Language Department outreach.

Further Research

As previously described, the design of this study was not, and could not, be global. There are many elements that may be missing from analysis; and certainly, if one looks at it in terms of numbers to be analyzed or clear causation to be outlined, the study falls short. Yet it is this very flexibility that may give the study authority. The overlap of pronunciation and motivation is a hither-to undeveloped field, which may be due to the problems within pronunciation theory, itself. Yet it is clear that mixing the two can have deep implications for each. Further work into the areas of motivational techniques for low-level English students in Japan, motivational techniques for low-interest students in Japan, the motivational effects of differentiated instruction in group-oriented cultures, and especially into whether pronunciation gains can affect higher motivation is both needed and ripe for study.

While the design of this study and its very specific organizational and cultural limitations make drawing any global conclusions impossible, it could be argued that broad implications might be garnered from this work. It seems that with the immediate and explicit success that the MSP pronunciation training allows, students can experience immediate self-esteem and motivation increases. This motivation may then lead to an internalized self-esteem that, with repetition through many small successes, may continue to grow and help change the "remedial" student into one who tries, one who can succeed, and one who "finds" themselves once again within an academic context.

The Author

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The Halo Effect and Student Perceptions of Cross-testing

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Korean university-level students who took a mandatory English speaking course answered a questionnaire inquiring as to whether they were in favor of having instructors cross-test classes within the same level. Furthermore, the survey gathered qualitative data about the students' reasons for their preference. The findings of the survey suggest that the students would rather be tested by their regular teacher because they felt more comfortable speaking in front of a familiar teacher and more confident that they would do well in the test. The students rated their teachers as very objective whilst also alluding to the halo effect. Students tended to believe that the halo effect would not be detrimental to their success in the test.

Introduction

Cross-testing, which is not a term in general academic use, refers to a situation where teachers evaluate student speaking proficiency through oral testing of other teachers' classes. This cross-testing initiative was aimed at improving objectivity in the evaluation of students' speaking proficiency. In an attempt to remove the halo effect from the evaluation of spring semester final speaking tests, a university in the Greater Seoul area had teachers administer the final speaking tests of classes other than the ones they taught. A survey of student opinion was gathered to find out how they felt about this testing policy. The results of the survey are presented and discussed in this paper.

Background

The policy of cross-testing was initiated in order to remove any evaluation bias created by the *halo error* (Thorndike, 1920). This halo effect is a form of confirmation bias where positive feelings in one aspect of something can cause ambiguous or neutral traits to be viewed favorably in order to confirm an initial hypothesis, or reduce cognitive dissonance (see Wikipedia, 2014). Rasmussen (2008) defines the halo effect as

> the tendency to overgeneralize the evaluation of an individual's positive or negative qualities, such that the individual is regarded as chiefly good or chiefly bad, when in fact not enough information is known to accurately apply a positive or negative label to specific qualities. (p. 458)

He goes on to caution that teachers may be biased by the halo effect by equating, for example, good behavior with greater academic capability, which in turn may have an effect on grades.

The phenomenon has been studied in a wide variety of fields and contexts, but it is within the context of the education field and evaluation that we will focus. The halo effect has been studied in relation to the educational system and the evaluation of students (Kehle, Ware, & Guidubaldi, 1976) and the evaluation of teachers and courses (Darby, 2007). In a study by Clifford and Walster (1973), it was found that students rated as attractive were judged by teachers to have greater academic potential. Furthermore, in a review of studies into attractiveness and the halo effect, Eagly, Ashmore, Makhijani, and Longo (1991) confirms that attractiveness does cause other qualities to be viewed positively. Although, they state that it has a stronger impact on social traits than on other traits such as intelligence, which it only has a low impact on.

An article by Dompnier, Pansu, and Bressoux (2006) acknowledges that the halo effect (as well as previous knowledge of the students' character and past performances) plays a substantial role in the evaluations of students' scholastic potential. The halo effect is also present in the evaluation of courses by university students. Darby (2007) found that when using Likert-scale evaluation forms, there was a strong correlation between a favorable evaluation in one aspect of the course and a favorable evaluation on another aspect of the course. According to Darby, the same was found to be true with negative evaluations. Likewise, Nisbett, Richard, and Wilson (1977) reports on the reverse outcome to the halo effect (the *horns effect*) occurring, where a characteristic that is disliked can have a detrimental effect on the judgment of other traits.

Cooper (1981) claims that the halo effect is ubiquitous in rating schemes, and even with counter measures in place, a residual halo effect remains. In contrast, a review of past studies of the halo effect by Murphy, Jako, and Anhalt (1993) concludes that there should be "a moratorium on halo indices in rating performance" (p. 223) since the research they reviewed suggests that "halo errors are far from ubiquitous" (p. 223). Whether or not the halo effect exists is not in question, but the extent of its pervasiveness into evaluation and its detriment is still unclear.

With regards to the cross-testing initiative, most of the teachers at the university in our study shared a sense of reservation about the policy. The main concerns were two-fold: the effect of cross-testing on students' performance, and unfamiliarity with the testing instrument. Research suggests that both of these concerns were well grounded.

The first concern is related to the anxiety of speaking a foreign language in public as measured by the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) and exam anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b; Phillips, 1992; Young, 1986, 1990). Although Scovel (1978) reported that anxiety can be helpful, the majority of researchers have found that anxiety tends to be debilitating (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b; Madsen, 1982; Woodrow, 2006). In a relatively recent study of advanced EAP students, Woodrow (2006) reports that students found speaking to a foreigner debilitating, adding that students from Confucian-heritage cultures (of which Korea is one) were most affected. Teachers worried that the nervousness of the students would be exacerbated by the fact that their regular teacher was not present to administer the test.

Second, Gordon (1970) found that greater experience with a particular rating instrument improved rater accuracy. Next, Friedman and Cornelius (1976) found that rater participation in rating scale development resulted in decreased rating errors. Although the rationale for cross-testing was to make the evaluations more objective, measures to counter for the aforementioned two factors were not incorporated into the policy, which was implemented late in the semester without teacher consultation or prior planning. The tests that teachers use to evaluate their students vary from class to class because there is no standard test or rubric across the courses. In an effort to try and improve teacher objectivity, teachers only evaluated students who were taking the same course that they taught. In response to the policy and these concerns, the researchers created a questionnaire (see Appendix), which provides the source of the data that is discussed in this paper.

Method

Students were asked to voluntarily answer a thirteen-question Google Documents questionnaire. The questionnaire surveyed them about their perceptions of their cross-testing experiences throughout a two-week period during and after the testing. Respondents (N = 150) were asked about their feelings while taking a speaking test, whether they would prefer their own teacher or another teacher to evaluate them, and the objectivity of their own teacher or another teacher when it comes to evaluating a speaking test. The students were also asked to comment and explain the reasons for their choices. All of the questions were written in both English and Korean and in the comment sections students were given the choice to answer in either English or their mother tongue. The questionnaire only elicited voluntary responses. This may over-represent students with more extreme views (Almer, 2000). A total of 153 responses were received, but proportionately, this is a relatively small sample. It is possible that some teachers promoted the questionnaire more than others, which could have led to an overrepresentation of their students in the sample. Despite these limitations, the survey offered a broad spread of students across different levels and gender. The quantitative and qualitative data are presented in the following section.

Data Analysis and Discussion

The questionnaire results indicate that the vast majority of students feel nervous when they take speaking tests (see Figure 1). Here 30% of students stated that they feel very nervous and a further 60% stated that they feel a little nervous. This is not a revelation to teachers, who know intuitively that speaking tests are a source of anxiety for foreign language learners.

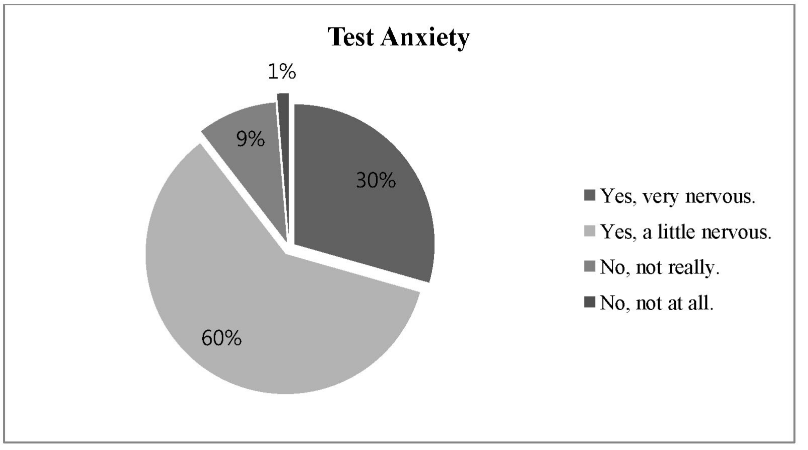

Figure 1. Test Anxiety.

With regards to cross-testing, just over half the students claimed to feel more nervous when evaluated by a teacher not familiar to them (see Figure 2). There are common responses among the respondents. First, respondent #118 said that when speaking with people that you first meet, you will be more nervous and could make more mistakes. Next, respondent #127 added that as the students know their teacher, it helps them to overcome and reduce their nervousness, and be better prepared. Respondent #62 also stated that it is better for them that their teacher grades their test as they feel more at ease when communicating with their teacher than with another teacher. Another respondent (#71) said that they prefer to be evaluated by their teacher because it makes them more comfortable when they take a test.

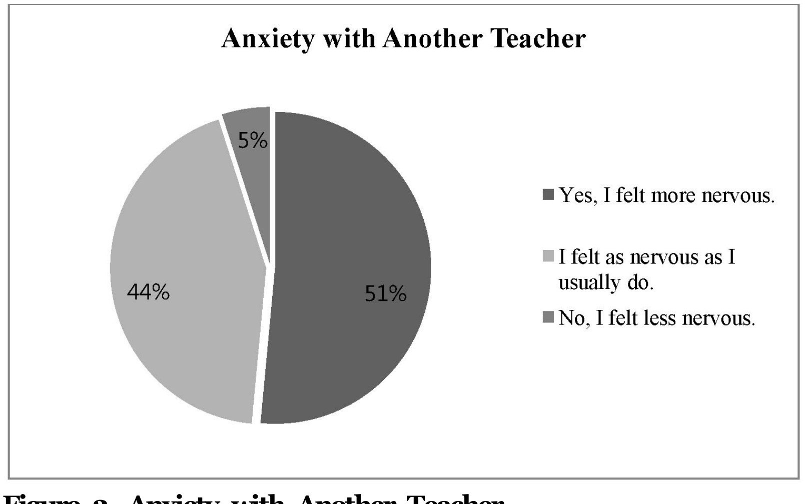

Figure 2. Anxiety with Another Teacher.

Just over half the students (56%) said that they would prefer to be evaluated by their regular teacher, while almost 39% of the students said they don't mind who evaluates them (see Figure 3). Of the respondents who stated that they don't mind who they are tested by, there doesn't appear to be any difference between the opinions of lower-level students, intermediate-level, or advanced-level students. In addition, there was no significant difference in the responses from male and female students. Just 5% of the students stated a preference for having another teacher evaluate their speaking test.

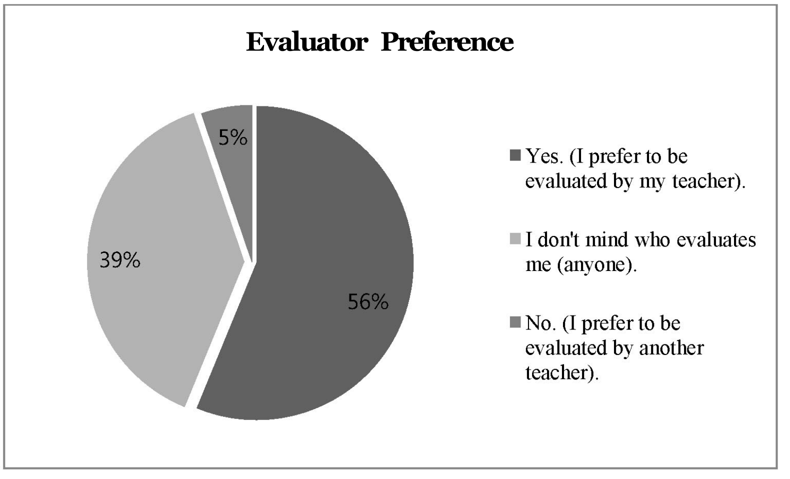

Figure 3. Evaluator Preference.

Next, the overwhelming majority of respondents (87%) believe that their teacher is objective when evaluating students' language proficiency in oral speaking tests (see Figure 4). On a scale of 1-6, with 6 being "very objective," the students were asked to rate how objective they think their regular teacher is. Almost 87% of the students reported that the teacher is objective with 65% believing they are very objective. Only 13% of the students think that the teacher is not objective (choosing 1-3 on the scale). Students such as respondent #68 stated that whether or not they get good test scores is down to how hard they try. While respondent #65 said that she was happy with the fairness of the evaluations as they are, she said that it would also be a good experience to be evaluated by another teacher.

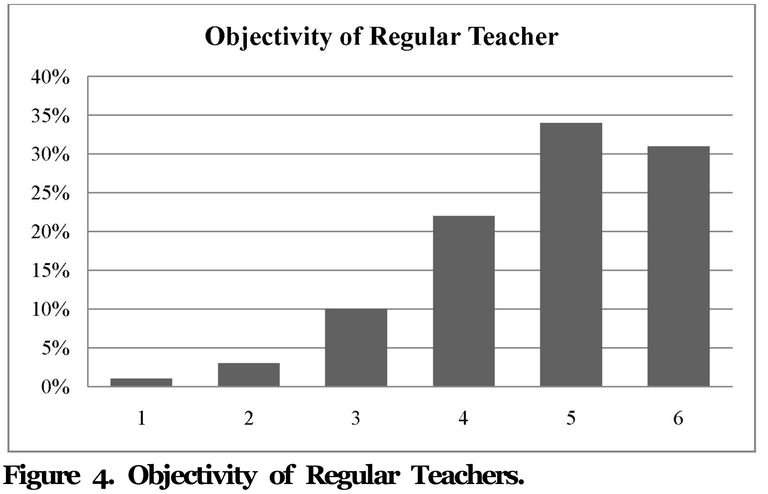

Figure 4. Objectivity of Regular Teachers.

Two thirds (67%) stated they would prefer to be evaluated by their regular teacher in the future. Almost one quarter of the students said they wanted to be evaluated by a panel of teachers (their regular teacher and another teacher). A minority of just 9% of the students said they would prefer to be evaluated by another teacher in the future.

Students who chose "another teacher" believe that the other teacher would be more objective than their regular teacher. Respondent #25 stated that his own teacher has previous understanding of his general ability, so the teacher may pay more attention to his mistakes. He felt that he could relax more and be evaluated on just his speaking in the test because the new teacher would have no prior knowledge. Respondent #152 added that "another teacher" would be better because he or she could be more objective.

Students who chose "panel of teachers" believe that it would be more objective to be evaluated by a panel of teachers as opposed to just their regular teacher. They also believe that another teacher and their teacher would be equally objective. Indeed, 24% of the respondents stated that they would prefer to be evaluated by a panel of teachers that included their own teacher.

Students who chose "regular teacher" believe that their regular teacher would be more objective (49%) than another teacher. While 39% of the students who favored being tested by their regular teacher in the future believe all teachers would be equally objective (see Figure 5). Surprisingly, 12% of the students who prefer to be evaluated by their regular teacher believe that their regular teacher would be less objective than another teacher. Despite this, they still preferred their teacher because they felt more relaxed, calm, and confident when speaking in front of their own teacher.

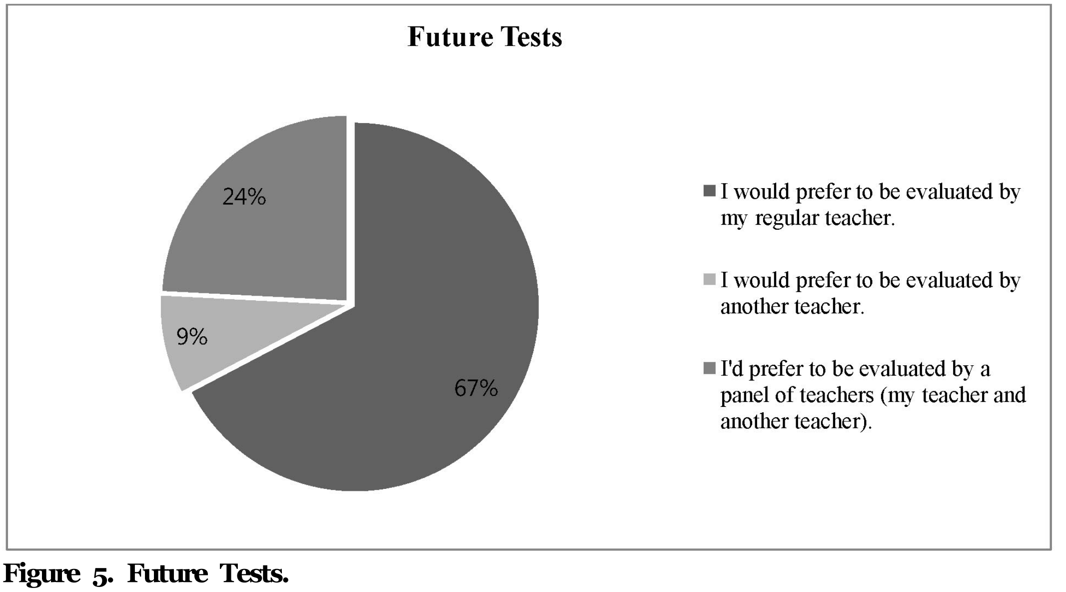

Figure 5. Future Tests.

Students may even believe their teacher is more sympathetic towards their errors. In regards to the halo effect, there were two comments that suggest they believe their teacher is more sympathetic because they know the student. First, respondent #136 stated that if he is interviewed by another teacher, that teacher would have no prior knowledge of his English level. This means that even if a student tries hard to do their best on the test, their English ability itself might not satisfy the grading criteria for a high score. Next, respondent #123 said that each teacher knows their own students' levels or characteristics better, which helps the teacher assess their students' efforts and improvements. This makes the assessment process seem fairer than when it is done by another teacher. Both of these comments appear to indicate that the students believe that their own teacher is more likely to be influenced by the halo effect, factoring in possible improvements that students may have demonstrated in class.

Some students alluded to the halo effect; for example, respondent #34 said that her teachers have known her for some time, so they would be able to understand her speaking and ideas better. She added that her first impression on a new teacher-rater could also affect the assessment process. At the same time, they could appreciate her English skills more objectively without any bias. Respondent #149 commented that another teacher wouldn't have prejudice toward the student or an impression of the student from the class. The students know that there are advantages and disadvantages to both but feel that they balance out.

In addition to the possibility of the halo effect being a factor, the questionnaire results suggest that students feel more confident to take tests with their own teacher. Common responses include one where students believe that they can give their own teachers better answers during the test as they have a greater understanding of what is expected of them. Second, students feel that they can gain recognition during the test for the demonstration of specific vocabulary taught by their teacher. Furthermore, many students simply stated that they feel more comfortable taking a speaking test with their own teacher.

So while students seem to prefer to be evaluated by their regular teacher because it makes them feel more comfortable and less nervous, they recognize that there is a possibility that the teacher would not be the most objective examiner. Here their regular teachers will bring with them prior knowledge of the students' ability that could taint their judgment. This halo effect whether positive or negative can make the evaluation of specific skills less objective as the overall impression of the student may cause them to over or under estimate the students ability with regard to specific skills.

Whether this unintentional bias is of a magnitude large enough to make any difference is unclear and could be less than the effect of the student performing in a more relaxed context. Phillips (1992) notes that anxiety can have a moderate negative effect on students' oral test performance. With this in mind, it is worth taking into consideration what method of evaluation helps the students to perform at their optimum.

CONCLUSIONS

The majority of students felt nervous when taking speaking tests. This sense of nervousness tended to be exacerbated by a change in the circumstances of the testing where students felt a heightened sense of anxiety when the evaluator was another teacher. Many students reported that they prefer their own teacher mainly because they feel less nervous and more relaxed. On the whole, the majority of the students were satisfied with the teachers' ability to objectively evaluate their speaking proficiency. While some students alluded to the halo effect, they tended not to see it as being a negative phenomenon.

There was support for the use of a panel of teachers to evaluate speaking tests if their regular teacher was on the panel. Speaking tests by panel may be a viable choice and one that has moderate student support. If two teachers were to collaborate and evaluate their students as a panel, it could mitigate both factors of concern. It could improve the objectivity of the evaluation process while moderating the anxiety felt by students who may be put at ease by the presence of their regular teacher's familiar and friendly face.

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APPENDIX

Student Perceptions of Cross-evaluation in Speaking Tests 스피킹 테스트의 교차 평가에 대한 학생의 인식

This form is designed to find out what you, the students, think about being evaluated by a teacher who did not teach you. — 이것은 학생들이 본인을 가르치지 않은 성생님이 평가하는 것에 대한 생각을 알아보기 위해 만든 양식입니다.

1. What is your major? — 전공이 무엇입니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.

2. What English class do you take? — 수강하는 영어 수업은 무엇입니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.
   - Speaking Practice A1 (Top Notch 1)
   - Speaking Practice A2 (Top Notch 2)
   - Speaking Practice A3 (Top Notch 3)
   - Speaking Practice A4 (Summit 1)
   - Speaking Practice C1 (Top Notch 2)
   - Speaking Practice C2 (Top Notch 3)
   - Speaking Practice C3 (Summit 1)
   - Academic English 2 (Q: Skills for Success)

3. What year are you in university? — 대학교 몇 학년에 재학중이십니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.
   - freshman - 1학년
   - sophomore - 2학년
   - junior - 3학년
   - senior - 4학년

4. Are you male or female? — 남성이십니까? 여성이십니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.
   - male - 남성
   - female - 여성

5. Are you usually nervous when you take a Gachon University English speaking test? — 가천대학 영어 스피킹 테스트를 볼 때 보통 긴장하십니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.
   - Yes, very nervous. — 네, 아주 긴장된다.
   - Yes, a little nervous. — 네, 약간 긴장된다.
   - No, not really. — 아니요, 그렇게 긴장되진 않는다.
   - No, not at all. — 아니요, 전혀 긴장되지 않는다.

6. Did you feel more nervous when you were evaluated by a teacher who didn't teach you this class? — 이 수업을 가르치지 않은 선생님에게 평가될 때 더 긴장 되셨습니까?

*Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.

- Yes, I felt more nervous. — 네, 조금 더 긴장된다.
- I felt as nervous as I usually do. — 평소와 같이 긴장된다.
- No, I felt less nervous. — 전혀 긴장되지 않는다.

7. What type of speaking test did your teacher give you for the final? — 기말시험으로 어떤 종류의 스피킹 테스트를 당신의 선생님이 내주셨습니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.

- 1:1 interview with the teacher — 1:1 교수님 인터뷰
- individual presentation — 개별 프리젠테이션
- group presentation — 그룹 프리젠테이션
- group discussion / conversation — 그룹 토론 / 회화
- paired conversation / dialogue (choose partner) — 두사람 회화 / 대본 (선택한 짝)
- paired conversation / dialogue (random partner) — 두사람 회화 / 대본 (무작위 짝)
- submitted a video — 비디오제출
- group role-play — 그룹 연극
- Other:

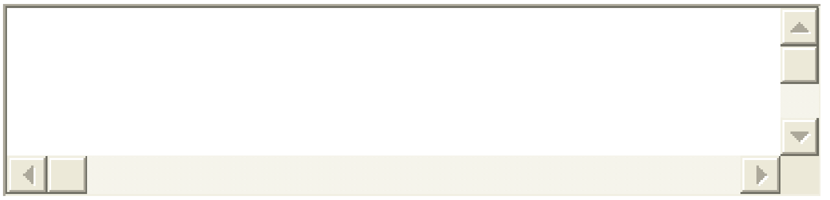
8. How do you usually feel when you take a speaking test? - 당신은 스피킹 테스트를 볼 때 보통 기분이 어떻습니까? *Required: answer the question with ALL that apply. — 해당되는 모든 곳에 답해주세요.

- excited — 흥분된다
- nervous — 긴장된다
- indifferent — 무관심, 그저그렇다
- worried — 걱정된다
- relaxed — 여유롭다
- stressed — 스트레스받는다
- confident — 자신감이 있다
- anxious — 불안하고 걱정된다

9. Would you prefer to have the teacher who taught you evaluate your speaking test? — 당신을 가르쳐 준 선생님이 스피킹 테스트를 평가하는 것을 더 선호하십니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.

- Yes. (I prefer to be evaluated by my teacher). — 네. (저는 제 선생님이 평가하는 것이 더 좋습니다.)
- I don't mind who evaluates me (anyone). — 저는 누가 평가하든 괜찮습니다.
- No. (I prefer to be evaluated by another teacher). — 아니요. 저는 다른 선생님이 평가하는 것이 더 좋습니다.

10. Please explain your reasons for your answer to the previous question (#9). — 9번 질문의 대답에 대한 이유를 적어주세요. *Required: answer the question in a few sentences. You can use English or Korean. — 문장으로 대답해주세요. 영어나 한국어로 답하실 수 있습니다.



11. How objective (fair) do you think your regular teacher is when grading your speaking test? — 당신의 스피킹 테스트를 평가할 때 정규 선생님이 얼마나 객관적 또는 공정하다고 생각하십니까? *Required: choose on a scale of 1–6 where one (1) is NOT objective at all and six (6) is VERY objective. — 1–6까지 중에 1은 '전혀 객관적이지 않다'이며 6은 '굉장히 객관적이다' 입니다.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
NOT objective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	VERY objective

12. How fair do you think it is to be evaluated by a teacher who doesn't know you when grading your speaking test? — 당신의 스피킹 테스트를 평가할 때 당신을 모르는 선생님이 평가하는 것이 얼마나 공정하다고 생각하십니까? *Required: choose on a scale of 1–6, where one (1) is NOT fair and six (6) is VERY fair. — 1–6까지 중에 1은 '전혀 객관적이지 않다'이며 6은 '굉장히 객관적이다' 입니다.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
NOT objective (fair)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	VERY objective (fair)

13. Would you like future speaking tests to be evaluated by your regular teacher or by another teacher? — 앞으로 여러분의 스피킹 테스트를 당신의 정규 선생님이 평가하기를 바라십니까 아니면 다른 선생님이 평가하기를 바라십니까? *Required: answer the question with the best choice. — 질문에 잘 대답해 주세요.
    - ☐ I would prefer to be evaluated by my regular teacher. — 저의 정규 선생님이기를 바랍니다.
    - ☐ I would prefer to be evaluated by another teacher. — 다른 선생님이기를 바랍니다.
    - ☐ I'd prefer to be evaluated by a panel of teachers (my teacher and another teacher). — 저는 두 분이 함께하는 패널 형식이 좋습니다.

I hereby give permission for my responses to be used for research purposes.
— 나의 대답이 연구목적으로 쓰이는데 동의합니다. *Required: answer the question. — 질문에 대답해 주세요.

- ☐ Yes. — 네.
- ☐ No. — 아니요.

Student Concordancing: Using COCA to Increase Learner Independence

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Student use of concordancers to explore language, often called data-driven learning, is an area of language learning often read about but infrequently used by instructors. This paper aims to demonstrate an accessible method of introducing learners to the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and incorporating its use into the homework of any syllabus through the Word and Phrase website.

Introduction

Language instructors think about a lot when planning lessons: target language or tasks, staging, approach, scaffolding, seating arrangements, learners' interests and motivations, etc. But focusing solely on lessons, classrooms, and even language itself can lead to stale experiences. It can distract from an opportunity to reach beyond simply teaching a language and into teaching learning. The classroom is temporary, and skills needed for independent learning need to be developed. In language learning, one powerful tool that can help students continue to explore language on their own is student concordancing, also called data-driven learning (DDL). This paper contains a brief explanation of student concordancing and its place in language education, an introduction to a powerful and free concordancing tool called Word and Phrase (Davies, 2012), and some suggestions for how to use this tool to empower language learners.

Student Concordancing

Student concordancing is an umbrella term for activities in which students use corpora to explore and learn about languages. Corpora are large collections of texts, written or spoken and transcribed, which can be searched and organized in a novel visual context. Concordancers are software that help to achieve this task with relative ease. In its beginnings, corpus linguistics was of interest only to linguists and professionals who dealt with language. By changing the visual presentation of language, we can observe linguistic properties that might have otherwise remained hidden, such as semantic prosody. For example, Sinclair (1991) found that the phrase *set in* has a negative prosody, often occurring with or "collocating" with words such as *rot*. While some linguistic knowledge can be gained by simply recalling all the ways in which we can remember a word or phrase having been used, other aspects of language are only made salient when de-contextualized and presented in concordance lines. As Sinclair wrote, “The language looks rather different when you look at a lot of it at once” (p. 100).

But Tim Johns (1991) introduced what he called DDL based on an idea of language learner independence. Johns’ vision was that students would become language researchers themselves; they would uncover new insights through exploring the texts in concordance form, possibly even insights that could evade native speakers of the language. Since then, student concordancing has been examined by numerous researchers and used to create classroom materials and activities that range from the original idea of near total learner autonomy to strictly controlled and instructor-led explorations. (See Boulton, 2010, for a comprehensive list.)

Returning to Independence

As an instructor interested in using student concordancing in the classroom, I have explored numerous ways to introduce it to learners. The available materials have mostly fallen into what Cresswell refers to as the “deductive” form of DDL (2007), where the activities are edited and controlled by the instructor. Even the materials the author has created personally have slowly shifted away from fully independent learning. The “inductive” form, which is closer to Johns’ original vision of language exploration, has been harder to pin-down.

This problem seems inherent to student concordancing because “DDL is dangerous” (Boulton, 2009, p. 93). Giving the students access to unfiltered language will almost certainly raise questions from the students to which we will not have immediate answers. This danger of having our authority undermined deters us, perhaps not even consciously, from employing inductive student concordancing. It is simply less stressful for instructors if we try and over-prepare a new and unfamiliar activity. But from the students’ perspective, this is perplexing.

A recent study at Portland State University contains an insight that should be seriously considered (Mull & Conrad, 2013). After having two pairs of English learners use a concordancer to attempt to correct language errors in writing, the researchers interviewed the students and found that “both pairs suggested during interviews that they thought the concordancer would best be used as a reference at home where students have more time to explore and feel more relaxed” (p. 12). The instructors had allowed twenty minutes and gave guiding worksheets to try to help the students use the concordancer to find better language choices. Even this minimal interference and time constraint had removed the independence the learners desired from the experience. Giving it back requires a more intuitive and widely available concordancer.

Word and Phrase

Word and Phrase is a site created by Mark Davies, one of the most influential individuals in corpus linguistics today. Davies also created and manages the

Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), a massive monitor corpus that is freely available online (Davies, 2008). Word and Phrase is also free. In educational environments where internet access is available, this site is an amazing tool for teachers and learners interested in DDL.

The Word and Phrase site is very simple and intuitive in its design. Unlike other sites that allow for concordancing to be done online in a browser, this site is not filled with confusingly named and loudly colored hypertext links. The user simply pastes a text into a box at the top of the browser window and clicks one button. The site then compares the lexical items of that text to COCA and color-codes them by frequency and their inclusion in the Academic sub-corpus. Most importantly, the site produces a selection of concordance lines from COCA proportional to sub-corpora frequency by just clicking on a word in the text. It is also possible to build phrases from the text, also through clicking rather than typing, that can be searched for in COCA. It is the most learner-friendly reference corpus concordancer freely available online.

The most obvious texts that learners could use are student-produced writing, so long as they are typed into a word processor of some sort. Comparing their personal language use to that in COCA, they can search for more frequently used phrases and collocations. Speaking texts are less obvious since they have an aural rather than a visual nature, but I have experimented with having learners transcribe audio recordings of themselves to produce a text for the site. This reflective activity has been met with positive and enthusiastic feedback from students, and I highly encourage the reader to try it. The following is a description of how this was done and two examples of students' successful use of Word and Phrase.

Independence in Practice

I recorded my students' speaking exams in which two students had conversations about topics previously studied in class. The students were unaware of the specific topic they would discuss prior to the exam. They were also unaware of which classmate would be their partner for the exam. This design discouraged students from writing and memorizing scripts in preparation for the exam. The language produced was as close to spontaneous and natural as possible in a classroom setting. I then sent the recording of the exam to the students via email and requested that they transcribe their exam and email that back to me. I trained them in transcription early in the semester to improve uniformity. I reviewed the transcripts and suggested two or three awkward utterances to each student from their own language use during the exam. I then instructed the students in how to use the Word and Phrase website. The students pasted their personal transcripts into the site and began exploring ways to improve their language use. I instructed them to capture images on their computer screens while using the site and email those to me along with alternative phrasings that they found through using the site and thought might have been more natural than their original utterances. Most of the students were able to improve their language choices. Below are two examples of such improvements.

Student A made some lexical choices that were very close to natural, but still awkward. I sent the student three suggestions for phrases that could be improved. Two of the phrases contained poor lexical choices and the third was a grammatical issue. The phrase this student was able to improve most successfully was *I'm just taking a work at night*. Figures 1-3 show how the student interacted with the site.

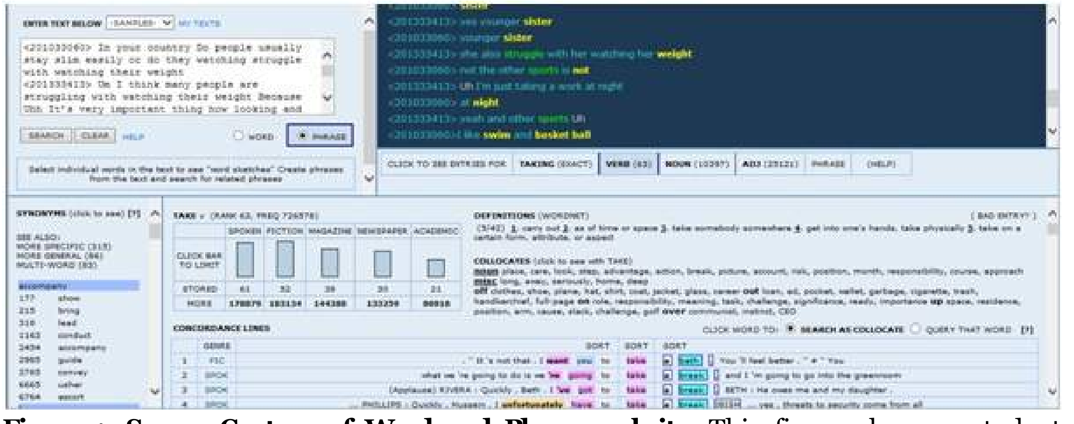

Figure 1. Screen Capture of Word and Phrase website. This figure shows a student exploring COCA for examples of the verb *take*.

Figure 2. Screen Capture of Word and Phrase website. This figure shows a student exploring COCA for examples of the phrase *take a work at night*.

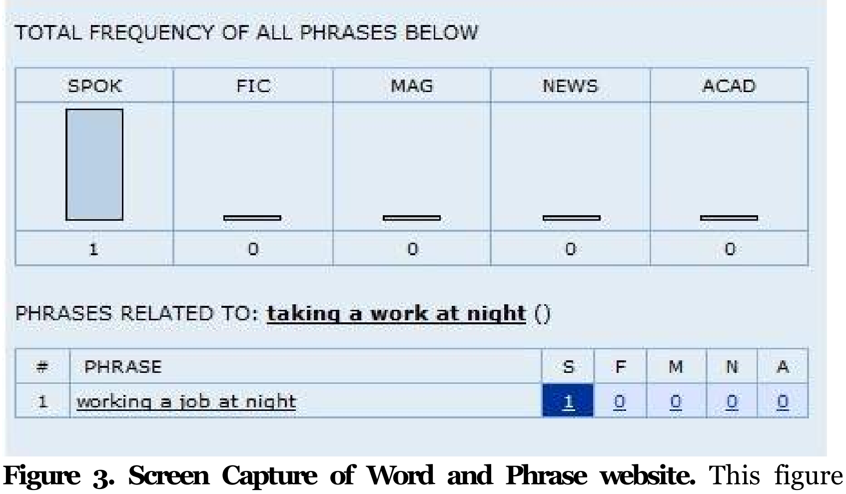

Figure 3. Screen Capture of Word and Phrase website. This figure shows a student finding a related phrase that is better than the original.

The student was able to find a better phrase from COCA with relative ease by using the Phrase tool in the site. After clicking on the Phrase tab, the student built a five-word phrase by clicking directly on the words in the transcript. The site was unable to return any examples of the phrase the student had used. The quotes around the verb show that the student was searching for all possible forms of that verb in case the problem was grammatical. The student achieved this by clicking on the All Forms option. However, the site was able to return a related phrase that was exactly what the student had meant to say during the exam.

Student B made a simple grammatical error during the exam that was in one of the phrases that I suggested could be improved. The student did not use the present participle of *struggle* in a present progressive construction *people are struggle with watching their weight*. Figure 4 shows how the student was able to use the website to improve language use.

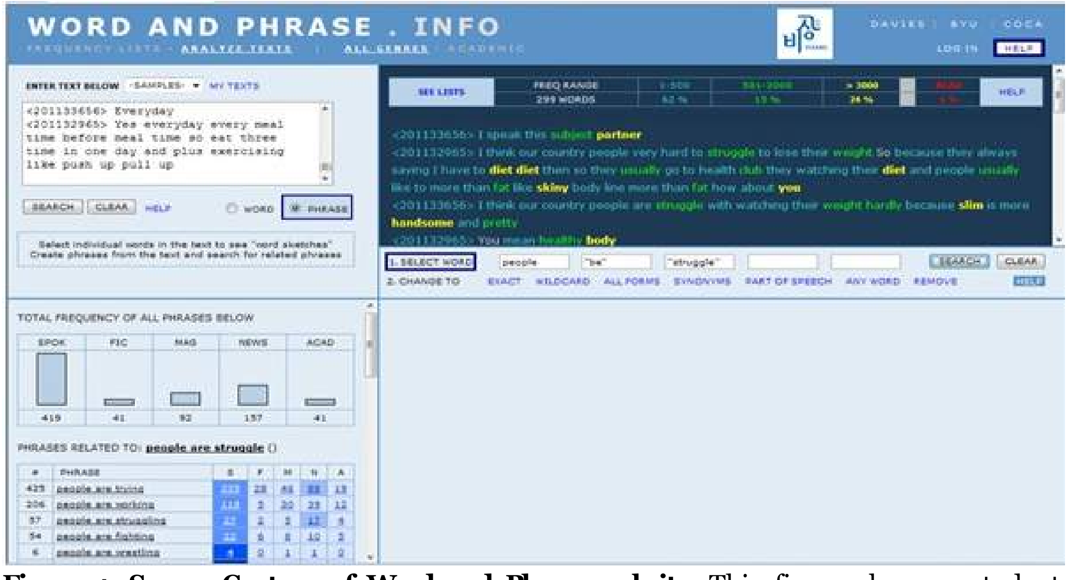

Figure 4. Screen Capture of Word and Phrase website. This figure shows a student exploring COCA for examples of the phrase *people are struggle*.

This student also used the Phrase tool to search for any forms of the verbs *be* and *struggle*. The results in the lower-left corner show the correct phrase *people are struggling*. Had the student included the preposition *with* that immediately followed, the site would have eliminated the *people are trying* phrase at the top of the list, further clarifying the grammatical error.

The training required to teach the students how to use the website was minimal. They did not know any special key strokes or coding systems to search for specific parts of speech. We spent a total of twenty minutes of class time preparing for this homework activity: five minutes learning how to create the transcripts and fifteen minutes learning how to use the website.

Not all the students who used Word and Phrase were able to find relevant examples and improve their language choices, but those who did were very pleased with the ease of the process. The intuitive nature of the website's design was very attractive to EFL learners in my classes. This positive response would most likely extend to a great deal of language students, if they were given the opportunity to use it. The number of cognitive processes these learners used while navigating this tool is very large. They explore the information the website gives them, guessing, testing, failing, and starting over until they reach a conclusion with which they are satisfied. This most likely increases the opportunity for linguistic intake. As instructors, we should cultivate the desire for independence and new learning strategies among students as often as possible.

TEACHING LEARNING

Of the potential benefits of student concordancing, the opportunity to help language learners develop skills that can be carried beyond the classroom ranks highest. A language instructor who limits herself to language instruction robs both student and teacher of possible moments of enlightenment: those insights so powerful that they become cornerstones of our future knowledge. We should be willing to teach learning by introducing resources that do not depend on our presence. We should think beyond our classroom and remember that we are teaching people who will still need to study after they have left our tutelage. I submit that student concordancing using COCA via the Word and Phrase website is one of the greatest such resources available. By further investigating the effectiveness of this tool and developing strategies for its use that we can share with other instructors, we can strengthen our students specifically and our profession in general.

THE AUTHOR

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Student Satisfaction in Theory and in Practice

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A high degree of student satisfaction is desirable from the point of view of a number of stakeholders; however, its importance for foreign language teachers is now increasing due to various government plans to reform higher education across Asia. This paper looks at the predominant models of student satisfaction, highlights the findings of a pilot study in an EFL setting, and then discusses what instructors in higher education foreign language programs can do when performance is measured not only in terms of students' development, but also their views about the education they receive.

Student Satisfaction in Higher Education

Satisfaction in higher education is an increasingly important topic as countries seek to promote the concept of "quality" both nationally and regionally. To take one example of this, the United Kingdom has its own national-level satisfaction rating published each year and is also a signatory to the Bologna Convention, which in part, seeks to promote high standards across the European Union. Although currently less prominent in Asian contexts, student satisfaction appears to be starting to receive some attention with, for example, Japan's relevant ministry suggesting a new focus on quality as one of its aims for the University Reform Action Plan (MEXT, n.d.). Readers more familiar with educational reform in other countries in Asia may recognize the Reform Plan's basic aims of fostering and tracking change, with specific instances including entrance practices, faculty research output, management functions, and distribution of funding.

Despite its importance, student satisfaction at the university level remains poorly understood, with no agreed-upon definition, and with underpinnings from fields unrelated to education. In addition, little attention has been given to Asian contexts as yet, and at the peer-review level, none at all to students majoring in foreign languages such as English. This paper aims to do two things: first, to provide a succinct summary of satisfaction from a theoretical standpoint, and then to focus on practical considerations that may benefit teachers of foreign languages.

Satisfaction Research in L1 Contexts

Satisfaction can be measured either prior to students' graduation or at some point afterwards. At the national level, government agencies distribute a satisfaction survey just after students have graduated, and use the resulting data to inform prospective students and others of each department's relative performance. While this approach makes a certain amount of sense, other methods, such as contacting students some time after they have graduated, also have benefits; for example, the former students will be able to report how well their institution prepared them for life after university, and the passage of time allows for a clearer view of their experiences. One such study, the Careers after Higher Education project (Paul, Teichler, & van der Velden, 2000), studied the results of approximately 40,000 students from nine European countries four years after the students had graduated. As an additional part of the study, interviews were conducted with around 200 former students and with 150 employers. The timing of the project was intentional in order to find out about early career results and how satisfied students were that their undergraduate degree had prepared them well.

In general, post-graduation measures of satisfaction try to be descriptive with regard to the students' experience. Studies conducted prior to graduation tend to be model-driven; that is, the researchers have some hypothesis regarding the nature of satisfaction and then apply that to their survey methods. Three common models for student satisfaction are *customer service, investment,* and *happy-productive,* and each has its antecedents in the business world. Happy-productive models come from studies of workplaces, and they posit that as workers who are satisfied with their conditions tend to be less likely to seek employment elsewhere, and to be more likely to do good quality work, so students who consider themselves satisfied with the environment they are in will also do well socially and academically (Cotton, Dollard, & De Jong, 2002). A strong form of this theory suggests that a virtuous cycle becomes possible, whereby achieving good results leads to higher levels of satisfaction, and that this enables students to improve their results even further.

The remaining two models have less to say about students' learning. The investment model (Hatcher, Kryter, Prus, & Fitzgerald, 1992) suggests that students will weigh expected costs against likely benefits before deciding on a course of action. Students may thus favor a teacher known for generous grading over one with a more demanding nature, irrespective of instructional quality. In its defense, the investment model does at least have some explanatory power to it with regard to student behavior, something that the customer service model rather lacks. The customer service model can be summed up by Athiyaman, who considers teacher-student interactions to be a "transaction or service encounter" (Athiyaman, 1997, p. 531). It is notable that, at the peer-review level, there is very little evidence of benefit to any stakeholder (including the students, their parents, the university itself, and students' future employers) when students are considered to be customers.

While Asian universities are moving towards satisfaction as part of the "quality" paradigm, it should perhaps be noted that in the United States, where the customer-service mentality in education seems to be the strongest, a report based on data from 2012 showed that of the students who found employment upon graduating, only 50% found work that actually required a university degree (Van Horn, 2013). As such, a wholesale importation of approaches from other countries may not be in any society's best interests.

Satisfaction and EFL Practice

Overall, despite the undoubted benefits a highly satisfying education provides students, satisfaction research presents problems for educators generally, and EFL practitioners in particular. One issue is the timing: If satisfaction is only assessed at or after graduation, any solvable problems cannot be addressed. Another is the question of whether business models are suitable for education, and if so, whether any of the three main models can actually capture the complexity of satisfaction across such a range of learning environments, students' characters, and personal goals.

As for foreign language education, we should note its affective nature, the range of teaching methods, and the role played by learner motivation. Second language learning classrooms are unique in the demands they place on the learners: Regardless of how challenging a subject is, in no other class are students expected to operate in something other than their own language. As the number of studies on EFL students' motivation attests, this is a highly variable and subjective field. Teaching methods run the gamut from grammar-translation to totally communicative, and every student has aspects of language learning that they like less than others.

In fields outside of education, it is widely reported that satisfaction negatively correlates with motivation; essentially, the more motivation one has to succeed, the lower one's likely satisfaction with the outcome (Beardmore, Hunt, Haider, Dorow, & Arlinghaus, 2014). For highly motivated second language students, this may very well be true of university programs. If you really want to master a second language, a once-weekly class meeting with 20 or 30 other learners – each with different levels and degrees of motivation – might be a highly frustrating system to be placed in.

A Pilot Study, Its Replication, and Extension

In 2013, the instructors of the English Communication Course at Kyushu Sangyo University decided to investigate the graduating seniors' levels of satisfaction with the program. Program-level satisfaction is different from institutional satisfaction in that its major focus is issues teachers have at least some control over, and it is also unlike course satisfaction, as it considers the whole of the students' experience in the program, and not each individual subject in isolation.

We adapted the Lozano-Lozano, Sanduvete-Chaves, Chacón-Moscoso, and Pérez-Gil (2013) survey, Satisfaction with the Training Received, as it was the closest to our needs and could be interpreted without subscribing to any of the three pre-graduation models outlined in the second section of this paper. By eliminating items that teachers have little to no influence over (e.g., factors such as tuition costs, IT support, library access), we reduced the number of survey questions to nine. The items were intended to apply to one of three categories: teaching quality, student participation, and course (meaning the three-year program) value. All nine items were open-ended, allowing students to write as much as they wished on a particular topic.

Three graduating seniors separately rated the items to see how well they fit these categories, and were then invited to participate in a focus group's discussion in order to improve the survey from the point of view of the target population. After administering the final version of the survey to 12 graduating seniors at the end of the academic year, a qualitative analysis was undertaken, with the aim of unpacking satisfaction as an L2 learner construct.

In addition to the categories of teaching quality, student participation, and course value, we uncovered four new ones, none of which appear in the L1 literature, to our knowledge. The four categories students' comments suggest are important were the richness of the program content, a sense of continuity in studying from grade to grade, the opportunities the program offers, and the quality of relationships formed between students, and between students and teachers (Carter, Kakimoto, & Miura, 2014).

The pilot study is too small to make strong claims and, at a minimum, needs replicating for purposes of validity. As of January 2015, the pilot's authors are engaged in two separate studies to improve their understanding of L2 students' program-level satisfaction.

The first study is a replication of the original pilot, with minor improvements to the wording of the items. Although satisfaction at the point of graduation is an important juncture to consider, it is not the only – nor necessarily the best – one. As part of this study, we have additionally created a third-year university version of the same instrument, with some items retained and some that are unique to the situation of third-year university students. In Japanese higher education, by the end of their junior year, students should have obtained almost all of the credits they need to graduate and will spend their senior year engaged in capstone projects and job-hunting. As such, the end of the junior year is an appropriate time to consider students' satisfaction to date, and to find out how well they believe the program has equipped them as they prepare to move on to the next stage of their lives.

The second study takes a different approach in that the pilot and the study outlined above both look at students at one time-point in their academic career, in effect a snapshot of their satisfaction as they look back over their education to date. In this major extension of our previous work, what we intend to do is look at satisfaction longitudinally, as it develops over time. From conversations with current and former students, it seems that the more engaged they are with their education, the more likely they are to endorse a "happy-productive" view of satisfaction. However, these same students state that when they entered the university, a customer service attitude was all that made sense to them, after having been taken on tours of the campus, orientation, interactions with non-teaching staff, and all the other aspects that the first few days of university life entails. At some point, the investment model made more sense to them; and later, as they got deeper into their major studies, a happy-productive mindset became a possibility. Only a longitudinal approach to understanding student satisfaction can really tell us what happens over the span of the students' academic career, and the findings of such a study would likely be of benefit to teachers and students alike, and not only to those in EFL programs, but with wider implications, as well.

Practical Considerations

Student satisfaction is an important topic, but the field itself is fragmented, and there is little hope of any agreement or guide to best practices soon. With the added pressure of satisfaction being part of university reform, teachers across Asia might well benefit from taking an interest in how student satisfaction works, especially in relation to aspects that teacher involvement has some chance of influencing.

The four new categories the pilot study uncovered are one of two ideas that teachers could consider. If students derive satisfaction from how rich the program content is, and how they can continue studying it from grade to grade, then it makes sense for teachers to collaborate with each other to understand how the concepts they individually teach fit together. One specific example our students have often given is that the classes we, the English Communication Course, offer in linguistics and in phonetics complement each other well. Students have often stated that what they learn in one class, they can apply in the other. In addition, if student satisfaction is improved through the opportunities the program offers them and the quality of the relationships among members, then reviewing these and looking for opportunities to increase their potential may be beneficial.

The second idea is to consider how the learning environment can be made more conducive to supporting students' transitions to happy-productive thinking regarding their education. Kuh's (2008) "high impact educational practices" might be an effective list for teachers to review when planning their curriculum, especially in light of EFL student reports of connections between satisfaction, engagement, and the happy-productive model of satisfaction. Kuh reviews college learning opportunities that are known to provide benefits to students, for example, undergraduate research and community-based learning; and many of the opportunities listed could not only improve EFL learners' satisfaction with their program, but also their English at the same time. Taken together, reviewing a program's educational practices and its focus on the four categories described from the pilot study outlined above can create a program that both educates and satisfies its learners.

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The Effect of Graphic Organizer and Discourse Marker Instruction on Reading Comprehension Among Young Korean English Learners

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In second language research, reading comprehension refers to the degree to which readers construct a meaning out of text. It involves a complex process between readers and text because readers actively interact with text to produce a meaning-making. When dealing with text, skilled readers approach text by selecting and implementing reading strategies that work for text as they read it. Skilled readers are thus referred to as strategic readers who possess a great deal of reading strategies. Among the many reading strategies, using graphic organizers and discourse markers have been proposed as being conducive to promoting young English learners' (ELs') reading comprehension. This study thus involves instruction on the use of graphic organizers and discourse markers, and aims to investigate the effects of the instruction on reading comprehension among young Korean ELs. Through presenting empirical evidence and description, the study is expected to aid in teaching young Korean ELs to become more strategic EFL readers.

INTRODUCTION

It is said that students with a repertoire of reading strategies are likely to have a high level of reading comprehension. Dymock (2005) pointed out that many young ELs do not have a range of reading strategies, and this has caused them to have difficulty in comprehending text. In the study, it was also found that the participating young Korean ELs did not have many reading strategies available. This indicates that instructors teaching young ELs should implement reading strategy instruction to enrich young ELs' repertoire of reading strategies, and thus, contribute to young EL's reading comprehension. Among the many reading strategies, graphic organizers and discourse markers, in particular, have been presented as effective strategies that assist young ELs in improving reading comprehension. For instance, research done by Dreher and Grey (2009) indicates that instruction on graphic organizers contributes to reading comprehension among young ELs in the ESL context. In addition, Grabe and Stroller (2002) point out that skilled ESL readers are apt to look for discourse markers given in text as this helps to improve reading comprehension. In their study, however, it was found that there was an absence of instruction on both graphic organizers and discourse markers as most of the participants responded that they had not used them. Since the use of graphic organizers and discourse markers have received attention in second language reading, it is worth examining the effects of these strategies in the Korean EFL context. The aim of the study is to investigate the effect of graphic organizer and discourse marker instruction on young Korean ELs' reading comprehension. The following research questions are addressed:

1. Does reading strategy instruction on graphic organizers and discourse markers influence scores on a reading comprehension test?
2. What impact does reading strategy instruction on graphic organizers and discourse markers have on reading comprehension?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research in second language reading proposes that EFL teachers focus on developing students' awareness of text structure (Brown, 2007; Grabe & Stroller, 2002; Hudson, 2007). According to Durkin, Ferguson and Sperring (2006), text can be divided into five types; namely, report, narrative, procedural, persuasive, and expository text. Among them, expository text contains structural elements to organize ideas. The aim of expository text is to deliver information to readers in a well-arranged fashion. To do so, expository text conveys ideas by adopting such text structures as "compare and contrast," "time order," "cause and effect," "problem and solution" and "description." For instance, an article about twin brothers explaining features that they share and those that they do not share is likely to organize ideas in a manner that compares and contrasts the features. The structure of the article, then, can be presented via the use of the following two reading strategies: the use graphic organizers and discourse markers.

Grabe and Stroller (2002) indicate that strategic readers pay attention to text structure. To do so, as Brown (2007) points out, readers utilize reading strategies such as using semantic mapping or clustering. This use of semantic mapping or clustering is an example of using graphic organizers in EFL reading classes. According to Kang (2004), graphic organizers are "visual frameworks such as figures, diagrams, charts, etc. used to present structural knowledge spatially in a given area with the intention of enhancing comprehension and learning" (p. 58). When applied to the EFL setting, graphic organizers have been proven to enhance reading comprehension. For instance, a case study done by Sam and Rajan (2013) indicated that instruction on graphic organizers facilitated English reading comprehension among middle school students. Sam and Rajan (2013) divided the students into two groups, Group A and Group B. They then organized a reading intervention on graphic organizers and implemented the intervention for Group A. Students in Group B, as opposed to those in Group A, were taught in a traditional way, for instance, reading text over and over, etc. The results of their intervention were found to be effective in enhancing reading comprehension. Namely, the students in Group A significantly improved in reading comprehension, whereas those in Group B showed no significant improvement.

Instruction on graphic organizers can provide EFL students with a visual tool to depict organizational patterns of text spatially. Dreher and Gray (2009) point out that one's reading comprehension is comprised of background knowledge, vocabulary, and text structure awareness, among others. Trabasso and Bouchard (2002) regard text structure awareness as a crucial part of one's overall reading comprehension. In other words, students with a high level of text structure awareness are likely to have a higher degree of reading comprehension. They indicate that graphic organizers assist young ELs in visualizing text structures. For instance, students using graphic organizers are likely to approach a text by dividing it into smaller parts and identifying connections between them, thus being able to recognize text structures. This contributes to reading comprehension as it enables readers to visualize relationships between ideas given in the text. Graphic organizers, therefore, not only help students enhance text structure awareness but improve reading comprehension.

Along with graphic organizers, Hudson (2007) informs us that skilled readers look for discourse markers to help them discover text structures as they read text. Discourse markers, also known as *connecting words* or *logical connectors*, play a role in creating a logical organization between discourses at the sentence and even at the paragraph level. For example, a recipe, a procedural text, is comprised of several steps and adopts such discourse markers as *first*, *second*, *next*, etc. to organize ideas in a sequential way. By examining the discourse markers given in a recipe, readers are able to identify in what ways the ideas of the text are organized. Thus, Akhondi, Malayeri, and Samad (2011) point out that EFL students' text structure awareness can be improved by instruction that involves identifying the relationships between discourses through the investigation of discourse markers presented in text. Therefore, this author hypothesized that reading strategy instruction on discourse makers and graphic organizers would have a positive impact on reading comprehension.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 20 Korean elementary school students attending a gifted English program at Gyeongsan English Town (GET) under the administration of the Gyeongsan Office of Education in Korea. At GET were 60 students, who had been selected from among all the candidates within the Gyeongsan area through a written test and an interview. The written test and interview results served as a placement test for this study. The students were divided into three groups of twenty; namely, advanced-blue, intermediate-yellow, and low-pink groups. Among them, the writer taught the advanced-blue class of 5 fifth- and 15 sixth-graders, who possessed a similar high level of English proficiency. Thus, the author believed that the reading strategy intervention would be appropriate for them. GET organized a 120-hour year-long English program which was comprised of two sub-programs. One was a 100-hour program taking place over two academic semesters and the other was an intensive 20-hour program during the school summer break. The writer was in charge of organizing and implementing the latter for the advanced-blue class.

Instrument

The main instruments used in the study consisted of a questionnaire, pre- and post-test, participants' workbooks, and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire and pre- and post-reading tests were administered to the participants to collect quantitative data, while the writer collected students' workbooks and conducted a semi-structured interview for a qualitative data investigation. Firstly, the questionnaire was designed to examine the participants' use of reading strategies, mainly based on Paris, Wahik, and Turner (1996). It included 10 items given on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "never" to "always." Secondly, the pre-test consisted of 25 items dealing with expository text comprehension, and it was carried out to identify the participants' level of reading comprehension. The post-test adopted the same format as the pre-test and was administered to investigate the degree to which the reading strategy instruction contributed to participants' reading comprehension. During the intervention, the author collected the participants' workbooks in combination with the semi-structured interview to determine how the intervention influenced participants' reading comprehension.

Course Design

The reading strategy program lasted over the course of one week, that is, 4 hours a day and 20 hours in total. As previously described, expository text is comprised of five different text types; thus, the author organized an intensive reading program in such a way that it would allow the participants to deal with each type in turn over the duration of the course. Table 1 shows the titles of five readings, text structures, graphic organizers that can be used to visualize the text structures and discourse markers that are present in the readings.

Table 1. Intensive English Reading Program

Day	Reading (Text Structure)		
	Title and Type	**Graphic Organizer**	**Discourse Markers**
Day 1	**Friends** (Compare & Contrast)	Venn Diagram, Compare & Contrast Chart	but, also, in contrast
Day 2	**The History of Seoul** (Time Order)	Chain of Events	after that, till, nowadays
Day 3	**Climate Change** (Cause & Effect)	Cause & Effect Chart	as a result, thus, hence
Day 4	**Different Looks** (Problem & Solution)	Problem & Solution Chart	however, therefore
Day 5	**Three Countries in North America** (Description)	Semantic Map	first, second, then

Data Analysis

This study involved quantitative and qualitative data analysis. In regard to the quantitative analysis, the questionnaire responses were analyzed by using individually based frequency counts. This was done to identify the extent to which the participants used reading strategies before commencing the reading strategy program. A paired t-test was performed on the participants' average scores on their pre- and post-tests in order to identify whether or not the reading strategy instruction influenced the participants' scores on reading comprehension tests. The quantitative data analysis was carried out to investigate what impact the reading strategy instruction had on participants' reading comprehension. To do this, the participants' workbooks were collected and analyzed. In addition, participants' interview answers were recorded and analyzed to elicit further information on the use of reading strategies, that is, why they selected a particular graphic organizer and in what ways discourse markers helped in text comprehension.

FINDINGS

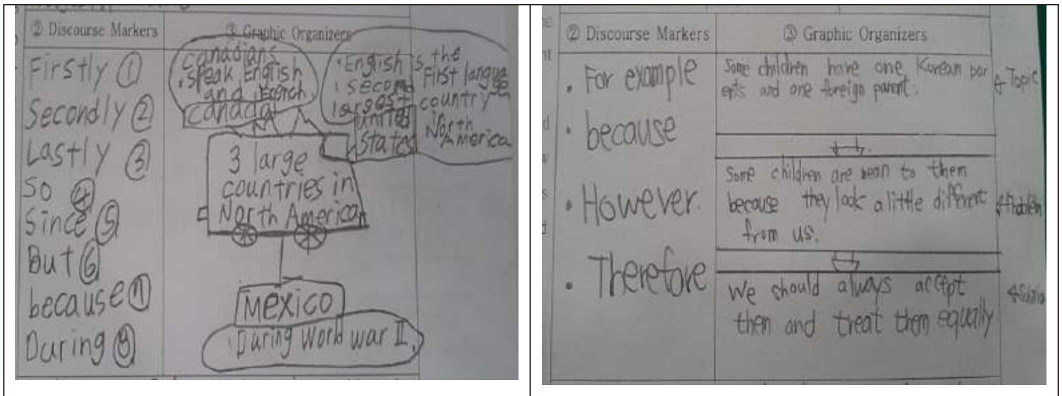
The main intent of the study was to investigate the effects of the graphic organizer and discourse marker strategy on reading comprehension. One of the research questions was to examine whether the strategy instruction influenced the scores on the reading comprehension test. Based on the purpose of the research, participants' average scores on the pre-reading test and those in the post-reading test were compared via a paired t-test. The results of the paired t-test are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparison of Pre- and Post-reading Test Scores

Test	N	Mean	SD	Difference		df	t	*p*-value
Pre-test	20	88.20	6.29	**Pre-Post**	-2.60	19	-2.37	0.028
Post-test		90.80	5.04					

Note: $^{*}p < .05$

The average score on the pre-reading test was 88.20, while that of the post-reading was 90.80. Thus, the mean difference between the two tests was -2.60, which indicates that the participants' average score on the reading comprehension test improved. Moreover, as shown in Table 2, the *p*-value is 0.028 at the significance level of 0.05. This indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the average scores of the pre- and post-reading tests. Hence, the reading strategy instruction on discourse markers and graphic organizers is shown to be effective in improving participants' reading comprehension. According to Hudson (2007), strategic readers look for discourse markers and discover a logical organization of text with reference to the markers. The identification of discourse markers then helps readers visualize text structures via the use of graphic organizers. In other words, discourse markers play a significant role in formulating ideas in text. They thus provide readers with clues when the readers select or create graphic organizers and diagram text structures. In this way, as Akhondi et al. (2011) pointed out, readers' text structure awareness can be enhanced, and this was evidenced in some of the participants' workbooks (Figure 1).



Participant A

Participant B

Figure 1. Workbook Entries of Two Participants. Discourse markers are entered in the space provided on the left and graphic organization is illustrated in the space on the right.

In addition, follow-up interviews with the participants in regard to their workbooks indicated that instruction on graphic organizers and discourse markers enhanced text structure awareness. Here is one such response from Participant A:

> When I attempted to use graphic organizers, it was not easy because I could not find out a text structure. At the time, I remembered the teacher advising us to pay attention to discourse markers. So I looked at discourse markers, or firstly, secondly, lastly, etc., and some sentences before and after them. Then, I was able to notice what roles the discourse markers play and this helped me find a graphic organizer that suits the text structure. Once I completed the graphic organizer, it helped me understand the text.

To sum up, the results of the study suggest that reading strategy instruction on graphic organizers and discourse markers improved the participants' reading comprehension test performance. Also, the instruction was found to have an impact on the participants' text structure awareness. That is, the reading strategy instruction enhanced the participants' text structure awareness and this contributed to reading comprehension. Therefore, it is said that reading strategy instruction on graphic organizers and discourse markers is likely to increase learners' level of text structure awareness, thereby improving reading comprehension.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study proposes that instruction on graphic organizers and discourse markers is likely to promote text structure awareness, thus improving reading comprehension for young EFL students. It is suggested that any instruction that involves learning strategies needs to be planned with a long-term perspective (Bruning, Schraw, & Norby, 2010; Schunk, 2012). In other words, young ELs are apt to increase text structure awareness over time by reflecting on the use of graphic organizers and discourse markers, and extending the use of these strategies to outside the classroom (Jiang & Grabe, 2007; Manoli & Papadopoulou, 2012). Thus, it is suggested that EFL instructors who teach young learners conduct graphic organizer and discourse marker instruction over a long period of time. Through providing empirical evidence and description, the current study hopes to have shed some light on the administration of EFL reading instruction on graphic organizers and discourse markers, and ultimately to aid in teaching young Korean ELs to become more effective EFL readers.

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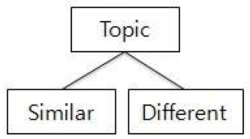
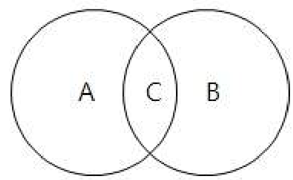
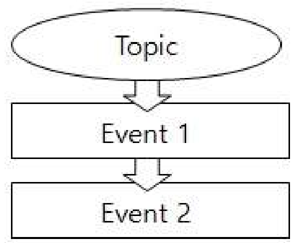
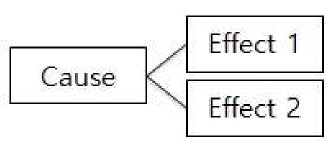
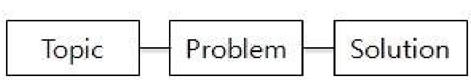
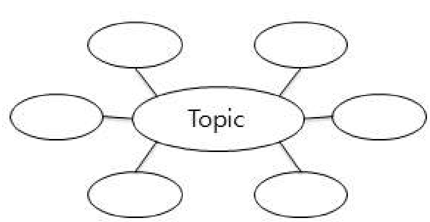
APPENDIX

Text Structures and Their Graphic Organizers and Discourse Markers

Text Structure	Graphic Organizers	Discourse Markers
Compare & Contrast	 Compare & Contrast Chart  Venn Diagram	although, however, but, nevertheless, on the other hand, similarly, likewise, in the same way, etc.
Time Order	 Chain of Events	first, second, third, next, later, then, before, after, now, etc.
Cause & Effect	 Cause & Effect Chart	therefore, as a result, because, consequently, thus, since, etc.
Problem & Solution	 Problem & Solution Chart	problem is, if-then, so that, question/answer, etc.
Description	 Semantic Map	including, such as, for example, for instance, etc.

Stepping Closer to Authenticity to the Classroom

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As a linguistic term, *authenticity* contains elements of validity, credibility, and truthfulness, and has been described as of central importance to EFL practitioners (Day, 2004). In terms of materials and activities, Nunan (1988) suggests that authenticity is found in tasks and materials designed for purposes aside from language teaching. With this definition in mind, this paper offers a description of a classroom activity that, it is argued, fulfills Nunan's definition of authenticity, and can be used with little preparation to both enhance the learning experience of students and give teachers an interesting way to raise awareness of the concept of interactional competence with their students and introduce some ways to improve their performance in this area.

Introduction

I have used the activity described in this paper primarily with business English students, but it is applicable in a range of situations. The activity makes use of authentic materials (*authentic* in that they were not produced specifically for the purpose of language learning) and aims to recreate the tangible feelings of achievement and frustration that typify authentic business communication. Alongside an opportunity to use English in a productive and meaningful way, the activity has also been used to prompt interesting discussions that students can feel invested in, as well as to raise awareness of interactional competence and the importance of being able to express disagreement and manage conversations in spoken English.

Authenticity in the Language Classroom

A great deal of academic output on the topic of authenticity is concerned with authentic text and the connected issues of level and intelligibility. Guariento and Morley (2001), for instance, argue against claims that authentic materials can only be used with advanced-level students, and suggest that simpler material should not be deemed any less authentic than more difficult material. The activity presented in this paper, on the other hand, is not textually based, but task-based. It is a discrete classroom activity that can be used to supplement a number of different types of courses; and as a result, the aim of this section is to provide a suitable definition of authenticity as related to the activity and to discuss some of the advantages of using such material.

Authenticity is not an easy concept to pin down, and Nunan's (1988) definition, that authentic material is that which "has been produced for purposes other than to teach a language" (p. 99), has come to be questioned on numerous occasions. In the debate surrounding which materials can or cannot be termed authentic, Bernstein (2000) argues that the very process of bringing material into the classroom re-contextualizes it as pedagogic material, therefore raising questions as to its authenticity. Day (2004) goes further, questioning the preference for authentic material at all and criticizing textbook producers and educators alike for over-emphasizing the importance of authenticity.

Instead of attempting to balance the competing views and theories on which materials and activities deserve to be termed "authentic," and for purposes of simplicity and clarity, this paper advocates McDonough and Shaw's (2003) description of authenticity as implying a close-as-possible approximation to the outside world. In attempting to bring the "outside world" into the classroom, it is accepted that students may be aware that there is a pedagogic purpose for a given activity. However, reflecting Willis's (1996) contention that authenticity is found in activities in which communication must take place and language must be used for a genuine purpose, it is argued that the material presented in the following sections can be termed "authentic."

Among the advantages of using authentic classroom tasks and activities is the idea that authentic material can provide a window into the culture of the target-language group, which according to McKay (2000) can foster learner motivation. Berardo (2006) agrees, reporting increased student satisfaction stemming from authentic tasks. Aside from the motivational benefits to students, Richards (2001) looks at the effects of authentic tasks on teachers, arguing they support a more creative approach to teaching. In the following sections, I will outline the activity itself before looking at how follow-up activities can enrich language awareness among learners.

THE ACTIVITY

The material underpinning this activity is based on research into successful business communication (Wujec, 2010). In the activity, groups of participants are asked to build a freestanding structure using 20 strands of dried spaghetti, one yard of string, and one yard of adhesive tape. The structure should stand freely without any help from participants and should also support one marshmallow at the top; the whole activity must be completed in 18 minutes. In the accompanying TED talk, Wujec (2010) describes how the activity, known as the "Marshmallow Challenge," has been carried out on numerous occasions with groups as various as kindergarten students, architects, engineers, and Fortune-500 CEOs, all of whom used teamwork, negotiation, and a range of communication strategies in order to complete the design and production of a structure, with varying degrees of success.

There were a number of reasons for selecting this activity for use in a business English classroom. First, as Wujec (2010) outlines, the activity is a powerful way to improve a team's capacity to build rapport and collaborate. The fun and physical nature of the challenge, especially when used toward the beginning of business English courses, can therefore have positive effects in terms of reducing affective barriers, relaxing students, and helping to create a positive learning environment. Furthermore, the fact that the activity has been used across the world by “authentic” business leaders can also be a source of motivation for students, helping them to conceptualize themselves as not only English learners, but as students of other key aspects of business communication, such as negotiation, creativity, and compromise.

Having used the activity a number of times with famously shy Japanese university students, I have been repeatedly struck by the effect that the activity has had. The activity succeeds not only in terms of surprising students as an unexpectedly “fun” exercise, but also in orienting them to the nature of business communication and the importance of the paralinguistic features of such communication. The added fact that it is relatively quick and easy to prepare makes it an ideal jumping-off point for a business English course.

Application in the Classroom

Students are initially divided into groups of three or four and asked to discuss what makes someone a successful communicator. Students are then asked to exchange opinions on the communication skills of different people they know, and finally to rank CEOs, kindergarten students, university students, lawyers, and engineers in order from the best to the worst communicators. Students are then informed that their own communicative abilities will be tested in a way they may not have experienced before.

Following this introduction, the main part of the activity begins with each group receiving 20 strands of dried spaghetti, one yard of string, one yard of adhesive tape, and a marshmallow. The rules are explained as quickly and clearly as possible, with students being made aware that L1 use is penalized with a 1-minute penalty, during which time they will not be allowed to interact with the materials or each other. Students are also informed that materials cannot be exchanged in the event of breakage. A timer is then started, and groups begin to discuss how to approach the task, before designing and building their structures.

At the end of 18 minutes, students are informed that the activity is over. It is possible that some or, indeed, all groups fail to create anything at all; it is equally possible that each group will successfully make a freestanding structure. In the case that more than one group successfully erects a freestanding structure, they are all measured from tabletop to marshmallow top, and the group with the longest measurement wins the challenge.

The activity forces students to use language spontaneously and creatively in order to achieve a shared goal. It has, in my own experience, been a great success as students, motivated by an engaging physical task, seemingly prioritize its successful completion above linguistic accuracy. As a result of this reorientation of priorities, I have observed a noticeable loosening of affective barriers as students work together. In groups with a shared L1, there is of course a danger that the activity becomes so engaging that the target language is abandoned altogether. It is therefore important that teachers are strict in maintaining the target-language rule at all times.

There are of course cases where students fail either to communicate successfully with each other or to produce a freestanding structure. In such situations, follow-up activities reflecting on what went wrong can be useful, with the clear effects of communication breakdown (in this case, the failure to produce a structure) highlighting to students the importance of communication skills. In classes with a high incidence of communication failure, it can be positive to repeat the activity toward the end of the course to give students an indication of their own progress.

Follow-up Activities

Having completed the construction element of the class, there are a number of directions in which teachers can direct the class to take advantage of the atmosphere that such an absorbing activity can create.

Discussion

The concrete and memorable nature of the activity, as well as the fact that students physically take part, can lead to discussion topics that students are more interested in and therefore more likely to invest their effort in (as opposed to abstract topics they are often asked to discuss in textbook discussion activities). Examples of the types of questions that can be used are included below.

1. What was difficult about the Marshmallow Challenge?
2. If you could do the Marshmallow Challenge again, how would you do it differently?
3. If the teacher offered a reward (100,000 yen), how would it affect your performance results? Do you think you would do better or worse? Why?
4. How well did the following groups do when they were given the challenge? Lawyers, architects and engineers, kindergarteners, CEOs, business school students

Pursuant to these discussion questions, and if students' listening abilities allow, the accompanying TED video can be used with or without subtitles to deepen students' appreciation for the importance of cooperation in group tasks. Other tasks may include asking students to discuss, agree upon, and present 4 or 5 pieces of advice (of which only one may be structural!) for other hypothetical groups about to try the challenge.

Interactional Competence

As a concept, interactional competence (IC) includes the ability to engage in interactional events using linguistic and paralinguistic devices as well as to jointly manage turn-taking and show engagement and empathy where appropriate (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). Since it was first introduced by Oksaar (1983), academic understanding of IC has continued to be explored and refined; and those interested in this area may find work by He and Young (1998) and Young and Miller (2004) useful. This paper does not intend to provide a comprehensive analysis of IC, but it does suggest that the activity described above can be a useful way to raise students' awareness of the importance of turn-taking and disagreement structures in spoken English communication.

Of course, it is not expected or suggested that students should arrive at a deep understanding of the theories underpinning IC. However, in order to better understand the dynamics of English communication, especially regarding interruptions and disagreement, and especially for students whose L1 has markedly difficult rules governing such interactions (such as Japanese), it is argued that this activity serves to highlight for students why turn construction and the ability to express disagreement are such important parts of English communication.

Conclusions

Authenticity is an extremely difficult concept to pin down, and an exhaustive discussion of what exactly constitutes authenticity, and how authentic any activity can claim to be, is clearly beyond the limits of a paper of this length. Having said that, what I have tried to suggest is that activities such as the one described in this paper do, in a business English classroom environment, have the potential to enliven a class, to help create a positive learning environment, and to stimulate discussion on a range of areas that are important to business communication. Like many tools at the disposal of language teachers, such activities have the potential, if used correctly, to complement and enhance a language course.

The Marshmallow Challenge has been used in business; it has also been used as a rapport-building activity for an extended classroom project. It can be used to prompt further discussion on communication styles or simply as a stand-alone class activity. The fun and competitive nature of this activity, as well as the fact that L1 use can mean a group failing to produce a viable structure, combine to encourage the exclusive use of the target language and create a situation for learners to experience a shared collaborative activity where English is a means to completing a task, rather than the task itself. Given that one of the problems facing language teachers in monolingual classes, such as those often found in many East Asian universities, is the temptation among students to use their shared L1, this activity, and those like it, deserve serious consideration by educators.

The Author

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A New Perspective in Reading: Digitalized Graphic Novels in EFL

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One of the more noteworthy trends in reading and literacy skill development has been the advent of the graphic novel. An extended form of the comic and *manga*, the graphic novel has been increasingly utilized in educational circles in primary and secondary education, most notably, in the United States. Although these text-visual reading materials have had considerable commercial success and cultural acceptance internationally, EFL educational establishments are still somewhat ambivalent about their introduction into the classroom. Despite this, a growing number of studies are indicating that the benefits of reading graphic novels may be too important to ignore. Furthermore, technological developments have added a variable to the equation, specifically, the reading of graphic novels on computer tablets. This initial study will present results from surveys that examined students' general reading habits and reactions to reading graphic novels in digital and paper format.

Introduction

The worldwide popularity of comics and graphic novels is phenomenal. Throughout Asia, comic books, eloquently described as being the size of telephone directories, are sold in the millions to adults on a weekly basis (Aleixo & Norris, 2007). In Japan, *manga* are so immensely popular that an estimated 1.5 to 2 billion publications are sold yearly (Lent, 2007). The Japan External Trade Organization has estimated that *manga* purchases comprise 37% of all published material sold in the nation (JETRO, 2006), and approximately 90–95% of all literate Japanese read these materials (Cary, 2004).

As language teachers continue to search for more appealing and suitable reading materials for their students, the success in the United States of integrating graphic novels into education in past decades has sparked immense interest throughout the world. Graphic novels, an expanded form of traditional comic books, have continued to grow in popularity among adolescent and adult readers. The accumulation of a growing awareness of student reading habits, and the inclusion of these materials in the classroom along with the resultant success with increasing interest in reading, has solidified the presence of the graphic novel in many educational circles. It should be noted that the inclusion of graphic novels in schools in the United States pertains to a remarkably different situation from that of Japan and throughout the world. Surprisingly, despite the commercial popularity of *manga* in Japan, these forms of reading have not been introduced into the educational setting on any significant scale. Nevertheless, the potential of the text-visual advantage for EFL readers and the integration of digital reading tools into EFL reading programs are too promising to ignore.

INTEGRATING GRAPHIC NOVELS INTO EDUCATION

Awareness of reading preferences is critical for educators in order to find appropriate materials that can acquire and sustain student interest. Providing reading materials to students that are uninteresting to them could negatively affect progress in learning (Krashen, 2005; Worthy, Moorman, & Turner, 1999). In an effort to improve the quality of language learning and pedagogical outcomes, teachers and textbook publishers need to create and utilize materials more in accordance with the preferences of learners (Kryszewska, 2008). As observations of student reading habits have revealed that significant discrepancies exist between in-class and out-of-class reading materials, educators have experimented with introducing new reading materials into the classroom, i.e., graphic novels. The negativity that has been associated with comics and graphic novels as effective reading improvement materials has impeded the inclusion of these materials in some educational establishments.

In the past, these reading materials have been labeled as being substandard to other forms of literature in the United States (Varnum & Gibbons, 2001). However, a key turning point that helped change such perceptions was Art Spiegelman's (1992) graphic novel *Maus* being awarded a Pulitzer Prize in 1992. The subsequent heightened status expanded the role of the graphic novel from personal leisure reading to inclusion in many educational disciplines. In a span of two decades, there has been a steady growth in the popularity of graphic novels, not only in commercial markets, but in many educational institutions as well (Carter, 2007). One should keep in mind that the graphic novel should not necessarily be acknowledged as a genre in itself; rather, it should be perceived as a medium with content no less diversified than that found in other forms of literature (Wolk, 2007). In sum, graphic novels are simply text-visual delivery mediums with content independent of association with any specific subject matter.

In inquiries investigating the utilization of graphic novels in education in the United States, age and gender are often issues of concern (Coles & Hall, 1997; Worthy, Moorman, & Turner, 1999). However, the implications of these sociological barriers may be of less significance in other countries. In the case of Japan, *manga* are of interest to readers regardless of age, gender, socioeconomic class, or educational background. However, despite the popularity and widespread availability of these materials in commercial markets, they are still often ignored in educational establishments in many EFL settings. Nevertheless, perceptions are beginning to change about graphic novels as acceptable literary alternatives with an established readership in EFL communities and continued growth in many ESL educational settings. Substantial changes on a global scale seem imminent. The elements of reader preference and an established familiarity add support for the rationale of inclusion of these reading materials in language education.

The stereotypical image of the graphic novel as a form of leisure reading has often been cited by critics opposed to its inclusion in education (Conners, 2010). Nevertheless, innovations in language education are continually being sought by practitioners in attempts to improve the learning experience for students, and motivation remains as one of the most critical elements. Extensive reading programs have repeatedly demonstrated enormous benefits for both L1 and L2 learners (Coady, 1997; Day & Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 2004; Yu-Li, 1999). Based on a framework of autonomous language learning, extensive reading eliminates a number of restrictive barriers that may impede the learning experience. Students are given the freedom to choose their own reading materials with minimal accountability. Successful implementation of an extensive reading program foremost requires sustaining a collection of insightful and appealing books that can cultivate interest. Allowing students the option of selecting reading materials relevant to their personal interests has resulted in enhanced motivation and positive attitudes towards reading (Krashen, 2004; Nippold, Duthie, & Larsen, 2005; Worthy, Moorman, & Turner, 1999). Among an array of reading materials increasingly utilized in extensive reading programs across public schools in the United States, the graphic novel has gained recognition as a potentially significant literary form with its unique combination of art and literature (Edmunds, 2006). The advantage of "attention-grabbing" graphics cannot only assist ESL students in understanding the content of the text, but it may also serve as a means to motivate them to read more (McTaggart, 2008). Moreover, advocates of extensive reading programs have specifically mentioned the need for including graphic novels to assist light readers to advance to heavy reading (Krashen, 2004, 2005). In a study examining the reading habits of middle school boys, Ujiie and Krashen (1996) found that those who read graphic novels read more often. Moreover, the researchers observed an increase in the level of enjoyment in reading, and this eventually led the participants to expand their reading preferences to other forms of literature (Ujiie & Krashen, 1996). Recognition of individual student preferences is critical to promote motivational reading levels and to improve attitudes towards reading (Krashen, 2004; Nippold, Duthie, & Larsen, 2005; Worthy, Moorman, & Turner, 1999). In essence, the popularity of the graphic novel as a source of reading enjoyment outside of the classroom establishes the necessity for its inclusion within the classroom.

The Language in Graphic Novels

Graphic novels have been well-received among reluctant learners and the ease of readability is particularly advantageous for early and second language learners. In general, the content is presented at a manageable level with less text per page, allowing readers to complete an entire story within a reasonable time frame (Cary, 2004). However, variability in text quantity may be quite significant as some estimates of words per novel claim an average of 12,400 words while other word count estimates have been as high as 20,000 (Miller, 2005). Nevertheless, discrepancies in these calculations simply demonstrate the growing popularity of graphic novels and the subsequent availability of a wide array of reading materials.

The language contained in graphic novels is especially helpful for foreign language learners. The content generally consists of dialogues that depict authentic conversation, containing many of the features found in natural spoken communication. These may include aspects of language that are often excluded from typical textbooks, such as ". . . ellipsis, blends, non-words, vague lexis, confirmation checks, contrastive stress, new topic signals, nonverbal language, mitigators, [and] routine/ritual phrases . . ." (Cary, 2004, p. 33). The availability of authentic conversational features in the content of graphic novels is a valuable and accessible source for language learners with some of the closest written and visual representations of the spoken form in print. Authentic conversational language with accompanying visual representations offers a structured and accessible form that may be conveniently integrated into foreign language teaching. In addition, a large proportion of graphic novels published in the commercial markets are humor-oriented, and educators may even focus on these aspects of the target language to enhance cultural understanding. Filled with dialogues that are commonly used in daily life, the culturally rich elements of colloquialism, slang, and humor can provide students with an abundant source of educationally appropriate content.

THE VISUAL EDGE

In the digital era, some contend that the definition of literacy should be expanded and not be viewed from merely a singular perspective. Literacy now necessitates a collective multidimensional analysis of words, art, culture, and other texts to be read and interpreted for meaning (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003). Graphic novels have been specifically mentioned as an effective means of enhancing visual literacy, sharpening and deepening comprehension (Burmark, 2008; Schwarz, 2006). Additionally, the permanent visual presence of panels in graphic novels is advantageous for language learners who may more easily decipher meaning without the constraints found in other time-bound visual media forms. Multiple processes are involved in the reading of graphic novels that include deciphering meaning of a sequence of events, interpreting nonverbal gestures of characters, establishing the plot, and relating interferences (Lyga, 2006). Students must increasingly confront multiple formats of images and texts blended together to convey meaning in an ever-more-digitally dependent society (Lapp, Flood, & Fisher, 1999). In response to emerging technological dependence and multisensory utilization, educators should recognize and adjust accordingly to the resultant changes in the communicative medium and incorporate relevant materials into EFL pedagogy (Derrick, 2008). In addition, researchers examining reading and graphic novels have identified increased proficiency in the ability of readers to interpret gestures, facial expressions, movements in space, typography, use of color, sequencing of panels, along with an array of other visual elements (Cary, 2004; Rudiger, 2006). Recognition of the importance of supplementary visual components to develop skills in early literacy learning has led to demands for the inclusion of graphic novels throughout K-12 school curriculums (Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu, 2008; Fenwick, 1998; Hughes, 1998). Combining traditional texts with aspects of visual literacy, graphic novels may present a viable and effective means for learning in an increasingly digital-dependent society.

Among numerous theoretical models that attempt to offer insight into the effects of the visual element in reading comprehension, Paivio's dual-coding theory (Paivio, 1971, 1986, 2007) has emerged with one of the most prominent and plausible explanations. The dual-coding theory proposes that two separate memory systems exist for processing verbal and visual information. The verbal system processes linguistic variables, and an imagery system handles visual codes. Although separate, these systems are also theoretically interconnected. The visual code of an object can be linked to its verbal representation and vice versa. According to Mayer and Simms (1994), these referential connections could allow information to be memorized more effectively. Dual processing may also be advantageous in the event of only partial availability of information. In cases of incomplete information in one system, activation of recall from the other system could result in retrieval of additional information. Scholarly interest in dual-coding theory and its relevance in language learning have generated numerous studies examining the impact of the visual element in relation to reading and vocabulary acquisition (Kost, Foss, & Lenzini, 1999; Nassaji, 2004; Pan & Pan, 2009; Yoshi & Flaitz, 2002).

A number of studies investigating extensive reading schemes that included comics and graphic novels have found that among an array of benefits observed, students also developed an increased level of confidence in reading (Krashen, 2005; Worthy, Moorman, & Turner, 1999). In the reading of graphic novels, the dual-code effect can be particularly advantageous for language learners in comprehending dialogue in situations with visual representations of characters interacting with one another, thereby providing a number of simultaneous paralinguistic cues (Williams, 1995). The complexities involved in certain aspects of situational dialogue may be avoided with the utilization of visual representations to supplement delivery of information more effectively to language learners. Moreover, as accompanying illustrations may provide readers with parallel information, the addition of these visual aids may help reduce frequent pauses and delays such as pondering or consulting dictionaries, a common hindrance among EFL readers. Moreover, parallel text-visual information may offer support to readers needing to focus their attention more towards the content of the dialogue. In providing a supplementary visual source of information that corresponds to text, the graphic novel presents a reference aid that allows readers to confidently acquire a more thorough understanding of material, reinforcing meaning and focus on relevant content.

The Study

As support for the introduction of graphic novels into the EFL educational field is gradually gaining ground, studies specifically addressing the educational validity of graphic novels in foreign language education have remained limited. As research concerning this issue has primarily focused on elementary school-aged children in L1 settings, the cultural contrast found in EFL environments with a broad range of readers necessitates examining the potential role of graphic novels with a more diverse age group of learners. In particular, the following study examines the potential effects of reading graphic novels among several groups of Japanese EFL university students. The study attempted to assess students' reading habits, use of digital reading tools, and reactions to reading graphic novels with computerized tablets.

Participants

The participants consisted of 105 undergraduate students enrolled in EFL reading courses at either Meio University or the University of the Ryukyus in Okinawa, Japan. English proficiency levels of the participants ranged from lower-intermediate to high-intermediate. The variability in the range of proficiency levels among students majoring in different subject areas provided a random sample closely representative of the general EFL student population in a typical Japanese university.

Procedure

The participants were provided with a variety of digital and print versions of text-visual reading materials that consisted of English comics, *manga*, and graphic novels. These materials were read in class and as homework assignments via computers, cellphones, digital tablets, and print. Time devoted to the reading activity typically consisted of 20–25 minutes per class. The assignment was administered for a total of five weeks in 90-minute classes that met twice a week. Homework reading assignments were designed similarly to the concept of free voluntary reading (Krashen, 2005). Although the reading materials were limited to the text-visual format, students were given a substantial variety of materials to choose from. Additionally, variability in quantity of reading resulted due to the system of free voluntary reading. In this system, students are provided reading materials and encouraged without force to read. Despite the potential reluctance of some students to cooperate as planned, the overall majority of students were enthusiastic to participate in the reading activities. After several weeks of sampling these text-visual reading materials, a Likert-scale survey was distributed to all participants to assess general reading habits, and an open-ended questionnaire attempted to assess reactions to reading graphic novels.

Findings and Discussion

Following a five-week span of exposure to a variety of text-visual reading materials that were made available in print and several digital delivery platforms, a survey and open-ended questionnaire were administered to the participants. In regard to general reading habits (Table 1), the majority of respondents reading at high frequencies indicated a preference for reading in paper format as opposed to a small percentage of respondents who preferred digital reading. In fact, nearly half of the respondents indicated "never" to reading in the digital format while a high percentage of other respondents indicated a low frequency of reading in the digital format. Those reading books on a more regular basis (specifically, daily to weekly), indicated a 4.5 times stronger preference for paper as opposed to a digital format. In addition, those who read articles on a regular basis stated a 2.2 times stronger preference for paper over digital, but the differences were less substantial. Nevertheless, there remains a clinging attachment to traditional paper reading materials.

Table 1. Student Reading Habits for Frequency and Format

	Format			
Frequency	**Articles** Paper	**Books** Paper	**Articles** Digital	**Books** Digital
Daily	18	20	7	3
Several times a week	24	42	13	11
Once a week	21	19	8	4
Several times a month	22	17	23	19
Once a month	22	17	14	13
Several times a year	22	17	23	19
Never	10	4	36	48

The open-ended questionnaire focused attention more directly to the text-visual element (see Appendix). The majority of responses to questions inquiring about the reading of graphic novels were positive. There was an overwhelming consensus that the visual element was a complimentary supplement that could aid students in the comprehension of text. For instance, many of the students stated that the addition of illustrations was helpful for them in following the story (e.g., ". . . with pictures, I could understand [the] story easily. I could understand the content and imagine the scene easily"). Similar statements from other students indicated that the addition of illustrations were helpful for them to understand the situation of the story as it unfolded. Some students felt that the illustrations helped them deal with vocabulary limitations (e.g., "I could read more easily with pictures because when I met some unknown words, I could guess the meaning of the words"). A number of similar responses seemed to indicate that the illustrations were a critical aid for them to guess the meaning of vocabulary items. In situations where an individual's vocabulary level may not be adequate to deal with the immediate text, or in situations when the context available may lack enough detail for one to deduce meaning, illustrations may be paramount. The overall responses to the questionnaires indicated that the introduction of graphic novels were positively accepted by this particular group of EFL learners. These results are encouraging for language educators, and it would be interesting to see a similar investigation conducted on a larger scale.

Conclusions

In addition to the findings above, it remains crucial for teachers to continue to strive to maintain an awareness of their students' reading preferences and to recognize the potential benefits of integrating materials that may more strongly appeal to them. The popularity and heightened status of *manga*, comics, and graphic novels as a customary and established form of reading in a number of EFL settings should encourage teachers to consider the potential benefits of introducing these materials into the classroom. As a means of acquiring and maintaining interest levels, educators should both recognize and offer reading materials that more closely resemble the genuine reading preferences of their students. The visual elements that have motivated and guided struggling L1 readers to obtain a higher degree of interest and comprehension in reading may also offer similar beneficial results to L2 readers in this age of digital dependency.

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Appendix

Reading Class Survey

1) I studied kanji ___ years before I think I was able to read & write it proficiently.

2) I think a person will have to use computers _____ years before they are able to use them proficiently for daily tasks.

Please answer the following questions using a 5-point scale:

1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree; 3 = No opinion; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree

3) I am the type of person who needs instruction before I feel confident to do a task.

4) My friends teach me many things (general).

5) I want computer instruction in university.

6) I consider myself proficient at using computers = I can use them well.

7) There are vital things I learned from my friends about using a computer.

8) There are vital things I learned from my friends about using my phone.

9) I learned how to use my phone ___% by myself.

10) I have a smartphone.

A = Yes; B = No

11) I have:

A) a PC computer (Microsoft)
B) a PC tablet
C) a Mac computer
D) a Mac tablet (iPad)
E) an Android tablet (e.g., Nexus)
F) a Kindle tablet
G) another kind of tablet

12) I want... (Choose only 3 and rank them. 1 = want most...)

A) a PC computer (Microsoft)
B) a PC tablet
C) a Mac computer
D) a Mac tablet (iPad)
E) an Android tablet (e.g., Nexus)
F) a Kindle tablet
G) another kind of tablet

Please answer the following questions using a 7-point scale:
1 = Every day, 2 = Several times a week; 3 = Once a week; 4 = Several times a month; 5 = Once a month; 6 = Several times a year; 7 = Never

13) I had computer instruction in high school.

14) I had computer instruction in junior high school.

15) I read **Japanese** books in paper format.

16) I read **English** books in paper format.

17) I read **Japanese** articles (*manga*, news, academic, etc.) in paper format.

18) I read **English** articles (*manga*, news, academic, etc.) in paper format.

19) I read **Japanese** books in PDF file format.

20) I read **English** books in PDF file format.

21) I read **Japanese** articles (*manga*, news, academic, etc.) in PDF file format.

22) I read **English** articles (*manga*, news, academic, etc.) in PDF file format.

Please answer the following questions using a 5-point scale:
1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree; 3 = No opinion; 4; Agree; 5 Strongly agree

23) I can use the index of a paper book to find information.

24) I can use the index of a PDF book to find information.

25) I know what a PDF is.

26) I can highlight a PDF.

27) I can search for a word inside a PDF.

28) I can underline in a PDF.

29) I can make a note in a PDF.

30) I can add/remove pages in a PDF.

31) I can enlarge an image or text in a PDF.

32) I can take a screen shot in a PDF.

33) I can look up the meaning of a word using PDFs (like a dictionary)

34) I can copy and paste text from a PDF.

35) I can change the name of a file (such as a PDF) using a computer.

36) I can change the name of a file (such as a PDF) using my phone.

Please write your responses to the following questions.

37) What is your impression of reading comics and graphic novels in this course?

38) How effective do you believe comics and graphic novels are for language education?

39) What are the advantages and disadvantages of reading comics and graphic novels?

40) If given a choice between text-only and text-visual (e.g., comics), which would you choose and why?

Literacy Autobiography in EFL Contexts: Investigating Japanese Student Language Learning Experiences

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The current study investigates the value of writing literacy autobiographies in the Japanese EFL context. This study employs Pavlenko's (2007) methodological framework, using autobiographic narratives as data, and investigates six Japanese EFL students' L2 learning experiences through their literacy autobiographies. The study showed that literacy autobiographies written by the participants revealed four problems in their L2 learning: pronunciations, grammatical knowledge, creating English sentences, and learning approaches. It also revealed that literacy autobiographies described problems and difficulties that Japanese students encountered in their learning processes. In this sense, writing literacy autobiographies was a useful task for the students not only to reflect on their learning histories but to explore more effective ways to learn English as life-long learners.

INTRODUCTION

A literacy autobiography is viewed as an appropriate research method in the field of applied linguistics. Specifically, using autobiographical narratives is helpful to elucidate learners' journeys in second language (L2) acquisition and teachers' experiences in L2 learning contexts. Previous studies of literacy autobiographies reflect a view of L2 learners' unique experiences of literacy and of in-service teachers' experiences in L2 classrooms (Belcher & Connor, 2001; Blanton, Kroll, Cumming, Erickson, Johns, Leki, Reid, & Silva, 2002; Johnson & Golombek, 2002). As Belcher and Connor point out, an autobiography is seen as "providing windows on learners' metalinguistic awareness, capable of telling us much about their conscious use of language learning strategies" (pp. 3-4). Thus, literacy autobiographies can be a valuable data source to give a descriptive analysis in L2 contexts (Pavlenko, 2007).

However, there is scant reporting on the relationship between literacy autobiographies and English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) students. Exploring this research issue will suggest that autobiographical writing helps language learners to understand problems or struggles in their language learning process and explore more effective ways to learn English as life-long learners. These findings will be employed to propose practical guidelines for teaching literacy autobiographies, in a teacher-training program, as a way for pre-service teachers to consider more efficient approaches to teaching and learning English.

This paper discusses the potential contribution of writing literacy autobiographies in narratives to L2 education and the teachability of literacy autobiographies in the EFL classroom. First, it reviews previous studies of literacy autobiographies in L2 contexts. Secondly, it describes a case study of literacy autobiographies and Japanese EFL students. The main objective of the current study was to use literacy autobiographies written by Japanese EFL students as data to identify what problems and issues they encountered in their L2 learning process. In so doing, this paper makes contributions to the development of an awareness of teaching literacy autobiographies in the L2 classroom.

Literacy Autobiography in L2 Contexts

Writing literacy autobiographies allows learners to understand their learning processes to show "their insider's view of the processes of language learning, attrition, and use" (Pavlenko, 2007, p. 165). There were few studies which addressed the use of literacy autobiographies in L2 professional references in the 1990s; however, research on L2 students' literacy development has flourished since the early 2000s. For the purpose of understanding the processes of L2 literacy with a critical eye, previous studies highlighted how the individual went through difficulties and problems to improve the L2 literacy skills. For instance, Fujieda (2001) examined his own experiences of reading and writing in Japanese and English. He reflected on his numerous biliteracy activities, events, and practices inside and outside the school. Fujieda's study revealed that literacy autobiographies provided a chance to realize his development of language proficiencies as a language learner.

Belcher and Connor (2001) collected literacy autobiographies of distinguished scholars. The scholars elucidated their unique experiences in their L2 or multiple languages. From the perspectives of L2 writing scholarship, Belcher and Connor argue that literacy autobiography is significant for pedagogy and research because it enables learners to raise their metalinguistic awareness by reflecting on various language learning strategies.

Literacy autobiographies have been applied to the area of teaching L2 composition and L2 education. Collections of teachers' autobiographical narratives focused on teaching experiences of diverse learning settings and presented teachers' ways of knowing their profession. Blanton et al. (2002) illustrated several episodes of teaching writing to ESL students. The stories of teaching L2 writing shared by scholars contributed to wider discussions on the problems and potential ways of teaching writing in L2 settings. Johnson and Golombek (2002) also investigated L2 teachers' autobiographies in order to find problems and concerns of teaching in different contexts and to construct teachers' professional knowledge and identities as L2 teaching professionals.

Moreover, the concept of literacy autobiographies has been widely accepted among L2 writing scholars. For example, Casanave and Vandrick (2003) emphasized the distinguished scholars' processes of publication, uncovering their "backstage problems or struggles" of publications. The collections of the authors' scholarly publication unpacked their processes, challenges, and conflicts to publish their work: how the scholars engaged in the systems of publication and how they achieved publication, negotiating with gatekeepers and publishing discourse communities.

Recently, cross-cultural autobiographies have been used as a meaningful way to explore literacy events. Fujieda (2010) examined how he negotiated his identities to be an L2 writing teacher and researcher by reflecting on his L2 learning experiences. Fujieda's autobiography in narrative found that literacy autobiographies allow for reconstruction and negotiation of identity, reflecting the writer's values developed through real-life experiences. In Park's (2013) study, she investigated how she situated herself as a teacher, scholar, researcher, and Korean-American woman in American society through the analysis of poems of her life history. Through her autoethonographic-poetic research, Park emphasized the significance of using personal life stories as a way to examine the development of teacher educators in TESOL programs.

In this way, previous studies of literacy autobiographies focused mainly on researchers' and teachers' stories and experiences. However, very few empirical studies have reported on the use of literacy autobiographies written by L2 students. It is arguable whether having L2 (especially EFL) students write autobiographies is meaningful in the composition classroom. In order to evaluate autobiographical writing as a tool for L2 learning, the current study addressed the following two research questions:

1. How do Japanese EFL students describe their L2 learning process in their autobiographical texts?
2. What is the potential contribution of writing a literacy autobiography to L2 learning and teaching?

METHODS

Pavlenko (2007) argues that illustrating learners' reflective accounts of language learning provides a glimpse into their struggles, success, and/or development and offers a powerful underpinning for presenting their sense of self and identity. Based on Pavlenko's framework, the current study employed a qualitative research design to explore the participants' L2 learning experiences through their literacy autobiographies.

Participants

Participants in the current study were six Japanese undergraduate students (one male and five female) who registered in a Second Language Literacy course at a four-year private university. They were all English majors: four juniors and two sophomores. They had learned English for over seven years, starting in elementary school and junior high school (at the age of 11-13).

Data Collection

Data were collected in the 2013 spring semester. In the Second Language Literacy course, the participants were required to write their literacy autobiographies. The primary goal of this course requirement was to reflect on and understand their literacy events and practices through their literacy autobiographies. During the semester, the participants made multiple drafts of their autobiographies. In the first three weeks, the participants reflected on and wrote their language learning experiences in elementary school. Then, they spent around six weeks writing up their literacy events in secondary school. Finally, they wrote their literacy experiences at the tertiary level for another three weeks. One of the investigators provided written feedback after the participants made a draft of their literacy practices at each educational level. After completing the full draft of literacy autobiographies, a peer response session was held at the end of the semester. Based on the peers and the teacher's written commentary, their drafts were revised. In this way, each of the participants produced their own literacy autobiographies, and these were collected as the primary data source.

Data Analysis

The data analysis employed the categorization of the participants' written texts following the methodological guidelines developed by Hanauer (2001) and Iida (2012). The analysis was comprised of three stages. The first stage involved the careful reading of all sentences in the six autobiographical essays. The purpose of this initial analysis was to create and propose a tentative coding system. The second stage was to develop a tentative coding system. During this analysis, the investigators subjected each sentence of the autobiographical texts with the coding system, and new categories were added to it as necessary. Doing so allowed for a clear distinction between categories. The third stage of analysis was to evaluate the reliability of the coding system. Both investigators independently re-analyzed and categorized all sentences using the coding system produced in the previous stage.

This coding system allowed for the creation of five categories concerning the participants' L2 learning: learning sources, tasks, purposes, environments, and problems. The current study focused on one of the categories, *problems*, and identified what problems or struggles the participants had in their learning process.

Results

The results of the qualitative analysis of the participants' literacy autobiographies revealed four major problem areas in their L2 learning processes: pronunciation, grammatical knowledge, creating English sentences, and learning approaches. This section addresses each problem with examples and excerpts from the participants' autobiographies. All names shown in excerpts are pseudonyms.

The first problem is *pronunciation*. In the following excerpt, Kumi illustrates how challenging a task it is for her to pronounce the sounds /l/ and /r/ or /th/ and /f/ correctly.

> When I was an elementary school student, sometimes I sang the English alphabet song with my friends but it was not true alphabet pronunciation so I learned

> these in junior high school. Now I remember I thought “R” and “L”’ pronunciation was difficult because these sounds do not have in Japanese pronunciations. Moreover “th” and “f” was more difficult to read. For example, I read aloud “think” but my pronunciation was “sink” like Japanese. Even now, I think English pronunciation is very difficult...

Learning *grammatical knowledge* is the second problem. It seems difficult for L2 learners to understand new grammatical knowledge of the target language when the concept does not exist in their first language. In the following excerpt, Kana explains her struggle and difficulty in understanding the notion of present perfect tense in English grammar.

> The most awkward grammar to understand was the same as reading; understanding present perfect. In some cases, I have to use “have,” and other cases “had,” “had been,” or “have been.” I had answered a thousand of questions using enormous textbooks. I feel embarrassed, however still now I am not able to use present perfect correctly.

Kana continues to explain how she tried her best to understand the concept of present perfect. She studied it with a workbook and practiced over and over again.

> When I solved [answered] many questions [of present perfect] that concerned with grammar using workbooks, it was hard for me to make right answers. I tried very hard to remember the rule of the present perfect, but it was not easy. To overcome the difficulty [in understanding the grammatical rules], I kept studying with the workbooks. Sometimes I stayed up late at midnight to solve [answer] questions of grammar, especially when it was close to take the examination of the semester. Making sentences with correct grammar was always related to taking tests. If I misunderstood the grammar, I would get lower ranking of all the students. (The words and phrases in square brackets, here and below, have been added for clarity.)

The third problem in L2 learning experiences is related to the difficulty of *constructing sentences* (or to study sentence structures) in English. The following excerpt shows how the task of putting words in correct order is challenging to Kana.

> ... I tried very hard to make correct sentences from the words which were not in order, but it was too hard for me to make the answers. This was because a lot of words which were not in order were unknown for me. There were some words that I knew, but still I could see many words that I do not know. This learning process made my motivation to learn English down. However if I was able to stand this learning process, I could get higher ranking of all of the students [in my high school class].

Kana’s autobiography also addressed the issue of the relationship between the level of task difficulty and her L2 proficiency. She explained the task in which she needed to place several words in the right order, but a lot of unfamiliar words in the exercise made it difficult for her to complete the task. This refers to her assigned task being beyond her L2 proficiency level. As a result, the task demotivated her to continue to study English.

The fourth problem is related to *L2 learning approaches*. Learning styles or approaches vary from one learner to another, depending on his or her language aptitude, proficiency level, and/or purpose of language learning. However, one of the common and well-used learning approaches among Japanese students is to learn L2 linguistic knowledge by heart. Mamoru addresses this issue in the following excerpt:

> This was not the requirement or assignment from the school, but helpful for the English class – I tried to *remember* English sentences. This does not only mean that I *remembered* English idioms, but also literally *memorize* English sentences like "I am a junior high school student." I did not like *remembering* English grammars properly, but I tried to acquire English grammars as I *remember* English sentences instead. This worked perfectly to me, and soon I became be able to get high score on English tests. The purpose of this is to acquire English or other languages' grammar of course. But I know it is good to *remember* grammars using grammatical terms. I still use this technique to understand foreign languages' grammars, but if I am told to explain more specifically, I would not be able to teach anyone. (Emphasis added.)

As can be seen in the above excerpt, Mamoru's learning approach depends heavily on input. In this short narrative, he used the word *remember* five times and *memorize* once. This indicates how important and meaningful it was for him to learn linguistic knowledge in his L2 learning process. In fact, it seems that he was satisfied with his memorization-based learning approach because he could score higher points on English tests, and it was good enough for him to make himself understood. In this sense, memorization was a useful approach to Mamoru.

DISCUSSION

The current study examines six Japanese EFL students' L2 learning experiences through their literacy autobiographies. Literacy autobiographies written by Japanese students describe some common characteristics in their L2 learning processes.

One of the features is that Japanese students were inclined to emphasize input rather than output in learning English. This is not surprising, but their literacy autobiographies presented very little description of how they used the target language. While this finding problematizes the limitation of language use outside the classroom, it clearly explains in what way students study English in the context: learning English by memorizing and remembering grammatical knowledge and vocabulary.

In addition, the literacy autobiographies showed that Japanese students focused more on accuracy than fluency in learning English. It seems that they tended to work on drill exercises to increase the accuracy of language use. As Kana mentioned, she needed to answer a lot of grammar questions in the workbook to gain a better understanding of the target grammar (e.g., present perfect). Her literacy autobiography addressed the issue of grammar learning and EFL learners: Just understanding the *form* including the grammar rule is not enough to develop grammatical knowledge; rather it is important for her to understand the notion and *function* of the target grammar. As Keith and Iida (2014) argue, explicit grammar instruction can be more necessary or meaningful for Japanese students in order to develop the accurate use of the target grammar.

Another common feature that Japanese students shared is the purpose of English language learning: learning for English proficiency tests. Literacy autobiographies written by Kana and Mamoru clearly explain how the factor of English tests affected their learning approaches, emotions, and attitudes toward English language learning. In the case of Mamoru, one of his learning strategies, *memorization* helped him to score higher points on English tests, and this test factor motivated him to study grammar harder. Kana's autobiography, on the other hand, describes her stressful situation in which she had to study English harder to score higher points on the English test and, more importantly, to avoid being ranked lower in her high school English class. In this way, literacy autobiographies written by Japanese students provide qualitative evidence that, due to this purpose of language learning, Japanese students had to depend on input-based and accuracy-focused learning approaches.

The contribution of the current study to the field of TESOL and applied linguistics is to provide empirical support for Pavlenko's (2007) theoretical argument of the usage of autobiography in applied linguistics: An autobiography is used as data to explore L2 learners' personal life stories. This study shows that autobiographical data can be used for the investigation of a more focused topic than personal life stories; that is, to examine L2 learning histories of Japanese students. With the expansion of the research findings of Iida and Fujieda (2013): that a literacy autobiography is a tool to understand L2 learners' learning sources, tasks, environments, and purposes; this study also allows teachers and researchers to discover difficulties or problems L2 learners faced in their learning processes.

Conclusions

The current study has explored the value of writing literacy autobiographies in the Japanese EFL context. It provides some empirical support for theoretical assumptions of using literacy autobiography in the L2 classroom: (a) Writing literacy autobiographies is a meaningful task for students to increase their awareness of language learning processes, and (b) data on literacy autobiographies are useful for teachers and researchers to analyze and better understand students' L2 learning experiences.

The Author

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Authentic Tasks with Mobile Apps and Web 2.0 Tools

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Task adaptation and hands-on practice for teachers employing level-appropriate mobile technology and Web 2.0 tools provide learners with authentic language learning experiences while also meeting the objectives of a required set curriculum. The use of mobile apps and Web 2.0 resources facilitates class work, increases student motivation, and fosters collaborative learning in foreign language education. This paper familiarizes teachers with how best to use mobile technology and Web 2.0 tools to effectively integrate technology into authentic language learning task design by adapting textbook activities to develop learners' communicative competence. A description of different types of sample tasks is provided to model the effective use of mobile technology features to create authentic language tasks for different language skills and proficiency levels.

INTRODUCTION

The ubiquitous nature of mobile devices, smart phones, social networking platforms, and Web 2.0 applications provides a variety of resources for teachers to facilitate learning by adapting the existing classroom setting and textbook tasks to enhance the authenticity of the task and learner engagement. Tasks can be adapted to accommodate learners' interests, motivational orientation, personality, learning styles, and place of learning among a range of other criteria (see Figure 1).

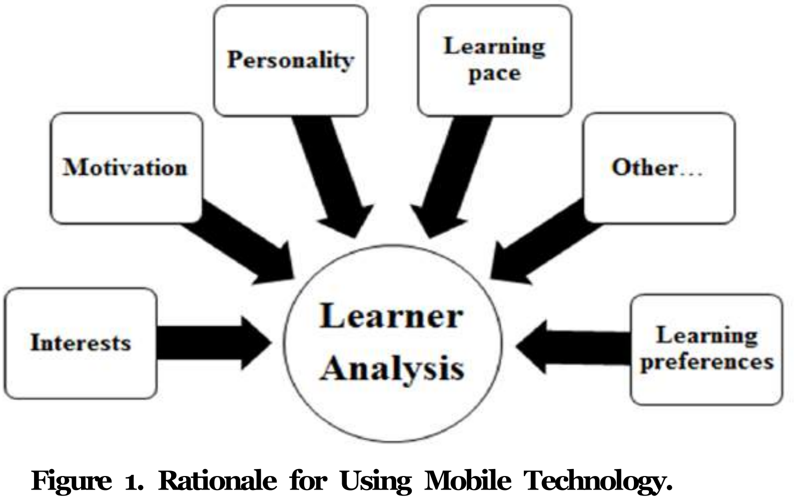

Figure 1. Rationale for Using Mobile Technology.

In doing so, the learning experience not only meets curriculum criteria but also better engages learners. Additionally, the use of mobile technology matches the current experiences of today's technology-savvy users outside of the classroom. When mobile technology and Web 2.0 applications are used, tasks better replicate authentic communication in target language contexts and increase meaningful interaction. However, the mobile technology tools available exist on a continuum of media richness and interactivity. The continuum of interaction ranges from learning object repositories that support self-directed learning with little or no direct interaction on one end of the scale to highly interactive communities of practice that make use of social media at the other end of the scale. Such synchronous communication facilitates both meaning-oriented task-based communication and focus-on-form (Long, 1997) objectives required to foster proficiency. This paper describes different forms of mobile learning technology available, followed by an overview of task-based adaptations. Then, sample activities using mobile devices and Web 2.0 tools are presented, along with task adaptation and instructional strategies. Finally, logistical and instructional strategies are addressed.

Mobile Learning Technology

In and outside the classroom, learners are exposed to a wide range of mobile technology tools through their own personal devices such as smart phones and tablets. Also, Wi-Fi access and a wireless network are available in the classroom on mobile devices and computers in most schools. This easy access to the Internet and target language/culture apps allows learners to be immersed in authentic target language content at their own pace and in their own personal learning environment without adult supervision and/or peer interaction. Such self-directed learning can foster learners to engage in in-depth comprehension of authentic content, develop time-management skills, and direct their attention to topics of interest for their target language learning. Considering that learners have different levels of proficiency, interests, and abilities, teachers' guidance at the beginning is critical for learners to build self-directed learning skills. As mobile apps vary, the selection of appropriate content apps for target-language and culture learning should ensure the quality of content and learning over time. The main factors in selecting target-language content apps are (a) authenticity: Is the authentic content relevant to learners and learning objectives? (b) relevance: Is the content relevant to real-life encounters beyond the classroom? (c) pedagogical purpose: Does the content present the topic or issue in an appropriate manner? (d) text level: Does the content offer the quality of content suitable for the learners' proficiency level and lesson objectives? (e) interest: Does the content meet learners' interests and needs?

All mobile apps are not alike. They can be divided into three main categories: authentic content apps, communication/process apps, and production apps (see Table 1).

Table 1. Types of Mobile Language Learning Apps

Type of App	Example Apps
Authentic Content Apps	Target-language (TL) news apps, YouTube, podcasts, various TL vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation apps
Communication Apps	Target-language messaging/texting apps, Skype, audio/video conferencing apps, social media
Learning Outcomes Production Apps	PowerPoint, MS Word, Notes, Keynotes, Pages, Evernote, Pocket WavePad, voice recording apps, video camera apps, animation creation apps, Linoit

Authentic Content Apps

Content apps provide learners access to a wide variety of authentic language input. In general, major news apps in the target language country are reliable sources of authentic content for learners to immerse themselves in up-to-date news, social events, and various stories on topics popular among target language speakers in the country. Target language news apps also provide various types of input such as multimedia, images and charts, audios, podcasts, videos, and transcripts. The multiple sources and types of content can accommodate various learning styles such as strongly visual learners versus auditory learners. For culture learning apps, learners can view YouTube videos and other free apps that contain soap-opera dramas, talk shows, comics, food topics, customs, religions, and various aspects of target language culture. These mobile apps allow learners to explore authentic content based on their interests, research assignments, and further their knowledge of target language and culture in a personally meaningful way, rather than learning from fixed, outdated, and fabricated materials in the conventional classroom environments.

Communication/Process Apps

Communication/process apps facilitate self-practice with a built-in feedback system, repeated drills, and focus on form to enhance accuracy in the target language. Example apps include the apps that focus on pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar learning without a teacher's instruction or peer interaction. However, such self-directed learning alone with mobile technology may limit learners' ability to effectively develop productive skills (speaking and writing) and does not foster communicative competence (real-life spoken communication), unless there is an opportunity for learners to share what they did for self-study and/or create their own content to be shared with others. In this regard, various communication apps contribute to facilitate peer interaction and the sharing of knowledge and ideas between the teacher and learners or among learners. This interaction allows learners to transition smoothly from the use of self-directed learning mobile apps to the other end of the continuum of interactive and collaborative learning apps.

Most commonly used communicative, interaction mobile apps include target language texting/messaging apps, Skype, audio/video conferencing apps, and social media such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. The value of using these mobile communication apps lies in deepening individual learning of authentic content in a personal setting by sharing what was read, listened to, or watched with their peers. Such interactions facilitate learners to not only exchange with their own opinions or questions on the topic of the shared content, but also to gain multiple perspectives or insights on a topic of the target language and culture. To make mobile interactions meaningful and purposeful for learners outside the classroom, it is critical for teachers to guide communication norms and the choice of interaction apps for continuity throughout the program. More importantly, providing a scenario or role allows learners to focus on real-life language use in context and take responsibility for their own individual learning by sharing with their peers.

Content Creation/Production Apps

Content creation apps allow learners to demonstrate and express what they learned individually or collaboratively. The types of learning outcomes production apps offer also allow teachers to accommodate diverse learning styles and offer multiple ways of creating learner-generated content such as e-books, movie clips, audio clips, podcasts, and animations. Learning outcomes can take a variety of forms based on the topic, learning objectives, and task scenario of the lesson. For example, learners can act out and videotape their role-play and share the clip with their classmates. Creating video or audio cooking instructions is also an engaging, interactive, and realistic way of demonstrating learning, rather than writing their own recipes in their notes or verbally sharing with their partners in the conventional classroom. The value of learner-generated content using mobile apps is that they make collaboration and sharing of each other's work easy for peer feedback and self-reflection as learners can review and save their digital content.

Task Adaptation Techniques and Instructional Strategies

As mobile technology rapidly advances, it can be daunting for teachers to keep abreast of and use mobile technology in a pedagogically sound manner. The key to integrating it into task-based instruction is to identify what mobile devices and Web 2.0 tools best serve to present, practice, or produce language for a given lesson. First, select one textbook activity that you have adapted into a task or an existing task and identify ways to utilize mobile technology to enhance the completion of the task. Next, consider the apps available in terms of their function: content, communication/process, and product, as discussed above. Then, identify ways to use the mobile apps with respect to these three categories and your learning objectives.

Yet not all our learners are the same, so we may also wish to adapt tasks to differentiate instruction for learner diversity. The task design can be adjusted to adapt *content*, presenting learners different information with respect to his/her interests, learning preferences, topic knowledge, etc. The task design can also be

7differentiated based on the form of the content such as texts, audio, or video. The *process*, or activities, can be adjusted for learners to engage with different cognitive skills ranging from memorization to creation based on Bloom's taxonomy. The *product*, or final outcome, can request that learners generate diverse tangible means of demonstrating his/her learning. Tangible outcomes can take many forms such as role-playing, written/oral presentation, debates, or projects such as a short film-making. By varying these three dimensions of our task design, and using mobile technology and Web 2.0 apps, we can offer a flexible learning environment that better meets the needs of diverse learners in our classrooms.

To demonstrate how mobile technology can be incorporated into task design, two sample tasks are presented. These samples are not intended to be ideal model tasks, but simply examples of how technology and the principles of task design can be combined to provide learners with more authentic target language interaction in and out of the classroom.

Sample Lesson 1: Adaptation with Mobile Technology and Web 2.0 Applications

First, this section provides a sample activity using mobile technology and Web 2.0 applications to adapt a set lesson in an EFL classroom. The lesson topic is renewable energy with a grammar focus on the use of the first conditional. Knowing this lesson is coming up, the teacher can prepare a pre-lesson activity to provide students with some background knowledge on the topic as well as expose them to authentic target language materials. This pre-lesson activity can be done in class if time allows or can be assigned as an out-of-class activity to be done at home.

Step 1

Students, in groups, are assigned to watch one of three renewable energy videos available online. Group A is asked to watch a video on wind energy, Group B on solar energy, and Group C on hydroelectric energy. If students complete the pre-lesson activity in class, they can watch their assigned video independently on their device or can sit together and watch their assigned video on one shared device. If they are doing the pre-lesson activity out of class, students can watch their assigned video independently at home or together on one device on a class break or on school grounds during free time.

Step 2

Students are provided with a graphic organizer relating to their assigned video to fill in while watching the video or after watching it. If students are in groups in class, they can complete the graphic organizer collaboratively offering an opportunity for meaningful communication to negotiate the meaning of the video content. The graphic organizer provides scaffolding for the students to identify what is important in the video, as authentic material can be difficult for learners used to dealing primarily with textbook or semi-authentic materials. Depending on the level of the students and the difficulty of the authentic material used, the graphic organizer can be completely empty with it being the responsibility of the learner to capture content from the video and note it in the correct portion of the graphic organizer, or it can be a partially completed one with prompts in each portion of the graphic organizer to prompt learners, or it can even be one that is almost completely filled out with only word gaps for learners to fill in isolated key words. The graphic organizer can be printed out and completed by hand or students can be asked to complete it electronically on their devices.

Step 3

At this point, some students have information on wind energy, while others on solar, and others still on hydroelectric energy, as all students have not watched all three videos. So, there is a meaningful opportunity for students to share their specific knowledge with their group members to complete a new graphic organizer addressing all three forms of renewable energy that will be used in class for the lesson addressing renewable energy. Students are asked to set up a time to meet using a video conferencing app (e.g., Google Hangouts, Skype, Face Time, Kakao Talk) to share their content on renewable energy with the others and receive information about the other forms of renewable energy that they did not yet study. It makes sense to have the learner complete this part of the pre-lesson activity at home as it generates a realistic use of video conferencing since students are not in the same location and need to communicate, benefiting from the ability to screen-share and/or send images to show completed graphic organizers to support communication.

To avoid a large number of students logged on to a video conferencing session with only a selective few doing the talking, students can be assigned to small groups with a representative from Groups A, B, and C. In this way, each member of the video conferencing sessions is required to present the information they have and also note down the content presented by other members of the group. Additionally, this facilitates students being able to find a convenient time to meet online together as only limited student schedules need to be coordinated.

If the possibility of having students coordinate outside of school hours is slim, the pre-activity could be done between different classes addressing the same topic. In this case, when the video conferencing step occurs students would be collaborating with other students in different classrooms during class time. This is just one suggested alternative to the described activity, but numerous other adaptations can be made based on the learning context and logistical constraints.

Step 4

This is the stage in which you can link the learning from the pre-activity to the textbook material on renewable energy. This can be done by following the actual textbook material in a lock-step fashion as required by the institution in which the teacher works or the teacher can build off of the curriculum material to develop the lesson further using a task-based activity or project-based learning.

Summary Overview

In making simple adaptations using mobile technology and Web 2.0 tools to the sample lesson topic presented here, the lesson incorporated basic principles of Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956) and Howard Gardner's (Gardner, 1983) multiple intelligences as an instructional design framework to develop task-based foreign language learning. The mobile devices and Web 2.0 tools provided multiple means of representation, expression, and engagement for students. The use of digital media also provided the advantage of being recordable, transformable, and transportable, making it possible for it to be personalized for individualized learning needs and to create alternatives for students with a wide range of abilities, interests, and learning preferences. Differentiation can be directed towards the content, process, and/or product of the lesson, providing students with multiple options for taking in information, making sense of the ideas, and demonstrating what they have learned.

Sample Lesson 2: Differentiated Instruction

This second section addresses how differentiated instruction can be incorporated into task-based instruction using mobile devices and Web 2.0 tools. This sample activity utilizes a recent topic in the media, Ebola, to develop learners' ability to read authentic target language news material. Again, students are divided into three groups based on a range of possible considerations (level, skills strength or weakness, etc.).

Group A

Students are asked to read the assigned text by providing them with a link that they can access on their device in or out of class. Students are asked to highlight keywords (i.e., PDF annotating) in the text and summarize the text using the UPAD app or a similar application. Then, they have the task of sharing the story with a friend and are asked to briefly explain why this story is interesting, using Twitter. Students in groups collaboratively develop a Twitter post for their classmates to read or a simulated Twitter post, using an email message, if social media use is not applicable for the school context.

Group B

Students are asked to watch an interview about Ebola on their device via a provided link. Students are asked to make recommendations for health workers working in facilities caring for Ebola patients. Based on the interview, students list and then compare how different practices can limit the spread of Ebola using a chart in Pages or a similar application.

Group C

Students are asked to listen to a news story about Ebola via a provided link on their device. They are asked to share the story with classmates to state their concern or lack of concern with the Ebola outbreak and why. They are asked to paraphrase the story and share their opinions via Skype or similar application.

Follow-up activities producing a tangible outcome while differentiating content, process, and product are as follows:

- **Group A:** Students in groups are asked to create interview questions for their classmates related to the news article and then conduct the interview with those classmates using Pocket WavePad or similar application. Based on the interview results, students create a poster for promoting advisory statements for those traveling to and from Ebola-affected areas using Pages, Pocket WavePad, or videocasting.

- **Group B**: Based on the news report, students make comments on each other's blog comments, using the news report to support their opinions. Again, if the use of social media is not applicable in the school context, private emails can be exchanged among students. Students then create a short video clip as a public safety announcement with instructions on what those returning from an Ebola-affected area will be required to do on return to their home country.
- **Group C:** Students make a short news report about the current situation regarding Ebola and describe the precautions needed to prevent its spread, using students' own choice of apps. Students then are asked to perform a role-play offering advice as healthcare professionals to individuals in the community who are concerned about the outbreak. Students record the role-play with an application of their choice.

Each group is presented with different content that varies the mode of input and possibly the difficultly, depending on the learners' skill abilities. In this way, students can be assigned to groups to stretch their abilities in a particular area. The process is differentiated for each group, ranging from low-level cognitive processes (e.g., listing, comparing, contrasting) to higher-level cognitive processes (e.g., analyzing, evaluating, predicting). Lastly, the product created by each group is differentiated, requiring different language skills, form of delivery, and so on. Again, students can be assigned to groups based on a choice to place them in their comfort zone during the activity or to stretch them by placing them in a group that will be challenging based on their abilities.

It should be noted that the examples described here have differentiated content, process, and product at every stage of the lesson. This is only to serve as a model of what can be adapted within a lesson using mobile technology and Web 2.0 apps. However, a teacher may not wish to differentiate all three areas throughout the whole lesson, but rather to focus on one.

LOGISTICAL AND INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Students often struggle to bring their textbooks and required materials to class and the idea of having students log on to multiple Web 2.0 tools can bring panic to mind, fearing that students will not remember their log-on and passwords to accounts. Also, some students who already have accounts with the selected applications may not want to use their personal accounts for class purposes. To avoid these and other issues, teachers need to consider logistical issues when using Web 2.0 tools.

To begin with, online platforms have user agreements. For example, Google+ allows individuals 13 years and up to use Google+ apps like Hangouts. Google+ allows fictitious names to be used when generating accounts, while platforms like Facebook do not. So, depending on the educational context, the teacher will want to select apps that allow students permission to access them. Next, to avoid the effects of students forgetting log-on and password information, the teacher can create generic usernames and passwords for students (e.g., EFLStudent1, EFLStudent2, etc.). Google+ allows for Circles to be created and content can be posted in one circle but not another, while Facebook does not allow this. For example, a teacher can post an activity or homework in one circle that another circle cannot see, allowing for a jigsaw or information gap activity to be done among the groups. Like with activities in the conventional classroom, the teacher will need to select the material and the apps based on the learning objectives and the logistical feasibility of the tools available.

Conclusions

Students' and teachers' lives outside of school are filled with the use of technology, but full integration of technology into teaching and the curriculum is frequently absent from many classrooms (Means, 2010), as teachers hold on to the use of print textbooks, photocopied handouts, and whiteboards for class notes. Teachers often utilize technology as a tool supporting access to content or the development of materials for students, but technology-based learning activities do not possess the same level of use (Bakia, Means, Gallagher, Chen, & Jones, 2009). This is not to say that there are not technologically savvy and creative teachers effectively incorporating technology-based activities in and out of the classroom. However, many teachers may need guidance on how to incorporate technology into classroom activities and how to handle the hurdles that come with introducing technology into the classroom.

Consequently, the discussion here has highlighted how mobile technology and Web 2.0 apps can be incorporated into a lesson with a need to adhere to a strict curriculum as well as into a more communicative, task-based curriculum with more flexibility. Additionally, the discussion presented how mobile technology can be used to differentiate instruction and in many cases to develop both language skills and the learners' personal knowledge. In doing so, teachers can develop learners' 21st century life skills and increase motivation and engagement in learning by presenting them with real-life tasks to investigate using real-life online sources.

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EFL Literature Circles: Implementation and Assessment

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EFL literature circles create discussion, language awareness, and collaboration among participants. Additionally, they involve the readers with the culture, the characters, and the language used to discuss the story. Students can have a memorable, bonding experience studying a book collectively and trying to understand all aspects of it. The purpose of this paper is to describe how to set up an EFL literature circle and how to assess it. Setting one up involves assigning student roles, such as Discussion Leader, Passage Person, Summarizer, and Graphic Organizer. Additionally, it involves communicating what is expected of each student for each role, and the "rolework" they will be required to create and share. In addition to rolework, there are pre-reading tasks, post-reading tasks, and collaborative tasks that will additionally enhance their reading and understanding of the text. Along with goals to understand and discuss the text, this paper will discuss various options for assessment.

INTRODUCTION

EFL literature circles are a memorable way for students to acquire language and cultural awareness. However, not all teachers know how to set one up, or how to assess it. The purpose of this paper is to present the basics of how they can be useful, and then subsequently how to set one up and assess it in the classroom.

When students learn in groups, students are exposed to more ideas than if they were working alone (Kanamura, Laurier, Plaza, & Shiramizu, 2013). Literature circles fulfill this type of function. Additionally, Harmer (2007) claims that any kind of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) increases meaningful communicative tasks, thereby increasing language acquisition. This type of interaction heightens learner's awareness and pushes them towards being more active in their input processing (VanPatten, 2003). Krashen's (2003) Comprehension Hypothesis discusses how we acquire language and develop literacy through the process of understanding what we hear and read. Students working together can make meaning of the text together and learn together. Vgotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) connects exactly with this type of learning. No one particular student will understand the text and material entirely, but collectively, they can scaffold and assist each other in making sense of what they don't know. Their literature circle stretches their learning beyond what they might have learned on their own. Additionally, they each play a role in increasing each other's language and cultural knowledge of the target language and culture found within the authentic text.

SETTING UP EFL LITERATURE CIRCLES

Planning the Literature Circle

As I teach at the university level, I will give the structure based on a university semester. This can be modified easily, depending on the teacher's classroom situation. Generally, one literature circle will take place once a week. Students will be structured in groups of five. Each cycle will run for five weeks, meaning that each member will have a chance to experience each role through a cycle. At the end of a five-week cycle, all the students will be mixed with others in the classroom, to work with different partners, for another cycle.

For each week, students must submit "rolework." Each student will present the findings from their rolework to the other members to discuss. The goal of the rolework is to create material that is interesting and valuable to their group discussion. A Discussion Leader leads the group through the process on the day of their literature circle.

Student Roles - Rolework

Each week, students are assigned a specific role. Various researchers utilize many common roles or sometimes unique and creative ones. Some mentioned are Questioner or Discussion Leader, Illustrator, Passage Master, Connector, Summarizer, and Word Wizard (Daniels, 2002). Furr (2007) uses Discussion Leader, Culture Connector, Word Master, and Passage Person. Within my class, I utilize some of these and have created many others, which I will later describe in detail. The students will be responsible for their assigned rolework. They will type and make copies for both the teacher and their fellow group members. I will later assess their rolework for a grade, as one of my assessment factors. Typing is essential to ensure that each student prepares outside of the classroom.

Pre-testing Before Reading

One suggestion before their assigned reading is for the teacher to pre-teach any unusual idioms, phrases, or concepts that might be difficult or time-consuming for a student to study on their own. One technique I often utilize is creating a list of idioms or phrases from the reading with a possible definition. However, it is only one definition, and if a student knows another definition that is equally accurate, that is acceptable as well. Students will study that list for a vocabulary/idiom quiz prior to the assigned reading. In this way, once they encounter the word again in context, within the text, it will be recycled vocabulary. Recycling vocabulary is essential to acquiring new vocabulary (Nation, 2009).

Clarity Check Reading Partners

Clarity Check Partners are an assigned pair of students who will go through the reading just prior to their literature circle. They will point out particularly difficult vocabulary words, passages, and concepts that were problematic during the reading. They will often discuss this later in their circles, but it is a preliminary stage that they can work on with another partner beforehand, on a more intimate one-on-one basis. This is also a chance for the teacher to listen in on student discussion to discover what are common struggles to further examine collectively.

Rolework Clarity Check Partners

Often, at the beginning of the first literature circle cycle, students will be unsure of what they should write for rolework. At this time, it is best to create short, temporary groups where everyone with the same role will share their rolework to discuss, share, and gather more ideas. In this way, they can see how they could have prepared better, or can prepare better in the future. This group can additionally be set up for planning their rolework before they work on it. They can talk about their upcoming role and exchange ideas for what they may respectively submit to their own literature group.

Roles Within the Literature Circle

The following are some of the roles I assign and their required rolework for submission:

The Discussion Leader: The person in this important role is in charge of generating discussion and time management. If any group finishes their discussion before the allotted time, this person will be responsible for creating more discussion on the topic, or suffer with a penalty for a failed group. They will lead each role with their discussion, organizing time, and ensure that everyone speaks and shares ideas. Additionally, they will create discussion questions for their group and to submit as rolework. Questions must be of an interesting, thought-provoking, and discussion-directed type. They will write and submit ten questions for assessment.

Passage Person: This person will highlight several passages within the assigned reading to share with the group. Particularly difficult to understand paragraphs and ideas or ones that they perceive as being critically important to understanding the text are expected to be selected. What they choose is up to them, but they must rationalize why they think their passages make good discussion. They will submit these several chosen passages for assessment.

Visualizer: This role involves either artistic ability, or web photo searching abilities. They must visualize ten images that are somehow connected to the story. The most common way is to copy-and-paste images from the Internet and then paste them into a Word document. The most common things to visualize are foreign products, foreign rituals, foreign concepts, and unusual items, for example, a photo of coal miners in West Virginia, or perhaps a geographical map with where West Virginia is located in the United States. Anything that leads to a better understanding of the text is acceptable, but ten are required for their assessment.

Graphic Organizer: This role is for organizing timelines of events and sequencing or organizing the cause and effect of the storyline. This can be either with photos copied and pasted, or hand drawn. The main goal is to clearly organize and give structure to the story. This timeline, or similar tool, is submitted for assessment.

Vocabulary Wizard: The student in this role must select ten new vocabulary items that they find relevant to understanding the reading. They will present these ten words for group discussion, then they will create a typed vocabulary quiz to distribute to their group members to test them on the new vocabulary. The chosen words and the quiz will be submitted as rolework for later assessment.

Real-Life Connector: This person must connect what has happened in the text with some real-life experiences or connections that they have known or heard of before. For example, if a character in the story has a flower garden, and some situation happens to this flower garden, then students will relay a similar story that they know of in real life. For assessment, they will type and submit three real-life connections.

Culture Connector: This person records any cultural differences within the reading from the students' native culture. For example, if the characters in the book act certain ways because they are from a gang culture within the Chicago area, then what cultural differences a student sees between the Chicago gang culture and their own native culture will be noted. The student will record at least four cultural differences, if not more.

The "If" Person: This role consists of creating "what if" scenarios for discussion. For example, What if you were Holden Caulfield, would you lie about your age in a bar? The student will create five of these, If you were X, would you do Y in that same situation scenarios. The quality of these questions will be assessed.

Summarizer: This person's role is to summarize the assigned reading for the week. This should be clearly written, clearly organized, grammatically structured, and in paragraph form.

Character Creator: This role is best offered near the end of the textbook, mainly because it is purely creative, and students might confuse this for a real character, if they didn't understand the text well enough. The purpose of this role is to have fun, and create something entertaining, while weaving this fictional character into the events and characters of the actual reading. It is a way to analyze and understand the text well enough to be able to enter a new character into the text. Creative characters could be anything from interjecting themselves into the text to a cartoon character. Anything is possible, as long as it interacts well with the text in relation to the situations and characters that exist in the book. Assessment will be based on creativity and interweaving the character into the cause/effects and events.

Character Organizer: This role is ideal for any literature book that has many characters. Their function is to record each character and what has happened to them up to this date within the reading. They can pass their notes from one Character Organizer to the next each week and simply build on the previous information already on file. The new material added will be assessed.

The Time Traveler: This role is essentially a predictor role. Anything within the text that students might be curious about, this role will articulate and verbalize. For example, what will happen to Character X later in the story? Do you think that Situation Y might occur because of Cause Z? Essentially, the students will create roles that examine possible future events, and this will engage students' curiosities. The downside of this role is that students may become so curious that they skim ahead, and share information that other students want to discover on their own. Nonetheless, this may be an interesting role for some groups.

Group Secretary: This as a possible role that I only use if I have one group with one additional member. The function of the group secretary is to simply record all conversation and discussion that their group and individual members make during their circle. As they won't have any pre-work to do before the discussion itself, their function is to present on their discussion to the rest of the class. Additionally, they will type and organize their notes to hand in for the following class. This can be an interesting role from a teacher's point of view, as the teacher can have a written account of how dialog and discussion evolved during the literature circle.

Lastly, after each cycle, I allow students the chance to create new roles or combine existing roles. The "If Master" was a result of student input on what they thought might be interesting. Additionally, after a cycle, I give them an opportunity to examine all of the ten-plus possible roles to have and allow them to choose which roles stay from the previous cycle, and which new roles can be added, since only five roles exist for each cycle. As not all classrooms have multiples of five for their class size, I often have groups that have only four members, and occasionally a group with six members. In either case, I either attach one additional role to the group of six or take away a role for a group of four members.

The Teacher's Role in a Literature Circle

During the literature circle, the teacher has the role of listening to the various groups and deciding what needs to be scaffolded further for student understanding (Mark, 2007) – particularly, concepts or passages that the majority of the students in the classroom are struggling to understand. Any difficult idioms, concepts, or cultural differences could be further discussed in a teacher-led direction. For the most part, the literature circles are to be student-led, and as the students work through things that interest them, the teacher will collect this information to scaffold it further, based on what they present as difficult.

Post-Literature Circle Activities

While literature circles are very student-led, sometimes they miss details that the teacher believes are important to understanding further sections of the text. If the teacher sees the students twice a week, then the second class of the week, after the literature circle day, could be used to cover details that the teacher finds important. "Questions for Discussion" can be teacher-led and based on either inference or comprehension of the text. Additionally, it can test or reinforce other items such as previously taught idioms or vocabulary words that the students will have recently discovered in the assigned reading and that might be critical to understanding the overall literature book as reading the story progresses further.

"Lit skits" (literature skits) are an additional way to go over the assigned text one last time before the next assigned reading. Lit skits involve the students creating small classroom skits to act out and perform in front of the class. For time's sake, it is better to just have one lit skit per week, but it does reinforce vocabulary and visualizes the week's reading once more before their upcoming reading assignment.

EFL Literature Circle Assessment

Rolework Assessment

There have been two different methods I have employed to assess rolework. The first method is to determine if the students did the minimum required work. Did they fulfill the requirements? If so, they will receive a minimum modest grade that will reflect that. If their questions were strongly discussion-oriented, and clearly of a higher quality than expected, then they would receive near the maximum allotted points for their rolework. If anything falls well below the minimum expectations, that will be graded accordingly as well.

The second method was to compare student rolework submitted for the same role. For example, all of the Discussion Question rolework would be compared with each other. The student submitting the best of them would receive full points, and possibly even extra credit points. The most poorly written rolework would receive the lowest marks, which cannot be over 70% of the possible score allotted. The ones in the middle will receive a modest score. In this way, each student is competing with each other to write the best rolework possible to submit. This creates competition that decreases the frequency of students submitting only the minimum required amount of work.

Comprehension and Inference Discussion Quiz

On the day after the literature circle, I like to give comprehension and inference questions for the students to examine and discuss collectively. This can be given either as homework or done during class time. The main purpose of these quizzes is to ensure that the students comprehend the essentials within the text (Maher, 2014a). Generally, I will give these discussion questions out to the students and later give them a quiz to test their answers and what they have found. I will often put students in groups of three to discuss and work on these questions prior to administering the quiz.

Generally speaking, I will create from 20-25 questions, with the majority being comprehension questions to make sure students have understood the reading properly. I also add inference questions, and label them accordingly, so that students won't search for a specific, in-text answer to the question, but know that they are being asked for an inference.

Lit Skits (Literature Skits)

Literature skits are demonstrated once a week. Each group performs a lit skit within the five-week cycle. Students must prepare and practice during their free time and, afterwards, perform their literature skit in front of the class. I often evaluate on (a) creativity, (b) use of vocabulary and idioms from within the text, and (c) performance. As this is subjective, I don't allow many total points for it, but I do find it to be an activity that students highly enjoy, and the classroom often receives recycled vocabulary as the students act out the characters and their interpretation of events.

For this activity, students are free to bring music or props, use the blackboard, or employ any other method available to them. Time is approximately 4-7 minutes of classroom time. They will lose points if the activity is under or over the allotted time. I give permission to go over the maximum time limit, as long as I am made aware of it beforehand.

Participation

Participation is an assessment of how much I can visually see that each student is contributing to their group. Much of it is based on body language, attentiveness, quality of interaction, questions asked, and various other subjective measurements. It is a minor score overall, but one to remind the students of the importance of participating within their group and being an active member of their discussions.

Vocabulary Lists/Quizzes

As a way to pre-teach difficult vocabulary prior to the students' assigned reading, it is good to make a list for students to study beforehand and be quizzed on beforehand. The idea is that they will be exposed to the difficult words prior to encountering them within the text. In this way, the students can further examine them in context, and not lose too much time having to look them up in the middle of their reading time.

The teacher can pre-read the assigned reading and create a vocabulary list before the students actually encounter the lexical items in-text (Maher, 2013). This is excellent reinforcement of vocabulary in that students will recycle vocabulary several times (Nation, 2009). If the teacher assigns the role of Vocabulary Wizard, this can provide additional vocabulary reinforcement and provide scaffolding of additional items that may not have earlier been added to the list.

Idiom Lists/Quizzes.

It is highly advised that the teacher scan for idioms throughout the assigned reading as well (Maher, 2014b). It is recommended that the teacher give them their own definition that is based on the in-text meaning. A weekly idiom quiz is recommended, so that students will have an understanding of the idiom's meaning prior to being assigned the reading that contains the idiom. Similar to the Vocabulary Wizard, you could also have an Idiom Wizard as a role with specific rolework. However, a teacher may want to allow phrasal verbs as well, as it is not easy for students to identify and define idioms and their unusual nature, particularly when tasked with understanding multiple pages.

Research Papers

From examining and studying a text, students might also encounter larger issues, either social or political. The literature book can offer a starting point on various topics that students can expand on and examine further. They can connect the characters to much larger issues.

Additionally, for students less developed in their writing skills, a series of minor writing tasks can be connected to the literature book. For example, referencing a book and how to properly annotate the source can be easier with the literature book being the students' main focus for their paper.

Public Speaking Opportunities

Connected with research papers, students can also present on their social issues or focus topics to the class collectively. The public speaking could be related to anything found within the literature book.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, a literature circle can be implemented, set up, and assessed in any language acquisition program. It provides unique opportunities for a student-led study session that students will remember long afterwards. Whenever they encounter that book or that author again in their lives, they will quickly recall the English that they acquired and the discussion and collaboration that they had with their classmates. It also creates stronger classroom dynamics and more interpersonal relationships among class members. They work with the target language together, and collectively increase their awareness of the language and the L2's culture, their critical thinking abilities, and their awareness of much larger issues in the world.

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Finding the Hero in the Young Student Whilst Embracing the Dark Side, and Putting the Psychological Goal into Teaching English

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The focus of this article is to encourage teachers to develop specific psychological goals for English teaching. We have long had intangible humanistic goals regarding focusing on the whole person, but we can do more and add more design and focus to the psychological aim, and at the same time increase the literacy levels of our students. One way of achieving this is by applying superhero, war, or fantasy themes to our classes. According to Sawyer and Horm-Wingerd (as cited in Rubin, 2007), this "[symbolic-representational] play, allows for social interaction and problem solving" (p. 4). Piaget (1962) also believed that superhero and fantasy play developed the language for individual expression. Thus, in creating literacy events involving superhero and fantasy play, the teacher is killing two birds with one stone: firstly, supporting successful language formation in students, and secondly, developing healthy emotional responses and emotional literacy.

Introduction

Bruner (1986) argued that "thought and imagination begin in the form of dialogue with a partner. [. . .] The development of thought may be in large measure determined by the opportunity for dialogue, with the dialogue becoming internal and capable of running off inside one's head on its own" (p. 82). The child or student is developing a means of internal reflection, and the language needed to communicate and explore emotions.

Superhero Themes

The superhero themes adopted by young learners may fluctuate depending on the child's feelings of security or power. Jones (2002) observed a young learner who even adopted a Teletubby persona, and when he was feeling more confident would become a Power Ranger. As the child developed, he became more frequently the Power Ranger. According to Jones, young learners have also been noted as projecting heroic protective qualities on the cartoon dog Scooby Doo. It could be argued that Kung Fu Panda might also come into the category of young person's superhero, as he is a superhero with soft and cuddly edges, enabling the child to feel both comforted and protected. Porter (2007) also emphasized that superheroes could include "wrestlers, soldiers, doctors, police officers, fire fighters, and other everyday heroes in our culture, as well as more abstract figures such as angels, wizards, or good witches" (p. 25).

Adopting a Superhero Persona

Literacy events that allow a young adult to adopt the persona of a superhero can be empowering and give the young adult a feeling of safety, and emulate a safe relationship and provide safe emotional play. When Jones (2002) asked teenagers what it was about the comic books and superhero themes that they liked, one teenager stated:

> "It's the fights. [. . .] The way Michael goes crazy when he thinks Angela's in danger. Or Val's angry at Ray but then she instantly turns her anger against the villain instead, so you know she really cares about him." She paused to find a word. "That's when you see their *passion*. And their passion is what really makes them powerful!" I asked her what she felt in those scenes. "Well," she said awkwardly, "I'm *them* when I'm reading about them, right? So . . . *I'm* powerful." (p. 4)

Thus, contrary to the fears of some teachers and adults, active exploration of aggression through superhero themes can reduce aggression and promote empowerment (Jones, 2002). The images and action that their superhero undergoes can be acting out personal fears of things that might harm themselves or their families. In the fantasy life of the superhero, the student usually succeeds in beating the darker characters, which allows for a greater feeling of inner security and positive feelings that it is possible to succeed and be in control of their lives. Superhero realia and multimedia allow the students to enact and discuss the complexity of the superhero and villain characters' personalities. The students in exploring this "dark" and "light" that exists in the superhero's personality can develop the ability to critically think and move away from the child's black and white understanding of the world. It could also arguably help the young adult to gain a greater understanding of the heroes in their lives. It is important that young adults are able to understand that their hero is a person, and like all people, has failings and is generally just trying to do the best they can to survive (Rubin, 2006).

Using the superhero theme as a literacy event can be fuelled by the popular superheroes available at the times of the classes. It is prudent to use a wide range of heroes in the class to promote a student's superhero identification. In the same way that a soft toy/doll becomes the voice of the young child, the superhero character, mask, or action figure or doll supports the production of the voice of the young student; thus, through the persona of the superhero, the young student is able to air their feelings and act out safely their aggression. The masks, instead of being something to hide behind, become a means of representing the wilder, more frightening emotions that lie within. Jones (2002) agreed with this premise, stating that "young people [use] fantasies of combat in order to feel stronger, to access their emotions, to take control of their anxieties, to calm themselves down in the face of real violence, to fight their way through emotional challenges" (p. 6). It can even be positive if a child adopts an anti-hero or villain; the child can express feelings of vengeance or power and control. However, it is important that the student or child discusses the consequences and potential for success of the villain's plans in real life (Rubin, 2006).

Role of the Teacher

The child's feelings and ideas can be projected into stories, plays and poems, artwork and comic books, or role-plays (Rubin, 2006). The teacher's role will be to provide the environment for the creative thought and acting-out; where actual role play is encouraged in a classroom, it is best to suggest a specific classroom area where the superpowers work, which discourages roughhousing during the class when it's not appropriate. The literacy tasks provided by the teacher should allow the teacher and students to record and edit emerging feelings and ideas. Jones (2002) stressed that art and story workshops are adaptable from every level upwards from pre-school. Jones believed that it helped "kids pull together the images, thoughts, and emotions in their minds through individual storytelling in a comic strip-like form" (p. 9). Whether in soft-toy play or superhero fantasy play, the dialogue can lead to a personal or shared narrative. According to Jones, a key component in fantasy play and literacy events is the participation and interventions of the adult (p. 6). The adult, through questioning, promotes discussion and encourages the students to re-evaluate any aggressive urges, and promotes discussion to form enhanced strategies that can be utilized to deal with suppressed anger or rages. The involvement of the adult and peers is therefore vital to a healthy psychological development (Rubin, 2006).

Adults and Superheroes

Even adults can enjoy the superhero theme or fantasy battle themes. Adults are able to see parallels between the struggles of the heroes (Rubin, 2006) and their own struggles in life. The hero is battling with rejection and not fitting in. He takes on monsters and villains while the adults, who also could be struggling with rejection, face the more mundane challenges of life: bullies and sometimes personal traumatic situations. Jones (2002) described his own experience of transitioning between different superheroes at different ages: "But I carried that monster-slaying hero inside me the whole time. First as fantasy: Beowolf gave way to King Kong, then Batman, then James Bond" (p. 2). The most notable aspect of Jones's description of his transition from child to adult was that there was always a superhero helping him navigate his way. There is a huge amount of memorabilia and DVDs that can support these themes of superhero, war, and fantasy, and all of the themes can be appreciated by young adults and adults. This fantasy play can lead to rich literacy events full of authentic communication and writing. Jones noted that schools in New York, post-9/11, encouraged children to play with airplanes, with themes of battles and crashes. It is natural for adults to move into denial when tragedy occurs. However, children respond by acting out and playing the events until they feel safe. Thus, this play was thought to be cathartic for the children, and real dialogue was produced that provided personal and shared narratives and psychological healing after the 9/11 tragic events (Jones, 2002).

Superhero Projects

The more specific language elements developed by carrying out superhero projects are a development of comparative and superlative language features, in addition to using the third person. Superhero classes or projects can be extended or limited to one lesson. The students can be encouraged to consider at home who their superhero is and arrive at school in costume for the class. In addition to this, the students can invent new superheroes; this is useful for focusing on the students' individual psychology and creative ideas. Or if the teacher wishes to focus on family issues, a superhero family can be designed in a pair, group, or individual way. The students can be encouraged to suggest the strengths and weaknesses of the family group, and their superhero powers and vulnerabilities. Another project that can be carried out that was used in Malaysia is to get the students to imagine that the teacher or principal is a secret superhero, and the students must design their costume and decide on their powers and describe the day of the secret superhero. The superhero theme can also venture into classroom management. In elementary school, one child can be designated as a superhero every day. The aim is that the child try to act as a superhero, helping everyone. If at the end of the day the class can guess who the superhero is, the child is given a superhero certificate. In addition to this, there are superhero readings and reading comprehensions, poetry or storyboarding activities, and textbooks that have a superhero base for math and English (Rubin, 2006). (See the Appendix for samples of writing and illustrations produced in a superhero project at a primary school in Seoul.)

CONCLUSION

The superhero theme has never ceased to surprise me in its ability to jump-start communication. Consistently, I have been able to ascertain in depth information about the students in my classes. The topics of fantasy and superheroes also appear to provide a gender-neutral subject in which all students can find something to appreciate. It has always seemed a no-brainer to me that if you can increase communication, you can increase literacy levels and ultimately raise test scores. In my opinion, with the psychological and literacy benefits, it is a "win-win" approach to teaching.

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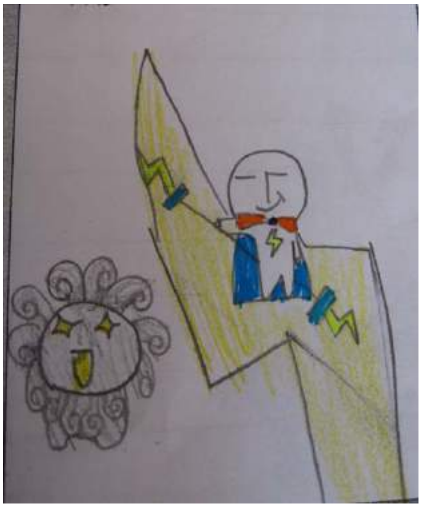
APPENDIX

Samples of Superhero Writing



His name is Ssuckso
Personality: He is funny, brave, clever, and kind.
Superpowers: He can shoot tornado when he coughs.
He can shoot Lightening.
He can become invisible.
He can't die.
His fingernails are boomerangs.
He can freeze things when he blows.
He can clone himself.
He has a Succkso 2 lion.
Weakness: He doesn't have a neck.
He has many nosebleeds.
He is short.
He likes to smirk.
He is Jay-Woo's friend.

Figure 1. Sample of Superhero Writing (Ssuckso).

Name Sky Girl
Superpowers: She can fly
She can change the weather.
She can run in the Sky.
She can freeze and shoot lasers.
She can become invisible
She can become anything she wants.
Weaknesses: She can't breathe underwater.
She likes Boys.
She likes her parents.
She has a winged snake for a pet. She is tall and pretty with long hair and big eyes.

Figure 2. Sample of Superhero Writing (Sky Girl).

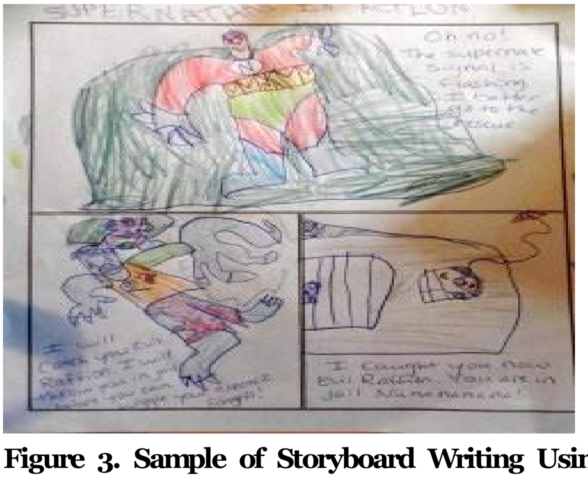


Figure 3. Sample of Storyboard Writing Using Superhero Theme.

Exploring Mindspace and Moment Mapping

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This short paper documents the contents introduced during a workshop held at the KOTESOL 2014 International Conference. It briefly reviews literature in the fields of neuroscience and marketing psychology before introducing practical techniques that can be applied immediately to enhance student learning experiences. These techniques are becoming more widespread amongst businesses to enhance customer experiences, yet may be unfamiliar to teachers and administrators. It is hoped that this paper will facilitate a better understanding of "mindspace" and how to use goal mapping and moment mapping to begin crafting more positive interactions and memorable experiences.

Introduction

Every year, companies eagerly spend an estimated $18.9 billion USD worldwide to better understand how to get you thinking about their products or services, so when the critical moment comes to decide, you choose them over the competition (MDX Research, 2014). As educators, we may not be interested in how students spend their money. However, we should be curious as to whether our lessons stick in our students' minds as well as how often and how long they think about the contents. Furthermore, developing the ability to systematically craft positive experiences should be a high priority for anyone involved in education. Though this skill is frequently overlooked, it has immediate applications and potential for long-term impact.

This paper will briefly review the literature in the fields of neuroscience and marketing psychology to outline the mental journey students take and the importance of making it a pleasant one. Then, some very simple and practical techniques will be introduced to start enhancing student experiences.

Emotion, Cognition, and Memory

Krashen (1982) suggests that a low-anxiety context is ideal for language learning. With technological advancements in neuroimaging, this has been confirmed. Studies show that stress and pleasure affect how the brain filters sensory input, making information received under stressful conditions unavailable for higher cognitive processing (Sousa, 2010). On the other hand, enjoyable activities, which activate the release of dopamine, often result in increased focus, memory, and motivation (Storm & Tecott, 2005). Geake observes that the strong neural connection between emotional and cognitive systems includes bi-directional dependency, as such "aspects of emotion rely on cognition, and aspects of cognition rely on emotion" (2009, p. 115). The field of neuroscience is still in its infancy, yet these findings provide a solid foundation from which to reexamine classroom practices and begin enhancing them.

The Mindspace Experience

Imagine you are given a very large budget and asked to take a small group of responsible students on a global tour. Is your mind suddenly filled with possibilities? In this example, your thoughts are not physically being filled; it is a metaphorical figure of speech. The term "mindspace" is based on such metaphors and can be used to represent the amount of time a person spends thinking about something. Shaw, Dibeehi, and Walden (2010) provide an excellent overview of the mindspace experience in their book, *Customer Experience: Future Trends and Insights*. They outline how an experience works psychologically, attempting to enhance the experiences as they are perceived in the mind of the customer. Their focus is on improving business practices, but it is easy to substitute "student" for "customer" to make the concept relevant to the classroom. The mindspace experience can be divided up into three stages followed by a fourth interacting experience as seen below. The last stage is different because it is the only one that entails direct contact in the classroom experience. The others take place mentally outside of the classroom:

1. The *pre-experience experience* comprises the psychological baggage customers bring with them to an experience, which affects what they see.
2. *Experiencing intent* comprises what consumers seek from an experience. This marks out the things in an experience that have psychological impact.
3. *Remembering the experience* is concerned with how the experience is remembered and socialized; how we "bend" our psychology to fit in with our social group.
4. *Interacting with the experience* is concerned with how customers interact with an experience psychologically.

(Shaw et al., 2010, p. 18)

As teachers, we can improve our teaching practices by becoming more informed about each of these stages. To start with the *pre-experience experience*, it is important to acknowledge that students bring emotional baggage with them. Shaw et al. (2010) suggest that this baggage includes prevailing prejudices, expectations, and associations students have about you or the subject they are learning. They also advise that cultivating a positive prevailing prejudice can be extremely beneficial as it leads people to view things in a more positive manner. Imagine the initial difference between having a course recommended by older students compared with overhearing them complain about how terrible the class was. The teacher hasn't even had a chance to make an appearance, but the students gathering this information are already forming impressions that will influence their attitudes and efforts. Similarly, expectations influence how students judge an event. If they expect to work hard, while being praised for their efforts and gradual improvement, they will likely be in a favorable mood when homework is assigned. Associations are created over time and can be easily monitored by asking what words come to mind when students think of your class or subject. The results of a quick anonymous survey could be enlightening.

Experiencing intent focuses on “how successful they feel you are at understanding their well-being” (Shaw et al., 2010, p. 23). This stage is concerned with the student’s psychological relationship with you. Do students feel that you enable them to achieve their goals? Do students value the functional outcomes of the experience? The answer to these questions will help determine if their well-being is being attended to.

The classroom experience can also linger in the students’ minds long after class during the *remembering the experience* stage. This is especially true if we do our jobs really poorly or really well, as Shaw et al. (2010) point out that people tend to remember the peak and end moments most easily. These mentally sticky moments should be given special attention. They also note that memories can be somewhat flexible and susceptible to change in response to social pressures until they become solidified through storytelling.

Finally, *interacting with the experience*; this is the only stage in which the students are physically interacting with the classroom experience. Shaw et al. (2010) suggest that the keys to success in this area include understanding the rules of thumb students use to make value decisions, how dominant the subconscious is in determining overall satisfaction, and the importance of mood effects. These suggestions are all based on the neuroscience findings discussed in the previous section. Perhaps it is sufficient for the purposes of this paper to simply emphasize that the cognitive workings of the brain are closely connected to emotions. The students’ criterion for satisfaction may vary widely; however, it could be that something as seemingly insignificant as a teacher’s authentic smile in response to a completed task could have a larger influence on overall satisfaction than meeting the daily classroom objectives. This is the only stage teachers can directly impact, so it is essential to reduce negative experiences and increase positive ones by identifying and enhancing key moments in the classroom.

Goal and Moment Mapping

As seen above, the students bring prevailing prejudices and expectations with them to every class, which then influence their attitudes and efforts. Each classroom experience builds on the previous one to create stronger mental associations regarding the subject as a whole. This in turn influences what kind of mental baggage the students bring in the future. It is a continuous cycle. However, by mapping critical moments of contact and working to make them more positive, we can help students look forward to class, enjoy class, and look back fondly on the time spent learning effectively.

Shaw et al. (2010) suggest goal and moment mapping to identify and track potentially high and low moments, and enhance the *interacting with the experience* stage (pp. 48-49). Figure 1 is an example that has been modified with students' well-being in mind.

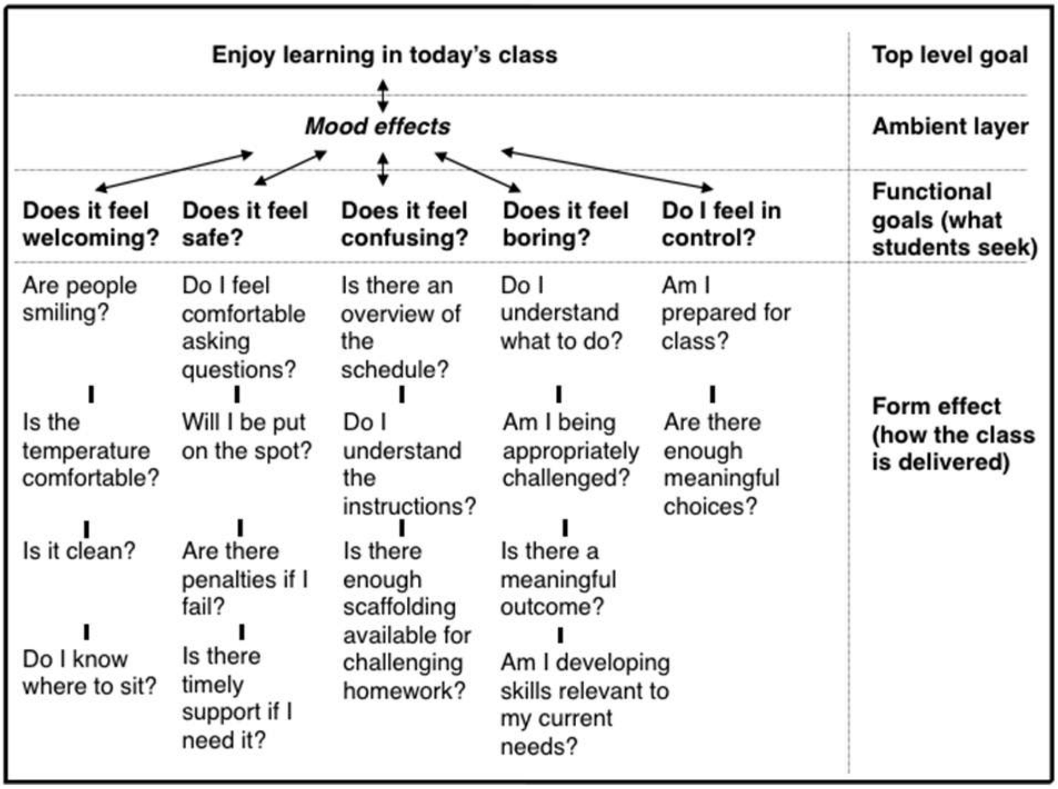

Figure 1: Goal and Moment Mapping. (Adapted from Shaw, Dibeehi, & Walden, 2010, and modified to apply to students' well-being.)

Many of the items in Figure 1 revolve around risk management. This is a common use of mindspace, as neurological studies have shown that "not all emotions are equal . . . there is an emotional imbalance favoring negative emotions" (Geake, 2009, p. 115). However, by becoming more aware of potential moments of anxiety, teachers can begin eliminating them.

Identifying and responding to moments of anxiety can be an enjoyable and ongoing challenge. For example, in my own classroom, I noticed students hesitating before choosing where to sit. Using assigned seating eliminated this moment of uncertainty and frequently changing the seating assignments introduced an element of novelty. I also noticed the classic moment of silence that follows asking the class if they have any questions. I thought it was unlikely that there are so few questions in a semester, so I started asking students to explain what we had just discussed to a partner. It turns out that students are more comfortable raising their hand to asking questions when all the other students are on task. Soon after, I noticed another distinctive moment of silence that occurs when instructing the class to begin a speaking activity. No one wanted to break the initial silence. In response, I loaded my computer with upbeat instrumental music and play it whenever students should be speaking. Conversations start instantly and the class seems to have more energy. In the opposite sense, I no longer have to talk over the class to get their attention. When the music is paused, the pressure for silence is quickly noticed and draws their attention for me.

These relatively small changes have made the classroom environment noticeably more inviting and enjoyable. Students consistently make positive comments about the music and atmosphere in general on the class evaluation survey at the end of the year. If these elements are memorable, it suggests that they are peak moments for students.

ARCS Model for Motivation Design

In addition to reducing the negative moments, it is also important to increase positive moments. Keller's (2010) ARCS (Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction) Model for Motivation Design offers simple and effective guidelines. Table 1 contains some of Keller's main ideas to make classroom activities more enjoyable, and consequently, more effective.

Table 1. Keller's (2010) ARCS Model for Motivation Design

Attention (A)	Is there something relatable or surprising?	Has an interesting question or challenge been presented?	Is there enough variety?
Relevance (R)	Does the activity relate to a personal goal?	Are there appropriate chooses and challenges?	Does this build on previous knowledge?
Confidence (C)	Are the learning requirements and expectations clear?	What new thing will I be able to do upon completion?	Can I succeed with reasonable effort?
Satisfaction (S)	Are there meaningful opportunities for application?	Have I been positively encouraged throughout the experience?	Have I been treated fairly?

Conclusion

With a packed curriculum and pressure to improve academic outcomes, is it easy to neglect the students' emotional well-being. However, the neurological research demonstrates that this form of negligence is extremely detrimental in both the near and distant future. Educators can borrow from marketing psychology practices to design more enjoyable and effective learning environments. The frameworks and techniques, introduced during the KOTESOL workshop and this short paper, do not require preparation; however, they do require practice. As Gladwell (2005) observes, the more experienced we are, the more intuitive we become, and the better decisions we make. Our classroom decisions should lead to more positive interactions and memorable experiences.

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How to End a Class Well

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This short paper documents the contents introduced during a workshop held at the KOTESOL 2014 International Conference. This paper aims to briefly review the literature to demonstrate that the last few minutes of class contains mentally sticky moments. It then exposes a large gap in the literature regarding how to use this time effectively. Following that, classroom practices are reviewed and a limited number of suggestions are offered on finishing lessons more effectively. Finally, a call to action is raised to stimulate further research to enhance teaching practices.

Introduction

For many professional educators, it is common practice to research, design, mentally rehearse, implement, review, and revise lessons, continually searching for ways to improve teaching practices. Yet, how often does time run out and reminders end up being bellowed as students clear their desks and rush for the door? The frequent and seemingly simple task of ending a lesson well can be more challenging than it first appears or perhaps it just gets neglected as teachers bask in the relief that comes from surviving another lesson. Personally, it was an area that I wanted to improve. The workshop at the KOTESOL International Conference and this short paper are part of an ongoing effort to seek out more effective methods.

Mentally Sticky Moments

Shaw, Dibeehi, and Walden (2010) specialize in applying research findings in the field of neuroscience and psychology to help businesses enhance customer experience. Shaw, et al. stress,

> "If we follow the Peak-End rule – that what we remember most are the peaks of an experience and the end – then creating a memorable end can impact how we feel afterwards. It is unfortunate that ends are typically neglected, as are many peak moments . . . , which represents a real opportunity to embed some positive psychology." (p. 21)

These observations were made about business practices, but seem highly relevant to the classroom as well. These researchers are not alone in using neuroscience to identify memorable moments. Sousa (2002) has done extensive research on this topic and suggests that both the beginning and end of a lesson are ideal times for students to remember things. Sousa even recommends creating 20-minute lessons, with nine minutes of prime learning at the beginning, and another nine minutes at the end, with two minutes of mental down time in the middle to accommodate necessary administrative tasks.

Perhaps a word of caution is warranted at this point. Previous research findings may conflict with Sousa's (2002) recommendation, depending on how the new material is being introduced at the end of class. Duffy and Jones (1995) warn that "rushing through material at the end of class is counterproductive. Repeated studies suggest that students benefit when instructors cover less" (p. 203). This is a key point to keep in mind when planning the final minutes of a lesson. In my limited twelve years of teaching experience, trying to squeeze in an extra point that will not be discussed again has seldom been effective. Alternatively, I have found using the time to preview new material that will be revisited during the next lesson to be a more worthwhile practice.

TEACHING PRACTICES

Following up on Sousa's (2002) suggestion to harness the first and last few minutes of class, Wells and Milner (2005) observed four highly respected teachers to determine how they use the first and last five minutes of class time. Figures 1 and 2 below show Wells and Milner's findings (p. 129).

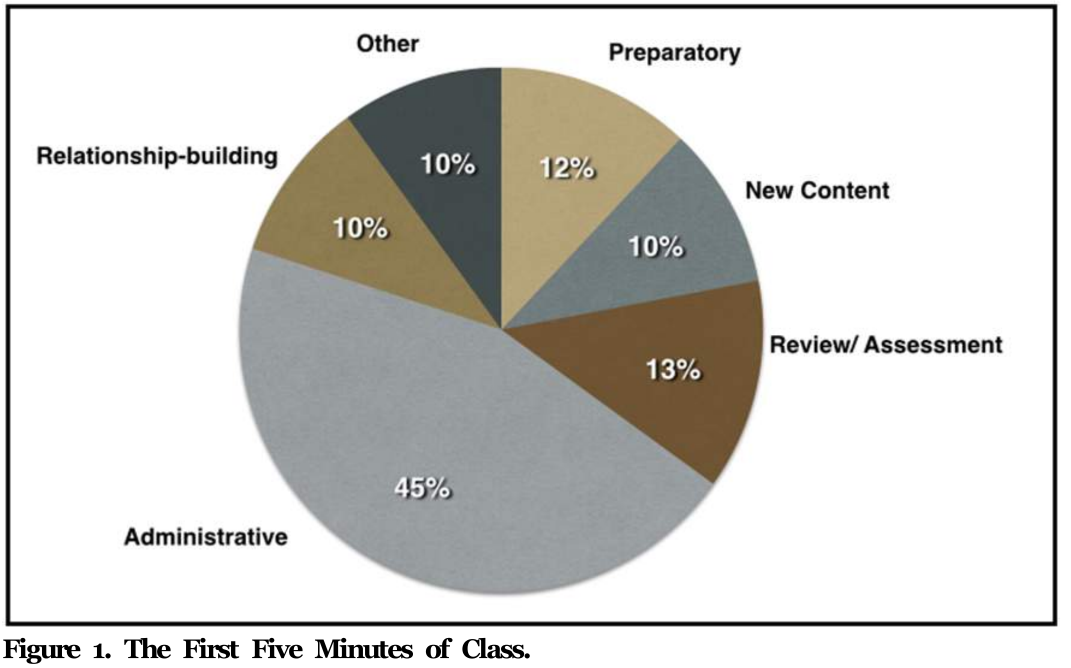

Figure 1. The First Five Minutes of Class.

As seen in Figure 1, these experienced teachers use the first five minutes to accomplish a variety of tasks, though administrative tasks are most frequently carried out. In contrast, Figure 2 shows that the majority of the time at the end of class is spent learning new material. This practice follows Sousa's (2002) recommendation to introduce new material during the last five minutes. Perhaps this use of time is one of the contributing factors that led Wells and Milner (2005) to consider these teachers highly respected. However, the second most frequent use of time, almost a quarter of the time, was spent doing "other," which Wells and Milner (2005) clarifies to consist mainly of sitting around doing nothing.

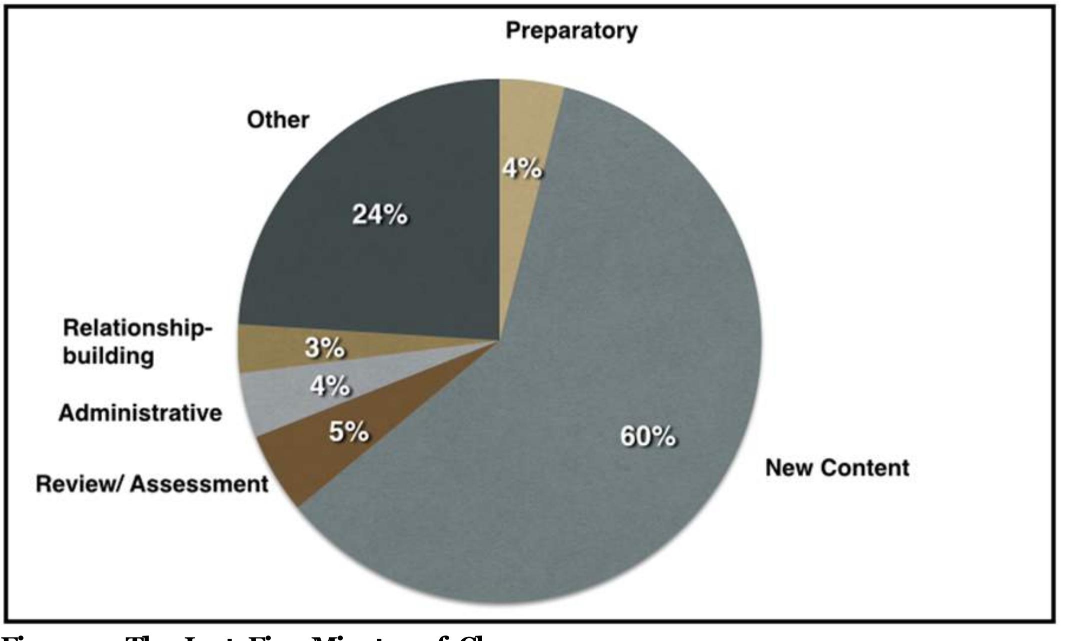

Figure 2. The Last Five Minutes of Class.

Christopher and Milner (2006) did a quantitative study similar to Wells and Milner (2005). They also observed four teachers and recorded how time was spent during class. In addition to examining the last 5 minutes, they also examined the time leading up to that. After analyzing over 40 hours of activity, they found that student engagement declined by 24% in the final moments compared to the rest of the lesson. These results suggest that, rather than harnessing the last few minutes, teachers and/or students were mentally checking out prior to the bell.

The researchers conducting these studies explicitly state that they were not intended to criticize the participating teachers, but rather they were intended to raise awareness about opportunities to improve. They have been shared here with the same intent.

OBSTACLES

There are a number of hurdles that may prevent teachers from ending a class well. Yonge, Lee, and Luhanga (2006, p. 151) list the following reasons for not ending a course well.

- Lack of time
- Lack of experience
- Lack of awareness
- Student apathy
- Lack of student-teacher engagement
- Lack of foresight

These same reasons may also interfere with ending a lesson well. However, they need not be excuses. Given that most teachers have multiple opportunities to practice daily, making a conscious effort to improve, while being mindful of the last five minutes of class, should be enough to overcome most of these obstacles. If students observe the teacher making an effort, they will likely respond positively, too.

A Gap in the Literature

Despite being an ideal time to introduce something that will resonate in students' minds after the lesson is finished, books on classroom management are remarkably void of suggestions on how to harness this time effectively. Meier and Panitz (1996, p. 1) note, "The literature on higher education instruction is surprisingly sparse on the topic of class and course endings." This quote is nearly three decades old, yet remains disappointingly accurate. The university I teach at includes a teacher-training program. I reviewed our considerable number of books on classroom management. They include a vast number of useful tips on how to prepare for, begin, and manage a lesson. However, none of them provide practical suggestions for ending a class well. Searching for articles online was slightly more productive, but only turned up minimal results.

Suggested Practices from the Literature

Though the literature is sparse, I was able to locate one practical article on this subject: "End on a High Note: Better Endings for Classes and Courses" by Meier and Panitz (1996). The practical ideas collected in this article have been summarized in the table below.

Table 1. Suggestions for Ending a Lesson Well

Suggestions for Ending a Lesson from Meier and Panitz (1996)	Rationale Provided
Ask students directly how to handle the last five minutes.	Students may be reassured by a commitment from the instructor to end on time.
Give students "the last word."	Reassure students that their remarks will bring the class to an end.
Ask students to close their books in unison with a big thump.	Make the point that if students start closing their books early, they will distract others from learning.

One Minute Papers: Ask students to respond to questions such as: “What was the most important thing you learned in today's class?” or “What question or questions from today's class remain unanswered?” These papers are collected by the instructor and used to assess student learning.	May provide eye-opening revelations about what students take away from their lectures. May provide insights that can be used to plan the next class and to revise teaching techniques.
Think-Pair-Share: First, students think individually about a question posed by the instructor. Then, students form teams of two and take turns expressing their thoughts. Next, pairs report their discussion to other pairs or to the whole class.	Stimulate active learning. Note: Team members may report their partner’s answers rather than their own. This technique promotes listening skills and avoids student fears of appearing boastful.
Knows, Wants to Know, and Has Learned (KWL): This is a tripartite set of questions for students: “What do I know?” and “What do I want to learn?” asked at the beginning of class, and “What did I learn?” asked at the end of class.	Help students to become more aware of their own progress during a class.
Metacognition: Spend time on metacognition, allow students to pay explicit attention to how they learned.	If our goal is to help students become better learners, then we need to help them process how they do so.
Practice basic social skills such as saying good-bye and thank you.	Attention to closure is important in order to maintain good working relationships within groups.
“Ticket Out the Door”: A form in which groups must complete answering questions such as: “What are three things we did to help each other learn?” and “What is one thing we could do even better tomorrow?”	Help students assess how they have worked with others.

The article by Meier and Panitz (1996) also contains ideas for ending a course and following up after the course has finished. However, it will not be reviewed here as the literature regarding how to end a course well is more plentiful and the subject matter is beyond the scope of this paper.

Further Discussion

Meier and Panitz (1996) were writing for teachers working in an L1 learning context. During the KOTESOL 2014 workshop and in follow-up correspondence, several participants questioned if these activities could really be implemented in a timely fashion within an L2 learning context. Using only one minute, would not the one-minute paper activity result in a pile of blank papers? Could a think-pair-share activity really be completed without using at least 15 minutes? What happens if a student is determined to write a lot and ends up causing problems as the next class tries to enter the room? These are very legitimate concerns that I can confirm from experience. It might work for some, but the reality is that not all the ideas transfer well to different teaching contexts. There were also requests to share more of my personal teaching practices. Before doing so, I would like to restate that I am still searching for better methods. I chose this topic for KOTESOL 2014 because I wanted to learn from the literature and to stimulate further ideas during the workshop. My approaches may or may not transfer well, but here are some that I have found practical.

I think previewing new material can be very beneficial, especially if the students are given an enjoyable challenge to take away. For example, if we are getting ready to study office small-talk, I might ask students to think of three safe topics and three dangerous topics to discuss while at work. Chances are they won't be able to finish their lists in five minutes and will leave trying to think of a few more. This use of time also provides a safe opportunity for students to ask for clarification if they are not clear about the topic. We would then use their lists to open the next class.

I also try to focus on the learning process by reinforcing what they accomplished and why. To do this, the daily goals are introduced on the board at the beginning of class. At the end of class, we do a "tie-back" ending, during which time we check that we completed the goals while focusing on why we were successful. For example, I might point out that we were able to generate long and interesting lists of dangerous topics for office small-talk because everyone came prepared and was genuinely interested in listening to each other. I would make sure to let students see that their efforts and cooperation made me happy. I would also use the chance to publicly praise specific examples and make them feel good, too.

One idea that is rarely suggested, but always well received, is to let the students leave early. If you ask students how they would like to end class, the braver ones will suggest this. I found it to be useful as leverage in the past, especially with less-motivated classes. When I first began teaching, I was only a few years older than my students. I was concerned about discipline, especially while teaching a rather long required English language course to a large group of students at a low-level technical college. To open the course, I struck a deal with all 60 students. I agreed to give them 10 minutes if they tried hard for the remaining 90. They received five minutes in the middle and five minutes at the end. I carried a stopwatch. If a student got off task, I stopped what I was doing, started the timer, and waited silently. The other 59 students took care of the rest. The time on the watch came out of their free time. It worked brilliantly and the stopwatch was only required a few times. This trade-off enabled everyone to concentrate together, instead of providing opportunities to chastise the "nerdy kids" for paying attention. As a result, the students also seemed surprised at how much they improved. They liked the system so much that they voted English as the most enjoyable class for the first time ever that year. Physical Education class came in second. I was shocked, but in hindsight, perhaps ending early was a large contributing factor.

I work at a higher-level university with more motivated students now. There is no need for a stopwatch anymore, but I still let students go early on occasion. I always reinforce that we finished a few minutes early because they worked hard and supported each other well. I do, however, worry about letting them go too early. I once asked my colleague if the large group in the hall disrupted his neighboring class. He politely said no, but suggested challenging them to a game of rock, paper, scissors. Students who beat me can leave. Those who don't can try again until they win. It is also possible to add in some small learning task in between each attempt to lengthen the process. I hesitate to share this silly practice because it doesn't sound professional, but I think it is a great example of how to use novelty to end well. It also has several practical functions. First, it staggers the departures so students do not disturb other classes. Second, each student eventually gets satisfaction from beating the teacher. Third, if a lesson plan doesn't work as well as expected, we can cut it short and still end on a positive note. Since this is a silly practice, they all leave smiling. I wouldn't recommend using this ending frequently, but it is fun once or twice a semester.

To sum up my own aims, I like to celebrate success and encourage hard work by focusing on the students' efforts. I try to leave them all with a specific challenge for next time and a smile. Given that the final moments are highly memorable, I aim to make them pleasant ones. My personal philosophy is that building positive relationships and associations is very important, as they stimulate higher levels of student engagement and deeper learning. Coming up with ideas that work for different groups is challenging, but sharing makes the process easier.

Conclusions

Depending on the lesson, making it to the end may feel like a victory. However, there are always ways to improve. The quantitative studies reviewed in this paper on how teachers use their final moments in class suggest that even highly respected teachers frequently neglect this instrumental portion of the class. Though the final minutes have been shown to be memorable (Sousa, 2002), a broader and more long-term perspective toward the crafting of a positive overall experience has been suggested. Doing an enjoyable activity, based on positive psychology, to build up beneficial associations and stimulate an increased overall satisfaction with the lesson as a whole should lead to favorably outcomes (Shaw et al., 2010). The techniques suggested by Meier and Panitz (1996), introduced during the KOTESOL 2014 workshop, are an admirable start toward improving teaching practices, but clearly further research is needed, especially within an EFL learning context. I hope you will make an effort to experiment, document, and share.

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Using Rubrics as Formative Assessments to Coach ELL Writers

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Writing compositions often carries the burden of subjective grading and the difficulty of getting everything right. Process writing breaks compositions into discrete, objectifiable tasks that support a one-to-one, student-teacher coaching relationship to foster greater skills retention and student confidence, and thus better writing. While such relationships absorb an immense amount of instructor and student time and energy, using well-fashioned rubrics as formative assessment tools, instructors expedite grading time. Additionally, these rubrics, used as formative assessments, can scaffold discrete learning objectives through the writing process; help the instructor to individuate instruction; and help coach students into better writing, while assessing students' skills retention, the effective use of those skills, and instruction effectiveness through each writing process. This paper demonstrates the use of a rubric set as formative and summative assessments to expedite grading, assist student and instructor evaluation, and help to build student-instructor scholarly relationships through individuated student instruction and to produce better-written material.

INTRODUCTION

Google Scholar indicates the emergence of the writing rubric in the early 1990s in Richard Remy's (1993) Glencoe textbook *United States Government: Democracy in Action,* which included writing assignments assessing organization, thesis clarity, formatting, content, flow, grammar and punctuation, and conventions, using rubrics. However, searching more than seventy academic databases reveals fewer than twenty-four peer-reviewed articles on writing rubric use; only three articles discuss rubric creation for writing. This paper introduces formative and summative rubrics for academic writing, delineates formative and summative rubric differences, and discusses how using formative rubrics to coach English language learners in the academic writing process enhances student self-reflection and improves student writing.

Rubrics are a dynamic tool, malleable for the assessment of any content or skill, as they can focus on specific performance standards for specific populations (National Committee on Science Education Standards and Assessment, National Research Council, 1996). However, to be effective, rubrics need three clearly depicted attributes – criteria (standards measured), descriptors (criteria definitions), and level (a measure of success) – and have a variety of purposes, without respect to the assessed content or skill. Three purposes are placement, learner stratification; formative, building content or skill knowledge; and summative, assessing progress through content or skills material.

Each of these three purposes causes the resulting rubrics to be vastly different. A placement rubric necessitates a coarser degree of evaluation of specific skills or content proficiency. However, a placement test is also needed to situate the learner into a framework of learning objectives that can be achieved within the given time frame. Here the formative and summative rubrics become critical in guiding both the learner and instructor to assess student learning objectives and areas for re-teaching or individual (re-)instruction. However essential the formative and summative rubrics may be in navigating an efficient path to achieving the student learning objectives, without an effective placement test, reaching the student learning objectives may be a gargantuan or unattainable task.

Formative and summative rubrics differ greatly: A formative rubric builds into a summative rubric; a summative rubric is a final proficiency assessment. When one sets up tasks as formative and later evaluates those tasks in a summative assessment, one would expect a student's knowledge to grow; this growth requires re-teaching, as one's knowledge contains gaps necessitating teaching and learning reflection by both the student and the teacher. Learning is not relegated simply to what is taught; learning occurs when student motivation, commitment, and accessible instruction overlap.

Rubrics aid this process by making the process clear; that is, in a class of *x* students experiencing the same instruction, material, and time constraints, a formative rubric clearly reveals the gaps in a student's knowledge and weak instruction areas. This knowledge enables an instructor to point out a student's strengths and weaknesses, re-teach weak areas, and individuate instruction. Formative assessments can compel students to reflect on their performance and address those weaknesses; summative assessments (using rubrics) simply demonstrate a student's strengths, weaknesses, and progress.

Two essential formative assessment components are (a) building proficiency and (b) a summative assessment completes the assessment. Each assessment in a formative assessment is recursive and non-linear and thus requires reflection and work, but produces learning. Thus, the assessment can be low-stakes and offer an opportunity to relax, reflect, and begin a dialogue on how to perfect specific weaknesses. However, the formative process is incomplete without a summative assessment that compels the student's conscious, recursive participation, thus fostering greater criteria understanding and ability. In this conscious recursivity, a student's motivation and commitment are essential and appreciated; here, the student can realize the impact of his/her motivation and commitment to learning.

While formative assessments offer multiple discrete criteria, give individuated student feedback, and afford students opportunity for reflection and improvement, the summative assessment evaluates student criteria proficiency and true learning: the student's ability to integrate feedback and practice. Thus, a formative/summative assessment unity helps student performance through a cognitive, purposeful approach and integrated teaching and learning (Eberly Center for Teaching Excellence, n.d.).

LITERATURE REVIEW

A selected literature review suggests formative and summative techniques and/or rubrics used to coach writers positively affect student learning and self-efficacy, and expose student deficiencies, but may be limited due to a rater's confidence and the rubric construction and use. Researchers hypothesize that these positive effects are largely due to the reflection that repetitive, low-stakes formative assessments combined with high-stakes summative assessments produce within the context of "writing"; these effects are compounded by the guidelines a rubric uses to both assess and direct the learner's attention to areas for consideration and reflection. Aronson, Niehaus, Hill-Sakurai, Lai, and O'Sullivan (2012) found feedback effectively improved learners' reflective skills when the skill was contextualized to the content, thus supporting the use of rubrics to offer guidelines and to structure and contextualize feedback, essentially causing the student to return to their work and re-think both their written content and their writing skills. However, no matter how effective a procedure may be, if those assessing are not confident in their ability to adequately assess a learner, the procedure cannot succeed (Dargusch, 2014); one method of addressing this is to include in the construction process those using the assessments (Yorke, 2010). Additionally, rubrics must be carefully and deliberately constructed to meet the specific needs being assessed (Harlen, 2005) and must be used appropriately with respect to a learner's ability (Wingate, 2010) as well as his/her cultural (Wolf & Stevens, 2007) and gender (Andrade, Wang, Du, & Akawi, 2009) identities.

Rubrics' Effect on Student Learning Processes and Self-Efficacy

Perhaps the greatest power of the rubric is its ability to focus attention on specific content areas and offer an assessment of that one particular skill. For example, in the context of composition, when assessing a student's ability to edit, it is necessary to consider many skills, in which a given student's proficiency may vary greatly. Thus, when using an edit rubric, a single (or several) low performance area(s) emerge(s) for the student to focus on and develop. Fluckiger, Vigil, Pasco, and Danielson (2010) suggest that this type of formative assessment enhances student learning through a partner's involvement when the feedback is specific, simple, task-based, and descriptive in the product, process, and progress; sharing the rubrics with students helps the students to make judgments and promotes self-assessment, serving developmental purposes (Rochford & Borchert, 2011). Additionally, formative assessments help students acquire self-regulated learning, enabling students to develop self-efficacy (Clark, 2012), and rubric-referenced self-assessment increases short-term task mastery and self-efficacy (Andrade, Wang, Du, & Akawi, 2009).

Learning Processes

Murray (2009) writes of the disconnect involved in training English teachers and training writers. English teachers are trained to see and examine writing as a complete, polished product; however, in this respect, this product is largely divorced from its creative process. He suggests that an effective writing curriculum involves processes of exploration, using language, and communicating learning. This denotes several essential learning processes that writing necessitates the student to engage in: (a) a process of language discovery and truth finding, (b) a process of creation and re-creation, and (c) a process of time management (Andrade & Du, 2005; Murray, 2009). The writing process facilities the organic process of language discovery and enables the writer to find and communicate his/her truth (Murray, 2009); however, rubrics can facilitate the writer's ability to assess his/her own writing (Black & William, 1998; Brookhart, 2003; Shepard, 2000; Wiggins, 1998), thus enabling effective creation and re-creation processes and also navigation of time constraints (Andrade & Du, 2005). Beyreli and Ari (2009) find that rubrics are useful in exposing student writing deficiencies earlier, consequently aiding the student in developing appropriate strategies to overcome those deficiencies (Andrade & Du, 2005). Kumar (2013) reports that formative assessments foster the learning process, improve students' self-awareness, enable descriptive feedback and modification of teaching and learning activities, and address affective student factors. Furthermore, peer- and self-assessment and portfolio assessment promote writing skills. Additionally, Mansilla, Duraisingh, Wolfe, and Haynes (2009) and Wolf and Stevens (2007) agree that rubric implementation creates clearer views for both students – e.g., regarding expectations (Andrade & Du, 2005; Reynolds-Keefer, 2010) – and instructors with regard to needed writing improvements and students' achievements. Rubric criteria enable students to monitor their writing progress; guarantee a fairer, more accurate assessment process; enable peer- and self-assessment; and advance the learning process of first-generation, non-traditional, and African-American students. Additionally, Wingate (2010) shows that explicit formative feedback via assessment caused high-achieving students to be aware of and to acknowledge and not repeat mistakes, and strengthened motivation and self-efficacy. Students find low-stakes, tutorial portfolio assessments (the formative aspect) beneficial as they perceive their learning's connectedness, and the portfolio becomes a revision tool. This encourages greater student learning; however, this process may increase the instructor's workload (Trotter, 2006). Weurlander, Söderberg, Scheja, Hult, and Wernerson (2012) report that formative assessments cause consistent student study. Murray (2009) points out one essential complication involved in writing: "There must be time for the writing process to take place and time for it to end. The writer must work within the stimulating tension of unpressured time to think and dream and stare out windows, and pressured time – the deadline – to which the writer must deliver" (p. 5). Rubrics aid this process through their clarity: Rubrics increase the writer's understanding of the expectations, help the writer plan, and lower the writer's anxiety (Andrade & Du, 2005; Reynolds-Keefer, 2010). Further, rubrics help guide the writing and facilitate peer-assessment, self-assessment, and reflection (Andrade & Du, 2005). Critically, rubrics enable the writer to see all the necessary pieces at the start and facilitate the writer's ability to attempt each part in the allotted timeframe.

Self-Efficacy

Andrade, Wang, Du, and Akawi (2009) write that using rubric-referenced self-assessment increased females' short-term task mastery and self-efficacy. Additionally, Panadero, Alonso-Tapia, and Huertas (2012) report that the usage of rubrics is not enough to create the mastery experience necessary to develop the students' self-efficacy. Based on Clark (2012), formative assessment manages to help students to acquire self-regulated learning that, once acquired, will enable the students to have a strong sense of self-efficacy. Reciprocal peer-coaching, suggested by Ashgar (2010), as a formative assessment also shows a positive impact in promoting self-regulated students who are driven by motivation, goals, and self-efficacy. If each student is a self-regulated learner, when students are put in a group, it will generate collective efficacy and collaborative learning (Clark, 2012) or shared learning (Ashgar, 2010), which can improve cognitive development.

Rubric Limitations: Rater Confidence, Rubric Construction, and Rubric Use

Several researchers (Dargusch, 2014; Harlen, 2005; Joughin, 2010; Reddy & Andrade, 2010; Rochford & Borchert, 2011; Schenck & Daly, 2012; Wininger, 2005; Yorke, 2010) report limitations to formative and/or summative assessments, primarily in terms of population differences, instructor-use confidence, and rubric construction.

Rater Confidence

Reddy and Andrade (2010) discuss rubric use in higher education and report that while students' perceptions are positive, instructors' perceptions are inconclusive but suggest greater positive perceptions with effective rubric use in an instructor's teaching and evaluation. In part, this is due to the instructor's understanding of the rubric's use. Reddy and Andrade report, "Instructors' limited conception of the purpose of a rubric might contribute to their unwillingness to use them. College and university teachers might be more receptive if they understand that rubrics can be used to enhance teaching and learning as well as to evaluate" (p. 439). Students state that rubrics help them both learn and achieve, while instructors think of rubrics in terms of grading – rubrics offer quick, objective, and accurate grade assignments (p. 439). Dargusch (2014) suggests formative assessment, regardless of its empirical benefit, works only when teachers are confident in the assessment use. In three studies (Andrade & Du, 2005; Bolton, 2006; Powell, 2001), co-creation of rubrics produced a more positive affective and grade effect.

Rubric Construction

Harlen (2005) suggests the distinction between formative and summative assessment is important and that a synergy is needed between the two. This can be created by having those responsible for using the results involved in the assessment planning and criteria development. Yorke (2010) considers rubric construction and investigates coarsely grained, instead of finely grained, summative assessment. This study concludes that coarsely grained summative assessments do not solve all difficulties, but show improvements when using smaller assessment scales. Additionally, Yorke (2011) warns of flawed summative assessment measurements from grader bias and coarsely grained assessments. Rochford and Borchert (2011) state that although rubrics are beneficial to the students and evaluation altogether, they still find that both rubrics' development and conducting assessment take a great deal of time, which is not compensated by reducing teaching time and other responsibilities. Joughin (2010) finds that while many in higher education support summative assessments, care should be given to the assessments' evaluation for "hidden curriculum" and "cue consciousness." Schenck and Daly (2012) report that most criteria in writing rubrics now are subjective, ambiguous (in holistic rubrics), and disparate. Therefore, they propose the use of objective empirical measures of writing qualities, looking specifically into cohesion, content, fluency, and vocabulary.

Rubric Use

Another important limitation to consider is the rubric's use, specifically pertaining to perceptional differences in the instructor and student, the student's ability, and the varied responses to rubrics depending on student gender and culture. Meanwhile, Wininger (2005) reports that students prefer the combined use of formative and summative assessments as they perceive that the formative feedback clarifies student's problem areas, and the students comprehend the feedback and fix the problem before the summative evaluation; instructors find that formative and summative assessments focus students' attention on specific problem areas and effectively decrease student argumentation. Wingate (2010) reports that low-achieving students experience anxiety from repeated feedback, and that students not engaging with feedback do not benefit from the rubrics and have lower self-efficacy and lower program interest. Besides that, ambiguous, subjective, and disparate rubric criteria will lead the raters to use their own interpretation of the criteria, which can affect their evaluation of students' writing due to their personal biases (Schenck & Daly, 2012). Studies (Andrade & Boulay, 2003; Goodrich, 1996) suggest that males and females respond differently to rubrics. Andrade, Wang, Du, and Akawi (2009) suggest males tend to ignore the rubric, seek a performance approach, and generally seek peer and teacher help, whereas girls may find satisfaction and confidence in the self-generated progress of the writing assignment. Cothran (2003) supports the claim, noting that female student writers respond slightly more positively towards the usage of rubrics in their writing assignments than male students. However, when asked about how they use the rubrics, the data collected shows no difference between male and female students (Andrade & Du, 2005). Wolf and Stevens (2007) report that rubrics advance the learning process of first-generation, non-traditional, and African-American students. This indicates that cultural variations are observable; thus, more research should be done on how other cultures use and perceive rubrics.

Methods

Four low-stakes formative (pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing) and one high-stakes summative (publishing) finely grained assessments attending to vertical and horizontal score alignment guided students through the writing process. If a criterion was attempted, at least 50% was earned; if a criterion was not evident, 0 points were earned. Four student productions, increasing in length, amount of integrated source material, and in-text citations, reinforced procedural, organizational, and structural knowledge and competence. The grading scale for the pre-write, first draft, revision, and final draft rubrics were listed as *Excellent, Very Good, Good, Fair, Fix,* and *Not Done,* and were each associated with specific point values. The edit rubric differed in that it measured proficiency numerically for each of the specific sixteen editing skills listed (i.e., Perfect = 0 errors, Excellent = 1 error, Good = 2 errors, Fair = 3 errors, Improve = 4 errors, and Poor = 5+ errors). Each of these marks was also associated with a point value. Total point values were considered irrelevant, while care was given to produce a vertical and horizontal grade percent alignment; i.e., both the horizontal (whole-assignment grades) and vertical (skill-proficiency grades) produced real percentile grades that corresponded to traditional grade marks: A, B, C, D, F. The summative high-stakes assessment evaluated students' feedback integration and paper refinement in one submission and counted four times, equal to the previous formative assignments. Below are descriptions of the individual rubrics (see the Appendix for the five rubrics).

The *pre-writing* rubric evaluated four criteria: topic selection, thesis statement, topic sentences, and closing statement, with 20 possible points. Here in the grade scales, the numeric values, and percentiles varied and were as follows: Excellent = 5 points, 100%; Very Good = 4.5 points, 90%; Good = 4 points, 80%; Fair = 3.5 points, 70%; Fix = 3 points, 60%; Not Done = 0 points, 0%. This lenient assessment offered a 60% minimal score for an attempt. This assessment was to ensure that the student was engaging with the content, asking pertinent questions, and developing a schema to lay out his/her positions clearly with attention to organization and style.

The *first draft* rubric evaluated four criteria: style (MLA), introduction, body, and conclusion structures, for 100 total points. Here in the grade scales, the numeric values, and percentiles varied and were the following: Excellent = 10/20 points, 100%; Very Good = 8/16 points, 90%; Good = 6.33/11 points, 80%; Fair = 4/8 points, 70%; Fix = 2/4 points, 60%; Not Done = 0 points, 0%. Additionally, students were expected to adhere to minimal draft requirements: word count, in-text citations, and a works cited page. These offered a baseline for submission. Not having met submission requirements was a no-grade; completion of these requirements guaranteed a 50%.

The *revision* rubric evaluated six criteria: revisions; organization pattern; structure; and content quality, quantity, and relevance, for 60 total points. Here in the grade scales, the numeric values, and percentiles varied and were the following: Excellent = 5 points, 100%; Very Good = 4 points, 90%; Good = 3 points, 80%; Fair = 2 points, 70%; Fix = 1 point, 60%; Not Done = 0 points, 50%. Again, students were expected to adhere to minimal draft requirements: word count, in-text citations, and a works cited page (30 points/30%). These requirements were more than in the first draft to compel students to attend to feedback, strengthen positions, and clarify ideas. Central to the revisions were the effective use of prior feedback and content quality, quantity, and relevance.

The *edit* rubric evaluated 16 grammar, punctuation, and mechanical conventions: unclear meaning/translation, sentence fragment, run-on, comma splice, verb tense/form, singular/plural, subject-verb agreement, noun-pronoun agreement, word choice/form/order, prepositions, articles, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling, for 100 total points. Students lost points per criterion error (5+ errors indicated faulty concept understanding) and were urged to review and repeat formative steps for criterion mastery and score improvement. Grade scales, numeric values, and percentiles varied and were as follows: Perfect = 0 errors, 5 points, 100%; Excellent = 1 error, 4.4 points, 90%; Good = 2 errors, 3.75 points, 80%; Fair = 3 errors, 3.13 points, 70%; Improve = 4 errors, 2.5 point, 60%; Poor = 5+ errors, 1.88 points, 50%. Again, students were compelled to attend to feedback, strengthen positions, and clarify ideas as suggested in the first draft and revisions (20 points/20%). Additionally, the point complexity here was to maintain both horizontal and vertical grade alignment.

The *final draft* rubric evaluated 11 criteria, starting with format and minimal requirements (counting for 50 points/50% of the total assessment). In addition, the following were rated *Excellent* to *Not Done*: organization; introduction; body and conclusion structures; content quality, quantity, and relevance; grammar; punctuation; and capitalization/spelling, for 50 points. These ten criteria encompassed all the previously assessed skills: pre-writing, first draft, revision, and edit. The grade scales, numeric values, and percentiles varied and were as follows: Excellent = 5 points, 100%; Very Good = 4 points, 90%; Good = 3 points, 80%; Fair = 2 points, 70%; Fix = 1 point, 60%; Not Done = 0 points, 50%.

This rubric set effectively scaffolded the writing process into discrete steps through the four formative rubrics; facilitated dialogue, revision, and mentoring; and assessed the student's use of those aids in the summative (final draft) assessment.

RESULTS

Several observable student benefits were better productions, individuated instruction, greater autonomous learning, and both student-student and student-instructor relationships. Just as Black and Wiliam (1998), Brookhart (2003), Shepard (2000), Stiggins (2001), and Wiggins (1998) found of rubrics and assessment, this study illustrated that, first and foremost, formative rubrics used for writing delivered both higher quality and higher quantity productions from students. This study saw students who used the formative process effectively produce papers in excess of seventeen pages of heavily cited material. Two probable causes for this could be the rubrics' ability to enhance a student's autonomous learning and the individuated instruction and feedback that the rubrics could offer. During this study, similar to that of Stiggins (2001), students reported being able to evaluate their own or a peer's writing using the rubric both before and after submissions. This process enabled the students to self- and peer-assess at a much higher level, largely due to the de-mystification of the requirements. For those students lacking peer networks or self-evaluation tools, the individuated instruction afforded them a unique and safe opportunity to ask questions about specific criteria they had not performed well on. Additionally, the feedback could quickly show proper examples and reduce any potential questions a student may have had.

Moreover, while the formative rubrics provided direct individual instruction and support for weak areas in the student's work, it also highlighted the student's strengths. This created a critical space for student-student and student-instructor interaction, especially important for reticent students as it gave them a question to ask while also pointing out critical areas in need of specific support that could be sought from both peers and instructors, which in turn created a positive platform for scholarly relationships to develop. Those students who reviewed and integrated feedback into their productions experienced learning growth and were able to focus their attention on the previously hidden weak areas of their writing.

DISCUSSION

It is certain that a rubric hastens the assessment of written work. Instructors have reduced student essay grading time to a fraction of what it was previously, while providing better, more critical feedback through formative and summative rubric use. In part, this is due to the specific assessment criteria: Instructors do not need to focus on *everything* in each read, but are able to build instruction as the student work progresses. There is knowledge that the student can try again, thus reducing both student and instructor stress. Inevitably this produces better-written material through the student's reflection.

A secondary challenge is encouraging autonomous learning. However, as Stiggins (2001) suggests, "Students are the key assessment users" (p. 17). Thus, the assessments that are used must be accessible to the student, but must also compel them to reflect on the assessment's meaning in relation to what they are producing rather than allow them to simply continue to submit projects, get a grade, and move to the next project. I found that these rubric sets help negotiate this in two ways: (a) by disrupting the "grade," and (b) by rewarding students with better scores for conscious reflection and progress. Several of these rubrics offer scores that have little meaning when compared to traditional scores (e.g., both 20 and 54 could equal an A), but to understand this, the student must review the rubric and understand its construction. Additionally, through this reflection, students were able to locate meaningful assessment information that demonstrated both strengths and weaknesses particular to the specified criteria. Thus, the formative rubric serves to provoke student questions. The study's results illustrate students' reporting a greater ability to self-identify weak skills areas, and to proactively seek help from a peer, instructor, or review notes.

There are limits to this; these were briefly addressed above. Instructors anticipated that the specific criteria and scaled point-association for those criteria with comments would be enough to prompt students to figure out what was wrong and begin work; however, some students waited for direct person-to-person instruction. This seemed to arise out of specific limitations: modality, technology use, and demographics. Many students experienced a learning curve in understanding the rubric. Once they understood the rubric construction and where to find feedback, and were able to review and resubmit work, the majority engaged more liberally in self- and peer-assessment, some resubmitting an assignment 3-5 times. A second limitation was technology: All work was submitted and reviewed online. At times, complications arose with Internet and program functionality. In an ELL course, some students have limited experience on computers and feel burdened by the constraints that technology can create. These issues frustrated students greatly; however, these are real-life challenges students must learn to handle. Lastly, gender and cultural differences greatly influence how well students will respond to recursive tasks, self-reflection, and autonomous learning. As previously mentioned (Andrade et al., 2009), males typically look for peer-related or direct instructor instruction rather than reviewing written comments. Additionally, in this study's population, Saudi Arabian and Indian males tended to negate written feedback and focus only on direct feedback and instruction in their work via private tutorial or in class open review. This challenge can be frustrating for both instructors and students as both have to negotiate those differences, i.e., the student's need for autonomous learning, so that the student learns how to effectively perform in the U.S. academic setting as well as master content.

Conclusions

In conclusion, formative assessments necessitate summative rubrics, which, when used in tandem, encourage student self-reflection and thus potential for learning both content and skills. Formative rubrics work best when the summative task is reduced to several layers, each containing several discrete and objectifiable tasks that build into the elements required in the summative task. This study used such a rubric set: four formative rubrics and one summative rubric. Further, this study used a recursive design to reinforce each formative level to produce better summative results consecutively. This study found that using both formative and summative rubrics for academic writing fostered student self-reflection and student-student-teacher scholarly relationships, producing better student productions; greater student understanding of procedural, organizational, and structural knowledge; and competence in the academic writing process, in addition to building the student's self-efficacy in academic research and writing. Research and this study have found that cultural and gender differences play a role in how well students respond to written feedback, and that instructors may have to engage in dedicated teaching strategies to illustrate, model, and reinforce the need for self-reflection and its benefit to those students who prefer other instructional modalities. However, when care is given to each individual, as rubrics will afford, the individuals are capable of producing greater quantities of quality material while gaining critical confidence in their skills, ability, and content knowledge.

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APPENDIX

Rubrics for Pre-writing (1), First Draft (2), Revision (3), Edit (4), and Final Draft (5)

1. Pre-writing Rubric						
Criteria	**Grading Scale**					
	Excellent	**Very Good**	**Good**	**Fair**	**Fix**	**Not Done**
Topic: Student has selected a topic and several subtopics.	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	0
Thesis Statement: Student has developed an emphatic thesis statement that includes subtopics and clearly shows the developmental pattern.	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	0
Topic Sentences: Student has developed clear topic sentences that include controlling ideas and a logical organizational pattern.	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	0
Closing Statement: Student has included a strong closing statement that clearly affirms his/her position and writing purpose.	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	0
Totals	20	18	16	14	12	0
Percentage (%)	100	90	80	70	60	0
Letter Grade	A+	A	B	C	D	F

2. First Draft Rubric						
Criteria	**Grading Scale**					
Minimal Requirements: 1) Contains minimal word count; 2) contains in-text citations; 3) contains work cited from academic sources.					50 Yes	0 No
	Excellent	**Very Good**	**Good**	**Fair**	**Fix**	**Not Done**
Format: Student uses MLA format.	10	8	6.33	4	2	0
Introduction: Student includes a well-structured introduction evidenced by a clear hook, clear organizational structure (historical, dramatic story, etc.), introduces necessary background information (who, what, when, where, how, why...), and ends with an emphatic thesis statement.	10	8	6.33	4	2	0
Body Paragraphs: Student begins each body paragraph with a strong topic sentence that 1) connects the body to the thesis statement and the previous paragraph, 2) has controlling ideas, 3) uses at least three supporting details, 4) uses outside sources to support the topic sentence.	20	16	11	8	4	0
Conclusion: 1) Restates the thesis, 2) restates each topic sentence, 3) ends with a strong closing statement.	10	8	6.34	4	2	0
Totals	100	90	80	70	60	0
Percentage (%)	100	90	80	70	60	0
Letter Grade	A+	A	B	C	D	F

3. Revision Rubric						
Criteria	**Grading Scale**					
Format & Minimal Requirements: 1) MLA formatting, 2) minimal words, 3) works cited, 4) in-text citations.					**30**	**0**
					Yes	**No**
	Excellent	**Very Good**	**Good**	**Fair**	**Fix**	**Not Done**
Evidence of Revisions: The student used comments and corrections on the first draft to substantially improve the essay.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Organization: The essay shows a clear organizational pattern.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Structure: The essay uses clear essay and paragraph structures.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Content: Quality - The content matches academic style and value; i.e., the essay is not a personal, reflective, or subjective work, but is objective in nature and uses academic sources and rigor to support its purpose and point.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Content: Quantity - There is sufficient content to introduce and to support the thesis and topic sentences.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Content: Relevance - Each sentence is relevant to the topic.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Totals	**60**	**54**	**48**	**42**	**36**	**30**
Percentage (%)	**100**	**90**	**80**	**70**	**60**	**50**
Letter Grade	**A+**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**F**

4. Edit Rubric						
Criteria	**Grading Scale**					
Formatting & Minimal Requirements: Essay uses MLA format; essay meets minimal word requirements; essay contains in-text citations; essay contains a works-cited page.					**Yes**	**No**
					20	**0**
	Perfect 0 Errors	**Excellent 1 Error**	**Good 2 Errors**	**Fair 3 Errors**	**Improve 4 Errors**	**Poor 5+ Errors**
Unclear Meaning/Translation	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Sentence Fragment	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Run-On Sentence	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Comma Splice	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Verb Tense/ Verb Form	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Singular/Plural	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Subject-Verb Agreement	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Noun-Pronoun Agreement	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Word Choice	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Word Form	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Word Order	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Preposition	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Articles	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Punctuation	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Capitalization	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Spelling	5	4.4	3.75	3.13	2.5	1.88
Totals	**100**	**90.4**	**80**	**70.08**	**60**	**50.08**
Percentage (%)	**100**	**90**	**80**	**70**	**60**	**50**
Letter Grade	**A+**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**D**

5. Final Draft Rubric						
Criteria	**Grading Scale**					
Format & Minimal Requirements: Essay is in MLA, essay meets minimal word count, essay is on-topic, essay has a works cited, essay has in-text citations.					**50** / **Yes**	**0** / **No**
	Excellent	**Very Good**	**Good**	**Fair**	**Fix**	**Not Done**
Organization: Essay uses the appropriate mode, compare/contrast, cause/effect, argumentation, etc.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Introduction Structure: Essay contains a properly structured introduction.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Body Structure: Essay contains properly structured body paragraphs.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Conclusion Structure: Essay contains a properly structured conclusion.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Content: Quality - Essay is of academic quality.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Content: Quantity - Essay has sufficient support, but not too much support.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Content: Relevance - Essay contains only information that is relevant to the topic.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Grammar: Essay is free of grammar mistakes.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Punctuation: Essay is free of punctuation mistakes.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Capitalization & Spelling: Essay is free of capitalization and spelling errors.	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Totals	**100**	**90**	**80**	**70**	**60**	**0**
Percentage (%)	**100**	**90**	**80**	**70**	**60**	**0**
Letter Grade	**A+**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**F**

Study-Abroad Program Assessment Through Social Networking Sites

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Understanding how to assess and improve overseas programs is a vital concern for administrators and instructors. Narratives of critical incidents from students can reveal intercultural experiences and facilitate improvement for future programs. Despite the popularity of social networking sites (SNS), little is known about how students use this technology to create a narrative of their experience during their sojourn. Information is needed on SNS usage to assess study-abroad programs and intercultural communicative competence. Based on a one-month study, this paper offers a glimpse at how the activity of study-abroad participants on SNS can, to a limited extent, disclose intercultural experience based on Byram's (2000) self-assessment model and identifies issues to be addressed to improve study-abroad programs. Findings will bring attention to issues to be addressed to improve the experience of students, administrators, and host families. Additionally, advantages and limitations of SNS during sojourns abroad will be highlighted.

INTRODUCTION

Modern technological communication provides a wealth of opportunities for international contact. Kohonen, Jaatinen, Kaikkonen, and Lehtovaara, (2001) stressed the importance of establishing contacts abroad as a way to become a global citizen. Increased short-term study-abroad exchanges allow for greater accessibility to contacts abroad. However, little is known about how sojourners use social networking sites (SNS) before, during, and after their sojourn. This is of importance as it could shed light on the critical incidents that learners encounter during their sojourn – critical incidents ranging from minor frustrations to major misunderstandings.

Unlike many study-abroad program administrators, Spencer-Oatey and Xing (2008) were able to interview participants shortly following a critical incident. Furthermore, surveys often fall short of capturing students' experiences pre- and post-sojourn (Swenson & Vistagis, 2000). SNS offer a platform to report such critical incidents. This one-month-long study aims to investigate how study-abroad participants use SNS while abroad, and additionally, this study highlights how sojourners can use SNS to act as a mediator between two cultures. Byram (1997) places importance on the intercultural speaker to act as this kind of mediator. For this reason, this study seeks to investigate how intercultural communicative competence can be monitored through Byram's (2000) self-assessment model of intercultural experience on SNS during the students' during-sojourn and post-sojourn periods.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Traditional research in study abroad has been dominated by quantitative research focused on language proficiency outcomes (Coleman, 1997, 1998; Freed, 1998; Isabelli-Garcia, 2003). Recent research has seen the use of introspective techniques (e.g., diaries, first-person narratives, interviews). These techniques have been used to gain a better grasp of the language-learning and culture-learning process. Kinginger (2008) explored how sojourners spend time and interpret those experiences. Many study-abroad participants stay with a host family. Wilkinson (1998) found that their reception by their host family plays a key role in their integration into local communities.

Kinginger (2008) found that sojourners can develop close ties through local communities. Sojourners will interact with a new environment in different ways. Some will develop close ties through local communities (Kinginger, 2008). Conversely, others will socially withdraw by means of travel or by expressing a sense of national superiority (Perrefort, 2008). Some study-abroad participants will withdraw by remaining at home virtually with the help of the Internet (Kinginger, 2008). Increased access to technology in the form of social networking sites (SNS) (e.g., Facebook, Skype, LINE, Twitter) has changed the nature of study-abroad programs. Study-abroad participants can stay in frequent contact with home (Jackson, 2013). This opens up a need for research into the interactions that sojourners studying abroad have using SNS. A collection of interactions can form a narrative of the sojourner's experience.

Increased value has been place on the storied experiences of the sojourner to learn more about the impact of studying abroad (Jackson, 2008). Qualitative data can assist in assessing personal, social, linguistic, and academic development during their sojourn, but can also act as a valuable resource for program administrators (Jackson, 2008). Intercultural development and assessment can be a main concern for program administrators when assessing study-abroad programs. At its core, intercultural competence is the preparation to interact in an effective and appropriate manner (Sinicrope, Norris, & Watanabe, 2007).

Various models exist for measuring intercultural competence: Bennett's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), Gudykunst's (1993) Anxiety/Uncertainty Management Model (AUM), Byram's (1997) Multidimensional Model of Intercultural Competence, Byram's (2000) Self-Assessment of Intercultural Experience, and Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of Intercultural Competence. Byram's (1997) model puts the intercultural speaker as a mediator between two cultures and considers the sociocultural elements in intercultural communication (Jackson, 2005). Narratives, a key element of the sociocultural approach, can both track and cite development (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinmann, 2011).

For this exploration into study-abroad program assessment, Byram's (2000) self-assessment model (see Table 1), based on Byram's (1997) model was used to monitor sojourner's narratives through Facebook before, during, and after their sojourn. This research aims to explore the following questions:

1. How do short-term study-abroad participants use social networking sites, before, during, and after their sojourn?

2. Can intercultural communicative competence be assessed through social networking sites?

Table 1. Self-Assessment of Intercultural Experience (Byram, 2000)

Categories	Examples
A. Interest in other people's way of life	I am interested in other people's experience of daily life, particularly those things not usually presented to outsiders through the media.
B. Ability to change perspective	I have realized that I can understand other cultures by seeing things from a different point of view and by looking at my culture from their perspective.
C. Ability to cope with living in a different culture	I am able to cope with a range of reactions I have to living in a different culture (euphoria, homesickness, physical and mental discomfort, etc.)
D. Knowledge about another country and culture	I know some important facts about living in the other culture and about the country, state, and people.
E. Knowledge about intercultural communication	I know how to resolve misunderstandings that arise from people's lack of awareness of the viewpoint of another culture.

METHOD

Participants

Fifteen participants (12 females, 3 males) took part in a short-term Australia study program. The 15 participants, first- (F; n = 10) and second- (S; n = 5) year students were Japanese Studies majors from a private university in central Japan. Pseudonyms are given to them below to protect their identities.

Data Collection

Private Facebook group posts, and personal Facebook page posts were analyzed to monitor intercultural experiences. Interview responses were analyzed to learn about their sojourn and their use of SNS during their sojourn. Facebook, an online SNS that connects friends through messages and information-sharing, was used, based on its perceived popularity among the sojourners as well as their home-stay families in Australia.

Private Facebook Group

All fifteen participants were invited to join a private Facebook group created for them. Participants were asked to share their experiences on the Facebook page. The group administrator provided seventeen prompts to encourage activity on the page. Fourteen participants joined the Facebook group. One participant did not use Facebook. Participants gave permission to the group administrator to monitor their Facebook pages pre-, during-, and post-sojourn. Facebook posts were coded using Byram's (2000) self-assessment of intercultural experience (see Table 1).

Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected participants post-sojourn. Participants were selected based on their participation, or lack thereof, on Facebook. The interviews attempted to explore the nature of the participants experience using social networking sites during their short-term study abroad.

Results

Participants' posts on Facebook displayed three aspects of intercultural communicative competence consistent with Byram's (2000) categories: (a) interest in other people's way of life, (c) ability to cope with other people's way of life, (d) knowledge of another country. Additionally, through participant interviews, interviewees claimed an increased usage of English on SNS, during their sojourn and post-sojourn, and gave evidence consistent with (e) knowledge of intercultural communication on an alternative SNS. The following posts from SNS provide evidence consistent with these four categories (i.e., categories a, c, d, and e) of Byram's (2000) self-assessment of intercultural experience.

Private Facebook Group Posts

Twenty-seven (27) posts were made on the private Facebook group page. Seventeen (17) group posts were created by the administrator. The nature of the administrator's posts was inquisitive about the nature of their short-term study abroad (e.g., What is something that has surprised you?). Moreover, the administrator created posts about his daily life back in Japan (e.g., food, weather, and holidays or special events). The 10 posts from the short-term study-abroad participants consisted of pictures from their experiences with host families, excursions with friends, going to restaurants, and shopping,

To monitor intercultural communicative competence, responses were coded using Byram's (2000) self-assessment of intercultural experience. Categories (a), interest in other cultures, and (d), knowledge about another country and culture, were monitored. Participants posted pictures with short descriptions as follows:

> (a) Today, we touched a koala! So cute! And now, Shion's and I are enjoying with Shion's host sister, Kristin. (Kana)

> (a) Last Sunday, I went to Nelson beach with Miki and her host mother. It is beautiful, isn't it! We are going to go there on next Tuesday to see dolphins. I really look forward to go Nelson beach again! (Mayu)

One participant shared her knowledge of food in Australia by posting a picture of pavlova and mentioning in the comments section that she had learned about it in her English Conversation and Composition class the previous semester. This post would be consistent with category (d), knowledge about another country and culture:

> (d) I went to a party in Rachel's house with my classmate yesterday. We brought many foods and shared its. It was my first time to eat a pavlova! It was too sweet but I like it. We enjoyed the party. (Mana)

Personal Facebook Page Posts

Posts on the participants' personal Facebook pages outnumbered posts on our private Facebook group page. The participants posted pictures along with short descriptions of their experiences. Posts demonstrating three of Byram's (2000) categories were monitored. Posts consistent with category (c), ability to cope with living in a different environment, were the most frequent. The participants created posts on their personal Facebook pages showing interest in Australian culture (e.g., activities and food). These comments are consistent with category (a):

> (a) Richard took me to the biggest lake in Newcastle! Amazing place. But I still fear of water. Looking forward to bowling this Sunday! Bowling in Australia is far different from in Japan. (Jun)

> (a) Australia is awesome! I want to live. (Shion)

While some participants displayed their interest in Australian culture by creating posts about food or activities the participants enjoyed while back in Japan, other students' posts fell into category (c), an ability to cope with living in a different environment. Below, a participant made a post about some food that reminded him of life back home:

> (c) I had a little travel. [. . .] We went to KFC at Warners Bay. Zinger Box was great! I'm far away from home but I feel here just like home. Home sweet home! (Jun)

Post-sojourn, participants continued to post on Facebook. Participants attributed their enjoyable experience in Australia to their host families, teachers, and friends. The following posts demonstrate category (c), coping in a different environment:

> (c) I'm home, Japan. Thank you, everyone. [. . .] Being able to go to Australia to study was like a dream come true. I was supported by many people. So, I was able to have a satisfying time. Davidson family, G'Day mite, Thank you very match. (Yui)

> (c) I was so happy to I had a great time with you. You tried to understand my poor English. I was helped by such your kindness many times. Thanks to you, I had very fun everyday. I'll never forget all. I love Newcastle and you all! Thank you for having me for 3 weeks! I hope to see you again! (Kana)

Post-sojourn, participants created posts claiming their knowledge of Australian culture: a characteristic consistent with category (d):

> (d) I had a lot of great time in Australia! I felt nervous when I went there, however, I did not want to come back to Japan I left from Australia. I learned about Aussie culture, I wanna go to AUS again. (Yuki)

Meanwhile, other participants created posts explaining Japanese culture to their host family and friends back in Australia:

> (d) Today is Hina-matsuri! It means Girls' Festival. I made sushi roll with my family. (Ai)

In short, coded posts on Facebook were consistent with three of Byram's (2000) categories of self-assessment of intercultural experience. Category (c), the ability to cope with living in a different environment, was the most prevalent.

Participant Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected participants. Participants were selected based on their participation on Facebook. The interviews aimed to explore the nature of their experience using SNS during their sojourn. Participants shared their opinions about posting on the group page compared with their personal Facebook page. Moreover, participants shared two different critical incidents they monitored on another SNS, LINE:

> I think I posted more on my personal page. I didn't know how to post in that group. No other reason. (Jun)

> I posted about my Chinese friend on my personal page (not the group page) because only Australia members could see. (Mana)

Participants explained the positive nature of their posts on Facebook:

> I used only Facebook. Maybe it me. Only I do that. I put some happy moment with my friends. I didn't post bad things or difficulties. I just wanted to show that (happy moments) to my family and friends in Japan. (Jun)

> I didn't post this in Facebook because I think Facebook is public and serious. LINE is uh . . . only chat and useful for us. (Mana)

The previous comment mentioned LINE, a popular SNS in Japan. Interview participants shared their preference for LINE over Facebook:

> I think there is a better way to know everyday's actions. I think Facebook is a little bit complicated. I, Shion, and other girls could not know how to post in your group. I think it maybe go easier, to make a LINE group. Because that app is very easier. Easy to use. Anybody can use that anytime. (Jun)

> It [LINE] is easy for us. [. . .] Line is just like chatting. (Aya)

Critical Incident #1 on LINE

Participants mentioned the positive nature of their posts on Facebook. However, interview participants mentioned some critical incidents discussed over LINE. There were two critical incidents mentioned. The first critical incident involved a participant and her host family. The host family made plans to take the participant on a day-trip. However, the participant elected to go shopping with two fellow participants:

> I think Yuki, Miki, and Aya got angry from their host family. [. . .] And they said, "Help us" in the LINE group. People told them to apologize first. Because host families are so kind. They said they would try their best. (Jun)

> Some people's host family got angry but they couldn't understand why their host family is angry. They wrote "Help us. I didn't help because I didn't understand why they got angry. (Mana)

Critical Incident #2 on LINE

Another participant mentioned that one of her classmates seemed to be having a difficult time with her host family:

> Sometime host family and she go somewhere. But her host family doesn't care about her. She felt lonely. [. . .] I think she had to talk her host family but she didn't that. (Mana)

In short, participants shared critical incidents on LINE, rather than on Facebook. In the first incident, fellow participants tried to manage the misunderstanding, a characteristic of an intercultural speaker consistent with category (e), knowledge about intercultural communication.

LINE Usage

Interview participants were then asked about their use of LINE in Australia. Participants mentioned the casual nature of their conversations on LINE:

> I contacted with my friends. My friends asked me, "How's Australia and stuff?" We sent many pictures and uh making plans. (Risa)

> Talk about homework and plan for weekend. (Aya)

> If I didn't understand what our teacher said, I asked my friends. We wrote, "What time do you go to school tomorrow?" "Where are we going to meet?" (Mana)

> We made a group. I think 80% comments were in Japanese. We asked, "What did you do today?" "Did you have any story from your host family?" "What should we do tomorrow?" (Jun)

English Usage on SNS

The previous comment highlights the language use of the participants on SNS. Learners were also asked about how they kept in contact via LINE and Facebook with the friends they made during their sojourn in Australia:

> I use LINE with my Australian friends. I could only make three friends. I am keeping touch with my host family on Gmail. Mark, Andy, and Dustin, I keep in contact with them. I think Andy is our Australian (LINE) group. I contact with Andy and some guys from Brazil on Facebook. We exchange messages on Facebook. I can show you. . . . Before going to Australia, I posted (on Facebook) in Japanese. After Australia, about 80% and 90% of my posts are English. (Jun)

> I use more English more on Facebook. LINE doesn't change. I use more English after on Australia. I think it is very helpful for my English ability. (Aya)

> Before Australia, I only used Japanese on Facebook. But now I use English on Facebook. I want to write in English more but it is difficult for me. For example, if I write a lot in Japanese, but its difficult to translate it all. I want my host family to know my life but I don't have time. (Mana)

In summary, all participants interviewed mentioned an increase of English on Facebook. Participants used English to communicate with their friends and family on Facebook. Finally, one participant cited a key change of perspective involving race:

> Before this trip, I had the wrong idea. I though that black skin people had no education and were very rude. Before, Australia, I didn't want to know them. Now I want to know them. I have an aborigine friend. We keep contact on Facebook. I think everyone is the same. (Jun)

In short, participants showed a preference for the social networking site, LINE, over Facebook during their sojourn. Participants claimed LINE was an easier tool to use to exchange messages about their daily life with fellow participants in Australia. Facebook was used primarily to share pictures, convey positive experiences, and to communicate with friends and host families in Australia.

Discussion

This study suggests that SNS may contribute to helping study-abroad students learn about the nature of their sojourn. Participants may use SNS differently. Facebook was primarily used to share pictures and positive experiences. Sojourners chose to share critical incidents or difficult experiences through an alternative SNS, LINE. Participants in this short-term study-abroad program favored a more private discussion forum to talk about their daily life. Administrators interested in assessing intercultural development as a means of improving the study-abroad experience for future learners may want to employ a pre-test survey asking the participants about the SNS they use and how they use them. Attempting to facilitate interaction through an SNS they are not familiar with may prove too time-consuming for a short-term study-abroad experience.

Moreover, all interviewees said that their English usage on Facebook increased during their sojourn and post-sojourn. This may be explained by the widespread popularity of Facebook in Australia, compared to LINE. Administrators interested in deepening connections of their sojourners with the local environment will want to consider what SNS are popular in the host country. Providing tutorials to future sojourners in the use of these SNS can help them develop ties with the local community, including host families, and create a powerful narrative of their experience. Jackson (2008) suggests that narratives from host families will help administrators improve study-abroad programs. Monitoring how host families interact with SNS may assist this improvement for future sojourners.

In regards to intercultural communicative competence assessment, intercultural experience was monitored to a limited extent. Posts and interactions were primarily coded under Byram's (2000) categories of (a), interest in culture, and (b), ability to cope with living different culture. It would appear that a more holistic approach is required to assess intercultural experience more extensively.

Conclusions

In conclusion, future studies, employing the use of data from various SNS, journals, interviews, and surveys have the potential to give study-abroad program administrators a better idea of the nature of the sojourner's experience. Careful planning and implementation combined with substantial resources can produce beneficial outcomes even in short-term study-abroad programs (Dwyer, 2004; Jackson, 2005). Stimulating contacts abroad can be facilitated through a well-designed program (Byram, 1997). Use of the data and experiences obtained from this study will aid in preparing the students, administrators, teachers, and host families in the next study-abroad set for an increasingly beneficial intercultural experience.

The Author

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Video-Based Reflection: Corrective Feedback Patterns and Teacher Development

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For language teachers, the merits of observing other teachers in action in the classroom are widely accepted as useful practice in teacher development. The fact remains though that in large and busy English departments with coordinated scheduling and curricula, finding time for peer observation and peer reflection is often hindered by a teacher's many responsibilities. To aid teachers in raising awareness of what they do in their own class, and what colleagues do in theirs, the following video-based professional development project was developed, utilizing data analysis software. This article outlines how video recordings of classroom teaching can be codified, analyzed, and then reconceptualized for teachers so that they are better able to understand how they teach, and how this compares to their colleagues. To illustrate the type of feedback we provide teachers, this article focuses on how teachers approach corrective feedback in their classes.

Introduction

Rationale

This project, aimed at supporting teachers in professional development, was created with two fundamental theoretical underpinnings: (a) that structured reflection on teaching practice can result in better teaching, and (b) that video recordings of classroom teaching can significantly augment the effectiveness of teacher reflection as an avenue to further professional learning. Research supporting reflective practice as a developmental technique, and more specifically video-based reflection for teachers, has been steadily growing in recent years, especially with advances in digital technology and computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). As several recent studies (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001; Harford & MacRuairc, 2008; McAlpine & Weston, 2000) on this topic highlight, Dewey (1933) and Schon (1983, 1987, 1991) have been key figures in articulating and elaborating on the importance of utilizing reflective strategies to build teachers' awareness of their own, and other teachers', teaching practices. The goal of reflection in professional development is to have teachers transition from heightened awareness of teaching practice and decision-making into more informed, conscious, and effective in-class performance. Following Schon (1983), this reflection can occur before or after lessons (*reflection-on-action*) or during the lesson itself (*reflection-in-action*), both of which are advantageous because "teachers can then be more intentional and deliberate in their thinking about teaching" (McAlpine & Weston, 2000, p. 363) during the planning and execution of a lesson. More informed self-reflection leads to deeper and broader self-awareness that improves teaching practices.

While reflection is an effective technique for raising a teacher's self-awareness, promoting self-critique and the continuous reassessment of teaching practices is often a significant challenge. The practical issues of coordinated scheduling, shifts in curriculum standards and requirements, as well as staff changes are just some of the elements that exert ongoing pressures on the time that teachers have available for activities such as peer-observation and reflection. Even if there is time for teachers to reflect on their own lesson or discuss a lesson with peer-observers, the reflection is often based on memory and highly subjective interpretations of classroom events and interactions. While teachers, on the whole, want to develop their in-class performance and agree that reflection is a useful strategy to accomplish this, the reality is that the nature of the job sometimes does not allow for it.

With their foundation in the theory of reflective practice for teacher development (Loughran, 2002; Schon, 1991; Cruickshank, 1987), video-based reflective practices offer solutions to the issues raised. The increasing technological advances in recent years have made it possible to capture and manage qualitative data in much more sophisticated ways, enabling the emergence of a rich field of research (Fadde & Sullivan, 2013; Harford & MacRuairc, 2008; Newhouse, Lane, & Brown, 2007; Perry & Talley, 2001; Sherin & Van Es, 2005; Sherin, Russ, Sherin, & Colestock, 2008). These studies have all supported the use of video-based classroom teaching reflective practices for both pre- and in-service teachers in a variety of academic disciplines. While teachers may not feel entirely comfortable watching their own performance, video can serve as a useful alternative to live observation and has the benefit of being referred back to as often as one would like. Such reflection allows teachers to consider the relative success of their lessons in terms of how activities were executed, what students found difficult or enjoyable, and in general, how students responded to the learning material and teacher's instructions. These deliberations are commonly a part of planning for the next lesson, future classes, or as adjustments to lesson flows within the curriculum. Observing a recording of one's own class, however, adds a new dimension to the reflection process. Not only does it give the teacher some insights into the "procedural whole" of the lesson, it also provides a chance to see what happens on the periphery of a teacher's vision during class time.

Teachers therefore become more aware of student responses or classroom events that go unnoticed, and events or questions that are neglected or misunderstood, or perhaps not even addressed. Gaps or failures in lesson procedures, as well as numerous other classroom events, come into focus when the recording of a whole class is presented as an object of investigation. The central idea behind this project is, thus, looking at a whole class as a singular event. From this perspective, the classroom elements or parts, as well as certain themes or patterns, can be highlighted or grouped together as quantifiable data that then offer a very different point of view of classroom practice for teachers.

Setting

With a tendency for university lecturers to be employed under limited-term contracts, it was of interest to address the reality that most university teachers are disadvantaged in terms of how to best adjust to their new teaching environment upon being hired. There needs to be a means that benefits incoming teachers as individuals and also provides the program with a functional record of actual teaching practices that work alongside the curriculum.

For the English program at the Japanese university where this study was conducted, the use of video recordings offered a two-fold benefit to both the research and the needs of current and future language teachers in the program. First, as mentioned previously, video recordings would provide incoming and existing teachers, as well as the program, with a living database that could be updated and adapted to fit the changes made over time. Second, these recordings can be used for research purposes to identify patterns inherent to language teaching. This provides a broader scope of the prevailing practices in a language department and gives teachers a context beyond their own classes.

Approaches to Error Correction

As a focus of this research, error correction has received ongoing attention, but few studies explicitly address the potential benefits it has for teacher reflection. Hendrickson (1978), for instance, recounts that the more pressing issues considered by researchers in this area involved whether to let students discover errors on their own (citing Corder 1967, Gorbet 1974, and Valdman, 1975), how strictly the errors should be addressed (citing Cohen & Robbins, 1976), whether diagrams should be used (citing Lee, 1957; Corder, 1973; Cohen, 1975; and Cohen & Robbins, 1976), or to simply allow for student self-teaching about their mistakes (citing Joiner, 1975).

Developments since then reveal a growing awareness of a discrepancy between actual learner need for error correction and the perceived pedagogical imperative of it. According to Lyster (as cited in Katayama, 2007), teachers tend to prioritize feedback related to pronunciation and word choice, with grammar following to a lesser degree. However, Katayama (2007) contrasts this with how "92.8% of the students agreed, most of them strongly" to wanting teachers to correct grammar errors (p. 67). Other studies have shown non-native speakers have a threshold of only 8.9% corrections made to their speech before it becomes an impediment to communication (Chun, Day, Chenoweth, & Luppescu, 1982). For most teachers, these circumstances are likely to be overlooked simply due to the nature of teaching: reflection on action usually occurs only in retrospect.

In the given university environment, there is a greater self-awareness among Japanese students, and a desire to avoid attention, either affirmative or punitive. For typical Japanese students, "getting it wrong can be a cause of real shame, especially in front of classmates who are younger or socially inferior (in the Japanese sense)" (Thompson, 2011, p. 309). Thompson (2011) further points out that teachers must often balance the need to accommodate the teacher-centered approach their learners are acclimated to and current pedagogy, which is increasingly learner-centered. It is for this reason that the research focuses primarily on the specific forms of error correction actually being made, and not on how to best evaluate it, as typically accompanies research on the topic (Gascoigne 2004).

Data Collection

The process employed for this research involved recording nine 95-minute English language classes across four proficiency levels (Elementary, Pre-Intermediate, Intermediate, and Upper-Intermediate), as well as an elective course, and then transcribing each video. Using NVivo Qualitative Data Analysis software and taking into consideration the goal of identifying tangible references to actual teaching, a coding scheme was grouped into the following categories: teacher behavior, teacher talk, teacher use of media, student behavior, and student talk. NVivo then made it possible to identify ratios of exactly how often and in what context different types of teacher talk and practice occur in language classes. For instance, by isolating the variegated strategies teachers employ when correcting errors, we are able to feedback to teachers what strategies are used, in which contexts, and how students respond.

Coding Description

Within the 73 unique codes that were created, error correction is categorized under the parent category of "teacher talk," and is a sub-category of "teacher response." The individual codes accounting for error correction are general feedback, general verbal feedback, direct verbal feedback, verbal encouragement after errors, verbal hints about correct forms, verbal modeling of correct forms, and verbal restatement (recasting) of the answer given by the student.

Of the 5,210 total instances coded across the nine classes, 2,854 of those were teacher talk. Within those, there were only 204 (approximately 4%) separate occasions where some form of error correction was given. Taken in light of previously mentioned data by Chun, Day, Chenoweth, and Luppescu (1982) with the correction threshold for language learners being 8.9%, such a perceived shortage of feedback would seem to imply a deficiency in the amount of error correction being given by teachers. The research aims to use the present data as a means to provide insight by which teachers can reflect on their own teaching.

Data Concepts

A "tree map" represents an expression of the data being collected after it has been processed and organized using NVivo software. Through the gathered data, teachers and researchers alike are presented with a visual rendering of codified information that can be further analyzed and discussed (see Figure 1). While such depictions may offer little practical benefit for individual teachers simply needing immediate insight, it also provides a means on how to appraise more complicated patterns such as the types and contexts of error correction occurrences.

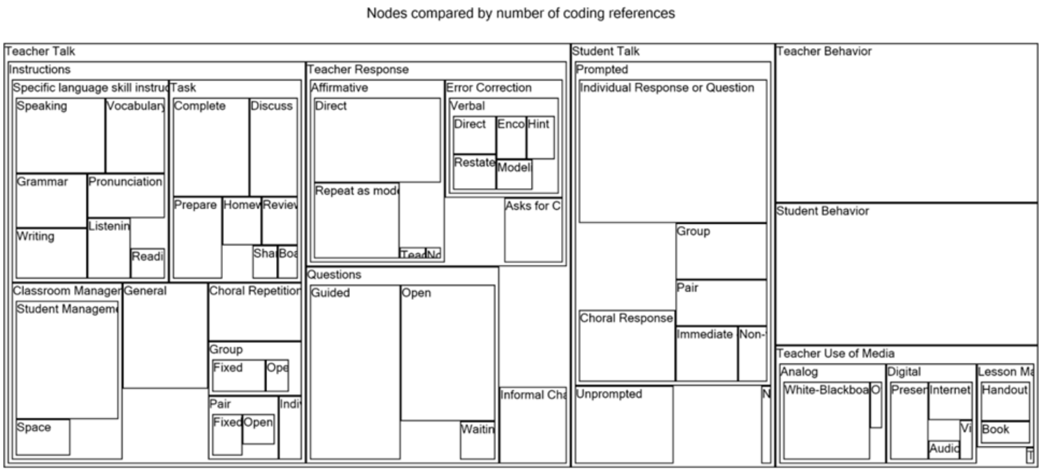

Figure 1. Tree Map: a "picture" of a language classroom (whole dataset). Box size is proportional to the number of times a code occurs.

When regarding the level of detail represented in this diagram and the proportion of the most coded feature, teacher talk, there are a few aspects to consider. First, the coding itself does not take into account the duration of the events, but only that the event occurred. The high number of teacher talk instances hence does not mean that teacher talk took up the majority of the class time, but that there were more occasions of teacher talk observed. Second, the method of recording the classroom was in the interest of limited intrusion, so students were not recorded directly; student talk focused on its occurrence, not on what was actually said. Finally, the scope of this article is unable to address the many features presented in teacher talk as a whole. As mentioned previously, in response to the concerns expressed in the handling of error correction in a Japanese context, this research focuses on error correction as a culturally relevant issue that would directly benefit teacher reflection.

Data Analysis

Error correction provides an example as to how the use of video recordings can facilitate teacher reflection. This approach should not be confused with work done by Fanselow (as cited in Hendrickson, 1978) where video recording was used to evaluate appropriate forms of error correction in particular. An accounting of error correction throughout the English program revealed that there is an even distribution of the forms being employed. Of the specific categories coded, they all remained within a range of 14–21% of recorded instances (see Figure 2). Only 14% of all coded forms of error correction did not fall within a specified form (either in general for 6% or strictly verbal correction for 8%). This data would seemingly indicate that teachers in the program do not favor one form of correction over another, but examining the data per proficiency level reveals tendencies in how teachers actually approach correction (see Figure 3).

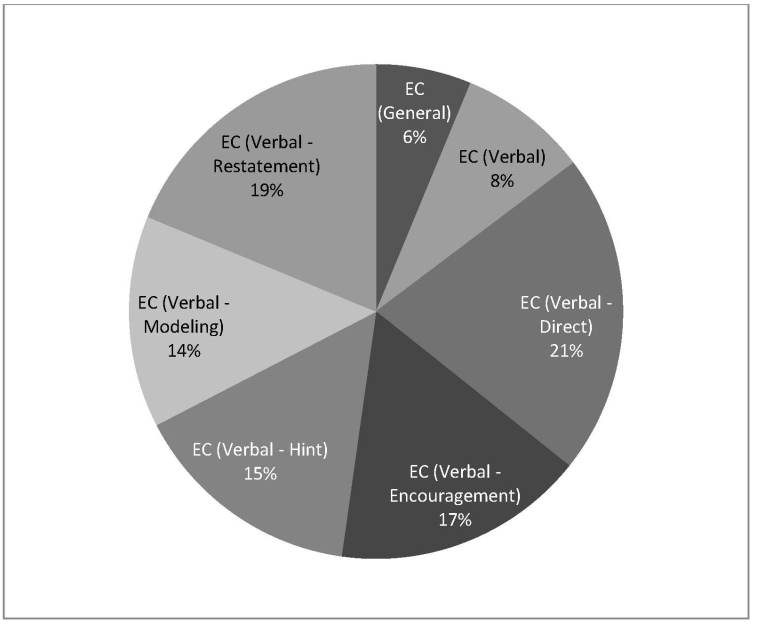

Figure 2. Program-Wide Error Correction.

First, with reference to Figure 3, it bears reminding that the participants of this research were volunteers, so there was not an even distribution of classes per level. In some cases, namely Elementary and Intermediate, a single class of a level was recorded. Therefore, the data presented is not to be considered a full account of program-wide teaching practices, but as a representation of lessons that most closely resembled a typical class at that level.

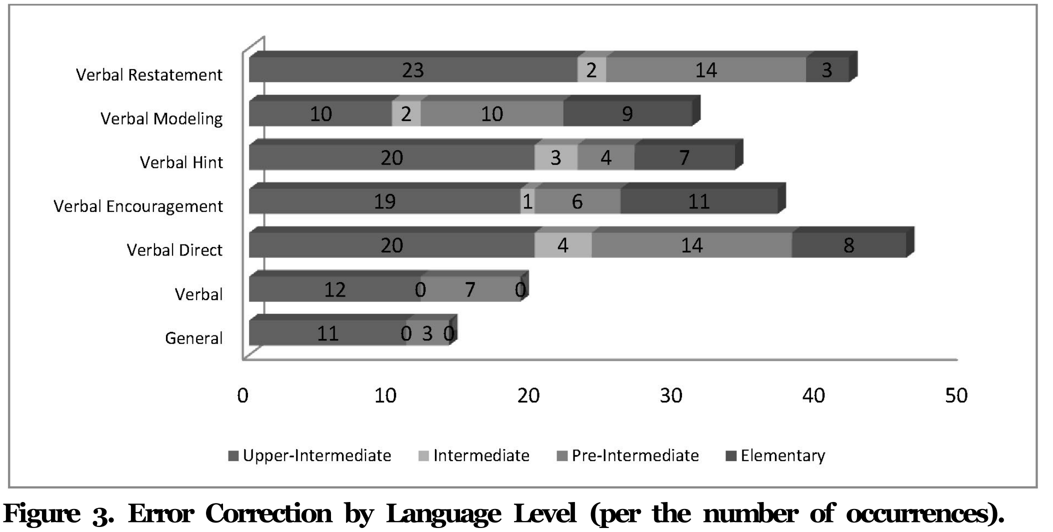

Figure 3. Error Correction by Language Level (per the number of occurrences).

The teacher recorded from the Elementary English class revealed a marked difference in the form of error correction when compared to the overall program. The descending order of the five specific forms of correction were encouragement (29%), modeling (24%), direct feedback (21%), and hints (18%), while restatements took up the smallest percentage with 8%. These methods clearly differ from those of Pre-Intermediate teachers, as giving verbal hints took up a much smaller percentage with 4%, as did encouragement, occupying just 11%, and modeling, at 15%. Restatements occupied the smallest percentage in the Elementary class but became the largest in the Pre-Intermediate classrooms, with 26%. The only form of specific feedback with little change from Elementary was direct feedback, with 25%. There were also occurrences of uncategorized feedback at the Pre-Intermediate level (19% in total, with 6% general and 13% verbal).

This is further observed once compared with the data from the subsequent levels. The individual Intermediate teacher maintained a higher percentage of direct feedback, with 33%, while encouragement and modeling remained within a few percentage points of Pre-Intermediate levels (8% and 17%, respectively). Restatements received a slight drop in use, accounting for 17% of the corrections made. Giving hints took on greater importance by accounting for 25% of the feedback given, as opposed to 4% in the Pre-Intermediate classes. There were no instances of uncategorized feedback.

Tendencies among Upper-Intermediate teachers remained similarly disparate as the focus of observed feedback at this level was on restatements and encouragement, with 23% and 22%, respectively. It is at this level that there seems to be a clear break from the tendencies of the prior levels, as direct feedback fell to 13%. Hints became much less common, once more at 13% of the responses, while modeling echoed the Intermediate levels (10%). Uncategorized feedback was also observable, similar to that of Pre-Intermediate levels (19%, with 11% general and 8% verbal).

Discussion

A teacher's job involves adapting a curriculum to fit the reality of a given learning environment. This is particularly true in language classrooms where the prevailing communicative approach demands that the class conform to an environment that would promote skill production and development among the students. When taking into consideration the traditional Japanese approach to education, normal classroom occurrences involving error correction can benefit from the perspective video-based reflection provides.

The findings about error correction are presented as a reflection tool. No one teacher's results are a legitimate baseline from which to compare against teachers of other levels. Generalizations about the inappropriateness of using restatements at the Elementary level do not logically mean the Upper-Intermediate teachers will use them more simply because they're teaching learners at a higher level. Likewise, the prevalence of giving direct feedback across the initial three levels does not imply the same feedback should be avoided at the highest level. Video-based recording simply presents the context, and its usefulness comes from whatever realizations it provokes in the reflecting teacher.

TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

As mentioned previously, the aim of the current project is to provide teachers with a platform that can be used to reflect on and discuss what takes place in the classroom. These reflections are typically related to events or moments that might not be apparent to the teacher before or during a class (i.e., elements that are initially hidden but then arise out of the process and flow of a particular class), such as the context in which error correction occurs and in which forms it takes place.

With such a purpose, the data described above was presented to a group of sixteen teachers during a faculty development session. In this context, several aspects were brought up for discussion including the purpose and effectiveness of immediate versus delayed error correction, as well as the types and ratio of error correction, whilst considering the cultural background and individual character of the students. The data provided allowed for a dialogue on how different teachers perceive and respond to similar classroom events, as well as the brainstorming of ideas on how to balance effective error correction with motivation and confidence-building needs.

The current set of results has been instructive in showing that teachers interpret the same curriculum differently, and hence their lessons look and "feel" very different. In a further step for reflective purposes, if an individual class's "tree map" is compared to the depiction of the whole dataset, the different patterns that arise can provide teachers with a greater sense of what other classes in the same curriculum look like and be used as a foundation to question their own practices in relation to the whole. Many teachers felt that the opportunity to discuss their classroom events, successes, and issues with colleagues was a valuable one and encouraged further similar faculty development sessions.

FUTURE RESEARCH

This type of reflection, therefore, has strong implications for individual teacher practice and development. In response to the data analysis and feedback from other teachers, it was noted that a balanced representation of class levels might help to identify more clearly the contexts in which the different types of error correction occur, as well as facilitate a discussion about the types used at the various levels. This will be possible once the second set of data collected has been coded appropriately and the results are added to the first set.

Although our project has highlighted applications of this form of research, the enormous complexity of any particular language lesson means that, even with the use of computer software, the process of arriving at useable applications remains very time-consuming and intense. Another limitation of the current project is that the classes observed are from an isolated set of weeks, and represent only a small percentage of what has actually been taught over a semester.

For program-wide reflection and for teachers desiring greater certainty of what is taught and how it is taught, video-based and computer-assisted research and reflection provides an effective rendering of what is occurring in the classroom. If time and resources permit, our research has revealed great incentive for video-based reflection to be considered as an impetus for teachers to think over the hidden moments in their classes and reflect on their possible implications for future practice.

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Curriculum Change: The Evolution of a University Language Center

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This paper discusses several issues related to the evolution and management of the language support center at Shizuoka University of Art and Culture, a small liberal arts university in Hamamatsu, Japan. Language centers are increasingly being established at Japanese universities to help students develop the language skills they will require as members of a global workforce. These facilities often serve as a central location for the coordination of English curricula across departments, but they can also offer other foreign language-related activities, such as regularly scheduled and/or special events and activities to help students develop practical skills. For smaller universities without a dedicated international office (like ours), a language center can act as a clearinghouse for students researching study-abroad programs and as the main point of contact with overseas partner schools. This paper offers an overview of the development of a language center and discusses important issues as it continues to evolve.

Introduction

Japanese universities are competing for an ever-decreasing pool of students and must find ways to differentiate themselves from their competition. One way in which some universities have tried to do this is by offering improved academic support for students. This was a motivating factor in the establishment of The English and Chinese Language Education Center (hereinafter "Center") at Shizuoka University of Art and Culture (hereinafter "SUAC"), aiming to foster the development of both English and Chinese. It is safe to say that the Center, since its opening in April 2013, has become both an integral part of the language education program and a high profile part of the university. However, the evolution of the Center has not been without a few bumps in the road, some of which could easily have been avoided. Our hope is that an account of our experiences to date, both positive and not-so-positive, will offer an objective lesson to other universities considering establishing their own language center. With this in mind, this paper will offer an analysis of the evolution of the Center, including a review of activities and of the role that the Center plays within the context of language education at SUAC. While the efforts of many people have gone into the Center's creation and ongoing operations, this review is offered from the perspective of two English teachers involved in the Center, focusing primarily on English language education.

Background

The Center was established as an integral part of SUAC's long-term plan to promote foreign language education and most of the initial planning was undertaken during the 2012 academic year. The project was essentially a top-down dictate from the university board of trustees and the six full-time English teachers at SUAC were brought in to help in the organization. In practice, however, major planning for the Center was placed in the hands of staff from the Student and Educational Affairs Department and under the supervision of a Center director, one of the university's two vice-presidents. In hindsight, had English teachers been more closely involved in the planning of the Center from the outset, many challenges could likely have been anticipated and overcome before it opened. One example worth mentioning was the decision to locate the Center in what had previously been a large, unused storage room in a rarely trafficked part of the campus. This location was chosen based on expediency and is an example of how administrative staff can sometimes make decisions without considering academic or educational concerns. (Most of the English teachers, by the way, would have preferred that the Center be placed in a more centrally located part of the campus.)

Amid high expectations, the Center opened on April 1, 2013, with some fanfare and local press coverage. For the 2013 academic year starting in April, two full-time native English-speaking teachers were brought in on two-year contracts (renewable once for an additional three years) to staff the Center and teach a course load of eight classes a week. In April 2014, one Chinese teacher and an additional English teacher were hired, raising the current number of teachers working at the Center to four. Center teachers are physically based in the Center and at least one of them is expected to be accessible to students between 9:00 a.m. and 6:00 p.m. every day. While the Center director is ostensibly in charge of the Center, in practice Center teachers usually go directly to the Student and Educational Affairs Department for most routine administrative matters. Outside of classes, Center teachers are expected to plan and undertake events and activities that will help students improve their English.

Expectations

Everyone involved in the Center wants it to be used as a place to improve the language ability of students. However, the motivation behind this expectation has led to different ideas on how operations should be carried out. Administrators' expectations of the Center stem from the desire to maintain or increase student enrollment in the current highly competitive Japanese university environment. They therefore want the Center to be a place where students can focus their study and improve their performance on quantifiable assessment measures, such as the TOEIC, that can be used in promoting the university. Another goal is to use the Center to help promote SUAC in the community to secondary schools in the area as a provincial university strong in the teaching or foreign languages, particularly

English and Chinese.

While Center teachers respect administrators' expectations and work towards meeting them, teachers are more interested in using the Center to develop cultural awareness, improve the practical language skills of students, and in fostering greater interest in language through authentic and engaging events and activities. This disparity of expectations between teachers and the administration has at times been the cause of some friction.

Student expectations are a mix of those of teachers and administrators. While certainly many students would like to improve their scores on TOEIC, many are also interested in foreign culture and in interacting with native speakers and learning English in more authentic situations. Experience has shown that academic and lecture-style activities conducted at the Center are not highly attended. An analysis of attendance data showed that casual and informal "chat" type events are much more popular.

Explicit goals or a mission statement for the Center have not been articulated to date. This may seem surprising considering the expense and effort that has gone into creating, operating, and staffing it. Drafting a mission statement or at least explicit goals detailing Center aims would be a good way to share opinions and different visions, and eventually arrive at a consensus on the direction the Center should be headed in. The SUAC Center would certainly have benefited (and could still) from such a process.

Events and Activities

The Center hosts a wide variety of events and activities. These can be broken down into three areas. First, there are activities that are provided to help develop students' practical skills; twice weekly, lunchtime conversational salons aim to help students improve their speaking proficiency; a student-made Center newsletter provides an authentic opportunity for interested students to practice writing, editing, and publishing a newsletter; monthly foreign guest-lecturers give students the opportunity to meet and get to know non-Japanese from the local community while developing their listening skills. Also available at the Center is a varied selection of English magazines, which are intended to help foster an interest in reading English and offer exposure to current events and pop-culture in the English-speaking world. The Center also hires upperclassmen with exceptional English skills to work part-time at the Center. These students gain experience working in an English environment, while at the same time acting as mentors to other students who participate in Center activities.

Secondly, some activities are intended to increase the exposure of the Center in the local community. Center teachers are sometimes called upon to give short lectures and demonstration lessons in junior and senior secondary schools in the area. Students from junior and high schools in the community are also invited to attend and participate in English activities at the Center with SUAC students. In addition, every year, a number of students are invited to participate in the Japan University English Model United Nations (JUEMUN), an inspiring event in which SUAC students have the opportunity to practice negotiation and consensus-building with other Japanese and international students, while discussing important global issues entirely in English.

Thirdly, activities designed to help students show measurable progress on standardized language tests such as the TOEIC and the Chinese HSK are also being undertaken. However, the expectation of the university board of trustees that the effectiveness of the Center be measured by demonstrable increases in TOEIC scores has been met with some concern by Center teachers. Center teachers feel, with some justification, that, as the majority of activities offered at the Center focus on developing productive skills, primarily speaking and writing, improvements made in these areas are not likely to be reflected on the TOEIC, which is a test of reading and listening. However, teachers do recognize the reality that higher TOEIC scores may ultimately help students in search of a job and in their future careers. As a result, TOEIC support activities such as individual instruction, group strategy sessions, and the opportunity to use online TOEIC software, are all ongoing. The Center also offers the opportunity for 40 selected students to take the TOEIC Speaking and Writing test for free.

CHALLENGES

The decision of where to locate the Center, mentioned in the Introduction of this paper, is an example of the inevitable gap between the “ideal” and the “reality” when departments with different priorities work together to achieve a goal in an organization. However, all parties do sincerely want to offer the best possible Center experience for SUAC students and work hard to overcome any differences in approach or philosophy. This section will discuss some of the challenges that the Center currently faces.

One issue concerns the idea of requiring all incoming students from April 2015 to attend a certain number of center-sponsored events and counting their attendance at events as part of their final grade in their English or Chinese language classes. This idea is not without opposition, however, as some teachers feel that required attendance outside of class would make visiting the Center an unpleasant burden to some students and may also be unfair to students with busy schedules. Anecdotal reports from other universities in Japan suggest that both patterns appear and that, where attendance at a certain number of events is mandatory, it does indeed result in dramatic increases in center attendance numbers.

Another issue concerns the matter of how to measure success. As has been mentioned, the administration tends to view increases in the standardized test scores of SUAC students as the primary measure through which success is to be evaluated. Center teachers, however, believe that judging the Center in this way does not accurately reflect much of the work being done there. It seems reasonable to argue that, if factors beyond increasing English proficiency served as a motivating force for the establishment of the Center (i.e., increasing student enrollment and exposure in the community), then success in these areas should also properly be considered in assessing the Center. For example, the number of students coming to the Center might also be a reasonable criteria for consideration. Analyzing student attendance data can be especially useful in determining from which academic departments students are coming. SUAC has two faculties, a Faculty of Cultural Policy and Management and a Faculty of

Design. Within the Faculty of Cultural Policy and Management there are three departments, a Department of Regional Cultural Policy and Management, a Department of International Culture, and a Department of Art Management. Within the Faculty of Design, we have a Department of Industrial Design, a Department of Art and Science, and a Department of Space and Architecture. Past analyses of attendance data showed that 40% of students attending Center events were from the Department of International Culture and only 10% were from the Department of Industrial Design. This has prompted Center staff to develop events targeted at attracting the industrial design students.

Student attendance numbers are connected to marketing and how the Center appeals to the entire student community. Historically at SUAC, students in the Department of International Culture have been the most enthusiastic about studying foreign languages and have had the highest TOEIC scores. As might be expected, these students have made up a plurality of students attending Center events. It has been a major challenge attracting students from other departments. Center teachers work, often in conjunction with teachers from other departments, to develop events that will appeal to students from all SUAC departments. Strategies employed to increase the number of industrial design students coming to the Center include increasing the number of non-academic “fun” events such as sports viewing, to entice students to drop by. However, by far the most effective strategy to draw otherwise unmotivated students is by offering activities tailored to their specific area of study. This could be seen as support for linking Center events to classroom coursework. For example, students from the Department of Industrial Design were drawn to the Center by the chance to collaborate via a series of live Skype sessions with product design students from a foreign university. This successful and ongoing event was developed in collaboration with teachers from the Department of Industrial Design. Planning of events targeted to students in other departments is ongoing, and it is hoped that they will be similarly successful.

Organizing events that students want to take part in is also a challenge. In this regard, a chance to hear directly from students would be helpful. An anonymous survey of the entire student population could provide a wealth of good ideas; give teachers, as well as administrators, a sense of how the students feel; and act as another useful metric to assess Center performance.

Another challenge is managing the workload of Center teachers. Center teachers are expected to teach eight classes per week (this will rise to ten as of April 2015), plan and preside over events, be available to attend to students who may drop-in to the Center unannounced at any time, provide advice and support in completing and translating paperwork for students preparing to study overseas, attend occasional meetings, and help in preparing, proctoring, and grading the university entrance examination and other exams several weekends throughout the year. An informal survey of the conditions at other university language centers suggests that, despite greater responsibilities, Center teacher salaries are slightly lower than the average. These factors, combined with the fact that SUAC is a provincial university not located in a large metropolitan area makes our pool of candidates relatively limited. Administration officials have wondered with disappointment why so few qualified candidates have applied for center positions when they have been available the past two years. Progress has been made in that the administration now recognizes that some concessions must be made to attract, and keep, talented teachers. As such, as of April 2015, all Center teachers will be given two half-days a week off.

One final challenge is one of Center autonomy. As was noted in the Introduction, the administrative affairs of the Center are under the management of the Student and Educational Affairs Department. The Center director is responsible for strategic planning and formally manages Center teachers. A lack of autonomy has led to some frustration in that Center teachers have access to a considerable budget but do not have the authority to approve expenditures from it. All purchases, no matter how minor or inexpensive, must be approved by staff in the Student and Educational Affairs Department. If the Center had a degree of control over disbursing funds from their budget (to cite just one example of autonomy), it would cut down on repeated, time-consuming meetings and explanations, and improve efficiency. All of the Center teachers have indicated that the bureaucratic aspect of their positions is burdensome and takes away time that could better be spent with students.

Conclusions

It is hoped that our experiences thus far with the SUAC Center have provided some insight for those in the early stages of developing their own language center. Many of the problems that we had to overcome can be boiled down into a few main points. Site selection is a critical element in ensuring success. While it may not be realistic to locate your center in the perfect place, accessibility to all students in a central location is of great importance. In addition, the development of a mission statement can be extremely helpful in guiding the initial operations of a center. One of our biggest challenges in the early stages was getting a clear sense from the university administration as to what their goals and expectations were. Finally, clear channels of communication with administrators are also an essential factor in the successful operation of a center. This has implications for teacher working conditions, budgetary decisions, the ordering of materials, the planning of events, and meeting agenda items. Above all, a streamlined decision-making process, along with some degree of autonomy, can help avoid inefficiency and frustration while also empowering teachers. If possible, having an advocate in the university administration can be helpful in navigating the procedures for gaining necessary approvals. We have also found that knowledge of Japanese by Center teachers, particularly the ability to read and reply to emails and express oneself clearly, has played a large role in effectively communicating and advocating for the needs of the Center.

Although the operation of a language center requires the participation of many individuals from different backgrounds and with varying expectations, there is no reason why this should hinder operations or the achievement of set goals. On the contrary, it was over the course of addressing these issues at our Center that a sense of trust and camaraderie began to emerge. Many of the teachers are proud of the work that has been done, yet recognize that there is still much more to do. Clearly, a shared desire to advocate for students can go a long way to satisfying the expectations of everyone involved.

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Student Portfolios: Reading and Writing Class Assessment Tools

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Traditional grading can be time-consuming and fail to show students' progress over time. Enter the portfolio – a collected body of classwork and homework that shows the big picture of learning progress, participation, and accomplishments to students and instructors. This paper consists of an explanation of portfolios in the context of an EFL reading and writing class and details possible contents. Also, it offers ways of assessing the portfolios' contents and approaches to using a portfolio as an assessment tool for part or all of a final grade. The portfolios in this study were used in a high-intermediate/low-advanced university reading/writing class. Whether instructors have control over grading methodology or follow a standardized system, portfolios can give instructors a dynamic evaluation tool, motivate students by letting them self-assess their work, and provide an efficient means of collecting and marking student work.

Introduction

What is a portfolio? The idea of a *folio* goes back to Shakespeare and beyond – a few large, folded sheets of paper or parchment containing an author's manuscripts or artist's work. The suffix *port-* is related to a Latin word for carrying, so the purpose of a portfolio should be convenience and portability. In academia, one is perhaps most familiar with portfolios in visual art, though other disciplines use this tool as well. According to ESL pedagogy writers Valdez Pierce and O'Malley (1992), "There is no 'right' way to design portfolios" (p. 21).

While this assertion is encouraging for an experimenting instructor, it leaves little guidance for how to proceed. In considering an ESL/EFL classroom, Valdez Pierce and O'Malley (1992) suggest that a portfolio is "a practical approach to assembling student work, interpreting evidence of student performance, and assessing student performance relative to instructional objectives" (p. 20). This definition offers a framework on which instructors can build.

Implementing class portfolios without proper planning can cause problems, and the feasibility of portfolios needs to be weighed against required planning time. This paper's background setting was a class with initially low student participation. The portfolio system in this class was implemented with little planning, so students did not contribute to establishing learning goals and evaluation criteria. The portfolios' benefits were under-utilized; however, student motivation and class participation improved immediately. What follows is a description of types of portfolios, and class-based tools for developing portfolios and making them manageable.

Pondering portfolios can seem daunting, so why even use a portfolio? Pettis (2013) explains, “Portfolio-Based Language Assessment (PBLA) is an approach to assessment in language training programs that engages teachers and students in dialogue to tell the story of the student’s journey in learning English and meeting their personal goals” (Slide 7). Consider two photos of flowers. One picture is a close-up, showing the details of a moment in the life of a flower, preserving exactly what that flower looks like at that second, though not what the flower looked like a week before, nor offering clues to changes it will undergo. A second picture captures a field of flowers. The blossoms are at various stages of growth, showing the whole life-cycle or story of a flower. The former represents traditional grading, while the latter represents portfolios. Portfolios can be used when a broader and fuller view of students’ proficiency is desired for assessment.

Another reason to use portfolios is to encourage students to take responsibility for their learning, which will reduce grading time. This allows teachers to spend more time teaching. Students will become trained for peer-reviewing reading reports, group activities, and daily work they submit, reducing the need for an instructor to check every piece of student work. Faculty overwork is a subject in itself, and Holt and Anderson (2012) comment that academic faculty “typically underestimate how busy [they] will be, and [their] lives are regularly invaded by crisis and despair because of missed deadlines and work crunches” (p. 194). A well-ordered portfolio-based class can ease pressure off of instructors while instilling powerful learning practices in students.

As background information on this paper, the children’s literature class in which the portfolios were maintained relied heavily on a learning method explained by Maher (2013), which he calls “literature circles.” In this approach, students read materials before class, and they work in a set discussion circle in class. Each meeting time, students take turns filling certain roles in the group, changing roles every class session to maintain fairness. Some reading group roles were *discussion leader* (facilitates the discussion and keeps the group on task), *visualizer* (draws a visualization of a character or scene from the book, and brings related pictures from the Internet to share the following week; see Figure 1), *real-life connector* (writes a short paragraph connecting a situation from one of the book characters or themes to an experience from the student’s life), and *word wizard* (defines twenty new or unfamiliar words plus three idioms in the assigned reading; see Figure 2).

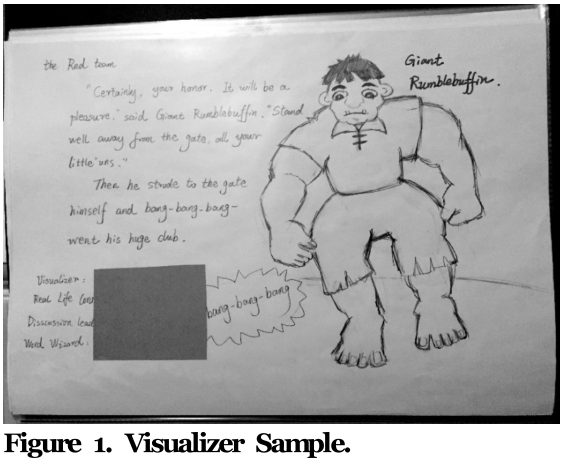

Figure 1. Visualizer Sample.

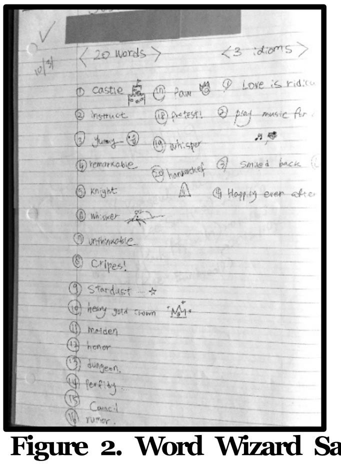

Figure 2. Word Wizard Sample.

WHICH PORTFOLIO IS BEST FOR YOUR EFL CLASS?

A crucial first step in considering portfolios for an EFL classroom is deciding on the type of portfolio that will best suit the goals and priorities of the students, department, and instructor. Since this assessment tool offers so many varieties, it can be helpful to reflect first on the students' needs. ESL practitioners have developed different ways of categorizing portfolios. Table 1 and Figure 3 offer slightly different approaches to defining portfolios. PBLA is still an emerging approach to evaluation in the EFL classroom, and these classifications may evolve from current forms.

Table 1. Four Types of Language Class Portfolios

Portfolio Selection Guide	Classroom Portfolio	Collaborative Learning Portfolio	Showcase Portfolio	Evaluation Portfolio
Introduce portfolio concept	O			
Introduce reflective learning principles	O	O		
Inform instructors how to proceed with instruction		O		
Include learners in their own self-assessment		O	O	
Document learners' progress and challenges			O	O
Determine students' readiness for next level				O

Adapted from *Portfolio Planning and Implementation*, 2011.

In the case of my class, students used the "Collections Portfolios" system in Figure 3. The purposes for this model included improving student participation in reading circle discussions, improving accountability, freeing up grading time to invest in students and course planning, organizing masses of student work to improve visibility of the work, and showing students the results of their reading and discussion efforts for the entire course. This type of portfolio tends toward disorganization, but at an acceptable level; learning languages can be a messy process. Collections portfolios are low-risk for a first-time experiment, and they work well for assessing the participation part of a course grade when combined with standard assessment.

Evaluation/assessment portfolios are preferable when an instructor has time to pre-plan more extensively. The scope of this portfolio type is best for assessing most or all of a course grade, not just participation. It has the added benefit of promoting reflective learning: allowing students to come to their own conclusions about their progress, celebrate their strengths, and see areas to improve. This paper was not based on an evaluation portfolio, however, so if this type of PBLA is preferred, see Online Resources.

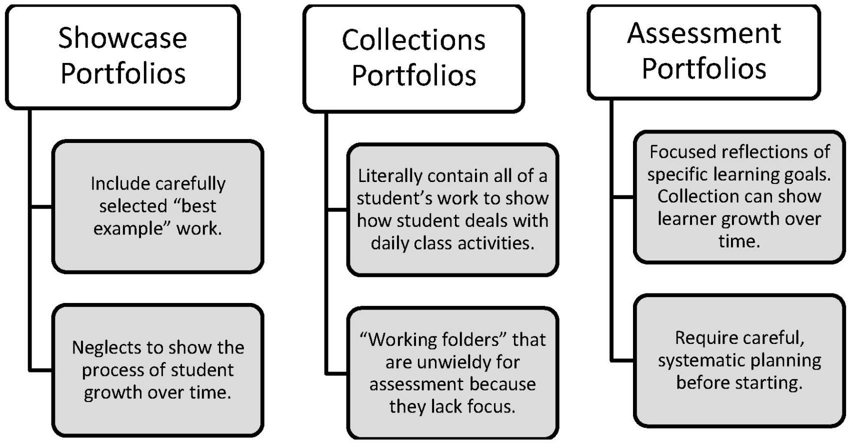

Figure 3. Classifying Portfolios: Another Approach. (Adapted from O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 35.)

DEVELOPING A PORTFOLIO SYSTEM

Choosing the Purpose

The first task when introducing portfolios to the class is choosing the purpose of the portfolio. While this purpose should be communicated to the students, this step is important for the instructor to determine before receiving class input. Instructors should have a general idea of the purpose at the beginning of this process, but Table 1 and Figure 3 are designed to help an instructor define and differentiate the purposes for optimal format selection.

Setting Learning Goals

Once the purposes of the portfolio have been determined (e.g., showing learner growth over time, samples of students' best work), the second step in using portfolios as assessment tools is to set specific learning goals for students to attain. Some goals can be based on learning outcomes of the English department or designated by an administrator. When instructors have more academic freedom, however, they can use portfolios as a tool to help shape the semester goals. See Tables 2 and 3 for learning goals in a reading or writing class.

Table 2. Sample Goals: Reading Class

Frame goals using "I can" expressions about what a good reader can do.	
	I can preview the text and make predictions.
	I can understand most words and ideas.
	I can interpret or look up words I don't know.
	I can describe the characters to someone.
	I can talk with others about the main theme or plot.
	I can visualize what I'm reading.
	I can make connections to real-life experiences.

Adapted from O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 40.

Table 3. Sample Goals: Writing Class

Frame goals using "I can" expressions about what a good writer can do.	
	I can make a plan before I write.
	I can write a story with a beginning, middle, and end.
	I can write about real-life experiences.
	I can make my handwriting readable.
	I can write using complete sentences.
	I can write without starting each sentence on a new line.
	I can ask other people to read my writing.

Adapted from O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 40.

For both class types, effective instructors will seek students' input on their own goals. Students at all levels of proficiency may be reluctant to participate in this goal-writing step (and later ones) of the portfolio planning process until they feel confident that they understand the procedure; this is likely new territory for students as well as educators. To avoid this reluctance, the instructor can model several goals (Tables 2 and 3), write students' ideas on the board, discuss the goals' application to a portfolio, coach the students through individual and group goal variations, and tell students to make a record of their goals. This final step is crucial in getting students involved in the later maintenance of their portfolios.

Setting Criteria for Assessment

Students need to participate in setting the criteria for assessing both the contents and the completed portfolio. The most effective PBLAs will involve students in this step. As with the goal-setting step, consider course objectives when planning how to evaluate successful completion of those objectives. Have a syllabus or class plan for students to consult.

Consider some basic assessment guidelines using at least three measurements (Table 4). Sample labels are *below satisfactory* work, *satisfactory* work, and *exceeds satisfactory* work, which correspond to a marking scale such as S- / S / S+. Adding a fourth category can give a better differentiation. This broader range is helpful in classes that use relative grading and enforced grade percentages. In the case of daily classwork (see Appendix), work together to plan if and how each *type of item* will be evaluated. The primary goal for this step is choosing standards and then grading samples with students. Students should have a "grade-norming session" (Flash, 2014) to practice rating different levels of samples with a rubric and standardize how their future work measures against assessment criteria.

1. **Sample Assessment Scale: Word Wizard Discussion Role**
   - Word list has big problems (<14 words) = **S-** (little effort was made)
   - Missing the idioms or list has just 15-19 words = **S** (some effort was made)
   - 20 words + 3 idioms = **S+** (full credit)

2. **Sample Assessment Scale: Book-to-Life Connections Role**
   - Incomplete sentences, doesn't answer prompt, fewer than 3 sentences = S-
   - Answers prompt simply, 3-5 complete sentences = S
   - Answers with details, long enough, shows effort to connect with text = S+

Table 4. Portfolio Evaluation Rubric

Student/Group:			Semester/Year:
Instructions: Establish expectations for each of the three ratings. Mark the overall group result for each learning type in one of the columns below. Include one rubric form in each portfolio.			
Learning Type	**Does Not Meet Requirements**	**Meets Requirements**	**Exceeds Requirements**
Group Discussion Reports			
Artist Effort and Follow-up			
Teamwork (Group Roles Sharing)			
Organization (Readability)			

Planning for and Collecting Student Work

The portfolio is now ready to be filled with student class materials. In reading classes, a major intention is to turn students' comprehension into something measurable. Collections portfolios, combined with a literature-circles system (Mayer, 2013), produce plentiful evidence of student comprehension of assigned coursework (or lack thereof). For collections portfolios, instructors must assign enough activities for students to have sufficient work to display. Consider dedicating class time to discussions and items that will go into the portfolio, collect items regularly – or have students regularly add contents themselves – and use a checklist or seating chart to track participation. An example of the portfolio contents is shown below:

Literature-Circles Collections Portfolio Contents

1. Required
   - Group literature-circle products
   - Visualized drawings and printed photos
2. Optional
   - Discussion question prompts
   - Completed handouts and worksheets
3. Not included: Materials for other class assessments (exams, quizzes, journals, projects)

Analyzing Contents of Portfolios

When final analysis begins, the students' production of portfolio contents has ended. Along the way, students may have been peer reviewing their daily submissions, so the next step is analyzing the overall contents. Students and instructors now separately analyze the portfolio. Give instructions to the students: "Take time to read and rate your work. Make notes of any work you are missing." Everyone should refer to the goals and criteria sections above. It helps to equip students with a guide for reviewing their work, if possible. Moya and O'Malley (1994) write, "One possibility for student involvement in portfolio assessment is to encourage students to arrange their writing products from most to least effective and to answer a series of questions about the writing, such as what qualities separate the best pieces of writing from the others" (p. 23). O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) provide a concise portfolio review list:

1. How have you improved in English since the start of this semester?
2. What new skills did you learn?
3. How has your reading comprehension or skill improved?
4. What kind of book(s) do you like best? Why?
5. How can you improve your reading skill even more?
6. How has your writing improved since the start of the class?
7. What can you do to be a better writer? (p. 45)

Using the Results for Assessment

PBLA has three primary evaluators: instructors, individual students (self-assessment), and collaborative groups (peer review).

1. Instructor Assessment

If this is the only evaluation used, it makes the assessment portfolio-type essentially impossible by removing student self-evaluation.

- Avoids confusion by explaining and reviewing goals and criteria
- Enables more control by the instructor
- Limits student initiative and self-reflection
- Requires rubrics
- Is suitable for collection portfolios

2. Individual Student Self-Assessment

This evaluation source encourages reflection and student-led learning.

- Establishes required contents and explains criteria
- Keeps the assessment classroom-based to avoid cheating
- Practices rating sample work as a class – afterwards, students can self-evaluate more effectively
- Needs a midterm and pre-final portfolio conference to check progress with class goals

3. Collaborative Group Assessment

Done by groups of students with instructor input and supervision.

- Establishes required contents and explains criteria
- Keeps assessment classroom-based to avoid cheating
- Practices rating sample work together
- Collaborates to select the best pieces of work
- Requires scheduling a portfolio conference to confirm goals and measure progress

Evaluation methods in my class included *completion checking* (not correctness), *in-class checking* (using the class roll to track involvement during class), and *midterm and final conferences* with individual students (providing communication about progress and participation).

Finding time for sufficient in-class checking can seem daunting. In their explanation of portfolios, O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) give solutions for managing active assessment. They first suggest using groups: When moving around the room, note how students are working together and quickly gauge quality of their work. Second, use staggered cycles: Do not try to talk to all students every class – check with each student twice a semester, at least. Third, encourage self-assessment: If students are properly trained, they can make self-evaluations without a teacher hovering. Last, plan daily in-class activities: Use rubrics, checklists, simple rating lists (p. 52).

Regardless of who evaluates, an effective PBLA class should include conferences. Students will ask about group participation. It helps to have students write a self-reflection and also a review of other group members. Particularly for the latter, it may be better to discuss this in individual conferences. They can also review group participation in a journal submission rather than discussing problems openly. Conferences are also beneficial for gaining class feedback about what students liked or struggled with during the semester.

Portfolio Conferences: Ideas and Questions to Discuss

1. Reading Goals: Planned vs. Outcomes
   - What is one thing you did this semester that you didn't think you could before?
   - How has your reading improved?
   - How can you be a better reader?
   - Which of the books did you enjoy the most? Which book should we drop?

2. Writing Goals: Planned vs. Outcomes
   - How did your journal writing about the books improve?
   - What's your favorite thing that you wrote or drew for your group?
   - What was your favorite group role in group discussions? Why?
   - What can you do to be a better writer?

Case Study Findings: Collection Portfolios

Portfolio Descriptions

This paper was based on a collections-portfolio approach in a children's literature elective reading class, taught to university students who ranged from sophomore through senior years, with high-intermediate to low-advanced English, and who represented mixed majors. Most literature-circle roles before portfolios were implemented initially led to classwork submissions that were half-heartedly scribbled. After portfolio-based language assessment (PBLA) was introduced, weekly evidence of thoughtful reading comprehension was collected in group portfolios and graded periodically.

Physical portfolios were compiled in plastic A4-size "clear file"-type folders containing twenty transparent pockets or sleeves in each folder (Figure 4). Portfolio folders were of a variety of colors and designs. This was not originally planned, but it became helpful to have distinct-looking folders for each group, which helped avoid confusion when checking group contents for participation and grading purposes.

Figure 4. Collections Portfolio A4 Folders

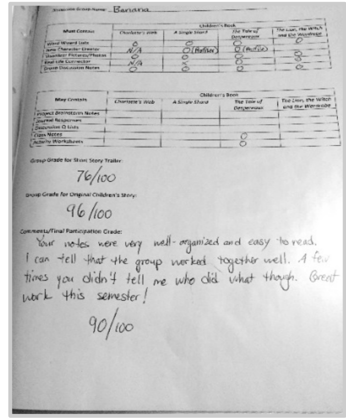

Figure 5. Summary Sheet

To aid organization, the first plastic sleeve in the folder contained the Collections Portfolio Summary Sheet (Figure 5 and Appendix), which served as both an approximate table of contents and also a quick-reference grading summary. Following the summary sheet, each plastic sleeve contained back-to-back inserts of the student-produced responses from literature circles (Figures 6 and 7), organized according to story in the order they were listed on the syllabus. In some cases, the sleeve only contained one sheet of paper when students had used both sides in a meaningful way.

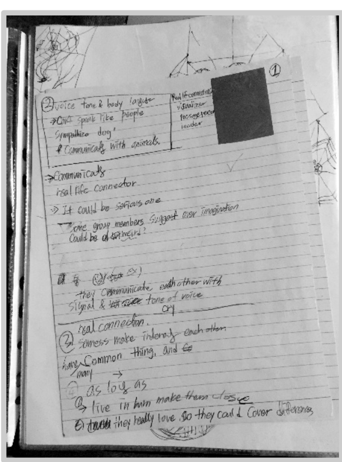

Figure 6. Discussion Sample

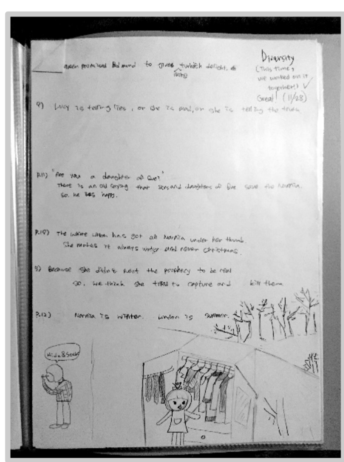

Figure 7. Visualizer Report

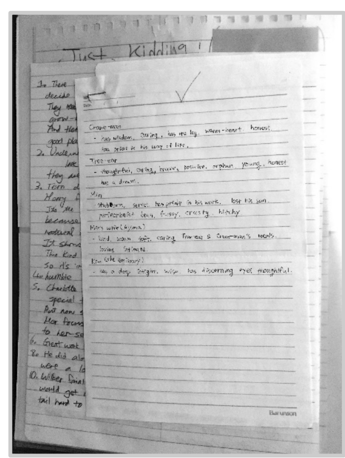

Figure 8. Mixed-size Notes

The most prolific group filled all twenty transparent folder sleeves, while a lower-producing group filled sixteen pockets over the course of the ten weeks in which literature circles were held. On average, groups submitted a page per student per week for the portfolios. Weeks for class planning, exams, and review days did not have students contributing to the contents of collections portfolios. Using folders with forty pockets (or expandable options – these were not all expandable) would have enabled students to showcase their work more effectively and would have allowed additional "management" pages to be included, like subheadings.

In these collections portfolios, there was a wide array of paper colors, sizes, qualities, and styles on which students wrote their reading responses. While the syllabus required students to bring a notebook every week, there were no specifications on the size or type of paper, so the collections portfolios had colorful and, at first glance, disorganized contents (Figure 8). If this is important to management and peace of mind, instructors can regulate the materials more carefully; however, it did not affect the quality of the work in most cases.

The class of twenty-three regularly attending students was divided into five groups (two groups of four members and three groups of five members). Originally, twenty-six students were enrolled and assigned to groups. After the first few weeks, three members no longer came. While this is common for elective classes, attrition impacts portfolio-based classes more strongly. For example, it can be difficult to re-form groups once they have been working together to compile information for several weeks. Student attrition also affected the amount of work compiled in portfolios and needed to be accounted for in final evaluations since the groups were formed very early in the semester and class members dropped out later. It would have been unfair to remaining members simply to evaluate the *volume* of student work in these cases because they were at a disadvantage through no fault of their own.

Depending on the educational goals of the portfolio, students can be given responsibility for bringing and maintaining their portfolios each week. This runs a risk of students forgetting the portfolio or having an unfair advantage of adding information to the folder. In this class, students did not keep their own portfolios. Weekly transportation of the folders proved to be unfeasible since the class was held at a different campus than the faculty offices and collections portfolios can become quite heavy as the semester progresses. Rather than bringing the portfolios back and forth to class each time, which would have been the ideal situation for regular group self-maintenance of the portfolio contents, I kept the collections portfolios stored at the central office location.

Students had in-class access to the completed portfolios twice during the semester – once during midterm conferences week, and once near the end of the semester to check for any missing contents and account for any literature responses they felt were lacking. They enjoyed the opportunity to examine the collections of their work, and several students openly admitted that their collections portfolio seemed incomplete and needed make-up efforts on their part. Despite a collections portfolios assessment system that was unfamiliar to students, the course feedback comments at the end of the semester were overwhelmingly positive. Students appreciated in-class discussion work because literature circles allowed for less out-of-class homework, and no students reported problems or dissatisfaction with using portfolios.

Recommendations for Collections Portfolio Management

For collections portfolios, five steps will help make collected materials manageable. First, anticipate the volume of contents. Using an appropriate folder size (e.g., 40 plastic sleeves) saves time later. If you do not know what folder size to expect, at least prepare by choosing an expandable folder to which extra pages can be added later. Avoid running out of space.

Second, use group (not individual) folders. This cuts down on management time, and adds the benefit of collaborative learning. Students can develop strong peer-review skills by assessing their own group work, and teachers will have fewer individual papers to evaluate if students do not submit individual responses to all activities.

Third, remind students to label items with author and date. With shared folders, some students may put less effort into group contributions. By putting a name on the submitted work, students have higher accountability and will take group roles more seriously. Also, while no one wants to deal with grade appeals, because portfolios are unfamiliar forms of evaluation, some students may misunderstand or question the system. Having individual names on submitted work in a group folder helps to justify final grades, should the need arise for such proof.

Fourth, arrange contents systematically. For example, in the children's literature class, portfolio sections were grouped by book. It would also be possible to group activities by type, such as "vocabulary lists" sorted by date. Since students chose their own group roles, the contents of these sections would have varied between groups. Standardizing the organization system should be done in advance. Thus when it is time to evaluate, the instructor does not have to review one group by book and another by activity type.

Fifth and last, keep a master list of activities during the term. This can be as simple as adding a new line to an MSWord document each class session. Near the end of the term, students can quickly compare their portfolio contents to the master list and easily assess what is missing.

Conclusions and Reflective Questions

Rather than relying on a traditional end-of-semester-heavy grading system, portfolios serve as tools to balance this load by involving students in the assessment and to show instructors a big-picture view of students' comprehension and learning process. Once trained in self-evaluation, students will maintain a clear understanding of their class progress, since portfolios can improve transparency when it comes to evaluations. Instructors can see at a glance how students have grown in reading and writing skills over the course of the semester without requiring additional exams to assess progress. Portfolios, combined with conferences, are dynamic dialogues that divulge students' stories of language learning. These reasons are just a few of the benefits inherent to using student portfolios as reading and writing class assessment tools.

For additional ways to decide if portfolios would be helpful to use for course assessment, consider these questions by Richard-Amato (1996):

1. Criticisms of portfolios: subjective, messy, time-consuming. What would you say to educators or administrators who hold these opinions? Do you think any of these opinions are correct? Explain.

2. Would you feel comfortable using portfolios as your main means of class evaluation? Why or why not?

3. If you might like to use portfolios in your own classroom, what kind of portfolio or what purpose seems like the best fit? Think about your student levels, their goals for your class, and the type of class it is. Share your hypothetical or future class idea with a fellow teacher. (p. 111)

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ONLINE RESOURCES

Portfolio Planning Resource: http://www.esl-literacy.com/toolbox/portfolio-planning-and-implementation

Social Networking for PBLA: https://www.facebook.com/PettisPBLA

APPENDIX

Sample Collections Portfolio Summary Sheet

Student(s): ____

Discussion Group Name: ____________________________________

Must Contain	Children's Book			
	Charlotte's Web	*A Single Shard*	*The Tale of Despereaux*	*The Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe*
Word Wizard Lists				
New Character Creator				
Visualizer Pictures/Photos				
Real-Life Connector				
Group Discussion Notes				

May Contain	Children's Book			
	Charlotte's Web	*A Single Shard*	*The Tale of Despereaux*	*The Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe*
Project Brainstorm Notes				
Journal Responses				
Discussion Q Lists				
Class Notes				
Activity Worksheets				

Adapted from O'Malley & Valdez Pierce (1996), p. 48.

Group Grade for Project 1 (not part of portfolio):

Group Grade for Project 2 (not part of portfolio):

Final Portfolio (Participation) Grade:

Comments:

Investigating EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate

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This study aims to investigate EFL learners' willingness to communicate (WTC). The research questions are these: a) What are the learning attitudes affecting the WTC of EFL learners? b) Do EFL learners' WTC influence their communication frequency? c) Are there significant differences in WTC between proficient and less-proficient EFL learners? The participants were 203 EFL college students from a university in Taiwan. The instruments included an attitude questionnaire, a WTC questionnaire, and a communication frequency scale. Results show that the tendency to approach or avoid foreigners is found to correlate strongly with students' willingness to communicate in English. There is a significant correlation between EFL learners' WTC and their communication frequency. They speak less frequently for voluntary communication. Besides, proficient students had significantly higher WTC and communication frequency than less-proficient students did. By providing empirical evidence, the study is expected to help EFL learners to become more willing to communicate.

INTRODUCTION

It is well accepted that L2 learners need practice in speaking in order to improve their communicative skills. Dörnyei (2003) indicates that learners need to be not only able to communicate but also willing to communicate in the L2. MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) point out that willingness to communicate (WTC) is the final psychological step to initiate L2 communication, and suggest that a fundamental goal of L2 instruction is to teach students to be willing to use the target language for authentic communication.

Lacking direct exposure to native English-speaking individuals, EFL students in Taiwan are often stereotyped as passive speakers who are unwilling to communicate in English. Thus, a critical issue of EFL instruction in Taiwan is how to generate students' willingness to communicate in classroom settings in order to improve their oral proficiency and further facilitate the effectiveness of English language teaching. The current study aims to investigate EFL learners' willingness to communicate in Taiwan. The major research questions explored in the study are these: a) What are the learning attitudes affecting the WTC of EFL learners? b) Does EFL learners' WTC influence their communication frequency? c) Are there significant differences in WTC between proficient and less-proficient EFL learners?

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the L2 context, WTC is defined as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 547). Some of the previous research on L2 WTC and related factors are reviewed in the following sections. For example, Yashima (2002) examined relations among L2 leaning and communication variables using an L2 communication model with 297 Japanese university students. In the model, international posture was hypothesized to capture the general attitude toward the international community and foreign language learning in Japan. Findings revealed that a direct path from international posture to WTC in an L2 was significant. International posture influences motivation, which in turn predicts proficiency and L2 communication confidence. Besides, MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Donovan (2002) investigated L2 communication among 268 Canadian students in a junior high French late-immersion program. The effects of language, gender, and grade on WTC were examined. They proposed that gender likely interacted with age to influence L2 communication variables because of differences in boys' and girls' developmental paths during adolescence.

Kang (2005) conducted a qualitative study to examine how L2 situational WTC can dynamically emerge and fluctuate during a conversation situation. The participants were four Korean students studying ESL in the United States. It was found that L2 WTC emerged from the joint effect of the three interacting psychological conditions of excitement, responsibility, and security. Cao and Philp (2006) investigated the consistency between L2 learners' self-reported WTC and their actual WTC behavior in the classroom. Eight international students studying English in a language school participated in the study. The factors perceived by learners to influence WTC in class included group size, familiarity with interlocutors, familiarity with topics under discussion, self-confidence, and cultural background.

Tannenbaum and Tahar (2008) explored L2 learning and WTC variables in a conflictual context. One hundred and forty-three Jewish and Arab sixth-grade children in Israel participated in the study. Results showed a strong association between WTC and social support. All participants reported wide parental and peer support to learn the target language, especially those who studied in the dual-language school. Leger and Storch (2009) studied how L2 learners' perceptions of speaking abilities and attitudes toward oral class activities influenced their WTC. Thirty-two Australian university students studying French participated in the semester-long study. Results showed that as students' self-confidence increased over time, so did their willingness to use the L2 in class.

Furthermore, MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) used a path-analysis procedure to examine the links between perceived competence, language anxiety, and WTC inside and outside the classroom. The participants were 238 Canadian high school students learning French as an L2. Hesitation was found to be an antecedent of language anxiety, as well as a predictor of lower perceived competence. Peng and Woodrow (2010) conducted a large-scale survey of WTC in Chinese EFL classrooms. The participants were 579 students from eight universities in eastern China. They found that motivation influenced WTC indirectly through confidence. Motivated students with a high self-evaluation of L2 competence and less anxiety tended to be more willing to communicate.

According to MacIntyre et al. (1998), the addition of WTC to the literature on language learning may help orient theory and research toward the ultimate goal of L2 learning, i.e., authentic communication between persons of different language and culture backgrounds. Since very few WTC studies have been conducted in the Taiwanese EFL context, the current research aims to help fill this void by examining the WTC of EFL learners in Taiwan.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants in the study were 203 college students from a university in Taiwan. The participants, aged 18-20, had studied English formally in school for at least eight years. They needed to take the required course English Oral Practice in the first year of university. Since the study intended to look into the differences in WTC between proficient and less-proficient EFL learners, 104 English-major students were designated as proficient EFL learners, and the other 99 English non-majors were designated as less-proficient learners.

Instrument

The instruments consisted of an attitude questionnaire, a WTC questionnaire, and a communication frequency scale. The attitude questionnaire, based on previous research, included five parts, containing 29 items with 5-point scales of agreement (Cronbach's α = .81). The first part, *intercultural friendship orientation*, had four items from Yashima (2000) and asked the students' reasons for studying English. The second part, *motivational intensity,* included six items from Gardner and Lambert (1972). The third part, *desire to learn English,* had six items, also from Gardner and Lambert. The fourth part, *approach-avoidance tendency*, had seven items from Kim (1991) and served to assess the tendency to approach or avoid foreigners in Taiwan. The fifth part, *interest in international activities,* had six items from Yashima (2002) indexing how interested an individual was in an international career and living overseas.

Another instrument of the study was a WTC questionnaire including 25 items that measured WTC (Cronbach's α = .93). This questionnaire has been widely used in previous studies (e.g., Hashimoto, 2002; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990) and has demonstrated high reliability and strong construct validity. Participants indicated how willing they were to communicate in six communication contexts (daily talk, public speaking, interpersonal conversation, meetings, group discussion, classroom discussion) on 5-point scales of frequency. Moreover, the scale of communication frequency (see Table 4) included five self-report items from Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, and Shimizu (2004). It assessed how often participants volunteered communication in and outside the class, on a 10-point scale from "not at all" to "very frequently."

Procedure

The study was conducted separately in four classes of the required freshman course English Oral Practice. First, the details of the study were explained to the participants. Then, the participants answered the attitude questionnaire and the WTC questionnaire. They also responded to the scale of communication frequency. Finally, semi-structured interviews were held with 16 volunteers from among the participants to probe how they perceived their WTC. Half of the interviewees were English majors, and the other half were English non-majors.

Data Analysis

For the scoring of the attitude and WTC questionnaires, the scale range for each item was 1–5, and the scale range for each frequency item was 1-10. Besides descriptive statistics, the statistical measures for data analysis included Cronbach's Alpha reliability, Pearson Product-Moment correlations, multiple regression, and t-tests. As for participants' answers to the interview questions, they were analyzed manually by transcribing and categorizing them in terms of the WTC variables.

RESULTS

One of the main purposes of the current study is to examine how participants' English learning attitudes influence their willingness to communicate. Table 1 shows the results of the learning attitude questionnaire completed by participants. Among the five categories, *desire to learn English* had the highest average frequency, and *interest in international activities* had the lowest average frequency. Further, results of the t-test indicate that proficient EFL participants had significantly higher learning attitudes in the categories of *intercultural friendship orientation*, *approach–avoidance tendency*, and *interest in international activities* than less-proficient participants did.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of English Learning Attitudes

Category	Major	N	Mean	SD
Intercultural Friendship Orientation	English	104	3.28	0.77
	Non-English	99	3.02	0.91
	Total	203	3.16	0.85
Motivational Intensity	English	104	3.44	0.63
	Non-English	99	3.25	0.74
	Total	203	3.35	0.69
Desire to Learn English	English	104	3.64	0.54
	Non-English	99	3.61	0.61
	Total	203	3.63	0.57
Approach – Avoidance Tendency	English	104	3.41	0.41
	Non-English	99	3.29	0.38
	Total	203	3.35	0.40
Interest in International Activities	English	104	2.96	0.38
	Non-English	99	2.85	0.40
	Total	203	2.90	0.39

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of WTC

Context	Major	N	Mean	SD
Daily Talk	English	104	3.25	0.79
	Non-English	99	2.96	0.83
	Total	203	3.11	0.82
Public Speaking	English	104	2.51	0.90
	Non-English	99	2.23	0.75
	Total	203	2.37	0.84
Interpersonal Conversation	English	104	3.20	0.72
	Non-English	99	2.99	0.76
	Total	203	3.10	0.75
Meetings	English	104	2.58	0.84
	Non-English	99	2.44	0.79
	Total	203	2.51	0.82
Group Discussion	English	104	3.24	0.82
	Non-English	99	2.94	0.87
	Total	203	3.10	0.85
Classroom Discussion	English	104	3.03	0.63
	Non-English	99	2.63	0.66
	Total	203	2.84	0.67

Table 3. Regression Analysis of English Learning Attitudes on WTC

Dependent Variable	**Willingness to Communicate**											
Models	M1		M2		M3		M4		M5		M6	
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Control Variable												
Major	.098	1.43	.144	2.09*	.169	2.51*	.115	1.77	.152	2.19*	.085	1.26
Independent Variables												
Intercultural Friendship Orientation	.299	4.35**									.134	1.73
Motivational Intensity			.226	3.22**							.050	0.63
Desire to Learn English					.249	3.69**					.059	0.73
Approach-Avoidance Tendency							.376	5.76**			.261	3.28**
Interest in International Activities									.147	2.12*	.043	0.63
R^2	.114		.078		.092		.168		.051		.195	
F	12.86**		8.45**		10.15**		20.23**		5.42**		7.92**	

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01

Based on the frequency of each item, the results of the WTC questionnaire completed by the participants are described below. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the six communication contexts. Among the six contexts, *daily talk* had the highest average frequency, and *public speaking* had the lowest average frequency. Moreover, results of the t-test of WTC context indicate that the proficient EFL students had significantly higher WTC than the less-proficient students did in all six contexts.

The current study mainly intends to examine the factors affecting the WTC of EFL college students by investigating the relationship between English learning attitudes and WTC. Table 3 shows the results of regression analysis of English learning attitudes on WTC. All five categories of English learning attitudes were significant predictors of WTC. Among them, *approach-avoidance tendency* was the most significant predictor of WTC. Then, following in order, were *intercultural friendship orientation*, *desire to learn English*, and *motivational intensity*. *Interest in international activities* had the lowest regression coefficient.

In terms of communication frequency, the participants had the highest average frequency in the situation "I answered when I was called upon by the teacher" and the lowest average frequency in the situation "I volunteered to answer or ask questions in class." Moreover, Table 4 shows the results of the t-test of communication frequency between proficient and less-proficient EFL students. Results indicate that the proficient EFL students had significantly higher communication frequency than less-proficient students did in all five situations.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Communication Frequency

No.	Communication	Major	N	Mean	SD
f1	I volunteered to answer or ask questions in class.	English	104	5.09	2.04
		Non-English	99	4.02	2.17
		Total	203	4.57	2.17
f2	I answered when I was called upon by the teacher.	English	104	8.43	1.55
		Non-English	99	7.87	2.06
		Total	203	8.16	1.83
f3	I participated in classroom activities such as pair work.	English	104	8.46	1.66
		Non-English	99	7.73	2.14
		Total	203	8.10	1.94
f4	I asked teachers questions or talked to them outside the class period.	English	104	5.63	2.07
		Non-English	99	4.64	2.41
		Total	203	5.14	2.29
f5	I talked with friends or acquaintances outside school in English.	English	104	6.33	2.12
		Non-English	99	3.80	2.23
		Total	203	5.09	2.51

The study also investigated the influence of WTC on EFL learners' communication frequency. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was computed to examine the relationship between WTC and communication frequency. Results show that WTC significantly correlated with all items of communication frequency. The two items with the highest correlation with WTC were "I asked teachers questions or talked to them outside the class period" and "I talked with friends or acquaintances outside school in English."

DISCUSSION

This study mainly examined the relationship between WTC and English learning attitudes. Results indicate that all five English learning attitudes were significant predictors of WTC. Among them, *approach-avoidance tendency* and *intercultural friendship orientation* were the two most significant factors. This finding supports those of Yashima (2002) and Yashima et al. (2004), which revealed that the path from international posture to WTC in an L2 was significant. The tendency to approach or avoid foreigners and an interest in making friends with foreigners were found to influence college students' willingness to communicate in English. According to Yashima (2002), international posture hypothesized as a general attitude toward the international community influences English learning and communication for EFL learners. As we know, English is not only a school subject but a lingua franca around the world. Therefore, the more internationally oriented EFL learners are, the more willing are they to communicate in English.

Moreover, some interviewees in the study answered that one of the most effective ways to learn EFL speaking is to talk to native speakers or make friends with one or two foreigners and practice English speaking with them. Based on the research findings, it is proposed that the curriculum design of EFL courses should include multiculturalism and intercultural communication to enhance students' interest in different cultures and peoples so that they can be more willing to communicate in English.

In terms of communication frequency, Chinese participants in the study had higher frequency in the situations *I answered when I was called upon by the teacher* and *I participated in classroom activities such as pair work*. The result is consistent with Yashima et al. (2004), who also found that Japanese students performed more frequently in these two items. Due to shyness and reticence as well as the limited foreign language learning context, Asian students may communicate more often only when they need to talk in class. They speak less frequently for voluntary communication, such as asking questions or talking outside school. Furthermore, this study found that WTC significantly correlates with communication frequency, in accordance with previous research (e.g., MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima et al., 2004). It seems that communicative behavior is strongly predicted by intention or willingness to act.

This study aimed to investigate the differences in WTC between proficient and less-proficient EFL learners. Results show that the proficient students had significantly higher willingness to communicate and significantly higher communication frequency than the less-proficient students did. Besides, the less-proficient students reported a significantly higher frequency of avoiding talking with foreigners if they could, feeling somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door, and avoiding the kind of work that would send them overseas frequently. Echoing previous studies (e.g., Leger & Storch, 2009; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010), the study suggests that communication competence strongly relates to WTC. With higher motivation, self-confidence, and international posture, more-competent L2 learners seem to be more willing to communicate.

With regard to EFL learners' perceptions of their WTC, in their opinions, one of the most effective ways to learn English speaking is to talk to native speakers or make friends with one or two foreigners and practice speaking with them. Another effective way is to find more chances to talk and use what you have learned. The key is to find real people to talk to. It does not need to be native speakers, but you have to communicate in English. A small class of six to eight people works better for them to learn speaking. Most of the opportunities to speak English in class are asking and answering questions. They do not feel anxious when speaking with their classmates, but are quite worried about speaking with foreigners.

CONCLUSION

According to the study results, the tendency to approach or avoid foreigners and the degree of interest in making friends with foreigners were found to influence college students' WTC in English. There is a significant correlation between EFL learners' WTC and their communication frequency. They speak less frequently for voluntary communication. Besides, the proficient students had a significantly higher willingness to communicate and a significantly higher communication frequency than the less-proficient students did. Through the research findings, this study can provide empirical descriptions for the research literature of WTC. By providing empirical descriptions of WTC variables and communicative behaviors, the study is expected to advance theoretical and practical insights for encouraging students to be more willing to communicate in English, enhancing their interest in different cultures as well as building their confidence in intercultural communication.

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Helping Young Learners Improve Pronunciation With Serious Games

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This paper discusses a touch-screen adventure-format learning game aimed at helping young Japanese or Korean speakers of English improve their aural discrimination of /l/ and /r/ phonemes in a fun and motivating way. Utilizing 32 minimal pairs (64 words), the player/learner proceeds through the adventure by listening to commands and responds by choosing between two visual representations of the command. A pilot evaluation was conducted using 10 volunteer testers (Japanese university students, mean age = 19, non-English majors). The results from the pilot showed an improvement in aural discrimination among the testers and the perception of the game format as enjoyable. Gamification is used to promote learning.

INTRODUCTION

Learning how to differentiate between similar, unfamiliar sounds often presents a hurdle to any new learner of a foreign language. In learning to articulate such sounds, visual clues such as the shape of the speaker's mouth and lips, or waveforms or recording devices may be beneficial, but they arguably do not help the learner aurally differentiate between two similar sounds. At best, learning may be stalled, and at worst, the lack of progress may de-motivate the learner, disengaging them from the learning process.

The author describes the design and development of a touch-screen adventure-format learning game aimed at helping young learners improve their aural discrimination of similar sounds. Utilizing minimal pairs, the player/learner proceeds through the adventure by listening to commands and responds by touching one of two visual representations, to move to the next screen, and ultimately complete the game with no mistakes.

To demonstrate and test the efficacy of the game, the two consonants /l/ and /r/ were chosen as the target sounds. English liquid consonants, especially /l/ and /r/, are a challenge for both Japanese and Korean learners. Japanese has only a single consonant that approximates both; it is lateral like /l/, but post alveolar like /r/. Korean, on the other hand, includes both sounds as allophones of the same phoneme, the pronunciation depending on the preceding or following sounds. To evaluate the effectiveness of the content and platform, 10 Japanese non-English-major university students acting as volunteer testers took part in a pilot evaluation program, comprised of a pre-test, game time, post-test, and survey. The author reports on the game and the results.

A Brief Explanation of the L/R Problem

Logan, Lively, and Pisoni (1991) noted that the ability to discriminate between /l/ and /r/ affects many native speakers of Japanese, even after years of experience with English. Similar results were obtained by Jamieson and Lu (1996) when testing native Koreans who had been living in Canada for at least 10 years. Gotoh (1971) also reported that Japanese have difficulty acoustically differentiating between English /l/ and /r/ sounds, even if they have good conversational English skills, have lived in English-speaking countries, or can correctly articulate the two sounds when speaking English. Cheng (1991) reported that /r/ and /l/ are often perceived as interchangeable, by Korean speakers learning English. Furthermore, Takagi and Mann (1995) added that from their research, even after a minimum of 10 years of residence in an English-speaking country, Japanese speakers of English still had difficulty discriminating between the two phonemes.

A Strategy to Improve Aural Skills

Lively, Logan, and Pisoni (1993) reported that non-bilingual Japanese speakers living in Japan were able to increase their ability to effectively discriminate between /l/ and /r/ after a three-week training period involving listening to minimal pairs read by native English speakers. In a follow-up test, participants were successfully able to apply their learning and distinguish between /l/ and /r/ minimal pairs not used in the training period. Tsubota et al. (2002) discussed a remedial CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) instruction system also utilizing minimal pairs, just as both Bradlow, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada, and Tohkura (1997) and Logan, Lively, and Pisoni (1991) reported success in training Japanese listeners to identify /l/ and /r/ phonemes using minimal pairs as contrasts. A number of other studies (Kinnaird & Zapf, 2004, Jamieson & Lu, 1996) have reported success using minimal pairs as part of their strategy in training or improving aural discrimination.

Incorporating Gee's (2003) claim that motivation is needed for learning to occur and Prensky's (2001) resolute belief that the challenge of the educator is to engage digital native students via their technology, along with McGonigal's (2011) conviction that gaming is what young people do best, the application of minimal pairs to a digital game medium to develop aural discrimination skills seems like a reasonable way to not only successfully teach but also motivate and engage learners.

Serious Games and Gaming

Several educators and researchers (Kapp, 2012; Prensky, 2000, 2001, 2006; Gee, 2003) have written extensively about the value of using video games in education. Prensky (2001) discussed at length the advantages of using "digital game-based learning" as a way to engage the learner, and Gee outlined the merits of video games as a valuable adjunct to education. McGonigal (2011) noted that games not only engage but provide fun and motivation. Such games used in an educational, training, or simulation environment, which are defined by the ability of the player to theoretically retain and apply the same subject matter in the real world, have come to be known as *serious games*.

Capitalizing on the appropriateness of the serious game as an effective learning medium, the author designed and implemented an adventure-style game aimed at bringing about an improvement in phonemic discrimination. The initial sounds targeted were /l/ and /r/ phonemes. As noted in the literature, minimal pairs have been shown to be effective in helping improve auditory discrimination, and a gaming format seems to be an appropriate format for practicing them due to the format's intrinsic motivational qualities, and its ability to coax reluctant learners to at least have a try without fear of failing.

A Minimal-Pairs Auditory-Discrimination Serious Game

The opening screen of the L and R Minimal Pairs adventure game (see Figure 1) shows four characters who accompany the player in the adventure; Ronnie, Lonnie, Irene and Eileen. The first two are male names and were chosen because they target pre-vocalic discrimination of l/r sounds, with the latter two female names targeting post-vocalic l/r discrimination. The adventure involves the learner being orally instructed to perform simple tasks that involve clicking on the correct graphic representation of a word from a minimal pair.

Figure 1. Opening Screen for L/R Minimal Pairs Adventure Game.

After clicking the game-start button, the game begins and the learner/player is directed to perform a straightforward task. The task involves listening to a spoken instruction and clicking on a particular item on the screen. The command is random and is drawn from 64 possible choices (32 pairs) in a data bank. All of the commands involve the listener having to differentiate between two minimal pairs, one containing an /l/ phoneme and the other an /r/ phoneme. This is demonstrated in Figure 2, where the characters can be seen standing at a forked road.

Figure 2. Screen Showing Minimal Pairs for a Boy *Playing* and a Boy *Praying*.

On the left is a boy *PLAYING,* and on the right is a boy *PRAYING*. As soon as the page loads, the player may be told, to "Go to the boy *playing*." If the player/learner understands the command and clicks the *PLAYING* icon on the left, the player wins some game money, which can be used to purchase insurance or other game items, and can proceed to the next frame, which is a similar minimal contrast problem. If the player is unsure of the command, the "Replay?" button can be selected to repeat the instruction. When the player succeeds, the "correct-answer screen" (Figure 3) appears, and another minimal pair challenge is randomly issued.

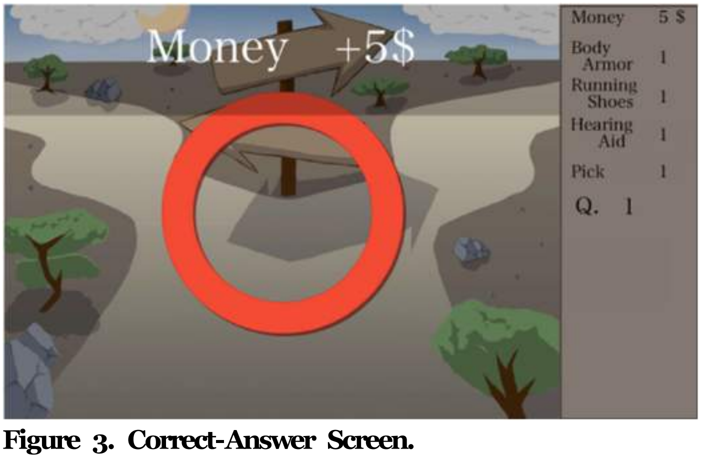

Figure 3. Correct-Answer Screen.

Having insurance or items that can be purchased at the game store is important as they act as a buffer if the player should make an incorrect choice. The player goes to the store before the adventure begins and has the chance to go several additional times throughout the game. Collecting all items also allows the player to not only complete the game but also see a special "happy ending" screen upon completion. Consider the example in Figure 4.

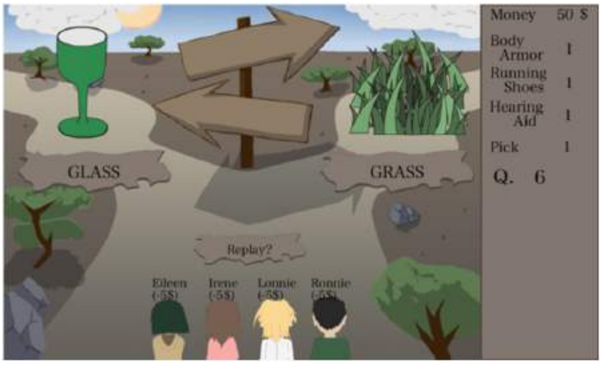

Figure 4. Screen Showing Minimal Pairs for a Green *Glass* and Green *Grass*.

If the player is instructed to "go to the *green GRASS*," clicking on the icon on the right side will result in the "correct-answer screen" appearing, while clicking on the *green GLASS* on the left will yield the "wrong-answer screen" (Figure 5). In regular game mode, such a mistake will end the game.

Figure 5. Wrong-Answer Screen.

However, if the player has purchased insurance (body armor or running shoes), the "game over" scenario can be avoided. In the event that the player has exhausted all insurance or had none to begin with, after the wrong-answer screen, the game finishes dramatically with either a large truck knocking the player over (see Figure 6) or the player falling into a death pit filled with sharpened spears, followed by the player being invited to play again.

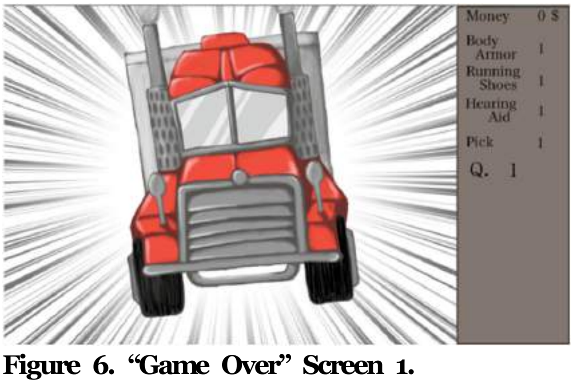

Figure 6. "Game Over" Screen 1.

The first ten screens constitute the "easy stage," where the learner has to choose between two minimal pairs, which are graphically represented on the left and right sides of the screen. The function of the "easy" stage is largely to build confidence, and stockpile some money. After the easy levels, if the player is showing good auditory discrimination skills – meaning few mistakes – the game becomes more difficult. At this level, the player is instructed to click not only on one of the object icons, but also on one of the players. For example, consider the following challenge (Figure 7): The screen looks the same, with two minimal pair objects and the four game characters visible on the screen. The instruction might be, "*Eileen*, go to the lady *blushing*."

To proceed to the next screen, the player needs to click both words in the instruction, in this case, *Eileen* and *blushing*. Before doing so, if desired, the player has the ability to listen to the command again by clicking on the "Replay?" button. If still uncertain, the player can also click on either of the minimal pair words for their pronunciation, *BLUSHING*, written on the left, and *BRUSHING*, written on the right. Clicking on the names of the characters will also replay the audio for their names. Thus, if the player thought the correct answer was "*Eileen*, go to the lady *brushing*," the player could easily check the pronunciation of *Eileen* and *brushing* by clicking on them individually, or listen to the complete command again, before committing to a final answer.

Figure 7. Screen Showing Minimal Pairs for a Lady *Blushing* and a Lady *Brushing*.

Each repeat costs five game dollars. However, if the player befriends any of the four players by "buying" them at some stage in the game store, listening to the pronunciation of the friend's names is free. It should be noted that in regular game mode, every check or repetition costs money, but in the practice mode, no money is charged, allowing the player to practice as much as he or she likes without any fear of encountering the game-over scenario. This is useful for building confidence.

There are four possible permutations using the minimal pairs involved. A combination of two minimal pairs is used to challenge the discriminatory skills of the player. This can be seen in Figure 8, where the player is told, "Eileen, go to the lady blushing."

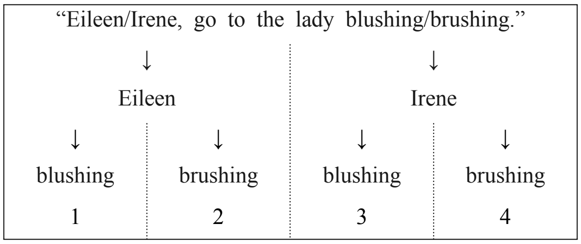

Figure 8. Permutations of Two Minimal Pairs Showing Four Possible Outcomes.

Excluding the 4 characters' names, 32 sets of minimal pairs, comprising 64 possible actions, are in the game data bank. If any of the four characters' names are also included in the instruction, there are 4 x 64, or 256, possible different oral instructions, targeting both pre-vocalic and post-vocalic discrimination, with the target phonemes initially and medially located. This arguably provides a sufficient range of variations to allow significant improvement in /l/ and /r/ auditory discrimination skills. The list of commands using each minimal pair (excluding the character combinations) is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Table of /l/ and /r/ Minimal Pair Commands Used in the Game

Minimal Pair Commands			
1	Go to the boy *PLAYING*	2	Go to the boy *PRAYING*
3	Go to the man with the big *BELLY*	4	Go to the man with the big *BERRY*
5	Go to the man *COLLECTING* papers	6	Go to the man *CORRECTING* papers
7	Walk to the blue *LAKE*	8	Walk to the blue *RAKE*
9	Can you see *LICE* in a boy's hair?	10	Can you see *RICE* in a boy's hair?
11	Go the *LONG* way	12	Go the *WRONG* way
13	Pick up the *LOCK*	14	Pick up the *ROCK*
15	Open the *LIGHT* door	16	Open the *RIGHT* door
17	Walk to the black *LAMP*	18	Walk to the black *RAMP*
19	Go to the *LANE*	20	Go to the *RAIN*
21	Walk to the man with a long *LIST*	22	Walk to the man with a long *WRIST*
23	Go to the *PILOT*	24	Go to the *PIRATE*
25	Go to the girl with a *CLOWN*	26	Go to the girl with a *CROWN*
27	Go to the man *CLAPPING*	28	Go to the man *CRAPPING*
29	Walk towards the *CLOUD*	30	Walk towards the *CROWD*
31	Go to the big *CLOCK*	32	Go to the big *CROC*
33	Go to the lady with a small *FLOCK*	34	Go to the lady with a small *FROCK*
35	Walk to the red *FLAME*	36	Walk to the red *FRAME*
37	Walk towards the *FLIES*	38	Walk towards the *FRIES*
39	Go to the *FLYING* fish	40	Go to the *FRYING* fish
41	Pick up the golden *FLUTE*	42	Pick up the golden *FRUIT*
43	Walk to the green *GLASS*	44	Walk to the green *GRASS*
45	Walk to the *GLOWING* boy	46	Walk to the *GROWING* boy
47	Go to the big *LAMB*	48	Go to the big *RAM*
49	Walk to the *LOW* boat	50	Walk to the *ROW* boat
51	Pick up the shining *MANDOLIN*	52	Pick up the shining *MANDARIN*
53	Go towards the *PALACE* sign	54	Go towards the *PARIS* sign
55	Walk to the flowers in *BLOOM*	56	Walk to the flowers in *BROOM*
57	Go to the *LEADER*	58	Go to the *READER*
59	Walk towards the *LIGHTER*	60	Walk towards the *WRITER*
61	Go to the golden *LOCKET*	62	Go to the golden *ROCKET*
63	Go to the lady *BLUSHING*	64	Go to the lady *BRUSHING*

STUDENT FEEDBACK AND EVALUATION

To evaluate the effectiveness of the platform, a simple, pilot evaluation program comprised of a pre-test, game time, and post-test was given to 10 Japanese non-English-major students (mean age = 19) acting as volunteer testers. All participating students were also surveyed with a short questionnaire containing 6 items.

The evaluation program began with 10 words being read to the 10 volunteer testers in a classroom. Each word selected contained either the /l/ or /r/ phoneme, and was a contrast word in a minimal pair (not used in the game). Each word was read twice, and students were instructed to circle the word they heard on a handout containing each of the test words alongside their corresponding minimal pair (see Appendix A). The students were then given access to iPads containing the L/R minimal pairs game and told to play the game for as long as they liked, but were directed to note the total time played. After playing the game, the students were administered a post-test, containing the same minimal contrast words as the pre-test. The pilot evaluation was conducted over two days. Results of the pre-test, post-test, and game time of each participant is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of /l/ & /r/ Discrimination Pre-tests, Post-tests, and Length of Time Spent Playing for Each Student

Student Number	Pre-test Score	Post-test Score	Difference	Approximate Game Time
Student 1	3	2	-1	5 minutes
Student 2	4	6	+2	30 minutes
Student 3	7	7	0	25 minutes
Student 4	3	4	+1	20 minutes
Student 5	2	5	+3	40 minutes
Student 6	5	7	+2	15 minutes
Student 7	8	9	+1	10 minutes
Student 8	7	7	0	15 minutes
Student 9	6	9	+3	20 minutes
Student 10	2	1	-1	10 minutes
Average	4.7	5.7	1.0	19 minutes

Of the 10 pilot testers, 6 achieved better post-test scores than pre-test scores, with 2 showing no change and 2 recording lower scores. Hands-on game time ranged from 5 minutes to 40 minutes (as reported by the testers). The average post-test score increase was 1.0 and the average game time was 19 minutes. Both testers who performed worse in the post-test than the pre-test played for 10 minutes or less, their average play time being 7.5 minutes, ((5 + 10) ¸ 2). The testers who gained a higher post-test score had an average play time of 22.5 minutes, ((30 + 20 + 40 + 15 + 10 + 20) ¸ 6). The testers who experienced no change between pre-test and post-test scores had an average play time of 20 minutes ((25 + 15) ¸ 2). Although the number of testers in the pilot study was small, there appears to be a tendency that those who played longer performed better in /l/ and /r/ listening discrimination than those who played for a shorter time.

The second part of the pilot program involved the completion of a questionnaire. The purpose of the survey was to confirm that the method was not just entertaining, but also motivating and effective as a learning tool. The questions were designed to test these objectives (see Table 3).

Table 3. Survey Items and Quality Tested For

No.	Item	Testing for
1	I would not normally spend time on improving my listening skills.	Ability to gain and maintain attention
2	I feel more confident in discriminating between similar sounding words.	Degree of confidence experienced by the learner
3	I would like to do this with other difficult sounds.	Acceptance of relevance by the learner
4	I enjoyed this activity.	Satisfaction stemming from ability to succeed
5	This did not feel like learning.	Learner's perception of the learning experience
6	The game was boring.	Learner's perception of the game

The survey was conducted using a 4-point Likert scale, with respondents directed to *strongly agree, agree, disagree* or *strongly disagree*. To not allow respondents to avoid making a decision, a neutral choice was not provided. As noted by Clason and Dormody (1994), *don't know* is quite different from *neither agree nor disagree*. A neutral choice can be confusing as to what it means for both the respondent and the researcher. The questionnaire was distributed immediately after the post-test, and the results can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. Student Responses to Survey (N = 10)

No.	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I would not normally spend time on improving my listening skills.	6	4	0	0
2	I feel more confident in discriminating between similar sounding words.	3	5	2	0
3	I would like to do this with other difficult sounds.	2	7	1	0
4	I enjoyed this activity.	3	5	2	0
5	This did not feel like learning.	6	4	0	0
6	The game was boring.	0	1	7	2

The majority of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the propositions, with the exception of the final item, which was a transposed statement. All students agreed that they would not normally spend time on improving their listening discrimination (Q1). Of these, eight students (80%) felt more confident in being able to discriminate between similar-sounding words (Q2). Ninety percent (90%) of the learners expressed an interest in doing a similar activity with other difficult sounds (Q3). Only 2 students (20%) did not enjoy the activity. This may be due to a perceived lack of progress in the ability to discriminate between the minimal pairs – student number 1 and 10 both performed more poorly in the post-test than the pre-test. However, it is unknown which students did not enjoy the activity. All students agreed with the proposition that the game activity did not feel like learning (Q5). This implies that any learning that took place was not associated with typical classroom learning. One student found the game boring (Q6). From the responses, it seems reasonable to infer that the serious game methodology is appropriate as a learning vehicle and effective as a motivator.

It should be noted that the sample is small and both the total time played and the number of times testers were exposed to the game were minimal. The survey and test phase were administered as a pilot program to show whether the methodology appeared to work, and to investigate how learners felt about using a game as a way to learn. Given the sample size and scale of the survey, the data is not intended to reflect a rigorous evaluation.

Discussion

The game is based on the use of minimal pairs. Such contrasts are frequently used to highlight the difference between two sounds in a language, and have been utilized for over 40 years by various researchers addressing the /l/ and /r/ aural discrimination difficulty in Japanese and Korean learners of English (Bradlow et al., 1997; Cheng 1991; Jamieson & Lu, 1996; Kinnaird & Zapf, 2004; Lively et al., 1993; Logan et al., 1991; Miyawaki et al., 1975; Tsubota et al., 2002).

While some researchers have used “non-word” minimal pairs (Yamada, 1991) and others have used “non-speech” minimal sounds (Miyawaki et al., 1975), Livbjerg and Mees (1995) note that the most effective learning occurs when the learner has to identify words in sentences where either member of a minimal pair would fit in naturally. This is the same strategy that we have applied, using simple illustrations and short commands. Either choice is logically possible, and both seem reasonable, (e.g., “pick up the lock” or “pick up the rock”).

The game currently directs the player to perform simple tasks using words drawn randomly from the minimal pairs in the database. It might be valuable to change this if there appears to be a particular problem with a certain combination of sounds on an individual basis; for example, pro-vocalic words beginning with an /l/ phoneme may not provide difficulties, while those containing /l/ phonemes in a medial position may be more challenging. Clearly, in such cases, asking the learner to identify the character “Lonnie” would not be as beneficial as asking the player to use “Eileen,” (as opposed to Irene).

A time challenge mode and practice mode have also recently been introduced. In the former, the learner/player has a set amount of time to complete as many problems as possible. In the latter mode, there is no penalty phase so learners can continue to practice for as long as they desire with no fear of losing money or losing the game. The player can also choose between male or female voices, and a bank of common mistakes is being added.

Conclusion

Japanese and Korean speakers of English often find discriminating between /l/ and /r/ extremely difficult. In an attempt to address this problem, a method utilizing serious games to allow and/or motivate learners to practice phoneme discrimination by themselves has been presented and discussed. Represented as a game, the content allows the learner to easily perform aural discrimination exercises in a non-threatening, personal environment. As shown by the pilot survey results, all learners (100%) reported practicing something they would not normally do (aural discrimination practice), and most (80%) felt confident about their progress. In the majority of cases, improvement was shown between pre-tests and post-tests despite no students seeing the activity as a rigorous learning experience. A more detailed survey and questionnaire with a larger sample will be undertaken at a later stage.

It should also be noted that while this paper discusses improving aural discrimination between /l/ and /r/ using a serious game, other challenging phonemes that can be expressed in minimal pairs will be included into the game bank at a later date.

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Appendix

right	light
race	lace
fright	flight
crime	climb
royal	loyal
free	flea
sprint	splint
arrive	alive
erect	elect
brew	blue

List of 20 /l/ and /r/ minimal pairs given as the pre-test and post-test. The respondents were directed to circle the word they heard. The circled entries are those that were read out.

Learning from Play: Developing and Implementing Classroom Games

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Board games can provide a space for students to engage in the practice of the target language with other players. Commercial board games may prove difficult to integrate into a curriculum due to price, complexity, or lack of alignment with objectives. Educators can design their own games targeted for their own teaching content. This article reports on the development and implementation across three semesters of a Zombie Apocalypse board game tailored to a unit of study focused on giving recommendations, reasons, and comparisons. Over the three semesters of implementation and revision, several design considerations arose that could help educators develop a board game connected to curricular objectives.

Introduction

Many people of all ages play countless hours of various games, including console, PC, cell phone, and board games. Educators, seeing their students' interest in games, have taken interest in how these entertainment products can support education. However, the content in commercial digital and non-digital games often seems removed from the language objectives promoted in schools. Games like Apples to Apples (1999) or Once Upon a Time (1993) offer gameplay focused on language, but educators have a variety of objectives that may prove difficult to meet with existing games. In this case, teachers could design their own board games related to their curriculum. However, game creation represents an intersection of game design and graphic design skills that only gets more complicated with the consideration of educational needs. This paper seeks to report on the process of, and lessons learned from, designing and refining a board game to practice language related to learning objectives.

Background Theory

Educators and researchers are trying to understand the value of games in educational settings. Much of the current research, however, focuses on digital games. Video games may prove difficult to integrate into the curriculum because of the lack of available resources to acquire games and information about how to integrate them into the classroom (Van Eck, 2006). Digital games can be expensive if a teacher needs a class set. Also, digital games require additional materials, such as consoles, computers, and controllers. Furthermore, an educator would need a diverse skill set related to programming and graphic design to create even a basic game.

Board games, though, can provide an alternative to digital games. While individual board games may be as, or more, expensive than their digital counterparts, a teacher would not need to buy as many board games for a class because one board game often can support a small group of students. Most board games do not require expensive supplementary materials to use. Finally, a teacher could make a rough board game without the technological hurdles of digital games. For these reasons, teachers may find it more practical to use board games in the classroom.

Games can afford players the opportunity to engage in interactions. Sykes and Reinhardt (2013) describe the importance of interaction both in language learning theory and game design theory, noting that interaction is a critical component of language learning, and interactive design can promote it. Video games show promise as places for students to interact with native and/or non-native speakers and to use language in an authentic activity (Peterson, 2010; Peterson, 2012; Rama, Black, Van Es, & Warshauer, 2012). It is reasonable to think that board games can afford opportunities for interaction, though of a different kind than their digital counterparts. Ramani, Hitti, and Siegler (2010) noted that students who played a linear number pattern recognition game maintained engagement across multiple playthroughs as evidenced by the increasing amount of comments made during gameplay. Smith (2006) found that board games elicited mediating strategies, suggestions, and questioning language from bilingual students. While board game play may not be as common as other "real-world" tasks, the activity has authenticity because the language used in the situation still requires use of skills and language useful in real-world situations (Nunan, 1989).

The space a game creates may conflict with an educational environment. Whenever a player enters a game, whether digital or non-digital, they "enter a magic circle (Huizinga, 1955), a sort of different dimension where a new system of rules exists – namely, the rules of the game, which supersede the rules of normal life" (Botturi, 2010, Section 2, Sub-section 1, para. 2). Huizinga's (1938) concept of the magic circle emphasizes two properties of games: They are (a) ordered, rule-bound systems that are (b) distinct from reality by space and time. Regardless of whether a game is commercial or teacher-designed, this separation from reality can result in game goals not aligning with educational goals. In this sense, the separation of game and educational goals may allow for the practice and use of language functions while pursuing the game goal as opposed to a strictly educational one. However, a potential problem is that students may use non-target language to accomplish the game objectives: winning the game but not meeting the larger curricular objectives.

Due to the discrepancy between educational and game objectives, teachers need to attend carefully to the design and implementation of a game to get the desired interactions. Games are made of rules and mechanics, which set the tone and activity that occur within a game. By designing them well, a game designer can target certain behaviors while participants play the game. Educators who design their own game may have more flexibility in aligning game mechanisms and content to learning objectives (Nicholson, 2011). However, efforts to balance the educational and entertainment aspects of games often result in thinly veiled repetitive drill activities (Nicholson, 2011). Nicholson (2011) noticed that the trivia game model, where students are asked questions after rolling die and moving, is problematic, not only due to being less interesting, but also because only one player participates at a time, leading to an inefficient use of class time. In a study with Taiwanese high school EFL students, Wu, Chen, and Huang (2014) found a digital board game more effective than either a traditional board game or interactive classroom activities. One reason they suggested for the difference in effectiveness between the digital and non-digital board game was that the students felt uncomfortable interacting with their instructor in the traditional board game as opposed to the virtual merchant in the digital board game. Thus, when developing a board game for the classroom, teachers must attend to the mechanics of a game to create an engaging environment that facilitates exploration and practice of learning objectives.

Gee (2007) stated that good video games must help the player learn in order to be successful. Drawing from a variety of popular games, he outlined 36 principles that are designed into games to help players learn. However, his main point was not only that good games are designed with learning principles but also "that we should use those principles, with or without games, in schools" (p. 215). If those same principles can transfer from video games to a classroom, a non-game context, then a board game could also be designed with some of those principles. While an overview of each of Gee's (2007) principles and their potential in board game play is beyond the scope of this article, some examples can help illustrate how they might relate to board games.

1. Self-Knowledge Principle: Students can learn about themselves and their current capabilities.
2. Practice Principle: Students should get lots of practice in non-boring contexts.
3. Multiple Routes Principle: Students have a variety of ways to proceed within the game, allowing for freedom to pursue alternatives and work to their strengths.
4. Situated Meaning Principle: Students can understand meaning from experience with signs, not from general or decontextualized exposure.
5. Multimodal Principle: Meaning and knowledge is built through a variety of modalities (images, text, sounds, etc.).

Vinhos (2010), a board game about winemaking, can exhibit these principles well. Each player runs a wine business that includes exporting, wineries, wine festivals, banking, and resource acquisition. The game includes an extensive rulebook as well as many images, tokens, cards, and text to facilitate play (Multimodal Principle). While challenging to start, due to the game's complexity, players can learn about their progress as they make decisions, get rewards, and see how others' decisions turn out (Self-Knowledge Principle). Indeed, multiple strategies can succeed depending on the types of wines and resources players pursue, which leads to many decisions to learn from (Multiple Routes Principle). This learning comes directly from immersion in the game's specific events (Situated Meaning Principle). Finally, a single game of Vinhos can take several hours of grappling with its content, even for experienced players (Practice

Principle). Good board games can engender good learning principles. Botturi (2010) asserts that "learning is actually the core of gameplay: It is what makes each game session unique, and why we continue to play a game we like for long periods of time" (Section 2, Sub-section 2, para. 1). If gameplay is an act or series of acts involving learning, then an instructor may be able to leverage a board game to meet the curricular needs of a class.

Though video games may afford some unique opportunities, board games show potential for classroom use. Aside from being a cheaper alternative to digital games, board games also can be designed to engage players in learning. Commercial board games may be adapted for the classroom. However, teachers may also want to develop games focused more closely on their specific curricular and student needs. Language educators must take care in how they design and implement a board game to ensure that target language practice within the game still maintains a balance between entertainment and curricular goals. By understanding a process for designing games and general consideration for game mechanics, educators could not only use commercial games more effectively but also design their own.

Course Context

The board game activity was developed for a mandatory speaking course that met for an hour and forty minutes per week for fifteen weeks. The students who took the course largely consisted of freshman with a range of English proficiency and diverse majors. Students sit in groups of three or four around circular tables. "Expressing Opinions," a five-week unit of instruction, focused on making recommendations, giving comparisons, and supporting ideas with reasons within a small group setting. Each skill was practiced in depth in isolation from other skills. The unit included several game-based activities, which were intended to help students use the skills simultaneously. The board game activity, which took place in lessons 2 and 3, was developed to help students practice integrating all of the language skills that they had learned in lessons 1 and 2. Prior to playing the board game, students learned and practiced all the content through several activities. The design of the module intended for students to be able to perform a target language skill in isolation well by lesson 3 and to start practicing using multiple skills together within the game.

Board Game Overview

The Zombie Apocalypse Game has two activities: a preparatory backpack activity and the actual board game. Collaborative group play was chosen for both activities because it would allow for more use of the target language as well as "constant analysis, renegotiation of various demands, and communication among players, which can often result in additional authentic language experiences for learners" (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013, p. 22). In lesson 2, the teacher tells students that they need to prepare for a disaster that will occur in lesson 3. At their tables, three to four students receive a bag of 80 potentially useful items that they must determine whether to include in the group's backpack. Items include a tent, blankets, money, and more. Students can add additional items not included in the original 80 by using "other" cards and consulting with the instructor. Each item ranges from one to four slots in size. The backpack has only 20 slots. Since the backpack has a finite amount of space and there are many items for consideration, the students must recommend items for inclusion (or exclusion), support their opinions with reasons, and compare the items. This backpack gets used during the board game.

The board game takes place in lesson 3. Within a collaborative group, three to four students have ten turns to explore the board and find a way to escape. A turn consists of individual players working together or in pairs selecting one of three options: (a) move three spaces, (b) flip three cards, and (c) flip one card; move one space. In line with the Multimedia Principle (Gee, 2007), the game consists of streets and buildings, with a stack of cards in each building for students to search through. These cards contained items, trade opportunities, zombie attacks, or blank cards. A team wins when they find an escape location card and return to it with the necessary items to use it. For example, to signal a helicopter, students need to have a flare, flare gun, and matches in their backpack and be on the hospital tile. The board and cards give a variety of useful and distracting feedback, such as a helipad marking the location of the helicopter card or blank cards (Botturi, 2010). Random events give new situations for students to respond to and add accountability for their decisions. For example, if it started snowing, students would need enough heavy jackets for their team to avoid losing a turn. Thus, the items in their backpack from lesson 2 get used and changed throughout gameplay. Based on the Multiple Routes Principle (Gee, 2007), the game is designed to provide a multitude of choices for students to discuss and compare, such as which buildings to explore/avoid, which items to take/leave, and which strategies to employ to achieve victory.

Board Game Iterations

First Iteration: Playtesting and First Run

In Fall 2013, two instructors playtested a prototype with two other instructors. This play test focused on seeing how the game's mechanics functioned. Of particular interest were the clarity of rules and cards as well as how the actual game felt to play. As a result, rule cards were made for students' reference, and event cards were revised for clarity.

Upon actual implementation in Fall 2013, students did not use the target language often or discuss thoroughly. The rule cards emphasized the three possible choices of moving and flipping described earlier, not language use. Rules should be simple to understand, but they should also effectively target the learning objectives (Nicholson, 2011). Since the rules did not effectively elicit the target language, they were revised and broken down into the following parts during iteration 1:

1. Each player recommends an action and gives reasons.
2. Compare everyone's recommendations
3. Do the action the group decided on. Make any necessary decisions for any cards flipped.

The revised rule cards increased the target language use slightly, but other design problems continued to hinder language use. The original board used high-quality graphics, but students did not discuss which buildings to go to or what items might be in certain buildings because they did not know what the buildings were. Buildings had a number that corresponded to a name on their rule card, but students often did not look at the rule card.

Also, many students lost the game. One group, if any, out of five groups per class won. As the instructors observed the way students played, they noticed that the game's design made winning extremely difficult. Students would start at a start location on the left side of the rectangular board. Instead of spreading out to search around the board, students tended to stick together and move through each building in order from left to right, often not finding all the necessary items to escape within the ten turn limit. While the unclear building labels probably contributed, the board's design and the items' placement also made winning difficult.

To solve these issues, the instructors redesigned the board. In order to facilitate faster movement, the instructors revised the board's shape and layout. Instead of a rectangular board with many buildings, the new game board had a nine-by-nine square grid with each tile containing a different building. Students would start in the center tile, allowing for quick access to all buildings from the first move. Moreover, the board needed effective affordance cues that would help contextualize information and prompt action without instruction (Despain, 2013). In line with the Situated Meaning Principle (Gee, 2007), the revised building tiles included distinguishable building images and prominent labels. Based on gameplay observations, the instructors believed these changes would both allow more groups to win due to faster movement and provide more discussion opportunities about buildings.

Second Iteration: Second Run

The redesigned game ran in Spring 2014 with much better interaction. The instructors observed during gameplay that students were discussing where to move and what possibilities different buildings held. As an example, a student might want a weapon to defend the group and suggest going to the police station. Another might contend that the fire station would be likelier to have a weapon. Additionally, students moved around the board much faster and discussed ideas for movement. Instead of one group out of five winning, two or three groups per class would win. The aforementioned changes resulted in students using the target language more, and more groups won.

Despite being more successful, the game needed to run more efficiently. At the start, the instructor would explain the rules through lecture and drawing on the whiteboard while students followed along with their own board. Some groups struggled to remember the rules and get started. Second, the game used text-heavy event cards intended to make the game interesting. For example, one zombie attack card read as follows:

> A family of zombies attack! (If you have <u>a pistol</u> [with <u>ammo</u>] or a <u>crowbar</u>, you can ignore this card. Otherwise, you MUST move or lose a survivor). You cannot go past this card until you find a weapon.

However, the students had difficulty reading the text, so they spent time understanding the cards. Finally, random events happened in turns 3, 5, and 7. At those times, multiple groups often called the instructor, which meant some groups had to wait. Despite the fact that students were now using the target language, slower progress resulted in less language use than possible.

To solve these problems, the instructors decided to simplify the game and add more support. Contrary to the idea of making the rules short, it was thought that a well-developed tutorial as a whole-class activity could shift passive students to active participants and engender more understanding of the game's rules than a simple lecture-style introduction. Gee (2007) described how the tutorial in Tomb Raider both set the story's context as well as trained players to play the game. To help students understand the game, a whole-class tutorial activity would have the instructor guide the students through four turns with a smaller board, model target language use and prompt target language use through questioning, and explore situations. Afterwards, students would restart and play the full game in their small groups. As for the event cards, a combination of images and text replaced the dense text. Images and short phrases were intended to quickly convey a situation for students to discuss. Finally, the random events occurred at times the instructor chose rather than in set turns. This way, students could set their own pace while the instructors monitored language use and chose when a group was ready for a random event.

Though students used the target language, they often were not aware of it because they were focused on winning the game, not monitoring their language. Debriefing can have students connect their gameplay to the learning objectives through a process of discussing the gameplay, connecting it to learning content, and setting goals (Botturi, 2010; Nicholson, 2012). Accordingly, a debriefing session was designed to help make students aware of their learning and practice within the game by (a) describing their gameplay and making recommendations to other classes, (b) talking as a group about their target language use, and (c) setting personal and group goals to improve their conversation.

Third Iteration: Playtesting and Wider Implementation

The changes made after iteration 2 made the game run more efficiently and increased target language use. Following iteration 2, one instructor playtested the revised game with a class in Summer 2014. The students had little trouble playing the game and used the target language frequently. In Fall 2014, the game avoided previous problems, still maintained engagement, and prompted target language use. The tutorial helped students understand the game process and how to use the target language. Students spent less time understanding the event cards and more time discussing what to do in the given situation. Item and event cards prompted students to discuss where to go next and how to escape. In the debriefing sessions, students described alternative language use and how well they used all the language skills simultaneously. These positive outcomes do not imply that no students/groups had questions or confusion, nor that prompting target language use did not occur. However, students did not need the teacher to clarify and prompt as much as in previous iterations because the game materials and mechanics worked more efficiently to create an ideal environment.

DISCUSSION

Designing, implementing, and redesigning a game across several iterations yielded some insights into how to develop a game for an educational purpose. While specific games that teachers develop may need specific solutions to problems that arise, some general strategies can help instructors who would like to develop their own game or adapt a commercial game for classroom use.

Make Simple, Effective Rules: The simpler the rules are to a game, the easier it is for the students to understand and to engage in the target language. Additionally, the more rules align with educational objectives, the more practice students will get. Playtesting and observation during gameplay can help instructors pinpoint confusing rules that need simplification.

Design Mechanisms and Graphics: Game design and graphic design can have a considerable impact on target language use and the players' enjoyment and understanding. The graphics, which convey information to players, need not be cutting edge or realistic, but rather they must aid the player's understanding and foster an enjoyable, efficient environment. The mechanics control the types of interactions. The design of mechanisms should start from learning objectives and align as closely with them as possible.

Make a Tutorial: Having a tutorial can help students engage with and learn the game rules before they start playing. While an educator may strive for simple rules, they may also need to scaffold the rules for students. A tutorial can shift rule explanation from a lecture to a whole-class activity. This will also allow students to ask questions about the rules before they start playing and engaging with the target language.

Have a Debriefing Session: Since educational goals and game goals do not necessarily match, debriefing can help raise players' awareness of their learning. Debriefing activities can be more effective when students think back on their experience, and discuss their experience and its relation to the content and the real world. In this closing activity for the game, students return to the content and learn.

Revise the Game in Iterations: A game needs to be played multiple times by different groups of students to find all the problems and test solutions. Board game designers playtest games with convention attendees, friends, and others. Video game developers continue to tweak games through updates long after the initial release. If possible, playtesting the games with a pilot group of teachers and/or similar students can help identify potential problems before they arise in the classroom. Educators should strive to make as complete and effective a game as possible before testing.

Conclusions

Educators need a wide assortment of tools to support student and curricular needs. With a rich methodological toolkit, teachers can design activities that best achieve their desired objectives. For some content, board games can be an appropriate resource. Teachers can learn much about how to use board games by playing various games themselves. Critical gameplay allows teachers insight into the mechanics that make up games, including what the mechanics are, their purpose in the game, and their effect on a task. Using their experiential and theoretical knowledge of education, teachers can design a board game activity through a design and testing process to find the appropriate balance between game activity and educational objective. The guidelines offered in this paper suggest aspects to consider during development. Through a combination of critical gameplay, testing, and revision, teachers can refine an activity into a more effective tool to help students achieve learning objectives.

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October 4-5, 2014, Seoul, Korea

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Ahmar Mahboob	Understanding Language Variation for Language Teaching
David Hayes	Innovation and Creativity in English Language Teacher Education

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Stephen Bax	Reading in a Second Language: Some Evidence from Eye Tracking
Fiona Copland	Changing the Debate: Challenges Young Learner Teachers Face
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Featured Colloquium (Anaheim University Webinar)

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Matthew Coomber	Assessing Speaking Ability Through Unscripted Role Plays
Jeanne Flores-Purpura	Assessing Students' Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies
Paul Goldberg	Assessing Extensive Reading Without Quizzes or Reports

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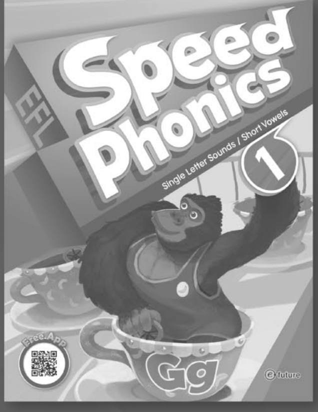

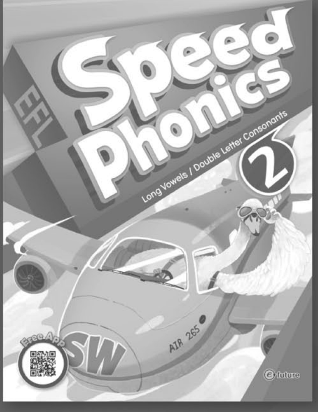

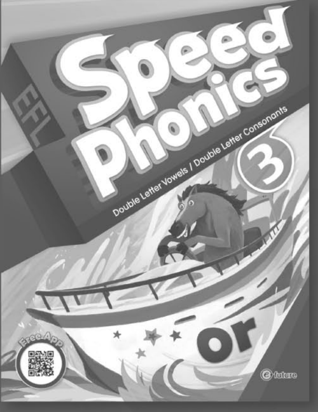

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