KOTESOL Proceedings 2021

Re-envisioning ELT Altogether, All Together

THE 28th ANNUAL KOREA TESOL
INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCCE

Re-envisioning ELT
Altogether, All Together

February 19-28, 2021

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Gerd Leonhard
futurist, humanist, author

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February 19 - 28, 2021; Online

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Foreword

The 2021 Korea TESOL International Conference, our 28th annual event, continued as planned, despite the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic. Knowing that the show must go on, a lot of additional strategic planning took place and the organizers were able to host an entirely online event, with the conference theme *Re-envisioning ELT Altogether, All Together*. Organizers hosted sessions through various platforms, including Zoom, Discord, Padlet, and other virtual event spaces. The online event took place over a ten-day period, February 19–28, 2021.

Our keynote speaker, Gerd Leonhard, a professional virtual keynote speaker, futurist, and humanist, was well received. In addition to Gerd Leonhard, eight plenary speakers gave thoughtful, insightful presentations on the general topic of "What is the future of ELT from my point of view?" Throughout the ten days, we had five invited discussion panels, four invited speaker sessions, a graduate Student Showcase, not to mention our regular slate of over 100 member presentations. Of special interest, we also hosted *Tech Clinics with Joe Dale*, who gave workshops throughout the week.

In this volume of collected papers, 27 in total, we showcase the spirit and resilience of KOTESOL by addressing the concerns of presenters and members. The lion's share of these papers epitomize what is foremost in the minds of nearly everyone: technology, and the move to teaching online. There are five categories of papers: Research (16), Action Research (1), Workshops (4), Techniques and Activities (5), and Panel Discussion (1).

KOTESOL members have much to consider, learn, and adapt to as they forge their way through to post-Covid classroom realities. Our traditional ways of teaching and learning may no longer be relevant tomorrow, so these papers included here provide a pertinent way forward, either as starting points for your own professional development or even solutions to challenges you might be facing.

The 28th Korea TESOL International Conference must be considered a resounding success, especially considering global challenges. It was gratifying to see speakers and attendees overcome technical hurdles, find comfort in community, and come away with new ideas of practical value.

Building on the success of 2021, members can look forward to the 22nd Annual Korea TESOL International Conference, *More Than Words: Teaching for a Better World*. It is to take place April 30 – May 1. Again, the event will be hybrid: part online, part face-to-face sessions, anticipating an abatement in the pandemic situation.

James Kimball & David Shaffer
Editors

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Research Papers

Feedback and Feedforward: Student Perceptions of Teacher Responses to Writing

I Lei Chan and Jeremy Phillips
Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau

Feedback on learner writing is often retrospective, focusing on text errors rather than being development-oriented towards improvements in future texts. Teachers need to shift their feedback mind-set towards a "feedforward" approach. Teachers use a variety of techniques in giving learners feedback on their writing, but how can teachers know which writing feedback techniques are effective? Debate around feedback's effectiveness and best practices has existed in ELT for decades. While some tendencies have arisen from the data, no definitive evidence favoring a single approach has emerged. This study involves investigating student perspectives on the feedback they get, and their preferences and comprehension of teacher-produced feedback on learner writing. A total of 78 tertiary students in Macau China were surveyed for both qualitative and quantitative data on their experiences with feedback, their feedback preferences, and their understanding of teacher feedback. Results include a preference for direct feedback and expectations for holistic rather than solely accuracy-oriented feedback.

INTRODUCTION

Close, corrective feedback (hereafter, CCF) of student writing is common practice in ELT, even in this digital age. Perhaps soon computers, not teachers could become the feedback process's "composition slaves" (Hairston, 1986). However, for the moment most teachers see giving detailed, corrective, development-oriented feedback on learner texts as purposeful and professionally obligatory (Lee, 2008a) due to stakeholder expectations. Corrective feedback enables teachers to either point out the error committed, to provide the correct target language, or to prompt learners' metalinguistic knowledge through the error (Ellis, 2009b). Mistakes can be a sign of active experimentation and risk-taking; therefore, feedback techniques should encourage continued active learning. Feedback also needs to be feed-forward in the sense that it is future-oriented, aiming to make learners better writers and more accurate English users.

The debate on the effectiveness of teacher-produced, close (i.e., focusing on specific grammar, collocations, punctuation, and so on) corrective feedback (CCF) is ongoing. Research on writing feedback has resulted in contradictory findings, with some strong support for form-focused, corrective feedback (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2004, 2011); and results critical of CCF as being ineffective, resource-inefficient, and potentially detrimental for learner development (Truscott, 1996; Truscott & Hsu, 2008; Zamel, 1985). Learners generally value

teacher feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2006), but the effectiveness of CCF in actually helping learners is disputed. The selection of specific correction techniques (e.g., correction codes, teacher comments, conferencing), the desired results of CCF, and implementations (drafting, applying feedback in the next text) all have considerable variation in classroom practice.

Though both learners and teachers agree that good writing should be error-free (Leki, 1991), learners are not expected to produce flawless writing on the first attempt, so corrective feedback serves as language input as well as for writing development. Teachers have to make choices at the initial stage about what kind of feedback should be given, as this influences the feedback techniques available. For instance, feedback can focus on language, higher-order concerns (e.g., organization), or both. The former allows teachers to take advantage of language learning opportunities born from errors. If the feedback is grammar teaching-oriented, it can be broad or selective. Feedback on higher-order aspects enables teachers to work holistically towards the long-term goal of developing writing skills. Ellis (2009a) classified feedback into direct, indirect (heuristic), and metalinguistic forms of correction. Teachers need to decide whether to give direct feedback, where errors are corrected explicitly; offer indirect feedback, where hints are given (such as correction codes, links to input related to the specific error); or offer interrogative feedback, where the teacher asks the student questions about text choices (e.g., Why did you use the present perfect here?). At the same time, teachers have to consider the format – whether written, orally recorded, or computer-assisted feedback should be employed. Finally, meeting students to discuss written feedback on a text is time intensive but may help students better understand and act on teacher feedback (Bitchener et al., 2005; Phillips & Fok, 2017).

Teachers often have sole responsibility and discretion in determining how feedback is given. However, research (e.g., Ferris, 1995; Hyland, 1998; Zamel, 1985) indicates that students have trouble comprehending the feedback given by teachers, and students' uses of feedback only partially fulfills teacher expectations or intentions. Thus, it is important to ensure that feedback is a two-way dialogue, avoiding miscommunication, to better motivate learners to identify and learn from their errors (Ronsen, 2013). Understanding the perspective of feedback receivers is crucial because it enables feedback providers to make the feedback process more effective and efficient. The purpose of the present study is to explore Macau undergraduate students' experience, understanding, and viewpoints on feedback techniques. This study, hopes to activate a shift from the deficit model of feedback provision, where the focus is on past mistakes, to a forward-oriented feedback model that prompts improvement and learning, leading to better feedback practices.

Literature Review

The Corrective Feedback Debate

The most important question in the conceptual framework surrounding corrective feedback is whether it should be practiced at all. Zamel (1985)

questioned the pervasiveness of feedback focused on "language-specific errors and problems" (p. 75) in initial drafts at the expense of larger areas of text development such as organization and topic development in teacher responses to learner writing. Researching teacher comments on student writing, Zamel concluded that teacher comments were not always comprehensible to learners. More crucially, teachers saw their roles as language instructors working with texts, teaching language form through feedback rather than as writing mentors. In the decade that followed, close corrective feedback became less prevalent in writing lessons with the ascent of process writing and the "de-emphasizing of sentence level accuracy issues" (Ferris, 2003, p. 42) in English writing classes. The broader goal of developing student communication through writing, by producing more effective texts as a result of feedback, overtook the traditional goal of teaching grammar via feedback.

Process writing advocates of that era deprioritized feedback when teaching writing. Outright skepticism about corrective feedback's value and effectiveness emerged primarily with Truscott's (1996) interrogation of "grammar correction," claiming that corrective feedback was theoretically unjustified, scientifically unproven, and ineffective. Worse, language learning and writing skills development were actually set back by corrective feedback because the input learners receive from CCF (whether direct correction, codified correction, or metalanguage) is an intervention unrelated to their current level. CCF practices also contravened the Natural Order Hypothesis (summarized in Lightbown and Spada, 2002) in that the feedback may cover a large number of structures, well beyond the learner's next learning object in the natural order of acquisition. Truscott's meta-analysis characterized corrective feedback as disruptive to the language learning process and found that learner attention to lower-order concerns like grammar does not result in future avoidance of grammar errors.

However, data supporting the value of corrective feedback also exists. Most prominently, Ferris has defended CCF using the analysis of secondary data (1999) and theory (2003) as well as her own data (Ferris & Roberts, 2001) to justify writing feedback practices in second language acquisition (SLA) on the grounds of effectiveness. However, Ferris is also aware of the potential problems with written feedback (2004, 2011) and had balanced the work of CCF supporters such as Bitchener (2008) and Van Beuningen (2010) against valid areas of critique from feedback skeptics. As a "feedback realist," Ferris (2011) drew a practical distinction between correcting rule-governed errors (like verb forms) and more scattershot CCF, which may include feedback on more eccentric instances of errors. She defined this rule-governed-to-idiomatic continuum as the "treatability" of errors, forming a selection criterion for a focused feedback approach. Many empirical studies of the effectiveness of CCF similarly have the goal of identifying how it can be made more effective.

Studies Investigating CCF

Ferris (2010) broke research on corrective feedback into studies grounded in SLA theories focused on whether CCF results in language learning and the more classroom-oriented research of L2 writing scholars investigating CCF as a tool for improving writing skills. This is typological not exclusionary with overlap in

researchers' base premises. However, the approaches to research (experimental and non-experimental design) and the measures used (draft improvements, post-tests, text production gains) are often different. The shared goal for both branches of research, according to Ferris (2011), is future student autonomy (learning forms, developing self-editing skills), so CCF is part of a development process, not a product passively consumed by learners.

The most recurrent point for investigation in quantitative CCF research is the value of selective versus comprehensive feedback in aiding uptake. Does focusing on one type or a selected group of errors help the noticing process and turn feedback into learning? The selection could be based on a number of criteria (e.g., recent input, frequency, comprehensibility), but in general, selective-feedback advocates such as Lee (2013, 2019) and Sheen (2007) see this question as settled and claim that comprehensive feedback is practiced more for its face-validity than its pedagogical value (Lee, 2009). Lee bases her advocacy of selective error feedback as key to gradual improvement on quantitative data from her own (2008b) and other studies (e.g., Bitchener, 2008) rather than on a theoretical basis like the Natural Order Hypothesis. However, other experimental studies (Bitchener et al., 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) using feedback on a broad range of error types have also resulted in improved student accuracy overall for revised texts. Therefore, there is evidence supporting a wide-ranging, if not necessarily 100 percent comprehensive, CCF approach.

Many studies in this area used an experimental or quasi-experimental approach with a feedback group or groups and a control group who received no corrections. Chandler (2003) did two studies assessing accuracy improvements in errors per hundred words and compared feedback methods (direct, location only, error type only, and location plus error type). In the first study overall accuracy was improved through CCF, while in the second, direct correction was most effective in improving texts between drafts followed by location plus error description. Direct correction was also preferred by Chandler's learners, in accord with Radecki and Swales (1988) but counter to the findings of Leki (1991) and Ferris and Roberts (2001).

One critique of studies on corrective feedback (Guenette, 2007) is a lack of consistent methodology. In an attempt to raise the quality of work in this area, Bitchener (2008), along with Young and Cameron (2005), administered a consistent experimental methodology with control groups and produced data supporting the usefulness of CCF for text revision, improvement in new text writing, and for language learning. Within CCF techniques, they found direct feedback was the most effective in aiding accuracy, supporting the findings by Chandler (2003). They suggest consolidating written feedback through oral explanations, using either individual conferencing or group mini-lessons.

Students' Preferences Regarding Corrective Feedback

The efficacy of corrective feedback can be looked at from two end goals: (a) teaching written language systems (grammar, lexis, punctuation) through feedback and (b) skills development. Errors in lexis or syntax can be opportunities for "noticing" (Schmitt, 1990) language form since an awareness of errors creates the need for input from a learner's perspective, changing a language rule from an

abstraction to a concrete example. The other goal of feedback is writing improvement and writing skills development to produce better texts in the future. Both aims require significant levels of student buy-in to succeed. Cohen (1987) researched the perceptions of teacher feedback from language learners and other tertiary students, and confirmed Zamel's observation that a large proportion of feedback was grammar feedback; findings also revealed a self-reported high utilization of teacher feedback in revisions. In contrast, Radecki and Swales (1988) restricted their focus to English learners and found a balance between correction and feedback on content, along with a fairly even split between students who were receptive to teacher feedback and students who were resistant. Learners in this study also provided data on their preferences in feedback techniques, preferring comprehensive direct feedback.

The feedback process has the potential for misunderstandings in both directions. Students may not understand the teacher's feedback, however laboriously produced, and teachers may not understand student expectations. Leki (1991) looked into writing correction by taking into account students' perspectives, preferences, and expectations. She found that students valued feedback and that text corrections were not tied to the learner's sense of self-worth, so corrective text feedback was not detrimental to the learner's affect. Leki charted learner perceptions of feedback by feedback technique and, in contrast with Radecki and Swales (1988), found that students preferred to figure out their text errors from hints rather than getting direct feedback from teachers. Advocates of indirect feedback (e.g., Bartram & Walton, 1991) claimed that prompting students to self-correct text errors develops metacognitive strategies for self-editing, which is more useful for learners than direct feedback. Leki's (1991) study provided a model for later research in this area such as that conducted by Amrhein and Nassaji (2010). However, their study reported that students preferred direct feedback (i.e., error correction) from teachers, as they thought it was useful to improve their writing skills.

Research investigating students' preferences regarding corrective feedback has yielded inconclusive results. For example, some students reported their appreciation for receiving large amounts of various types of corrective feedback regardless of the types of errors they made (e.g., Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2005; Radecki & Swales, 1988). Other students favored receiving feedback on content and ideas rather than on errors in grammar (e.g., Semke, 1984; Zamel, 1985). In contrast, still other studies revealed that students preferred both feedback on content and ideas as well as direct feedback on grammatical and structural errors (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Leki, 1991). More recently, Lee's research into student preferences (2005) showed students value comprehensive feedback, rather than selective feedback, and both direct and indirect feedback are favored by students.

Research Rationale and Questions

To help students develop as writers, it is crucial that teachers provide high-quality feedback on their writing. However, students cannot act effectively on feedback they do not understand. No teacher sets out consciously to make their feedback cryptic. Similarly, teachers do not aim to make their feedback demotivating or overwhelming, yet both unintended consequences occur.

Corrective feedback sceptics (Truscott, 1996) and selective feedback advocates (Lee, 2008b; Zamel, 1985) see the costs as outweighing the benefits. To reconcile the dichotomy, bottom-up research on student perceptions of CCF techniques and data on learner feedback preferences can contribute to the debate around these questions by reversing the normal, teacher-oriented research perspective on CCF.

This research explores the preferences of undergraduate students in Macau with regard to close corrective feedback on writing. Students' past experience with feedback, their perceptions and understandings of CCF, and their preferences and opinions of feedback are examined to answer four research questions:

RQ1. How well do learners understand teachers' feedback, and what types of CCF do learners think are the easiest and/or the most difficult to understand?
RQ2. What types of CCF do learners think are the most effective and useful to develop their language and writing skills?
RQ3. What are learners' feedback preferences (i.e., types of CCF received, amount of CCF given, and types of errors to be corrected)?
RQ4. How do learners feel about the feedback process and different feedback techniques?

In short, the twin foci of student comprehension levels for a range of feedback techniques (e.g., correction codes, teacher questioning) and student perceptions about how well or how poorly these work for them will inform practitioners about the applicability or limitations of feedback practices.

METHOD

To explore students' perceptions, preferences, and opinions on nine feedback techniques, (a) clues on fixing an error, (b) error identification, (c) corrections with comments, (d) teacher correction, (e) commentary, (f) a personal comment on the content, (g) correction codes, (f) one-to-one conversation, and (i) teacher questioning, both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered via the online survey platform SurveyMonkey (2020). Quantitative data were collected through close-ended questions (i.e., yes–no questions, multiple-choice questions, and Likert-scale items). To obtain a deeper understanding of students' preferences on specific types of feedback, open-ended questions were set that enabled respondents to provide detailed explanations in their own words about the reasons for their opinions and favored feedback techniques.

Participants

University students studying at four different higher-education institutions in Macao were the target participants in this study. They were invited to complete the survey by their English instructors at different schools on a voluntary basis. There were 110 respondents to the survey; after data cleaning for incomplete surveys and missing data, 78 responses were valid for data analysis. The 78 participants consisted of 28 males, 41 females, and 9 of undisclosed gender. Most

respondents have Chinese (Cantonese or Mandarin) as their first language. This group, consisted of 51 freshmen, 14 sophomores, 6 juniors, and 7 seniors or graduate students.

Questionnaire Design

The study's questionnaire (see Appendix for the full survey) was adapted from previous studies that have proposed or investigated similar questions (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Leki, 1991; Zaman & Azad, 2012), which enhanced the research instrument's validity. Survey data collection took place from April to June 2020. The questionnaire was distributed to the target participants through an online survey and in both English and Chinese. Students could choose the language for their survey and were given unlimited completion time. The average completion time was about 20 minutes.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts. In Part 1, students were asked to reflect on their past experience with feedback. Quantitative data was collected to provide an overview of how frequently they received feedback on writing form teachers, how many times they looked at the feedback, what types of feedback they have received before, and whether they think it was easy to comprehend the feedback. In Part 2, both quantitative and qualitative data was collected to elicit students' opinions about the degree of usefulness of various feedback techniques. In Part 3, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected to understand students' preferences about the amount of feedback, feedback techniques, and what errors learners hope to have corrected.

Analysis

The questionnaire responses were recorded in an Excel spreadsheet and then imported to SPSS (Version 24) for statistical analysis. For the quantitative data, the frequencies and means of participants' responses on the questionnaires were calculated. Content analysis was conducted to analyze participants' explanations on the open-ended questions, which were first translated into English (for responses in Chinese), and then summarized and categorized based on common themes by the lead author.

RESULTS

Students' Experience with Feedback

Part 1 of the survey focused students on their past experience with feedback and how much they understood it. Regarding frequency, most students often (42.3%), always (30.8%), or sometimes (20.5%) received feedback, only a small portion of them reported rarely (6.4%) receiving feedback from teachers. After they received feedback on their writing, the majority of them claimed to look at the feedback 2–4 times (69.2%), while some students even looked at it 5 or more times (12.8%), while 16.7% only looked at the feedback once, and 1.3% would never look at it. As for the feedback types students had received previously, data

showed that the majority of learners had received *corrections with comments* (80.8%) in the past, followed by *teacher correction* (78.2%), *commentary* (78.2%), *error identification* (52.6%), *teacher questioning* (47.4%) and *clues on fixing an error* (46.2%), whereas only a minority reported receiving *correction code* (34.7%), *one-to-one conversation* (33.3%) or *personal comment on content* (28.2%) on their writing.

Respondents were asked to use a 1–6 scale (1 = *very easy to understand*, 6 = *very hard to understand*) to indicate the ease of comprehending a specific feedback technique. The mean of students' responses was calculated. Students said that "corrections with comments" (*M* = 1.31, *SD* = 0.65) was the easiest to understand, followed by "teacher correction" (*M* = 1.77, *SD* = 1.04), "commentary" (*M* = 2.41, *SD* = 1.09), "teacher questioning" (*M* = 2.58, *SD* = 1.63), and "clues on fixing an error" (*M* = 2.99, *SD* = 1.56). On the other hand, students rated "correction code" (*M* = 4.15, *SD* = 1.64) as the most difficult to understand, followed by "error identification" (*M* = 3.68, *SD* = 1.82), "personal comment on content" (*M* = 3.6, *SD* = 1.99), and "one-to-one conversation" (*M* = 3.10, *SD* = 1.79).

Students' Perceptions of Feedback

Part 2 of the survey allowed students to rate the usefulness of the nine feedback techniques on a 1–6 scale (1 = *very useful*, 6 = *not very useful*). Results demonstrated that students perceived "corrections with comments" (*M* = 1.63, *SD* = 0.88) as the most useful feedback type for learning and writing development, followed by "teacher correction" (*M* = 1.77, *SD* = 1.04), "teacher questioning" (*M* = 2.24, *SD* = 1.25), "commentary" (*M* = 2.38, *SD* = 1.09), and "clues on fixing an error" (*M* = 2.92, *SD* = 1.39). In contrast, students rated "error identification" (*M* = 4.01, *SD* = 1.64) as the least useful feedback type, followed by "correction code" (*M* = 3.92, *SD* = 1.64), "personal comment on content" (*M* = 3.91, *SD* = 1.76), and "one-to-one conversation" (*M* = 3.05, *SD* = 1.68).

Students' explanations for the most favored feedback technique are shown in Table 1. Students considered "corrections with comments" as explicit input and a learning tool, and as feedback that was efficient and easy to understand. They thought that this feedback was the most useful to improve their writing because "it has clear and detailed explanation, and it is useful for them to correct the mistakes" (42.3%), the "mistake is pointed out directly and a correct answer is given" (27%), and "this feedback is easy for students to understand where the mistakes is and how to correct it" (19.2%). In short, through this feedback technique, students knew where they committed the mistake, as it was directly pointed out by the teachers, and how to correct it, as the correct form was provided. Students were less likely to be confused by this feedback type. However, opposing comments claimed that this feedback discouraged students' effort (3.8%) in correcting the mistakes by themselves, as "they did not need to think through the mistakes so they might forget them easily" and "lack of thinking and thus could have a negative impact on learning."

TABLE 1. Students' Explanations for "Corrections with Comments"

Explanations	Category	Students	
		n	%
a. Mistake is pointed out directly and a correct answer is given. b. Students know where the mistake is and why.	Explicit Input	21	27.0
c. The feedback has a clear and detailed explanation, and it is useful for students to correct their mistakes. d. The correct answers given by the teacher are time-saving for students. e. Students can correct their mistakes immediately. f. Corrections with comments are the best.	Efficient	33	42.3
g. Students can easily understand the mistakes they made. h. The feedback makes it easier for students to understand where the mistake is and how to correct it.	Understanding	15	19.2
i. The feedback can help students to improve the next draft. j. Students can pay more attention to the same mistakes in the future. k. Students can check the book for information about the mistakes and learn to avoid making the same mistakes again. l. The feedback can help students to realize their levels.	Learning Tool	5	6.4
m. The feedback is useful, but it is too time-consuming for teachers.	Teacher Effort	1	1.3
n. Students do not think through the mistakes and forget them easily. o. Students are lacking in their thinking and thus have a negative impact on learning effectiveness.	Student Effortless	3	3.8
Total Responses		78	100.0

The least favored feedback technique, "error identification," is examined in Table 2. The biggest problem of this type of feedback was that students did not understand the feedback itself (37.2%) because "they do not understand what is wrong and why." Another reason why students disapproved of this feedback was due to its inefficiency (21.8%) since even though the error was flagged by teachers, the feedback was "too simple, not detailed, unclear, and thus not useful." It was also considered inexplicit input (7.7%), as "no hints were given on what types of mistakes students have made." Students also said this feedback required more effort on their part (3.8%) in the error correction process, as "they needed to guess and think about how to correct the errors by themselves." However, positive comments for this feedback type mentioned encouraging student autonomy (7.7%) at the later error correction stage and that it was efficient (15.4), as "the clues are clear, useful and easy to understand."

TABLE 2. Students' Explanations for "Error Identification"

Explanations	Category	Students	
		n	%
a. Error identification points out the errors directly and students can see where the errors occur.	Clear Indication	**3**	**3.8**
b. The clues are clear, useful, and easy to understand.	Efficient	**12**	**15.4**
c. Error identification can prompt students to think and reflect on the errors, which allows them to self-correct so that they can better remember their errors. d. Students can ask others for help with the clues.	Student Autonomy	**6**	**7.7**
e. Even though the errors are flagged, students do not understand what is wrong or why. f. With no clear explanation, students are easily confused. g. If students do not know the correct form, they still are unable to correct the errors.	Not Understanding	**29**	**37.2**
h. There are no hints on what types of mistakes students have made.	No Explicit Input	**6**	**7.7**
i. The clues are not effective, as they are too simple, not detailed, not clear, and not useful.	Inefficient	**17**	**21.8**
j. Students need to guess and think about how to correct the errors by themselves.	Student Effort	**3**	**3.8**
k. Teachers should point out the errors and correct them so that students can better understand.	Teacher Responsibility	**2**	**2.6**
Total Responses		**78**	**100.0**

Students' Preferences of Feedback

The last part of the survey, Part 3, explored students' overall preferences regarding written feedback. When an error occurred, students preferred that teachers point out all errors (37.2%), or at least point out most of the major errors, but not necessarily all of them (26.4%), or point out all major errors but not the minor ones (18.6%). Students disagreed that "teacher should point out no errors and respond only to the ideas and content" (1.6%) showing that students want to receive feedback on the grammaticality of their writing. When the same type of errors are repeated, the majority of students (78.2%) hoped that the teachers could mark it every time it occurred. Students preferred feedback in the form of written comments, either throughout their work (e.g., on the relevant parts of the text; 29.6%) or at the bottom of the page (18.4%). They also valued the combination of written feedback and an opportunity to talk to the teacher (14%). In contrast, students disliked receiving recorded (oral) comments (4.5%), emailed written feedback (8.4%) and comments referring to the rubric (8.9%).

Students were asked to rate different statements related to the feedback process on a 1–6 scale (1 = *strongly agree*, 6 = *strongly disagree*). Generally,

students held a positive attitude towards the feedback received, as they strongly agreed that corrective feedback helped them develop writing skills (*M* = 1.71, *SD* = 0.69). Also, most learners claimed that they redrafted based on the corrections given by their teachers (*M* = 1.62, *SD* = 0.67). Because of this, they hoped teachers could supply the correct form for errors made in their writing (*M* = 1.92, *SD* = 1.06). In addition, they hoped to see teachers including some praise for what had been written well together with the correction of errors (*M* = 2.07, *SD* = 0.85). In terms of the teachers' feedback practices, students said they did receive feedback on grammatical and vocabulary errors (*M* = 2.65, *SD* = 1.17), but teachers also provided additional feedback on ideas and writing content (*M* = 2.04, *SD* = 0.87) at the same time. Though, students did not quite agree that "grammar correction is more effective than feedback on content and organization" (*M* = 3.05, *SD* = 1.25), showing that in addition to grammar correction, learners desired feedback focusing on developing writing skills. Learners again disliked coded feedback (*M* = 3.25, *SD* = 1.43) and many students had experience with peer feedback (*M* = 2.97, *SD* = 1.08), but they did not think that the feedback given by their peers was more useful or helpful than teacher feedback (*M* = 3.82, *SD* = 1.22).

Finally, students preferred teachers to comment on organization errors (e.g., paragraph structure and sentence order; 16.7%) and on content/idea errors (15.7%); but they also hoped teachers would point out problems with grammar (15.7%), vocabulary (12.5%), spelling (10.8%), and punctuation (7.4%). To reinforce their disapproval of several feedback techniques, students did not prefer for teachers to indicate errors without supplying correction (3.4%) or correction codes (4.7%).

Discussion

The most conclusive finding from this study is that learners prefer direct feedback to indirect feedback. Despite claims for the heuristic benefits of less explicit forms of CCF, learners report finding codes and signals cryptic. Our findings accord with Radecki and Swales (1988) and contradict Leki (1991) in this regard. Feedforward requires a shift in emphasis towards direct correction to accommodate the learners' preferences.

That is not to say, however, that teachers are proofreaders. In accord with Amrhein and Nassaji (2010), this study found that students think corrections with comments and teacher correction are useful. However, in contrast with our model, this survey also revealed positive ratings for teacher questioning and commentary. It indicates that the teacher acts as a reader more than as an editor and feedforward is a dialogic process with the teacher and learners both interrogating the learner's text.

College students in Macau have most frequently received feedback in the form of error identification, but familiarity breeds contempt, with this feedback form actually rated as the least favorable by students. Students report not understanding it at times. To build understanding out of errors, feedforward needs to inform rather than just identify.

Counter to frequent claims in the literature that teacher feedback on writing

was purely grammar correction, teachers from our study provided a balance between feedback on grammar and vocabulary and on ideas or content of learner writing, again in accord with Radecki and Swales (1988). Furthermore, students also hope to receive feedback focusing on areas that develop their writing skills, such as content and organization. Therefore, feedforward, while emphasizing direct correction of language errors, also seeks to be holistic to develop learners as writers through feedback.

However, one should note that this study relied solely on students' self-reported data, thus it might not clearly reflect all actual feedback practices in local English teaching. All respondents are studying in the Macao context, which is an EFL context, so this, in part, might explain the preference for explicit feedback. This study did not take into account learner language levels. Future research could investigate differences resulting from different proficiency levels. Different patterns of feedback preferences might be observed as a result of increased levels of English proficiency.

CONCLUSIONS

The process of making feedback effective involves increased cooperation and ongoing communication between teachers and students. To understand both perspectives is the key to making feedback feedforward. Learners prefer direct feedback, so teachers need to adapt their feedback practices to makes CCF direct, holistic, and where possible, interrogative and dialogic. Modern, tech-savvy students can easily access direct comprehensible writing feedback using online platforms (paid and free), so if teachers do not adapt their feedback to learners' preferences, the work of CCF becomes futile. Moreover, the goal of feedback is not looking back at the texts and finding flaws but looking forward towards improvement. To make this kind of feedforward happen, teachers need to be working with learners as harmoniously as possible.

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APPENDIX

FEEDBACK SURVEY

Feedback? What is this for?

In this survey, we hope to know about how you think of teacher feedback and how much you understand it. Feedback is written or oral information or a statement a teacher gave on a student's work. Feedback is about the quality of the work, but it is not always assessment/grading. Please answer the questions below to help you reflect on your previous experience with feedback, how well you understand the feedback given by your teachers, and how you perceive feedback. There are no right or wrong answers, and your answers will be anonymous. This survey will take you 10–15 minutes to answer.

Part 1. Your Experience with Feedback

1. How frequently do you receive feedback from your English teachers on your written assignments or exercises?
   - ☐ Never
   - ☐ Rarely
   - ☐ Sometimes
   - ☐ Often
   - ☐ Always

2. How many times do you usually look at each piece of assessed work after you have gotten feedback from your English teachers?
   - ☐ Never
   - ☐ Once
   - ☐ 2–4 times
   - ☐ Over 5 times

3. The following sentences all have the same error and a teacher has given a different type of feedback for each. Please click the feedback that you have also received from your English teachers before. For each feedback type, circle the number that best describes how easy the feedback is to understand.

   For example, if you think the feedback is very easy to understand, then choose "1." If you think the feedback is very hard to understand, then choose "6."

See Section 2 in our grammar book.
1. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely. • Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N*** • How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? *very easy to understand* – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *very hard to understand*

2. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely.

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N***
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

have been (wrong tense)
3. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely.

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N***
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

have been
4. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely.

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N***
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

wrong tense
5. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely.

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N***
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

I am sorry to hear that. Why don't you come and talk to me about it?
6. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? *Y / N*
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

T
7. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely.

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N***
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

8. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.
(Your teacher discussed the error with you orally, face-to-face)

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N***
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

Think about the tense here. Present or perfect verb form?
9. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely.

- Have you received this feedback from English teachers before? ***Y / N***
- How easy do you think this feedback is to understand? 1 2 3 4 5 6

Part 2. Your Understanding of Feedback

1. The following sentences all have the same error and a teacher has given a different type of feedback for each. For each sentence circle the number that best describes how useful to you in your classwork and learning this feedback is.

For example, if you think the feedback is a very useful way to point out an error, then circle "1." If you think the feedback is not a useful way to point out an error, then circle "6."

See Section 2 in our grammar book.

1. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

Clues or directions on how to fix an error (The teacher gives clues of directions on how you can correct your work).
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?

____

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2. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

Error identification (the teacher points out where the errors occur, but no errors are corrected).
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?

____

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have been (wrong tense)

3. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

Corrections with comments (the teacher corrects errors and makes comments).
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?

____

---

have been

4. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

Teacher correction (the teacher corrects errors)
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?

____
____
____

wrong tense
5. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

Commentary (the teacher gives feedback by making comments about errors, but no errors are corrected)
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?

____
____
____

I am sorry to hear that. Why don't you come and talk to me about it?
6. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

A personal comment on the content (the teacher gives feedback by making comments on the ideas or content, but no errors are corrected)
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?

____
____
____

T
7. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.

How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

Correction codes with no corrections (The teacher identify an error and provide a correction codes (e.g., "SP" for spelling, "T" for Tense), but no errors are corrected)
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?

____
____
____

8. Since I arrived here, I am very lonely.
   (Your teacher discussed the error with you orally, face-to-face)

   How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
   very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

One-to-one conversation (The teacher has a conversation with you to talk about the errors you have made)
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?
____
____
____

Think about the tense here. Present or perfect verb form?

9. Since I arrived here, I <u>am</u> very lonely.

   How useful do you think this feedback is to point out an error?
   very useful – 1 2 3 4 5 6 – *not useful*

Teacher questioning (The teacher asks a question to prompt you to think of the error you have made)
Please explain the reason for your choice. In other words, why do you think this type of feedback *useful* or *not useful*?
____
____
____

Part 3. Your Preference of Feedback

1. If there are many errors in your writing, what do you think your English teacher should do? (You can click more than one.)
   - ☐ Teacher should mark all errors.
   - ☐ Teacher should mark all major errors but not the minor ones.
   - ☐ Teacher should mark most of the major errors, but not necessarily all of them.
   - ☐ Teacher should mark only a few of the major errors.
   - ☐ Teacher should mark only the errors that interfere with communicating your ideas.
   - ☐ Teacher should mark no errors and respond only to the ideas and content.

   Please explain the reason for your choice(s).
   ____
   ____

2. If you repeat an error in a writing assignment more than once, do you think it is useful for your English teachers to mark it every time it occurs?
    Yes
    No

Please explain the reason for your answer.

____

____

3. In which of the following ways would you prefer your English teachers to comment on your work? (Please click all that apply.)
    Written comments on a separate piece of paper
    Written comments throughout your work (e.g., on the relevant parts of the essay pages)
    Written comments at the bottom of the page of the submitted text
    Written comments with an opportunity to talk to your teacher
    Recorded (oral) comments
    Emailed written comments
    Correction codes (e.g., Gr = grammar, Sp = spelling)
    Referring to the assessment criteria / rubric in feedback
    Others ________________

How much do you agree with the following statements? (Likert scale from *Strongly disagree* 1 to 6 *Strongly agree*)

4. Written corrective feedback (error correction) helps you develop your writing.
5. You rewrite your writings according to the corrections given by your teachers.
6. You like to get feedback on your writings from your classmates.
7. Correction given by your classmates during writing process helps more than the correction given by your teachers.
8. Grammar correction is more effective than feedback on content and organization.
9. The correction given by your teacher is mainly on grammatical and vocabulary errors.
10. The correction given by your teacher is both on grammar/vocabulary and the ideas/content of your writing.
11. Written feedback was given in combination with one-to-one meeting with the teacher about the text.
12. Teachers should include praise as well as the correction of errors when they give students feedback.
13. You want your teacher to correct the errors in your writing by
    (a) Supplying the correct form.
    (b) Simply marking them or using codes like ‘art’ for article, ‘sp’ for spelling, etc. but not supplying the correct form.

14. If there are many different errors in your written work, which type(s) of error do you *prefer* to get on your writing from your English teacher? (Please tick all that apply.)

 Teacher comments on *organization* errors.
(Example: paragraph structure, sentence order)
 Teacher comments on *grammar* errors.
(Example: tense, word order, sentence structure)
 Teacher comments on *content/idea* errors.
(Example: comments on the ideas of your writing)
 Teacher points out punctuation errors.
(Example: , . ? !)
 Teacher points out spelling errors.
(Example: word is spelled wrong)
 Teacher points out vocabulary errors.
(Example: wrong word choice, wrong meaning)
 Use of underlining to note errors but no correction.
(Example: wrong word choice, wrong meaning)
 Questions about the error.
(Example: "Do we use past tense or present prefect here?" "Why?")
 Request for further information.
(Example: "Further explanation required/needed here.")
 Signal errors without correction by using underscore (_), circle (o) or cross (x).
 Use of a code to show what error has been made.
(Example: Gr = grammar, Sp = spelling, ? = unclear sentence/ idea)
 No comments. Only a mark.
 Other ____

Please explain the reason for your choice(s).
____
____

Is there anything else you would like to say about teacher feedback?
____
____
____
____

Your Background Information

1. What year of study are you in now?
 Year 1
 Year 2
 Year 3
 Year 4

2. Which school are you studying at now?
 Macao Institute for Tourism Studies
 University of Macao
 Macao University of Science of Technology
 Others:__________________

3. What is your gender?
   - Male
   - Female
   - Prefer not to say

This is the end of the survey. Thank you so much for your participation!

Affective Effects of Self-Pronunciation Evaluation via Online Search Engines

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This study examined the effects of a systematically designed, self-monitoring, pronunciation activity using an online search engine that students could access easily at any time. The participants were Japanese university students learning English in an EFL context. The activity was introduced at the end of a series of explicit pronunciation warm-up sessions. For the self-evaluation, a systematic self-monitoring sheet was designed. The implementation results revealed that the activity not only served as a means of monitoring learners' pronunciation intelligibility; it further produced multiple key effects for developing affective aspects of pronunciation. The results contribute to the systematic development of semester-long pronunciation instruction.

INTRODUCTION

This study examined the pedagogical effects of self-pronunciation evaluations incorporating an online search engine to facilitate Japanese university learners' intelligibility and automaticity. It is widely recognized among professionals today that the attainment of intelligible pronunciation is an important goal and that the evaluation and feedback phase determine the success of instruction. Chujo (2015) reported that an individual five-minute assessment with feedback was more effective than one semester of large-group instruction. However, personal evaluation in a class of 30–40 students is not ideal. To overcome this difficulty, systematically designed evaluation methods and materials were developed. The pedagogical focus was to promote activities that reinforce the self-monitoring and self-repair skills students developed during instruction by using available technology in the form of an online pronunciation search engine that students can access easily at any time. For the self-evaluation, a systematic self-monitoring sheet was designed. The sheet enabled students to track and record their production of each target word throughout the activity. This study investigated the possible effects of these developed materials and interpreted the implementation results gathered from the learners to determine the feasibility of further systematic development of semester-long instruction.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Students need to monitor and repair their oral production both while they are practicing and once they have finished the class. This ability requires mainly

elements from the psychomotor domain; however, it includes elements from other domains as well. Morley (1991) states that realistic goals for pronunciation instruction should be as follows: developing functional intelligibility, developing communicability, increasing self-confidence, and developing speech monitoring abilities and speech modification strategies for use beyond the classroom. Bailey (1999) defines the concept of monitoring as “learners checking what they say or write, based on rules they’ve already learned” (p. 126). Firth (1992) emphasizes the importance of self-correction, or the ability to correct oneself when a pronunciation error has been pointed out, and self-monitoring, or the ability to listen to and recognize mistakes. Students ultimately take responsibility for ongoing improvement once they leave class; the teacher’s role in the classroom is to assist them in acquiring the strategies that will help them improve on their own. Monitoring serves to improve perceptual comprehension and to build confidence in the language one is learning. Regarding the effect of monitoring, Celce-Murcia et al. (1996) mention that

> coupled with today’s focus on self-directed learning and the development of learner autonomy, monitoring is assuming a larger role than it has previously played in language teaching. As part of learners taking responsibility for their own learning, self-monitoring is vital to learners’ sense of control over their progress. (p. 349)

To address issues arising from the large instructional group size often seen in the Japanese university English-learning environment, individual students should acquire self-monitoring skills, allowing autonomous English pronunciation learning. Gagné et al. (2005) identify large-group instructional characteristics as follows:

> Large-group instruction is characterized by weak control of the effects of instructional events by the teacher. The gaining of attention, the cueing of semantic encoding, the eliciting of student performance, and the provision of corrective feedback can all be instituted as events, but their effects on the learning process are only probable … it is up to the students to profit from it. Students, in this view, must organize the events of instruction themselves – it is sometimes up to students to infer the objective of instruction, to remind themselves to recall prerequisite skills, to choose a method of encoding, and so on. (p. 301)

Naiman (1992) explains that to incorporate the development of self-monitoring and self-correcting ability into classroom pronunciation instruction, it is crucial for students to start monitoring and correcting each other’s pronunciation. As part of monitoring, students should comment on the phonological features of each other’s speech. In the process, they will be communicating about pronunciation and developing a metalanguage, which will help them become more aware of their own pronunciation. Thus, for successful monitoring, students will require the tools and concepts to discuss the phonetic features. Firth (1992) states that “it is critical that the instructor helps to develop strategies which will allow students to self-correct and self-monitor” (p. 215). Firth further emphasizes that the development of strategies for self-monitoring and self-correcting should be actively

incorporated into the syllabus to help make students independent of the pronunciation teacher. Students must focus on the weak aspects of their pronunciation and identify and correct errors. Schmidt (2001) states that “in order to acquire phonology, one must attend to the sounds of target language input, especially those that are contrastive in the target language, and if still one’s goal is to sound like a native speaker, one must attend to sub-phonemic details as well” (p. 40). In this context, explicit knowledge is a prerequisite for the learner. Without attention to what Schmidt calls “the raw data of the input (the phonetic stream of speech)” (p. 41), in order to derive explicit knowledge from it, input will not become intake unless it is noticed (consciously registered); it will just go in one ear and out the other. Therefore, pronunciation content needs to be introduced through explicit instruction; if it is implicitly introduced, learners may not catch what has been taught. Venkatagiri and Levis (2007) further state that metaphonological awareness can be facilitated through explicit instruction (e.g., focus-on-form activities). This term refers to the individual’s ability to talk about and explain their own phonological awareness and its use.

> Communication difficulties that result from negative interference of certain features in the pronunciation of segmental features between English and Japanese speakers can be illustrated by Hewings’ (2004) example: “In a fast-food restaurant in Britain, one of my Japanese students asked for banilla milkshake (intending *vanilla*) and was given a banana “milkshake.” (p. 15)

Kormos (2000) describes repairs as “overt manifestations of the monitoring process. A self-initiated, self-completed correction comes about when the speaker detects that the output has been erroneous or inappropriate, halts the speech flow, and finally executes a correction” (p. 315). According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998), four types of repair are observed: self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated other-repair. Even if learners cannot make a necessary repair immediately, they can still look back at the scene and retrospectively monitor their own speech. Then, with the explicit knowledge they attain, they can analyze what compromised the communication and address this issue or better prepare their speech in the future. As a result, the possibility of frustrating the listener with problematic utterances diminishes.

METHOD

The participants of this study were first-year students majoring in engineering at a Japanese university. The study was conducted in four different classes at the intermediate level. The developed activity was implemented as a summary of the instructional warm-up activities that took place over the previous ten sessions. In the sessions, the instruction was focused on segmentals, selected consonants that often cause communication breakdowns due to learners’ L1-influenced English. The instruction was held explicitly, introducing manner and place of articulation via the instructor’s modeling. For this activity, a worksheet was designed and provided to the students. It included the directions for the activity and a post-activity comment section. They were all written in Japanese. The English

translated summary activity directions are shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1. Directions to the Summary Activity of the Instructional Warm-up Activities

1. Switch the speech recognition language mode to “English” on your device.
2. Pronounce the ten listed words one by one three times each.

1. real 2. volunteer 3. weather 4. locker 5. button
6. vanilla 7. surfing 8. theater 9. girl 10. battery

3. Record the recognized trial result for each attempt.
4. If the trial was unsuccessful, write the misunderstood word.
5. Write any comments at the end of each word trial.

The ten listed words were not practiced during the instruction; however, all the targeted instructed phonemes were placed at the beginning of each word. Learners were asked to pronounce each word three times and record the number of times the word was recognized. If the trial was not recognized, they were asked to make note of the incorrectly recognized word. At the end of each word trial, they were asked to write down comments.

Students’ preparation for switching their application on the device into the English language mode required time and help depending on the device; however, once some students were able to successfully switch, they showed other students, and everyone was able to begin. Most of the students chose to use either Siri or Google Translate for an application and a smartphone as a device.

FIGURE 2. Worksheet Sample with Student’s Work

After the activity, a post-instruction questionnaire was administered to examine the effectiveness and suitability of the activity. There were two styles. One was a five-point Likert scale (*strongly disagree*, *disagree*, *neither*, *agree*, *strongly agree*) with five statements, and the other was open-ended comment style. The Likert scale statements were as follows: (Q1) My pronunciation was better recognized than I had expected, (Q2) I felt happy when my pronunciation

was recognized, (Q3) The speech recognition system is suitable for checking my pronunciation, (Q4) I want to try again after practicing more, (Q5) I know how to practice pronunciation. Students wrote their comments in Japanese.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the results of the questionnaire.

Table 1. Post-activity Questionnaire Results in Percentages

No.	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
Q1	My pronunciation was better recognized than I had expected.	25.0	35.7	14.3	22.3	2.7
Q2	I felt happy when my pronunciation was recognized.	2.7	1.8	13.4	40.2	42.0
Q3	The speech recognition system is suitable for recognizing my pronunciation.	10.7	23.2	26.8	31.3	8.0
Q4	I want to try again after practicing more.	8.1	9.9	16.2	50.5	15.3
Q5	I know how to practice pronunciation.	6.3	31.3	20.5	33.9	8.0

Note. N = 112.

Table 2 presents the monitoring results and incorrectly recognized words. It is possible that words that have more frequent daily use may have a higher rate of recognition (e.g., *battery*, *weather*).

Table 2. Speech Recognition Results and Incorrectly Recognized Words

No.	Word	1	2	3	0	Incorrectly Recognized Words
Q1	real	23.2	10.7	9.8	56.3	yeah, leo, rio, leon, leah, beer, near, we are meow, dear
Q2	volunteer	22.3	15.2	10.7	51.8	frontier, warrantee, Bronte, Banya, put on tea
Q3	weather	84.8	5.4	7.1	2.7	wizard
Q4	locker	19.6	9.8	12.5	58.0	docker, rocco, look up, rock, joker, Dhaka, vodka, little car
Q5	button	27.9	11.7	8.1	52.3	patter, bet time, bottom, put down, baton, put on
Q6	vanilla	16.1	16.1	6.3	61.6	bonita, rainier, Banya, Bunya, burning, banana, penera, funny law
Q7	surfing	33.0	16.1	10.7	40.2	something, solving, shopping, stuffing, starving
Q8	theater	41.1	20.5	3.6	34.8	Santa, siata, Seattle, shelter, shatter, ciata, sea, set up, shut up
Q9	girl	30.6	9.0	11.7	48.6	car, go, god, gar, gurd, call, Carl, cool
Q10	battery	59.8	12.5	8.0	19.6	lottery, party, property, poetry, boccoly, but three, buddy, bathany, bratayley, Mr. Lee

Note. Three trials per word; 1 = speech recognition on first trial, 0 = no speech recognition after three attempts.

The final part of the questionnaire consisted of open-ended comments on the worksheet. Although the categories overlap and are often interrelated, post-questionnaire comments were collected and categorized into six groups based on the pedagogical effects of the activity.

TABLE 3. Students' Worksheet Comments

No.	Pedagogical Affective Effects	Sample Comments
1	Noticing/learning weak points (Particular linguistic features)	• and /r/ were difficult. • *Vanilla* in particular was not understood at all. I want to practice more and try again. • I learned the difference between the sounds of /v/ and /b/. • /l/ and /r/ need to be practiced. I want to be better. • Switching the placement of the accent makes a difference for recognizing different words.
2	Affective effect	• It was difficult. • The native speakers with whom I have spoken so far are nice. It was nice that they understood me. • It was interesting and good to have an opportunity to have my pronunciation judged objectively. • It was very interesting and good for me. • It was a very good way to check my pronunciation. • I now know it is not as easy to be understood as I had thought, but I enjoyed it. • It was fun like a game. • The key is not to be shy. • I felt bad for Google… • It irritated me. • It was fun! • I now know that /v/ needs to be improved. It was good that I recognized this point, so it is a good way to practice pronunciation. • It was a casual way to practice, and I feel that I can continue this way. • When it understood a very different word, I was shocked.
3	Motivation – Desire to practice more, try out new things on one's own and see how they are understood.	• I was recognized more than I thought I would be, and I became confident. But I still have some pronunciation that was not understood, so I will practice more and would like to try again! • When I said, "we are," it recognized it as "real"! • I tried over 20 times but was not able to be understood.
4	Learning the state of one's own ability – Not being understood. (Some did, many did not.)	• It was good to be able to know how well my pronunciation is understood or not at present. • It was very interesting, and I was able to imagine how my utterances are being heard by an actual interlocutor. • My incorrectly recognized words were still not recognized, even though I tried and tried so many times. • The image I had when pronouncing, and the actual pronunciation were very different. • It was very clear that the target words and the incorrectly recognized words were very different.
5	Awareness of the role and importance of ponunciation in language learning	• I was surprised that my pronunciation was not being understood. I learned that there are many similar words in the world. • It was a good chance to learn that my pronunciation was not right.

		• I thought my pronunciation was more communicative, so I need to practice more. • Now I understand why the Filipino people at my part-time work are shrugging their shoulders.
6	Others	• I was impressed with the technology of the system that recognizes subtle pronunciation differences. • I was doubting the functionality of Google Translate.

Pedagogical Implications

The activity had pedagogical impact for Japanese university English learners. It did not simply affect linguistic features but also affective features such as motivation, interest, noticing, and learning a new method of improving language skills. Even though the students were practicing as a warm-up for ten sessions, the instructors' observation and the results showed that the monitoring activity using their own sound recognition device raised the students' awareness toward the importance of pronunciation and intelligibility. Through the trial speech recognition activity, it seemed as though the students realized for the first time that their pronunciation is unintelligible and realized why they should practice pronunciation. Systemic utilization of the activity has the potential of being an eye-opening experience. Furthermore, learners studying English realize the importance of sounds in effective communication, especially in the oral communication phase.

The Likert scale statement results showed that the activity was a suitable method for monitoring pronunciation. More importantly, an examination of the open-ended comments, both in the small remarks sections of the worksheet and also in the comment section at the end, revealed that the systematic activity using an online recognition system revealed multiple positive effects. Not only did it serve as a means of monitoring learners' pronunciation intelligibility, but it produced multiple areas for improving their pronunciation even while in the EFL classroom setting.

Conclusions

The study revealed that use of the search engine along with the explicit instruction provided an effective monitoring tool that helped foster autonomous learners. This was a strong means of raising awareness of the importance of pronunciation.

Based on the questionnaire results and the instructors' observations, this activity was deemed suitable for monitoring pronunciation performance for Japanese university students. From the instructors' observations, the classroom atmosphere during the activity was animated, and the room was filled with excited voices. This observation suggests that not only was the activity suitable, but it was also highly engaging. A few students went to an adjacent empty classroom since they felt shy trying out their pronunciation while near other classmates, but these students missed hearing the instructions and tried the words

40 to 70 times without success. Overall, the students felt engaged with the activity and did not want to give up; they felt a sense of intrigue mixed with high motivation. A few students asked me if it was okay to try more after completing the worksheet. Even though they were interacting with a machine, they were engaged, and they endeavored to communicate with the online system as an interlocutor.

After the activity, the class reviewed each word. Following the instructor's reminder of the place and manner of articulation, they tried again and were very surprised to find that their pronunciation was often then recognized. Students learned and realized that minor adjustments could make a big difference in forming recognizable sounds in communication. One student made notes in the comments section on how the recognition results improved right after the instruction. After the teacher's reminder, the words were very well understood on the first or second trial!

Practicing like a parrot without deeply thinking about the manner of placement and without understanding wastes time. If this system had not been used, most likely, the participants would have completed the course without understanding why intelligible pronunciation is essential to communication. In this regard, it was a compelling means of developing their affective and cognitive areas of pronunciation ability. In addition, it was a convenient method for them to try out their intelligibility in the EFL classroom context. However, further examination of how and when (how often) to use this activity to bring about the most effective results for Japanese students is required. Further development of the activity is necessary before fully implementing it over a full semester of explicit and systematic pronunciation instruction.

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English Learning Motivation at University: EMI vs. Mother Tongue Programs

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Many universities offer both degrees taught in English and degrees taught in the local language. Although both programs include English classes, students' patterns of English learning motivation likely differ depending on language use in other classes. Understanding these motivational patterns can help teachers and course designers motivate students' learning English during their university studies. This original research study in Macao, China compared first-year students in English medium instruction (EMI) and Chinese medium instruction (CMI) programs at one institution. Students' motivation and enjoyment using English were measured three times over the year. Results show that for students in both EMI and CMI programs, enjoyment using English increased, but English learning motivation decreased, particularly for CMI students. EMI students' demotivation was partly related to negative attitudes toward the work of studying English or discovering their English ability was sufficient to cope. Implications are given for teachers and course designers in EMI and mother tongue programs.

INTRODUCTION

A university education is widely sought, as it increases the speed and chances of achieving a management position. English is perceived as a key ability in an international workplace, and community stakeholders believe having strong English abilities will result in more career opportunities (Pan & Block, 2011). Thus, many non-native English-speaking students want to get their university degree in an English medium tertiary program in hopes that they can develop their English confidence and capability while getting that degree (Cots, 2013).

A trend has developed for universities in non-English-speaking countries to also offer English medium instruction (EMI) degree programs (Volet & Jones, 2012) to attract more fee-paying international students, prepare students for careers in a globalized society, increase the diversity of the student body, and improve their institutions' rankings (Coverdale-Jones, 2015). Sometimes these EMI programs are offered alongside similar or equivalent degree programs in the local language (L1), or are treated as specialized programs within a generally L1 university (Bradford, 2013). For non-native English speakers (NNES), these EMI degree programs are thought attractive because they offer a platform to improve English through getting an English-medium degree without traveling to live in an expensive and culturally distant English-speaking country (Dong et al., 2016). Aside from international students, EMI's in non-English-speaking countries attract

a large number of local students who are likewise NNES and may have relatively lower English proficiency (Evans & Morrison, 2012).

For many NNES, the goal of getting into a good university is a major motivator for studying English (Pan & Block, 2011). However, once that goal is achieved, students' motivations for continuing to study English and their confidence using English will undergo changes impacted by the physical and social transition from high school to university (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Motivation to learn English well does not guarantee success, but it leads to more choices to engage in language learning activities, such as interacting with native English speakers, reading English materials, and putting effort into language learning (Hernández, 2010). Thus, not surprisingly, motivation is linked with higher levels of language proficiency (Hernández, 2010). In contrast, English learning demotivation is linked with mental withdrawal from English studies and lower English proficiency (Falout et al., 2009). Understanding the differing motivational profiles of students in EMI and local language of instruction programs is essential for teachers and administrators to develop and refine appropriate English course curricula for the two different styles of program.

The aim of the current study was to investigate the dual effects of language medium of the degree program (English or Chinese) and passing of time on motivations for learning English. The following research questions were addressed in this study:

RQ1: What changes are there in the motivational profiles of EMI and CMI cohorts during the first year of university studies?

RQ2: What differences are there, if any, in the pattern of motivational change between EMI and CMI cohorts during the first year?

Literature Review

English Proficiency at EMI in Non-native English-Speaking Contexts

Non-native English-speaking students often expect to improve their English upon entering an EMI university program. However, low English proficiency may mean students are unable to fully comprehend or express themselves to the degree that lecturers expect (Shohamy, 2012), and they struggle using English for academic tasks (Pan et al., 2010). In Hong Kong, Evans and Morrison (2011, 2012) found that non-native English-speaking students struggled most to understand lectures, learn specialist vocabulary, and speak or write using appropriate academic style. These challenges were compounded for students who had no previous experience in English medium schools (Doiz et al., 2013).

In fact, research suggests that English improvement at an EMI program is often limited. Evans and Morrison (2011) observed that upon completion of the program, EMI students' English grammar did not necessarily improve. Likewise, (Wilkinson, 2013) argued that when non-native English-speaking students are studying with classmates whose English level is similar, the students' English skills tend to fossilize rather than continue to improve. English language teaching in EMI contexts tends to focus more on academic proficiency (Evans & Morrison,

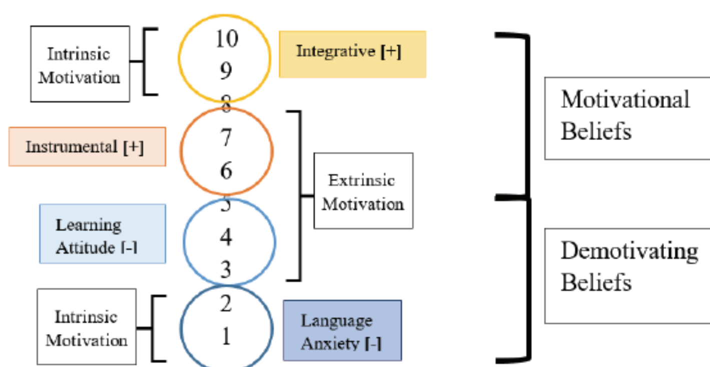
2011; Wilkinson, 2013). Meanwhile, EMI faculty members, who themselves are non-native speakers, may put limited emphasis in class on improving students' English ability (Bradford, 2013). Nonetheless, within the EMI context, students' English learning is motivated by future career goals, general English learning goals, and the need to pass classes.

Although content language integrated learning (CLIL) in the formative years gives equal emphasis to language and content (Coyle et al., 2010), language learning in EMI programs is generally a minor teaching focus compared to content. Thompson and Sylvén (2015) found that secondary students undertaking CLIL schooling had higher self-confidence and a more relaxed attitude toward English when compared to L1 students. De Smet et al. (2018) suggest that students from CLIL schools tend to enjoy their second language learning experience more than students studying it as a foreign language in a non-CLIL school. The same phenomenon may carry over into the higher education experience.

Theoretical Framework of L2 Motivation

The socio-educational model of second language acquisition, first posited by Gardner (2006), considers that language acquisition occurs within the socially constructed classroom environment, wherein the dynamic interaction of individuals motivationally driven for different reasons (integrative, instrumental, attitudes toward language learning and language anxiety) allows for engagement in the learning process. There seems to be a consensus on the importance of motivation in the ESL learning process and its unidirectional path towards goal attainment (Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015; Gardner, 2007). However, the broad definition of motivation as desire or willingness to act or behave in a particular way suggests that a student could desire to disengage as much as engage in the learning process; though they are opposite ends of a continuum, both are conscientious desires. Motivation is mutable and influenced by both extrinsic and intrinsic conditions (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Waninge et al., 2014). The motivation index (MI) is an instrument designed to measure a learner's degree of motivation based on the interplay of positive and negative forces within the learning environment at a particular point of time in the learning process (Baker-Malungu, 2010). Consisting of twelve statements, the instrument considers motivational constructs from previous research, such as instrumental, integrative, intrinsic, and extrinsic, language attitudes, and language anxiety that form the continuum of motivational duality. Students self-select attributes that represent a true depiction of their present condition that are plotted on a 10-point scale for easy comparability as the motivation index (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Motivation Index (MI): Ten-Point Scale



Motivation due to genuine interest and enjoyment in the language has been investigated under different models: efficacy in general English ability (Life, 2011), intrinsic motivation (Gardner, 2007), and English enjoyment (Dewaele et al., 2017). Just as there is evidence to suggest higher intrinsic motivation to learn English is linked to higher motivation overall (Chen & Kraklow, 2015), studies have linked greater enjoyment using English as a second language with increased self-motivation (Life, 2011). Conversely, students with lower English achievement tend to be less confident and experience little enjoyment using English (Dewaele et al., 2017). A positive aspect of Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) framing this concept as enjoyment using the L2 is that unlike Gardner's intrinsic motivation concept, it is removed from a target culture. This is a more appropriate way to frame English use in higher education contexts outside of English-speaking countries, "particularly in Southeast Asia, where policymakers both inside and outside education do not link English with traditional native-speaking communities but rather treat it as a valuable neutral linguistic resource for the knowledge economy" (Kedzierski, 2016, p. 380). Thus in this study, questions were asked directly about enjoyment using the language, separate from any particular context or target culture.

Motivational Factors of EMI Within an EFL Context

Chen and Kraklow (2015) found that NNES students who chose university programs in their mother tongue tended to have lower intrinsic motivation to learn English than those selecting EMI tertiary programs; though few differences were noted in either instrumental or extrinsic motivation. Gan (2009) reports that second-year university students in both China and Hong Kong generally indicate studying English primarily to achieve personal goals in relation to their future professions. This study did not separate EMI and non-EMI cohorts though.

Gao et al. (2004) surveyed undergraduates at 30 Chinese universities, and through factor analysis revealed three categories of motives for studying English: instrumental, cultural, and situational. They found that compared to non-English majors, English majors tended to have stronger intrinsic motivation as well as stronger instrumental goals in a number of aspects. However, there was no comparison of EMI students with non-EMI students among non-English majors.

Changes in English Learning Motivation and Enjoyment over Time

Although previous research in higher education suggests that significant changes may occur in English learning motivation after an EMI experience, the findings are inconclusive as to what sort of change is likely to occur. A study conducted by Fryer and Roger (2017) suggested that after a short-term study exchange in Australia, Japanese students seemed to put more effort into their English studies and had more learning motivation for as long as six months after the experience. Similarly, mainland Chinese students studying in EMI universities within mainland China and in Hong Kong experienced increased learning motivation after recognizing that learning academic English was more difficult than they had initially anticipated (Du & Jackson, 2018; Li, 2013).

In contrast, Wesely (2012) argues that not all study abroad students gain stronger L2 learning motivation through the experience. Similarly, in the Chinese EMI context, some mainland Chinese students studying in Hong Kong became less motivated in English learning because they no longer needed to learn English for standardized exams (Gao, 2008). In addition, local Hong Kong students, particularly those who entered EMI programs with weak English skills, tended to grow less motivated to learn English during their university career (Evans & Morrison, 2012).

Corresponding research on changes in English learning motivation and enjoyment upon transitioning into an L1 university are sadly lacking. One cross-sectional study by Olah (2006) compared Japanese high school students to first-year university students, finding that the university students were slightly more likely to mention studying English for their future or to see English learning from a new perspective. Within one L1 context, university learners increased in their enjoyment using English over one year, albeit to varying degrees (Shirvan & Taherian, 2018). An investigation of Japanese university students involved in a one term exchange program at a US university, found that the students' confidence using the language increased (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003).

What seems to be lacking are studies regarding how motivation is sustained over time and clarification of whether there are differences in the motivational profile of students choosing EMI or L1 higher education institutions (HEIs).

METHOD

Design and Sampling

This study employed a comparative longitudinal design with a quantitative approach. Though rare, longitudinal designs enable researchers to more accurately calculate inter-group differences (Dewaele & Li, 2020). The participants were students enrolled in one higher education institution in Macao that offers equivalent degree programs in both EMI and Chinese medium of instruction (CMI) modes. Although Macau is a Chinese-speaking region, with Chinese and Portuguese being the official languages, English is widely spoken in business and is a required course throughout formative education. Students in EMI programs had all courses taught in English except for foreign language courses (18–21 hours

of classes in English per week), while students in CMI programs only had one three-hour English class per week. During the first week of the academic year, students were given a short explanation of the research and a consent form during English class, and were given time during class to complete the paper questionnaire if they wished. The same procedure was followed with the middle-of-year questionnaire. For the end-of-year questionnaire, the CMI program used the paper questionnaire, while the EMI program used an online questionnaire available both in and outside of class.

Instrumentation

A bilingual survey instrument (English and Chinese) containing five sections was employed. Section 1 sought demographic information and students' perceived English proficiency. It has previously been reported that there is a high correlation (0.68) between self-reported ability and major language test scores (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017). Section 2 asked four questions about students' overall English learning motivation and enjoyment using English (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). These questions employed a 5-point Likert scale with 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*. Section 3 utilized the motivation index (Baker-Malungu, 2010) consisting of six weighted statements representing positive motivational beliefs and another six weighted statements representing demotivating beliefs. Students were instructed to self-select only attributes that truly depicted their present condition. The summation of all items selected provided a raw score that was converted to a 10-point scale.

Analysis Plan

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software version 24. Descriptive statistics were utilized to identify differences and reveal patterns in respondents' demographic information and to compare mean differences among EMI learners and CMI learners, respectively, at different times. A univariate repeated measures analysis of variance was conducted to determine effects of time on study variables. Finally, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out to identify whether statistically significant differences exist between the changes in EMI and CMI motivational profiles over the year. Following recommendations acceptable for sociological studies, mean differences that generate a p value of < 0.05, or 95% probability of not randomly occurring, have been considered significant (Illowsky & Dean, 2013).

Results

In total, 258 students in the EMI program and 87 students in the CMI program completed the initial questionnaire, with a response rate of 77% and 86%, respectively. Only data from students who completed all three questionnaires was included in the analysis. Thus data from a total of 173 students was analyzed: 102 from the EMI program and 71 from the CMI program. The retention rate was 40% for the EMI program and 82% for the CMI program. The demographic

distribution of the samples reflected the overall demographic profile of the respective programs (see Table 1). Interesting to note is that in both programs, the largest percentage of students perceived their English proficiency to be lower than that of other students in the cohort.

TABLE 1. Demographics

Variable	Overall (n = 173)		English Medium Program (n = 102)		Chinese Medium Program (n = 71)	
Gender						
Male	59	(34.1%)	25	(24.5%)	34	(47.9%)
Female	114	(65.9%)	77	(75.5%)	37	(52.1%)
Home						
Macau	139	(80.3%)	72	(70.6%)	67	(94.4%)
Mainland China	31	(17.9%)	27	(26.5%)	4	(5.6%)
International	3	(1.7%)	3	(2.9%)	0	(0.0%)
Mother Tongue						
Cantonese	143	(82.7%)	73	(71.6%)	70	(98.6%)
Mandarin	25	(14.5%)	24	(23.5%)	1	(1.4%)
Other	5	(3.0%)	5	(5.0%)	0	(0.0%)
Perceived English Level Relative to Classmates						
Better	14	(8.1%)	6	(5.9%)	8	(11.3%)
About the Same	69	(39.9%)	47	(46.1%)	22	(31.0%)
Worse	90	(52.0%)	49	(48.0%)	41	(57.5%)

With a closer examination of both programs, descriptive comparison of means gives an indication of how the student profile changed over time. The results of EMI students (see Table 2) suggest that the three largest areas of change were in regard to overall motivation to study English at university, which progressively decreased over the course of the year, while overall enjoyment as well as demotivating beliefs demonstrated consistent increase over the same time period. Closer examination of the scale items showed that the increase of demotivating beliefs seemed to be largely in response to extrinsic conditions. Though some fluctuation was evident in the remaining variables, these were slight in comparison.

TABLE 2. Changes to EMI Respondents' Profiles Over Time (n = 102)

	Beginning of School Year		Middle of School Year		End of School Year	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Overall Motivation	4.75	0.516	4.55	0.623	4.48	0.793
Overall Enjoyment of English	3.06	0.777	3.17	0.763	3.66	0.742
Motivating Beliefs*	4.04	1.009	3.89	1.261	4.07	1.211
Demotivating Beliefs*	1.04	0.191	1.06	0.269	1.21	0.391
Motivation Index (10-point scale)	8.88	1.122	8.66	1.517	8.63	1.360

Note. *Means shown on 5-point scale converted from motivation index 21-point scale.

The changes in CMI respondent profiles (see Table 3) were similar in nature with slight variations. Overall motivation to study English at university also declined,

though to a greater extent than that of the EMI learners, while overall enjoyment of English followed suit and increased. What differed was that the CMI learners demonstrated both a decline in demotivating beliefs and an increase in motivating beliefs, resulting in a rather large increase in the overall motivation index.

TABLE 3. Changes to CMI Respondents' Profiles Over Time (n = 71)

	Beginning of School Year		Middle of School Year		End of School Year	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Overall Motivation	4.56	0.781	4.51	0.791	3.63	1.112
Overall Enjoyment of English	2.77	0.829	3.24	0.763	3.38	0.783
Motivating Beliefs*	3.77	1.196	4.03	1.258	4.07	1.194
Demotivating Beliefs*	1.30	0.720	1.21	0.622	1.16	0.527
Motivation Index (10-point scale)	8.29	1.550	8.67	1.564	8.74	1.500

Note. *Means shown on 5-point scale converted from motivation index 21-point scale.

To test the impacts of time across the two programs, a repeated measures ANOVA was performed analyzing overall results from the beginning, middle and end of the year. As indicated in Table 4, the comparison confirms highly significant differences ($p < .001$) for both the overall motivation and enjoyment variables as well as significance ($p = .011$) regarding demotivating beliefs, albeit not as strong.

TABLE 4. Repeated Measures ANOVA to Measure Effects of Time on Study Factors (n = 173)

Factor (Effects of time on...)	F (df*)	Sum of Squares	p
Overall motivation	17.451 (1.787)	25.643	< .001**
Overall enjoyment	3.358 (1.976)	8.261	< .001**
Motivating beliefs	1.807 (1.937)	1.098	.333
Demotivating beliefs	1.194 (1.747)	4.858	.011*

Note 1. * indicates significance at the 0.01 level; ** indicates significance at the 0.001 level.
Note 2. Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon is used to calculate df because error covariance matrix assumption is not met, so homogeneity cannot be assumed.

Results of a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the two programs (see Table 5) reveals that in the areas of overall motivation (p = <.001) and demotivating beliefs ($p = .009$) significant differences were evident.

TABLE 5. ANOVA of EMI vs. CMI Motivation Profile Changes over the Year (n = 173)

Factor (Effects of medium of degree program on changes over time on ...)	F (df = 1)	Sum of Squares	p
Overall motivation	18.590	5.943	< .001**
Enjoyment	2.500	1.137	.116
Motivating beliefs	0.058	0.042	.811
Demotivating beliefs	7.001	0.962	.009*

Note. * indicates significance at the 0.01 level; ** indicates significance at the 0.001 level.

Discussion

The primary data gathered in this study provide a glimpse into the mindset of first-year university students studying in EMI and CMI degree programs, respectively, at one institution in Macao. It is outside of the parameters of this study to suggest the factors leading a largely Chinese-speaking population to choose to enter either an EMI or a CMI degree program; however, the fact that a large percentage of students (52%) representing both cohorts enter feeling that their own English proficiency lags behind that of their classmates perhaps indicates that students have a degree of determination to face the challenges of university, at least at the onset of their transition. As is evident in the motivation index results, which represent the dynamic interplay between motivating and demotivating beliefs, both cohorts entered university intrinsically motivated and seemingly determined to improve their English (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). Two questions formulate the research objective of this study; each of these will be addressed in turn.

The first question concerns whether there are changes in the motivational profile of EMI and CMI students over the first year of study. Overall motivation to study English was seen to decline in both programs over the year after an initially high self-reporting; nonetheless, the drop was more prominent in CMI learners when compared to EMI learners. Similar results were observed in previous studies conducted in Hong Kong (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Gao, 2008), which suggested that one contributing factor is likely the lack of necessity to prepare for a high-stakes English exam, the result of which would determine whether the student could attend their desired university. The fact that a slight but consistent drop in motivation occurred among the EMI cohort in this study contradicts the findings of Li (2013) and Du and Jackson (2018), who found increased motivation due to unanticipated perceived difficulty. There is a possibility that students entered university with unrealistic expectations, which felt misaligned with their actual experience.

In contrast, overall enjoyment of English saw a consistent increase across both groups of learners. While this was anticipated in the EMI cohort following previous study results (Evans & Morrison, 2012; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003), which associated increased confidence with greater enjoyment, it was a welcome surprise among the students in the CMI cohort. This unexpected outcome in the CMI cohort may be due to the pedagogic delivery mode of the English course, which tends to be more interactive and dynamic in comparison to the lecture mode employed in most of the content courses. The demotivating beliefs of both cohorts remained within the range of extrinsic motivation, suggesting that aspects such as pressure from other classes on time management or the need to apply greater attention to study for courses other than English took priority. This study saw an increase in demotivation among the EMI cohort that appears to support the findings of Gan (2009), while demotivation decreased among the CMI cohort.

The second research question concerns differences in the pattern of motivational changes between EMI and CMI learners over the course of the year. This study revealed two areas in which significant differences were observed between the two cohorts: overall motivation and demotivating beliefs. As regards overall motivation, CMI learners reported a greater drop over the course of the

year than EMI learners. Perhaps, as is suggested in the study by Waninge et al. (2014), this may be due to an internal misalignment between expected and experienced reality. EMI learners may have had a more accurate understanding of what to expect from the English study experience at university than CMI learners. Since the university level English courses address both English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for professional purposes (EPP) in the curriculum, CMI learners may have anticipated greater coverage of English for social engagement (Doiz et al., 2013; Olah, 2006) and become disappointed when learning that was not the case. Another consideration may be that EMI studies require students to engage in continued English learning and improvement to cope with other courses, whereas this is not required of CMI studies.

In regard to demotivating beliefs, the difference in response from the EMI cohort compared to that of the CMI cohort is also likely due to the misalignment of expectation and experienced reality. A study by Gan (2009) also observed increased demotivation among EMI students, but that study suggested lack of perceived challenge as the reason. EMI students represented in the present study may perceive English study and the English course in particular as second priority to the time and effort needed to manage core course content, while CMI students may find relief in the fact that there is no pressure to use English in their other courses.

CONCLUSIONS

The major findings of this study suggest that motivational differences do exist between university-level EMI and CMI learners and may fluctuate throughout the learning process. The more diverse nature of the EMI cohort suggests one model of motivation may be insufficient to accurately understand the motivation of the entire cohort.

The implications of this study suggest that measuring motivation at one point in time, as has been the case with many previous studies, is an inaccurate representation of reality. Since motivation is mutable and, as suggested in this study, influenced by external factors, a big-picture motivation orientation seems no longer appropriate. As well, this suggests that the thoughtful design of the learning context is an important factor in determining how much learner motivation is supported and maintained.

In moving forward, attention should be directed toward redefining students' English learning goals prior to entering university. This may assist to create greater alignment between expectations and reality. Second, effort is recommended to identify and specifically address EMI students' learning needs, equipping them with skills to better cope with their other courses. Equally important is the maintenance of a dynamic, enjoyable learning environment within both EMI and CMI contexts that encourages students to utilize and apply English in a variety of ways and forms. This can increase confidence and enable students to feel a sense of achievement.

Future research can focus more on how EFL learners' motivation and study of English changes in the transition from secondary school to an L1 university context. As well, there would be value in expanding the work begun by Evans and

Morrison (2011) in establishing a typology of EMI learners and their corresponding motivational profiles for a more accurate understanding of how to best support them with their unique challenges in adapting to the EMI university environment.

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Mental Lexicons and Word Association: A Small-Scale Study

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The question of how words are organized in language learners' minds has become increasingly relevant as acknowledgement of the importance of vocabulary has increased. The concept of the mental lexicon attempts to model the connections between those words and to provide a map for how learners organize those associations. This study looked at common word relationships that comprise the mental lexicon using a small-scale word association task (WAT) as a method of graphing these connections in Japanese non-native speakers (NNS) of English and native speakers (NS).

Introduction

Words do not exist in a vacuum. Their meanings are intimately related to other words, concepts, and experiences. A mental lexicon attempts to graph the connections between words and give some guidance as to how learners organize those associations. This study looked at common word relationships that comprise the mental lexicon using a small-scale word association task (WAT). Responses from Japanese non-native speakers (NNS) of English and native speakers (NS) provide insight regarding the three questions outlined in Task 123 in McCarthy (1990, p. 152):

1. Does a WAT tell you anything about how your learners are making mental links between words they have learnt?
2. At lower levels, are phonological similarities playing an important role?
3. Do the results bear out the characteristic types of response discussed?

The "characteristic types of response" outlined by McCarthy, with reference to Aitchison (2003) include synonymy, superordination and hyponymy, co-ordination, collocation, encyclopedic, and form-based (phonological and orthographic) responses.

The Mental Lexicon

Words and their meanings are defined through the relations and connections they have with other words (Carter, 2012), and a person's mental lexicon is a "mental store of words, their meanings and associations" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 359). Attempts to graph or model how people input, evaluate, relate, and output language can only be a partial approximation of the process, and research

to date has provided often conflicting results (Fitzpatrick, 2006; Nissen & Henriksen, 2006; Söderman, 1993; Wolter, 2001). Subsequently, we still have scant concrete knowledge about how these connections are made or manifest in the mind. Models attempting to describe the mental lexicon must first attempt to identify these associations, which are often categorized as *semantic*, *encyclopedic*, and *formal (random)*.

Semantic Associations

Semantic associations are based on word meaning and can be further classed as *paradigmatic* (vertical) and *syntagmatic* (horizontal).

Paradigmatic Associations

Paradigmatic associations occur when the prompt word and response word belong to the same word class and are sometimes referred to as vertical associations (Fitzpatrick, 2007; Cremer et al., 2011). The three major types of paradigmatic association are *synonymy*, *antonymy*, and *hyponymy*.

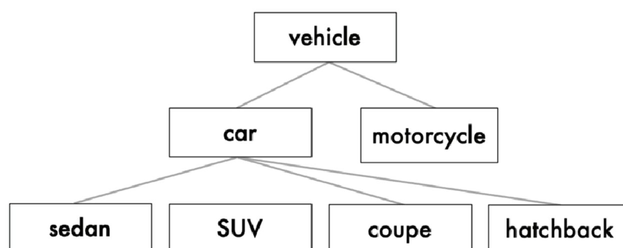
Synonymy: Two or more words having similar meanings. Some synonyms are completely interchangeable [*faucet* → *tap*] while other are less so [*begin* → *start*].

Antonymy: The "oppositeness" of a word. May be further refined to include ungradable antonyms [*alive* → *dead*], and gradable antonyms [*tiny* → *small* → *medium* → *big* → *huge*].

Hyponymy: A relational tool that organizes words into taxonomies or hierarchies (see Figure 1).

Co-hyponymy: Terms on the same level in a hierarchy. In Figure 1, *sedan*, *SUV*, *coupe*, and *hatchback* are co-hyponyms.

FIGURE 1. Examples of Hyponymy Hierarchy



Syntagmatic Associations

Syntagmatic associations occur when the prompt word and response word are from different classes, with the response word often occurring in close proximity to the prompt word in a "horizontal" association (Cremer et al, 2011; Fitzpatrick 2007). A common form of syntagmatic association is *collocation*, the syntagmatic attraction between words. This usually manifests itself as how words are regularly used together as well as the restrictions for word combinations (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

Encyclopedic Associations

Students often develop word associations based on feelings, attitudes, or strong memories (McCarthy, 1990; Sökmen, 1993). The word *art* may trigger reactions based on the person's life, such as *freedom*, *expression*, *beauty*, or *Van Gogh*. Encyclopedic associations also include connections that are prototypical, symbolic, or conceptual, such as the iconography of a *heart* being associated with the word *love*.

Formal (Random) Associations

Formal associations are based on word form, rather than meaning and include *orthographic* (words that are visually a similar shape), *phonological* (similar sounding words) and *random* (no immediately discernible connection) associations.

Word Association Task

Overview

Word association tasks, or tests, (WATs) have been used for several decades to uncover information as to how the mental lexicon is developed and organized (Fitzpatrick, 2007). While some researchers have advocated for eliciting multiple responses to capture a more complete picture of participants' associative networks (Schmitt, 1998), this study concentrated on single responses to obtain participants' strongest initial associations.

Method

A short WAT consisting of eight prompt words was given to participants, who were instructed to write the first English word that occurred to them. Instructions were provided in both English and Japanese, with prompt words being shown and spoken. Immediately after the activity, participants completed a short survey where they provided basic demographic information, their self-assessed English ability level and response clarification in their native language as to why they chose their particular responses.

Participants

There were 51 participants, 35 Japanese NNSs and 16 NSs of various nationalities, comprised of 19 males and 32 females. Participants self-assessed their English level as part of a short follow-up survey, with the majority of NNSs falling in the beginner-elementary range (see Table 1). NNS participants included 17 third-year junior high school (JHS) students, 6 JHS Japanese teachers of English (JTE), and 12 Japanese friends and co-workers of varying English language ability, while the 12 NSs consisted mainly of English teachers living in Japan and friends of the author living in Australia. Participant age ranged from 14 to 59 years old; however, it should be noted that the 17 JHS students were

aged 14 to 15 years old. These students were also the only participants currently undertaking any formal study of English.

TABLE 1. Number of Participants by Self-Assessed English Ability

Beginner	Elementary	Intermediate	Advanced	Native	Total
14	10	6	5	16	51

Prompt Word Selection

To ensure that prompt words would likely be known to lower-level NNSs, they were chosen from current JHS curriculum textbooks. Selection considerations included ensuring a mix of word classes and frequencies, homonyms, and word familiarity, while ensuring that words likely to cause confusion, particularly due to pronunciation, were excluded (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. Reasoning for Prompt Word Inclusion

Prompt	Reasoning for Inclusion
on	Studied even by beginners, likely to elicit "textbook grammar pattern responses" (*on the table*, *on Saturday*, *on the weekend*).
big	Common adjective with relatively restricted meaning but many synonyms.
love	Well-known general knowledge word, but only the grammar pattern "*I love to (do X)*" taught in the prescribed JHS textbooks. Can be a noun or verb.
music	Simple noun. Likely to elicit a variety of responses.
green	Multiple associations, including color, foliage, emotion, environment. Blue/green and Japanese impressions/cultural considerations may come into play.
mountain	Concrete noun that most people know. Likely to have many collocations or connections (mountain: *bike*, *hike*, *trail*, *goat*, etc.).
cook	Well-known verb and noun with relatively restricted interpretations.
robot	Simple concrete noun. Low frequency but well known. Strong imagery.

Classification of Results

Results were classified according to the four major association categories (paradigmatic, syntagmatic, encyclopedic, and formal), and based on the participant's own clarification if possible. The following criteria for classifying responses was applied, based on Wolter (2001) and Higginbotham (2010):

Paradigmatic: In the same word class as the prompt word and clearly a synonym, antonym, or hyponym.
Syntagmatic: A different word class than the prompt word, showing a sequential relationship to the prompt word, most often collocation.
Encyclopedic: The same word class that demonstrated a sequential (but not semantic) or affective relation to the prompt words.
Formal (Random): Resembles the prompt word only orthographically, phonologically, or is simply a different form of the same word.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Four hundred and eight (408) responses were received, with no blank or null responses (see Table 3). Given the disparity in the number of participants by language level, results are presented as percentages of responses by level or category, where applicable. The total number of responses by language ability level was divided into 280 NNS responses and 128 NS responses.

TABLE 3. Total Responses by Language Level and Classification (count and %)

Classification	Beginner	Elementary	Intermediate	Advanced	Native	Total
Paradigmatic	**18** (18.8)	**14** (14.6)	**5** (5.2)	**5** (5.2)	**54** (56.3)	**96** (100.0)
Syntagmatic	**23** (23.5)	**17** (17.3)	**13** (13.3)	**16** (16.3)	**29** (29.6)	**98** (100.0)
Encyclopaedic	**69** (33.5)	**49** (23.8)	**30** (14.6)	**19** (9.2)	**39** (18.9)	**206** (100.0)
Formal/Random	**2** (25.0)	**0** (0.0)	**0** (0.0)	**0** (0.0)	**6** (75.0)	**8** (100.0)
Total	**112**	**80**	**48**	**40**	**128**	**408**

Responses by Language Level and Category

NNS responses constituted less than half the number of paradigmatic responses, while beginner and elementary NNS responses comprised almost 60% of the encyclopedic responses received, with beginners accounting for 33% of the overall responses. Syntagmatic responses were relatively evenly spread across the NNS language levels.

The number of formal/random responses was very low overall, with more of these responses from NSs than from NNSs. It can be seen that as NNS language level increases from beginner to advanced, the percentage of encyclopedic responses decreases, while syntagmatic responses remain generally consistent. However, this decrease does not appear to be offset by any corresponding increase in paradigmatic responses for NNSs, with paradigmatic responses decreasing as language level increased. This may be reflective of the smaller numbers of intermediate and advanced participants.

Responses by Language Level and Association Type

Beginner's encyclopedic responses accounted for 17% of all responses (see Table 4). Hyponymy responses were higher for beginners than elementary through advanced levels, although the amount of such responses overall was very low. NSs provided the highest percentage of antonym responses; however, collocate responses were not as disparate as expected for NSs and NNSs. With the exception of beginner encyclopedic responses and NS antonym responses, association types as a percentage were generally in line across all language levels.

TABLE 4. Association Type Responses by Language Level (% of total responses)

Association Type	Beginner	Elementary	Intermediate	Advanced	Native	Total %
Synonymy	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.2	1.7	2.9
Antonymy	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.2	5.9	8.1
Hyponymy	1.5	1.0	1.0	0.2	1.2	4.9
Co-hyponymy	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.5	2.9	4.9
Hypernymy	0.7	0.5	0.0	0.0	1.0	2.2
Meronymy	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5
Collocates	5.6	4.2	3.2	3.9	7.1	24.0
Encyclopedic	16.9	12.0	7.4	4.7	9.6	50.5
Phonological	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.5
Orthographic	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2
Random	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.2
Total %	27.5	19.6	11.8	9.8	31.4	100.0

Responses by Word Class

Comparing the responses by word class and level (see Table 5), nouns were clearly the most represented across ability levels, with similar results for each level. However, a high percentage of verb responses by beginners was also apparent. Beginner- to intermediate-level participants also gave considerably more pronoun responses than advanced NNSs and NSs, while conversely, adverbial responses were not well represented at the lower language levels.

TABLE 5. Word Class Responses by Language Level (% of language level responses)

Word Class	Beginner	Elementary	Intermediate	Advanced	Native
noun	54.5	60.0	66.7	67.5	62.5
adjective	14.3	17.5	12.5	12.5	15.6
pronoun	13.4	11.3	18.8	7.5	4.7
verb	17.0	7.5	2.1	7.5	8.6
adverb	0.9	2.5	0.0	5.0	7.8
preposition	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.8
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Regarding association type by prompt word response (see Table 6), paradigmatic connections were strongest for *big*, *on*, and *love*. Interestingly, *robot* (a low-frequency word) had perhaps an even split of paradigmatic and syntagmatic responses. The word *cook* received a large proportion of syntagmatic responses, usually collocating with *food* and *dinner*. Encyclopedic responses were quite high for almost all prompt words, particularly *green* with nature-themed words such as *tree*, *leaf*, *forest*, and *grass* garnering the most responses.

TABLE 6. Prompt Word Response Breakdown by Category

Word	Paradigmatic	Syntagmatic	Encyclopaedic	Formal/Random	Total %
green	15.7	13.7	68.6	2.0	100.0
cook	9.8	52.9	33.3	3.9	100.0
big	35.3	3.9	60.8	0.0	100.0
love	15.7	27.5	54.9	2.0	100.0
on	31.4	62.7	0.0	5.9	100.0
robot	41.2	2.0	56.9	0.0	100.0
mountain	17.6	25.5	56.9	0	100.0
music	21.6	3.9	72.5	2.0	100.0

Response word class was generally in line with prompt word class, in keeping with Aitchison's (2003) contention that respondents often respond with the same word class (see Table 7). Notable exceptions were adjectives *green* and *big* (although "adjective" was clearly the second highest response class), which overwhelmingly received noun responses. Similarly, *on* received a majority of noun responses, perhaps reflecting the standard taught grammar point: *the* [noun] *is on the* [noun].

TABLE 7. Prompt Word and Response Word Class Comparison

Word	Noun	Adjective	Pronoun	Verb	Adverb	Preposition
green (adjective)	46	5	0	0	0	0
cook (verb/noun)	41	4	0	6	0	0
big (adjective)	31	17	2	1	0	0
love (verb/noun)	33	6	2	9	1	0
on (preposition)	23	1	0	11	14	2
robot (noun)	22	9	14	6	0	0
mountain (noun)	20	12	17	2	0	0
music (noun)	32	7	7	5	0	0
Total (count)	248	61	42	40	15	2

Exploring the Mental Lexicon of the L2 Learner

NNS responses across all levels were quite varied, with a large number of idiosyncratic responses, which has been noted in previous research (Meara, 1983; Riegel & Zivian, 1972; Wolter, 2002). Encyclopedic and syntagmatic responses were highly represented across all ability levels (see Table 6), confirming Yoneoka's (2010) results; however, the percentage of encyclopedic responses provided by beginner and elementary participants (57.3%) was considerably higher than that provided by intermediate- through native-level speakers (42.7%; see Table 3). This was very apparent in relation to the prompt words *mountain* (⇢ *Mount Fuji*), robot (⇢ *Pepper-kun*, ⇢ *Doraemon*; both famous Japanese robots) and *music* (⇢ various popular music group names). This indicates that low- to mid-level participants are making connections based on their experiences, or some

form of associative grouping, in contrast to lexical or grammatical connections (Sökmen, 1993). Hierarchical relationships such as hypernyms and hyponyms did not figure strongly, indicating that although many lower-level learners were making groups or organizing words thematically or by experience (Carter, 2012); they were not necessarily organizing them into lexical taxonomies.

Are Phonological Associations Playing an Important Role?

Phonological associations played little to no role in the mental lexicons of the participants in the study, with only 1.2% of the total responses being classified as formal/random (see Table 4). Lack of formal/random responses has also been noted in previous studies involving Japanese and Korean students (Harrison, 2015; Sökmen, 1993). This may be due to the lack of focus on phonics in the curriculum, leading to a lack of phonological connections being made between words.

Do the Results Bear Out the Characteristic Types of Response?

The results of this study provided examples of each of the characteristic types of response discussed in McCarthy (1990); however, coordinate responses were not as prevalent and semantic and formal/random responses were negligible. Collocates were not present to the extent indicated by Aitchison (2003) and McCarthy (1990). It should be noted that in both the Aitchison and McCarthy studies, the prompt words were predominantly nouns, which may have resulted in a disproportionate amount of collocate responses. While hierarchical connections were made by some participants, overall, they comprised a negligible percentage of responses from both NNSs and NSs. Interestingly, synonymy was not a particularly strong response category even among NSs, with antonymy being a much more frequent response category.

Pedagogical Implications for Teaching in Japan

Current Japanese teaching methods are epitomized by the *yakudoko* (direct translation) teaching method. Students may need to “learn how to learn,” and encouraging independent learning strategies for vocabulary studying could help in making connections in their mental lexicons (Burrows, 2008a, 2008b; Ellis, 1997; Sökmen, 1997). Wen and Johnson (1997) found that successful students used a variety of techniques and decision-making processes (guessing, inferring, contextual reading, research) for studying, particularly when, how, and why to use their dictionaries.

If the learning of vocabulary includes two types of learning systems as put forward by Ellis (1997), being (a) the acquisition of a word’s form, its common collocations, and grammatical class information (a subconscious or implicit process), and (b) acquiring the word’s semantic and conceptual properties and the mapping of word form labels onto meaning representations (a conscious or explicit process), then there would be benefits to increasing the focus on the relationship between the two. Development of association-building exercises that

use physical activities (vocabulary hunts, categorization games) could reinforce vocabulary learning through an affective experience (Sökmen, 1993, 1997).

An aspect of language learning that is not emphasized in the Japanese JHS curriculum is the use of idioms, fixed expressions, or "chunks." As Ellis noted, "Speaking natively is speaking idiomatically, using frequent and familiar collocations" (1997, p. 129). NNSs would likely benefit from more focus on collocation and chunks that can be repurposed. While it may not be possible to implement a lexical syllabus, increased engagement with chunks could improve NNS fluency and confidence.

Recommendations for Future Studies

To ensure relevant results from future WATs, it is recommended that

- a short pilot study be used to vet prompt words. This would assist in flagging unanticipated idiosyncratic responses that did not appear in normative data (Wolter, 2002);
- at least two additional people be used to independently categorize responses to ensure consistent categorization; and
- a broader participant demographic cross-section be surveyed, including various secondary and tertiary students, and workers.

Conclusions

The mental lexicon is a vast network of connections, and tools such as WATs and follow-up surveys can help researchers gain insight into how we make and nurture these relationships. Given the disparity of research results over the last three decades, it is clear that there is still considerable scope for further research into the area of mental lexicons. Based on the extent of low-level learner's syntagmatic responses and several NS formal/random responses, there is much to be gained from more cross-discipline research with the psycholinguistics field. As Ellis (1997) noted, to "know" a word is not just to be aware of its definitions; it requires the ability to know how essential the word is, how to use it productively, the likelihood of encountering it in daily life, and how the word relates to other words, particularly as part of fixed and idiomatic phrases. This is not a small task, and while this study has shown that there is some move away from encyclopedic and syntagmatic associations as proficiency increases, it remains to be seen if that shift will be accompanied by a move to a more native-like embrace of paradigmatic associations. As educators we can provide students with techniques and tasks to become more active participants in building their vocabularies and strengthening those associations in their ever-changing mental lexicons.

The Author

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Higher Education Academic Identity Formation and Educator Implications

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Higher education is an important time in students' lives, as it coincides with their identity construction of who they are and want to become. A review of the literature reveals students' academic identity encompasses and relates to both psychological, internal aspects and sociocultural/contextual factors. The kind of academic identity students develop ultimately shapes how they perceive learning and school, impacts their behaviors and choices, and affects their overall academic achievement. Thus, it is imperative for educators to be aware of the key factors that influence students' academic identity in order to design classroom instruction to best cultivate it. This paper focuses on a discussion of four notable academic identity theories, and concludes with educator implications and strategies to help foster students' academic identity within our classrooms.

Introduction

Education is a designed process of "shaping" students – guiding their development so they can appropriate the knowledge and skills needed to be meaningful members of society with productive futures. Yet education is not just about the development of academic knowledge and skills but also about the development of students' identity to enable them to determine their purpose and path in life and strive towards achieving their desired goals and dreams.

Identity has a multitude of possible definitions, but in this paper, it will refer to "the characteristics attributed to an individual by him/herself or others, emerging through social interaction and individual reflection on experiences and goals, and in turn shaping that individual's behavior and outlook" (Ding & Curtis, 2020, p. 4). Identity construction is especially important during adolescence (Erikson, 1968), when students determine their educational and professional goals while also figuring out who they want to become as a person. Especially, the transition to higher education is a critical juncture that provides a unique opportunity for identity reinvention/formation, as it often coincides with geographical/environmental change and new relationship opportunities.

This transition to higher education presents students with a multitude of demanding academic and personal challenges. These include both cognitive aspects, such as more difficult skills and content to learn, as well as noncognitive (i.e., psychological) aspects, such as persistence, self-control, and resilience, all of which play a large part in how successfully students adapt to and overcome the various challenges they encounter (Dweck et al., 2014). Students' development of

identity-related skills plays a key role in supporting their successful cognitive and noncognitive progress (Habley et al., 2012). Thus, students' identity formation during this time is crucial to their adaptation and overall academic achievement (MacFarlane, 2018).

Identity research suggests that individuals have various distinct views of themselves in different areas, such as general self-concept and more-specific social/relational and academic self-concepts. Academic self-concept (i.e., academic identity) refers to students' perceptions and sense-of-self as a learner in an academic domain and influences their educational and occupational aspirations, as well as academic achievement, with a positive academic identity being associated with higher engagement, goal setting, and achievement (Bliuc et. al., 2011).

This is due to the fact that students' academic identity shapes how they perceive school and the connection they feel to their education, as well as influences the behaviors and choices they make. This ultimately affects their educational outcomes, with low achievement often attributed to a lack of positive academic identity, whereas having "a relatively clear and stable identity makes people more resilient, reflective, and autonomous in the pursuit of important life decisions, while promoting a sense of competence" (Verhoeven et al., 2019, p. 36). Therefore, fostering students' learner identity formation should be a primary concern for educators.

Theoretical Perspectives of Academic Identity

There exist various theoretical perspectives within the literature on academic identity development. In this paper, the research scope will be delimited to a discussion of general identity dimensions (personal and social), specifically focusing on higher education-related dimensions that pertain to adolescent academic identity.

The next section will introduce and discuss four notable identity theories from two major theoretical perspectives, the psychosocial and the sociocultural.

The Psychosocial Perspective: Theories of Academic Identity

The focus of the psychosocial perspective is on the internal, psychological constructs and processes of a student's identity development. Academic curricula specify the competencies (knowledge and skills) that students are asked to acquire, and students' learner identities are influenced (positively or negatively) by the extent of their successful acquisition of these competencies (Verhoeven et al., 2019).

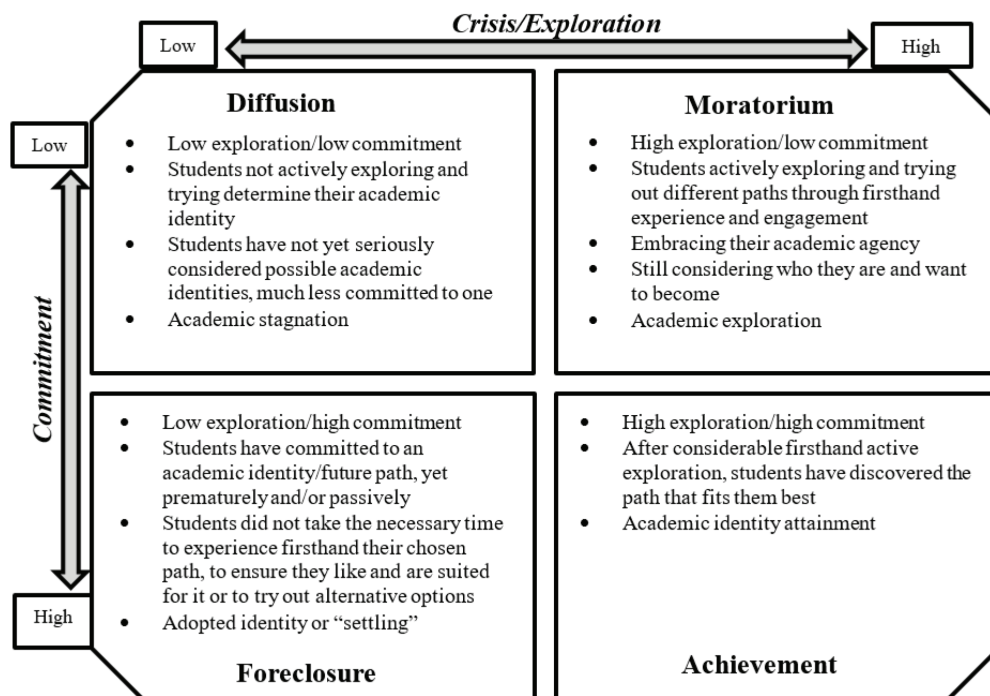
Psychosocial identity theories generally focus on students' views of themselves, which evolve over time into a more integrated and stable decontextualized sense of self (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Two prominent psychosocial models that offer an explanation of learner identity formation and its implications are Marcia's (1966/1993) Adolescent Identity Development Model and Dweck's (2006) Learner Mindset Theory.

Adolescent Identity Development Model

A key task of adolescence is for individuals to develop a sense of identity that situates choice and agency within the individual (Erikson, 1968). Adolescents who "do not form a coherent sense of self and values…will lack a consistent sense of identity as they progress into adulthood" (Hazen et al., 2008, p. 163).

James Marcia (1966, 1993), in his Adolescent Identity Development Model, explained that adolescents' academic identity formation depends on their progression through four possible identity statuses, which differ in the degree to which they have explored and/or committed to an identity as they strive to figure out their academic and future career path (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Marcia's (1993) Adolescent Identity Development Model



Briefly, if students are in *diffusion*, students do not know why they are at university or what they should be doing, nor are they putting forth the effort to discover this. Students in this phase are at the highest risk of low class attendance and engagement, low academic achievement, and academic dropout, having never managed to achieve an academic identity to motivate their continued engagement and learning. In *foreclosure*, instead of actively exploring various potential paths themselves to determine their passion and meaning in life, students often acquire an adopted identity, accepting and following the expectations of others, or "settling" too early on an identity. While students may still be academically successful, they do so without much agency, which can be detrimental later if they discover the path they foreclosed on is in fact not enjoyable, meaningful, or a good fit for who they are.

In contrast, in *moratorium*, students are actively exploring and trying out

different paths through firsthand experience and engagement. They are motivated, embracing their academic agency, and considering who they are and want to become. This path eventually leads to *achievement*, in which an academic identity has been attained; students have actively spent enough time exploring various options to find the path that fits them best. According to Marcia, these two identity statuses are ideal since, at times of identity questioning, those who adopted their identity without exploration (foreclosure) will be vulnerable to doubt and conflict, which can result in maladjustment, anxiety, and depression (Ding & Curtis, 2020). However, students who have actively explored their identity have stronger psychosocial resources, and thus are better able to cope with stress and potential damage to self-esteem (Adams et al., 2006).

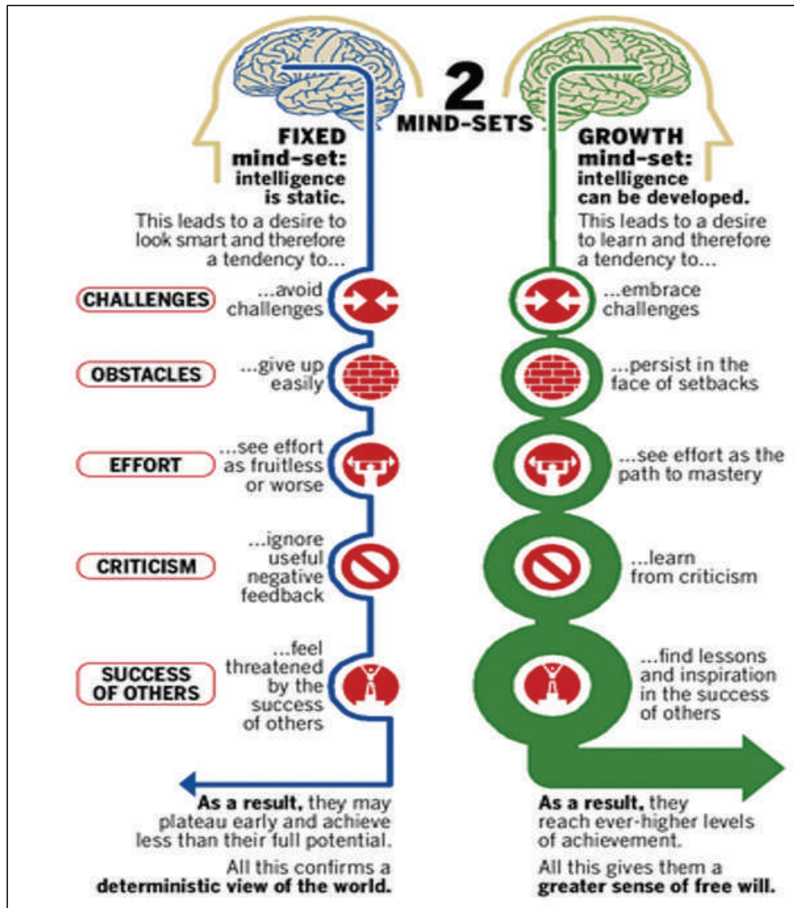
Learner Mindset Theory

In the face of challenges and setbacks many students, even academically able ones, often struggle; however, some students tend to be more resilient towards challenge, even thriving in its midst (Dweck & Sorich, 1999). Stanford psychologist Carol Dweck believed that the way students thought about themselves, specifically their intelligence or ability (i.e., learner identity), was a key component in explaining this academic variance. She argued that students were somewhere on a continuum between two opposing beliefs, a fixed mindset and a growth mindset; each leading to vastly different behaviors and consequences in students' academic achievement, particularly regarding how students view and respond to effort, challenge, setbacks, and failure (Dweck, 2006).

Dweck's research has revealed that students who hold a fixed mindset (see Figure 2) believe their intelligence and ability are largely a predetermined innate trait (akin to eye color) that cannot be significantly developed or improved. This belief results in a cascade of behaviors that can negatively influence their academic performance. Viewing their intelligence as limited (you either "have it" or you do not), they tend to focus more on appearances, worrying about looking smart ("proving" rather than "improving") and hiding mistakes and weaknesses. Further, setbacks encountered are often attributed not to the specific task but to perceived overall (fixed) low ability. As a result, validating ability (by pursuing performance goals) takes on more importance, and such learners are "more likely to engage in maladaptive learning behavior such as avoiding challenges which risk failure, setting themselves lower goals, and being discouraged to continue learning due to mistakes and failure" (Leung, 2018, p. 11).

Conversely, students with a growth mindset (see Figure 2) view intelligence and ability as something that can be developed and improved with hard work, learning, and dedication over time. Students with this view focus on increasing their ability, and are more likely to believe in the utility (vs. futility) of effort and to display mastery-oriented strategies in the face of setbacks. Therefore, they are more likely to undertake tasks that offer challenges and focus on learning goals, and are often willing to pursue remedial activities when experiencing academic difficulty. For them, mistakes or setbacks are seen as information about the learning process, so they are more resilient and better able to sustain motivation and persistence.

FIGURE 2. Fixed and Growth Mindsets



Graphic adapted from Popova, 2014, para. 2.

Thus, the learner mindset that students have greatly influences their academic identity. Growth mindset students believe they have agency and are thus in control of their own learning, leading to more effort and engagement, and ultimately to academic success. This reinforces their academic identity, resulting in further effort and engagement, thus becoming a positive recursive cycle. Conversely, fixed mindset students' beliefs lead to incongruence between the actions they take and their forming a positive academic identity, which negatively influences their academic choices and behaviors, eventually resulting in poor grades. Academic failure experiences will lead to students disengaging further, resulting in a negative recursive cycle and ultimately lower overall academic achievement.

The Sociocultural Perspective: Theories of Academic Identity

In contrast to the psychosocial focus on the internal, psychological processes of students' identity development, the sociocultural perspective views one's identity rather as a multidimensional phenomenon (Gee, 2001). Adolescents don't just have one academic identity but a range of them across disciplines, classes,

and skills. It is the integration of all these self-understandings that encompasses their overall academic learner identity (Verhoeven et al., 2019). Further, "identities develop through social relationships with diverse others in different socio-cultural contexts; therefore…it is necessary to examine how student identities evolve as a product of their relations to others in different sociocultural contexts" (Loughlin & Mascolo, 2019, p. 1).

Thus, sociocultural views of learner identity emphasize that development is a holistic process that takes into consideration the individual learner's participation in and dynamic relationship with each particular social context. Two sociocultural theories that offer an explanation of learner identity formation and its implications are MacFarlane's (2018) Higher Education Learner Identity Model and Norton's (2013) Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Identity Theory.

Higher Education Learner Identity Model

The academic identity students develop influences their motivation and engagement within the school learning environment, with strong student identity closely related to deeper approaches of learning (Bornholt et al., 2009). Further, students' subjective feelings of social belonging to their higher education environment have been associated with dimensions reflecting psychological well-being such as self-esteem, life satisfaction, and depression. Thus, "the way students perceive themselves in the context of learning, the way and the degree to which they identify with the social category university student is intrinsically linked to the way they learn in a specific setting" (Bliuc et al., 2011, p. 560).

In her higher education (HE) learner identity formation model, MacFarlane (2018) proposes six key factors (see Figure 3), the interplay of which influences the development of students' higher education learner identity. During the transition to higher education individual academic skills are certainly important, with students' ability to study and learn independently a key factor which initially enables the growth of their learner identity (Briggs et al., 2012). However, the HE transition is an emotional process for students, and success also depends on the emotional interaction between the new learning environment and the people within it. MacFarlane's (2018) study showed that the development of students' learner identity was predominantly a social phenomenon, and it was the social relations with their peers and instructors that had the most influence on the their overall academic identity formation.

Being able to form positive social relationships with not only other students but with supportive academic staff helps promote a sense of belonging, which directly relates to students' academic engagement. Social interactions and an increased sense of belonging contribute to more engagement within the curriculum, which results in increased self-efficacy in students (Bliuc et al., 2011). Thus, students' social interactions, sense of belonging, self-efficacy, and engagement are all closely aligned and key components of their overall learner identity development. Students who do not develop social relations and a sense of belonging may not form a strong academic identity, resulting in low self-efficacy and meaningful class engagement, ultimately hindering or damaging academic achievement in the higher education environment (MacFarlane, 2018).

Figure 3. MacFarlane's Higher Education Learner Identity Formation Model

From MacFarlane, 2018, p. 12.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Identity Theory

A renowned poststructuralist theory which provides another valuable perspective on the formation of learner identity is Bonnie Norton's (2013) identity theory, particularly her concept of *investment*, which reveals not only how language plays a key role in the construction of one's identity but also the close link between learner identity, learner agency, and motivation.

In contrast to the psychosocial perspective's belief that individuals generally have a unique, fixed, and coherent identity, poststructuralist beliefs depict individuals as diverse, contradictory, dynamic, and changing across various contexts and times. Whenever (language) learners engage with the target language (or any learning content), they "are not only exchanging information with members of the target language community, they are also organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world. As such, they are engaged in identity construction and negotiation" (Norton, 2013, p. 4). This fact plays a large role regarding learners' motivation and engagement. Many psychosocial theories of learning believe motivation is a character trait of the individual learner (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), and as such, learners who fail to learn are simply not motivated enough to the learning process. Norton questioned this narrow view of defining learners in binary terms such as motivated or unmotivated, since it didn't take into account that such factors were socially constructed and could change across time and space, as well as the fact that high levels of learner motivation do not always necessarily translate into effective learning.

Thus, as a complement to this psychological construct of motivation, she posited the social construct of investment as a way to more comprehensively explain individuals' agency (or lack thereof) in the learning process. Investment pertains to students' commitment to learn something based on their hopes for the future and their imagined identities. In this view, "if learners 'invest'...they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic resources

(language, education, friendship) and material resources (capital goods, real estate, money), which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital and social power" (Norton, 2013, p. 6). This in turn provides for a wider range of identity positions and has important implications for pedagogy, since learners may be motivated to learn, but if they have little identity investment, it can lead to disengagement and ultimately poor learning outcomes.

Educator Implications: How to Foster Students' Academic Identity

As educators it is vital to be aware of and understand the various factors that influence students' academic identity. Both the psychosocial and sociocultural perspective offer unique and valuable insights, and thus a more complete understanding of academic identity and its impact on student learning requires considering aspects of both dimensions of the individual learner.

For this reason, educators should strive to adapt a synthesis of the two perspectives in order to more comprehensively discern the various factors and influences that lead to the development of one's academic identity, and ultimately their academic achievement. The following are strategies for how educators can utilize both perspectives and the models/theories discussed above to help foster beneficial academic identities in their students.

Foster a Growth Mindset

Since a fixed mindset can compromise students' academic success, it is critical for educators to foster a growth mindset by both explicitly teaching students about it and by operationalizing it in the classroom environment through practices such as "celebrating" effort and "normalizing" mistakes (over-perfectionism) as necessary for growth and improvement. Further, ability (person) praise has been shown to more likely lead to a fixed mindset in adolescents, while effort (process) praise is more likely to result in a growth mindset (Gunderson et al., 2013). Ability praise is dangerous because it focuses students on their "natural" intelligence/ability as most important. In contrast, process praise encourages students' efforts and learning, fostering the belief that these are necessary for growth and academic achievement. This leads to more determination, with students having agency in their learning process. Thus, instructors should be cognizant to provide feedback in the form of effort praise to help instill a growth mindset belief that students are not trapped at their current level of intelligence/ability and can always improve.

Provide Various Rich Experiences

Developing students' academic identity is best supported by exposing students to a wide variety of life experiences and possibilities, and encouraging them to actively explore them. Considering Marcia's Identity Model, educators should endeavor to utilize in-breadth exploration and in-depth exploration to prevent students from remaining in diffusion or foreclosure identity states and instead

support their exploring of possible academic identities within moratorium and achievement identity states (Verhoeven et. al., 2019).

In-breadth exploration concerns learning experiences that introduce to students new learning contents and activities, which can enable them to discover new interests or academic identity positions to try out. Likewise, in-depth exploration pertains to learning experiences that acknowledges students' sense of who they are (e.g., a "math person," "English speaker," etc.) and facilitates further exploration related to their already present self-understandings. For both unfamiliar and familiar learning content, introducing and utilizing on-site and hands-on activities in authentic, real-life ways can help students to imagine and determine to what extent they identify with the content and inherent identity positions as well as support further identity commitments.

Provide Ample Opportunities for Reflection

A key component of in-breadth and in-depth learning experiences is reflective exploration of learning implications on both students' present and imagined future identity, since individuals do not learn from experience per se but rather from reflecting on experience (Dewey, 1938). Experiences must be assigned meaning and be integrated into students emerging sense of identity for it to have lasting benefit. Stimulating student self-reflection after learning experiences contributes to identity development by helping them gain insight into their thoughts, feelings, and beliefs about learned content.

Create Personal Relevance

Related to providing rich learning experiences is also making sure such experiences are meaningful by showing how the academic content is relevant to both students' present and future lives and by appealing to them in a way that they feel motivated/invested to engage in identity exploration. "Adolescents regard learning experiences as meaningful when they feel there is space for their own out-of-school knowledge and experiences in class and when they can relate what they learned in school to their out-of-school daily life" (Verhoeven et al., 2019, p. 53). This can be accomplished through demonstrating explicit connections between what students are learning and larger social purposes, or by getting students to recognize themselves in the learning material and content.

Educators can also introduce continuity "between their students' home and school experiences by identifying and activating student strengths or situating learning in the lives of students and their families" (Rouland, 2017, p. 3). Such student funds of knowledge contain "ample cultural and cognitive resources with great potential utility for classroom instruction" (Moll et al., 1992, p. 134). Meaningfully connecting students' identity via funds of knowledge to classroom learning can inform, build on, and ultimately enrich their learning and worldviews.

Foster Social Belonging and a Supportive Classroom Climate

For students, figuring out who they are and possibly want to become through

engagement in new learning experiences naturally involves risk and discomfort as they move outside their comfort zone, and thus requires a certain degree of courage. It is therefore important for educators to foster a classroom culture of social belonging, allowing students to feel safe enough to take such risks and deal with any possible discomfort that may result. When students feel included and respected by their peers and teachers, they spend less time worrying about their social belonging and thus are more likely to stay engaged, develop a positive academic identity, and overall be more successful in their learning (Dweck et al., 2014). Social belonging can be encouraged by providing students with activities that allow them to learn about each other's interests and what they have in common as well as by activities that invite mutual collaboration and engagement. Further, creating a friendly classroom environment via warm teacher–student relationships can make students feel recognized and valued, and thus contribute to a more supportive classroom climate.

Conclusions

Higher education is an important time in students' lives, as it coincides with their identity construction. As this paper has shown, this encompasses both psychological, internal aspects, such as their mindset, beliefs, and self-efficacy, as well as sociocultural factors, such as their relationships with peers and teachers and their sense of belonging. The kind of academic identity students develop ultimately shapes how they perceive learning and school, impacts their behaviors and choices, and affects their overall academic achievement in the higher learning environment.

Thus, it is imperative for educators to be aware of the various factors from both perspectives that influence students' academic identity as well as to design their classroom instruction to best cultivate it. By fostering a growth-mindset learning environment; providing various rich, meaningful, and personally relevant learning experiences and opportunities for deep reflection; and creating social belonging via a warm, supportive classroom climate; educators can aid their students in feeling more comfortable and confident trying out new roles, discovering their educational and professional goals, and ultimately achieving an integrated academic identity to aid and guide them on their academic journey.

The Author

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Language Teaching and Learning in Tertiary Education in the Time of a Pandemic

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In March 2020, the transition to distance learning caused tremendous frustration for many educators. They were forced to develop their digital skills faster than ever before. Taking advantage of this opportunity, our research team decided to explore the difficulties distance learning had caused for instructors, how they have adapted to the new situation, and what advantages and disadvantages they have experienced, as the situation was unusual for everyone and the skills needed for distance teaching had to be acquired swiftly. We examined how the daily professional routine of language instructors at the tertiary level was altered, how they could motivate their students in the new circumstances, what new teaching strategies they had to use to adapt to online teaching, and how they could continue to provide effective evaluation of student performance. The empirical evidence obtained from the research indicates that teachers should be trained formally to be able to provide quality online education at the highest level.

Background to the Research and Research Questions

Our college is a relatively new educational establishment at the tertiary level. It is located in Transcarpathia, a western county of Ukraine, and in Berehovo, a small town of 20,000 inhabitants. The Transcarpathian Hungarian Cultural Association and the Transcarpathian Hungarian Pedagogical Association representing the local Hungarian minority founded it with the aim of supporting and maintaining Hungarian higher education in Transcarpathia and providing well-trained, competent teachers for the 100 Hungarian primary and secondary schools in Transcarpathia. Among other majors, we train language teachers (English, Hungarian, and Ukrainian) at the bachelor's and master's levels at the college. Our bachelor's program training lasts for four years, while the master's training program is two years long.

The pandemic altered the reality for us at the college because we had to transition to the distance mode of education on March 12, 2020. We have decided to explore the effects of online teaching on college instructors by asking our language major colleagues to fill out an online questionnaire through which we attempted to get insights into the changes in daily routines of the instructors at the college.

In the course of our research, we sought answers to these questions:

RQ1. How did instructors motivate their students to learn successfully in the online environment?
RQ2. What was the biggest challenge for instructors when assessing student performance during distance learning?
RQ3. How did distance learning affect students?

Literature Review

The current situation has brought a huge change: The transition from face-to-face education to distance learning has taken place through online platforms. Instructors did everything possible to keep students learning. Educators have done a tremendous job around the world in transitioning to distance learning and are still working diligently today to meet the needs of their students (Herrmann, 2020). Therefore, in this part of our study, we are addressing topics as they are dealt with in the academic literature, topics such as distance learning, motivating students in distance learning, and evaluating students' knowledge and performance in distance learning.

Distance Learning

András Szűcs and Dénes Zarka in 2006 declared that "distance learning in today's world is an essential component of education" (Szűcs & Zarka, 2020, p. 15), but they could not even imagine how true this statement would prove to be in 2020. Distance learning is a form of education in which the teacher and the student are not physically located in the same space (Kovács, 1996). For most of the training time, students study independently, autonomously; for a smaller part, they interact with their teachers in person.

It is now a proven fact (e.g., see Gaud, 1999) that distance learning is more time-consuming than traditional classroom education, as teachers spend more hours per week preparing materials and classes for online teaching than for traditional teaching. Bender, Wood, and Vredevoogd (2004) also came to the same conclusion in their empirical research when comparing face-to-face and distance forms of education. However, it was also noted that if technology can be used to effectively improve the quality of education, distance education will be seen in a more favorable light.

Schwartz (2020) reports about stories told by teachers related to distance learning in the spring of 2020 in the United States. The stories indicate that teachers complained about how time-consuming and exhausting distance learning was for them. The main reason was that working time was not tied to fixed times as in classroom teaching (e.g., from 8 a.m. to 3 p.m.). Working hours merged with leisure time, and while in the normal mode of education both students and their parents sought out teachers during their working hours to ask them for advice, during distance learning this habit changed completely, as did students' sleeping habits. They, too, "switched to night work," and it often happened that the assignments were sent to the teacher by the students at 1 or 2 a.m. In most cases, there was a need for teachers to respond immediately to the materials submitted, an expectation that teachers sought to meet. As a result, teachers often

found the practice of online teaching exhausting. The management of a school in Bridgeport, Connecticut, made a relatively reassuring decision to solve the problem: emails that arrived after 5 p.m. were late enough for teachers not to respond to until the next day.

Bereczki et al. (2020) provide useful advice for educators working in higher education:

- Focus on learning goals, outcomes and link selected interfaces and solutions.
- Define the priorities both in the content of the course and in connection with the technical background/framework.
- Be flexible and open, try to take into account the needs and possibilities of students as much as possible.

Motivating Students to Learn in Distance Education

According to Holmberg (1985), the most important teaching principles of distance education are based on the following motivation assumptions:

- The joy of learning triggers students' motivation.
- Participation in decision-making about the learning process is positive for student motivation.
- Strong student motivation facilitates learning.
- A friendly, personal tone and easy access to the topic contribute to enjoyable learning, support student motivation, and thus facilitate learning.

Motivation is crucial. Intrinsically (internally) motivated students (Dörnyei, 2001) and those with high expectations towards their grades tend to have higher success rates. A positive attitude towards the educator is another factor that contributes to the success of students in distance learning (Simonson et al., 2000).

Thornbury (2020) considers the secret to motivating students to be to give them what they want. Once one has the motive, one also has the motivation. This means that it must first be clarified for what purpose the student needs to learn the foreign language. If this is successfully determined, the main motivation from then on is to achieve the set goal.

Finally, the "Ten Commandments" for motivating students (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) can be referred to by teachers anytime, as they are relevant for both face-to-face and online teaching of foreign languages.

Assessing Students' Knowledge and Performance in Distance Learning

The role of assessment is central in both the traditional and non-traditional modes of teaching (Said Pace, 2020). Due to the limited physical connection between the teacher and the student, assessment and feedback are particularly important factors in distance learning.

In distance learning, the significance of the practice Davidson (2013) called "assessment for learning" (AfL) can be appreciated, distinguishing it from "assessment of learning." Assessment of learning is done for the purpose of

grading, evaluating student outcomes, using existing well-established procedures and methods, while assessment for learning requires different priorities, new procedures and a new commitment for learning.

The main features of "assessment" in AfL are (a) assessment is embedded in teaching and learning, (b) learning objectives are shared with students, and students are taught how to recognize desired norms, (c) students engage in continuous peer and self-assessment, (d) constructive qualitative feedback helps students identify the next steps needed for learning, (e) assessment data is regularly reviewed and considered by teachers, parents, and students, and (f) it is assumed that all students are able to improve (Davidson, 2013, p. 264).

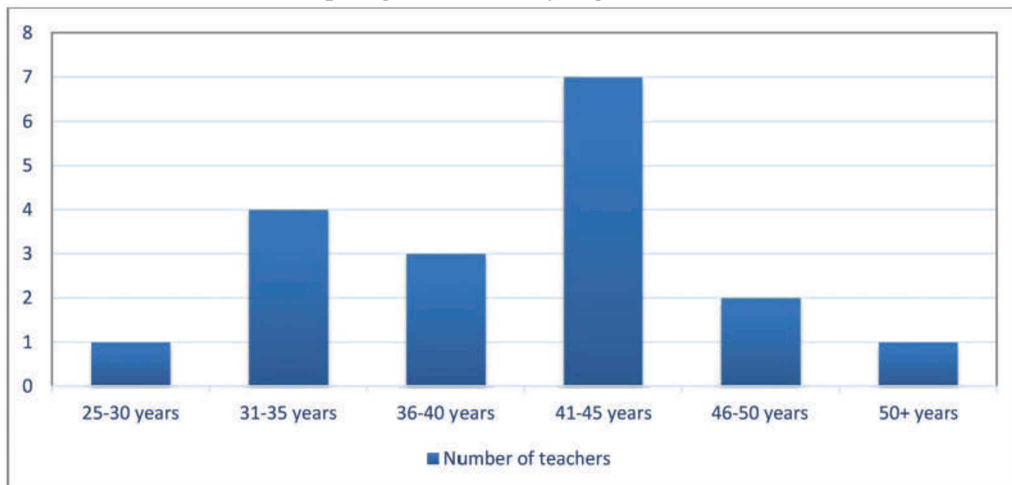
In AfL, assessment has two key roles: (a) to inform and shape decisions about what to do next, helping teachers decide what to teach further, and more importantly, (b) for the student to understand what they have learned and what more they need to learn in the future. The emphasis is on why students do not learn well and how they can be helped to improve, and not just focus on teachers using assessment to determine what knowledge students have acquired (Davidson, 2013, p. 267).

Method

Participants

The participants of our research were all language instructors in the Department of Philology of the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education. A total of 18 (50% of full-time instructors) completed our questionnaire (12 females and 6 males). The ages of the instructors are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Number of Participating Instructors by Age



All eighteen participants taught language: There were eight English instructors, two German instructors, three Ukrainian instructors, and five Hungarian

instructors. Seven of the respondents had been working in higher education for 1–5 years. One instructor had been a college instructor for 6–10 years and another one for 11–15 years. Five had been working in teacher education for 16–20 years and four for 21–25 years.

The Research Instrument: The Questionnaire for Instructors

In our survey, we used an anonymous, online questionnaire. It began with a short cover letter in which we explained the purpose of our research and assured participants of their anonymity. In the first part of the questionnaire, we asked for some personal details, while in the second part, we requested educators to indicate on a five-point Likert scale how much they agreed with the statements that were directly or indirectly related to distance learning. In the third part of the questionnaire, we asked open-ended questions about the practical realization of distance learning: how much time they spent on preparing for the classes, on evaluating the completed assignments submitted by the students, or in what form they gave students feedback.

Procedure

After the school year ended in such an unusual way due to the well-known conditions, we asked our language-instructor colleagues to share their views with us about the past semester. All of this was done by completing our questionnaire online in June 2020. The responses received from the language instructors were subjected to quantitative and qualitative analysis.

Research Findings

What was the students' attitude to distance learning and how did it affect them?

We created 12 statements about distance learning, about which we asked the opinions of the instructors. They could indicate on a five-point Likert scale how much they agreed with each statement. Five instructors disagreed, eight agreed, while five could not decide whether or not they agreed. In contrast, 12 respondents disagreed that students were frivolous about digital education, while five agreed, and there was only one instructor who could not decide on the issue.

Eight instructors believed students easily lost motivation during distance learning because they did not feel the need for more serious learning. Seven instructors were of the opinion that students easily lost their motivation during distance learning because they did not feel the rigor of the instructor directly. Nine instructors believed that students' learning strategies were limited as they only used their digital skills in online education.

We asked the instructors how they thought distance learning affected introverted students or students with learning difficulties. More than half (11) of the instructors believed that they were positively affected by distance learning because they could learn at their own pace.

Ten instructors assumed that differentiated education was also feasible during distance learning. According to them, differentiated education was easier to implement online because different applications could be used to form small

groups of students with similar abilities.

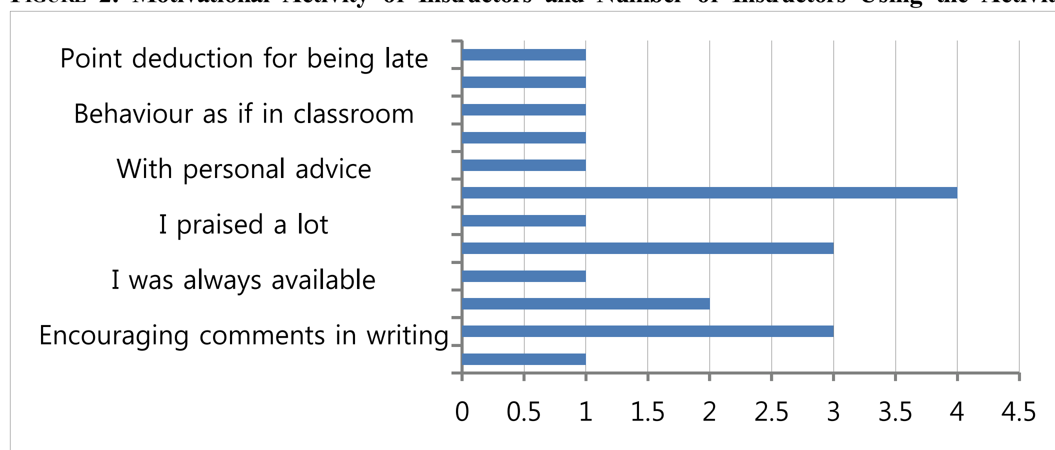
How did instructors motivate their students to succeed in online learning?

Figure 2 shows how the instructors motivated their students in the online environment during digital education. Four instructors tried to encourage their students to learn with interesting tasks; three of them uploaded links to short videos on the given topic in addition to the compulsory tasks, which were interesting, fun, and educational; and another three always wrote positive, encouraging comments to the tasks submitted by the students in writing. One instructor tried to motivate his students by deducting points from their grades in case they did not complete the assigned task on time. Another instructor tried to solve the issue of motivation by discussing the situation together with the student:

> I always told frankly to my students what I really thought: it's all our common task, it's not easy, but we have to solve it together. No matter how difficult this period is, let's get out of it as much as we can together. [Instructor 4]

One instructor tried to teach and motivate their students by teaching online similarly to classroom instruction. Another instructor motivated his students with personalized answers and advice. One tried to motivate his students through verbal communication (via cell phone). Another motivated with constant praise. One instructor mentioned that the most effective way for them to motivate their students was to provide them with personalized answers and advice, and to be in regular contact with them so that the students felt that the instructor was always available for whatever help they needed. On the other hand, two instructors declared that they did not motivate their students at all, as they just discussed the subject requirements with them and focused on that.

FIGURE 2. Motivational Activity of Instructors and Number of Instructors Using the Activity



One question interrogated instructors on what teaching strategies they used in distance learning. The responses listed in Table 1 were given by the instructors. We also included a frequency indicator that indicates how many instructors mentioned the strategy in question in their responses.

Table 1. Strategies Most Commonly Used in Distance Teaching

Strategy	Frequency Indicator (Number of instructors who used the strategy. N = 18.)
Preparation of notes for the students	12
Posting audio materials in Google Classroom	9
Preparation of online practice exercises	9
Student-centered strategies (presentations, essay writing)	7
Computer-assisted teaching and learning, teacher-centered strategies	6
Direct teaching method: explanation, practice, assessment	6
Playful, indirect methods just for practice	5
Indirect learning management, goal-oriented strategies	5
Teacher explanation, practicing, individualization	4
Group work, playful activities	4
Written communication, presentations	4
Less theory, more practice	3
Cooperative learning	2

We asked the instructors to explain what the main challenge was for them in distance learning. We were able to identify the following trends, which indicate the most problematic areas: the assessment of student performance ("It was very confusing that I did not see the reaction of my students during the assessment," Instructor 1); whether the students solved the tasks independently or with external help ("It is really difficult to decide to what extent a piece of work was done independently, even if the students were mostly given creative tasks," Instructor 12); the use of technical tools ("Problems with the rapid acquisition and application of the use of digital tools," Instructor 9); personal encounters ("Lack of personal contact," Instructor 13); the schedule ("How do I allocate my time rationally, efficiently," Instructor 15).

Of the instructors, five responded that the most confusing issue for them was that they did not see the students' reactions during the assessment. Two other instructors pointed out that oral assessment was a problem for them. Three highlighted that they were sometimes frustrated by the widespread use of the digital tools. Two complained of a lack of direct personal contact and two complained of scheduling. One instructor highlighted that online marking of test papers had become time-consuming, while another said, "Many times I felt cheated, I couldn't decide if the student had done the tasks alone or with the help of others. I couldn't trust them" (Instructor 8).

The suspicion in Instructor 8's voice indicated a lack of the important trust that should exist between instructor and student, a lack of which can indeed cause serious problems, not only in distance but also in face-to-face education. Two instructors claimed they did not experience any problems.

Discussion and Interpretation of Findings

In the following, we analyze and evaluate the results obtained for each research

question.

How did instructors motivate their students to succeed in online learning?

How educators motivate students to learn is an important issue in distance learning. We received varied answers, but everyone agreed that the classes should be interesting and fun so that students do not lose their motivation. In order to make the educational process interesting, the instructors tried to do their best (e.g., they applied the principle of cooperative learning; they gave students playful tasks; they tried to follow the principle of less theory – more practice; they made brief notes on the material to be studied for their students). They sought to maintain positive relationships with their students. After all, as Simonson et al. (2000) have found, a good teacher–student relationship is also an important factor in motivating a student to learn.

What was the biggest challenge for instructors in assessing their students during distance learning?

For most educators, clearly assessing student performance was the biggest challenge, as they could not be sure whose performance was being assessed for a particular task: whether the performance was that student's or someone else's (e.g., a classmate's or friend's) if they had help with the solution to a task. Also a problem for several instructors was that marking and evaluating module papers written online was extremely time consuming. However, it was also gratifying that two instructors did not experience any problems when assessing students during distance learning.

Only a few respondents self-declared that they were able to effectively evaluate their students' performance in distance learning. This fact points to a serious shortcoming that needs to be addressed urgently (e.g., how to improve knowledge and skills of college instructors in this area).

How has distance learning affected students?

More than half of the educators believed that distance learning had a positive effect on introverted students or students with learning difficulties. We obtained a similar result for the last question of the questionnaire, which in a slightly different wording sought essentially the same answer. Based on this, it can be concluded that the educators believed that distance learning had a positive effect on introverted students.

The views of the instructors on the feasibility of differentiated education online were also divided. Several instructors were of the opinion that it is possible to teach in a differentiated way with the help of different online applications, namely, by creating small groups of students with different levels of knowledge and adapting tasks purposefully for them. It follows from all this that differentiated education can be easily implemented in higher education through various online applications in such a way that educators give or ask differentiated learning material in groups according to proficiency levels.

Summary and Pedagogical Implications

Distance learning was new to all the instructors participating in our survey.

The transition from face-to-face to distance education took place so abruptly in March 2020 that instructors did not even have time to “be surprised” by the difficulties caused by the new situation. They needed clear and direct guidance. They were greatly helped to do their job more effectively by being given a concrete proposal on which digital platform to use in distance learning. However, it can be concluded that there is clearly a huge need for further training of college instructors in the methodology and techniques needed for distance education. The first pedagogical implication, based on the obtained research results, is that educators must develop their digital knowledge and skills for application to distance learning.

The instructors in this study highlighted motivation, assessment, involvement of students with learning difficulties in the learning process, and copying or receiving forbidden help as particularly problematic issues in distance learning. Regarding personal well-being, instructors highlighted that they thought students could easily get tired, while they themselves complained that the preparation time for classes was much longer in distance learning. On several occasions, the quality of the internet connection was found to be poor, resulting in unequal access for students (e.g., one internet service provider had better network quality than another). Thus, students who had a lower quality internet connection were disadvantaged because they received the information late or were unable to meet the requirements on time, which frustrated them, and the difficulty for instructors in such cases was how they communicated and interacted with their students. Addressing problems related to internet access (e.g., poor quality service, slow internet, and possible blackouts) is outside the scope of pedagogy; however, it is again clear that teachers need to address self-improvement in terms of proficiency in distance learning methods. Based on this, our second implication is closely related to the first: We believe that it is worthwhile, for example, to participate in MOOCs on teaching students in higher education, which are available free online. These should address the issues that have caused distance teaching problems for educators, and knowledge in these areas is essential for distance education:

- Promoting student motivation
- Student evaluation
- Developing student autonomy
- Protecting the physical and mental well-being of teachers and students

The results demonstrate that distance education has a positive effect on introverted students and students with learning difficulties. Hence the pedagogical implication that introverted students can be winners through online education, and it should be considered that they could continue their education in digital mode in the future if required.

Some of the instructors were suspicious of whether their students carried out the tasks assigned to them on their own or with external help. This mistrust led us to formulate another implication, namely, that educators should strive to build mutual trust with students in order to realize an effective educational process.

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The Benefits of Learner-Generated Photos for English Learners' Satisfaction and Engagement

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In line with the application of technology in the language classroom, this study proposed a ubiquitous learning strategy to enhance learners' satisfaction and engagement in speaking. Specifically, college students were allowed to use their mobile phones to capture photos of their surroundings based on given topics and practice speaking skills with those self-taken photos. The efficacy of this pedagogical method was measured by learners' satisfaction and their cognitive engagement, indicated by the self-regulated learning strategies used by learners. A single group of learners was put in two learning conditions: one with traditional textbook photos and the other with their self-regulated photos to compare and contrast. Results yielded positive effects of ubiquitous photos on enhancing learners' satisfaction and cognitive engagement in oral English tasks, leading to better learning outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary education has witnessed a shift in teaching focus. Pedagogical practice is now adapting learner-centered approaches, in which learners are the centerpiece of the classroom. In addition, besides ultimate learning outcomes, the learning process is drawing more attention. More specifically, learners' engagement in classroom activities is acknowledged as it enables a deeper level of processing (Wang et al., 2020). Moreover, learner affect, such as motivation and satisfaction, is also appreciated in course design, as it positively correlates with learning outcomes (Goria et al., 2016). Instead of being treated as passive recipients learning mainly by memorizing, learners are given more active roles in the classroom. They are also encouraged to actively get involved in the learning process (Mayer, 2009). This practice is essential to the language classroom, which has long been described as being too rigid, boring, and disengaging its learners (Laakkonen, 2011).

As human beings were not designed to spend hours surrounded by walls, the aims of a good education should encourage learners to collaborate with others and explore new perspectives in an informal context beyond the classroom. These pedagogical innovations have been facilitated by the use of technology in education. However, the cost and anxiety of using technology, both by students and teachers, are the most common barriers to implementing technology (Welsh et al., 2013). In addition, language teachers whose digital literacy is more or less at the basic level (Dashtestani, 2014; Milliner & Cote, 2018) usually exhibit

resistance to technological applications that are too technical (Lim-Fei & Tan, 2017).

To fill the gap, besides computer systems, mobile phones have been introduced into education in general and into the language classroom in particular (Viberg & Grönlund, 2012). In addition to being portable, they reduce resistance to the use of technology (Attewell, 2004). As a result, developing new applications for mobile-assisted language learning is drawing much attention. Furthermore, language teachers also need to apply innovatative technology and enhance student collaboration (Goria et al., 2016). Most importantly, along with learner-centered approaches, technology use also positions learners at the center of the classroom. Regardless of what form of technology is applied, it should capture learners' interest to arouse motivation and drive their engagement in the tasks (Goria et al., 2016). Therefore, technology-enhanced teaching should consider learners' needs, preferences, and psychological perspectives (Mayer, 2009).

In line with the educational trend sketched above, this study proposes a teaching/learning strategy that includes learners' perceptions of the learning process using mobile phones to conduct ubiquitous learning. Specifically, learners are encouraged to take photographs of their surroundings based on their perceptions and preferences. These learners' self-taken photos are treated as the learning material for oral English class to replace textbook photos. By assigning learners a participatory role and considering their interest in the learning process, this teaching strategy is expected to encourage students to cognitively engage in the learning process and enhance their learning experience. This study aims to seek the answers to the following two questions:

RQ1. Does ubiquitous photography enhance learners' satisfaction in speaking tasks?
RQ2. Does ubiquitous photography enhance learners' engagement in speaking tasks?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ubiquitous Learning

The learning scenario that includes learners' contexts and encourages them to interact with their surroundings is referred to as *ubiquitous learning* (*u-learning*). Evolving from m-learning, u-learning in this paper is defined as "anywhere and anytime learning … where the learning environment allows students to access content in any location at any time, no matter whether wireless communications or mobile devices are employed or not" (Hwang et al., 2008, p. 83). This definition differentiates u-learning from mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), as it highlights that the epicenter of u-learning is not the development of mobile applications. Instead, it focuses on the inclusion of context and the expansion of learning activities to learners' environments. Acknowledging its innovations and potential, u-learning is well-explored from numerous perspectives in educational domains (Peña-Ayala, 2016). In particular, researchers conducted u-learning by gamification or photography to expose learners to authentic,

immersive experiences (Cárdenas-Robledo & Peña-Ayala, 2018; Hwang & Chen, 2017; Joo-Nagata et al., 2017). However, the use of ubiquitous learning in FL teaching and learning is still in its infancy.

Notwithstanding the limited number of studies in the language education domain, ubiquitous learning is meaningful to FL teaching. This approach considers the FL learners' behaviors and real-world factors, which ultimately boosts the learning efficacy, as learners can easily make connections between the new knowledge and their prior knowledge of familiar contexts (Shadiev et al., 2020). Specifically, new knowledge is learned more efficiently and retained longer when it is connected to prior knowledge (Gay, 2018). In addition, prior knowledge is fundamental, as it drives students' comprehension of course content, which causes variations in their outcomes. In this vein, u-learning enables FL instructors to develop effective methods and materials. It facilitates context familiarity, which enhances learners' motivation, engagement, and language learning outcomes (Shadiev et al., 2020). For language teachers, their pedagogical practice aims to make their learners focus on the tasks, concentrate and think deeply about their work, and emotionally invest in the learning process (Mercer, 2019). Therefore, learner engagement and their satisfaction with the method are central to this study.

Learner Engagement

Engagement is frequently employed to talk broadly about learners' interest and participation in an activity (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Regardless of its history, engagement is one of the most-researched topics in the field of educational psychology (Mercer, 2019). This attention comes from the evidence that high levels of student engagement correlate with desirable educational outcomes, namely higher achievement, self-efficacy, motivation, and interest (Mercer, 2019). For second language learning, the aphorism of communicative approaches is "learning through use," which emphasizes the learners' active participation in meaningful L2 interaction (Mercer, 2019). As such, this puts learner engagement at the heart of successful language learning.

Although there are various definitions of engagement, the consensus is that engagement is a multifaceted construct with multiple dimensions. One of the most widely used definitions is "a meta-construct that includes behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement" (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012, p. 764). There are large bodies of empirical research on behavioral (i.e., time on task), emotional (i.e., interest and value), and cognitive engagement (i.e., self-regulation and learning strategies). Early studies observed student behaviors as indicators of engagement (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012). However, as teachers, we do not want to have obedient students who just "play the game" as requested but do not cognitively commit to the tasks (Mercer, 2019). In other words, learners may behaviourally engage in the learning as exhibited by their activities, but this does not guarantee that they are cognitively engaged in the deep processing of information (Wang et al., 2020). It necessitates the need to pay attention to unobservable aspects of engagement, namely emotional and cognitive engagement. While emotional engagement is the precursor of cognitive engagement, being cognitively engaged is the prerequisite for deeper material processing, which correlates with academic

achievement.

Emotional engagement covers learners' interest, value, and affect (Mercer, 2019). Learning satisfaction has been seen as superior in terms of affect, defined by the level of joy one feels when learning (Topala & Tomozii, 2014). Cognitive engagement is defined as a student's level of investment in learning and the use of deep strategies to assist their learning. It includes being thoughtful, strategic, and willing to exert the necessary effort to comprehend complex ideas or master difficult skills (Fredricks et al., 2004). As such, cognitive engagement is usually measured by self-regulation and strategies used to complete a task.

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

Self-regulated learning (SRL) is regarded as a kind of complex human activity done by students, such as goal-setting, planning, organizing, strategy use, self-monitoring, and feedback-seeking (Low & Jin, 2012). When learners demonstrate a high level of metacognitive awareness and strategy use, self-regulatory activities can enhance information processing.

In the light of this notion of SRL, the heart of SRL is learning strategies, and some researchers even equate execution of learning strategies with self-regulated learning (Braun et al., 2012). Learning strategies can be defined as "individual approaches that learners employ to accomplish academic tasks or improve their social skills" (Simsek, 2012, p. 1971). In the language learning domain, learning strategies are "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). Learning strategies are important, as individuals who take a more strategic approach learn more rapidly and effectively than individuals who do not. Self-regulated strategic learners are assumed to know various learning strategies, employ suitable strategies to attain their learning goals, and flexibly adapt their choice of strategies to the task and learning context (Lee et al., 2010).

Learner engagement and self-regulated learning strategies have focused on SLA research to help instructors understand why some students are successful in school while others are not. In addition, researchers usually use engagement to measure the efficacy of education or specific pedagogical practices (Grant et al., 2018; Han, 2017; Zhang, 2020). Regarding learner-generated content, engagement is also a popular variable to measure the efficacy of the treatment (Dong et al., 2020; Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Stull & Mayer, 2007). In general, results yielded that students engaged more with all aspects of L2 use during class time when involved in learner-generated activities than for teacher-generated activities and materials.

A wide range of measurements was adapted to examine learner engagement, depending on the perspective or purposes of the studies, in which self-regulated strategies were regarded as fitting indicators of cognitive engagement (Zhou et al., 2021) and were widely used in the literature (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). In addition, learner satisfaction was also used to measure learner attitudes toward the learning condition, especially in the domain of technology-enhanced learning (Gray & DiLoreto, 2016; Ku et al., 2013; Rajabalee & Santally, 2020).

Ubiquitous learning can enhance learner engagement, especially with the use

of communicative tasks. This study aims to explore the efficacy of ubiquitous learning in English speaking. The effectiveness is measured by learner satisfaction with the treatment as an indicator of emotional engagement and self-regulated strategies as an indicator of cognitive engagement.

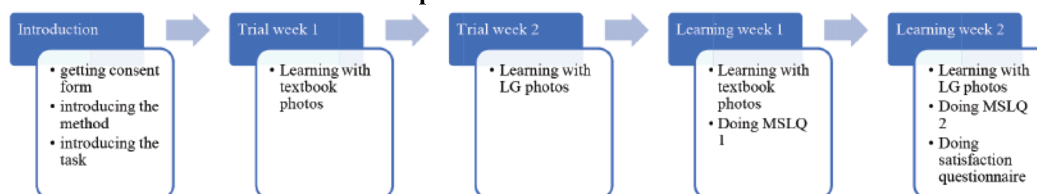
METHOD

This study employed a mixed-methods design to examine the effects of learner-generated photos created by ubiquitous photography. Details of the design are presented below.

Procedure

Given that pre-training is essential, the experiment took place over five weeks. The first week was the introductory week, in which students were introduced to the course content, methods, and requirements. They were also guided on how to produce learner-generated (LG) photos. The introduction was followed by two trial weeks of pre-training. Data was collected in the next two weeks. An illustration of the procedure is as shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1. The Procedure for the Experiment



Participants and Task Description

The participants were recruited from a single class and were exposed to two learning conditions to minimize the variations in terms of individual differences. There were 22 college students, B1 level (CEFR), involved in this study. They were participating in a test preparation course. The pedagogical method was applied to speaking sessions, especially Task 3 of the First Certificate Examination. This task is a speaking task with prompts in which learners have to describe, and compare and contrast two photos on the same topic. In both conditions, the instructor applied the same teaching method, and the only difference was the types of materials used.

Materials

This study used two types of materials: textbook-provided photos, taken from *Solutions* (Pre-intermediate, 1st ed., Oxford University Press, 2010), and learner-generated photos. In the latter condition, learners were given a topic, and they used their mobile phones to take photos of their surroundings based on their perceptions and preferences.

Measurements

Course Satisfaction

A questionnaire was adapted from Wang et al. (2020), including two rating questions and an open-ended question to elicit students to explain why they preferred one of the two learning modes.

Cognitive Engagement

This aspect was measured by the Learning Strategies Scales section, taken from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ; Pintrich et al., 1991), which is the most popular tool to measure cognitive engagement (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012). There are three general types of scales: cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management. Cognitive strategies consist of students' use of basic and complex strategies for the processing of information from texts and lectures. Metacognitive strategies are measured by one large subscale, including the use of strategies that help students control and regulate their own cognition, including planning, monitoring, and regulating. Resource management is the way students make use of their assets to support their learning. The instruments of this study are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Description of Instruments

Measurements	Instruments	Type
Course Satisfaction	Adapted questionnaire: *"I am satisfied with the material."* *"I am satisfied with the learning session."*	7-point Likert scale
	Students' elaboration	Open-ended question
Cognitive Engagement	Learning Strategies Scales (MSLQ) - Cognitive strategies: Rehearsal, elaboration, organization, critical thinking - Metacognitive strategies: Planning, monitoring, and regulating - Resources management: Managing one's time and study environment, regulation of one's effort, peer learning, and help-seeking	7-point Likert scale

Data Analysis

Cronbach's alpha was computed to examine the reliability of the questionnaires. All questionnaires recorded high levels of reliability, as shown in Table 2. A descriptive analysis was run to explore the variations of learners' strategies used in the two learning conditions. Then, a paired-samples t test was conducted to see if there were any significant differences in each subscale of strategies. Regarding qualitative data, thematic coding was applied to examine learner attitudes.

TABLE 2. Reliability of Questionnaires

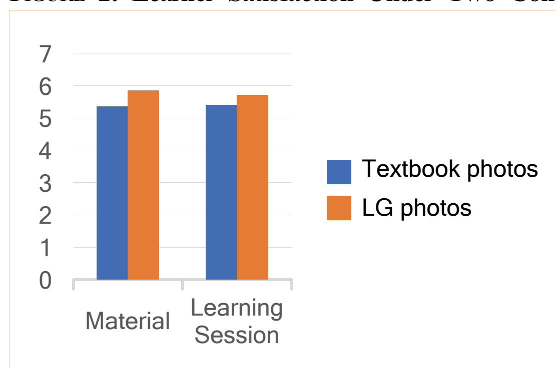
Questionnaires	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Learner Satisfaction	4	.765
MSLQ – Textbook photos	50	.883
MSLQ – Learner-generated photos	50	.912

RESULTS

Learner Satisfaction

In general, satisfaction with LG photos outweighed that of textbook photos, although these differences were not statistically significant (see Figure 2). Specifically, as for satisfaction with learning materials, learners preferred learning with their LG photos (*M* = 5.85, *SD* = .98) than with textbook photos (*M* = 5.35, *SD* = .94). The general satisfaction with the learning session witnessed a similar pattern. Learners were more satisfied when they learned with LG photos (*M* = 5.71, *SD* = .81) than with textbook photos (*M* = 5.40, *SD* = .84).

FIGURE 2. Learner Satisfaction Under Two Conditions



Learner Elaborations

Learner satisfaction with the learning condition was also analyzed to examine the underlying reasons for their preferences. In general, they preferred learning with their LG photos because they felt that they were "more engaged in the tasks," which was exhibited by the feeling of "more interaction" in the LG photo condition. In addition, they appreciated the "familiarity of the photos," and they loved that condition as they "can choose/decide my own photos." The teacher's scaffolding and instruction did not affect their preferences.

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

The self-regulated learning strategies were measured to determine if there were any differences in the use of learning strategies, from which we can discern the level of cognitive engagement. A paired-samples *t* test was conducted to

compare SRL strategies in textbook photos and LG photos conditions. Generally speaking, LG photos encourage students to apply more SRL strategies and are noted as producing higher scores in most subscales. It is worth pointing out that there was a significant difference in the scores of peer learning strategies with LG photos (M = 5.01, SD = 1.01) and textbook photos (M = 4.15, SD = 1.12); $t(21)$ = 4.18, p = .000, showing that LG photos facilitated a significantly greater level of peer learning strategies. Conversely, regarding effort regulation, there was a significant difference in the scores for LG photo conditions (M = 4.65, SD = .85) and textbook photo conditions (M = 5.01, SD = .88); $t(21)$ = -2.35, p = 0.029, implying that students had to exert a significantly greater level of effort regulation in learning with textbook photos. In addition, they also applied more critical thinking strategies when learning with LG photos (M = 4.77, SD = .80) compared with learning with textbook photos (M = 4.40, SD = 1.03), though this level of difference was just marginally significant ($t(21)$ = 1.72, p = .098). The results of the paired-samples t test are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Results of Paired-Samples *t* Test Comparing SRL Strategies in Two Conditions

Strategies	Textbook Photos	LG Photos	*p* value
	Mean (*SD*)	Mean (*SD*)	
Rehearsal	4.89 (.82)	4.92 (.85)	.844
Elaboration	4.88 (.88)	4.89 (.79)	.972
Organization	4.75 (1.07)	4.58 (.94)	.246
Critical thinking	4.40 (1.03)	4.77 (.80)	**.098**
Metacognitive self-regulation	4.61 (.48)	4.72 (.61)	.168
Time study and environment management	5.05 (.71)	5.01 (.75)	.846
Effort regulation	5.01 (.88)	4.65 (.85)	**.029** *
Peer learning	4.15 (1.12)	5.01 (1.01)	**.000** *
Help seeking	4.83 (1.00)	4.86 (.72)	.864

Note. Significant at p < .05.

DISCUSSION

In general, LG photos enhanced learner satisfaction with the learning session as well as their cognitive engagement. These results concur with previous studies, showing that learner-generated materials based on their preferences and perceptions helped improve their L2 skills as well as psychological aspects (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Wang et al., 2020).

The LG photos had significant effects in facilitating peer learning in the FL classroom. This implies that the LG photos fostered collaboration and interaction, two crucial factors moderating learning outcomes in the FL classroom (Loewen & Sato, 2019).

The statistical results also revealed that learners had to apply more effort regulation strategies when learning with textbook photos, which occurs when

facing difficult or boring tasks. This result showed that they felt bored when learning with textbook photos. In other words, learning with ubiquitous self-taken photos boosted their interest and motivation in learning. It also complied with the results of learner satisfaction with learning conditions. This phenomenon was consistent with previous studies on ubiquitous learning and learner-generated materials (Cárdenas-Robledo & Peña-Ayala, 2018; Shadiev et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020).

The qualitative data demonstrate the effects of the change in material use. In other words, variations in SRL strategy use and satisfaction levels were caused by the difference in material use only. None of the participants mentioned teacher's instruction in their elaborations. In addition, qualitative responses also indicated a sense of learner autonomy, as the learners prefered to play a decisive role in choosing materials.

Conclusions

This small-scale study supports an appreciation of the role of learners in instructional design. Specifically, LG materials were shown to enhance learners' satisfaction and cognitive engagement in the tasks, determining factors for successful learning.

The results indicate that empowering learners with a more active role in the learning process will positively affect psychological factors. However, besides satisfaction and engagement, learning outcomes should also be measured to estimate and reinforce the efficacy of this approach.

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Parents' Readiness for Home-Based Learning in Rural Sarawak

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The COVID-19 pandemic has caused all public institutions in Malaysia to close for face-to-face interactions for the second time from November 9 until December 18, 2020. Home-based learning (HBL) was introduced in place of face-to-face interaction in the schools. Teachers were given the freedom to choose the online, offline, or offsite methods to deliver the teaching and learning content to students. This research aims to determine the guiding ability, electronic equipment readiness, and internet availability for HBL. A total of 513 participants (parents) from a rural primary school in Kapit, Sarawak, in Malaysia took part in this research. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect the data from the participants. The results showed that 81.5% (M = 4.2) of the parents were ready to guide their children's work during the HBL. However, the rate of submitting the assigned homework was disappointing, at only 61.3%.

Introduction

The unprecedented pandemic has caused all public schools in Malaysia to close for face-to-face interaction for fear of infection. Since then, teaching and learning have been conducted online. An initial survey of the school closure by the Malaysian Ministry of Education (MOE) in April 2020, which involved close to 900,000 students, indicated that 37% did not own any electronic devices. Of the 37%, 50.5% of the students were primary students while 49.5% were secondary students. While 63% of the students owned electronic devices, only 6–9% of the students owned a personal computer or a tablet. For those households with a personal computer, many had to share with other household members for work or study. Among all electronic devices, smartphones stood at the highest percentage of ownership at 46% (Chan, 2020).

The Chan survey gives a clear picture of device ownership among students in Malaysia. Using the data, the Malaysian government released a manual for Home-Based Learning (HBL) on October 2, 2020, and a revised version in 2021. Taking into account device ownership, teachers can choose from the three modes of teaching and learning the mode that best suits the students' situations and electronic equipment ownership (MOE, 2021). However, the data collected is not sufficient to ensure successful HBL. Younger students need a lot of support and guidance from parents as they may not be independent and self-directed learners (Wai-Cook, 2020). Therefore, parents need to be able and ready to assist their children during HBL.

Research Objectives

This study aims to discover parents' ability to guide children, electronic device readiness, and internet accessibility for HBL in a rural school in Sarawak, Malaysia. The second objective is to find out the percentages of student participation in HBL in a rural school in Sarawak, Malaysia. Accordingly, the research questions were as follows:

RQ1. What is the parents' readiness for HBL in a rural school in Sarawak, considering guiding ability, electronic device availability, and internet accessibility?
RQ2. What is the participation rate of students in an HBL program in a rural school in Sarawak?

Literature Review

Malaysian Home-Based Learning Manual

According to the latest Malaysian home-based learning manual released in 2021, HBL is where teaching and learning are being done at home or at any community center, or at any other suitable location. The basic principles of HBL are leaving behind no students in learning, fulfilling basic teaching, and emphasizing students' social and economic well-being. In the manual, there are three modes of teaching and learning to choose from.

Teachers can choose online, offline, and offsite modes to suit the needs of the students. The online mode can be used if the students have strong internet access and devices that allow students to learn through real-time modes. With this mode, teachers can use YouTube, live-streaming, and online games. The offline mode is for students who do not have internet access but own electronic devices. Learning materials can be given using the medium of video or audio, notes, or exercises, and so on that they can be downloaded when there is an internet connection. The last mode is offsite. The offsite mode is where teaching and learning take place in a community center or an evacuation center (MOE, 2021).

Parents' Readiness

Parents play important roles in guiding and supporting primary school students for a successful HBL. Duristic and Bunijevac (2017) stated that active parents' involvement in a child's education is consistently positively associated with a child's academic performance. When guiding for HBL, parents face extra challenges to closely guide their children and encourage them to become self-directed learners (Gan & Bilige, 2019).

Parents' Guiding Ability

Parents who can guide their children serve as an indication of successful HBL. Research reveals that children's well-being and academic achievement rely heavily on parental guidance (Gan & Bilige, 2019). In HBL, parental guidance is essential to help children navigate online learning platforms (Mora & Escardibul, 2018).

Many primary students are unfamiliar with digital technologies like setting up Google Classroom or troubleshooting issues independently. In such a situation, students need the assistance of parents, as they still cannot carry out HBL alone. Besides, parents' who have higher education and greater guidance ability can ensure children's learning during HBL.

Electronic Device Ownership

Besides parental guidance, the ownership of electronic equipment is essential. In research done by the Khazanah Research Institute, many poorer households face financial constraints, especially with increased unemployment making it a priority to cover basic needs over purchasing digital devices and gaining access to the internet (Hawati & Jarud, 2020). Among the three modes of HBL, two of them use electronic devices. For students, this has made electronic equipment a must and not a choice. With the highest ownership of electronic devices being smartphones, teachers use the most common device to deliver their lessons.

Internet Availability

Having electronic equipment is not enough for HBL. Reliable internet access is also a prerequisite for a smooth and effective e-learning process. In 2019, the fixed broadband penetration rate providing faster and more reliable connectivity was only approximately 8%. Malaysia still has infrastructure shortcomings. The lack of fiber optic networks slows the internet speed and undermines connectivity in the country. Connectivity is now more urgent to ensure the successful implementation of the National Fiberisation and Connectivity Plan, given our increasing dependence on high-quality internet access in all aspects of life (Hawati & Jerud, 2020).

Aside from the hassle of having good internet access, internet data in Malaysia is not free. Students have to purchase their internet data. The free 1GB mobile data provided daily by the government is not enough to support heavy video streaming or class teleconferencing, which exhausts data quickly (Hawati & Jerud, 2020).

Methodology

Data Collection and Instruments

This study's research questions are to discover more about parents' ability to guide children and their readiness for HBL. Survey research is a quantitative research method involving standardized questionnaires or interviews to collect data about people and their preferences, thoughts, and behaviors in a systematic manner (Creswell, 2014). The questionnaire for this study was distributed through Google Forms or in a paper-based format. The distribution of the questionnaire was carried out for five days from November 13 to 17, 2020, with 513 participants participating. There were four sections to the questionnaire: (a) demographics, (b) internet accessibility, (c) electronic device readiness, and (d) parents' guidance

ability. There were 16 items on the questionnaire. Seven items on parents' guidance ability were assessed using a 5-point Likert scale, which consisted of *strongly disagree*, *disagree*, *neutral*, *agree*, and *strongly agree*. Seven questions in sections (b) and (c) were dichotomous items that required a yes/no answer. There was one open-ended question each in sections (b) and (c).

Participants

The type of sampling applied in this study was purposeful sampling, which involved sampling strategies such that subgroups were chosen based on specified criteria, and a sample of cases was then selected within these strata. Purposeful sampling is widely used in qualitative research to identify and choose information-rich cases (Bernard, 2002). In this research, the participants were parents or guardians in one rural primary school in Kapit, Sarawak. A total of 513 participants participated in this survey.

Data Analysis

The data obtained through the survey were analyzed using mixed-method designs, which involved qualitative and quantitative data methods. A quantitative approach was employed to analyze the 5-point Likert scale and dichotomous questions. The 5-point Likert scale responses were analyzed using mean values and evaluated from *very low level* to *very high level,* while simple percentages were used for dichotomous questions. For the two open-ended questions, thematic analysis was used to analyze the responses. The data from the survey were coded and categorized to determine emerging themes.

Ethical Consideration

Ethical consideration was ensured throughout the survey. The participants were given an informed consent message via a social media platform and were asked to volunteer for the study understanding all the rights of withdrawal and refusal. There was no data sought that could reveal participants' direct identity such as name, telephone number, address, area, or national identification number.

Results

Table 1 highlights the education level of the participating parents. The highest percentage of the participants finished high school (40.4%), while those holding a master's degree was the lowest (1%). However, the data also shows that 17% of the parents had only finished primary school, and 9.7% had not completed their primary education. Based on the data, it can be concluded that the majority of participants' education level is at least high school.

TABLE 1. Participants' Education Level

Year 6	Middle School	High School	Sixth Form	Diploma	Undergraduate Degree	Master's Degree	Not Finishing Primary School
87	47	207	52	50	47	5	50
17%	9.2%	40.4%	10.1%	9.7%	9.2%	1%	9.7%

Table 2 shows the mean value from the 5-point Likert scale questions on parents' guidance ability for four core subjects that are being offered in the school curriculum. Item 1 asked about their willingness to guide their children during HBL. The results showed that the participants had a very high level of agreement on assisting their children at home with their homework (M = 4.20). Items 2 and 3 were on their confidence in the Malay and English languages. Participants showed a high level of confidence in the Malay language with a very high level of confidence (M = 4.60) but only a medium level of confidence in the English language (M = 3.28).

Items 4 to 7 were on parents' guidance ability on their children's core subjects, namely Malay language, English language, science, and mathematics. The results showed the parents' ability was high to very high for Malay language, mathematics, and science subjects, with a mean value of 4.20, 3.71, and 3.43, respectively, but only a medium level for the English language (M = 3.08).

Based on the seven items on parents' guidance ability during HBL, parents were highly ready to guide their children in Malay language subjects but not those in the English language.

TABLE 2. Parents' Guidance Ability

No.	Item	Mean
1	Parents are willing to guide and teach their children at home.	4.20
2	Parents can understand English.	3.28
3	Parents can understand Malay Language.	4.60
4	Parents can explain Science concepts to their children in English or Malay Language with confidence.	3.43
5	Parents can explain English concepts to their children with confidence.	3.08
6	Parents can explain Mathematics concept to their children in English or Malay language with confidence	3.71
7	Parents can explain Malay language concept to their children with confidence.	4.20

In the electronic device readiness section of the survey, dichotomous questions were employed. The results showed that 46.6% of the participants had their own personal electronic devices. Also, 53.4% of the students had to share electronic devices with their parents or other siblings. Most of the respondents (78%) had a smartphone, while 21% did not have at least a smartphone. Based on the data, participants were not device-ready for HBL (see Table 3).

TABLE 3. Electronic Device Readiness

Electronic Equipment Readiness	Yes	No
1. Does your child have a personal electronic device?	46.6%	53.4%
2. Does your child have to share their electronic device during HBL?	53.4%	46.6%
3. Do you have a laptop or a smartphone?	78.0%	21.0%

In the internet accessibility section, Item 1 showed that a good percentage of the participants had internet accessibility at home (86%), and 14% of the participants did not have any internet access at home. Item 2 also showed a high percentage of participants having at least 3GB of internet data (more than 80%). Based on the data, the participants had high internet availability and sufficient data plans (see Table 4).

TABLE 4. Internet Accessibility

Internet Accessibility	Yes	No
1. Can you get internet access at home?	86%	14%
2. Do you have an internet plan of at least 3GB?	82%	18%

Table 5 shows the themes and subthemes obtained from the two open-ended questions. The two questions were designed for the participants to state any problems they experienced related to equipment readiness and internet accessibility.

Four significant themes and ten subthemes emerged from the analysis of the 450 responses. Among the 513 participants, 87.7% stated that they struggled with equipment readiness and/or internet availability. A frequent theme that emerged was having problems with internet connectivity (69.22%), with slow or no internet access. The second most common problem was having to share devices (15.56%).

Third in line was the theme of other problems (2.45%). The subthemes of insufficient income and digital literacy contributed to the highest percentages for the theme (0.89% each). Of the participants, 2.22% did not have a good internet data plan for HBL. From the themes, it was found that students of the participants were not ready for HBL in terms of electronic equipment and internet connectivity.

TABLE 5. Problems Associated with Device Readiness and Internet Accessibility

Themes	Subthemes	Percentages
1. Internet Connectivity	Slow	24.22%
	No	45.00%
2. Internet Data Plan	Not sufficient	2.22%
3. Equipment Problems	The smartphone model is not suitable for HBL	4.09%
	No device	1.75%
	Sharing devices with other siblings	15.56%
	Insufficient equipment	14.89%
4. Other Problems	Insufficient income	0.89%
	Digital literacy	0.89%
	Time constraints	0.67%

Discussion

Based on the results of the research and analysis, parents were ready in terms of guiding ability with the total average mean of 3.78. However, parents were not tech-ready yet: 87.7% of the parents had some form of problem associated with devices or internet connectivity. Only 61.3% of the students submitted their HBL homework. The reasons for this problem can be divided into parents' education level, internet availability, and insufficient support from parents.

Despite 9.7% of the parents not finishing their primary schooling, they were still ready to assist their children. In Indonesian research by Dini and Rosyidamanyani (2020), for parents with a high educational background, internet access, and available electronic devices, giving support was found to be easier. With the the change of instructional language for science and mathematics to the English language from Malay (Wong, 2020), it would be better to have a higher education level.

Parents with higher education emphasized children's education and influenced their children's mindset and educational orientation. With limited education, some participants in this survey had low confidence in understanding English, which eventually affects their guidance ability for English language subjects. Little education may also explain the 0.89% of participants who face digital literacy difficulties, as the education application mainly uses the English language.

Besides the challenges of guidance, participants also encountered several obstacles, such as time constraints. Parents in Indonesia also face similar problems: parents' lack of understanding of the materials, difficulties in growing interest, motivation to teach their children, and insufficient time to help with children's learning projects. Parents have to work, lack patience, lack facilities, and experience difficulty using electronics and internet connection services (Dini & Rosyidamayani, 2020).

It is not surprising that the most serious problem among the participants was internet connectivity, as rural Sarawak has been deprived of good internet access. In a study done by Nuurrianti Jalli (2020) from April 15 to May 30 on East Malaysia internet satisfaction, 63.1% who mostly lived in small towns and rural areas stated their dissatisfaction. Of them, 31% had to leave home to look for stable internet access, while 14.6% did not have internet access at home (Zaheera, 2020). The Khazanah Research Institute also added that children of low-income families are at a disadvantage, as they cannot afford to top up their data more frequently (Hawati & Jarud, 2020). Thus, it is not surprising that 2.22% of the participants stated that they have insufficient data plans and that 69.22% had slow and no internet access.

Even though parents were ready for HBL, the percentage of homework submission was disappointing at 61.3%. In an Australian report, students in regional and rural areas were less likely to complete work online even with a teacher's support. It is important to note that not all parents had equal confidence and the ability to provide substantial educational support for their children. Children who are unsupervised by parents face obvious educational difficulties during home learning (Fahey & Joseph, 2020).

Conclusions

Teachers in this research project can choose to use Mode 1 (online) or Mode 2 (offline) to deliver their lessons, while a small number of students in this school need Mode 3 (offsite). The HBL module is designed to meet the needs of different situations in Malaysia. The freedom of teachers to choose which mode they wish to use makes it easier to accommodate students. The data also show that Mode 3 is still needed for students to learn, as there are many rural areas such as those in Sarawak that do not enjoy stable internet access. For HBL to be successful, internet connectivity is the most important criterion, followed by equipment availability. As of April 2021, all red zone schools were closed for HBL 4.0 and were predicted to have HBL 5.0.

The Author

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Dual-Mode Teaching: Challenges and Opportunities for ELT Teachers

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In 2020, COVID-19 pushed tertiary education in Macao to change dramatically: first, from face-to-face teaching to completely online teaching, and in the second half of the year, to face-to-face cum online teaching. This has posted challenges for all educators, and this sudden and immediate change has especially impacted ELT classrooms. Through in-depth interviews with six EFL/ESL teachers at a tertiary institution in Macao, this study looks, from the teachers' perspective, at the difficulties and challenges teachers faced in adapting to the changes, the solutions they found to cope with the unprecedented demands, and their suggestions for future ELT classrooms. The impact of COVID-19 will hopefully subside soon, yet the revolution in the way to teach English as a second/foreign language at the tertiary level has just begun.

Introduction

COVID-19 has created a threat to the whole human race and has brought on changes in almost all aspects of life, education included. For most places, students have been having to receive online education at home. Macao, one of the two Special Administrative Regions (SAR) of China, has been lucky enough to have the situation under control and has prevented the spread of the virus in this city.

When the threat from this unknown virus started in December 2019, the Macao SAR Government paid close attention. As the spread of the disease did not seem to cease, the Government demanded that all residents observe strict hygiene rules, including the wearing of face masks and temperature measurement before entering a premise. Even stricter rules were added later on in February. Most public services were closed and even the business that never sleeps had to take a rest – all casinos were closed for two weeks ("Coronavirus: Macau to Close Casinos," 2020). However, the impact would be unimaginably overwhelming if learning had to be halted for an indefinite period of time. Educational institutions at all levels looked for alternative ways to make teaching and learning possible from one's own home. The tertiary institutions were the first ones to resume studies. Various video-conferencing software and apps were considered for this purpose, and our institution adopted Zoom. The entire faculty had to learn about and try to use this platform for teaching in a short time. As a result, the Spring semester resumed in February, completely online. It was unprecedented.

While learning had to go nearly completely online in the first half of the year, local students were finally allowed to return to campus for classes in August,

when the city had been free from new cases of COVID for more than 50 days, as the 46th patient was discharged from the hospital on July 17, 2020 ("46th COVID-19 Patient Discharged," 2020), and no new cases had been reported. However, while students in Macao could return to campus to continue with their studies, the non-local students, who were not able to return to Macao due to a travel ban, needed to be allowed to continue with their studies as well. To cope with the demands from both types of students, higher education institutions had to find a solution. Our institution decided to have lessons done simultaneously in two ways – face-to-face classroom teaching and online teaching at the same time, which in this study is referred to as "dual-mode" teaching.

It could probably be said that this dual-mode teaching was unprecedented. While teaching could take place either in the classroom, online, or in blending learning mode, most teachers had never had to deal with students online and in the classroom at the same time. This study aimed to explore the English teachers' views on this new way of teaching, the challenges they encountered, and the opportunities this new teaching mode can present.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teacher's Role

Teachers play a very important role in education. They help students learn and acquire knowledge systematically. Larsen-Freeman (2000) suggested that in the communicative classroom, the teacher's role is that of a facilitator, setting up tasks and allowing students to interact and learn. That is to say, teachers design a series of activities to guide students to learn, and they show students how to learn. Archana and Usha Rani (2016) listed the English teacher's roles as a learner, facilitator, assessor, manager, and evaluator. To conduct a class, an English teacher has to perform multiple tasks in facilitating students' learning. These include designing appropriate assessment to match the course objectives, and during the lessons, managing the class and giving fair evaluation of students' performance. Nevertheless, above all these, an English teacher has to be a good learner. It is imperative to learn to adapt to changes and learn to adjust teaching methodologies and use a variety of strategies. The authors have detailed the various responsibilities of an English teacher in students' learning experience and have highlighted "good learner" as the most significant role of a teacher. This was particularly true during the pandemic. Nearly all teachers had to adapt to the drastic changes and find new ways and strategies to teach. However, Collier-Meek et al. (2018) noticed that teachers found that balancing their own role in the classroom was a constant barrier. One other more important barrier reported was time management and the remembering of the proper time to implement intervention. As English teachers have to perform multiple roles in the classroom, the need to balance their roles could present pressure. Moreover, the need to manage the time while managing the students makes classroom management a constant challenge for teachers. During the pandemic, teachers had to balance their usual roles in the classroom with implementing new strategies and managing students both online and offline. The pressure could be paramount.

Classroom Management

Teachers are the managers of a class. Billingsley et al. (2018) regard classroom management as the foundation of effective teaching. To be able to teach in an effective manner, a teacher has to know how to manage the classroom. Brown and Lee (2015) suggested that the principles of classroom management have to be adhered to so as to establish effective language teaching. Such principles include the roles of teacher and students, clear goals, flexibility, degree of student autonomy, and classroom activities. Equally important are the teacher's open-mindedness to students' ideas, passion in teaching, and a positive attitude towards all students. The teacher should challenge stronger students as well as weaker students. In their study of ELT students' expectations of classroom management, Fowler and Sarapli (2006) found that students wanted their teachers to be enthusiastic about teaching English. This means that teachers' enthusiasm and confidence is positively related to effective classroom management. However, whether teachers' enthusiasm could be sensed by online students is currently unknown. Besides teachers' passion about teaching, Fowler and Sarapli noted that students also hoped to see fairness in teachers' assessment as well as their ability to use technology to teach. All these could add to the complexity of dual-mode teaching as these expectations would come from two different groups of students at the same time. Islam (2019) noted that today's classrooms are increasingly complex. Large class size and diverse student bodies can be a great challenge for teachers. Effective classroom management enhances learners' learning experience. The inclusion of online students in a physical classroom has just added another layer onto the complexity of the already complex classroom, making classroom management even more challenging. The quality of the relationship between teacher and student, and between student and student plays a crucial role in the classroom. As Scrivener (2012) mentioned, when rapport is established, the communication and interaction between the teacher and students can be optimized. In dual-mode teaching, ELT teachers had to adjust their ways to communicate with both groups of students. Ma (2009) listed three types of communicative activities: group discussion, simulation, and role-play. All these activities aim to cultivate interactivity among students. Yet, how these classroom activities are to be adjusted to include both classroom students and online students could be problematic for the ELT teacher.

Using ICT in ELT

Yang et al. (2020) stated that the use of ICT in and ELT classroom will become mainstream because of the benefits it brings, for example, contextualized lessons, increasing learning resources, and promoting learner autonomy. They urged that educational institutions have to ensure English teachers are well trained with ICT skills and corresponding teaching methodology. Moreover, classrooms have to be equipped with a strong internet connection and ICT facilities. At the same time, teachers should be acceptive of new technologies and adapt to changes. The appearance of COVID-19 has expedited the need for both classroom ICT upgrading and teachers' ICT skills. Alsied and Pathan (2013) suggested the use of ICT in language learning "offers other channels of

communication" between students in the classroom and students afar (p. 63). Moreover, it can help encourage students to take an active role in learning. Thus, students may be more willing to interact in the target language. Alsied and Pathan advised that the use of ICT in the various aspects of a course, such as planning, teaching, learning, assessing, and testing, have to be jointly considered to achieve optimal effectiveness.

Azmi's (2017) research suggested that the use of ICT in the EFL classroom enhances students' learning outcomes and their writing skills, but it is true only for more proficient students. Therefore, consideration for adapting materials for less proficient students is required to accommodate their learning needs. Azmi's claim may need further verification. However, if this is true, then having students' study online regardless of their level of English may in fact disadvantage the students.

During the pandemic, school learning has almost come to a standstill. Many people had to stay home. Office workers had to work from home. Students also had to suddenly learn to attend classes online. Likewise, teachers, the majority of whom were used to classroom teaching, had to learn to give lessons online. The balance of the teachers' role, the adjustment of classroom management, and the sudden increase in the use of ICT were all issues an ELT teacher had to manage instantaneously.

METHOD

This research was conducted in a tertiary institution in Macao where English is the medium of instruction. A qualitative approach was adopted in this study to obtain in-depth insights from the teachers' point of view, and a total of six EFL/ESL teachers, who have had their classes taught in dual-mode, were interviewed to examine the difficulties and challenges faced in adapting to the changes, the ways to cope with such changes, and their suggestions for future ELT classrooms following the outbreak of COVID-19. These six teachers were given pseudonyms in this study for reasons of anonymity and confidentiality.

A semi-structured interview was used so that participants could share their ideas in a similar way to an open interview. It allowed interviewees to provide the authors with the flexibility to look into aspects that may arise unexpectedly in detail during the interview process where motivations and experiences could be looked at in depth (Heigham & Croker, 2009). The interviews were audio-recorded in person with interview time ranging from 25 to 30 minutes. The interview was comprised of 15 questions that investigated the teachers' ways of handling challenges, engaging students, and running their classes with dual-mode teaching.

The interviews were transcribed for analysis, and once transcribed, the answers were grouped into themes that exhibited similar ideas, coded, and then interpreted with a focus on how often a certain theme/idea was mentioned by the six teachers.

RESULTS

The results obtained in this study are broken down into the following seven parts: (a) challenges, (b) added pressure, (c) teacher's focus, (d) rapport and interaction, (e) grading, (f) anonymity, and finally (g) the future of dual-mode teaching.

Challenges

In general, the challenges encountered by the six teachers were similar. Many of them were concerned about the students' learning quality and experience, and there was a much higher concern for online students' engagement and behavior since the ability to observe students' work progress or check their understanding was somewhat limited. The teachers were also not at ease and found it difficult to interact with students online. Aside from that, a few of them noted that it was rather challenging to have face-to-face students interact with online ones. Furthermore, the ways to manage assessments with the possibility of academic dishonesty, the time to set up IT, issues with internet connections, and the extra preparation time in and out of class was also pointed out.

Added Pressure

Similar to the challenges experienced by the teachers, added pressure was another type of challenge that was caused by all the difficulties faced during teaching. Since the teachers had to simultaneously take care of both face-to-face and online students, this meant that extra effort had to be put into lesson and assessment planning. Aside from having handouts to be used in class, teachers had to make sure that the very same materials were posted to the institution's platform so that online students could access them. Moreover, considering the fact that there were a limited number of online students, teachers were worried that they might be neglecting them as there was a tendency to place greater focus on the students who were physically attending class. This need to handle two sets of students (online and in-class) gave rise to the feeling of having to teach two classes at the same time.

Teacher's Focus

All the teachers agreed that they placed a much greater focus on students who were physically in the classroom and that they "don't pay equal attention to the online attendees" [Meredith]. Teachers usually manage classes by going around to check students' understanding, so they worry that more time is spent with the face-to-face students and that they may forget about the ones online since they are able to more easily notice if classroom students need help. It is also possible that the number of questions teachers get in the classroom may take their attention further away for students who are online.

Rapport and Interaction

It is believed that teacher–student and student–student interaction are

important aspects of class teaching and learning; however, when there is the need to look after two groups of students (in-person and online), interaction can become rather difficult. In this study, four of the six teachers stated that they expected online students to interact in the exact same way as students who are in the classroom since they were there for learning, while the other two teachers believed that it was unfair to have such expectations since limited attention is given to them. One teacher further pointed out, "I do not expect the Zoom student to answer" [Vanessa]. In addition, students in class also do not appear to be comfortable talking to a student online during group work, which means that online students are not afforded much interaction in general.

Aside from expressing their expectations of students, one teacher noted that the way classrooms and cameras are set does not make for a friendly environment for dual-mode teaching, since the camera is fixed in one location.

Grading

When teaching a language class, it is important to encourage students to interact with each other. However, when teachers were asked if students should be graded as a way to encourage interaction, mixed answers were obtained. Three teachers believed that grades should be awarded as a way to motivate students and have them feel that they belong to the class. On the contrary, others felt that they should not be graded, since it would add extra pressure for them as "they're on their own; you don't know what difficulty they are experiencing" [Alice], and that if their grade was based on that, "I don't think it would in any way improve their ability to learn" [Meredith].

Anonymity

Considering that interacting in class was one of the issues discussed by the teachers, most of them looked for ways to promote interaction. They noticed that students were more willing to interact when they could express their views or join a certain task anonymously, so the usage of online platforms such as Quizlett, Kahoot, and Mentimeter appeared to be popular choices in which students could not only work on the same task together but also interact with each other at the same time.

Future of Dual-Mode Teaching

The majority of the participating teachers felt that dual-mode teaching is very likely to be the future of education since "there are endless possibilities. The student doesn't have to be missing the course" [Walter]. They believe that dual-mode teaching will be commonplace in the future and that it is going to become much better developed and offered in a combination of online and offline classes. Having said that, one teacher stressed that it is highly doable as long as teachers can accept that online students will be interacting in a much different way than students in the classroom.

Discussion

The discussion section aims at examining the findings obtained. It is split into two parts in order to answer the research questions. The first part will explore the challenges encountered by teachers using dual-mode teaching and possible solutions, and the future of dual-mode teaching.

The Challenges of Dual-Mode Teaching and Possible Solutions

The teacher's role is to facilitate, set up tasks, and create opportunities for student learning and interaction (Larsen-Freeman, 2000), but this can become rather complex and demanding if teachers need to care for both classroom and online students. The majority of the teachers in this study expressed that it had become more difficult to manage classes when there are two groups of students, and that more time and effort was needed for lesson planning and classroom management. These findings are on par with Islam's (2019) view in which he pointed out that classroom management adds complexity to the already complex classroom. In order to enhance students' experience, effective classroom management is needed (Brown & Lee, 2015), but when teachers are expected to do dual-mode teaching, that might become difficult to achieve, as there are two groups of students to be managed.

Even though classroom management was one of the issues experienced by the teachers, they also felt that the help given in class was not completely adequate, especially when dealing with students who were online. Scrivener (2012) claims that the rapport and interaction between teacher and students, and between students, is highly important in the classroom, as it helps to build a relationship. In this study, a few teachers did not expect online students to interact at all, and quite often teachers felt that they had somewhat neglected the online students. If interaction is deemed to be one of the keys to effective language learning (Scrivener, 2012), then it would be possible to argue that teaching and learning might not have been very effective in the case of dual-mode teaching, as the teachers struggled to maintain interaction as well as to gain a general understanding of the difficulties experienced by the online students. In general, the face-to-face students also struggled to interact with the online students, but the introduction of online platforms such as Kahoot or Quizlett brought them closer, as most of them were much more willing to take part in the learning process when their identity was unknown. This finding also conforms with Alsied and Pathan's (2013) study, which found that there was an increased willingness to interact in the target language when ICT was being used. In addition, this study also shows that most teachers believe that, aside from using ICT, schools need to be properly equipped with technical requirements (such as facilities and a strong internet connection) and to ensure that their teachers are trained in that particular ICT skill (Yang et al., 2020).

The Future of Dual-Mode Teaching

The use of ICT has been increasing due to its benefits: increasing learning resources and contextualized lessons (Yang et al., 2020) in order to achieve

optimal learning effectiveness (Alside & Pathan, 2013). Alsied and Pathan (2013) also state that it encourages students to become more active in learning. The data found in this study also confirms such findings, as teachers noticed that students appeared to be more engaged and willing to take part in the learning process. They believed that technology is the way of the future and that it offers endless possibilities; therefore, it is advised that ICT should be used whenever possible.

CONCLUSIONS

This was a small-scale study with much descriptive data dealing with the challenges of dual-mode teaching. During the interview process, it was apparent that the participating teachers felt somewhat distressed at having to simultaneously deal with face-to-face students and online students. This was a challenge for teachers due to the increased workload, difficulty in classroom and time management, and the inability to handle and interact with online students in the same way that they could with students who are physically present in the classroom. Even though teachers can run classes in real time along with online students, the ICT restrictions within the classroom have shown to be a challenge in promoting classroom interaction. Therefore, certain online platforms (Kahoot, Mentimeter, Quizlett) were used to encourage interaction between students. Overall, this study has found that managing a dual-mode class can be difficult without the right resources, and interaction of online students might be very limited. As a result, teachers should try their best to look for further ICT solutions to try to make learning more effective and more interactive.

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Effects of Turkish EFL Learners' Identities on Their Perceptions of Culture-Themed Lessons

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This study aimed to understand how Turkish high school and prep-school learners' identities affect their perceptions of the target language community culture and home country culture. This mixed-method study included twenty-two participants from two different institutions. There is a dearth of research on Turkish K-12 and prep-school learners' identities and their effect on learners' perceptions of topics, materials, and discourse used in the EFL classroom; therefore, this study aims to fill a gap in the literature. The quantitative results show no significant difference in learners' preferences towards themes of the lessons; however, the qualitative results shed light on the reasons for this phenomenon.

Literature Review

Language learning and identity may not seem straightforward at first; however, second language acquisition (SLA) research deals with different aspects of personality and (language) socialization (Rahimian, 2015). As Rahimian (2015) puts it, "socio-psychological aspects of identity make it an integral part of SLA discussions" (p. 306). Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 81) define identity as "the way a person understands and views himself, and is viewed by others, a perception of self which is fairly constant" (p. 81); Kanno (2003) defines it as "our sense of who we are and our relationship to the world" (p. 3).

Since the early 1990s, there has been a resurgence of identity research. Research on identity heavily has focused on second language learning experiences of immigrants or students living in a foreign country (ESL) where they experience unequal relations of power with the target community. However, there is a lack of research on identity in foreign language learning contexts (EFL), requiring more attention.

According to Norton (1997), from a post-structuralist view, identity is

1. "complex, contradictory, and multifaceted,"
2. "dynamic across time and place" (also Kramsch, 1993),
3. "constructs and is constructed by language," and
4. "must be understood with respect to larger social processes, marked by relations of power that can be either coercive or collaborative." (p. 419)

As for cultural identity, the term includes both ethnic and national identities. There have been multiple and contradictory opinions on cultural identity and language learning. Trofimovich (2015) stated that learners' cultural identity and language learning process have a reciprocal relationship, that cultural identity, being an integral part of learners' identities, may positively affect learning a new language. Learners' identities cannot be considered a separate entity in language learning, since learners' engagement and motivation intersect and overlap with their identities (Benson & Huang 1991; Coyle, 2013; Norton, 2000).

Language competence and culture are intimately connected (Kramsch, 2013; Rodriques, 2000) since communicating with the target community requires knowledge of their culture (Omaggio & Hadley, 1986). However, the literature has heavily focused on teaching the target language community's culture in the classroom (Alatis, 1994). Researchers in the field classified different types of language content in language classes. Cortazzi and Jin (1999) suggested three different types of cultural information in the classroom: the target culture, the source culture, and the international culture. Teaching the target language can be a motivational factor for learners and help them develop a positive attitude towards the target culture. The source culture refers to using learners' own culture in the classroom; it may help learners personalize the topic, thereby increasing engagement and participation. Using learners' own culture in the classroom may foster positive identity (Nguyen, 2017). Kanoksilapatham and Channuan (2018) report that students showed a positive attitude towards the local culture used in teaching English. Lastly, international culture refers to including different types of cultural themes from all around the world. In their study, Yahya et al. (2017) found that using the international culture in the language classroom produced positive results in learners' interest in the target language since they were less inhibited speaking English. Afraz and Ghaemi (2013) found that ethnicity plays an integral part in learning preferences; for example, learners from three ethnic backgrounds preferred using more instructive television programs rather than wide-ranging use of blackboard or tape recorders or written materials. And Ulum (2016) found in his research that Syrian students show a preference in using the target language in the language classroom.

METHOD

Research Questions

The current study aims to answer these four research questions:

RQ1. Is there any significant difference in EFL learners' preference towards the themes of the lessons?

RQ2. Does the learners' cultural identity correlate with their preferences towards the themes of the lessons?

RQ3. How does the cultural background of the EFL learner form their theme preferences?

RQ4. How does their perceived socioeconomic status affect their participation in target language community-themed lessons?

Research Design

Based on the research questions stated above, it was decided to use a mixed methods research design. The authors believed that this design would be most beneficial to answering the research questions. Quantitative data were used to answer the first and second questions, while the third and the fourth questions were answered through qualitative data.

Participants and Setting

The participants for this study were chosen using convenience sampling. The first group of the participants were Grade 10 students from the same class: seven females and seven males, ages 15 and 16, studying at a private high school in Istanbul, with an English proficiency level between A2 and B1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Their nationality was Turkish. The second group was a university preparatory class in Istanbul with the same English proficiency level. There were two females and six males in the group, ages 18 to 30. One of the participants was Arabic, from Palestine; the rest of the group identified themselves as Turks.

Data Collection

There were three steps in the data collection process. First, both groups had two different themes but identically structured lessons in a setting familiar to each of them. One lesson had the target language society topic (Christmas), and the other lesson had a more familiar topic (New Year's Eve). Students were instructed to follow the lesson and participate as usual without the teacher focusing on the difference in the topics. After each class, identical questionnaires focused on the theme and cultural aspects of the lesson.

Field notes from teachers were collected in the second stage. Here, teachers shared information about the flow of the lesson, participation, and any other significant details of the experiment.

The third stage consisted of interviewing randomly chosen participants from each group. The interviews with learners were semi-structured. Based on the flow of the interview, the teachers added to or changed the questions.

Data Collection Tools

Data collection tools consisted of a demographic information form, the interview question list, and field notes. The demographic information form consisted of 15 questions. The questionnaire was adapted from one found on the SurveyMonkey website called "Lesson feedback survey" (Lesson feedback survey, n.d.). The questionnaire consists of 15 closed-ended questions with a 5-point Likert scale.

Data Analysis

Mixed methods research comprises both quantitative and qualitative data. The

quantitative data derived from the questionnaire was obtained in the form of round diagrams and graphs provided by Google Forms. As the first step of the analysis, the Shapiro-Wilk Test and Q-Q Plots were conducted to check the normality assumptions for both groups. Then the outcomes of the two lessons were analyzed with a paired sample *t* test in the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software version 19.0. The results of the lesson feedback questionnaire (preference as dependent variable) were analyzed together with their demographics (cultural identity: language and nationality, as the independent variable). The Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to see if there was a connection between the groups' cultural profile and their theme preferences.

The interviews were transcribed, translated where needed, and then themes and patterns coded and analyzed subjectively by the authors, first separately then collaboratively. The field notes were also coded and added to the overall analysis. Different types of tools were used to ensure reliable results: a demographic form, a questionnaire, interviews, and field notes. Quantitative data were run through SPSS. Qualitative data analysis was done separately by both the authors and a field expert.

RESULTS

Data Analysis

Quantitative Data

The data gathered for this study were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The data obtained from the demographic information form and questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) software version 19.0. As the first step of the quantitative data analysis, the Shapiro-Wilk test and Q-Q plots were performed, with results found to be in the normal range ($p > .05$). In both groups, there was no statistically significant difference.

TABLE 1. Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test Statistics

Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
G1L1	.207	8	.200*	.961	8	.821
G1L2	.350	8	.005	.825	8	.053
G2L1	.206	8	.200*	.832	8	.062
G2L2	.147	8	.200*	.948	8	.687

Note. [a] Lilliefors Significance Correction. * This is the lower bound of true significance.

A paired samples *t* test was conducted to see whether there was any significant difference between the questionnaires distributed after each lesson in the first group (see Tables 2 and 3). There was no significant difference in the scores of Group 1 Lesson 1 (G1L1; Christmas-themed lesson) (M = -56.57, SD = 4.0) and in the scores of Group 1 Lesson 2 (G1L2; New Year's Eve-themed lesson) (M = 59.14, SD = 3.8), conditions: $t(13)$ = -2.03, p = 0.62.

Table 2. Paired Sample *t* Test Statistics

	Group	Mean	*n*	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Pair 1	G1L1	56.5714	14	4.07080	1.08797
	G1L2	59.1429	14	3.82013	1.02097

Table 3. Paired Sample *t* Test Statistics

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of Difference				
	Paired Sample	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	G1L1 – G1L2	-2.57143	4.71845	1.26106	-5.29578	.15292	-2.039	13	.062

Tables 4 and 5 show the results of the paired sample *t* test for the prep-school; there was not a significant difference in the scores of G1L1 (Christmas-themed lesson) (M = -58.37, SD = 1.7) and in the scores of G1L2 (New Year Eve-themed lesson) (M = 57.25, SD = 1.3), conditions: $t(7) = 1.204$, $p = .268$. Overall, the results suggest that learners had no preference in favor of one particular theme.

Table 4. Paired Sample *t* Test Statistics

	Group	Mean	*n*	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Pair 1	G2L1	58.3750	8	4.83846	1.71065
	G2L2	57.2500	8	3.69362	1.30589

Table 5. Paired Sample *t* Test Statistics

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of Difference				
	Paired Sample	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	G2L1 – G2L2	1.12500	2.64237	.93422	-1.08408	3.33408	1.204	7	.268

Table 6. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Correlations

		National Identity G2	G2L1	G2L2
National Identity G2	Pearson Correlation	1	-.449	-.465
	Sig. (2-tailed)	—	.265	.246
	n	8	8	8

G2L1	Pearson Correlation	-.449	1	.841*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.265	—	.009
	n	8	8	8
G2L2	Pearson Correlation	-.465	-841*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.246	.009	—
	n	8	8	8

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

The Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between cultural identity and the themes used in the lessons. The Pearson correlation coefficient was not calculated for the first group because the group was homogenous in cultural identity; hence, the value is constant. Table 6 shows the results for the prep-school group; there was not a positive correlation, r = 0.841, n = 8, p = 0.246. Overall, the results suggest that learners' cultural identities do not affect their theme preferences.

Qualitative Data

For the semi-structured interviews, content analysis was utilized. Content analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994) followed two steps. First, interviews were categorized for specific questions. Second, both researchers double-checked the categories and themes to increase inter-rater reliability.

Semi-structured Interviews

Data obtained through semi-structured interviews were analyzed on the basis of nine questions. The authors first transcribed the interviews and coded them. The learners, Turkish native speakers, were free to use English and Turkish to express their ideas in depth. Then, their answers were coded and sorted into themes.

Emerging themes included vocabulary, participation, and experience. Learners reported that their existing lexical knowledge and personal experiences helped them participate and engage more in the New Year's Eve-themed lesson. However, they were content to be introduced to the Christmas-themed lesson. A minor theme that occurred under the theme of vocabulary was that of the language barrier. Although students were instructed in the target vocabulary in the Christmas-based lesson, it was reported that they needed to check dictionaries and online translation tools to express their opinions adequately.

In these interviews, all the interviewees described themselves as middle class. Student 1 (male, 17 years old) expressed preference towards culture-themed speaking topics rather than traditional coursebook speaking topics:

> Speaking topics in our coursebook are boring like talking about shopping, online safety rules that's why I liked talking about Christmas and how British people celebrate it because if I have a friend from England, I am going to talk about their and our culture and our experiences like what we like or don't like, not online safety. But I had to use dictionaries and google translation to express myself better because I didn't know some words and expressions related to the topic. [S1]

Student 2 (F/16) expressed her experiences with the target culture and source culture, including her opinions regarding hearing her peers' experiences:

> I liked the topic Christmas because I have some relatives living in the UK and I have seen how they celebrate it. Talking about New Year's Eve and sharing how my family and I celebrate it, how they used to celebrate this holiday was lovely and I liked listening to my friends' experiences with this holiday. [S2]

Student 3 (F/17) expressed that she relished talking about her own experiences, particularly since she did not need to imagine or talk about an imagined scenario as mainly employed in EFL classrooms:

> I liked talking about New Year's Eve because I talked about my family and my own feelings and how we celebrate it. I didn't need to think about what answer to give because the topic was already about us. Yes, I liked the first lesson because I learned new words though I have never celebrated Christmas I have always seen it on TV series. Netflix broadcasted many movies and TV series to watch around Christmas and I watched Lily and Dash and liked how they care about this particular day and want to be with their loved ones. We also do similar things on New Year's Eve but not as planned as them. [S3]

Student 4 (M/18) shared his family traditions and his stance towards Christmas as being positive and international:

> I have always liked Christmas because it's exciting and I am happy to celebrate it with the whole world. We have a 10-year-old Christmas tree in our house that we decorate around this time of the year. [S4]

Student 5 (F/18) talked about her interest in the topic:

> The lesson was interesting and fun for me because I like Christmas spirit; I also learned new words related to the topic. I loved talking about our New Year resolutions and sharing it with our friends. [S5]

The target culture, source culture, and intercultural awareness were other themes that occurred in the interviews. A majority of the students reported that they belong to the middle class, access social media streaming services, use social networks including foreigners, and have been abroad to English-speaking countries. As for intercultural awareness, Baker (2012) notes, "Intercultural awareness is a conscious understanding of the role culturally based forms, practices, and frames of understanding can have in intercultural communication, and an ability to put these conceptions into practice in a flexible and context specific manner in real time communication" (p. 202).

Field Notes

Reflective field notes were recorded in this research project. Both authors noted that, in terms of participation, students were seemingly more attentive. The class was livelier and less teacher-centered in the New Year's Eve-themed lesson, in which the learners in both groups shared their personal experiences starting from childhood. One of the authors noted that in the second lesson, since the

theme was the source culture, the teachers were able to ask more referential and fewer display questions to elicit the learners' answers, which allowed the lesson to be more student-centered (Brock, 1986; Long & Sato, 1983; Thornbury, 1996).

The authors noted that learners with intercultural awareness gained through having been to English-speaking countries and having had contact with the target culture were willing to participate more in the first lesson to share their observations and experiences. Learners coming from middle-class families have access to video games, streaming services, and social networking sites; every learner was familiar with the topic to some extent and was able to share their insights. No negative attitude was observed towards the topic.

Discussion

The overall purpose of the study was to determine the effect of Turkish EFL students' identities on their perception of culture-themed lessons. After running the SPSS analysis of the paired sample *t* test, it was found that there was no significant preference in students' attitudes towards the themes used in the EFL classroom. Pearson correlation coefficients between the cultural identity and preferences showed no correlation (see Table 6). However, the research done by Afraz and Ghaemi (2013) suggests that ethnicity may play an integral role in language learning preferences (type of feedback and activities, error correction, etc.).

Students did not prefer the home-country theme to the other themes, yet felt more comfortable with it in terms of experience and vocabulary. Data from interviews and field notes supports this statement. Moreover, the fact that the foreign culture topic had an inhibiting effect on participation and the flow of discussion aligns with the study conducted by Ulum (2016) where the majority of students "are sometimes bothered by the words which they don't understand about target language's culture" (p. 4120).

In the interviews, the authors focused on students' cultural and social backgrounds. Being middle class, they all had access to multiple sources of information; they were fully aware of the world's cultural and religious diversity. Among these sources were mentioned: books, movies, TV series, internet websites, and foreign friends and other representatives of other cultures, relatives living in other countries, and traveling abroad. Thus, access to information shows us that their socioeconomic status formed their cultural background and intercultural awareness. Therefore, we used students' socioeconomic status as a prism while analyzing their participation.

Even though there was no significant difference throughout the questions in both groups, there was a difference in participation levels. This was observed in the teachers' field notes and during interviews. The same feedback was received in the Yahya et al. (2017) study in which students found local culture-based English language teaching programs "encouraging their involvement and interaction in the classroom" (p. 50). The students didn't suffer from culture shock (Cozma, 2017, p. 95), and the themes didn't provoke negative emotions. Having friends and reading and watching about Christmas ignited their overall interest in the topic. The reasons for less active participation in the Christmas-themed lesson were

inadequate vocabulary and life experience. These two factors created a difference in participation rates.

Limitations

As in every research project, there were limitations to this study, too. There could be unforeseen factors that affected the results. The number of participants was limited, especially for the quantitative data collection. Perhaps it could be increased in subsequent studies. The results could differ, suggesting additional research participants in other contexts (diverse age groups, different schools, different backgrounds, different social classes, different locations, etc.).

Conclusions

Identity is a very complex and contradictory topic, and it has a changing nature that develops in different contexts. A critical feature of the current study is that it gives students the opportunity to share their opinions on matters. And at the same time, these opinions can help a teacher design and conduct lessons covering cultural components in second/foreign language learning related to the target language culture and the local or any other culture. The mixed methods research design allows for different perspectives and describes the influential factors and reasons in detail. Finally, this study offers a solid foundation for further research or additional studies replicating this same procedure on a larger scale.

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Potential and Challenges of the Use of VR in English Education

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The benefits of virtual reality (VR) for education, such as increasing engagement (Hu-Au & Lee, 2017), increasing intercultural awareness, and reducing the affective filter (Schwienhorst, 2020), have been reported. This study investigated the effects of VR English lessons on eight university students learning English in Japan. The pre- and post-questionnaires about foreign language anxiety showed that the students felt less anxious and more confident in speaking English. The TOEIC Speaking test results before and after the VR lessons showed improvements in scores among the five students in the post-test compared to the pre-test. The content analysis of the students' comments in their journals also showed that they perceived the VR English lessons positively in terms of increasing engagement, reducing foreign language anxiety, and promoting active learning. Based on the analysis of the results, the potential and challenges of using VR in English education are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The effects of COVID-19 have promoted the adoption of educational technology (EdTech) because it has become challenging to continue offering education without technology. Among EdTech, virtual reality (VR) is cited as one of the emerging technologies that will significantly impact teaching and learning in higher educational institutions in the future (Educause, 2020). VR is defined as computer-generated simulations of three-dimensional objects and environments (Dionisio et al., 2013). VR allows participants to enter a virtual environment through interactive simulations, giving them the feeling of being fully immersed in a virtual space (Scrivner et al., 2019). VR also enables us to "visit" any place, time, or person in a relatively inexpensive way. These opportunities allow learners to experience historical contexts, scientific environments, and personally meaningful moments (Hu-Au & Lee, 2017). Scrivner et al. (2019) stated that VR has great potential for foreign language instruction, where visual and auditory immersion is the key to success. VR benefits, such as long-term memory retention (Scrivner et al., 2019), increases in intrinsic motivation and cross-cultural awareness, and decreases emotional filtering (Schwienhorst, 2020), were also reported. The content analysis of past VR research by Lin and Lan (2015) showed that virtual learning environments increase learner autonomy and self-efficacy, reduce learning anxiety, and foster creativity. In a study of VR Spanish lessons by Hu-Au and Lee (2017), it was reported that learners enjoyed VR Spanish lessons,

learned more about Spanish culture, and became more interested in international travel. Past studies showed the positive effects of VR lessons; however, few studies have investigated VR English lessons' effects on learners' speaking proficiency and foreign language anxiety before and after VR English lessons. Thus, this study investigates VR English lessons' impact on students' foreign language anxiety, speaking proficiency, and perceptions toward VR English lessons with the following research questions.

RQ1. Does students' foreign language anxiety change before and after VR English lessons?
RQ2. Do students' speaking scores on TOEIC change before and after VR English lessons?
RQ3. How do students perceive VR English lessons?

METHOD

To answer these research questions, a questionnaire on foreign language anxiety was conducted before and after VR lessons, TOEIC Speaking tests were administered before and after VR lessons, and students' journals about VR lessons were collected after each VR lesson. In this section, first, participants and the contents of VR English lessons are discussed. Then, how the data of the questionnaires, the TOEIC Speaking tests, and the students' journals were collected are provided. Following that, the data collection methodology is explained.

VR English Lessons by Immerse Inc.

The VR English lessons used for this study were offered by Immerse Inc., an EdTech venture company founded in California in 2017. Students can take English lessons with a native-speaking American instructor by selecting their avatars in a virtual space using a head mount display, Oculus Go. The main reason for choosing Immerse English lessons was that their VR English lessons were designed based on the Common European Framework for References (CEFR). Two courses were selected for this study: General English (CEFR A1–A2 level) and Public Speech and Presentation (CEFR B1–B2). In the General English course, students could practice English conversation in a virtual space such as a train station, an airport, or a restaurant. In the Public Speech and Presentation course, students could practice making a presentation in a virtual space as if there were an audience in front of them.

Participants of the VR English Lessons

The study participants were eight university students in the author's seminar course focusing on EdTech and its effect on English learning and teaching. The eight students were divided into two groups according to their English proficiency. Three students took the General English Course (CEFR A1–A2 level), and five students took the Public Speech and Presentation course. The average score of the

TOEIC L&R for the students in the General English course was 530, and that for the participants in the Public Speech and Presentation Course (CEFR B1–B2 level) was 766. The students enrolled in General English had five forty-minute lessons by a native English teacher. The Public Speech Presentation students took three forty-minute lessons from a native English teacher and one forty-minute lesson by a Japanese teacher from October to November in 2020. The students in the Public Speech and Presentation course were to take five forty-minute lessons; however, because of a time difference between Japan and the U.S., the native-speaker teacher could not teach two of them.

Instead, for the first lesson, they observed a General English lesson, and for the second lesson, they took a lesson from a Japanese teacher. The remaining three lessons were from the native English teacher.

Data Collection and Analysis

For this study, pre- and post-questionnaires about foreign language anxiety, TOEIC Speaking pre- and post-tests, and students' journals about VR lessons were collected and analyzed.

Procedures and Analysis of the Questionnaires

For both the pre- and post-questionnaires, 33 items on foreign language classroom anxiety and the same answer choices by Horwitz et al. (1986) were used. Likert scales (1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *agree*, 3 = *neither agree or nor disagree*, 4 = *disagree*, 5 = *strongly disagree*) were used for the questionnaire. It was assumed that among the 33 items, scores of nine items could be lower if the students have come to have less foreign language anxiety; thus, it was hypothesized that the scores on the nine items would be lower on the post-questionnaire. The nine items were the following:

(2) I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.
(5) It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.
(8) I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.
(11) I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.
(14) I would not be nervous speaking a foreign language with native speakers.
(18) I feel confident when I speak in a foreign language class.
(22) I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for my language class.
(28) When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
(32) I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

The other 24 items were hypothesized to be higher on the post-questionnaire if the respondents had less foreign language anxiety.

Procedures and Analysis of TOEIC Speaking Tests

To investigate whether the VR English lessons' experience affected the students' English proficiency, a computer-based TOEIC Speaking test was conducted before and after the VR lessons. The TOEIC Speaking test is comprised

of seven types of questions, reading a text aloud, describing a picture, responding to questions, responding to questions using information provided, proposing a solution, and expressing an opinion. According to the Institute for International Business Communication (2021), which administers the TOEIC Speaking test, its perfect score is 200, and the latest results show that the average score among the test takers is 129.8. The average scores of the eight students in the TOEIC Speaking pre- and post-tests were compared, and scores of the TOEIC Speaking pre- and post-tests of individual students were also compared.

Procedures and Analysis of Students' Journals

The students wrote feedback after each lesson, and the feedback was coded and analyzed using content analysis. Coding is a technique for identifying statements by attaching one or more keywords to a text (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The coding I used was based on the benefits of VR use reported in past studies. For example, if the comments were related to student engagement, foreign language anxiety, immersion, or visual and sound effects, I underlined these sentences in their journal comments and coded them as (SE), (FLA), (IM), and (VSE), respectively. I also added a coding of (AL) for active learning inductively.

RESULTS

In this section, the results of the foreign language anxiety questionnaires, the TOEIC Speaking tests, and content analysis of the students' journals are discussed.

Results of the Foreign Language Questionnaires

Table 1 shows the results of the nine items that were hypothesized to show decreases between the pre- and the post-questionnaires. As shown in Table 1, only item 8 showed an increase, and items 5, 28, and 32 showed no change between the pre- and post-questionnaires. The other five items showed a decrease between the pre- and the post-questionnaires. Among them, four items in bold in Table 1 showed more than a 0.5 decrease between the pre- and post-questionnaires. The four items are (11) I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language class, (14) I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers, (18) I feel confident when I speak in a foreign language class, and (22) I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for a language class.

TABLE 1. Items Which Were Hypothesized to Be Lower

Items	Pre-Q	Post-Q	Gap (Post-Pre)
1. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.	2.71	2.43	-0.29
3. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	2.29	2.29	0.00
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	3.14	3.29	0.14

11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.	3.14	2.57	**-0.57**
14. I would not be nervous speaking a foreign language with native speakers.	2.71	2.14	**-0.57**
18. I feel confident when I speak in a foreign language class.	3.57	3.00	**-0.57**
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for a language class.	3.00	2.43	**-0.57**
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	2.86	2.86	0.00
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	2.57	2.57	0.00

Table 2 shows the results for the 24 items hypothesized to show increases between the pre- and post-questionnaires. As shown in Table 2, only item 4 and item 24 showed a decrease, and items 25 and 29 showed no change between the pre- and post-questionnaires. The other 20 items showed an increase between the pre- and post-questionnaires.

TABLE 2. Items Which Were Hypothesized to Be Higher

Items	Pre-Q	Post-Q	Gap (Post-Pre)
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	2.57	3.00	0.43
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	2.86	3.43	**0.57**
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	2.57	2.43	-0.14
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	3.43	4.00	**0.57**
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at language than I am.	2.14	2.43	0.29
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	2.14	2.86	**0.71**
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	2.29	3.00	**0.71**
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forgot things I know.	2.00	3.29	**1.29**
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	3.14	3.43	0.29
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	3.14	3.43	0.29
16. Even if I am well prepared for a language class, I feel anxious about it.	2.86	3.14	0.29
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.	3.00	3.29	0.29
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	3.57	3.71	0.14
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.	2.29	2.43	0.14
21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	2.43	3.14	**0.71**
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign	2.14	2.71	**0.57**

language better than I do.			
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking a foreign language in front of other students.	3.00	2.86	-0.14
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	3.29	3.29	0.00
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	3.14	3.43	0.29
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	2.86	3.43	**0.57**
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	2.29	2.29	0.00
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	2.14	2.43	0.29
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak a foreign language.	3.29	3.57	0.29
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions that I haven't prepared in advance.	2.43	2.71	0.29

Among them, the eight items in bold in Table 2 showed more than a 0.5 increase between the pre- and post-questionnaires. The eight items are (3) I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class, (6) During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course, (9) I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class, (10) I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class, (12) In language class, I can get so nervous I forgot things I know, (21) The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get, (23) I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do, and (27) I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

Results of the TOEIC Speaking Tests

Table 3 shows the overall results of the TOEIC Speaking pre- and post-tests. The average score of the TOEIC Speaking pre-test was 117.5, and that of the TOEIC Speaking post-test was 127.5. The average score of the TOEIC Speaking post-test increased by 10 points compared to the TOEIC Speaking pre-test.

TABLE 3. Oveall Results of TOEIC Speaking Tests

Item	TOEIC Speaking Pre-test	TOEIC Speaking Post-test
Number of Participants	8	8
Average	117.5	127.5
Median	120	130
Mode	110	130
SD	23.8	18.5
Range	80	70
MIN	70	90
MAX	150	160

Table 4 shows the individual students' results of the TOEIC Speaking pre- and post-tests. As shown, students A, B, and D increased their scores by 20 points on

the post-test compared to the pre-test, while two students did not change their scores and one student decreased by 10 points.

TABLE 4. Individual Students' Results of TOEIC Speaking Tests

Participants	Pre-test	Post-test	Gap (Post–Pre)	Proficiency Level: Pre-test	Proficiency Level: Post-test
A	100	120	**20**	4	**5**
B	70	90	**20**	3	**4**
C	150	160	10	6	**7**
D	140	140	0	6	6
E	110	130	**20**	5	**6**
F	130	120	-10	6	5
G	110	120	10	5	5
H	130	130	0	6	6

Speaking proficiency levels are the levels that the Institute for International Business Communication shared. The results show that students A, B, C, and E improved their proficiency levels while three students did not change their proficiency levels, and the proficiency level of one student was lower on the post-test than on the pre-test.

Results of the Students' Journals

The students' journals were analyzed using content analysis regarding student engagement, foreign language anxiety, immersion, visual and sound effects, and active learning. Regarding student engagement, there were the following comments: "Every lesson was impressive, and I could enjoy speaking English" and "I had fun as if I was a kid again."

About foreign language anxiety, students commented, "I could speak more easily because each member's face is avatar," "Because of the virtual world, it is easier to immerse yourself in a created situation. That helps us speak confidently," and "I was not afraid of getting tense because I cannot see each face, so this lesson enables me to try to convey my opinion to anyone smoothly."

About immersion, comments were "It is easy for us to get an image of the situation by actually being there (the VR space)," and "I thought it was weird to learn English in a virtual world. Because of that, I felt nervous and insecure. However, after taking all lessons, the impression I had have changed in a good way and I was into VR lessons."

In addition to these, there was a comment related to visual and sound effects: "I think that English conversation lessons using VR would allow students to learn English effectively using sight and hearing. In fact, I can accurately recall every lesson with visuals." Also, there was a comment related to active learning: "Until now, it was passive learning using textbooks in the classroom, but I thought that VR lessons are active learning that allows you to take action on your own."

DISCUSSION

This study investigated whether students' foreign language anxiety changes from before to after the VR English lessons, whether students' TOEIC Speaking scores change from before to after VR English lessons, and how students perceive VR English lessons. A past study shows that the use of VR may reduce the affective filter (Schwienhorst, 2020). As shown in Table 1, among the items that were hypothesized to be lower, four items, (11), (14), (18), and (22), decreased by more than 0.5 points. On the other hand, as shown in Table 2, eight items, (3), (6), (9), (10), (12), (21), (23), and (27), increased by more than 0.5 points, which indicates that the students had less anxiety in speaking English after the VR lessons. The results imply that the students felt more confident when speaking in foreign language classes. They felt less pressure to prepare for their language class and were less nervous speaking a foreign language with native speakers.

Positive effects of VR language lessons were reported in past studies. In a study by Hu-Au and Lee (2017) investigating the impact of learning Spanish in a VR environment, 86% of the students answered that they enjoyed using VR, 62% responded that the VR environment helped them learn Spanish culture in depth, and 71% felt more interested in traveling abroad. Gupta's (2015) study to investigate the effects of a VR learning environment showed that remembering the words after one week was higher among learners who learned the words using VR than among those who learned them using the traditional method. This study to investigate the effects of VR English lessons showed that three students increased their scores by 20 points and that two students' increased their scores by 10 points on the TOEIC Speaking post-test compared to the TOEIC Speaking pre-test. Since they studied English outside of the VR lessons, it cannot be said that their score increases are the effect of the VR lessons; however, they can be one factor that improved their speaking scores on the TOEIC Speaking post-test.

The third question asked how the students perceived the VR English lessons. Past studies showed VR could increase learner involvement and motivation (Freina & OTT, 2015), learner engagement (Hu-Au & Lee, 2017), and reduce the affective filter (Schwienhorst, 2020). The content analysis of the students' journals also showed that the VR English lessons could help the students become engaged in conversations in English, immerse themselves in the VR space, and reduce their anxiety in speaking English. The use of avatars in the VR space also increased confidence in speaking English. Scrivner et al. (2019) mentioned that VR use could impact long-term memory retention. Though there was no direct comment about the effect of the VR English lessons on retention of vocabulary, one student's comment that she was able to remember the VR scenes clearly implies that VR lessons with visuals may help students acquire language more effectively. Scrivner et al. (2019) also mention that VR can help learners become active participants in virtual scenes. In the study on learning Japanese as a second language in a VR space (Yamazaki, 2019), it was reported that using avatars strengthened learners' presence in the virtual environments and helped them take charge of their learning. One student's comment in this study, that the VR lessons can be active learning and allow them to take action spontaneously, implies that VR English lessons can also promote students' active learning.

However, opposing points on the use of VR were also discussed in past studies. For example, Gupta (2015) reported negative issues such as dizziness from using a head mount display and the weight of the head mount display. In this study, although most of the students' comments about VR use were positive, there were negative comments such as the weight and the uncomfortable fitting of the head mount display. One student also wrote that he felt motion sickness in the first lesson. In addition, the use of the avatars made it difficult for them to see other students' facial expressions.

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the effects of VR English lessons on student foreign language anxiety and speaking proficiency, and student perception of the VR English lessons. The results showed that VR English lessons might lower student foreign language anxiety and improve student speaking proficiency. The students' favorable opinions about the VR English lessons obtained in this study suggest potential for using VR in English education to increase student engagement, reduce foreign language anxiety, acquire vocabulary with visuals, and promote active learning. To use VR in English education practically, the students' negative issues in this study and past studies need to be addressed. Although head mount displays such as Oculus Quest 2 are available at lower prices than before, they are still expensive; thus, the cost of head mount displays needs to be considered. The practical use of VR in English education is at an early stage; however, it can change English education. For example, if topics in English classes are related to traveling, students can feel as if they were traveling abroad and visiting famous sites, such as world heritage sites, in virtual spaces. Also, VR may enable students to participate in classes an universities abroad and do a homestay in virtual spaces in the era of COVID-19 when opportunities for students to study overseas are restricted. Even after COVID-19, VR use can offer students virtual study abroad experiences without students going abroad. This study was based on the results obtained from a limited number of participants in a limited number of VR lessons; therefore, investigating the effects of VR English lessons is needed, especially studies focusing on student foreign language anxiety and speaking proficiency. A longitudinal study with more participants and a comparison with a treatment group and a control group employing other methods, such as face-to-face lessons, is also suggested.

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A Platform to Support Novice Teachers of English for Application of Picture Books in Children's Classrooms

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The Japanese government has just launched their new English language education curriculum for Japanese public elementary schools in the 2020 academic year. In the near future, it is anticipated that English classes will be conducted more by homeroom teachers who are possibly less experienced in teaching English due to the limited budget and insufficient number of English language professionals in Japanese public elementary schools. One policy the Japanese government has recently promoted is the application of picture books. This article presents the idea of a platform that enables those novice teachers to utilize categorization charts of picture books that the presenter has developed. The platform expedites the process for selecting appropriate picture books as their supplementary materials and creating relevant language learning activities for their English lessons. The article proposes how to further extend this project involving university students as well as local educators of young learners throughout Japan.

INTRODUCTION

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has just launched their new English language education curriculum for Japanese public elementary schools in the 2020 academic year. Under this new system, English becomes a compulsory subject for upper elementary grades (Grades 5 & 6), and English activities are regularly incorporated into "The Period for Integrated Study" class for the middle grades (Grades 3 & 4). In the near future, it is anticipated that English classes will be conducted more by homeroom teachers who are possibly less experienced in teaching English due to the limited budget and insufficient number of English language professionals in Japanese public elementary schools.

One policy the Japanese government has recently promoted is the application of picture books because of their authentic language and rich quality (Nagai, 2017). The aim of this study is to provide a platform that enables those novice teachers to utilize categorization charts of picture books that the author has developed for their classrooms. The charts are divided into two types: (a) theme-based (i.e., all titles of the same author's books are categorized based on themes; see Appendix B) and (b) story-based (i.e., each title is categorized according to the characters, words/phrases, activities, etc.; see Appendix C). These charts will be made into a bilingual booklet, and some video clips of the activity suggested in the charts will be provided on the platform. The platform is also

intended to offer communication space for the novice teachers to work collaboratively to produce creative and unique ideas for their classrooms. The teachers are expected to interact actively, exchange useful information, and share their ideas based on various picture books they used in their classrooms.

Because most elementary school teachers are extremely busy with preparing for the various subjects they teach, they have only limited time to choose materials other than those of the assigned textbooks for their English classes. There are many websites and private links both domestically and internationally (see Appendix A); however, most of them only provide information without offering guidance. The proposed platform expedites the process for selecting appropriate picture books as supplementary materials and creating relevant language learning activities for their English lessons. In addition, these materials can be used for a joint project with the active group consisting of university students. The members can be involved in making video clips of storytelling or demo-lessons presented in the charts. Moreover, the project can be extended to invite local educators of young learners throughout Japan to attend workshops, etc.

Literature Review

Picture Books

Picture books are an important part of early language education, as Leeper (2003) emphasized. Shin and Crandall (2014) also suggested that storytelling activities encourage students to communicate in authentic ways and think critically. Children need to develop skills to analyze facts, organize ideas, make comparisons, and solve problems while attending their schools.

Another important research area is multimodal texts (Bearne, 2009; Stafford, 2010), which examines how picture books have been modified and applied to different types of texts and also explores how they can be used in children's English education in the future in Japan. Picture book studies (Kiefer, 1995; Ho, 2000; Nikolajeva, 2002) have shown how picture books have been introduced and taught to children and EFL learners, what impact they have had on those learners, and what activities teachers have created based on these books.

Teacher education (Hansen & Zambo, 2007; Sato & Asanuma, 2000) is another important area to be researched. Based on the theory of scaffolding (Wood et al., 1976) in language acquisition, it would be important to discover how it relates to storytelling and the use of picture books in designing activities for young EFL students in teacher-education classes.

In examining the textbooks for Japanese language education in public elementary schools, it was found that many translated versions of familiar stories from international picture books such as *Swimmy* (by Leo Lionni) and the *Frog and Toad* series (by Arnold Lobel) have been used over the years. In addition, these two titles are still included every year. The stories of Eric Carle have also been read by young learners since their childhood. In 2010, *The Mountain That Loved a Bird* (by Alice McLerran; illustrated by Eric Carle) was included in the ninth-graders' English textbook. These facts suggest that these stories are already

familiar to most of the pre-service teachers or will become familiar to them once they start teaching these stories. Furthermore, it would be pleasing for them to revisit the stories in English in order to assess their language needs.

Texts by Kenji Miyazawa, a well-known Japanese children's book author, have also been incorporated into Japanese education for many years. For example, his famous poem, *Ame ni mo makezu*, or the story *Yamanashi* have been repeatedly used in Japanese language textbooks for fifth- and sixth-grade students in public elementary schools (Komae, 2019). These works use beautiful figurative language, enabling readers to think critically and interpret the meaning themselves (National Association of Japanese Language Teaching, 1996). They also suggest that although *Ame ni mo makezu* and *Yamanashi* are a little difficult for elementary school children to comprehend, it would be worth introducing these titles by simplifying the stories or modifying the lesson activities from different points of view.

Novice Teachers of English Language

Although the government-level English program for Japanese public elementary schools has already started, there is still confusion about the selection of course materials, teachers, and methods. This is because numerous publishers have begun to publish more materials and have launched new online programs. Until recently most schools were hiring ALTs (assistant language teachers, usually native speakers) from agencies or through special connections so that homeroom teachers did not have to be involved in English curriculum development for their students. However, because of the budget cuts and the urgent needs of English teachers due to the decision made by the government, more responsibility will be placed on homeroom teachers to develop an English curriculum and teach classes by themselves in the future. The demand for teacher-candidates with English-teaching skills for young children, therefore, has been increasing. Yet, compared to countries such as China and Korea, where teacher education has widely been promoted at the government level, there is not much novel research done in this area in Japan.

Research Questions

RQ1. Which picture books are useful for Japanese elementary school English teachers?
RQ2. What kind of activities based on the picture books are applicable for their classrooms?
RQ3. What types of support are necessary and effective for novice teachers of English?
RQ4. Is the platform helpful for English teachers? If so, in what ways?

Method

After completing the categorization charts of books by Eric Carle, Leo Lionni,

and Arnold Lobel, the author provides Japanese translations for the charts. The studies have been and will be presented in conferences and published in journals. The first presentation was actually given at the winter conference of Hokkaido JALT (the Japan Association for Language Teaching) in Sapporo in February, 2020. The author introduced her recently developed charts of the book series by Arnold Lobel (Shimada, 2020). A questionnaire was provided at the conference site and will continue to be provided at other conferences (see Appendix F). The author's final goal is to create an online platform, upload the charts, and provide instructions for English teachers of young learners on how to use the platform actively to exchange ideas and develop curricula.

Meanwhile, an electronic survey will be created using Google Forms and posted online in order to receive feedback from teachers who have tried and referred to the platform. The survey will include Likert-scale items with a 1–5 scale and some open-ended questions for new ideas, similar to the questionnaire distributed at the conference site (see Appendix F). Both quantitative and qualitative data will be analyzed, considered, and continuously reflected on in the evolution of this platform. For example, the categorization charts should be reconsidered, revised, or have additions made to them based on feedback from TESOL specialists as well as novice and pre-service English teachers. The way to offer the charts or to manage the communication space should be revised according to the teachers' needs. With some teachers, the author will conduct further teacher interviews and follow-up questions if necessary.

RESULTS

The results of the first survey conducted at the Sapporo conference site based on the presentation of charts for Arnold Lobel's book series are as follows (see Appendix F for the questionnaire sheet. N = 6.):

1. **How effective do you think these charts are when selecting storybooks?** (Please circle.)

	1 (weak)	2	3	4	5 (strong)	No Answer (NA)
Responses:				(1)	(4)	(1)

Reasons

It provides an easy reference point for teachers when choosing materials.
Helps in planning relevant activities.
Gives visualization and is more interesting. Text only is boring.
It is good to know the teachable phrases etc. in order to select an appropriate book.

2. **How effective do you think these charts are when designing your lessons?** (Please circle.)

	1 (weak)	2	3	4	5 (strong)	No Answer (NA)
Responses:			(1)	(2)	(2)	(1)

Reasons

It helps teachers to choose based on grammar points and topics.
As a student, I enjoy and learn better with graphics.
I think I already have a formula for children's lessons.

3. **Which chart do you think is the most useful for your teaching**? Please circle a), b), or c). [See Appendices B, C, and E.]
   a) the chart with the book titles in a column to the left
   b) the charts with the content of the story (left) and activity ideas (right)
   c) the chart with the content of the story/activity ideas across the top of the page

   Responses: a = 1 b = 3 c = 0 Other = 1

   Other: Have no preference; no difference between a), b), and c).

4. **Do you think the charts would become more effective if translations are provided**? Please circle.

   Responses: Yes = 4 No = 1 Yes and No = 1

5. **Could you think of any other items that should be included in a chart?**

   Responses

   Length of the book
   Level of difficulty
   Charts that categorize books by grammar points
   More spaces where writing is done
   Categorizing activities
   Pronunciation activities
   Focus on one theme

6. **In order to expand the charts and make them beneficial for teachers, which way do you think would be the most effective?**
   a) Upload them to the web.
   b) Upload them to the web and provide online discussion forums.
   c) Make them into a booklet.
   d) Upload them on the web and provide video clips to show some demo-activities.
   e) Both b) & d).

   Responses: a = 2 b = 1 c = 1 d = 1 e = 1

Discussion

The survey indicated that teachers are interested in the charts that include more information such as length of books, levels, grammar points, and activity details, and for novice teachers, the charts seem helpful with detailed information when applying a new picture book. The best form of platform still needs to be explored; however, teachers mainly seem to be interested in a web format.

As the author should collect more data in order to establish the most beneficial platform, a few more personal information items as well as questionnaire items should be added to the survey questions. Regarding respondent personal information items, gender, age, native- or nonnative-speaker status, teacher or learner, and students' age group and level could be included. Regarding curriculum, preferred book titles, preferred book authors, favorite

activities, and activities often done in class could also be included. Collection of more of this type of data would facilitate development of the most useful platform.

In addition to revision of the questionnaire, another possibility is to incorporate "song use," which the author has continuously been researching, onto the platform. Singing songs is a very popular and fun activity for young learners. Moreover, it also works positively when combined with picture books because young audiences can become engaged more by singing along with the story.

Furthermore, the author needs to make more presentations and approach large teacher groups or organizations to conduct further research activities. This will enable the answers to the research questions to become more concrete and practical.

Conclusions

This project has two aims: One is to establish a useful platform to help less-experienced teachers of young learners of English to select picture books and design classes. The other is to expand this platform into a joint project involving university students who wish to become English teachers of young students. In order to achieve these goals, more research activities have to be explored and networks with teachers of young learners need to be expanded. Training and storytelling practice, as well as demonstration lessons, should also be offered inside and outside the classroom to university pre-service teachers more frequently. The research is ongoing and continues in pursuit of further success.

The Author

Miori Shimada has 20 years teaching experience to all ages. She primarily taught English to children and adults for several years and then moved to universities. Since then she has been working as a lecturer and a part-time instructor for 15 years. She has belonged to over ten institutions in Tokyo and a neighboring prefecture. Her current research interests are teacher-education, application of picture books and songs, anxiety in language learning, and online teaching.

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APPENDIX A

Useful Links for Lesson Materials

Domestic

https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/gaikokugo/jouhou/kenkyu.htm
(A list of schools doing a project with MEXT and its project description)
http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/ja/short-stories/the-lion-and-the-mouse
(British Council website for English teachers to access different types of materials)
https://genkienglish.net/curriculumj.htm
https://www.e-ehonclub.com

Overseas

https://home.oxfordowl.co.uk
https://www.storylineonline.net/about-us/
http://www.magickeys.com/books/
https://global.cbeebies.com/#story-time
http://www.lil-fingers.com/storybooks/index.php
https://childrensbooksforever.com
https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCxCbN3GSElt-f4abyDMXBFg
https://www.starfall.com/h/
http://www.gutenberg.org/wiki/Main_Page
http://english.chakin.com/eul-tadoku.html

APPENDIX B

Model Chart I (基本分類表 I)

(Series- or Theme-Based、シリーズ、テーマ別)
Type a) Chart in the Survey (see Appendix F)

	*Unique features おもしろい絵本	*Simple & easy やさしい絵本	*Series シリーズ	**Self-awareness 自己認識、自己肯定	**Friendship 友情	**Family 家族	**Responsibility 責任感、役割	**Contrast 他との比較・尊重	**Universe 世界、宇宙	**Life cycle ライフサイクル
The very hungry caterpillar	✔	✔	✔							✔
The very busy spider	✔		✔				✔			
The very quiet cricket	✔		✔		✔					
The very lonely firefly	✔		✔		✔					
The very clumsy click beetle	✔		✔	✔	✔					
Brown bear, brown bear, what do you see?		✔	✔							
Polar bear, polar bear, what do you hear?			✔							
Panda bear, panda bear, what do you see?			✔							
My very first book of colours		✔	✔							
My very first book of numbers		✔	✔							
My very first book of shapes		✔	✔							
My very first book of words		✔	✔							
Let's paint a rainbow	✔	✔								
What's for lunch?	✔	✔								
1,2,3, to the zoo		✔								
I see a song		✔							✔	✔
The mixed-up chameleon	✔	✔		✔						
Rooster's off to see the world		✔		✔	✔				✔	
The foolish tortoise				✔						
The greedy python				✔						
"Slowly, slowly, slowly," said the sloth				✔						
Does a kangaroo have a mother, too?		✔				✔				
10 little rubber ducks	✔					✔				
Mister seahorse	✔					✔	✔			
Little cloud		✔				✔				
The tiny seed				✔		✔				✔

Pancakes, pancakes!						✔	✔			
Walter the baker						✔	✔			
Have you seen my cat?		✔					✔			
My apron						✔	✔			
Draw me a star	✔	✔							✔	✔
Papa, please get the moon for me	✔					✔			✔	
Why Noah chose the dove							✔		✔	
Do you want to be my friend?		✔			✔					
Where are you going? To see my friend	✔	✔						✔		
The grouchy ladybug	✔				✔			✔		
From head to toe	✔	✔								
Today is Monday	✔	✔			✔					
Hello, red fox	✔					✔				
The secret birthday message	✔					✔				
Watch out! A giant!	✔					✔				
The honeybee and the robber	✔					✔				
Dream snow	✔					✔				

Note. Adapted from Shimada (2006), *What Can We Teach with Books by Leo Lionni?* [出典]
*Categories other than themes (テーマ以外の分類項目). **Themes (テーマ).

APPENDIX C

Model Chart II (基本分類表 II)
(Story-Based、作品別)
Type b) Chart in the Survey (see Appendix F)

About the Book	EFL Lesson Ideas
1. Title, author/illustrator （タイトル、作家・イラストレーター） 2. Categories other than themes, Theme(s) （テーマ以外の分類項目、テーマ） 3. Main character （登場人物） 4. Other special character(s) （他の登場人物） 5. Teachable words/subjects （取り入れられる単語やトピック） 6. Teachable sentences/expressions （取り入れられる会話文や表現） 7. Special feature(s) of the book （絵本の特徴） 8. Big book? Yes No （大型本の有無）	9. Activities （絵本を元に実施できる活動やアクティビティー） 10. Other relevant book titles （同じテーマや関連する内容を含んだ他の絵本） * Other educational items （他の教材や教育関連グッズなど）

Note. Adapted from Shimada (2005), *Learning with Books by Eric Carle.*【出典】

APPENDIX D

Example Chart (分類表例)

The Very Hungry Caterpillar by Eric Carle.「はらぺこあおむし」
Type b) Chart in the Survey (see Appendix F).

About the Book	EFL Lesson Ideas
1. *The very hungry caterpillar*, Eric Carle 「はらぺこあおむし」、エリック・カール 2. “Very” series/Uniqueness, Life cycle “はらぺこあおむし”シリーズ、ライフサイクル 3. Caterpillar あおむし 4. Moon, sun おひさま、おつきさま 5. Days of the week, fruit, sweets, colors, numbers 曜日、果物、お菓子、色、数 Growing process of insects, nutrition, tastes, the adjective *hungry* 昆虫が育つ過程、栄養、味、hungry という単語 6. “On (day of the week) (subject) ate through (number) (fruit), but (subject) (*be* verb) still hungry.” “On (曜日) (主語) ate through (個数) (果物), but (主語) (be 動詞) still hungry.” 7. Holes, cut page 穴、切り取りページ (Finger holes in pages that the caterpillar goes through. ページにあおむしが通りぬけられるように指先大の穴が開いている) 8. Big book? Yes（有）	9. -Song 歌 - Origami 折り紙 - Drawing/coloring a caterpillar お絵かき、塗り絵 - Creating a Venn diagram of a butterfly and a moth 蝶と蛾の違いを表す集合体 - Observe a caterpillar’s growth いもむしの成長を観察 - Create similar stories by changing food 出てくる果物を変えるなどして再話 - Caterpillar quiz いもむしクイズ 10. Books about butterflies, ugly duckling 蝶がテーマの本、みにくいあひるのこ *DVD/VHS, coloring sheet, puzzle, game, flashcards, hand puppet DVD/VHS、塗り絵の本、パズル、ゲーム、単語カード、人形劇

Note. Adapted from Shimada (2005), *Learning with Books by Eric Carle*【出典】

APPENDIX E

Type c) Chart in the Survey (see Appendix F)

Categorization chart of a book by Eric Carle/Leo Lionni

Name: ______________________________________
Book Title:____

Main Characters	**Other Special Characters**	**Teachable Words & Subjects**	**Teachable Sentences & Expressions**	**Important Events & Happenings**	**Secret of the Book**	**Possible with Books** (book titles by different authors)

APPENDIX F

Questionnaire Provided at Conference Sites

Introducing Picture Books Based on the Categorization Charts: Miori Shimada
Conference Venue: ___________ Date: ___________

Thank you very much for visiting my session! I would like to have your feedback and opinions on the categorization charts I introduced. I would very appreciate it if you would fill this out and give it to me before you leave. (Comments in Japanese are also welcome! 日本語でも結構です！)

1. How effective do you think these charts are when selecting storybooks?
   Please circle:
   1 (weak) 2 3 4 5 (strong)

   Reasons: ____
   ____
   ____

2. How effective do you think these charts are when designing your lessons?
   Please circle:
   1 (weak) 2 3 4 5 (strong)

   Reasons:____
   ____
   ____

3. Which chart do you think is the most useful for your teaching?
   Please circle a), b), or c):

   a) the charts with the book titles in a column to the left
   b) the charts with the content of the story (left) and activity ideas (right)
   c) the charts with the content of the story/activity ideas across the top of the page

4. Do you think the charts would become more effective if translations are provided? Please circle:
   Yes / No

5. Can you think of any other items that should be included in a chart?
   ____
   ____
   ____

6. In order to expand the charts and make them beneficial for teachers, which way do you think would be the most effective?

    a) Upload them to the web.
    b) Upload them to the web and provide online discussion forums.
    c) Make them into a booklet.
    d) Upload them to the web and provide video clips to show some demo-activities.
    e) Both b) & d).

If you don't mind, please give me your name and contact address so that we could exchange our ideas further in the near future!

Name: ________________ *Email*: ________________

The Usage of Virtual Reality in Task-Based Language Teaching

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Experiential learning, in which knowledge acquisition occurs *via* as opposed to *for* task performance, represents a core principle of task-based language education. Against this background, virtual reality (VR) holds the potential to provide incidental learning experiences by facilitating communicative, socio-physical interactions across a host of language learning domains. Thus, it is the purpose of this article to describe the use of VR as a medium for task-based language teaching. Specifically, the capabilities of the Oculus Quest VR headset will be outlined by disclosing the background, implementation, and results of a small-scale study in which tertiary-level English as a foreign language participants utilized VR to navigate the information gap game Keep Talking and Nobody Explodes. Key findings indicate that the convergence of VR and commercial game software constitutes engagement that, in keeping with the principles of task-based inquiry, occasions learner collaboration and student-led resolution. More distinct to the VR method, however, is an enhanced sense of presence within its accompanying "world."

INTRODUCTION

More than 80 years ago, Dewey (1938) reasoned that, as part of a progressive doctrine, education should be experiential, whereby students learn by *doing*. Within the sphere of language education, this core principle of task-based instruction enables the delivery of contextually authentic, student-centered content via incidental learning. Despite the advantages of this socio-constructivist approach, however, Hanson and Shelton (2008) note that it is customary for learners to study within decontextualized environments, and in this vein, language acquisition content may often prove unengaging and lacking in tasks connected directly to the learner's linguistic or socio-educative needs.

Against this background, virtual reality (VR) technologies hold the potential to reinforce the strengths of task-based language teaching (TBLT) by simulating learning environments that exploit collaboration and existing linguistic knowledge. Further, VR is characterized in terms of "immersive, multisensory experience[s]" (Gigante, 1993, p. 3), requiring the usage of immersive technologies to sustain a simulated user interface. Consequently, VR provides distinct experiences that, in keeping with TBLT, may be perceived as "important, urgent, or meaningful" (Aubrey, 2017, p. 719). Despite these benefits, the nascent status of task-based VR instruction dictates that expansion in terms of viable pedagogy is necessary before

more pervasive adoption may occur.

Through a small-scale account of VR usage within a Japanese English as a foreign language (EFL) context, this article hopes to communicate the qualities that, in the view of the authors, confirm VR as a novel vehicle for task-based language acquisition; one that facilitates contextual, collaborative, and self-determined learning, and uniquely to the medium, a highly immersive synthetic presence. Specifically, the TBLT practice described here utilizes the Oculus series of gamified VR hardware in conjunction with the immersive information gap software Keep Talking and Nobody Explodes (KTNE). In demonstrating both the strengths and, where appropriate, limitations inherent to this approach, it is hoped that this enquiry draws attention to a new type of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) that offers encouraging possibilities for future task-based practice.

Background

The Rationale for CALL and Task-Based Language Teaching

As noted by Thomas and Reinders (2010), TBLT and CALL share a sequence of conceptual antecedents, comprising “project-based, content-based, and experiential learning, as well as constructivist and social constructivist thought” (p. 5). Lambert (2019) noted that experiential learning within the TBLT context is anchored to three points of reference: learning by doing, individual development, and relevance (pp. 155–156). Regarding the former, TBLT involves learners exploiting and refining existing knowledge in an effort to achieve specific language generation outcomes. Language acquisition is thus viewed as an incidental process occurring in consonance with a learner’s communicative requirements.

TBLT further serves to enhance the learner’s capacity to monitor and assess linguistic productions independently, and to establish internal syllabi to navigate a given context (i.e., individual development). Finally, task relevance refers to the utilization of tasks directly applicable to the communicative requirements of participants and, as noted by Lambert (2019), “their conceptions of what being proficient in a language involves” (p. 155). With these fundamental concepts in mind, the conditions for assessing TBLT correspond with Chapelle’s (2001) criteria for CALL task appropriateness, specifically, the principles of meaning focus, learner fit, and authenticity (p. 55).

On a practical level, TBLT-driven CALL directs learner focus towards the real-world employment of language, exploiting existing schemata to scaffold the language acquisition process collaboratively. Consequently, tasks conforming to this approach take a Vygotskyan socal constructivist turn, with learning positioned as a “creative process of discovery, expression, and synthesis” (Smith & Kim, 2017, p. 325) in which interaction serves as the primary impetus of meaning. In this regard, CALL activities enhance the affective dimensions of language use which may, in turn, reinforce self-efficacy and the willingness of learners to invest personal resources into task performance (Thomas, 2011).

Defining VR

Huang et al. (2010) noted that past descriptions of VR viewed the technology as any three-dimensional world viewed through, amongst other means, projectors, multiple displays, head-mounted devices, and augmented reality and tracked input devices. More recently, however, a consensus has been reached between Sherman and Craig (2003) and Mikropoulus and Bellou (2006), who have defined the current state of VR accordingly:

1. Virtual worlds that can be created to simulate real and impossible environments.
2. Tracking from controllers, headsets, and so on that provide multisensory interactions.
3. Interactional feedback from vibrations, or cause and effect reactions.
4. A high sense of immersion created from points 1–3.

The Usage of VR in Education

It has been noted by Monahan et al. (2008) that certain VR activities increase the degree and quality of peer-to-peer and student-to-content interactions. This synergy further enhances self-reflection and motivation (Lehtinen et al., 1999) while also broadening communities of practice on both the local and remote levels. In this communal context, students explore and negotiate linguistic features in peer-supported environments that minimize negative affective factors (Garcia-Ruiz et al., 2008).

Further, several studies (e.g., Budianto, 2014; Farivar & Rahimi, 2014) have described educational technologies as benefitting learner autonomy. In the context of VR-driven TBLT, self-determination is an inherent characteristic as learners generate contextual learning processes via the active negotiation and manipulation of virtual environments. Further, Schwienhorst (2002) suggested that VR and autonomy go hand-in-hand given the medium is highly effective in creating learner-centered environments. This follows an inquiry by Feria-Marrugo and Zúñiga-López (2016), who reported not only higher self-efficacy amongst participants but a preference for virtual learning over traditional tasks.

Given its multi-modal nature, VR also serves to balance language acquisition considered both implicit (unconscious) and explicit (selective). In the case of virtual reality learning environments (VRLEs), learners encounter visual, auditory, and tactile stimuli, allowing vocabulary to be absorbed within settings that reinforce the cognitive means of acquisition (Chen, 2016). For example, a three-dimensional representation of an airplane may be "touched" via haptic feedback and "heard" through headphones.

Hanson and Shelton (2008), meanwhile, characterized circumstantial learning occasioned by VR as a sequence of cognitive restructurings, from the representational to the conceptual. In this regard, the manipulation of virtual objects permits learners to independently observe and evaluate the immediate conditions of their input, and thus, witness more clearly the causal relationships between action and result, implying that students generate knowledge more effectively within VRLEs.

Finally, the "immersion" described by Mikropoulus and Bellou (2006)

somewhat understates VR's current status. Indeed, VR may better be described in terms of "presence," which represents a heightened sense of absorption within a virtual space, to the point where the participant believes that they are somatically situated within the learning environment. Accordingly, an inquiry by Repetto et al. (2015) measuring the impact of presence on virtual language acquisition demonstrated an increase in test response accuracy in accordance with the perceived authenticity of the VR setting. As posited by Makowski et al. (2017), improved memory recall may result from heightened concentration within highly immersive contexts, creating more complex cognitive processing during language learning (Chen, 2016).

TASK IMPLEMENTATION

Participants

This study consisted of three Japanese private university students (1 male, 2 female), all of whom were nineteen-year-old international studies majors possessing an EFL comprehension level recognized as intermediate to upper-intermediate (B1–B2) by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. All learners had participated in one full semester of tertiary-level English education, during which they were exposed to a mixture of oral communication, extensive reading, and academic writing classes weekly. Of the three, only one participant had previous experience of VR technology, albeit in a non-educational context. Finally, two of the three reported that they participated in electronic gaming regularly, while the remaining student indicated that she enjoyed video games "from time to time."

Hardware and Software

This study utilized the Oculus Rift Quest (ORQ) VR gaming headset, which unlike previous iterations of the Oculus product line, is an all-in-one apparatus that foregoes physical or digital connectivity to external PCs. One of the principal benefits of ORQ, therefore, is the freedom of usage given to the user. The onboard Oculus Insight tracking system translates user feedback into the virtual space, regardless of real-world location or play area boundaries, without the need for external sensors or wires. Further, player input is recorded using dual Oculus Touch controllers that allow the user to pick up, hold, and relinquish virtual objects with intuitive, realistic precision and haptic-kinesthetic feedback (see Oculus Quest, 2019).

To target a collaborative, task-based VR experience, it was decided to employ ORQ in conjunction with the information gap puzzle game KTNE. This software is designed to be played with at least two participants, with the player operating ORQ tasked with disarming procedurally generated bombs. One participant wore the headset (the "defuser"), while two others gave them instructions. The defuser has five minutes, or a maximum of three mistakes, until the bomb explodes, at which point participants change roles.

This defuser is assisted by partner "experts," who communicate the

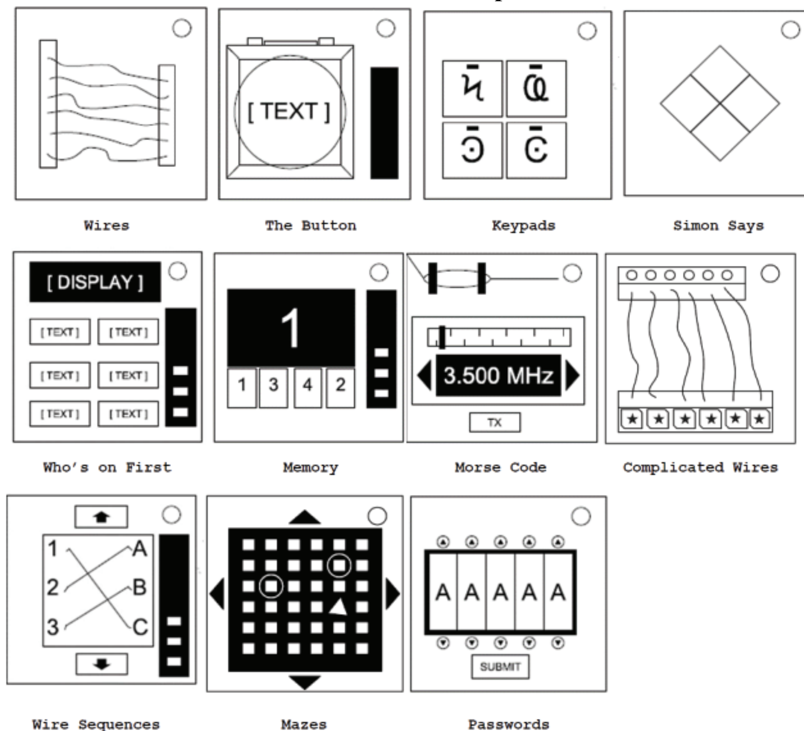
information necessary for successful completion contained within the bomb defusal manual, a contextually immersive instruction booklet. The modules of each bomb manifest algorithmically, resulting in a myriad of bomb component combinations, and the requirement for KTNE participants to generate linguistic and problem-solving strategies in real time via rapid and accurate information exchange. Accordingly, KTNE serves to enhance the following holistic skills:

- Functioning efficiently and strategically as part of a team.
- Describing, labeling, and communicating visual information.
- Generating questions to elicit feedback.
- Searching specialized EFL text to locate precise instructions.

Task Preparation

Given the complex information-gap nature of KTNE, in which the disarmament of bomb modules necessitates virtual wire cutting, code-breaking, maze negotiation, and password and numbered sequence memorization, it was important that participants were given adequate time to prepare. Prior to task implementation, each learner was briefed on the activity, gave informed consent, and provided with a specialized vocabulary list, module identification chart (see Figure 1), and bomb defusal manual, before being allocated ten minutes to orientate themselves to the task. During this time, the authors prepared a demonstration of the activity to be introduced once students had finished preparation.

FIGURE 1. The Eleven Bomb Module Components Used in KTNE



Post-demonstration, learners were provided with copies of a keypad identification worksheet and given five minutes to translate and label each of the 27 abstract symbols used during the keypad task (see Figure 2). This handout not only facilitated efficient in-game communication of task-critical components but served as a warm-up activity, allowing learners to generate unique and memorable lexical strategies for task completion. This activity conforms to the concepts of supportive performance and focus on form, in which TBLT activities provide learners opportunities to “optimize their own task performance by being provided with time to plan,” and draw attention to “forms that are difficult to acquire incidentally during the performance of communicative tasks,” respectively (Lambert, 2019, p. 156). During the final phase of task preparation, each participant completed the five-minute KTNE tutorial. This level consisted of utilizing the ORQ headset and controllers for basic orientation tasks, such as navigating the virtual space and fundamental task completion measures, including item manipulation, wire cutting, and button pressing.

FIGURE 2. The Various Symbols Used in the KTNE Keypad Activity

Ϙ	Ӭ	©	б	Ψ	б
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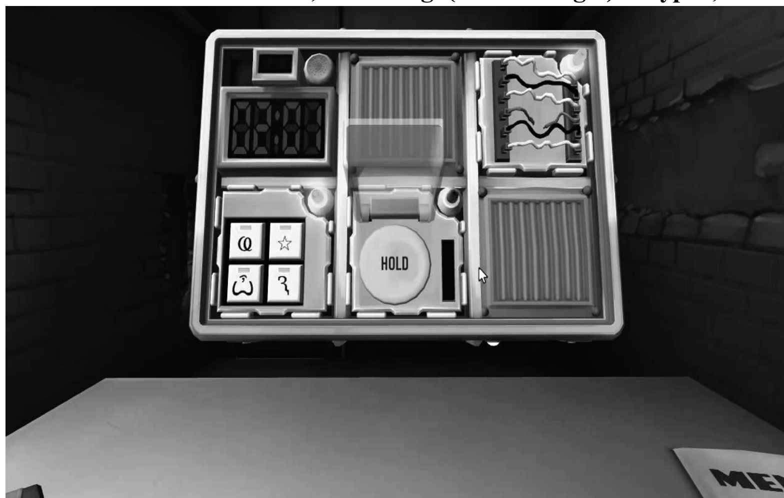
ƛ	Ͽ	Ҩ	Ѣ	Ѣ	҂
Ϟ	Ҩ	Җ	Ѭ	Ͼ	æ
Ѭ	☆	Ԇ	Җ	¶	Ψ
ϗ	ϗ	ƛ	¿	Ѯ	Ҋ
Ͽ	¿	☆	ټ	★	Ω

Task Delivery and Feedback

Initially, participants were divided into a single defuser and two experts, and were tasked with completing KTNE’s five-minute opening level, which involved an elementary device containing three procedurally generated modules (see Figure 3). While the defuser employed the ORQ headset and controllers to navigate the virtual environment, experts were tasked with assisting the defuser using the bomb disposal manual. Learners were directed to proceed throughout the device tiers, with each instance becoming gradually more complex until failure. Due to time constraints, this was limited to three defuser sessions per user, all of which were successful. It should be noted that while this activity initially required players to disarm three modules per device, a single game of KTNE may

incorporate up to eleven, with game time adjustable in increments of 30 seconds to account for the additional complexity of more advanced puzzles. Upon the completion of each bomb defusal session, participants were instructed to swap roles between defuser and expert so each learner could experience the KTNE activity loop in its entirety. All participants were successful in defusing the bomb.

FIGURE 3. The First Bomb, Featuring (Left to Right) Keypad, Button, and Wires Activities



Once all learners had completed three bomb puzzles as a defuser, participant reception and feedback measures were implemented. Specifically, player enjoyment, engagement, and contribution levels were self-reported via a semi-structured group interview, with the task participation and socialization elements that impacted the learning experience grouped under the themes highlighted in this article's background section. Further, the perceived suitability of the technology for contextual-experiential language generation, and its impact on participant desire to exploit VR media for tertiary-level EFL consumption, was addressed. It should also be noted that participants were encouraged to respond in either Japanese or English, depending on their comfort with the concepts being discussed; the majority of recorded feedback was in English. To ensure thorough thematic evaluation of this data, interview transcripts were analyzed inductively via open coding methods, including Braun and Clark's (2006) six-phase framework for thematic analysis, which involved examination of the aggregated data set, as opposed to individual participant responses (Rivas, 2012, p. 370).

LEARNER FEEDBACK AND DISCUSSION

As noted by Aubrey (2017), the cognitive mechanisms that drive task-based interactions "involve curiosity-driven engagement with a specific activity, such as solving a problem, which can impact emotional engagement through changes in willingness to interact, attitudes towards the task, and sense of enjoyment" (p. 3). In this vein, findings indicate that VR represents a feasible delivery method for TBLT. Specifically, participants reported a uniformly high degree of satisfaction

with VR, stating that it was "fun" on numerous occasions and that the enjoyable and collaborative nature of the activity acted as a potential driver of interaction and task completion, and reporting that they "didn't hesitate to talk," particularly when occupying the role of defuser.

In this regard, the VR task may have involved participants emotionally to build an intrinsically rewarding language learning experience that, in keeping with Csíkszentmihályi's (1990) flow theory, engendered immersion conducive to higher involvement and improved task performance. The heightened degree of co-located collaboration, in which the task was judged to be "especially fun because we got to play it together," created a sense of shared belonging. This enhanced group social identity, potentially creating a more tangible context for the language being acquired and the conditions that drive learning (Lave & Wenger, 1990).

It should also be noted that the gamified nature of the task at times occasioned incidental linguistic performance ("I really didn't notice or care about the language"), demonstrating consistency with the learning-by-doing concept that upholds TBLT practice. However, that is not to say that form was eschewed entirely. On several occasions, participants noted that they were careful to verbalize their inquiries clearly when operating within the virtual environment. Interestingly, this was noted to be the most challenging part of the activity on account of the isolating nature of the ORQ apparatus. When asked how this impacted their language usage, one respondent described how they "had to explain things more clearly, and I had to listen more carefully" because the "emotions or face[s]" of her partners were not readily visible.

These statements support a heightened sense of presence experienced by learners within the virtual space and, to some extent, the findings of Repetto et al. (2015), who found a direct correlation between linguistic accuracy and the degree of immersion within a VR environment. The impact of cognitive presence was confirmed by all participants, who agreed that the TBLT experience felt realistic in VR. Moreover, one learner indicated that "[VR] was much better [because] you felt like you were there in that situation." Further, the presence experienced during collaboration motivated learners to take additional team strategy measures, demonstrating consistency with Garzotto (2007), who lists "apply[ing] knowledge for creative problem solving, develop[ing] strategies for overcoming obstacles, and optimiz[ing] performance within constraints" (p. 29) as key skills for CALL gamification.

While not explicitly directed to do so, it was noted by the authors that the subjects immediately divided the expert role into two distinct phases. Upon the commencement of a new bomb disposal task, the defuser would describe the virtual bomb per the module identification chart, giving a brief overview of each activity to be completed. At the same time, both experts took notes and located pertinent information in the bomb disposal manual before providing instructions on a rotational basis. While Expert 1 was directing the defuser to complete the first module, Expert 2 was researching the next activity and formulating English-medium questions that facilitated efficient task completion. In doing so, the learners adapted their linguistic output, establishing internal strategies to navigate the language generation context of KTNE, suggesting a consistency with the individual development previously described as an essential feature of effective task-based practice.

Additionally, when questioned on their preferred number of participants for task performance, the learners were uniform in their belief that three players facilitated efficient communication and collaboration. Specifically, if the number of experts was to be increased, the complexity of the task would be enhanced unnecessarily on account of the difficulty in tracking additional peer commands and feedback; put simply, "you wouldn't be sure who to listen to." Likewise, one expert was viewed as inadequate given that "it would be more difficult to read everything [with] one person," thereby negatively impacting the process of locating, categorizing, and communicating task-critical information described above. It should be noted, however, that this was the learners' first time using both ORQ and KTNE, so any frame of reference was severely limited.

Despite agreeing that "[VR] would be a good study thing for the class," participants were hesitant to give it their full recommendation for tertiary-level EFL education on account of its enjoyability. Specifically, it may be viewed as "more like a game, rather than [something by which] to learn language." While a valid critique, this statement nevertheless emphasizes the potential for subconscious language acquisition via collaborative gaming software. This is consistent with the findings of Garzotto (2007), who posits that the positive affective considerations occasioned by participating in multiplayer games represent a key motivation for learner engagement, raising educational effectiveness via incidental learning experiences.

Indeed, recognizing the association between learning and social interaction (Rogoff, 1990), the educational benefits of VR are, as noted by Garzotto (2007), "potentially even stronger in situations of social gaming involving multiple players" (p. 29). Following Ellis (2003), the task's cognitive and interactive demands, and the presence of incidental EFL acquisition, strengthen the authors' claims of effective task-based practice. Lambert (2019) also notes that TBLT conceptualizes tasks "in terms of learners' real-world needs and the relevance that this has for them" (p. 14). While the likelihood of these learners participating in legitimate bomb disposal remains extremely remote, successful navigation of the VR task necessitated the use of true-to-life communicative skills, including critical thinking, problem-solving, peer-to-peer negotiation, and the four skills for communication.

The applicability of VR for contextual language learning and holistic skill development is further supported by participant feedback. When questioned, "Do you believe that VR can have a positive impact on your ability to communicate in English?" the learners were uniform in their agreement, clarifying not only that they would like to experience VR EFL content in their future education but that the presence felt during these activities would prove beneficial to their relevant, and thus authentic, language generation contexts. Specifically, one participant noted the difficulty in transferring vocabulary acquired during regular classes to real-world situations; yet, "if I use that word in this [VR] situation, in this class, I can get used to it."

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Practice

Given its purposefully small-scale nature, this account of VR-driven TBLT lays no claims to comprehensiveness; indeed, considering this study utilized low

participant numbers and was conducted within a single department within a private Japanese university setting, its results are highly contextual. With this in view, the authors advise caution if attempting to generalize these findings beyond their present scope. Nevertheless, Donmoyer (2008) suggests that "reading qualitative accounts of radically different cases could produce enriched cognitive schema … [which] would allow for a kind of intellectual generalization even when settings are radically different" (p. 372).

Further, the negative impact of COVID-19 on this inquiry cannot be overstated. Follow-up measures were severely impeded and limited to additional questioning only. To that end, the authors suggest that future investigations into task-based VR increase not only student numbers, but the number and variety of devices used. For example, utilizing two or more ORQ units (budget allowing) to increase the number of defuser roles and thus groups actively participating in the task. It was the intention of this study to repeat KTNE sessions while also using tablets or laptops so that comparisons could be made between devices, user interfaces, and learner experiences. The authors had hoped that this would enhance the conclusions of this study and encourage future researchers to develop upon the method described here.

The authors also concede that the novelty effect, or the tendency for task performance to improve primarily in response to curiosity in a newly introduced technology, may have played a role in learner feedback. As previously described, all participants reported little to no previous experience with VR, and none within an educational context. Given that learning gains occasioned by the novelty effect "tend to diminish as students become more familiar with the new medium" (Pisapia et al., 1993, p. 76), it must also be recognized that a more longitudinal strategy would have benefitted this study. Again, this was not possible due to the outbreak of COVID-19; however, the authors hope to implement follow-up measures in a future investigation.

It should also be noted that the technology presented here revealed several practical constraints that necessitate clarification. For instance, despite the increased affordability of the technology, VR gamification remains an expensive endeavor. Presently, the official Oculus website prices ORQ at ¥49,800–62,800, depending on onboard storage capacity (Oculus Quest, 2019). With this expense in mind, the authors speculate that a blended learning station rotation model (Staker & Horn, 2012) may improve the learning experience of larger groups, in which, for example, learners rotate on a fixed schedule between teacher-led instruction, collaborative task-based activities, and VR.

Indeed, the expense and inherently isolating nature of the technology (Keskitalo, 2011) may restrict the implementation of VR within larger groups, particularly during first-time use. It is suggested that practitioner familiarity with the technology and, more importantly, learner-task sequencing and scaffolding are crucial. Additionally, while KTNE is a seated experience offering sufficient multi-modal interactions, it lacks a key presence multiplier, namely standing and navigating the physical space (Chan, 2015). In the context of the present study, this involved a relatively comfortable user experience; however, a significant portion of VR software is comprised of locomotion-based activities (Boletsis & Cedergren, 2019) that may create a disparity with the body's vestibular system, thereby resulting in nausea and vertigo (Clarke et al., 2016).

It should also be noted that ORQ is not specifically targeted towards pedagogical contexts and thus lacks the classroom management functionality that rival solutions, such as ClassVR (2019), offer as standard. ClassVR provides educators with a host of features, including the capacity to launch activities simultaneously, highlight key areas within a VR application, and display headset views in real time, albeit with significantly inferior tracking capabilities and headset specifications compared to the ORQ. While several of the features offered by ClassVR are feasible in ORQ, they necessitate an advanced knowledge of the apparatus on behalf of the educator if they are to be implemented.

While gamified VR-TBLT represents the core focus of this investigation, it is worth mentioning other pedagogic approaches to the technology. For example, VR presence further supports the understanding of intricate concepts via transactional interaction with immersive multimedia, such as video and real-time satellite imagery. A geography-centric EFL lesson or syllabus may, for instance, exploit Google Earth VR to “transport” learners to distant terrain landforms to acquire and exploit specialized vocabulary to study climate, topography, or other geographical features (He et al., 2016).

To conclude, this account of task-based practice seeks to provide a deeper awareness of the properties that contribute to the pedagogical application of VR and, in doing so, foster increased adoption within the EFL context. As demonstrated here, the implementation of VR should place functionally relevant educational content as a key driver of the gamified experience. Indeed, the act of play “should draw directly on the knowledge and skills that the game is designed to foster in its users and should promote reflection about or application of such knowledge and skills” (Garzotto, 2007, p. 30) to occasion learning that serves to enhance student interest and enrich the language learning experience. Practitioners may thus apply VR broadly to EFL or English-medium instruction, either as an isolated learning experience or in partnership with traditional classroom methods.

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"You Talking to Me?" – English Speaking Practice Through Movies

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Independent and incidental acquisition of vocabulary through film is a lifelong learning skill. This research project examines a two-day, face-to-face, film-based speaking course. It investigates how the use of intentional vocabulary-learning activities and production through contextual cues are effective in converting passive mastery into active production. The qualitative approach consists of recorded conversations, instructor observations, and pre- and post-course surveys. The participants are mixed-level businesspeople and public servants who use English at work. Observations and recordings highlight a greater understanding and active application of the vocabulary introduced. Surveys show that student confidence in their ability to express themselves in general conversation decreased by 16.4% from *I can do it* (*easily*) to *I need more practice*, while confidence in work-related English use decreased by 17.3%. It can be concluded that pre-course level-assessment, confidence building, and maximizing output time can improve active use of language acquired through film.

INTRODUCTION

This study was conducted during the first summer of the COVID-19 pandemic and encompassed two days of a face-to-face course for adults at a university in Japan. The purpose of this course was to improve learner English-speaking skills by using English language films. The author and instructor selected four Hollywood movies from the 2000s and focused on mastering a set of colloquial phrases as her initial learning goals. Mastery included confirming that students understood, could use, and respond to these phrases in conversation. Considering the importance of obtaining independent study skills in this lifelong learning environment, the author believed film to be an easy-access learning tool, easy to fit into a learner's working schedule, and easy to obtain materials that interest the learner.

Independent and incidental acquisition of vocabulary through film supports the idea of discovery of new vocabulary in specific situations which then aids transference. According to Hulstijn (2001), the literature on L1 and L2 vocabulary acquisition concluded that incidental acquisition happens "as a by-product of the learner being engaged in a listening, reading, speaking, or writing activity" (p. 269). Should an independent listening activity such as watching a film interest the learner, one could conclude that occurrences of incidental learning, if passive, would increase.

This study aimed to gain insights into the efficacy of using both intentional vocabulary-learning activities, such as modeling and incidental learning (discovery) in a film-based conversation course. The focus was converting passive vocabulary and phrases into active functions to be produced in two conversational situations: conversation starters and English at work.

This research was guided by the following two research questions:

RQ1. Is the use of intentional vocabulary-learning activities effective in converting passive mastery into active production?

RQ2. Is production through contextual cues effective in converting passive mastery into active production?

METHOD

Being that this was a short-term action research project, the methodology was limited to a qualitative in-class approach, based on instructor observations, video recordings of the final role-play task, and pre- and post-course surveys.

The participants consisted of eleven Japanese, post-university, working adults. Represented were business people, public servants, and teachers who use English at work. Age varied from thirty-eight to seventy-eight. The participants can be further classified by language learning goals stemming from their professions and interest: a love of movies and/or learning English and the need for business English. Though the class requirements included intermediate-level English, there was a great variety in listening and speaking skill levels.

Research tools were dialogues from short scenes taken from films of varying genres, input and output, pair, and group activities. The scenes were selected based on two situational themes: conversation starters and English at work. Although these were pre-selected by the instructor based on student workplace information, they also match the learning goals that the students had set for themselves as evidenced by their responses to the pre-course surveys.

IMPLEMENTATION

The two-day course was constructed around four ninety-minute lessons. Each course day consisted of two sessions, each focusing on a different film and new dialogues.

An outline of our second session, shared with attending learners, can be found below (see Figure 1). We started with a review of the previously studied phrases, then proceeded to discuss the plot of the upcoming film without spoilers. As you can see below, there were four dialogues introduced that day, which were first reduced to useful phrases, modelled, then practiced and included in transfer activities. A slow start building from shorter to longer dialogues seemed to help students with a much-needed step up to the final activities of the day. In-class collaboration was essential and expected.

FIGURE 1. Example Overview of 90-Minute Session

No.	Course work
1	Opening
2	Review
3	About the movie
4	Scene 1
5	Scene 2
6	Scene 3
7	Scene 4
8	Group work
9	Closing

In-class activities included both warm-up and input and output activities. Warm-ups varied per session and introduced general knowledge of (Hollywood) films through elicitation of famous lines and iconic scenes. For example, learners look at a GIF from a film and attempt to guess the corresponding film title. Both the Japanese and the English title were acceptable.

Input

Results from Kalra's (2017) research into the use of film in the classroom show that a high percentage of students believed that concerning "the development of their oral production skills … films provided [a] higher chance for learning real-life authentic language," and as a result, opportunities to practice real-life conversation (p. 298). The author/instructor selected target phrases and input activities in line with this belief.

Input activities in this course consisted of the following:

- reading along with a script
- reading along with English subtitles
- target phrase repetition in pairs or groups
- mini-lectures on selected dialogue cues and responses
- review phrases
- dialogue re-watch
- question and answer session

Example 1: Target language extract
A. Have I made myself clear?
B. Crystal.

Example 2: Mini-lecture on dialogue cues
"If you are given a compliment, you should always respond with *thank you* and, if possible, return the compliment."

Leaving out verbs and subjects to focus on tone changes was discussed. For instance, introductions with names only and emphatic responses.

Example 3
• Bumper (*callout*), huge fan.
• Hard pass!

Output

While watching a scene, learners "can notice … types of exclamations and fill-in expressions … how people initiate and sustain … and … terminate an interactive episode. Subsequent practice of dialogues, role-playing, and dramatizations will lead to deeper learning" (Shumin, 2002, p. 219).

Although output activities consisted of working with the target phrases, sometimes students would ask about other phrases that they found interesting in a scene (discovery), and these would be included in the practice. Review activities took the form of pair or group activities such as gap text, situational cues, discussion questions, and a final video role-play.

For the fill-in-the-gap review activities, learners would look at sentences that were like the situational dialogue in the film. They would then have to pick the correct phrase from all the target phrases that they had learned so far.

Example 4: Fill-in-the-gap
Beyonce inspired me to become a singer → *Singer* was *composer* in the film.

Example 5: Situational cues
• Someone asks you what you did in your previous job. What do you say?
  ◦ I was a … / I was in charge of … / I ran …
• You would like to be friends on Facebook. What do you say?
  ◦ Are you <u>on</u> Facebook? Can I friend you?

Example 6: Group discussion topics
What is the difference between a *trailer* and a *spoiler*?
What is Bollywood? How do you know?
Would you pay to see a movie in the theatre? Why (not)?

The final video role-play was intended to be the culmination of two days of input and help students make the transfer from passive to active use of phrases. They worked in groups of three or four learners. They were free to select any dialogue from the course and perform it as they saw fit. They practiced in different rooms, recorded their dialogue, and uploaded it to Padlet for easy-access peer evaluation using star ratings and short comments (see Figure 2). Penultimately, learners were provided with how-to-study handouts introducing self-study tasks that could be continued after the course.

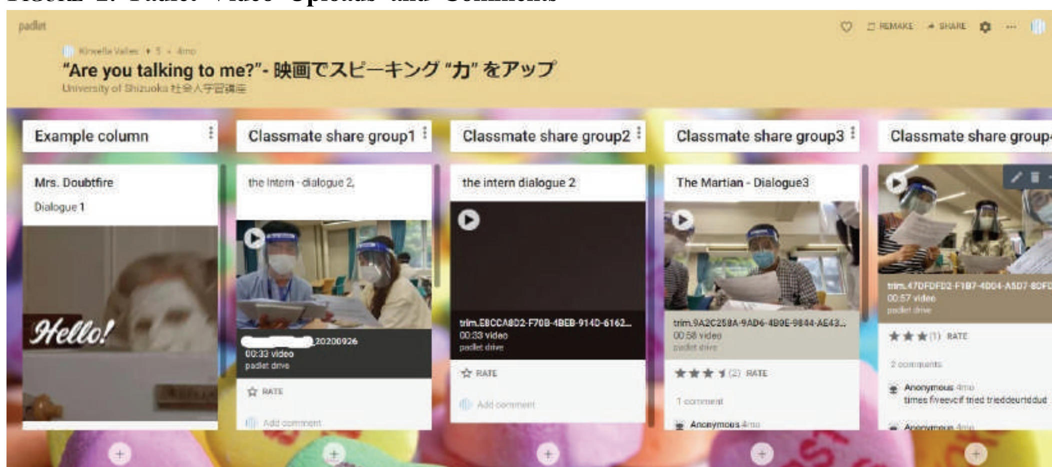
RESULTS

Observations and Final Role-Play Videos

Observations showed that learners retained "surprising" and "discovery" phrases

the best, while they showed improvement in pronunciation. Due to the short time frame, the transfer of vocabulary was episodic but present.

FIGURE 2. Padlet Video Uploads and Comments



In class, Learner A stated that one of the most useful phrases they had acquired was “Are you on Facebook?” The contrast with the Japanese equivalent, “Do you use Facebook?” was surprising and made this phrase memorable. Learners B, C, and D took a liking to the phrases “I hope you’ll accept my apology,” “make it/that happen,” and “on his watch.”

Learner E was struck by a phrase while watching a scene and thought it most interesting: “God forbid I try to…” Though it was not used for focused or target language practice, the learner “discovered” it, while watching and was interested in the meaning. This sparked a lively theological and grammar discussion. In the end, they used it in their final video project.

Examples of short, supportive, and concise comments that learners left along with a star rating under their classmates’ videos were “sounds clear” and “good job!” Though pronunciation of the higher register words was challenging at first, learners managed to master it through practice.

Surveys

At the beginning of the course, 9.1% of learners started out thinking “I can do it easily” but ended up stating “I need more practice.” “It” in this context means speaking in general conversation. The pie charts in Figures 3 and 4 show that in general conversation there is a increase of 16.4% in the “I need more practice” pre- and post-course response. The same was true for English at work where “I can do it” decreased by 17.3%.

FIGURE 3. Pre-course Confidence in General Conversation

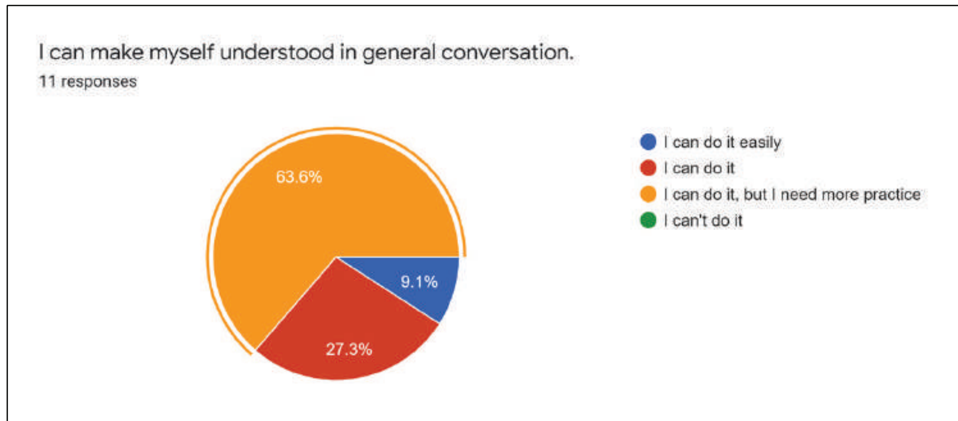
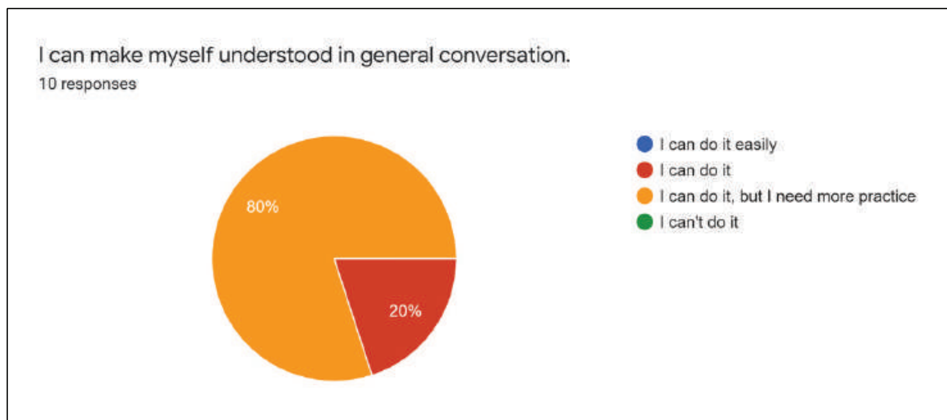


FIGURE 4. Post-course Confidence in General Conversation



It could be concluded that the self-assigned starting level was higher than their objective starting level, as their self-evaluation hinged mostly on passive knowledge and not active production skills.

DISCUSSION

Class observations and videos led this author/instructor to the following opinion. Students obtained a greater understanding of the vocabulary introduced throughout the course and an improved ability to actively apply them in dialogues. Learners were able to both effectively retain a small body of new phrases (passive) and use them actively (transfer) throughout the course.

LIMITATIONS

This course presented three or four dialogues from four different films. This setup led one student to comment that perhaps two films would have been more

effective. The author concluded from this constructive commentary that there was too much input to process comfortably. It stands to reason that the learner preferred more practice activities or more situational phrases from just two contexts. In addition, this study's short term and a focus group of one-time course takers precluded the use of tools that confirm long-term retention, and as such, this study cannot provide long-term data.

Future Implementations

Further study should include the effects of the aforementioned increase in the production exercises by minimizing input time. This is best achieved by first introducing phrases and functions from only two films and further limiting target-phrase selection to two shorter scenes.

Conclusions

To improve active use of language acquired through film, a pre-course level assessment is important so that learners starting levels will be accurately reflected. Though a more realistic view of their starting level is important, confidence-building activities must also be included to support learners and prevent them from leveling down to "I can't do it." Regarding the priority of input and output time allotment, maximizing output should trump input by expanding practice with guided, and independent, extensive activities.

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Teaching Presentation Skills Online: An Experimental Study

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This study aimed to help improve students' public speaking skills, which is a graduation requirement at International University. A total of 44 intermediate-level students were selected, and a mixed model with a pre-test, a post-test, and observation was applied. In addition to the lecturer's input and tips, the experimental students benefited from cooperative learning and technology applications. Also, they were required to video-record their homework presentations and give feedback and suggestions on other presentations based on a provided checklist. Google Drive was recommended to give students easy access to sample presentations for reflection and self-improvement. After the eight-week treatment, pre-test and post-test results revealed that students in the experimental group achieved better scores on their presentations regarding organization, visual aids, and minor improvements in pronunciation, lexical usage, and grammatical usage. This paper sheds light on an alternative for teaching public speaking online.

INTRODUCTION

In today's challenging job-hunting market, equipping graduates with a competitive edge is what most training institutions include in their acting missions. However, according to many experts and employers, there remains a tremendous gap between what schools provide and what enterprises demand, especially regarding oral communication (Chan, 2011); universities and colleges should be an appropriate place to train students for this valuable skill (Van Ginkel et al., 2015). To be well-prepared for the workplace, competence in delivering a clear and logical talk in front of the public, using appropriate language and performing in a professional style, appears to be one of the most important soft skills that undergraduates should acquire before completing their college studies (Živković, 2014).

Training students to have good presentation skills is not a simple task, and the COVID-19 pandemic has forced institutions to turn to online teaching, making this task more challenging. A few studies have investigated factors that help learners improve their presentation competence; one factor is giving peer feedback (Day et al., 2021; De Grez et al., 2012; Nguyen, 2013). This study explored the impacts of combining the use of peer feedback with video-recorded presentations with the hope of improving students' public speaking skills.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Throughout the course of teaching and learning, peer feedback, whether in peer review, peer response, or peer evaluation, has been considered an effective component in the learning process. This activity helps foster "scaffolding and collaborative learning, facilitate social interaction, and create knowledge construction and sharing opportunities" (Liu & Hansen, 2005, p. 13). De Grez et al. (2012) surveyed 57 first-year university students on their perception of teacher assessment, self-assessment, and peer assessment on oral presentation skills. The results reported that students showed "a very positive attitude towards the value of peer assessment" (p. 136). Welsh (2012) lent support to this view via a study of 170 students in the first year of a bachelor of education honors degree, introducing self- and peer-based formative assessment strategies. She claimed that students appreciated the peer feedback as much as the tutor feedback. Gikandi and Morrow (2016) aimed to discover how peer-to-peer formative feedback was facilitated in an online course and found that formative peer feedback promoted active learners' participation and meaningful engagement. However, in a recent study carried out by Day et al. (2021), an online tool was used to provide and receive peer feedback. The finding suggested that providing and receiving feedback did not relate to students' improvement in presentation skills.

If a 21st-century oral communication skillset requires web conferencing and virtual group collaboration, then teaching an online course in the time of a pandemic should include those elements (Ward, 2016). Online course components should meet the demands of learners. Li (2018) did a study involving 29 students and used an experimental approach. She used video-assisted self-reflection (VASR) for the experimental participants instead of authentic face-to-face teaching for 14 weeks. She showed that VASR was beneficial in enhancing learner's non-verbal communication skills. Yu and Zadorozhnyy (2021) explored how to replace traditional in-class presentations with video presentations within an autonomous learning environment. The results reported that video presentations could replace traditional in-class presentations and help improve learning autonomy, language competence, collaboration, and digital literacy skills. Galindo et al. (2020) conducted an experiment asking engineering learners to create videos as the assignment requirement and concluded that this activity improved oral presentation skills.

Rationale of the Study

The authors' setting is one of the leading public universities in Vietnam, carrying the mission of creating high-quality education via modern facilities, international curriculum, and innovative teaching methods. Most students come from wealthy families with technology devices in hand and are eager to participate in social activities or campaigns. Some are even leaders or organizers of clubs administered by the youth union of the school.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the switch to online teaching boosted the demand to receive new and effective teaching methods, especially for courses like public speaking. The traditional method caused boredom and a lack of motivation, which might have been due to poor internet connection, low interaction, or

passive learning. Relevant literature was consulted, but none of the studies mentioned above appeared effective when replicated. With this in mind, the idea of a research study using a combination of peer feedback and video presentations from learners with the hope that there would be a positive change in teaching and learning in the 21st century and, more importantly, to explore the impact of this combination on learners' public speaking competence.

Research Questions

This research study aimed to investigate the impact of combining peer feedback and video presentations from learners in an online teaching context on learners' public speaking competence. The research questions are as follows:

RQ1. Do students in the experimental group achieve higher post-test scores than those in the control group?
RQ2. How well do the experimental group students follow the guidelines and do as instructed throughout the experiment period?

Method

The Sampling

The participants came from two academic English classes at an intermediate level, one with 27 students and one with 28. All these students possessed an English competency of at least IELTS Band 6.0. Students were informed of the research study, and consent to join the study was collected.

In the first three weeks, for two periods per week, students were given detailed instructions on the presentation framework, including three foundation lessons: (a) techniques on how to start a presentation, (b) techniques on how to link the parts in the body of the presentation, and (c) techniques on how to end a presentation. Then, students took the pre-test in class, which was a 4–6-minute individual presentation. Since each class meet was a 90-minute session, each class was divided into two groups, and each group was graded by two examiners using a rubric that included analytical and global assessments. (See Appendix A for pre-test presentation guidelines, and see Appendix B for pre-test/post-test rubrics).

With the scores from the pre-test, 22 students of each group were chosen, randomly assigned to a control group and an experimental group with the statistics in Table 1.

Table 1. Pre-test Statistics for the Control and Experimental Groups

Pre-test	*n*	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control Group	22	59.14	5.99
Experimental Group	22	58.82	6.04

The Treatment

The control group and the experimental group shared three key similarities: (a) the length of training, which was eight weeks, (b) the online teaching and learning mode via Zoom application, and (c) the content, including coursebooks, sample video clips for reflection learning, content focus (visual aids, language use, body language, voicing techniques), and topics for homework (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. The Content of a Typical Lesson

Steps	Activities
1	Greetings and socializing
2	Homework presentations from some random presenters (via Zoom screen sharing)
3	Oral feedback from friends and teacher
4	Tips for pronunciation (if possible)
5	Briefing of new lesson keynotes
6	Sample presentations/clips and discussion (if possible)
7	Announcement of homework

The differences between the two groups lay in the method of how the weekly homework was constructed. In the experimental group, all the students were required to video record their presentation using recording freeware called *Bandicam*. A critical requirement for the videos was to show the upper part of the presenter so that body language features, such as eye contact, facial expressions, and hand gestures, could be judged. Each week, a Google Drive link, set in the editing mode, was created and sent to students, serving as access to homework video submission.

Also, a peer feedback scheme was established, giving the experimental students clear guidelines each week on how to provide feedback and who to provide feedback to (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Peer Feedback Scheme

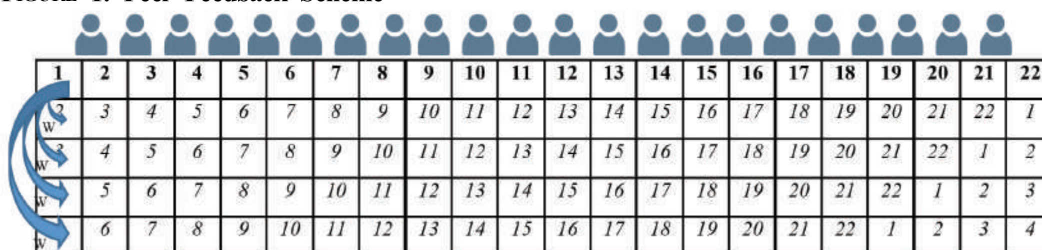

Figure 1 illustrates the peer feedback scheme circulation in the experimental group. Weeks 1–3 were reserved for foundation training, so the feedback scheme took place from Week 4 onward. In Week 4, Student 1 would give feedback to Student 2; then Student 2 would give feedback to Student 3. In Week 5, Student 1 would provide feedback to Student 3. This scheme would provide a clear and transparent scheme to all the participants of who would receive feedback from whom each week.

Regarding the reliability of peer feedback, according to Kaufman and Schunn (2011), students often feel skeptical of the usefulness of feedback their peers produce, as they are concerned that not all peers are competent enough to help them. One way to alleviate learners' skepticism was to give sample feedback from lecturers during the first three weeks. (See Appendix D for a sample checklist). From Week 4, individuals used the provided checklist and were asked to provide as detailed feedback as possible to their peers. Feedback was required to be uploaded onto a specific folder on Google Drive, with strict rules for naming the feedback file. These rules would make it fast and effective when any participant wanted to look for their feedback. Observation notes were constantly kept to see whether students followed the guidelines. After eight weeks, students took the post-test in the same format and condition as the pre-test. (See Appendix C for post-test presentation guidelines.)

Research Instruments and Data Analysis

Research instruments included the pre-test, post-test, and observation notes. After the students took the post-test, the statistics tool MiniTab19 was used to perform the following:

- Independent sample *t* tests: to compare the differences between the pre-test scores and post-test scores of both groups
- Various paired-sample *t* tests: to compare the improvement of specific criteria of each group

Results and Discussion

Table 3. Independent Sample *t* Test of Post-test Scores

Group	*n*	Mean	Standard Deviation
Control	22	70.86	6.42
Experimental	22	81.64	4.95

Table 4. Paired Sample *t* Test of the Means

Group	*n*	Mean
Control	22	11.72
Experimental	22	22.87

The figures in Table 3 revealed post-test score statistics for the control group (n = 22, M = 70.86, SD = 6.42) and the experimental group (n = 22, M = 81.64, SD = 4.95) with a p value of <0.05. The p value indicated a significant difference between the scores of the two groups.

Looking back at the figures in Table 1, with n = 22, M = 59.14, SD = 5.99 for the control group and n = 22, M = 58.82, SD = 6.04 for the experimental group and with a p value of > 0.05, students of the two groups were more or less at the same level at the beginning of the research. The dependent sample *t* test (Table 4) showed that the experimental students outperformed those in the control group

with a score improvement average of 22.87 compared to 11.72 for the control group. This finding was in line with the study conducted by Galindo et al. (2020), which found that video presentations helped improve learners' oral presentation skills.

TABLE 5. Paired Sample *t* Test of Specific Criteria

Group	*n*	Pronunciation	Language	Body Language	Organization	Content	Visual Aids
Control	22	1.23	1.55	1.14	2.78	3.82	1.81
Experimental	22	2.5	2.0	2.68	4.18	5.91	3.86

For analytical assessment, statistical results (see Table 5) revealed that students in both groups improved as a matter of maturity after eight weeks of training. It was interesting to witness more improvement in the experimental group, especially in content, organization, and visual aids, with scores of 5.91, 4.18, and 3.86, respectively. Therefore, in response to research question 1, whether examining the statistical figures as a whole or analytically, the experimental students achieved higher post-test scores than those in the control group.

A quick review of the observation notes found that up to 73% of the experimental students fulfilled all the video submission requirements, and 77% made all the feedback required. Although no correlation test was done to show the relationship between the feedback, video submission, and score improvement, the percentages above lay the grounds to respond to research question 2 that most students followed the instructions well and did most of the tasks required. It seemed a hasty generalization to attribute the students' improvement to the act of giving/receiving peer feedback, but this coincided with one research outcome that peer assessment on the audiovisual recordings of presentations helped learners improve significantly, mainly in the content and structure of the presentations (Murillo-Zamorano & Montanero, 2018).

CONCLUSIONS AND PEDOGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

These research findings shed light on the probability that the combination of students' self-made video presentations and peer feedback helped improve learners' presentation skills. Although the result of the study is encouraging and motivating, it is a small-scale experiment with remaining limitations that need further adjustments and modifications. That learners made improvement in the investigation is a joy. Still, it is more rewarding to regard this learning model as a possible solution to effective teaching and learning, especially public speaking in the time of the COVID-19 pandemic.

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APPENDIX A

Pre-test

PRE-TEST

Topic

Each student is expected to give a 4–6-minute informative presentation on a tourism destination in Vietnam.

Guidelines

1. Students should be creative with the presentation rather than just searching for the information and copying/pasting.
2. Presentations should be well organized and include a good introduction, main body, transitions, and a conclusion that summarizes the main points.
3. Text should be limited on PowerPoint, with exceptions including the title of the presentation, key notes and technical words, data and titles on graphs, tables, charts, and references.
4. A list of 3–5 references is required to prove the validity of the information. Google and Wikipedia are commonly considered NOT reliable sources.
5. Examiners need to take into consideration not only the presentation skills and English fluency of the presenters but also the appropriateness of their presentations. Students should use language appropriate to foreigners and should not use visual images unrelated to their topic or inappropriate to the audience.

APPENDIX B

Post-test Rubrics

Wtg.*	Criteria	Very Poor	Poor	Average	Good	Excellent	Comments
15	Pronunciation & Voice Techniques (pause, volume, speed change, stress, tone, etc.)	(1-3)	(4-6)	(7-9)	(10-12)	(13-15)	
15	Language Use: Grammar and Vocabulary (usage and appropriateness for audience)	(1-3)	(4-6)	(7-9)	(10-12)	(13-15)	
10	Body Language: Posture, Gestures, Eye Contact, Facial Expressions (turns back to the audience and reads from screen: 0 pt)	(1-2)	(3-4)	(5-6)	(7-8)	(9-10)	
20	Organization: Intro, Body, Ending, Coherence (see below)	(1-4)	(5-8)	(9-12)	(13-16)	(17-20)	
20	Content: Relevance, Accuracy	(1-4)	(5-8)	(9-12)	(13-16)	(17-20)	
10	Visual Aids: Appropriateness, Clarity (movies, sound: 0 pt)	(1-2)	(3-4)	(5-6)	(7-8)	(9-10)	
10	Overall Effectiveness	(1-2)	(3-4)	(5-6)	(7-8)	(9-10)	
	FINAL SCORE: __________ /100						

Note. Wtg. = weighting.

APPENDIX C

Post-test

POST-TEST

Topic

Each student is expected to give a 4–6-minute informative presentation on a famous university in the world.

Guidelines

1. Students should be creative with the presentation rather than just searching for the information and copying/pasting.
2. Presentations should be well organized and include a good introduction, main body, transitions, and a conclusion that summarizes the main points.
3. Text should be limited on PowerPoint, with exceptions including the title of the presentation, key notes and technical words, data and titles on graphs, tables, charts, and references.
4. A list of 3–5 references is required to prove the validity of the information. Google and Wikipedia are commonly considered NOT reliable sources.
5. Examiners need to take into consideration not only the presentation skills and English fluency of the presenters but also the appropriateness of their presentations. Students should use language appropriate to foreigners and should not use visual images unrelated to their topic or inappropriate to the audience.

APPENDIX D

Sample Checklist

Your Name: ____________________
Your Partner's Name: ____________________
Topic: ____________________

CHECKLIST & FEEDBACK
INTRODUCTION, BODY, & CONCLUSION

ITEM	STRONG POINTS	WHAT NEEDS TO BE IMPROVED
1. Greeting		
2. Name and Position		
3. Subject (direct or indirect)		
4. Purpose (direct or indirect)		
5. Outline		
6. Question Invitation		
7. Introducing BP1		
8. Ending BP1		
9. Introducing BP2		
10. Ending BP2		
11. Introducing BP3		
12. Signaling the End		
13. Summarizing		
14. Conclusion		
15. Mentioning the References		
16. Thanking the Audience		
17. Inviting Questions		
18. Summary Slide		
19. References Slide		
20. Thank-You Slide		
21. Question-and-Answer Slide		
22. Eye Contact		
23. Enthusiastic Facial Expression		
24. Distracting Gestures		
25. Intonation		
26. Fluency		

Diversity and Representativeness in KOTESOL Membership

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Being "researching associations" is a bit of a trend these days among language teaching associations (LTAs). From a social justice perspective, an interesting theme to explore within an organization is the issue of diversity and representativeness of membership. What is it we actually know about our members? What might we guess based on available data? What do we *not* know? For Korea TESOL (KOTESOL), answering these questions is a good starting point for further reflection and action aimed at promoting internal diversity and external representativeness as the LTA rebuilds post-pandemic. After defining these key terms and some benefits, it reviews previous studies on KOTESOL membership. Following this is a description of the data, data collection procedure, and method of analysis. Alongside the presented results is a discussion of implications and proposed recommendations.

INTRODUCTION

Language teacher associations (LTAs) are "networks of professionals, run by and for professionals, focused mainly on support for members, with knowledge exchange and development as well as representation of members' views as their defining functions" (Lamb, 2012, p. 295). As such, for their well-being and growth, LTAs should know about their membership (Paran, 2016; Thorkelson, 2016).

However, LTAs have been scarcely researched (Elsheikh, Coombe, & Effiong, 2018; Lamb, 2012; Smith & Kuchah, 2016). Recently, Smith and Kuchah (2016) pointed to the importance of studying LTAs as well as of them becoming "researching associations," those that do research on and for themselves. Paran (2016) echoes this point when he says,

> [Research] is indeed vitally important, not only for LTAs and their officials, but for LTA members and teachers more generally. … researching them and researching their members must be part of the continuous professional development of LTAs themselves, with the concurrent professional benefits that this will bring to their members. (p. 135)

As research into LTAs can help leaders gain an understanding of aspects of their organizations that might otherwise go unnoticed, and this awareness could lead to praxis (Freire, 1970), research is needed on LTAs. This paper intends to contribute in this way by examining the membership of Korea TESOL (KOTESOL)

from an emic perspective.

The moment could not be more opportune. COVID-19, like the Asian Financial Crisis (1997–2001), has hit the LTA hard; KOTESOL membership is at its lowest in 20 years (Thorkelson, 2016; Dickey, 2018; R. J. Dickey, personal communication, January 12, 2021). At times like this, where LTAs face perhaps the most common challenge (Lamb, 2012), they need to reflect on how to rebuild their organizations and, more critically, how to reshape them.

Two issues of relevance from a social justice perspective are diversity and representativeness. Asserting their importance, this paper sets out to explore these issues in relation to KOTESOL membership.

This short paper starts by defining these key terms and, minimally, benefits. Then, it briefly reviews previous studies on KOTESOL membership. Against this backdrop, it next describes the data, data collection procedure, and method of analysis. Alongside the results, implications are discussed and recommendations proposed. Finally, the paper concludes with a summary, followed by limitations, and a call for action.

Literature Review

Diversity and Representativeness

The two key terms in this study are diversity and representativeness. Here, these terms represent two sides of a coin. First, diversity refers to internal differences in an LTA's membership as manifested, for instance, by gender, race, national origin, language, sexuality, religion, and class (Vavrus, 2012). Diversity is recognized by many on the left of the political economical spectrum as being beneficial, and inclusion is considered to be culturally enriching (Vavrus, 2012). As Paran (2016) states,

> Inclusivity matters, of course, because if an LTA's reach is restricted – if it is not inclusive and if members do not have a voice – this impacts both on the individual members (who may leave the association), on non-members (whose needs are then not met), and on the development of the profession as a whole. (p. 134)

Representativeness, on the other hand, refers to how reflective membership is of a profession, community, or possibly, society at large (cf. participatory or territorial representativeness according to Rodekamp, 2010). Representativeness is crucial for an organization in terms of voice and influence. As Lamb (2012) notes, "It is difficult to claim representation of the language-teaching profession unless they can convince policymakers that a good proportion of the profession are members" (p. 298). Based on the above, fostering diversity and aiming for representativeness in LTAs seem like worthwhile goals.

While valuable pursuits with regard to LTAs, these are not without complications. Just as we could imagine that LTA membership might be homogenous in some respects, "they often do not represent the larger mass of teachers in a country" (Kirkham, 2015, as cited by Paran, 2016, p. 133), but

rather a sector or region.

In terms of the study at hand, according to Dickey (2018), because "the stakeholder community in Korea is highly fractured, … it would be difficult for any single organization to represent such divergent perspectives" (p. 268). He also claims that "KOTESOL provides a particularly heterogeneous context" (p. 270). The following comment by one member on the KOTESOL Facebook page aligns with this perspective on the limited ability to represent while also pointing to narrow diversity: "KOTESOL has never been able to represent Korean English language education but only a small segment of guests working at universities" (KOTESOL Facebook page, January 18, 2021). With the above challenge and these critiques in mind, the next section looks at what has been previously written about KOTESOL membership.

Research on KOTESOL

According to KOTESOL (2021), the largest multicultural LTA in Korea spans space and time. In fact, soon the nonprofit, multidimensional, national organization will celebrate its pearl anniversary. Despite this scope, little previous research has been done on KOTESOL membership. As Thorkelson (2016) reports, "this manifests itself in … a lack of consistent and reliable data on members" (p. 75).

Indeed, only four studies found declared using KOTESOL members as participants. First, Nelson and Gongwer (1999, 2000, 2001) conducted a three-part study on 129 members. Their specific goal was to explore the job satisfaction and teaching effectiveness of a select group (expat college or university professors), which they profiled as follows:

> [The highest percentage of respondents were] in their 30s (32%), male (56%), [had] MA degrees (34%), [and had] lived in Korea for 1–3 years (55%) … in cities of over 1,000,000 people (54%) and [taught] at four-year universities (88%) in English departments (72%). (1999, p. 226)

For her part, Davies' (2002) mixed-methods (interview plus questionnaire) study explored the cross-cultural adjustment of just 16 members in Korea. She apparently collected data on similar demographic factors (age, gender, time in Korea, employment status, nationality, overseas experience, educational background, and residence), but she did not report these "preliminary" details (p. 159).

More recently, Thorkelson (2016) reported KOTESOL membership data and surveys of members and non-members at two times (2011 and 2014) with the actual aim of understanding who KOTESOL members were and their satisfaction with the organization or its performance. His rationale was that knowledge about the needs of current and future members could serve to better recruit and retain them. Regarding membership data, he provided details specifically about gender, nationality, level of education, and relevant teaching credentials. As for the surveys, he shared insights about diverse other factors, including membership status, chapter affiliation, sector of employment, work affiliations, visa types, marital status, and preferred titles, based on existing information.

Finally, Dickey's (2018) "retrospective, descriptive, document-based case study" (p. 267) looked at representativeness and the development of some committed members (KOTESOL leaders on the national council residing in Korea) at four points over a 20-year period (1997–2017). He considered the following factors: gender, nationality, workplace, level of education, and continuity and development of leaders.

These studies mostly used small samples, focused on particular groups of members, and/or only explored select demographic factors. No studies were comprehensive, none aimed specifically to explore diversity and/or representativeness of all KOTESOL members, and none are recent.

In an attempt to determine whether (or not) and to what extent KOTESOL might be diverse and representative, this paper explores three questions: What do we know about current KOTESOL membership? What can we guess given the data we have? and importantly, What do we *not* know? After answering these questions, a fourth is offered: How to move forward?

Methodology

This case study of one LTA is quantitative in nature and makes use of preexisting data received on January 31, 2021, which represents a snapshot of KOTESOL membership. To obtain it, a request form was completed to release details about the 353 current members (cf. over 800 in peak years according to Thorkelson, 2016; R. J. Dickey, personal communication, January 12, 2021) for the unique purpose of this study. Categories available included given names and surnames, type of member, chapter affiliation, address with postal code, country of residence, nationality, number of years in teaching, and teaching qualifications. When information was missing, some members were contacted directly or additional online searches (Google, Facebook, LinkedIn, etc.) were conducted to collect or verify details. As the quantity of data in this study was quite limited, only descriptive statistics were needed. All calculations were done in Excel.

Results and Discussion

Research Question 1

This section of the paper analyzes the three main research questions in turn and immediately states implications after major findings. The first question was

RQ1. What do we know about current KOTESOL membership?

If we look first at type of members, based on the data, 99.7% are full (as opposed to student) members. Additionally, 33.4% are lifetime members while the remaining 66.6% are annuals. These figures indicate that KOTESOL has failed to attract many students. In addition, consistent with Thorkelson's (2016) metaphor of "a revolving door" (p. 75), membership may not be very stable. Based on the above, KOTESOL might want to recruit more students to increase diversity.

Although Lamb (2012) notes that this is a common challenge for LTAs, many of which are consequently “ageing,” reflection on recruiting them with the intention of creating conditions to retain them, so they later become full members, might be a worthwhile investment. KOTESOL might also emphasize more the economic and emotional values of lifetime memberships to renewals.

Higher than previous reports (Thorkelson, 2016; Dickey, 2018), residence and chapter information indicate that 25.8% are international members who do not reside in Korea and generally only participate in conferences (Thorkelson, 2016). This means that actual membership consists of only 265 locals. Given the population of Korea (about 51.8 million; KOSIS, 2020), this is extremely small. Moreover, of the 74.2% of domestic members, 30.6% live in the capital region and belong to the Seoul, Suwon-Gyeonggi, and Yongin-Gyeonggi Chapters while 43.6% live elsewhere in the country. Thus, while half of the people in Korea reside in the capital region (KOSIS, 2020), only a third of KOTESOL members do. With these results in mind, in addition to raising the overall number of members, concentrating recruitment efforts on people who will participate actively domestically and especially those in the capital area would be useful for greater representativeness.

In terms of self-selected nationality, since dual citizenship was not acknowledged, 17.0% of members are Korean and 83.0% are not. Of the non-Koreans, 70.3% come from seven countries (Australia, English Canada, New Zealand, Ireland, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States), with 56.4% from North American alone. The remaining originate from elsewhere (11.3%) or did not state their nationality (1.4%). Although Thorkelson (2016) claims that “Korean membership has remained at about 35% of total membership over the years” (p. 68), current figures do not support this. In fact, they indicate that KOTESOL has struggled to attract many nationals although foreign residents account for only 3.4% of the population of Korea (KOSIS, 2020). These findings are more in line with Dickey’s (2018) description of KOTESOL as “typical of one of the varieties of TESOL teacher associations where expatriates [markedly North Americans] comprise the majority of members” (p. 267), although he also states that “over the past decade, the numbers of those from other countries have climbed” (p. 278). An important implication for representativeness here is that the LTA should attempt to recruit more Korean members. Moving in the direction of diversity but also, perhaps, representativeness if Dickey’s (2018) last observation is correct, KOTESOL might also aim to welcome more teachers from outer and expanding circles according to Kachru’s (1996) famous concentric circles model.

Regarding teaching experience, 5.9% have taught for two or fewer years, 14.2% for 3–6 years, 15.0% for 7–10 years, and 61.5% for more than 10 years. On average, therefore, KOTESOL members may be considered quite experienced. To promote diversity, the LTA might, therefore, wish to target recruitment activities at teachers newer to the field.

As for highest level of education, 74.8% report having completed graduate level studies with 21.8% having doctor of philosophy or doctor of education degrees. In contrast, 19.9% declared having only undergraduate degrees and/or teaching licenses or certificates. The educational attainment of 5.4% of members is unknown. Without knowing how level of education correlates with workplace and position, it is difficult to determine whether KOTESOL members are

representatively educated or not. One might, for instance, question whether the credentials of expats working at universities are always commensurate with their titles or positions, and Dickey (2018), for one, states that "impressionistic data suggest that most of the current Korean members in KOTESOL are teaching in language institutes (*hagwon*) with only a local bachelor's degree (perhaps not in English or education)" (p. 278). Nevertheless, it can be safely concluded that the majority of KOTESOL members have done advanced studies. To raise expert status and professional profile, which is important for representativeness (Lamb, 2012), the LTA might attempt to attract more scholars.

Research Question 2

The second, more speculative, research question was

RQ2. What can we guess about current KOTESOL membership?

KOTESOL does not directly collect information about gender. While it allows members to indicate titles (rather than preferred pronouns), were this data shared with researchers, it would only paint an approximate image as the titles are limited to traditional binary (Mr., Ms., Mrs., and Miss) and professional (Dr.) options. Instead, based on familiarity with members and follow-up searches, physical sex (not gender) is deduced to be as follows: 47.3% female and 51.3% male. Sex for 1.4% could not be determined. This approximate balance reflects the broad gender distribution in Korea (KOSIS, 2020) and is similar to the findings reported in past studies (Nelson & Gongwer, 1999, 2000, 2001; Thorkelson, 2016). As such, it indicates a relative degree of representativeness.

Age is a neglected category. Given the slants in years of experience and level of education and, possibly the percentage of lifetime members reported above, a conservative estimate is that most members are over 35. This low ballpark figure is close to Thorkelson's (2016) claim that "members' ages have remained somewhat consistent over the past few years with over 71% being between 20–45 in 2011 and just over 78% of the 2014 group being between 26 and 46" (p. 81), but might indicate the gradual tendency towards ageing mentioned by Lamb (2012). While organizational maturity has benefits, for instance, in terms of memory and cohesion (Dickey, 2018), having younger members can "promote a more modern image and appeal to younger teachers" (Lamb, 2012, p. 298).

One further category subject to guesswork is workplace. In his study, Dickey (2018) noted that this type of information had become increasingly scant as a result of changes to the online membership database. In fact, he stated that "40% of current members do not provide this data" (p. 278). Based on listed addresses, familiarity with members, and follow-up searches, I could deduce that a minimum of 47.9% members are employed at the tertiary level. Similarly, Thorkelson (2016) reported that a decade ago, 50.0% worked at colleges or universities. In his study, 21.7% of members worked in public and private grade schools, and 9.2% worked in *hagwon*. The remaining 19.1% was distributed among other jobs. Following this, if at least a third of members teach in schools and institutes, special efforts might be made to bring them into the organization. For his part, Dickey (2018) expressed real concern regarding the declining membership of *hagwon* teachers.

Research Question 3

The third research question, inquisitive in nature, was

RQ3. What we do *not* know about current KOTESOL membership?

Pertaining to this, KOTESOL does not officially collect data on the following demographic details besides gender and date of birth: race or ethnicity, ability, sexual orientation, relationship status, religion or faith, talents and interests. Besides workplace, KOTESOL does not ask for data on professional aspects, including occupation, position, status (such as part- or full-time, or tenure-track or not), short- or long-term visa or residency status, languages and other skills and competencies, etc. Thus, there are many things KOTESOL does not know about its members.

While information on some of the above aspects might be controversial to collect, if members were comfortable and willing to disclose those details, they could be highly enlightening. For instance, it could be especially helpful to know at what level members teach (preschool, primary, secondary, or tertiary), their settings (private or public, and educational, vocational, or institutional), how stable their situations are, or whether they fill teacher-educator or non-teaching posts (e.g., researcher, administrator, government official, bookseller, materials developer, or publisher). Gathering extra personal data could potentially help the organization to better understand members' experiences, views, values, and needs and provide superior support in terms of services, programs, and benefits. This is important for sustainability as greater services heighten visibility and potentially more members who may be able to benefit from and contribute to fulfilling both of the essential internal (professional development) and external (advocacy) functions of LTAs (Lamb, 2012). This could, in turn, help KOTESOL (2021) explicitly to meet its dual aims of providing development opportunities to members and improving English language teaching (ELT) in Korea. KOTESOL may, therefore, wish to attempt to collect supplementary data, some required, others optional with a guarantee of handling it sensitively, in the future.

Conclusions

This paper set out to discuss what is known, guesstimated, and unknown about current KOTESOL membership. First, it revealed facts about the membership status, residence or chapter, nationality, teaching years, and educational attainment of members. Based on partial or inferred data, it further conjectured about members' physical sex, age, and workplace. Finally, it revealed numerous gaps in knowledge about members related to demographic and professional aspects.

Following descriptions of findings, which together outline a general and complex membership profile, implications were stated along with recommendations. At first glance, some of the recommendations (e.g., concentrating recruitment efforts both on Korean nationals and those from less/under-represented countries, and on students and entry level teachers at the same time as academics) might

seem at odds. However, certain efforts may work towards increasing diversity while others could improve representation. As such, simultaneous actions in these different directions could prove favorable.

What KOTESOL actually knows is quite limited primarily because the LTA does not gather a lot of data about members. The number of categories on the membership form are limited and, as Dickey (2018) pointed out, most details are not required. However, a secondary reason, noted by Thorkelson (2016), is that data in the online system is not always complete (e.g., if members withhold information) or current. Another problem concerning this study was that the data release form does not permit researchers to access all categories (e.g., titles). Thorkelson's (2016) critique that "getting input from members has always been done in a haphazard manner at best and has never been centralized to any extent" (p. 76) might appear a bit strong. Nevertheless, it highlights the need for a more systematic approach to data collection. Based on this report, it seems that, in order to facilitate more useful future research on and for members, KOTESOL might attempt to collect additional membership data, possibly even require certain responses, and devise ways to ensure members update their profiles more regularly, such as periodic reminders or prompts during the renewal process.

A further limitation relates to data analysis. This study did not explore correlations between different factors (e.g., physical sex, nationality, years of experience, teaching qualifications, and workplace, or years of experience and chapter or membership or residency status). This work will be left to future researchers, who, fingers crossed, will have access to a larger and more comprehensive and detailed membership dataset for their studies.

For now, the significance of this practical study lies in its ability to impel organizational reflection on current membership. As Thorkelson (2016) cautions,

> Members join associations for a variety of reasons, and not everyone values the same things. For this reason, there is no single solution for increasing member acquisition and member retention that will resonate with all. … Having a diverse membership population with a variety of reasons for joining an association requires a variety of strategies. It is essential to understand what motivates individual members to join or rejoin KOTESOL. (p. 87)

Reversely, we might ask why they do not join or renew. In both cases, it seems important to discern what we do, as well as what we do not, know about members. These insights might serve KOTESOL to address the fourth question, focusing on how to move forward, or how to deliberately grow and become more diverse and representative in the following years. Of course, there will still remain the challenges of retaining members, encouraging their active participation and consumption of membership benefits, and even coproduction or volunteering (Gruen et al., 2000).

THE AUTHOR

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Action Research Paper

Once Upon a Time: Digital Storytelling to Enrich Asynchronous Classrooms

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This study reports on an action research project that used collaborative digital storytelling activities to increase student communication, engagement, interaction, and motivation in an asynchronous classroom. An intact class of university students (n = 17) participated in a three-week study where they used Flipgrid (free video-sharing platform) to co-construct narrative stories. Participant motivation and engagement were measured through a mixed-methods survey.
Storytelling has been considered a valuable exercise for language learners because it offers meaning-focused use of the target language through narrative structures. While there is a gap in research on collaborative storytelling, an added benefit of it is that learners must negotiate for meaning as they co-construct a single story. With the current need for online classes, by using platforms such as Flipgrid, learners can easily create, share, and respond to each other's videos. While preliminary, results suggest that online collaborative digital storytelling enriches the asynchronous classroom.

INTRODUCTION

In the 2020 academic school year, educators worldwide had to reimagine what it meant to build communities in their classes. This need was especially apparent in classes focused on communication – that is, oral communication classes. While some institutions sought to provide synchronous online lessons, others favored asynchronous approaches. Until very recently, teaching an asynchronous English oral communication class would have been nearly impossible. However, by using free video-sharing platforms such as Microsoft's Flipgrid, teachers and learners can record, upload, watch, and reply to videos, all from the palm of their hand. With Flipgrid, students are organized into class pages called "Grids" where they can see videos posted by their teacher and classmates. Teachers create a topic or assignment in the grid, and students then post their video in the topic thread. Flipgrid allows users to edit their videos and add pictures, video files, and text within the app or web browser.

Preliminary research has shown that Flipgrid is an effective tool for creating opportunities for learners to practice speaking outside of class (Moskowitz & Dubin, 2019). However, while Flipgrid makes it possible to communicate and interact asynchronously, it does not necessarily facilitate genuine communication. When communicating in person, if someone asks a follow-up question or comments on the topic, it would be rude and awkward not to respond or

acknowledge it. On the other hand, with online interaction, there is a lack of urgency to respond to these kinds of follow-up questions, and many might be left unanswered. As such, in order to build a deeper classroom community on Flipgrid, students need to be given tasks that require them to be more invested and engaged in others' contributions to class discussions. To that end, this action research study investigates the efficacy of collaborative storytelling tasks to increase learner engagement and build class community.

Literature Review

Theoretical Grounding of Storytelling

The use of storytelling as a pedagogical approach is grounded in socio-constructivism, where knowledge is co-constructed through interaction with others. Researchers have shown a connection between using stories and increased involvement in learning (Guha et al., 2007). Furthermore, storytelling creates an opportunity for meaningful social interaction among participants (Liu et al., 2012). While applicable to many different fields of study, storytelling is instrumental in second language learning. According to Hwang et al. (2016), storytelling exercises require students to engage with each other in the target language by negotiating meaning and practicing language skills.

Storytelling is also supported from a cognitive perspective. Using pictures with stories enhances students' capacity to learn, retain, and recall language. Mayer's (2009) dual channel assumption supports this theory by maintaining that humans process visual and auditory input through separate channels. Feeding information to both channels simultaneously improves retention and recall. Mayer's model also includes an active learning assumption wherein more meaningful learning occurs when participants are actively engaged in cognitive processes such as selecting relevant information, creating coherent verbal representations, and selecting visual images – all of which are integral parts of storytelling.

Stories Turn Digital

While humans have told and passed on stories since the dawn of time, a modern development to this age-old art is digital storytelling (DST), a movement that spawned in the late 1980s with the increasing prevalence and availability of computer systems. Robin (2006) defines DST broadly as combining the art of telling stories with digital multimedia such as images, audio, and video. Robin further classifies DST's most common categories as personal narratives, historical documentaries, and stories that inform or instruct.

Naturally, DST places a new focus on the digital aspect. However, it is not to overshadow the socio-constructivist goals underlying storytelling. Tolisano (2015, as cited in Robin, 2016) highlights this point by explaining what DST is and is not. "She writes that digital storytelling:

- is NOT about the tools… but IS about the skills…
- is NOT about creating media, but IS about creating meaning…

- is NOT only about telling a story, but IS about contributing and collaborating…
- is NOT about telling an isolated story… but IS about sharing and connecting…
- is NOT only about the transfer of knowledge… but IS about the amplification…
- is NOT about substituting analog stories... but IS about transforming stories." (p. 18–19)

With the rise of smartphones and social media platforms, the world has become a place where almost everyone carries a tool to create their own digital story in their pocket. Mobile phones and tablets are the perfect platforms for recording, editing, and sharing these stories. As such, DST has become deeply embedded in our lives. People engage in creating, consuming, and commenting on digital stories daily without realizing it.

Benefits of DST

Research over the past 20 years points to a multitude of benefits for using DST in educational settings. Robin (2008) argues that the greatest advantage to using digital stories is that it helps bolster learners' 21st century skills, which he defines as digital literacy (communicating with others digitally), global literacy (having a more global point of view), technology literacy (the ability to use technology productively), visual literacy (expressing and understanding ideas through images), and information literacy (the ability to find and evaluate information).

DST also has added benefits for a second language classroom. Mainly, it can help foster multiple skills such as sentence construction for both speaking and writing (Figg & McCartney, 2010; Kim, 2014), oral skills (Tahriri et al., 2015), and listening comprehension (Yoon, 2013). Tahriri et al. (2015), in a study of teenaged EFL students in Iran, found that DST allows students greater control of their learning processes while boosting confidence and learning motivation. Huang et al. (2017) corroborate these findings in a study of Taiwanese elementary school EFL learners. They describe this boost in confidence and motivation as *engagement*, which is defined as a state of active participation in the learning process that contributes to deep and meaningful learning. Simply put, when learners are more invested and interested in meaningful tasks, they learn more effectively and have a greater ability to retain and transfer that information to other contexts (Kearsley & Schneiderman, 1998).

However, most DST studies use it as an individual activity rather than group work (Hull & Nelson, 2005; Kern, 2006). The few studies that focus on collaborative storytelling have found that it is a reciprocal learning process where participants can learn from each other while constructing a story together. Learners can co-create and negotiate meaning through telling a shared story. This stimulates critical thinking and creativity through communication (Irwin, 2019; Liu et al., 2012; Nordmark & Milrad, 2012).

A Case for Fiction

An area of storytelling that is noticeably absent from Robin's (2006) definition of DST is fiction. Indeed, it makes logical sense to keep language learning activities grounded in reality. However, it is wrong to neglect the part fiction plays in developing language skills (in both first and second languages). From an Aristotelian perspective, fiction can reach beyond the literal to discover more

profound truth in the imaginary. Anyone who has shared a fairytale or fable with a small child can recognize the real-life lessons held within them. Fiction allows people to confront difficult situations, challenging ideas, experiences, and emotions in a safe context. It also allows participants to more easily address taboo subjects while still maintaining a personal distance from them (Djerassi, 1998). Moreover, it is simply fun. People love hearing and telling good stories. There are entire industries built around our collective desire to be whisked away into a compelling tale. Educators should take advantage of this and use fiction stories to foster student engagement on an even deeper level. Therefore, fiction stories need to be recognized and used as a category of DST.

One particularly engaging type of fiction storytelling is a collaborative pass-the-story type exercise. In this exercise, members of a group take turns narrating sections of the story. Each person has the opportunity to find their voice and add the next section of the narrative. This form of storytelling takes inspiration from the Japanese poetic form *renga* (連歌). Each section of renga is written by a different poet. The end goal is to create a coherent text that is written collaboratively and shares joint ownership. Research from the field of critical management education has shown that this type of collaborative, piece-by-piece storytelling is not only an exercise in joint narrative construction, but it also becomes a vehicle for community building (Gabirel & Connell, 2016). The authors of that study reported participants felt an increased feeling of ownership over the story and a more profound sense of responsibility to the group. No one wanted to be the person who spoiled the story or let the group down. Therefore, this activity can facilitate even greater levels of student engagement in DST.

Research Questions

To increase learner participation and engagement, teachers using video-sharing platforms need to create assignments that encourage more meaningful interactions. This is where collaborative storytelling fits in perfectly. Participants in these tasks will be required to deeply consider the contents of their partners' previous videos and carefully plan out the next section of the narrative in a way that is faithful to the storyline. Moreover, with this heightened level of engagement, it is hypothesized that learners will be more motivated to watch the videos that their partners submit after theirs. This action research project was designed to improve the quality of interaction on Flipgrid and answer the following two research questions:

RQ1. Does collaborative storytelling on Flipgrid increase learner engagement in asynchronous classes?
RQ2. Does collaborative storytelling work as a community-building exercise in asynchronous classes?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study was carried out at a university in Japan. Data was collected from

the participants (n = 17, ten females and seven males) of one intact English Oral Communication class. The participants in this class were first-year students placed in an elementary-to-intermediate-level English class based on scores from a GTEC (Global Test of English Communication) taken before the semester. The students scored roughly between 150 and 200 on the two skills version of the test (approximately A2 CEFR level). This class was administered as an asynchronous online lesson that was updated weekly. Students were provided lecture materials and assignments via the university's Blackboard LMS. They were also asked by the instructor to join a class Flipgrid page where there would be weekly discussion topics posted. They were required to post a video response to the topic as well as to reply to two of their classmates' videos. During the initial weeks of the semester, participants left many replies on each other's videos. However, around Week 4, the number of replies and subsequent interactions on student videos decreased.

The Tasks

During Weeks 11 through 13 of the 15-week semester, the participants completed collaborative storytelling tasks designed to increase learner engagement and interaction on Flipgrid videos. Simply put, each week, the participants worked together in two groups to tell a single cohesive story. In order to do this in a logical way, the learners were taught a version of the three-act narrative structure that is ubiquitous in narrative books and movies (the three acts being exposition and inciting incident, midpoint and rising action, and resolution). Each act can also be further divided into a few more commonly used plot points (see Table 1). Even though students were unfamiliar with plot point terms and names, they intuitively recognized each step of the three-act outline. This structure then served as an outline for how the group would co-construct their story. Each member was responsible for creating a video covering one step on the three-act structure.

TABLE 1. Three-Act Story Structure Outline

Act	Plot Point	Details
1	1. Exposition	Sets up story and characters (who, what, where, when).
	2. Inciting incident	Something happens! Good or bad – this starts the action.
2	3. Rising action	What does the protagonist do next?
	4. Midpoint	Protagonist has some trouble and must reconsider strategy.
	5. Learning/growth	Protagonist grows and becomes better/stronger.
3	6. Low point	Something bad or difficult happens – this leads into the climax.
	7. Climax	The final challenge: facing the antagonist.
	8. Resolution	What happens in the end? Is it a happy ending? A sad ending?
	9. The lesson	What does the protagonist learn by the end of the story?

After establishing the outline, the first week of the task was a controlled exercise where students retold the classic Japanese fairy tale *Momotaro*. This story was chosen because of its familiarity and simplicity. The teacher divided the students into two groups of 8 to 9 students and opened a thread in Flipgrid for

each group, providing instructions on how to complete the task. The task was then carried out in a "first come, first served" manner in that participants were not assigned plot points. Instead, they had to open their group's thread, watch the videos (if there were any), and then make a video covering the next part of the three-act outline. If no videos had been posted yet, that student would be responsible for telling Act 1, Part 1: exposition.

In the second week of the project, learners were kept in the same groups but asked to co-create their own original story. This story's genre was also a fairy tale. Finally, in the third week of the storytelling project, the participants were brought back into one large class group and provided four different genre threads on Flipgrid (action, romance, sci-fi, horror). The participants were then asked to create a video telling one section of the story for two different genres. The participants were given a survey after completing the final task.

Results and Discussion

A mixed-methods survey was given to the participants after completing the final storytelling video task. There were 14 Likert scale questions and four free-response questions (1. What do you remember about the storytelling assignments? 2. What did you like or dislike? 3. Compared to other Flipgrid videos, were the storytelling assignments better or worse? Why? 4. Was it good or bad to talk with classmates on Flipgrid before meeting in person? Why?). The results of the Likert items are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of the Survey (*n* = 17)

Item	SD*	D	N	A	SA
1. I enjoyed the storytelling assignment.	0% (0**)	0% (0)	24% (4)	35% (6)	41% (7)
2. I could clearly share my ideas/tell my part of the story.	0% (0)	29% (5)	12% (2)	29% (5)	29% (5)
3. It was difficult to say what I wanted to say.	0% (0)	12% (2)	35% (6)	18% (3)	35% (6)
4. I learned something from watching my classmates' videos.	0% (0)	6% (1)	6% (1)	12% (2)	77% (13)
5. Making new stories was interesting.	0% (0)	24% (4)	0% (0)	18% (3)	59% (10)
6. I could understand my classmates' videos and ideas.	0% (0)	0% (0)	6% (1)	18% (3)	77% (13)
7. I enjoyed adding pictures to Flipgrid stories.	0% (0)	24% (4)	6% (1)	12% (2)	59% (10)
8. Pictures made the stories easier to understand.	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	6% (1)	94% (16)
9. I was interested to see how my group's story ended.	0% (0)	0% (0)	6% (1)	35% (6)	59% (10)
10. My group made a good story.	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	18% (3)	82% (14)
11. I felt connected to my group.	0% (0)	0% (0)	12% (2)	59% (10)	29% (5)

12. I watched more videos during the storytelling assignments.	0% (0)	6% (1)	29% (5)	29% (5)	35% (6)
13. Using Flipgrid made me feel more connected to my classmates.	0% (0)	6% (1)	6% (1)	35% (6)	53% (9)
14. I watched another group's story.	0% (0)	6% (1)	0% (0)	94% (16)	0% (0)

Note. *Respondents rated the survey items on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly disagree (SD), 2 = Disagree (D), 3 = Neutral (N), 4 = Agree (A), 5 = Strongly agree (SA).
**Numbers in parentheses are the raw numbers of participants.

It is clear from the survey results that the participants generally had positive feelings towards the storytelling assignments. Most of the participants reported that they found the tasks enjoyable and were interested in creating new stories. According to the free-response question prompting what they liked or disliked about the assignment, most participants wrote that they enjoyed telling collaborative stories more than the regular Flipgrid assignments that they had submitted in the earlier weeks of the semester. The following are excerpts from those responses.

- "Better. It was difficult to make the storytelling, but I could learn a lot of things from that."
- "I think it is better, because this assignments need use our brain more, and when we do this assignment we have to use our imagination."
- "I think it's better, because we think new story by ourselves, so we can improve our vocabulary and telling to someone."
- "I think better than other assignment because I enjoyed doing this assignment with many friends of English class."

These responses could indicate an increased level of learner engagement in the collaborative storytelling task than the "typical" Flipgrid share and discussion video. According to Kearsley and Schneiderman (1998), this heightened interest and investment in the task will aid learning, retention, recall, and knowledge transfer to other tasks. There were, however, participants who had more critical opinions of the assignment. Their comments reflect the increased demand of the task.

- "Worse. Because it takes a long time to record and collect materials."
- "Worse. Because it was more difficult than others."
- "I had to prepare more than other Flip Grid because of using pictures and drawing."

Two comments revealed that the stakes of this assignment were higher than in other assignments.

- "I think if I make a mistake, it could cause problems for other students. I think is a bad point compared to other videos."
- "I felt the need to take care of each other to avoid posting the same scene as other students, so that was a little troublesome. However, imaging stories were fun."

These opinions corroborate Gabirel and Connell's (2016) finding that this kind of collaborative storytelling heightens feelings of group responsibility. This sense of depending on others to complete a task can contribute to a greater feeling of community. The group succeeds or fails together. The results of the survey support this claim. Moreover, there was an apparent increase in pride over the completed story and interest in seeing how it would resolve.

As stated above, the survey's negative responses show increased task demand with the storytelling assignments. The free-response comments reveal that much of the extra work came from planning the story's visual aspect. The assignment required that students use visuals to enhance their story. However, they were not provided with any materials or images to use. It was expected that the representations of characters and settings would change from video to video. This did not prove to obstruct comprehension. The stories were typically small in scale and only contained a few key characters, making them easy to follow. Furthermore, the participants were able to keep the visual representations reasonably coherent. In some videos, it was apparent that storytellers cut and pasted images from the previous videos to recall characters, objects, or events. A future consideration for using this kind of task would be to create a shared folder where the instructor and students could upload and share images that they used in the story to ease the demand of finding images, though doing so could limit creativity.

While planning visual representations increased task demand, most students (71%) reported that they enjoyed adding pictures and images to their Flipgrid videos. Survey responses also indicated that the visual elements assisted in comprehending the stories. This finding supports Mayer's (2009) dual channel assumption. Providing input simultaneously to both the audio and visual channels will benefit comprehension, recall, and retention.

Lastly, the storytelling assignments increased the participants' motivation to watch more videos – even those not related to their own task. All but one student reported that they watched the other group's story. Furthermore, most students (65%) reported that they watched more videos during these assignments than they would during a standard Flipgrid assignment. This finding makes sense, especially as the narrative continues to grow. For example, a storyteller who is submitting one of the last points on the three-act outline would have an incentive to watch all the plot points proceeding their video in order to add a meaningful development to the plot.

CONCLUSIONS

The adage that "necessity is the mother of invention" has been proven true for online education this past year. However, as vaccines for the COVID-19 virus become more widely distributed, classrooms will undoubtedly return to "normal" in-person lessons. While most are eagerly anticipating this, it would be a step backward to completely abandon the innovation and technology that brought us through 2020. Instead, educators should look for new ways to incorporate online classes' benefits into in-person classes. The upcoming challenge is refining, expanding, and honing these inventions for typical classroom usage. This is

especially necessary as people around the world reconsider their relationship with social media platforms.

The past year has seen humanity dealing with its most significant adversity in a generation. What is worse is that instead of joining together to encourage and build one another up, 2020 was a year defined by distance and division. Communities, groups, friends, and family units worldwide have been severed. Meanwhile, modern technology has given people a unique opportunity to remain connected despite physical distance. Nevertheless, society remains more divided than ever. Therefore, these platforms must be used in a way that brings together and builds communities, and not walls to keep others out. As education also takes advantage of the convenience technology offers, educators can shape how future generations will look at and make use of these platforms. Collaborative activities, like the storytelling activity described above, allow people to work together and co-construct meaning. Not only are these effective at building community, but in doing so, student motivation, participation, and engagement increase. There is a greater investment in creating something fun, memorable, and meaningful. A good story can capture our attention. It can serve as a way to escape reality for a few moments. The fiction stories we tell ourselves during these trying times can make a significant difference in how we contextualize the realities of what is going on outside.

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Workshop Reports

Developing a Classroom Culture of Trust During Trying Times

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After the whirlwind of 2020, we crave simple academic mainstays: students study; teachers teach; and hopefully, we all learn. As the global pandemic continues, we only wish things were so simple. During trying times, now that chaos feels normal, what happens next? How should we guide our classrooms? How can we promote student buy-in? How can our classroom cultures help cultivate student initiative? This article details the workshop (given on February 27, 2021) that proposed solutions to these challenges. From the start, whether online or offline, developing a classroom culture of trust is imperative. Informed by the past four semesters, including qualitative and quantitative analysis of over 500 student surveys plus written feedback, the workshop aimed to highlight best practices around cultivating student trust and to brainstorm classroom culture goals for 2021 and beyond. Written two months after the conference, this article also offers current snapshots of the workshop goals in action.

INTRODUCTION

At the 2021 KOTESOL International Conference, my workshop, "Developing a Classroom Culture of Trust During Trying Times," sought to (a) give attendees a chance to reflect upon the nostalgia of 2019, (b) seek wisdom from the chaos of 2020, and (c) gain confidence in our plans for success in the classroom in 2021. Now, midway through the spring semester of 2021, the chances of having university classes on campuses this fall are as difficult to predict as they were at the start of the year. If the vaccine rollout can ramp up considerably over the summer, fall semester in South Korea will hopefully coincide with a rise in domestic safety. Alas, we will most likely be facing the fourth consecutive semester of college life in the midst of a global pandemic. As we plan and give lessons under the current circumstances – the seemingly endless, draining realities of COVID-19 – and hope for a full return to campus throughout the 2022 academic year, developing trust with our students is as paramount as ever, if not more so.

Additionally, I would argue that continuing the KOTESOL 2021 International Conference theme of "Re-envisioning ELT Altogether, All Together" should be a top imperative for English language teachers. Just like our students, we are all in this together. Thus, I hope the ideas and reflections within this article support you in your efforts to make the most of your time with your current and future classrooms.

A Pedagogical, Reflective Framework

While putting together my presentation proposal, I realized the need for effective content packaging. A few hours of deliberation led to a eureka moment – our classrooms must be SURE: supportive, unforgettable, reliable, and effective. That is, "developing a classroom culture of trust during trying times" is dependent on our classrooms being SURE. In order for students to trust us, and get on board with our full semester trajectory, we must offer them sincere support, positive takeaways, stabilizing consistency, and concrete results. While these are foundational values worth pursuing in all classroom contexts, there is even greater urgency in light of our current global situation.

At the start of my workshop presentation, I introduced a reflective framework for the audience to consider based on the following questions: (a) What have I done recently (in the past two or three years) that effectively developed a classroom culture of trust? (b) What challenges did I face, particularly in 2020, that limited my abilities to effectively build trust? (c) What will I continue doing in 2021 (or 2022), and what new strategies should I consider in order to build trust in my classrooms during the ongoing global pandemic?

During the workshop, for each of the SURE content focus areas, I reminded the audience to consider the reflective framework while I introduced examples of my own successes and challenges from the 2019 and 2020 academic calendar years.

Theoretical Framework

There are notable examples within literature and contemporary education and training spheres that help define trust and the pursuit of developing trust. The most insightful case I encountered was a popular TED lecture given by Frances Frei of the Harvard Business School. As a gifted public speaker, Frei easily convinces the audience of the effectiveness of her successes detailing *Three Component Parts of Trust* (TED, 2018). Frei argues that authenticity, logic, and empathy are essential components of building trust from the leadership level, pointing out that empathy is the most common weak point. While Frei presented on research done with the rideshare giant Uber, as the leaders of our classrooms, there are clear takeaways for language teachers to consider. Finally, I was pleased to recognize a clear overlap between her three key focus areas and my four SURE categories.

The second most useful source was the article "Here's What the Science Says About Building Trust with New Students" (Best, 2020), which identified four key elements to building trust: (a) benevolence, (b) integrity, (c) competence, and (d) predictability. Again, I was encouraged to see clear connections between Best's four elements, Frei's three components, and my four SURE categories. Table 1 displays the similarities.

TABLE 1. Essential Ingredients to the Recipe of Trust

Four SURE Categories	Best's Four Elements	Frei's Three Component Parts
• Supportive	• Benevolence	• Authenticity
• Unforgettable	• Integrity	• Logic
• Reliable	• Competence	• Empathy
• Effective	• Predictability	

Michael Free, the KOTESOL International Conference Committee chair, wrote a highly insightful reflection, "On the Value of Empathy," for the *KOTESOL Voices'* October 2020 edition. I had the privilege of working with Professor Free for two and a half years at our previous workplace in 2015–2017. Knowing Michael personally made his article all the more profound for me as a reader. Free (2020, para. 5) defines compassionate empathy as "feeling someone's pain and taking action to help." He continues, quoting John Medina: "Empathy works so well because it does not require a solution. It requires only understanding" (para. 6).

Free also detailed an anecdote of a student in visible distress. The student's pain was so noticeable that Free took the student into his office from the back of the student line waiting outside the door (back when, as Professor Free jokes, "Teachers had office hours and students showed up for them in person"). Free listened to the student, and his response was quite exemplary:

> We didn't speak for long, but I gave her the best advice I could, pointed her in the direction of student mental health services (which she'd never heard of), told her to email her other professors, and then to go home (*home* home, not campus home). She was rather shocked that I suggested she go home, but left, she said, feeling as though I had listened to her, provided some options, and was in her corner. Myself, I did not feel as though I had done anything particularly remarkable, but was happy that I had been able to help, even if only somewhat.

Professor Free's response was automatic, done without thinking. It is an inspiring anecdote but also challenging because I feel it prompts the reader to reflect deeply, and ask some tough questions: How would I respond in the same situation? What am I doing to show students care, compassion, and/or empathy? Is empathy a skill or trait that can be developed with intention (or practice) or a talent that one either has or doesn't have? Once again, I appreciate Free's thoughtful article and the self-reflection it prompted in me.

DEVELOPING A CLASSROOM CULTURE OF TRUST

During the workshop, I introduced specific examples of classroom practices that represent successes I enjoyed and challenges I faced while developing trust with students in 2020. I kept in mind the stark differences between 2019 and 2020, while also considering my game plan for 2021. Examples were given for each SURE category. Tables 2–5 highlight the details shared during the workshop

presentation.

TABLE 2. Supportive (SURE)

Successful Strategies	Challenges
• **Providing Peer Interaction** This occurred on a weekly basis through Zoom breakout rooms, which provided students with teamwork, language modeling, unprecedented English usage, and even friendship in some cases. • **Making Lessons Personable** This included introducing students to my son (who is an adorable toddler) for a few minutes strictly before a Zoom lesson officially began or during break times, and "Flipped Classroom Video Anecdotes" when I told students a quick, relevant story about myself in the middle of a weekly flipped classroom video.	• **Student Numbers** I have had 120–180 students per semester since spring 2019. About midway through the term, I may know a majority of students' names, but the realities of schedules make student–professor interaction quite limited. I respond to these challenges by regularly offering highly thorough, general feedback to all students, which will hopefully benefit most of the group, and offer my time to answer any inquiries they may have as a group and as individuals.

TABLE 3. Unforgettable (SURE)

Successful Strategies	Challenges
• **Lasting, Positive Memories** In the fall semester, our department focuses on reading and writing. I always enjoy retelling (to students) memories of my own Freshman Writing course (in 2001), including unforgettable insight my professor shared with us, which I also pass on to my students. • **Negative/Neutral Memories** In the workshop (February, 2021), I noted Paulo Freire's challenge that "the educator also has the duty of not being neutral" (as cited in Horton et al., 1990, p. 180).	• **Full Schedules** I realize that our course is likely near the bottom of students' priority lists, with 5–7 additional courses filling out their weekly schedules. It is healthy (and responsible) for me to respect students' time and to understand I will likely never see or speak to the majority of my students after each term comes to a close.

TABLE 4. Reliable (SURE)

Successful Strategies	Challenges
• **Communication** I sought to be as transparent as possible with students and sent them regular updates throughout the spring and fall semesters of 2020, as all professors received (often last-minute) updates from our university's administration. I also tried to be reasonably vulnerable with my students (telling them about how my cousin contracted COVID-19 and the huge challenges she faced while recovering), and consistently expressed sentiments of	• **Concise Messaging** A few students let me know through written feedback that it was confusing or overwhelming to receive several messages that detailed various changes to the schedule and/or minor adjustments to the syllabus. Therefore, I am currently careful to reduce notices I send to all students and always keep things as concise as possible. • **Syllabus Referral** I have made it a point this semester (spring

support and encouragement. Finally, I continually reminded them to follow social distancing and keep their own health and safety as their top priority. • **Consistency/Delivery** Most students responded very positively to the consistent Zoom schedule, particularly the peer interaction they enjoyed in breakout rooms. I also made sure to follow the syllabus as much as possible and clearly inform students of any minor adjustments in response to university-wide schedule changes.	2021) to continually post the link to the online copy of our course syllabus and occasionally show students the document during lessons to make sure they all know what the document entails and where it can be accessed.

Table 5. Effective (SURE)

Successful Strategies	Challenges
• **Content Selection** I am confident students' trust was gained simply through their anticipation of lesson content. Fortunately, while our department "requires" a textbook, each professor has the freedom to decide how much or how little of the textbook will be used. Thus, I am free to include any relevant content and multimedia, such as audio podcasts, videos, and articles. Students have been especially receptive to podcasts and OST content-focused activities and assessments. • **Personalized Content** I continually emphasize to students that our course is fairly short and that they should consider how they will "use" English in their life beyond the current academic term. To reinforce these sentiments, I always include group projects where students negotiate to select their own topics and research materials, and goal formation (short-, mid-, and long-term) around English in their future.	• **Textbook Requirement** While I enjoy the freedom of using the textbook for less than half of the content (probably 30–40% of what we use in the end), it is impossible to make everyone happy. At the end of the semester, I always hear feedback from students that we either used the textbook "too much" or "too little."

Conclusions

As teachers and students continue their efforts in the midst of the ongoing global pandemic, the need to make connections in the classroom may seem more urgent than it did in 2019 and the years before. While it may be difficult to gauge how empathetic we are toward students or how we could improve our potential to be so, there are various strategies we can consider to help foster a classroom culture of trust. With the vaccine rollout underway, there is light at the end of the tunnel, and we may be hopeful for a full return to campus by 2022. As long as we are online, and when the time comes to resume face-to-face lessons, we can feel confident in our efforts to build trust with our students.

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Creating Corpus-Based Materials for Data-Driven Learning

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When learning a foreign language, it is not only necessary to learn vocabulary but to also learn the context in which a word is used and what words are associated with it. Corpora allow students to see real-world examples and allows them to become detectives discovering patterns in the corpora. The purpose of the workshop was to make use of corpora more accessible and to show applications of how they could be used in class. The workshop focused on collocations, connotations, colligations, and how to make ESP lists.

INTRODUCTION

Corpora can be defined as a large collection of electronically stored materials with naturally occurring examples (Bennett, 2010). It is possible to make corpora for almost anything (e.g., Jane Austin Corpus, Harry Potter Corpus, British National Corpus). They offer a chance to show realistic language use, show clear patterns, and give up-to-date information on language use and historical shifts (Braun, 2005). Moreover, corpora can aid in L2 learners' receptive and productive skills (Cobb & Boulton, 2015). These results can be achieved through data-driven learning (DDL). DDL can be defined as an inductive process that allows discovery-oriented learning (Johns, 1990). It allows L2 students to interact with written and spoken corpus data (Boutlon & Cobb, 2017) that contain authentic language, which could lead to learners noticing salient patterns (Schmidt, 1990). This aids in an increase in learners' ability to identify authentic language (Boulton & Tyne, 2013).

The nature of DDL allows students to explore the language on their own, which can help learners become more autonomous. In this way students can make more accurate corrections over time (Luo & Liao, 2015) by themselves, which aids in becoming more-independent, lifelong learners (Boulton & Cobb, 2017).

Considering there are many benefits of DDL and corpora, it is a wonder as to why they are not used more often. A possible reason for this is that corpora may seem intimidating. A teacher may have many questions about which corpora should be used, how they should be used, and how the results can be interpreted. This paper aims to explain how to choose corpora and what language learning activities can be done with them. A sample worksheet utilizing two approaches to corpora is provided in the Appendix.

CHOOSING CORPORA

Choosing which corpora are best for a course relies on a needs analysis. If students will perform corpus searches, accessibility should be considered. Sketch Engine for Language Learning (SkELL) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) are free web-based corpora, which make them easily accessible to students. SkELL is more appropriate for language learning activities that involve lower-proficiency students working by themselves. Hirata and Hirata (2019) found that a user-friendly approach to corpora should be used in the classroom. In their study, they found that 73% of university students were able to understand collocations better by using SkELL (Hinata & Hirata, 2019). SkELL offers clean concordance lines that focus on finding good examples for learners (Baisa & Suchomel, 2014). This is helpful, as a previous complaint about using corpora was that the lines are incomplete (Hinata & Hirata, 2019), which could make it difficult to understand the meaning of the word. However, a downside to using SkELL is that there is a lack of information on lower-level words. Therefore, COCA would be a better choice here. Additionally, COCA provides more information on words and can link to translation websites. COCA gives more information on when a word would be used (e.g., academic, television).

COLLOCATIONS

Collocations can be defined as words that usually appear together in certain contexts (Zhang, 1993). Knowing when and where to use these words can lead to a higher quality of writing (Zhang, 1993) and a deeper understanding of discourse. Students can discover which words are associated with each other by carrying out comparison searches on COCA, viewing concordance lines on SkELL, or examining a Word Sketch on SkELL.

The comparison search function on COCA allows students to look for patterns among the results, which can aid in the usage of commonly confused words such as *learn* and *know*. COCA shows a side-by-side comparison of the two words. By looking at the results in Figure 1, it becomes clear that *learn* would be associated with things and *know* would be associated with people. Using a gap-fill activity could reinforce this information.

FIGURE 1. COCA Comparison Search Results: *Learn* vs. *Know*

WORD 1 (W1): LEARN (0.07)

	WORD	W1	W2	W1/W2	SCORE
1	LESSONS	109	0	218.0	3,219.6
2	RESPONSIBILITY	44	0	88.0	1,299.7
3	SKILLS	152	3	50.7	748.3
4	STRATEGIES	41	1	41.0	605.5
5	PATIENCE	47	2	23.5	347.1
6	DISCIPLINE	22	1	22.0	324.9
7	TECHNIQUES	43	2	21.5	317.5
8	CONCEPTS	20	1	20.0	295.4
9	LANGUAGE	65	4	16.3	240.0
10	MATHEMATICS	50	5	10.0	147.7
11	HUMILITY	20	2	10.0	147.7
12	LANGUAGES	48	5	9.6	141.8

WORD 2 (W2): KNOW (14.77)

	WORD	W2	W1	W2/W1	SCORE
1	JACK	287	0	574.0	38.9
2	RIGHT	163	0	326.0	22.1
3	MR	306	1	306.0	20.7
4	WHO	278	1	278.0	18.8
5	MICHAEL	121	0	242.0	16.4
6	DR	111	0	222.0	15.0
7	ME	111	0	222.0	15.0
8	JOE	108	0	216.0	14.6
9	CHRIST	106	0	212.0	14.4
10	JOHN	200	1	200.0	13.5
11	PEOPLE	2584	13	198.8	13.5
12	PRESIDENT	99	0	198.0	13.4

Note. This figure shows the results of a comparison search on COCA to see which nouns occur after the words *learn* and *know*. The search was limited to one word behind *learn* and *know*.

Another way to do a comparison search is by using SkELL. With SkELL it is necessary to do two separate searches at a time and to look at the Word Sketch results of both items. This type of search can offer students the ability to correct a miscollocation. For instance, a common incorrect phrase is *refresh my mind*. If students look up the adjectives associated with *mind*, they will see that *refresh* is not commonly associated with *mind*, and that *clear my mind* would be a better choice (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. SkELL Word Sketch Results for *Mind*

	adjectives with mind	
1.	sharp	mind sharp
2.	pure	mind is pure
3.	busy	mind busy
4.	full	mind full of
5.	open	mind open
6.	active	mind active
7.	quiet	the mind is quiet
8.	empty	mind is empty
9.	free	mind free
10.	capable	mind is capable
11.	clear	mind clear

Note. This figure shows which adjectives are associated with the word *mind*. Students could be given a multiple-choice question asking if it is correct to say "refresh my mind" or "clear my mind." Line 11 would show students that the answer is "clear my mind."

Connotations

A connotation can go a bit deeper than the general meaning of a word. Connotations can give a sense of whether a word has a negative or a positive meaning associated with it. Knowledge of connotations can aid in understanding which words will often appear together. For example, in Figure 3, it is possible to see that the nouns usually associated with *cause* are going to be negative.

FIGURE 3. SkELL Results: Object of *Cause*

	object of cause	
1.	damage	damage caused
2.	problem	cause problems
3.	death	cause death
4.	harm	cause harm
5.	loss	losses caused
6.	injury	cause injury
7.	disease	disease caused
8.	pain	cause pain

Note. This figure shows that *cause* is commonly associated with words that have negative connotations. This information could show students that they are more likely to see "*cause* + (negative action)" than "*cause* + (positive action)."

COLLIGATIONS

Colligations can be defined as the environment in which a word would be used, what words are connected to it, and what the grammatical patterns are (Sinclair, 1996, 1999, 2004; Hoey, 1997a, 1997b, as cited in Hoey & O'Donnell, 2008). By understanding the position of the words and the genre they are used in, it is possible to sound more natural when using colligations (Hoey & O'Donnell, 2008). This is because native speakers are partial to specific language patterns. People may revert to using these patterns as they can help reduce cognitive load when processing new information (Sweller et al., 2011, as cited by Boulton & Cobb, 2017). Therefore, it is necessary for learners to be aware of these formulaic sequences. Mizumoto and Chujo (2015) found in their meta-analysis that corpora assisted in learning formulaic sequences (noun + verb phrases).

Concordance lines from corpora can be used to teach colligations (see Figure 4). When using concordance lines, it is necessary to consider what other words are used in the sentences. Luo and Liao (2015) observed that although students found the authentic examples of concordance lines helpful, students with smaller vocabularies could find using them difficult. Students could also become overwhelmed by the results (Hirata & Hirata, 2019; Luo & Liao, 2015). This situation could be fixed by teachers preparing printed handouts for materials (Boulton, 2017) and offering more training to students (Luo & Liao, 2015). For example, a search of a new vocabulary word could be done on SkELL. After the word search is completed, the teacher could select specific concordance lines with clear examples to focus on. The teacher could then add guiding questions to aid students.

FIGURE 4. Concordance Lines on SkELL

castigate 0.69 hits per million

1. People with mental illness sometimes **castigate** themselves.
2. Every black conservative is **castigated** by the progressive media.
3. I am not here to **castigate** anyone .
4. In fact, you **castigate** yourself for being suspicious.
5. Justice Clarence Thomas has routinely **castigated** "living Constitution" doctrine.
6. Neither is she alone in **castigating** Bacon in such extreme terms.
7. Why is he always **castigating** people trying to make something ?
8. He is **castigated** as a thief and a robber.

Note. Students could be directed to look at lines 3, 4, 7, and 8, as the sentences are a bit clearer. They would also be able to see that *castigate* is something that could be considered a negative action. Additionally, *castigate* will be followed by the person receiving the action.

Another way to show colligation patterns is to do a comparison search using COCA (see Figure 5). This sort of activity could lead students to investigating grammatical patterns on their own. An example of this can be seen in Figure 5, which compares the words *when* and *while*, which can commonly be confused by students.

FIGURE 5. Comparison Search on COCA of *When* and *While*

WORD 1 (W1): WHEN (3.50)					
	WORD	W1	W2	W1/W2	SCORE
1	ASKED	10324	1	10,324.0	2,948.5
2	PRESSED	746	0	1,492.0	426.1
3	NEEDED	1201	1	1,201.0	343.0
4	TOLD	594	0	1,188.0	339.3
5	COMBINED	865	1	865.0	247.0
6	APPLIED	824	1	824.0	235.3
7	COMPARED	3932	5	786.4	224.6
8	PRESENTED	521	1	521.0	148.8
9	COMPLETED	242	0	484.0	138.2
10	TESTED	218	0	436.0	124.5

WORD 2 (W2): WHILE (0.29)					
	WORD	W2	W1	W2/W1	SCORE
1	AWAITING	365	0	730.0	2,556.1
2	OFFLINESIGN	358	0	716.0	2,507.1
3	ENSURING	229	0	458.0	1,603.7
4	PRESERVING	361	1	361.0	1,264.0
5	IGNORING	629	2	314.5	1,101.2
6	REMAINING	673	3	224.3	785.5
7	MAINTAINING	1540	8	192.5	674.0
8	AVOIDING	536	3	178.7	625.6
9	MAXIMIZING	66	0	132.0	462.2
10	RETAINING	521	4	130.3	456.1

Note. The figure shows a comparison search done on COCA. The search compared the words *when* and *while* looking at one place after the word and limited only to verbs. By analyzing the information, it is possible to see that *when* will be used with verbs in the past tense, and *while* is going to be used mainly with the progressive tense.

Making English for Specific Purposes Lists

Using corpora to make English for Specific Purposes (ESP) lists have an advantage over traditional media (e.g., textbooks, usage manuals, and dictionaries) because they are updated on a regular basis (Boulton, 2012). An example of this is the News on the Web (NOW) Corpus on English-Corpora.org. The corpus is updated every month and includes millions of new words each time (Davies, n.d.). By looking at this type of corpus, students can keep pace with new terminology.

An ESP list on English-Corpora.org can be made by doing a word search

using the list function. The word chosen should be a good representation of the assignment. For example, for an essay assignment about leaders, the word *leadership* would be a good term to search for. After reviewing the items listed in the search, the user can select the best terms. This will lead to a list that will provide nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives associated with the word and that can be added to an assignment (see Figure 6).

FIGURE 6. Adjectives Associated with *Leadership*

LEADERSHIP [22,161,893 WORDS, 3631 TEXTS] (2.2% OF TOTAL) NOUN VERB ADJ AD

HELP	WORD (CLICK FOR CONTEXT)	FREQ	# TEXTS
1	DESTINED	176	155
2	MULTI-PARTY	339	130
3	SOCIOPOLITICAL	310	160
4	NATIONALIST	1313	405
5	POST-COLD	325	143
6	POSTCOLONIAL	338	140
7	HEGEMONIC	354	172
8	AGRARIAN	406	117
9	MULTILATERAL	561	214
10	AUTHORITARIAN	1160	413

Note. The figure shows a search result of adjectives associated with the word *leadership*. The words are sorted by how many texts they appeared in and how often they appeared in the text. By clicking the blue links students can see authentic samples of how the word would be used in context.

CONCLUSIONS

Research shows that corpora can aid in improving vocabulary development, learning formulaic sequences, and learning grammatical patterns. Using DDL allows students to interact with the corpora and test their own hypotheses, which aids in autonomous learning and lifelong learning. Although corpora may seem a bit inaccessible at first, by providing support and worksheets, teachers can make them more accessible to students.

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APPENDIX

Let's Try a Collocation Search

1. Go to https://skell.sketchengine.eu/#home
2. First search for **little** in Word Sketch
3. Look at **nouns modified by**
4. Then search for **few** in Word Sketch
5. Which is correct a little people or a few people?

6. Circle your answer: little people few people

Let's Try to Search for the Meaning of a Word

1. First search for *castigate* in Word Sketch.

Look at sentences 4, 8, 21, 29, 38, and 40.

2. What do you think *castigate* means? Is it a positive or a negative word?

Five Steps Towards Designing Effective and Engaging Classroom Presentations

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Microsoft PowerPoint and Apple Keynote are two of the most commonly used desktop presentation software. While some EFL teachers may be aware of creative ways in which they can use presentation software, finding design inspiration and moving from concept to creation can be a challenge, especially when familiarity with the software is not that high. In this workshop, I helped the attendees to re-think presentation design. I guided them through five steps towards designing engaging classroom presentations for all age ranges, educational levels, and English ability, and I re-introduced them to six of the basic features available in desktop presentation software: text, images, videos, sound, shapes, and animations.

INTRODUCTION

Microsoft PowerPoint and Apple Keynote are two desktop presentation software commonly used in the classroom. Both software offer a similar array of features (text, images, videos, sound, shapes, animations, and transitions), and each also has its own unique set of features. Teachers, especially those at the university level, often use this software in their lessons to display lecture notes and assignments, to show images and videos, and to share important information.

As we move down each stage of formal learning, however, from high school to kindergarten, the use of presentation software tends to gradually decrease. At some schools, the use of technology in the classroom is discouraged or prohibited, and at others, the required equipment may not be available or readily accessible. For many, it simply may not be pragmatic to use the software in classes.

Creating engaging activities in PowerPoint or Keynote also takes time, and it is time that many teachers simply do not have. Spending hours creating a one-use presentation that is delivered within minutes may not seem worth the required effort. As a result, presentation software tends to be relegated to largely text-based classroom instructions, which does not work well for all ages and English abilities.

Students' age range, educational level, English ability, purpose for learning, and more, are vital considerations when creating engaging presentations. That is, teachers need to consider how impactful the activity would be for young learners, teenagers, young adults, adults, and mature learners; for kindergartners, elementary, junior high school, high school, and university students; for beginner, intermediate, and advanced learners; for those with a hearing or visual impairment; and so on. Activities created for a given English ability at a particular

age range, for instance, may not work for learners of the same ability at another age range.

Because the creative use of presentation software was once not widely taught, many persons, including this author, have dedicated themselves to educating audiences on how to design engaging presentations. When classes were pushed online due to the coronavirus pandemic, a number of EFL teachers found themselves turning to presentation software as a tool for remote classroom instruction. Those who were familiar with its creative potential were at an advantage, but a general desire emerged to find new and more innovative ways to use the software to engage their students.

In this paper, I will guide you through five steps to designing an effective and engaging activity in PowerPoint or Keynote that can be adapted based on students' levels, needs, abilities, and purpose for learning.

THE FIVE STEPS

Teachers interested in using PowerPoint and Keynote creatively in their lessons but don't know where to start often find themselves reaching out to others for help, or they seek out groups and workshops of this kind. Since the pandemic, I have received numerous correspondences from attendees of my previous workshops asking for help or advice with designing their classroom presentations. For some, peer feedback was enough, but for others, connection with multiple persons to flesh out their ideas was essential. The sentiment of the latter can be evidenced in the many grassroots Facebook groups that popped up at the start of the pandemic, aimed at helping teachers teach remotely. In workshops, like this one at the KOTESOL International Conference, teachers are able to find inspiration and create new ideas for their classes, learn what their peers are doing, strengthen their presentation design skills, and learn more about the features of the software and the varying ways they can use them.

One of the concerns that some teachers have when creating an engaging activity in PowerPoint or Keynote is how much time it may take. The task may seem especially daunting when not knowing where to start. Some may feel tempted to open the software and design the activity as the ideas come, but this can make the process tedious, time-consuming, and frustrating. Teachers may also be limited with what they can do based on the features they are familiar with and feel confident using. There are, however, ways in which this process can be done as easily and efficiently as possible, and the first is to start not in the software but on paper.

Teachers should try to flesh out their ideas by first grounding the activity, by designing it with their students in mind, by setting a goal and choosing what type of activity it will be, and by deciding on the presentation features they are going to use.

1. Ground the Activity

Ground the activity in something concrete. Start by using something tangible, like a lesson the students have already done or are going to start soon, and write

down each idea as it comes. Naturally, the broader the scope, the harder it will be to design, so keep the scope as narrow as possible. Consider what aspects of the lesson the activity will focus on and how much time will be spent on this in an upcoming lesson.

2. Design the Activity with the Students in Mind

Determine how familiar the students are with the topic. Designing an activity based on a lesson students have already learnt means creating activities that help them to practice and reinforce what they know. For lessons they are going to learn, the activity can be used to garner interest about the topic and to introduce them to the important points to be studied. In the case of the latter, consideration needs to be given to how much of the students' existing knowledge can be used to introduce the unfamiliar topic and to whether any unfamiliar vocabulary and new grammar points need to be introduced, explained, and scaffolded.

Activities will also need to be adapted to accommodate students' levels, needs, abilities, and purpose for learning. An activity that would work for beginner elementary-level students, for instance, may not have the same effect for beginner adult learners. What may be deemed as cute and engaging for one may be seen as juvenile and uninteresting to the other.

3. Determine and Set the Goal of the Activity

Think about what the students will accomplish by doing this activity. Consider its purpose and the lesson's objectives. Create a list of can-do statements of all that the students should be able to do by the end of the activity. Will they learn new grammar and vocabulary, or will they have found practical ways to use what they already know? Make sure that the scope and focus are clear.

4. Choose an Appropriate Type of Activity

Once the goal of the lesson has been determined, consider next what type of activity the presentation will be. This is limited only by the imagination and the presentation features available. Very simply, PowerPoint and Keynote can be used to give concise explanations, but they can also be used for interactive activities like games, trivia, and Q&A. They can be used for varying reading, listening, grammar, vocabulary, and speaking activities, and more.

Concise explanations are those that help students quickly and easily grasp a matter at hand. They can be stand-alone explanations, or they can accompany another activity, like explaining the rules of a game or demonstrating what needs to be done. Without the use of presentation software, these kinds of explanations would have otherwise taken more time or be harder for the students to grasp.

Interactive activities engage the students directly and can be used to check understanding and knowledge retention at intervals or throughout the lesson. In in-person lessons, a volunteer student may be instructed to come up to the screen and point to a given object on the slide, or students may be given trivia questions or Q&A questions to answer as part of the day's lesson. Games played individually

or as part of a team may be used to keep students active, communicating, and engaged. Advanced users of PowerPoint and Keynote may also create more complex games, like Jeopardy, that contain varying visuals and interactive elements.

Depending on the goal of the lesson, the activity may take a single form or be a combination of many. A listening activity whose focus is on a particular grammar point, for example, may require concise explanations to introduce the activity and have interactive elements throughout, including Q&As that check student understanding, and trivia that introduce important points. At the end, the students may play a game in teams that reinforces the grammar point under review.

5. Decide on the Presentation Features

PowerPoint and Keynote have a range of shared features, with expected variation. In this workshop, I focused on five: text, images, videos, sound, shapes, and animation. Of these, text tends to be used the most heavily when designing presentations. In the classroom, it is effective for displaying notes and giving homework, but for beginners and young learners, a lot of text can quickly become overwhelming. Consequently, a balance of visual representations and text is often needed. Sounds and shapes tend to be the least used, and more intuitive use of animations seems to be not as common.

As shared earlier, it is important when designing activities and choosing features to do so with the students in mind. An activity created for a beginner elementary-level student would differ from one created on the same topic for a beginner adult learner. The teacher may opt for mostly visuals with minimal text for both, but use cute clipart for the former and an infographic or photograph portraying the same concept in the latter. Young learners also tend to react more excitedly to exaggerated animations, while adult learners tend to favor more subtle animations.

Regardless of age range and educational level however, I have found that there are a few basic tenets to keep in mind for English ability. For beginners, lots of illustrations (images, videos, sounds, and shapes) with minimal text is key. This helps the students gain an easier understanding of the material being learnt, as they are able to more readily grasp the information as they see it. For intermediate learners, an equal amount of text and illustrations may be used, but new material should be introduced using as many illustrations as possible. For advanced learners, there is less of a need to emphasize minimal text to illustrations. At this level, complex information can be easily understood through large bodies of text, and depending on the goal and type of the activity, this can actually help to improve the students' reading ability and comprehension. Consequently, text can be used more heavily here than for the other levels.

CONCLUSIONS

Navigating PowerPoint and Keynote may seem daunting at first, but through practice and experimentation, it gradually becomes easier. Activities and

illustrations can be recycled and parts repurposed for differing classes and lessons, turning presentations that were once single-use into repositories for future activities. This also helps teachers cut down on the time it would take to create fresh activities. With these five steps, teachers can create classroom activities that are innovative, engaging, and effective, regardless of their students' levels, needs, abilities, or purpose for learning. Whether in person or online, there is much that can be done with each presentation feature and activity type, both individually and in combination. The only limit is the imagination.

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Integrating Various Resources in Supporting the Learning of English Learners

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The purpose of this workshop is to analyze the unique characteristics of English learners and resources that teachers can integrate into their teaching to support English learners' language learning. English is a popular language in the world; more and more people are learning it as a second or foreign language. The backgrounds of these English learners are varied. It is crucial for teachers to understand their characteristics and plan adjusted lessons based on them. This workshop discussed three resources that teachers can apply to meet the need of English learners, including online dictionaries, literature, and songs.

Introduction

To prepare a language lesson well, teachers first need to know the characteristics of the students. Teaching and learning will not be effective if teachers only think about delivering information but excluding consideration of the characteristics of their students. Teaching English learners (ELs) who study it as a second language is different from teaching those who study it as a native language. There are many aspects that language teachers need to consider for lesson preparation, including both academic experience and personal experience. Students who study English as a second language, especially in the United States, which has a high population of immigrants, may have diverse characteristics. Such characteristics range from previous English knowledge, first language knowledge, and educational backgrounds to sociocultural, emotional, and economic factors (Echevarria et al., 2017).

Students who have varied English knowledge may be placed in the same classroom based on ages. Some may have never learned about English before. Some may have been learning English for years. They all are put in the same classroom since they are of the same age. This is a great challenge for teachers to prepare lessons. When students come to class, they do not come with empty hands. Instead, they come with their cultures, experiences, and knowledge. All of these can be great assets to learning if used appropriately. In other words, teachers need to get to know their students to teach efficiently, to know students' needs as well as how to meet students' needs. Teachers can integrate various elements to support the learning of English language learners. For this workshop, three main resources were covered. They are online dictionaries, literature, and songs. In the following sections, each category will be discussed in detail. Related resources will be recommended as well.

ONLINE DICTIONARIES

Vocabulary is the foundation of language learning. Without a certain amount of vocabulary, it will be very difficult to express or to understand what others say. Students will need support from teachers in class to guide them to new knowledge. More importantly, students need to have the ability to learn the language on their own outside of class. After all, the time in class is quite limited. The learning time outside the class can make a big difference among learners. While learning a second/foreign language, it is unavoidable to come across new words. Dictionaries will come as a great resource for self-study.

There are a few online dictionaries that ELs can refer to. The first one is WordReference.Com (https://www.wordreference.com/). In addition to offering English definitions of words, one of the greatest advantages of WordReference is having bilingual explanations for many languages, including French, Chinese, Spanish, Arabic, and Korean. Beginning ELs can learn English with the help of their mother tongues. It can also meet the needs of a class in which there are learners with different first languages. At the same time, students can also learn grammar and verb conjugations from this website.

Another similar online dictionary website is Cambridge Dictionary (https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/). It has similar functions as WordReference and also includes an English–Korean dictionary. One outstanding characteristic of Cambridge Dictionary is the pictures for words. Even for the same word, it will display different pictures based on the different meanings of a word. For students who need to visual help in their learning, this will be a powerful tool for them to learn the vocabulary in a more efficient way.

LITERATURE

Using literature in language teaching can be beneficial in many ways. Students can build up their vocabulary by reading literature (Broemmel et al., 2015). Research has shown that students can understand words better in context (Taliaferro, 2009). Teachers can help students choose the reading materials appropriate for their language proficiency and age, which is of vital importance. By obtaining comprehensible input through reading, students will not lose confidence in learning the language due to difficulty in understanding texts nor lose interest in reading due to the simplicity of reading materials. The appropriate number of new words in the appropriate reading material will gradually increase the students' vocabulary bank.

Literature is also a great way to differentiate teaching, meeting the needs of ELs at different levels of language proficiency (Derouet, 2010). Some students may learn better with visual aids. The pictures in the literature will scaffold students' understanding of the texts. Students at different levels can learn at their own speed and in their own way. Literature is authentic material originally designed for speakers of the language as their first language. While reading these authentic materials, ELs can consciously or unconsciously pick up the culture, idioms, and grammar. By exposing English literature to students, they tend to have more input in the learning process, which can contribute to their output.

The story in literature plays an important role in attracting students' attention. Compared with textbooks, literature may be more interesting and readable for ELs with its colorful characteristics, plots, and settings. Besides, literature also provides supporting materials for students to learn English.

Teachers can set up a small library in the classroom for students to select books to read or make reading lists for students to select their own reading materials. Apart from the schools' library, the internet is also a great resource. Two online literature resources can be used for both teachers and ELs. The first one is Storyline Online (https://storylineonline.net/). It provides free access to the public. The website invites celebrities to read the storybooks. By watching the videos, ELs listening skills will improve. Each story video will have a summary, which will give the readers a preview of the contents of the story. In addition, suggested grade levels are also provided. Teachers can choose age-appropriate reading for their students. If teachers want to use literature in class, they can find lesson plans as well, not only for ESL/EFL but for other content subjects as well. Students can learn other content knowledge while learning the language.

Another recommended website is Epic (https://www.getepic.com/). This website not only provides books on languages but also other subjects, such as social-emotional learning, science and arts, and social studies. It meets the needs of a variety of students who are interested in different areas. Each book lists the appropriate age and reading levels for readers. Teachers can explore these two websites for more teaching materials for ELs.

Songs

Music has no boundaries. Songs can be used as background music while students are doing independent work. The rhythm of songs will naturally provide a relaxing learning environment for students. This is a common way for teachers to use songs in class. There are also other benefits to using songs in class. By learning English songs, ELs have an opportunity to learn vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure from the lyrics (Kramer, 2001). The repeated words and patterns promote ELs learning in a more efficient way.

However, teachers need to carefully choose songs for teaching purposes. Similar to using literature, the lyrics should be age-appropriate and match students' proficiency levels (Kramer, 2001). The process of looking for the right songs for a certain grammar point may be time-consuming, yet the result can be rewarding. Lyricstraining is a website through which students can learn language through songs (https://lyricstraining.com/en). All kinds of music genres can be found on this website, which also meets the needs of different students. This website is designed for learning vocabulary through listening to songs. Teachers can a song an activity at the beginning of class, allowing students to choose a song they like and listen to it as the do the activity.

Conclusions

ELs who study English as a second language can be vulnerable, living in an environment in which they are surrounded with language and cultures that they

are not familiar with. When preparing lessons for ELs, it is crucial for teachers to take students' characteristics into consideration. Integrating various resources into teaching not only provides scaffolding for students but also enriches their English learning. Online dictionaries are a convenient tool for students' English learning as well as taking in knowledge at their own pace. Both literature and songs can provide authentic materials for ELs through which students may enjoy the English learning journey in a more relaxing and enjoyable way.

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Techniques and Activities

Meeting the Needs of All English Learners Through Vocabulary Instruction

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Research demonstrates that vocabulary acquisition and retention is crucial in developing language proficiency, particularly in the domain of reading, for English learners. However, learners are constrained by the demands on their mental resources required to store or maintain, and process or manipulate information during complex cognitive activity. Therefore, in selecting vocabulary for instruction, instructors must identify those items that provide the greatest benefit to learners. Instructional methods that incorporate repeated exposure to new information in verbal, visual, and spatial forms give leaners the ability to store, process, and use vocabulary information needed to complete tasks in English. Familiarity with a variety of teaching and learning strategies enables instructors to best address the needs of English learners in the domains of storing, retrieving, and using vocabulary. Furthermore, when students are provided with ample opportunities to learn and practice a wide variety of different vocabulary routines, they are empowered to take ownership of those that work best for them in their own student-led learning.

Introduction

Working memory was once thought of merely as short-term memory but in fact is now known to refer to the cognitive resources required to store or maintain, and process or manipulate information during any type of complex cognitive activity. Learners of a new language demonstrate cognitive differences in their capacities for storing the vocabulary of that language. When these learners engage in tasks that deplete their existing working memory capacity, such as second language lexical retrieval, they typically process information slower, a luxury that may not be available in all situations. To address these needs, instructors must investigate methods for selecting, teaching, and rehearsing English vocabulary with diverse learners.

In selecting vocabulary for instruction, it is important to select items that will most greatly benefit learners and make efficient use of their working memory. There are several methods that can be used in intentionally selecting vocabulary items for direct instruction.

Instructional methods incorporating repeated exposure to new information in verbal, visual, and spatial forms provide diverse learners with multiple opportunities to store and manipulate information needed to complete complex cognitive activities in L2. While no one method can be said to be the perfect

match for all learners, training students in a variety of strategies allows all learners to use those strategies that work best for them in autonomous learning.

One strategy created to meet the needs of diverse learners is the LINCS Vocabulary Strategy, developed by Edwin Ellis (2000) at the University of Kansas in response to the needs of learners with learning disabilities; this strategy is effective for language learners as well. It uses a system of mnemonics connected with stories and images to help learners store and later retrieve vocabulary information.

With the awareness that working memory is not only storing information but also manipulating it, another research-based strategy is found in Calderon's (2011) seven-steps method to language learning. This method provides language learners with multiple opportunities to store information, culminating in activities designed to process information as well (see Calderon et al., 2014).

An additional strategy that can be implemented for effective English vocabulary learning is a simple vocabulary-in-context chart, especially useful for determining the correct meaning in context for multiple-meaning words.

Through an examination of these methods and their results, strategies to best address the cognitive diversity found in L2 learners in the areas of storing and retrieving vocabulary can be identified.

Literature Review

Working Memory and Language

According to Baddeley (2003), working memory refers to the storage and further manipulation of information that is needed to complete complex cognitive activities. Components of working memory include the phonological loop, or verbal-acoustic system, the visuospatial sketchpad, the central executive, and the episodic buffer.

The phonological loop is a temporary storage system: Information stored here tends to decay after only a few seconds. It can, however, be refreshed through the use of a subvocal rehearsal system (Baddeley, 2003). Baddeley (1966) has also acknowledged that due to the interplay between these two parts of the phonological loop, in learning and memorizing words, similarity of meaning is in fact more important than phonological similarity.

The visuospatial sketchpad integrates information from spatial, visual, and possibly kinesthetic or motor input for temporary storage and manipulation. While results depend on the memory task being demanded, this component of working memory permits the language learner to not be disrupted by sources of task-irrelevant input.

The central executive system, overseeing attentional control, is, according to Baddeley (2003), the one factor that most contributes to individual differences in working memory span. This predicts performance on complex cognitive skills, including reaching comprehension.

The episodic buffer is a component of working memory that stores information by binding together information gathered from a variety of sources and modalities into chunks, or episodes, allowing for effective future retrieval of

this information (Baddeley, 2003).

Working Memory in Content-Area Learning

Yuan et al. (2006) identify working memory as a system for temporary maintenance and manipulation of information during a cognitive task, encompassing both storage and control functions. There is, however, a limit to the amount of information that can be processed during a cognitive task, as both task-relevant and task-irrelevant information are held in working memory.

While simple memory tasks may rely primarily upon the storage component of working memory, more complex problem-solving tasks that involve manipulation and re-use of learned information usually call upon the control function as well.

All learners have a set working memory capacity, which effectively limits the quantity of information that can be processed. When the cognitive load for a particular task exceeds the individual's working memory capacity, their learning is adversely affected.

According to Yuan et al. (2006), content-area instructors can reduce the cognitive load of learners by presenting content area information in a way that is easy to understand and providing examples and models of the expected final production. This helps prevent learners from the pitfall of splitting their attention between task-relevant and task-irrelevant information, which can decrease their working memory capacity for the task at hand. If instructors are able to reduce the extraneous cognitive load on learners, they are likely to observe improved learning of the targeted content.

Yuan et al. (2006) recommend strategies to improve working memory capacity, such as practice or rehearsal, explicit instruction in memory strategies that establish associations between pieces of information, and cognitive training.

Working Memory in L1 and L2

Sagarra and Herschensohn (2010) agree that working memory refers to those cognitive resources necessary for learners to temporarily store and process information during complex cognitive tasks in both first and second language learning. There exist individual differences in this working memory capacity.

Working memory is closely associated with lexical retrieval, and processing demands affect knowledge of new information. More involved tasks that deplete working memory capacity tend to result in reduced storage of lexical information and extended processing times.

Sagarra and Herschensohn (2010) found that individuals who demonstrate higher working memory also exhibit increased accuracy in comprehension tasks. This helps explain why learners with additional cognitive demands struggle to achieve native-like proficiency in a second language. As learners advance into an intermediate stage of second language development, they become more sensitive to the differences between their native language and the new language being acquired, and they may in fact require more processing time (ACTFL, 2012).

However, in their study, Sagarra and Herschensohn (2010) found that students who have learned to use not just morphosemantic cues but also lexical, semantic, and pragmatic cues in second language comprehension exhibit faster

processing times.

Selecting Vocabulary for Instruction

When making instructional decisions about what vocabulary to teach English learners, it is important to identify words that will provide the greatest benefit to learners at their present level of language acquisition, making most efficient use of their limited working memory.

Sousa (2011) identifies knowledge of 2,000–3,000 word families as sufficient for understanding conversational English; to comprehend a wide variety of texts, he recommends 8,000–9,000 word families be learned. Second language learners need teacher guidance in selecting lexical items that should be prioritized in their language studies, as well specific techniques for learning vocabulary.

We can consider tiers of vocabulary for the purposes of selecting words for instruction. Tier I words are basic vocabulary, sometimes called "sight words" or "Dolch words" (developed by Edward Dolch in 1936), or the General Service List's first 1000 words. This is the basic vocabulary that all L2 learners should acquire first, and the foundation for Sousa's 2,000–3,000 words necessary to comprehend conversational English.

Tier II words are academic vocabulary found across the content areas, often with multiple meanings that are dependent upon the academic context. These words are found in Averill Coxhead's (1998) Academic Word List.

Tier III words include content-specific vocabulary, sometimes called off-list words. These are those terms that are very important within a specific and limited field of study but rarely occur elsewhere.

Sousa claims that native-speaker intuition in regards to word frequency is often severely limited (2011). One tool to use to identify vocabulary for instruction in a principled way is Cobb's (2002) Web Vocabprofile, an adaptation of Healey et al.'s (2002) Range program.

By copying and pasting a text into the Web Vocabprofile site, words will be sorted into the first 1000 and 2000 most frequent words in English, Academic Word List words, and off-list words.

Beginning English learners need to learn the Tier I most frequent words first. This includes frequent function words such as *and*, *by*, *this*, and *while*, and also frequently occurring content words like *activity*, *family*, *important*, and *understand*.

At the higher intermediate stage of language development, instructors should begin to focus on Tier II or Academic Word List words to make the best use of learners' working memory capacity; these words will be used repeatedly in academic English contexts, regardless of discipline, with differences in meaning depending on the context. This can include words such as *component*, *process*, *resource*, and *strategy*.

Tier III, or off-list words, are best taught by content-area instructors teaching through the medium of English. This might include items such as *absorption*, *coalition*, *photosynthesis*, or *tariff*: critically important for comprehension in their particular academic domains but rarely encountered elsewhere.

Referring to content-area academic vocabulary lists designed for native

speakers can also be useful. One resource worth consideration is the Academic Vocabulary Content Builder for the PLC, developed by lead4ward consultants (2020). This document collects content-area vocabulary assessed on high school end-of-course assessments in the United States. This could be a valuable jumping-off point for teachers of English for Academic Purposes in selecting vocabulary English learners will find necessary in order to be competitive with native English speakers in their respective fields.

Methods for Vocabulary Instruction and Learning

Sousa (2011) agrees that second language learners benefit from direct instruction of vocabulary embedded in a meaningful context, with frequent opportunities for repetition and use, focus on form and meaning, and exposure to the words in their natural contexts to help learners acquire information about use. Afzal (2019) found that 68.9% of participants in a survey of university English majors in Saudi Arabia indicated that the memorization of new vocabulary was a problem for them. Memory strategies that connect new vocabulary to information already stored in memory, present new vocabulary in a meaningful context, and present vocabulary with visual and auditory connections are thought to be most effective.

Intentional direct vocabulary instruction, according to Sousa (2011), has been shown to result in increased word learning and reading comprehension, with research-based strategies being effective for a variety of diverse learners, both native speakers and language learners.

Methods incorporating repeated exposure to new information in verbal, visual, and spatial forms give diverse learners the ability to store and manipulate information needed to complete complex cognitive activities in a new language.

Margarita Calderon's Seven Steps

One strategy for explicit vocabulary instruction is the seven-step vocabulary teaching process of Calderon et al. (2014), one component of the Expediting Reading Comprehension for English Language Learners program. Calderon et al. emphasizes the necessity of explicitly teaching vocabulary: Vocabulary knowledge correlates with reading comprehension, while reading comprehension correlates with procedural and content knowledge. Comprehension of a text required knowledge of between 90% and 95% of the words found in the text; less than this and the reader is unlikely to gain information from the text.

The seven steps of Calderon and Slakk (2018) are the following:

1. The teacher says and shows the word. Students repeat three times.
2. The teacher reads and shows the word in a context sentence from the text.
3. The teacher provides the dictionary definition in formal English.
4. The teacher explains the meaning using learner-friendly language and examples.
5. The teacher highlights one difficult aspect of the word: grammar, spelling, false cognates, polysemy, or word parts.

6. The teacher engages learners in a speaking activity to elicit use of the word and develop concept.
7. The teacher explains how and when learners will be accountable to use the word in future reading/writing activities or assessments.

Calderon (2014) recommends identifying 5–6 words to pre-teach in a session, spending at most 12–15 minutes on vocabulary instruction at the beginning of class. Sousa (2011) similarly recommends that a total of 10–12 words be taught per week.

This explicit vocabulary instruction strategy is effective for language learners with a range of cognitive abilities, as it ensures repeated exposure to print and verbal modalities, and multiple opportunities for production practice. While heavily teacher-centered, this method is invaluable for front-loading the vocabulary necessary for learners to comprehend a lesson taught in the second language.

Ellis's LINCS Vocabulary

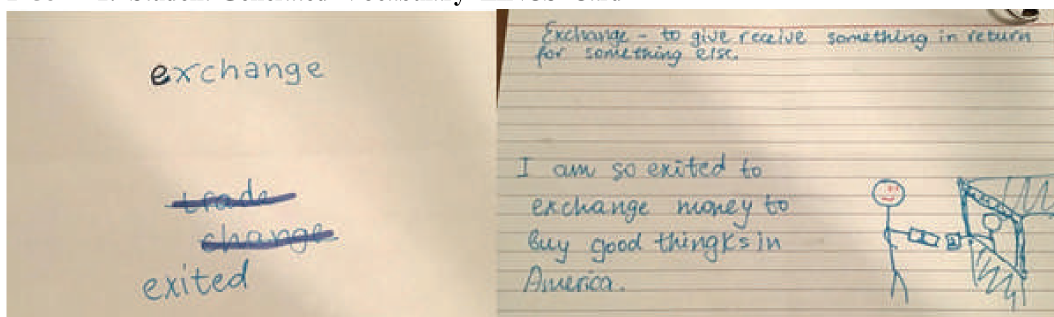
Ellis (2000) recognizes that success in content classes depends on learners understanding what they hear and read, on speaking about content, and ultimately on responding to test questions about content. His LINCS Vocabulary Strategy proposes to make students active in learning the vocabulary necessary to acquire and express content as well as teaching them memory strategies that they can utilize in their own independent vocabulary learning by connecting new learning to their current knowledge.

While the LINCS Vocabulary Strategy was developed in response to the needs of learners with learning disabilities, it can also be used effectively to meet the needs of cognitively diverse English learners without any disability. For this strategy, learners can do the following:

1. Use an index or memory card; divide both sides in half by drawing a line or folding the card.
2. Write the vocabulary word to be learned on the top half of one side and circle it.
3. On the top of the other side, write the definition. This may be a dictionary definition, but it should ideally be summarized by the learner rather than copying the dictionary entry verbatim.
4. On the bottom half of the first side, write a reminding word. This word should be similar in sound or spelling to the targeted vocabulary word. A rhyming dictionary may be helpful for students who are learning this strategy.
5. On the left-hand side of the bottom half of the back of the card, write a short LINCing story. For L2 English learners, this seems most effective when the story contains the targeted word and the reminding word, and is at least one complete sentence. Stories that evoke strong emotion, whether positive or negative, are especially memorable.
6. On the right-hand side of the bottom half of the back of the card, sketch a quick drawing to accompany the LINCing story. (Ellis, 2000)

By creating these cards, students create mental links to help them store and retrieve information about new vocabulary words. They can use these cards as a resource for further self-study and review (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Student-Generated Vocabulary LINCS Card



In Ellis's (2000) research, he administered a vocabulary pretest in a content-based social studies class. In one class of mixed students with and without disabilities, the students with learning disabilities scored 53% on the pre-test, while their typical peers scored 84%. After using the LINCS Vocabulary Strategy, students with learning disabilities scored 77% on a post-test; the students without disabilities scored 92%. This demonstrates the power of this strategy for all diverse learners: This activity should not be treated merely as an intervention but as a form of challenge or enrichment as well. In the control class, which did not receive the LINCS Vocabulary Strategy intervention, the mean score was 86% on the pre-test and 85% on the post-test. Without intentional interaction with the vocabulary, their comprehension may even dwindle as words are not retained in working memory.

This vocabulary strategy can be used for the initial study of a set of vocabulary words, or it can follow direct instruction as a study strategy for students to internalize and memorize the vocabulary already taught.

The value of this activity lies in learners' creation of their own connections between what they already know about the world and the new vocabulary they are learning. There is not necessarily a "right" or "wrong" answer in creating a LINCS card; the learning occurs as a result of the activity. The instructor cannot judge an individual learner's reminding word, story, or picture as correct or incorrect, as the proof is in the learner's receptive and productive use of the word in the future.

The LINCS Vocabulary Strategy is an excellent choice for instruction with cognitively diverse English learners. It is extremely student-centered: Learners create their own connections based on their personal previous knowledge. Students create individualized visual and linguistic hooks to remember necessary vocabulary for short-term and longer-term use.

Vocabulary-in-Context Chart

Vocabulary taught in a context-embedded manner, rather than as isolated words, prepares learners who will eventually be required to process those words

in a context in which they must effectively derive and manipulate meaning. (Chien, 2020; Kang, 1995) When learners have an opportunity to examine how words are actually used, they notice and internalize patterns and are more likely to retain vocabulary items for future use (Godwin-Jones, 2018). Polysemic words present further challenges to comprehension, which can be simplified when examined in their natural context. While many high-stakes language proficiency tests ban the use of supplemental materials such as a dictionary, learners may be permitted to use a bilingual or monolingual dictionary for some assessments of content taught in English. For this reason, they must be skilled and fluent users of the dictionary.

A simple vocabulary-in-context chart was developed for this reason. Words are identified for further study, examined in an authentic context, and matched to correct dictionary definitions. This activity can be modeled by an instructor at first, using a controlled text and pre-selected vocabulary words. Once learners have mastered this vocabulary study strategy, they can use it autonomously, choosing their own vocabulary for further study and applying this method to any content-area text that they must comprehend in English.

FIGURE 2. Student-Completed Vocabulary in Context Chart Completed While Reading Authentic *New York Times* Text

Word	Example sentence	Meaning in context
1. Encourge	Instead, they should use federal and state recovery aid to encourage more equel communities. ✓	To inspire with caurge, spitit or hope. ✓
2. Recovery	use federal and state recovery aid to encourage [illegible] communities ✓	The act, process, or an instance of recovering : an economic uptern.
3. Confined	Their answers are never confined to the day the storm made landfall. ✓	something that enclose ✓
4. Mourn	the mourn the loss of family members and friends ✓	to feel or express grief or sorrow. ✓
5. Efficiency	Subcontracted to a for-profit company for the sake of efficiency. ✓	being or involving the immediate agent in producing an effect
6. Anguish	They tell me of their anguish over debates about whether New Orleans. ✓	extreme pain, distress or anxiety ✓
7. Approximately	Today, while the city's white population has largely recovered since 2005	to bring near to or be close to in position. ✓
8. Predominantly	In the predominantly white, middle class neighborhood of Lakeview ✓	the quality or state of being predominant ✓
9. Asserted	Many people in positions of power asserted ✓	
10. legislators	The legislators voted to demolish 4,500 public housing ✓	

CONCLUSIONS

By intentionally selecting vocabulary for instruction and learning for cognitively diverse L2 English learners, instructors can help their students deal with the

limitations of working memory capacity when using their new language in complex cognitive activities.

When learners are trained in and have opportunities to utilize methods such as Calderon's seven steps, Ellis's LINCS Vocabulary Strategy, and the vocabulary-in-context chart, they create connections across a range of modalities, enabling them to experience success in more complex cognitive tasks that require them to retrieve and manipulate lexical information. As learners demonstrate cognitive differences in the area of vocabulary storage and retrieval, they will also gravitate towards different preferred vocabulary memorization strategies. Maintaining these and other strategies in their instructional toolkit empowers instructors of English to meet the needs of their diverse language learners.

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Feedback on Student Performances During Difficult Times: ELT in ERT

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Utilizing Performance in Education (PIE) activities like debate and drama, difficult enough in normal times in English language teaching ELT, becomes even more problematic in the online environment in the emergency remote teaching (ERT) of 2020 during the COVID-19 pandemic (Kluge, 2021). The two most difficult teaching challenges in PIE in ELT, during ERT or not, are assigning good PIE activities to students and to provide feedback to the students in a timely fashion. This paper, based on a workshop by David Kluge and George MacLean, introduces a PIE activity called Living Newspaper Readers Theatre (LNRT) and a quick, immediate, and relatively easy way to provide feedback to students through cloud computing.

Introduction

Because of COVID-19, many ELT teachers have had to teach classes online as emergency remote teaching (ERT). Aside from technology, three major ERT problems are motivation, class cohesion, and feedback (Kluge, 2021). This paper will introduce a performance activity, Living Newspaper Readers Theatre (LNRT), which will address these three issues. It will first describe what LNRT is; then how to do it, with examples of performances; and how it builds motivation and class cohesion. The latter part of the paper will be concerned with how to effectively give online feedback about performances. Specifically, the paper will show examples of rubrics and discuss how they can be used for giving students feedback, training them about what to look for when giving each other feedback, and how to articulate such feedback to peers. The examples in this workshop have been optimized for ERT but can be done in face-to-face situations, and indeed have been used in live classes since 2011.

Goals as Teachers

The authors believe that students should focus on learning rather than on studying and that they should often show what they have learned through performance. Why? This learning and teaching philosophy is based on the research by Newmann and Wehlage (1995) and is reported in their *Successful*

School Restructuring: A Report to the Public and Educators by the Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools.

Their book synthesizes five years of research conducted on institutions in the U.S. that have restructured themselves in ways so as to improve student learning. The research was conducted by the Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools (CORS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. From 1990 to 1995, the center analyzed data from the following research projects:

- School Restructuring Study (SRS): an examination of 24 significantly restructured schools
- National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS: 88): a nationally representative sample of over 10,000 students from grades 8 through 12
- Study of Chicago School Reform: an analysis of survey data from 8,000 teachers and principals in 400 elementary and 40 high schools from 1990-94
- Longitudinal Study of School Restructuring: a four-year case study of 8 schools

Their conclusion from this extensive and intensive study was that "academic achievement can be judged satisfactory only if students are required to express the results of [their] disciplined inquiry in written [papers], symbolic [art, music, dance, etc.], and oral [speaking] discourse by making things, and in performances for audiences" (p. 8). This conclusion has been borne out by the authors' own experience over a combined total of 60 years of experience teaching at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels in North America and Japan. As a result of this experience, the authors have chosen a constructivist-based pedagogy that is embodied in the principles of Performance in Education (PIE), specifically performance-assisted learning (PAL), a relatively new term that is defined as "performance of any kind used across the curriculum to teach, reinforce, and evaluate the content of a course" (Kluge, in Head, Kluge, Lyons, Rees, White, & Bussinguer-Khavari, 2018). We have found that PAL activities and projects not only show that students have learned well the material in the curriculum but have done so with great motivation and easily noticeable group and class cohesion. Students who did not know each other at the beginning and were reticent naturally burst into applause when groups finished their PAL activity, and this applause and unity carried over to individual contributions in non-PAL activities.

However, one difficulty that the authors have found with basing their teaching on performance activities is that performance is notoriously difficult to evaluate in a timely fashion when done by an individual student and even more difficult when done in a group, and this is borne out by other teachers who use PIE/PAL activities. One solution is to provide cloud-based feedback. A type of PIE/PAL activity called LNRT and one method of cloud-based feedback is described in this article.

Living Newspaper Readers Theatre, Living Newspaper Theatre, and Readers Theatre

Living Newspaper Readers Theatre (LNRT) is a performance style that mixes

elements of Living Newspaper Theatre (LNT) and Readers Theatre (RT). What follows is a short history and description of each theatre style. Then, a description of LNRT is given, with advice on how to do the activity.

Living Newspaper Theatre started in the Soviet Union in the 1920s: "performances of the news were given in public places to make news accessible to the masses and pass on revolutionary propaganda" (Parham, 2018). It continued in the U.S. (1935–1939) during the Great Depression (the Works Progress Administration Employment Program). At the time, Living Newspaper was part of the Federal Theatre Project (FTP), where unemployed media workers participated, but was discontinued as it was considered to be communist propaganda. It was revived in the 1970s by theatre practitioner Augustus Boal's (1979) *Theatre of the Oppressed* (Parham, 2018). It exists now in American universities' theatre programs, for example, "A Living Newspaper is a collaborative classroom residency at Actors Theatre of Louisville focused on playmaking based on current events and human rights. … [Students] create a short performance piece exploring a topic of large social relevance. Using news articles and other news sources as a primary text, students breathe theatrical life into current events, presenting large social issues through drama, poetry, music, movement, and more" (*A Living Newspaper*, n.d.).

Readers Theatre (RT) (also written as *Readers'* or *Reader's* with the spelling variant of *Theater*), according to Kluge (2013), is a performance style with roots that date back to fifth century Greece with the reading of epic poetry. Modern RT differs from drama in that it is a simplified performance; often does not use scenery, sets, costumes, props, or elaborate lighting cues; and so does not take much money to do. The biggest difference is the lack of the so-called "fourth wall," where actors on stage pretend that there is a wall at the edge of the stage that prohibits them from seeing the audience. In fact, RT performers face the audience and interact with it and not so much with the other performers. Another basic difference is that RT performers read the script that is in front of them, either on a music stand or held in their hands.

Living Newspaper Readers Theatre (LNRT), a term created by Kluge (2019) by mashing together principles and practices of Living Newspaper Theatre (LNT) and Readers Theatre (RT), takes the use of contemporary news and information from Living Newspaper Theatre and performs it in Readers Theatre fashion for an audience, usually on a bare stage (no set), without costumes or props, and with minimum or no lighting effects, but sometimes hand props and chairs are used. The performers hold their script in hand as in Readers Theatre and face the audience, not facing the other performers as is usually done in drama. Multimedia (music, photos, and video) is used to create mood and dramatic effect. The scripts used can be written by the teacher or by students. Music and digital images, both still images and video, can be used for dramatic effect in LNRT. Details on how to do the LNRT activity follow below (Kluge, 2019).

How to Do LNRT

These are some steps to follow in order to implement the basic LNRT activity. (See Figure 1.)

FIGURE 1. Procedures for Implementing LNRT

STEP 1	STEP 2	STEP 3	STEP 4	STEP 5	STEP 6
Collect articles on a topic.	Put together a script based on words from articles (by teacher or students).	Students read script, each person reading a line in turn.	Assign lines to students or ask for volunteers.	Read the script, reading the lines assigned to them.	Students decide which lines to emphasize using vocal variety.

STEP 7	STEP 8	STEP 9	STEP 10	Step 11	STEP 12
Students read through the script, using the vocal variety decided upon.	Read script, going through where they stand and where they move.	Students decide which gestures to use.	Add multimedia (photos, videos, lighting, music, sound effects, etc.).	Practice the piece several times, integrating all the elements decided upon.	Perform the piece, either live or recorded for audience.

First, prepare to create a script by collecting several articles on a topic that is capable of being dramatized (Step 1). Then, using the collection of articles, put together a script that follows a typical narrative arc (exposition, rising action, crisis, climax, denouement, falling action / conclusion) or follow a typical essay sequence. Instead of the teacher writing the script, one alternative is to provide the sources to the students, who then create their own scripts using their creativity, composition abilities, and critical thinking skills (Step 2). (With advanced students, the teacher can ask students to find their own sources online or in books, including textbooks.) Have the students read through the script with each person reading a line in turn (Step 3). This is to first get a sense of what the story is like. Then, either assign parts to students (to individuals, pairs, small groups, half the group, or the whole group for audio and visual variety) or ask for volunteers (Step 4). Students read through the script, this time by reading the lines that have been assigned to them (Step 5). Next (Step 6), students decide which words to emphasize in order to best communicate the message through the use of vocal variety by using changes in volume (whisper to shout), tone (low register to high register), speed (slow to fast), and smoothness (smooth to choppy).

Then students again read through the script using the vocal variety decided upon (Step 7). They read through the script once again, after deciding where they should be standing on stage and where they should move, this time while going through the movements as they read (Step 8). This could also include students deciding which gestures to use (Step 9). Add multimedia (photos, videos, lighting, music, sound effects, etc.) to add dramatic effect (Step 10). Practice the piece several times integrating vocal variety, motion, gesture, and multimedia until the performance has achieved a desired level of quality (Step 11), and then perform the piece, either live or recorded and uploaded to online sites like private YouTube channels or Flipgrid (Step 12). Another performance option is to arrange for another group of students to serve as audience. Of course, each group can perform for other groups in the same class, but experience has shown that students are more motivated to perform for new audiences. Teachers are amazed

at the amount of excitement displayed by students in the rehearsal stage and the resulting group and class cohesion that come with a good performance appreciated by both teacher and peers when performed for another class.

What was described above is how to do a basic LNRT. The following is a list, created by Meir (2017) from study of Boal's writings on Theatre of the Oppressed, of different ways to add complexity to performances of LNRT:

- *Simple Reading* – The news is read without commentary or comment.
- *Complementary Reading* – The news is read and additional information is sourced from other news to find out more information.
- *Crossed Reading* – Two contradictory or linked stories are read to shed new light and dimension on the story.
- *Rhythmical Reading* – The news item is filtered and read (or sung) with a rhythm as a musical commentary.
- *Parallel Action* – The news is read and parallel actions are mimed to show the reported event.
- *Improvisation* – The news is improvised on stage and the audience can participate by making suggestions or replaying the action.
- *Historical Reading* – The news is read along with facts showing a similar event in history.
- *Reinforcement* – The news is read or sung with the aid of reinforcing material such as audio/visuals, jingles, advertising or publicity materials.
- *Concretion of the Abstract* – As the news is read, terms showing the concepts that encompass the work are shown, such as torture, hunger or unemployment, and real or symbolic imagery is shown for emotional impact
- *Text out of Context* – The news item is presented out of the context; for example, someone portraying the Prime Minister delivers a speech about austerity while devouring a huge dinner.
- *Insertion into the Actual Context* – The news is read in the real context in which the problem happens, for example, a story about war is presented in a battlefield.
- *Integration or Field Interview (the lost technique)* – This news is presented as an interview with the subject being interviewed by a host or cross-examiner. This allows for a "hot-seating" and a dynamic investigation with the audience.

These ways to add complexity to a Living Newspaper and therefore to LNRT give tools to the writers, whether they are teachers or students, to add more excitement, depth, and more professionalism to their scripts.

Samples of LNRT: Love and Valentine's Day (David Kluge, 2020)

What does LNRT look like? Three video examples of LNRT that were performed at a February 2020 conference can be seen in the links below from the JALT Performance in Education Special Interest Group Facebook page:

https://www.facebook.com/241270136548936/videos/1421565048024912
https://www.facebook.com/241270136548936/videos/222133688922627

https://www.facebook.com/241270136548936/videos/225262158515439

These videos are of performances from a workshop at a Performance in Education co-sponsored conference where three groups of teachers, three teachers in each group, were given a handout with about eight excerpts from the internet on the topics of love and Valentine's Day. They were given ten minutes to create their own LNRT script using parts of selected excerpts put in the order they chose and then were given another ten minutes to practice their piece for an audience. Even though the source material was the same for all groups, each group's performance was distinctly different and uniquely interesting. Doing the LNRT activity in a typical way, by having a number of groups performing the exact same piece, allows the students to see how the way in which each group interpreted the piece changes the impact of the piece. The problem with this way of doing Readers Theatre is that the sameness can be boring for the class. With LNRT done as described in the workshop and shown in the three videos in the above-mentioned URLs, although the topic and the sources are the same, the way the script was created and the choices of material, the way the clips from the sources are sequenced, the decisions made in the methods used to add complexity to the performance piece, and the way the group decides to interpret the piece add infinite variety to the performance. (As a sidenote, it is interesting to see that of the different ways the audience reacted to the three workshop performances, the strongest positive reaction was given to the last of the three performances, the one by the group composed of only Japanese performers, showing that non-native English performers can be as bold and creative in English as native English ones, contrary to popular opinion. This indicates that teachers can expect higher levels of excellence from our students.)

Evaluating PIE Performances Through Cloud-Based Feedback

Providing feedback is a central responsibility for language educators, but it can be challenging during PIE/PAL activities such as LNRT. As Elwood and Bode (2014) cogently noted, within writing contexts, there can be a disconnect between students' and teachers' expectations regarding feedback and assessment; moreover, there is likely a time-based component that relates to the saliency of the feedback, depending on how quickly it is received. They quote Schulz (2001), who asserts that, without proper consultation and basic agreement amongst students and teachers, "potential conflicts between students' beliefs and instructional practices" can arise (p. 244). A more articulated consensus between students and teachers is therefore desirable for feedback and assessment, and a mechanism for its timely delivery.

Characterizing Feedback

The feedback procedure described here is almost immediate, with only a slight delay, and takes various forms that are defined in more detail in an upcoming paper. Suffice it to say here that feedback

- provides evidence to learners about students' use of linguistic forms in the target language that would generally be considered mistakes (cf., negative evidence, Ayoun 2001),
- can be corrective in the sense that it conveys fairly explicit visual evidence of mistakes, such as /s/ for third person, possessive, or plural usage, or
- can be more implicit as in such cases where there is some visual indication that a mistake has been made, but more information is not provided.

For our purposes, we used feedback as described in the first two items for linguistic mistakes, whereas feedback as described in the third item was used for performance mistakes, such as not speaking loud enough or not making sufficient eye contact.

Feedback Procedures

Feedback procedures for PIE/PAL activities can essentially be divided into five steps (see Figure 2). This article has described the LNRT, and the feedback procedure described below works well with it, but the description below describes how the procedure works with any generic PIE/PAL activity.

FIGURE 2. Procedures for Implementing and Evaluating Performances Using Cloud-Based Applications

Upload Plan	Performance and Video	Peer and Self Evaluation	Viewing	Reflection
Students research articles, prepare a plan, and upload these materials to cloud.	Make videos of performances with visual teacher feedback.	Class members submit quantitative and qualitative feedback after each performance.	Students view feedback and video about their performance via cloud space.	Students prepare a written reflection about performance feedback and upload it to cloud.

Upload Plan

Initially, students research a given or chosen topic with a goal of presenting or performing it. This can be done individually or in groups. Next, they create a plan for their performance or presentation and upload it as a document to a shared cloud space. Soon thereafter, their teacher can provide feedback on the feasibility of their plan as well as the language they have used in its preparation.

Performance and Video

Once students are adequately prepared, it is time for them to perform. During this process it is desirable to video-record their efforts and provide visual cues (feedback) as to mistakes using the target language and performance aspects of their presentations or performances, such as volume and eye contact. Videos can be uploaded to a cloud space in approximately 15 minutes for a class of 15.

Peer and Self Evaluation

Based on a form (it could be Google or Microsoft 365), students input a number score for each component of a feedback/evaluation rubric and input

comments, as shown in the Appendix. This is compiled into a spreadsheet that can be readily created and mailed to students as a screenshot or a PDF file (see Appendix).

Viewing

Next, students view the video of their performance and consider their feedback with a mind to preparing a reflection about the whole process.

Reflection

Reflection is the final and critical part of this procedure. Without it, it is difficult to know to what extent students considered their feedback. Likely topics for them to discuss would be

- their mistakes based on visual cues provided,
- their reaction to peer comments, and
- a section where they discuss how they could have done some things better and what they would do next time.

Conclusions

PIE/PAL activities, such as LNRT described here, are enjoyable for many students and are motivational. Still, in the absence of a timely delivered feedback assessment procedure, there is a risk that their integral part of any syllabus could be overlooked or misperceived by students, colleagues, and even administrators. It is with this in mind that the authors of this paper are proposing more systematic, articulated, and timely delivered feedback. Foreign language classrooms can be environments where group activities are mainly based on uncontextualized textbook dialogs. LNRT gives students permission to be creative and to experience freedom of choice to interact in the target language that affords learning opportunities that more closely approximate second language learning (SLL) environments. What is often challenging is how to thereafter deliver feedback that is equally salient as that received in SLL contexts. By virtue of recent cloud-computing innovations and the procedure discussed in this paper, we hope that foreign language classrooms can become more interaction- and feedback-enriched contexts that better approximate real-life, second language learning situations.

Ongoing research by the authors on the efficacy of LNRT and other PIE activities and on cloud-based feedback show that students are interested and motivated to work with classmates to perform what they have learned.

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APPENDIX

Sample Peer, Self, and Teacher Feedback for Student Performance

Presenter 2: Feedback	
7.89	7.47
Design	Delivery
8	8
Peer Grade	15.36
Percentage	76.79
Teacher Grade	16
Percentage	80
Overall Grade	**78.71**

Student 2

Comments: Nice first effort ______. You should plan your grammar a bit more... You used the word "boom" a bit strangely.

Grammar Feedback	
word choice	1
tense	3
S	1
articles	1

1	I love Mos shakes, too!
2	I like reading comic books, too. I like Haikyu.
3	I heard he loves basketball. I like OIKOS Yogurt, too.
4	The design was very nice, neat and simple. There were several grammatical incorrections. Overall it was good.
5	Your presentation's design is cool!
6	Cool!
7	It was nice !
8	I could understand what you like. I like Shingeki no kyozinn too! :)
9	I see you love basketball. Some words were hard to hear.
10	I could understand what he like.
11	good voice. next time you should prepare more.

Teaching Language Functions Using the ASRI Method: The Context of English for Hospitality

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The objective of this article is to introduce an innovation in teaching ESP in the hospitality context. The ASRI method was implemented in a tourism school, where English learning is designed to provide the students with communicative skills required for their future careers in the hospitality industry. The ASRI method introduced in this article was based on communicative language teaching (CLT) with the principle of fluency before accuracy. The ASRI method focuses on oral skills based on the realization of language functions used in the professional field. This method aims to improve speaking skills in English by providing flexibility for students to develop their ability to communicate without worrying too much about grammatical accuracy.

INTRODUCTION

English for tourism and hospitality is a category of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) predominantly used in the international tourism and service industry (Kaharuddin et al., 2019; Simion, 2012; Tsao & Xu, 2008). Tourism has become a vital industry for a country since it directly impacts social, cultural, educational, and economic growth (Narottama et al., 2017). Due to the development of business management and communication technologies, some changes have occurred in English language teaching. One of these shifts is the emphasis on English for more practical purposes rather than academic English (Zahedpisheh, et al. 2017).

There are several methods for language learning that have been used for a long time, but the most suitable for ESP learning in vocational schools is communicative language teaching (CLT), which involves communicative activities, such as role-plays and simulations. However, the role-playing technique used in CLT takes a lot of time to prepare, and it is challenging to measure each student's competence in a large class (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In addition, linguistic theory regarding language functions has not been widely applied in any of the language learning methods mentioned above. None of these methods follow operational procedures in the vocational field. Therefore, incorporating language functions and focusing on improving students' speaking skills is necessary for the hospitality school.

THE ASRI METHOD

The learning method developed in this study is referred to as the ASRI method. Like the ethnography theory of SPEAKING (Hymes, 1974), an acronym, the ASRI method is also an acronym for the four main components: *Aims*, *Sequence*, *Role-play*, and *Interaction*. The ASRI method puts forward the principle of language as a medium of communication and interaction to achieve specific goals, such as the communicative approach proposed by Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 167). The language learning theory used is a development of communicative language teaching (CLT), which focuses more on how students are able to use language compared to their knowledge of the structure of the language being learned. Thus, learning activities emphasize role-playing activities, pair work, and group work.

The design of the ASRI method is based on the communicative principle, namely, that every conversation must have goals (aims), for example, to greet and welcome guests, recommend foods, and handle complaints. The objective, in this case, is the expected intentions and results in a conversation, according to Hymes (1974, p. 56). This objective reflects the realization of the function of language in serving guests in restaurants. It is also in line with Halliday's (1985) theory, namely, that the purpose of language is to reach the aims and objectives pursued in a speech function.

A is for Aims

Aims is the goal or purpose that the speaker wants to achieve through language functions that are realized in the form of exponents or sentences. This goal follows Hymes (1974, p. 56), which states that the purpose of a conversation reflects the realization of language functions. Halliday and Hassan (1985) also agrees that the function of language aims to achieve objectives pursued in a speech act. The communicative goal is what the speaker wants to achieve by using language functions in a specific context. This communicative goal then underlies the ASRI method and becomes the first component (i.e., aims). It is essential to mention here that aims is not the goal of the learning method.

The main component in the ASRI method emphasizes the use of language functions in the form of exponents adapted to the context of learning English in food preparation. For example, when recording a food order, the exponents used are "Are you ready to order?" "What would you like for the starter?" "How would you like the steak done?" "Would you like something to drink?" When recommending food/drinks, additional phrases include "Why don't you try the Caesar salad? It's very popular" and "The sirloin steak is delicious, madam."

The language function is the goal to be achieved by using language. In the context of hospitality, the language functions include stating, asking, responding, greeting, and saying goodbye (Brown, 2007, p. 245). A speaker wants to convey through the use of (exponential) language a function, such as to ask for something, apologize, promise, argue, express emotion, give praise, and make a complaints (Searle, 1981, p. 167). There are six language functions primarily used in the hospitality industry:

- Permissive (to soften utterances, to avoid repetition, and to adjust intonation)
- Interactive (to greet, to have small talk, and to say farewell)
- Informative (to introduce, to show, to state, to explain, to ask, to agree, to reject, and to confirm)
- Persuasive (to offer, to promise, to suggest, and to persuade)
- Directive (to tell, to order, and to request)
- Indicative (to praise, to complain, to thank, and to apologize)

Understanding language functions and their realization in language learning is fundamental. Yalden (1987, p. 37) states that language learning can be more oriented to the needs of students by analyzing speech events using the target language and classifying speech into language functions than by teaching appropriate linguistic forms to realize these functions. A language learner may master the proper grammar, syntax, and lexical items but not know how to achieve an expected and implied function through careful selection of words, structure, intonation, nonverbal cues, or perceptions of a context (Brown, 2007, p. 247). Therefore, understanding how to use linguistic forms to achieve language functions is a crucial point in learning a second or foreign language.

S is for Sequence

The second component, i.e., *sequence*, aligns with Hymes' (1974) theory that states that the flow of speech will develop in the order arranged by the speaker. The sequence of services in a restaurant is as follows:

1. Greetings and welcoming the guest
2. Presenting menu
3. Taking food orders
4. Serving the food
5. Handling complaints
6. Handling payment
7. Farewell

R is for Role-Play

Since the ASRI method will be applied in language learning, the third component is *role-play*, namely role-playing activities. Following Nunan's theory (2003), students' communicative competence will be improved through role-playing activities in explaining something, conversing in pairs, and simulations of offering assistance.

I is for Interaction

The fourth component is *interaction*; according to Harmer's (2001) theory, students must be able to establish interactions in speech events and use aspects of kinesics, gestures, and nonverbal signs along with verbal language.

The Syllabus

The syllabus in the ASRI method focuses on language functions and their realization in the form of exponents, which are then taught communicatively to students. Each language function is equipped with its realization in the form and expression of the language and various related vocabulary (Lestari et al., 2017). For example, when using the function "to ask," students need to understand lexis such as *what time*, *how many*, *arrive*, *when ... for*, and so on. In addition to vocabulary and language expressions, the syllabus can also be designed to include the pronunciation of words or expressions thought to cause difficulty. For example, the phrase "May I ..." should be pronounced as /meI aI/, but many students still pronounce it as /maI aI/. Likewise, the expression *fully booked,* which should be pronounced /fʊlI bʊkt/ is incorrectly pronounced by students as /fʊlI bʊkəd/ because they are still affected by the spelling of the phrase. Therefore, awareness of vocabulary and pronunciation gets more attention in the ASRI method syllabus.

Additionally, students also need to know the types of non-standard English that are often used in daily conversations. However, the permissive function that is realized in using non-standard language needs to be supplemented with examples of standard English expressions. It is vital to provide students with an understanding of everyday English expressions through contextualized examples in the hospitality industry.

For the ASRI method, the teaching materials have been reworked to include examples of the hospitality context, mainly in restaurant service: handling reservations, greeting and welcoming the guest, presenting the menu, taking orders, delivering the food, handling complaints, dealing with payment, giving directions, and bidding farewell. These topics were summarized in the functional-notional syllabus so that language learning could help students learn the communication goals more authentically, according to their needs.

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Preparing University Learners for Academic Writing in English

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Most second language learners arrive at university having had little writing tuition at high schools beforehand. Writing thus represents a steep learning curve for these learners. Furthermore, there are significant differences between those in their first or final year: from coherency and paragraph construction in their first year through to academic dissertations in their final year. This article will describe a method to help second-year university learners construct an academic text. This approach incorporates process, product, and genre pedagogies. While specific creative stages utilize the process cycle of self-reflection, production, feedback, and rewriting, other stages are better served by incorporating an ideal for learners to work toward. Both constraints and benefits of this blended approach are described.

INTRODUCTION

The advent of COVID-19 has greatly affected the language learning experience for all stakeholders at tertiary institutions. Such institutions, despite more resources than most other organizations or individuals, have had to deal with multiple issues in establishing a coherent COVID-19 policy, ranging from adaptive costs (such as setting up Zoom or upskilling inexperienced teachers) through to some teacher reluctance to change personal teaching styles. For many teachers who had hitherto avoided using technological solutions underpinning blended learning, this has reportedly been quite eye-opening. As is often the case, inadvertently getting used to a new approach reduces user fear and conversely, increases self-confidence.

For EFL writing-based courses, many teachers have realized how easily they can incorporate online resources to enhance the learning transmission experience for both their students and themselves. This article describes how some of these online resources have empowered both this teacher and students at a tertiary institution in Japan.

The fact that multiple writing pedagogies exist in EFL writing-based courses is testament to the struggles many learners experience in developing writing skills. By incorporating a mix of process, product, and genre pedagogies, second-year university learners can more effectively construct an academic text. While specific creative stages utilize the process cycle of self-reflection, production, feedback, and rewriting, other stages are better served by incorporating an ideal for learners to work toward. Both constraints and benefits of this blended approach are described.

Online Resources

Online language courses by necessity have needed to focus on two factors: video conferencing and a learning management system (LMS). For the details described here, the Zoom suite was used to provide an online face-to-face video feed, while the LMS was an institutional version of Moodle.

Zoom evolved in direct response to how effectively its widespread adoption by academic institutions around the world took place in the 2020 academic year. Certainly, for the purposes of the pedagogy outlined here, Zoom delivered a solid, largely reliable platform.

Moodle has also been widely used among academic institutions for a number of years. Unfortunately at this author's institution, it was still at a 2.0 version, significantly generations behind the 3.6 version widespread elsewhere. Nevertheless, it provided an adequate platform despite being without potential bells and whistles available in more recent iterations.

For the writing courses described here, no textbook was used. Rather, teacher-developed material was provided on the class Moodle platform. Output was produced and shared using the Google Drive platform.

There are more than a dozen widely available online drives that provide both storage and software solutions for users (Guru99, 2021). Most have limited free storage with paid subscriptions providing substantial upgrades to these limits. For both teacher and student, some of these options provide extremely useful aids to blended or online learning experiences. For the purpose of the pedagogy underpinning this research, the well-known Google Drive was used, primarily because this particular university had organized both teachers and students to utilize an institution-based Gmail account for their communication. This approach meant it became easier for all users to get used to a one-stop link for both communication and services that allayed security fears.

Benefits

Elola and Ozkoz (2017) point out that multimodal interaction enhances the feedback loop for language learners. Although one clear benefit is for feedback between teacher and student, a shared online document enables synchronous as well as asynchronous feedback.

There are two significant benefits of using an online drive like Google Drive. One of these is the ability to do simultaneous group work. Students isolated geographically are able to work simultaneously on the same document. Naturally, this means that the teacher can also "observe" the group session, and give timely advice. Group members can work on different components within the same document at the same time and then switch tasks to check each other's written input. If combined with videoconferencing such as Zoom, students can communicate verbally at the same time, further enhancing the productive nature of this approach. This also reinforces claims made by Elola and Ozkoz (2017) that visual media can enhance feedback authenticity and utility.

A second benefit of using Google Drive software is the delayed or asynchronous usage of comments and feedback in shared documents. In other words, students and teachers (or conceivably pairs or groups of students) are able

to input details and give feedback to each other. This is invaluable because of the creative nature of writing. Most people seem to struggle to write on demand; rather, most people seem to require “getting in the mood.” It has often been a struggle for students who have been required to produce written output at a specific time and location. Distance learning, along with shared online documents, means that students can often work at their own pace. For the teacher, too, it can mean an easier document-checking regime. Instead of checking a sudden deluge of written assignments, teachers can check work that has been shared by students who have written material. It should be pointed out, however, that this is for work based on process pedagogy (referred to in the Writing Approaches component of this article).

Writing Approaches

Like art, writing is a creative process that enables artistic expression in a wide range of genres from haiku through manga to advertising. In fact, most would argue that writing is art. And we all know that art is based on talent. When teaching writing, EFL educators need to remember this important component. Yet even for artists, there are educational programs that focus on certain aspects of artistic creativity, dependent on the type of art. Similarly, for writing there are certain skill sets that can be taught. This is especially true for academic writing.

A variety of writing pedagogies have emerged over recent years. According to Badger and White (2000), most of the initial approaches over the previous 20 years could be put into two groups: either product or process, with a third approach, genre. According to Lam (2018), grammar-translation has also been used extensively by teachers over the years. Lam goes on to suggest that portfolio assessment offers some valuable outcomes for teachers, most notably the reflective component that learners are required to undertake.

In a tertiary education environment, learning to write in a foreign language often depends on the curriculum. Courses are one semester long and learners are required to quickly learn the complex procedures for different types of writing that even native speakers may take years to master. Accordingly, EFL teachers need to cherry-pick components from these various approaches to best suit the learning objectives for each course. Badger and White argue that a combination approach, process–genre, could provide better results. Therefore it makes sense to briefly describe these various approaches. See Huang and Zhang (2020, p. 340) for more detail.

According to Pincas (1982), product writing pedagogy focuses on vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices. To scaffold skills in these areas, learners are taken through a controlled series of stages: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing, and finally, free writing. In other words, learners need to exhibit specific skill mastery before they can proceed to the next stage. Pincas herself argues that while at first learners may exhibit “assisted imitation,” eventually, they should feel they have more initiative to create a text of their own (p. 110). Specifically, Badger and White (2000) argue that product writing approaches focus mainly on the structure of language and that writing development is centered on the imitation of texts that the teacher provides as input.

Rather than focusing on imitation and step-based mastery of skills, process writing typically involves prewriting, composing or drafting, revising, and editing (Tribble, 1996, p. 39). Importantly, this is a cyclical process rather than a linear one. In other words, learners are encouraged to freely move back and forth among these various modes. Badger and White emphasize that the process approach helps learners develop skills through experience rather than through models and feedback. They liken this approach to an infant learning to walk. Parents do not model walking, rather the infant develops skill by repetition. Similarly, the focus of this approach is arguably on the repetition of various modes rather than the text itself.

The emergence of the genre approach was a realization that there are differences in text types. Various text types fulfill different communicative objectives. Accordingly, a research article has different components to a sales letter, recipe, or apology. Despite this unique consideration, in many ways, the genre approach is similar to the product approach. Learners first break down an example text, then jointly construct a text with a teacher, and finally aim to independently write their own text based on the model. The main difference is the first step in which learners need to recognize the specific features of a particular text genre. To do this, the learner needs to focus on understanding the social context and in subsequent steps, reproducing language that fulfills these components that make a text belong to a specific genre.

According to Badger and White (2000), proponents of any one of these three approaches need to stop focusing on the failures of the others and instead realize that there are benefits to combining them so that their strengths complement each other. They describe this fourth option as process–genre. In their article, they suggest examples of how teachers could utilize these various strengths. Nevertheless, this approach doesn't have to be prescriptive but rather a license to cherry-pick these various methods in a way that best suits the pedagogical needs of the classroom.

Pedagogical Examples

It is easy to claim all sorts of benefits for any particular pedagogy, so to better showcase the "horses for courses" methodology suggested here, the following section outlines how different course components in a writing course are each best suited to one of the three writing approaches.

Product Skills

Adding citations and references seems to invariably require a product approach. Each of the major publishing formats (e.g., MLA, APA, CMOS) provide examples of how to include these details. These examples can be used to create specific simplified how-to sheets for the learner. This enables both teacher and learner to simply refer to these sheets when adding source details.

Process Skills

Google Drive's suite of tools offers an ideal forum for regular expressive writing, almost "free writing." A teacher can easily set up a Google Doc template that students can then emulate to add their own topic of interest on a regular

basis. A topic title helps to focus the writer's attention, and this is further strengthened by getting the student to insert an image in an adjacent column that encapsulates the title and text topic. Teacher feedback can be given via the "comment" icon, but the main objective of this activity is to get the student to become gradually used to both writing 30–70 words on a regular basis in the target language as well as to get them used to elaborating their ideas beyond a perfunctory sentence. One student got so enthusiastic that they wrote more than 54 pages over 10 months.

Another excellent use of a Google Doc is to make a research journal and share it with the teacher. A template can easily be set up that includes important data like the source link, author, and title. In addition, the student can add both a "Takeaway" and a "Thought" section. The Takeaway acts as a summary of what the student thinks is most important or useful. The Thought acts as a reaction section in which the student can write subsequent thoughts or questions. As the file is shared with the teacher, it can act as a feedback forum. This research journal subsequently acts as a library of useful details, and both student and teacher can easily refer to past research. Furthermore, it enables the teacher to suggest new paths, give praise, or comment about factors such as source validity. Importantly, this journal enables the student to write again and again key writing features such as summarizing, paraphrasing, or reasoning in a low-stakes environment. Arguably this is a little similar to aspects of the portfolio approach.

Genre Skills

Writing introductions, conclusions, and body paragraphs seems to require a genre approach, depending on the student needs. Teachers can break down samples to demonstrate the key elements of each. Rather than focus on specific skills such as unity or cohesiveness, teachers can point to required components to generate student output. This becomes easier for students to grasp, as unity can otherwise be a complex feature to explain, especially in a second language. Hayashi (2005) found that students find this breakdown of both introductory and conclusion components extremely useful and practical. This project also seemed to confirm this reaction, with participants seemingly empowered to write much more acceptable academic genre material for these components:

Paragraph Components
Introduction: hook, rationale, thesis statement
Body Paragraph: topic sentence, claim, reasoning, evidence, conclusion
Conclusion: links to content, links to thesis statement, subsequent statement

Another way of using genre is to point out the relatively impersonal and generalizable nature of academic texts. To do this, a short one-paragraph text could be developed using both first-person pronouns and past tenses. Relevant text such as pronouns and verbs could then be highlighted and modified in a second text. By comparing the two texts, students would then quickly become aware of how a text can easily be changed in order to become relevant to a wider audience.

Constraints

The most obvious constraint in any writing course is teacher time. By their nature, checking and giving feedback on writing submissions takes a lot of time. Although this is still a significant issue in the pedagogy outlined here, it must be pointed out that online drives enable both teachers and learners to construct text and consequent feedback at a more "convenient time." Furthermore, an LMS like Moodle can allow for easily accessible documents to support learning outside the classroom. Even more importantly, the online format makes it easier to break down the task (such as an academic essay) into components, thereby allowing the mix of pedagogical approaches suggested here.

Conclusions

None of the details explained in this article are new or earth shattering. Rather than focusing on new approaches or technologies, this report has drawn together strands from both existing writing approaches and readily available online technological applications. Nevertheless, both useful and practical outcomes are readily apparent.

Online drives such as Google Drive enhance traditional, online language learning and blended pedagogy for writing courses. Multiple access to one file enables interaction and collaboration among participants, which clearly improves feedback as well as the development of ideas. As such drives enable teachers to give timely feedback, faster and more relevant interaction takes place. In addition, students can arguably write at a time best suited for individual creativity or convenience. Finally, these records can be kept online for the teacher, allowing for unfettered access from anywhere with an internet connection.

In terms of writing approaches, many teachers seem to adhere to specific writing approaches; grammar-translation, product, process, genre, or portfolio assessment. Rather than using one monolithic approach, teachers should consider using aspects of these together. By employing such a piecemeal approach for the various writing components of a writing course, stronger, more effective outcomes are likely to be realized. Specifically, a teacher can maintain student motivation and specific goals for components better suited to product or genre pedagogy, yet also incorporate lots of practice elsewhere that can better help learners to learn from experience as well as from classmates or the teacher.

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Reimagining the Writing Course Post-Covid

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While all teaching is being reevaluated in light of the experiences of going online during Covid, this paper tackles the possibilities embedded in writing instruction. After giving some background about writing instruction in Japan as well as the author's particular experience with a 2nd-year writing course that was taught in multiple sections to students with varying levels of English ability and computer skills through two different learner management systems, the paper will discuss the problems faced and how they were managed as well as discuss a framework for conceptualizing writing instruction, linking it to discussions in the literature. While the process has been tailored to the quirks of the Japanese university system and Japanese students, the experience in teaching writing during the pandemic leads to a number of interesting conclusions.

INTRODUCTION

It is difficult to identify an area of teaching that was not altered by the Covid pandemic. From the basic classroom procedures (taking attendance over Zoom, breaking students into groups) to making sure students (and teachers!) had the newly required technical nous, and from questions of content to truly existential questions (What should I expect students to be able to do? Is teaching X really necessary?), the pandemic was (and, more than a year after the first cases, continues to be) a transformative and possibly irrevocable event whose effects are still being discovered.

For my own practice, the pandemic had me reconsider almost everything I did in my writing courses, how I supported students, how I set up deadlines and prepared students for the class, and what interventions I took, to name only a few. And as I write, an apparent fourth wave of infections now is threatening Japan, which had the writing course for this year suddenly return again to remote emergency teaching. In this paper, I'd like to discuss some of these aspects and suggest how they may provoke a reimagination of the writing course at the university level.

BACKGROUND

Writing instruction in Japan has undergone a number of shifts that have been driven by a range of educational and societal changes. When I first arrived in

Japan in 1987 on the JET program (McConnell, 2000), foreign teachers were almost uniformly excluded from writing instruction. The foreign teacher was largely brought in to provide conversation practice and a native model of English. At the same time, it was a common assertion for Japanese to claim that they were much better at writing than speaking. Shimizu (2010) documents the tension between teaching English as a required subject for entrance examinations (which necessarily demands great attention to accuracy) and as a subject for communicative competence, while Stanlaw (2005) discusses the unique situation of Japan in regard to the pedestal on which English has been placed and the historical and social reasons for this.

However, in those 30+ years, younger Japanese have grown to view written English as an insurmountable challenge, while spoken English as a goal much more worthy of time and effort. This parallels government efforts to not only make English teaching more communicative, following South Korea in teaching English at the elementary level, but also in proposing external examinations assessing English communication skills (Kuramoto & Koizumi, 2018). This deemphasis has opened the door for foreigners to be assigned English writing as a subject.

Though the focus of this paper is on education, these events do not occur in a vacuum, and it is useful to recall the domestic and international events over the course of those 30 years. Late 1991 marked the bursting of the real estate prices in Japan, leading to references of that decade as the “Lost Decade” (which, as economic conditions have remained unchanged, has come to the “lost 20 years” and the “lost 30 years”). The year 1995 saw the Kobe earthquake and sarin nerve agent attack on the Tokyo subway, a foreshadowing of questions about terrorism that would be amplified internationally with the 9/11 attack on the World Trade Center in 2001, raised questions about the stability of the international order. In 2008, there was the bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers, the climax of a period known as *Reeman shokku* in Japan, and 2011 saw the Tohoku earthquake and tsunami. The Kumamoto earthquakes occurred in 2016, and the pandemic began in 2020. All of this occurs on the background of demographic decline and crisis (Coulmas et al., 2008). Given the overall climate of uncertainty and doubt, it isn’t much of a stretch to see a reflection in moving from teaching the certitudes of writing to the more up-to-the-minute requirements of communicative English.

This has also been reflected in curricular changes as many universities have moved from teaching English as four discrete skills to teaching English as an integrated skill. While there is much to recommend for such an approach, it raises particular problems with writing as a subject. One of those questions is “Do we want student to learn to write or write to learn?” (Manchón, 2011a). I would suggest that as integrated English courses become the norm, writing will become more of writing-to-learn rather than learning-to-write. However, it is not at all clear to me that non-Japanese colleagues accept writing instruction as writing-to-learn and Japanese colleagues have not even considered the possibility. Writing, for virtually all the Japanese practitioners I have met, is acquiring the ability to write, which includes not only grammar and word choice appropriate for the genre, but also the details of correct formatting. So while current research works to develop the emerging concept of writing-to-learn (Manchón, 2011b), I feel my own work needs to be focused on learning-to-write.

Personal Situation

The Japanese university class is usually defined by a once-a-week, 90-minute lesson over a 15-week term. In addition, the bulk of the students could be described as "false beginners." These are students who have generally had instruction in the basics of English, but because of inattention or lack of effort, it seemed necessary to return to those basics, hence the term. This false beginner approach, which has students re-doing basic sentences and paragraphs in order to prepare them for essays in the second year and their graduation thesis in the third or fourth year, has the effect of failing to challenge the strongest students while encouraging the weaker students to wait until they have a definitive explanation that they can hold on to.

My own teaching has been in a program that still retains a discrete four skill approach, confined to second-year students. While this has the disadvantage of placing each skill on an island, making attempts to connect the skills to each other challenging at best, it has also allowed some reflection on what it means to teach writing and led to confronting some assumptions when Covid struck. The fact that I had second-year students was also a key factor: Colleagues working with first-year students found themselves not only teaching their subject but also teaching students how to manage the technology required both for remote classes as well as for word processing.

It was also important that my university, in response to a precedent created by the Kumamoto earthquakes, freely allowed the use of the social networking service LINE, in a situation similar to what has been described by Tull et al. (2017). Other universities in Japan have often raised privacy concerns and restricted the use of social media between teachers and students, but fortunately, that was not the case at my university and membership to a LINE group for the cohort, and thus, easy access for the creation of subgroups had been developed in the three years after the Kumamoto earthquakes. Thus, all my students were part of a LINE group for their cohort, and it was relatively easy to construct LINE groups, for the individual subjects. These LINE groups were a key component in my reimagination of the writing course.

TWA

TWA is a flippant acronym for time-wasting activities. In your typical class, you may assign an activity for students to do while you speak to an individual student, handle recordkeeping, or other tasks that require you to divert your attention from students. What Covid had me realize was that many of my tasks for the writing classroom were TWA. They had some pedagogical point, they were structured to support the writing task, but they were often more for occupying the time in class. Some of these activities might include making a list of keywords and/or grammar points to use in the writing task, peer editing, or everyone's favorite, brainstorming. Another aspect of TWA is that they are keyed to the weakest individuals in the class, in the hope that they would draw on stronger students to shore up the foundation of their writing. While these might be important for skills like speaking and listening, their utility for writing is questionable. What the Covid remote classroom had me realize was that these

activities were only to fill up the 90 minutes. This had me sharply curtail these exercises or reimagine them as exercises for individuals rather than for group building.

Deadlines

Another function of the weekly class was to impose some structure on student efforts. Students knew that submission of assignments was keyed to class meetings, with the ideal being a deadline before the class so that the teacher could review and possibly correct the assignments. A deadline too early would have students forget or put off the assignment while a deadline too close to the class meeting would have students wait until the last minute to submit something that formally fulfilled the requirements but was not the student's best effort. For weaker students who procrastinated, it was often the case that the deadline was at the end of the class meeting, with that time devoted to having the student actually write.

The Covid classroom had me make writing deadlines suggested. This was made easier by the fact that the two learner management systems (LMSs) – Asahi-net Manaba (Toland et al., 2014) and Microsoft Teams (Tran & Nguyen, 2021) – that I was using had an opening date, a due date, and a closing date. By emphasizing the suggested nature of the deadline, I hoped that students would feel less pressured and choose a time to write not because it was imposed by me but because they could set aside sufficient time, and by opening all of the assignments at the beginning of the term, students had an idea of what they needed to do for the course rather than treating assignments as a whack-a-mole game. I began to devote time each day to correcting and responding to student assignments, often sending them directly to the student as soon as they were finished through LINE. A cycle of an initial paragraph, a first draft, and a final version arose, and some students realized they could incorporate their writing into their weekly schedule rather than feeling it imposed on them. Students who were behind were contacted directly at a relatively early stage so that they would not end up writing 18 assignments for 6 essays in the last week or two. Of course, some students remained impervious to this reasoning, but the bulk of the students began to take control of their own schedules.

Sending the corrected papers through LINE also underlined another very useful feature, which is that a file sent to students via LINE expires and so cannot be downloaded after about one week, so students who wanted to act on the corrections had to download the file within that time. This provided a useful push to keep students on schedule.

The Main Writing Task

The Japanese university writing curriculum generally finds a first year concentrating on mastering sentence construction and introducing paragraphs, a second year where students are introduced to the essay format, all moving towards a seminar paper or a graduation thesis done in the third or fourth year. If one considers that a native-speaking student often spends high school and university writing term papers, it is easy to see how this kind of schedule is

inadequate. My current requirements are to have students write six essays, approximately one essay every two weeks. The content is an outgrowth of my PhD research (Tomei, 2018), which used popular music videos to elicit metaphor production from students. Fortunately, this content and format was well-suited for remote teaching because the videos themselves could be easily shared through YouTube, and delivery of the materials and submission of student work was made simply through the two LMSs.

The first step was for students to take information given to them about a song and a video, and write a first paragraph for their essay. The focus was on factual prose, to be used as an introduction to the essay. This paragraph was submitted, corrected, and returned to students, who would then use this paragraph for the first paragraph of the first draft of their essay. Students were asked to structure their essay by first writing a paragraph about the lyrics, another paragraph about the video, and a final conclusion paragraph. Students were given a print of the lyrics with line numbers, and asked to refer to the line numbers rather than quoting the lines from the song. Students were also encouraged to search for a lyric video of the song by typing “[song name] + lyrics” into the YouTube search. The students were also given a link to the music video. (All of the content and other materials can be found at https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/0Bw4Z7xQAZlN1ZXVmZEpSLXg2cmM?usp=sharing) Students were asked to write at least 400 words total, inclusive of the word count of the first paragraph.

The first drafts were returned to the students as PDFs, marked using the track changes function in Microsoft Word, and they were also stored as password-protected PDFs, Students were informed of the PDF with the return of their first draft. Students were to read other student essays and then cite those students’ ideas in discussing the ideas in the song and the video. In the regular classroom, this would have been a capstone event, done with the last one or two essays, but in the on-line classroom, this became something done with all the essays, and students were asked to reach a minimum of 700 words for their final version. In the pre-Covid classroom, this minimum would have been difficult because students felt their time in class should count for something. However, in the Covid writing class, I began having students produce 600–700 words for their first draft and approach 1,000 words for their final.

Additional Writing Tasks

A feature of my writing classes has always been trying to have students realize that getting x number of words for their essay is *not* the goal. The goal is to work through their ideas and transmit them through the written word. However, the weekly structure of the class often constrains students to view the final output as the one and only goal. Practitioners will be familiar with the query “How many words should I write?” and try to lead students to avoid concentrating on a word count but rather consider the content of their writing. I have generally done this by assigning a regular weekly assignment of a book review, using it to review proper formatting and referencing in class. With the Covid classroom, as less time was devoted to in-class activities, I also asked the students to write a review of an EnglishCentral (Ballou, 2015; Obaid, 2019) video they had viewed. EnglishCentral was a requirement for the speaking class, so the move to remote teaching

ironically strengthened a long-standing weak point in my university's implementation of a four-skills curriculum, the absence of cross-curricular links between the skills.

As I was able to become accustomed to correcting for a chunk of time daily, I began correcting other writing that did not require a student-corrected return version. These were book reviews and reviews of EnglishCentral videos. To do this, I would use an iPad and an Apple Pencil to mark up a screenshot of the paragraph and send it directly to the student on LINE. (A more elaborate version, using the app Notability, for law students is described in Stein [2020].) As students received a stream of corrections that had previously been reviewed in person as TWA, they became more invested in the class and the assignments. This stream of assignments resulted in students, following SNS norms, acknowledging the correction with a thank-you or a sticker. While I lost the ability to prepare for a class each week, what it brought was similar to what I recommend to my students: Organize language study to be every day rather than trying to do it all at the end of the week. Engaging with student work on a more regular basis allowed me to be more informed about the students and seemed to draw out better work from the students than before.

Adapt, Overcome, and Improvise

In the movie *Heartbreak Ridge*, Clint Eastwood playing a tough gunnery sergeant, tells his charges that they are to "improvise, overcome, adapt." Often, adaptation means giving up on previous patterns and trying new things. While I am not particularly grateful to Covid for the disruption it caused, as Tull et al. (2017) points out, natural disasters can stimulate our motivation for the adoption of highly innovative communication technology and e-learning tools. It is highly unlikely that I would have made the changes in my writing class had they not been forced on me by Covid. Of course, this would not have come about had I not been teaching writing as a discrete skill, and this gives a different perspective on such classes. For example, one trend in Japan is to base courses on presentation, which is then presumed to cover both speaking (used for the presentation) and writing (in that students should carefully proofread their presentation slides to avoid errors). While this would be excellent if students paid the appropriate amount of attention to the English on their slides, in my experience, it has students thinking that English correctness in writing is a matter of correcting words and phrases rather than appropriately organizing the written product for maximum understanding.

Conclusions: The Future

While we are still in the throes of the pandemic here in Japan, with no end in sight, I have begun to consider how to take on board these lessons for future classes. I could see, if I don't run afoul of the powers that be, making my class on demand with an office hour to speak to students. This would allow the students more freedom in scheduling when they write and freeing both them and the teacher from producing on a weekly schedule. This shift would allow the learner to establish a locus of control (Cachlar, 1992) for the production of their

writing, thus enhancing learner autonomy (Lamb & Reinders, 2008; Little, 2007). If there is a decision to combine skill courses into an integrated English course, making the writing portion of the class on demand might also be an option with a wider range of on-demand materials to point students to in order to give support when they find difficulties in writing.

One feature of this reimagining is that it relies on technology already in place that is familiar to the students. As Dhawan (2020) points out, one key aspect to focus on is the more efficient use of technology, technology that has "minimum procurement and maintenance costs but can effectively facilitate educational processes" (p. 18). While teaching is ultimately a personal endeavor and each teacher brings their own ideas and personality to their classroom, I hope that this piece has encouraged you to reconsider your classroom practices in regard to writing.

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Panel Discussion Report

Cross-Cultural Collaboration Between Korea and Japan

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This article features three authors who have experience in research or teaching in both Korea and Japan, or in facilitating or collaborating between the two countries. The objective of this article is to bring leaders, researchers, and teachers in Korea and Japan together and to provide potential models for collaboration. The first section on professional development and academic service discusses how professional organizations, such as Korea TESOL (KOTESOL) and the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) and their members can work together to create mutually beneficial opportunities. The second section proposes Korean-Japanese research collaborations on (a) the social significance of standardized English tests, (b) students' motivation to study English and go abroad, and (c) the feasibility and practicability of English as a lingua franca (ELF) education. The final section on professional and community development shares the development of connections and collaborations across KOTESOL and JALT, including through offline and online events.

INTRODUCTION

This article represents three viewpoints from those who have experience in research or teaching in both Korea and Japan, or facilitating or collaborating between the two countries. First, Dawn Lucovich demonstrates the need for an online community of practice and how online formats can connect professional organizations and their members. Next, Miso Kim identifies and proposes three areas for collaborative research between the two countries. Finally, the article concludes with Rhea Metituk's consideration of how leaders and educators have initiated and can continue to deepen relationships between Korea and Japan. The objective of this article is to inspire, encourage, and invite leaders, researchers, and teachers in Korea and Japan to work together more closely as well as to provide potential models for collaboration.

Professional and Community Development in Korea and Japan (D. Lucovich)

This section will discuss how professional organizations and their members in Korea and Japan can independently and jointly work together to create mutually beneficial opportunities. Members of both Korea TESOL and the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) are involved in a diverse array of areas: language learning and teaching, general education, linguistics, literature, translation, interpretation, research, and publishing, among others. One of the objectives of any professional organization should be to encourage and enable closer collaboration between members internally and externally, between international researchers and teaching professionals, and to set up events and exchanges for members.

JALT launched a free online event on the last Sunday of each month, open to members, non-members, and prospective members. This event is named "Zoom for Professional Development" (ZPD) after Vygosky's (1978) "Zone of Proximal Development," which is defined as the gap between the current level of development and the level of development that is potentially achievable when collaborating with peers. The ZPD was launched as a type of social learning event and to explicitly and consciously construct a community of practice (CoP) – an organized group with both formal and informal leaders and (mainly) self-selected members, who share a common interest (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Wenger et al., 2002). In this case, an online professional community of practice (PCoP) was specifically created in order to meet professional development needs during emergency remote teaching (ERT; Hodges et al., 2020). The online modality was especially critical, as offline venues were not available and regular professional development networks and programming were disrupted.

Online CoPs and events are especially needed during these unprecedented times as the COVID-19 pandemic keeps people physically apart and socially distanced, yet the shift to online also ensures that members of professional organizations need no longer be socially (or professionally) distant. Now that online technology can help bridge the physical gap, professional organizations – including their chapters and special interest groups – have a way to easily meet and discuss common issues for their mutual benefit. In addition, the fact that KOTESOL 2021 was an online conference meant that presenters were less constrained by financial considerations or travel logistics. This allowed for an innovative roundtable format (Fingerhut & Lacaine, 2002) to be proposed by JALT for more voices to be heard and a greater variety of topics to be discussed, thus creating more opportunities for members to meet, network, make connections, and collaborate. As organizations look forward to the future, formats must be revisited and reconsidered by leveraging both new technology and higher levels of digital literacy.

Finally, when considering a post-COVID-19 era, it is very possible that Korea and Japan may form a "travel bubble" first when international borders re-open. As geographical and cultural neighbors, professional organizations in Korea and Japan should encourage members – especially novice members – to visit the neighboring country for experience attending and presenting at international conferences; to work together to improve professional development, research,

teaching, and learning in both countries; and to continue to build a community of practice that links Korea and Japan.

Possible Topics for Korea-Japan Research Collaboration (M. Kim)

This section suggests three potential areas of research for international collaboration between Korea and Japan. The first research area is the socioeconomic importance of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and its washback effect on both countries. Korean college students are expected to achieve outstanding TOEIC scores, resulting in frustration, stress, and even trauma (Kim, 2020). In Japan, the TOEIC is extensively used in businesses and schools but is only utilized to provide supplementary information (Kubota, 2013). Given that both countries regard the TOEIC as essential for employment and business, how do students in the two countries prepare for and negotiate the pressure to perform well on the test differently?

The second research area is the intersections of gender, English-language learning, and the desire to study abroad. A few studies in Korea have assessed the issue of gendered experiences during English-language learning (e.g., Cho, 2017), and studies on Japanese female learners have used the concept of *akogare*, which romanticizes white men and Anglophone cultures (Takahashi, 2013), to account for Japanese women's motivations to learn English. Because both countries fare poorly on gender equality (OECD, 2019), this suggests a need to investigate female learners' experiences and economic returns when learning English.

The third area of study includes English as a lingua franca (ELF) research and education in both countries. In Korea, World Englishes (WE) has attracted more attention than ELF. For instance, in the many studies that have investigated attitudes towards WE (e.g., Ahn, 2017), more favorable attitudes have generally been reported towards inner-circle varieties of English. By comparison, ELF has undergone extensive study in Japan, with research ranging from ELF in education to ELF in business (e.g., Murata, 2016). D'Angelo (2018) noted that "ELF has made inroads into Japan at a rapid rate over just the past five years, demonstrating the great vitality and usefulness of the paradigm" (p. 174). Why do the two countries have such different perspectives toward ELF? How do Korean and Japanese students perceive WE and/or ELF differently? Addressing these questions will help researchers to understand the societal and cultural differences of the two countries.

KOTESOL-JALT Panel Product: Parallels for Leaders and Educators (R. L. Metituk)

In the panel discussion held at the KOTESOL 2021 International Conference, interactions between professional development organizations KOTESOL (Korea TESOL) and JALT (the Japan Association for Language Teaching) involved aspects including how organizational connections were made through events both offline and online, and experiences developing connections and collaborations across the

two ELT organizations, pre-pandemic and post-pandemic. This article explores the values and theory underpinning the interactions discussed in this part of the panel, in the context of ELT in the 21st century and how leaders in professional development as well as educators can frame and define the directions required from here on.

"Self-leadership is based on the notion that anyone has the potential to lead, but in order to do so, leading oneself is an essential prerequisite" (Xerri, 2020, p. 122). In the panel discussion, organizational leaders in KOTESOL and JALT engaged in reflective practice on leadership, skills that may in turn be imparted on students through pedagogical practice and curriculum design. Visionary or authoritative leadership has an impact on climate that is most strongly positive when "change requires a new vision or when clear direction is needed" (Goleman, 2021, p. 61). Leading educational professionals through the emergency remote teaching (ERT) situation is such an example, with no blueprint or guide available, thus leaders and educators surge ahead through uncertainty. Leaders and educators alike strive to provide engaging platforms of collaboration to synthesize best practices. Digital skills and creativity are necessary for educators and students moving forward more than at any time in history. Moreover, the key components required for visionary leadership are trust, communal relationships, and social exchange relationships for organizational leaders to their groups as well as for teachers to their students. Trust is implicit in believing work will be achieved independently with new modes of supervision or guidance, and more than ever, leaders and teachers require empathy and optimism. Communal relationships are stimulated when workers or students are valued as assets. Social exchange relationships function smoothly when shared vision is gained through transparency and all parties are intrinsically motivated through shared vision and mutual investment in creating outcome (Chen & Sriphon, 2021).

In the four phases of the meeting cycle (preplan, plan, accomplish, and response and engage), pre-planning is identified as most essential (Rubinger et al., 2020). It may be argued though that the process of pre-planning is an ongoing event, for while one event is in progress, the event planner if envisioning future events to come, just as teachers in a state of awareness while teaching envision their next class. As most conference planners ruminate about the event to be created, or educators set up objectives at the beginning of a new course, clear goals accompanied by activities to reinforce the desired learning objectives would allow conference-goers and presenters at events, or students in class, to synchronize efforts in order to achieve the goals set out. In situations of event planning during a pandemic – and likewise, ERT during a pandemic – the major challenge is the constant uncertainty and moving of goalposts: Will the event or classes be online, or offline? Leaders or educators are in constant surveillance mode, gathering information to facilitate decision-making. In the panel discussion held at the KOTESOL 2021 International Conference, the theme highlighted by the weaving interaction between KOTESOL and JALT event planners as a result of the pandemic was the strengthening of the communication platform where access to information, reflection together in leadership, and personal interconnection and investment in achieving each other's goals was an apparent and positive result of the deepening network between KOTESOL and JALT.

Conclusions

The inaugural roundtable at the 2021 KOTESOL International Conference and resultant article should only be the first in a larger, longer-term collaboration between researchers and practitioners in Korea and Japan. This article seeks to provide a model for the respective associations and other professional organizations, as well as a model for researchers and practitioners to propose similar collaborative initiatives in any context or sub-field; to encourage collaboration; and to expand the possibilities for professional development opportunities in and between Korea and Japan.

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Conference Overview

Presentations of

The 28th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference – 2021

Re-envisioning ELT Altogether, All Together

February 19–28, 2021; Online

The 2021 Korea TESOL International Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following individuals for presenting research, conducting workshop sessions, and leading discussions of various types at the 28th Korea TESOL International Conference.

Keynote Sessions

Gerd Leonhard	The Next 10 Years in Technology and Society – and What It All Means for ELT
Gerd Leonhard	Conference Retrospective: Where Do We Go from Here?

Plenary Sessions

David Barker	The More Things Change, the More They Stay the Same
Keith Folse	Teaching Language Online: A Learner's Perspective
Francisca Maria Ivone	The Future of Teaching English with Technology
Curtis H. Kelly	A Look at the Social Brain Will Change Your Ideas About ELT Forever
Sophia Mavridi	Re-envisioning ELT Through the Lens of Digital Literacies
Willy Renandya	Addressing the Reading–Writing Gap in Second Language Learning
David Valente	Inspired Imaginings: Exploring the Future of TEYL
Dorothy Zemach	Future Proof

Special Sessions

Joe Dale	Tech Sessions with Joe Dale (5 sessions)

Invited Sessions

Bo-young Lee	The "Mom Factor" of Korean ELT: Do We Work With It, or Without It?

Kevin Kester, Sin-Yi Chang	EMI in Conflict-Affected Contexts: Critiques and Emerging Possibilities
Christopher Nicklin, Joseph P. Vitta	Recommendations for Classroom-Based TESOL Research: L2 Instructed Vocabulary Acquisition as an Exemplar
Joseph P. Vitta, Christopher Nicklin:	Quantitative TESOL Classroom Research in Light of the L2 Methods Reform: A Teacher-Friendly Quality Checklist

Opening Night Invited Panel Session

John Endicott, Judy Yin, Lisa M. Hunsberger, Sydney Fortowsky, Stafford Lumsden	The Future in ELT

Invited Panel Sessions

Michael Free with Robert Lowe, Angie White, Marek Kiczkowiak	The Problem of Native-Speakerism: Why Haven't We Resolved This?
Leoni Overbeek, with James Rush, Sam Macdonald, Theophilus Van Rensburg Lindzter	Green ELT: Imperatives and Conversations
Christopher Redmond with Trevor Breakspear, Sheryl Cooke, Johnathan Cruise, Jan Langeslag, Neil Ryder, William Bayliss, Radosveta Valkova, Jonathan Dixon	Technology and Language Assessment: Consequences and Considerations
Eric Reynolds with Leonie Overbeek, Vivienne Sales, Daniel Jones	Building Financial Health While Teaching English in Korea

Research Sessions

Gunther Breaux	Conversation-Based Learning: The Right Method for the Right Goal
Gunther Breaux	MS Word Can Measure Speaking Ability: This Changes Everything
Jeff Broderick	Does Duolingo Improve Standardized Test Scores?
Peter Carter	Resilient Curricula for Lockdown Learning: Experiences, Platforms, and Activities
Mable Chang	Communicative Needs of Chinese Professionals in the Local Workplace in Hong Kong: Implications for

	Pedagogy of Workplace English
Junko Chujo	Affective Effects of Self-Pronunciation Evaluation via Online Search Engines
Garrett DeHond	Determining Text-Specific Comments in L2 Peer Response
Garrett DeHond	Instructors' Perspectives on Korean Students' Ideologies of English
Jenson Deokiesingh	Unveiling Racism in TESOL: The Caribbean Perspective
Mary Eddy-U, Laurie Baker–Malungu, Ka I Ip	English Learning Motivation at University: EMI vs. Mother-Tongue Programs
Keenan Fagan	How Student Teachers Appropriate Communicative Teaching Ideas from Reflective Dialogue
Dawn Gillis	Anything, Anytime, and Anywhere: Connecting Virtually with a Personal Touch
Jason Gold	Higher Education Academic Identity Formation and Educator Implications
Stewart Gray	Why Do(n't) Foreign English Teachers Learn Korean? A Narrative Study
Shang-En Huang	Talking to Myself: Enhancing Fluency in Spontaneous Speech Through Soliloquizing
Ilona Huszti, Ilona Lechner, Márta Fábián, Erzsébet Barany, Annamária Kacsur	Assessment of Learner and Student Performance in Distance Learning
Thu-Nguyet Huynh	Integrating Ubiquitous Learning into Schema-Based Speaking Instruction
Takako Inada	Less Anxiety Is Important for Improving English Proficiency
Daniel Jones	The Great Blind Spot: Finance Ed!
Yujeong Kim	Factors That Affect Reconstructing Lexical Meaning in Listening Comprehension
Suh Keong Kwon	The Impact of Presenting Videos in an L2 Listening Comprehension Test: An Eye-Tracking Study
Wutthiphong Laoriandee	From Linguistic Challenges to Classroom Activities: Preparing EIL Hosts for Visitors
Roxy Lee, Stewart Gray	Creativity in English Education: What the Recent Research Tells Us
Yong Jik Lee	Korean English Teachers' Experiences of Participating in Long-Term Professional Development for TETE
Denok Lestari	The Use of the ASRI Method in Teaching English for Hospitality
Jia Lih Lim	Parents Readiness for Home-Based Learning in Rural Sarawak
Shaun Manning	Zoom or Room: Investigating Interactive Differences On- and Offline
George MacLean	Using Cloud Computing to Improve Feedback About EFL Oral Presentations
Jared McKee	Working Together to Write Effectively: Sociocultural

	Theory and Google Docs
Suki Mozenter	Decolonization, Linguistic Bias, Language Hierarchies, and TESOL
Suki Mozenter	Reframing Language Class: Student Perceptions, Engagement, and Outcomes
Filmor Murillo	Usage of Figures of Speech in English Songs
Merissa Ocampo	Revitalizing Students' Motivation Through Gratitude Intervention
William Owens	My Students Just Want to Chat! Are They Learning Anything?
Michal B. Paradowski, Magdalena Jelińska	Foreign Language Teachers and Learners in the Face of COVID-19
Travis Past	Once Upon a Time: Digital Storytelling to Enrich Asynchronous Classrooms
Sara Peterson	What Do They Expect? A Survey of Freshman Taking Online English Classes
Jeremy Phillips	Bridging the Gap: Academic English for Pre-intermediate – Intermediate Learners
Jeremy Phillips	Feedforward: Text Response Techniques That Improve Student Writing
Maria Polychrou	Intercultural Education Through Educational Drama and Theatre Techniques
Brian Raisbeck	English Names and L2 Motivation in the Korean EFL Classroom
Sivagowri Rajashanthan	Redefining English Language Teaching for Online Learning
Mahboubeh Rakhshandehroo	Japanese University Students' Perceptions of English Native-Speakerism
Yukie Saito	Potential and Challenges of the Use of VR in English Education
Miori Shimada	A Platform for the Application of Picture Books for Novice Teachers
Michael D. Smith, David McCurrach	VR & ELL: Current Strategies and Future Directions Following COVID-19
Paul Spijkerbosch	Preparing University Learners for Academic Writing in English
Reynald Alfred Sy	Classroom Innovation: Addressing English Classroom Needs Through Design Thinking
Cristina Tat, Sean Gay	Students' Perceptions of an Extensive Reading Program
Jessica Valoma Marques, Ka I Ip	Dual Mode Teaching: Challenges and Opportunities for ELT Teachers
Tien Thinh Vu, Diem Bich Huyen Bui	Teaching Presentation Skills Online: A Case Study
Hsiaoping Wu	Increasing Authenticity and Motivation in an EFL Oral Presentation Class

Workshop Sessions

Prumel Barbudo	Successful Scaffolding Tasks for Teacher, Peer, and Self-Writing Assessments
John E. Breckenfeld	Developing a Classroom Culture of Trust During Trying Times
Margaret Chang	Spoken Fluency Practice for Improving TOEFL Writing: A Case Study
Sarah Miyoshi Deutchman	Creating Corpus-Based Materials
Adriane Geronimo	Re-envisioning Leveled Reading Instruction
Adriane Geronimo	Vocabulary Instruction to Meet the Needs of All English Learners
Ehean Kim	Teaching a Foreign Language with Computational Thinking
David Kluge, George MacLean	Feedback on Student Performances During Difficult Times: ELT in ERT
Sydney Lee	The Burnout Workshop: Strategies to Help Heal the Burn
Victoria Lee	Inducing Creativity in Young Learners: Building 21st Century Skills Using Technology
Yuning Liu	Using Multiple Online Resources for Meaningful ELL Lesson Preparation
Jeffrey Maxwell	TOEIC Speaking Tasks for Building Communicative Competence in the Classroom
Francesca Mazzucato	Online Contents Are Power: You Want the Power
Francesca Mazzucato	Play with Me, Please!
Francesca Mazzucato	Touch the Scraps: Analog Collages and Art Journal in ELT Classrooms
Rhea Metituk, Anika Casem	Creating a Hybrid Class: From the Pre-pandemic to the Pandemic Era
Michal B. Paradowski	Teaching English for Lingua Franca Communication: Korean Speakers and Beyond
Michal B. Paradowski	Teaching English for Special Purposes with (Self-Developed) Corpora
Sterling Plata	Communication with a Mission: Re-envisioning College English for Sustainability
Benjamin Rentler	Facilitating Interactive Learning Online with Nearpod
Caterina Skiniotou	Sustainable Extensive Reading Programs: Approach, Strategies, Resources, Techniques
Heidi Vellenga	English Language Program Accreditation: Standards to Support Success
Julian Warmington	The How and Why of Our Zoom-ified Future
Jocelyn Wright	Reflection on Practice with Figures of Speech

101 Workshop Sessions

Hetal Raghuvir Ascher	Interactive and Engaging Activities for the Online (or Offline) Classroom
Peadar Callaghan	The Gamification of Continuous Assessment
Garrett DeHond	Designing an Intensive Reading Lesson
Sydney Lee	Presentation Skills 101
Aaron Shayne	Conversation Class 101
Yoko Takano	Fun Writing Projects Make EFL Students Active in Classes
Joseph Tomei	Reimaging the Writing Course Post-COVID

Dialogue Session

Bryan Alkema	Say It Because You Mean It: Empowering Student Voice

Pecha Kucha Sessions

Marc Jones	Making Your Classes ADHD-Aware: Simple Tips for Inclusion
James Papple	TESOL Affiliate Network and Professional Council Overview
Yoko Takano	Online Project-Based Teaching's Benefits to Young Learners and Their Families
Daniela Trinks	Teaching the Board Game Go to English Learners
Kinsella Valies	You Talking to Me? English-Speaking Practice Through Movies
Jason Wolfe, Jonathan Andreano	Ungoogleability and Radical Creativity

Poster Sessions

Reginald Gentry	The MALQ from a Participant's Perspective
Yoko Ichiyama	Why We Should Publish Our Own Pre-extensive Reading Materials
Pinar Sekmen	Navigating and Managing "Panic-gogy" Virtually

KOTESOL Connections: Committee & SIG Sessions

Wayne Finley	Promoting Korea TESOL Through a Pandemic and Beyond
Lindsay Herron	Membership Perks, Privileges, and Possibilities
Brian Raisbeck	Back to Square One: Reflective Practice in Uncertain Times
David Shaffer	All About KOTESOL Publications: What, How…
Heidi Nam, Allison Bill	Christian Teachers SIG Dialog: Christian Identity and

	Teaching Critical Thinking

KOTESOL Connections: Diversity Panel Sessions

Rhea Metituk, Anika Casem	Bolstering Women and Gender Equity
Kara Waggoner, Anika Casem	Increasing Diverse Voices Within KOTESOL
Julian Warmington, Rhea Metituk	Covid and the Climate: Unequal Effects, Similar Opportunities
Jocelyn Wright	Representation and Diversity in KOTESOL Membership

Multimedia and Computer-Assisted Language Learning SIG Sessions

Michael Brandon	A New Normal? Reflecting on the Opportunities and Costs of a Year of Mass Remote Learning
Isobel Hook	Activating Speaking Skills in Online and Asynchronous Environments
Lisa M. Hunsberger	Re-thinking Presentation Design Together
Victor Reeser	Innovative Assessment Practices

Graduate Student Showcase Sessions

Matthew French	Mental Lexicons and Word Association: A Small-Scale Study
Nur Fitri Gebers	Example of a Communicative Lesson for a Mixed-Ability Online English Literature Class
Gizem Genç, Antonina Nemtinova	Identities of Turkish High School Students and Their Effects on Learners' Perceptions of Lesson Theme
Ehean Kim	Scratch Coding Workshop Through Design-Based Research
Robin Maurice	A Framework for Adapting and Exploiting Authentic Materials with Young English Learners
Charlotte Otto	The Role That English Plays in the World Today
Helmut Otto	Language Planning: An Example from Africa
Kirsten Razzaq	From SOS to Success: The Distance Learners' Dissertation Toolkit

Promotional Session

MM Publications	Is Phonics Instruction Important When Teaching Young Learners?

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