KOREA TESOL

KOTESOL

대한영어교육학회

KOTESOL Proceedings 2022

More Than Words: Teaching for a Better World

Proceedings of
The 29th Korea TESOL International Conference
April 30 – May 1, 2022; Online

KOTESOL Proceedings 2022

More Than Words: Teaching for a Better World

Proceedings of
The 29th Korea TESOL International Conference
April 30 – May 1, 2022; Online

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

KOTESOL Proceedings 2022

More Than Words: *Teaching for a Better World*

Proceedings of the 29th Korea TESOL International Conference
Online
April 30 – May 1, 2022

Edited by

Dr. David Shaffer
Gwangju International Center, Gwangju, South Korea

Published by Korea TESOL
KOTESOL Publications Committee Chair: Dr. David Shaffer

◇◇

Layout/Design: Mijung Lee, Media Station **Printing:** Myeongjinsa

For information on this or other Korea TESOL publications, as well as inquiries on membership and advertising contact us at:

koreatesol.org or publications@koreatesol.org

ISSN 2586-4173 (Online) Price: 10,000 KRW / 10 USD. (Free to Members)

2022 KOTESOL International Conference Team

Conference Chair, Registration Director
Lindsay Herron

Conference Co-chair, Zoom Host Coordinator
Garth Elzerman

Program Director
Michael Free

Program Co-director GSS Coordinator
Kirsten Razzaq

Invited Speakers Director, Financial Affairs Director
David Shaffer

GSS Mentors
Allison Bill
Rob Dickey
Kevin Kester

Zoom Session Hosts
John Breckenfeld
Lucinda Estrada
Lindsay Herron
Greg Lewis
Andy Jiahao Liu
Jennifer McMahon
Reece Randall
James Rush II
Youssef Tamer
Joe Tomei
Thinh Vu
John Thomas Wyatt

Discord Coordinator
Anika Casem

Sponsorship Comm. Chair, Abstract Booklet
Rob Dickey

Conference Publicity
Virginia Hanslien

National Treasurer
Danielle Kinnison

Async. Video Manager
Sean O'Connor

Edzil.la
Gary Ross &
Stephen Henneberry

Moderators
Garth Elzerman
Michael Free
Stewart Gray
Bryan Hale
Lindsay Herron
Heidi Nam
Kirsten Razzaq
Jocelyn Wright

Submission Vetters
Terri Beadle
Allison Bill
Daniel Corks
Garth Elzerman
Keenan Fagan
Michael Free
Stewart Gray
Lisa M. Hunsberger
Kevin Kester
Chris Kobylinski
Maria Lisak
Robert James Lowe
Kara Mac Donald
Lisa Maxwell
Christopher Miller
Heidi Nam
Luis Caballero
Richard Prasad
Brian Raisbeck
David Shaffer
Jocelyn Wright
Joseph P. Vitta
Kara Waggoner
George E.K. Whitehead
Daniel Wolkenfeld

300 participants
145 sessions
~35 countries
20+ hours
2+ days

Korea TESOL
KOTESOL · 대한영어교육학회

Foreword

The 2022 Korea TESOL International Conference, our 29th annual event, went ahead as planned as our second online international conference during COVID-19 pandemic. The theme of the conference was “More Than Words: Teaching for a Better World.” Organizers hosted sessions through various platforms, including the main conference, Edzil.la, as well as Zoom and Discord. The online event took place on the weekend of April 30 – May 1, 2022.

Our special pre-conference plenary speaker was Anu Gupta, scientist, educator, lawyer, and founder of Be More with Anu. The two-day conference showcased an interdisciplinary cast of ten featured speakers – Rebecca Oxford, Kurt Squire, Constance Steinkuehler, Tammy Gregersen, Ryuko Kubota, Francis Daehoon Lee, Grazzia Mendoza Chirinos, Meng Huat Chau, Staci B. Martin, and Arran Stibbe. Also featured were several invited speakers: Willy Renandya, Marc Helgesen, Nikki Ashcraft, and Luis Javier Pentón Herrera and Gilda Martínez-Alba. The conference included a Graduate Student Showcase and an invited panel, “ELT Professionals for a Better World: Lives of Leadership and Service,” with panelists Joo-Kyung Park, Yilin Sun, Ilene Winokur, Kyungsook Yeum, and Sterling Plata. Of special interest was the opening address presented by Former U.S. Ambassador to the Republic of Korea Kathleen Stephens, who was once herself an English educator in Korea.

In this volume are collected 33 papers arising from presentations at KOTESOL 2022. These papers are representative of the wide array of interests that the field of TEFL encompasses. Grouped into five categories, the papers include an invited speaker article, research papers (13), action research papers (2), techniques and approaches (13), and workshop reports (4).

Building on the experiences of the previous year’s online conference, the 29th Korea TESOL International Conference, as our second international conference delivered online, can be considered a resounding success. As a virtual conference, it brought together speakers, presenters, and attendees literally from around the globe, some of whom would not have been able to attend an onsite conference due to time and financial constraints, not to mention the pandemic.

The two-day conference offered 145 sessions in its more than 20 hours of programming and was attended by more than 300 participants from over 35 countries. Another advantage of this virtual conference was that almost all of the presentations were recorded and made available to participants for a full month after the conference, during which time a viewing of any or all of the conference sessions was possible for each conference participant.

Building on the success of 2022, members can look forward to the 2023 Korea TESOL International Conference, *Advancing Collaboration*: *Exchanges Among Scholars*, *Instructors*, *and Students*. It is to take place April 29–30, in Seoul and online, as we anticipate an abatement in the pandemic situation.

David Shaffer
Editor

KOTESOL Proceedings 2022

More Than Words: Teaching for a Better World

Proceedings of the 29th Korea TESOL International Conference

CONTENTS

Invited Speaker Article

The Power of Collaboration: Building Networks, Connecting Educators

Grazzia Ma. Mendoza
TESOL International Association, Affiliate Speaker Program
USAID, Tegucigalpa, Honduras

INTRODUCTION

Last April, I had the honor to serve TESOL and its affiliates as a featured speaker at the 2022 Korea TESOL International conference through the affiliate speaker program. My topic touched on the importance of building engagement among educators to reflect on what this entails for the field: The Power of Collaboration. Through this article, I would like to touch briefly on several aspects: (a) some research on the power of educator networks, (b) the importance of being part of a network from my perspective, (c) how a network can be a niche and breeding ground for leaders, and (d) what some personal examples are of leadership within networks.

Research on educator networks has shown that they are an influence on educators' beliefs, attitudes, and practice (Cole & Weinbaum, 2010), influence outcomes on educational reform (Coburn et al., 2012), and create or constrain access to resources such as expertise (Baker-Doyle & Yoon, 2010). All of these are areas of high importance to the field. Understanding the synergies and considering relationships between networks can be conduits for knowledge and understanding that could lead to capacity building for improvement and change.

Research then demonstrates how teachers benefit from networks as they contribute to building a strong support system that enables originality, expertise, and adoption of new strategies or techniques. In addition, it leverages on using and accessing resources strategically, for educators and administration will work in a smarter way and not just harder. Finally, it builds on well-established leaders to lead and influence changes within the institution.

THE IMPORTANCE OF NETWORKS: MY EXPERIENCE

There are many lessons to be learnt from the interactions of educators. It has been my experience of close to 30 years in the field that we learn from those with whom we build strong professional relationships. These are the people who have become mentors in my life and who have marked the path to leadership through their own example or by shedding light onto relevant opportunities for me. In addition, I have seen how important it has been to engage and learn from those in positions of authority because they are able to provide clear guidance within professional structures at institutions and directly influence positive capacity building and professional development for staff. Sometimes, I have also found that novel teachers can be a fountain of knowledge because of their fresh ideas and non-traditional approaches due to their recent transit through academia as a medium to establish new trends.

I can state that my experience as part of varied educator networks has not only brought ample opportunity for personal and professional growth but also strong knowledge, a reflective practice, and an in-depth look at my own perspectives as an educator. It has led me to learn from important role models who have helped me keep reigniting my own motivation and purpose. It has fortunately allowed me to engage in varied projects where I generate ideas, solutions, and lead initiatives with like-minded peers. It has led me to believe that I can be part of the change I want to see in education by taking the lead and by encouraging others to lead and build stronger networks for new teachers and leaders. Finally, networks are truly instrumental in disseminating resources and expertise and in influencing change within teaching practices in different contexts.

How Networks Promote Leadership: My Leadership Path

In Portell (2021), Tracy Benson states that networks bring educators together at different levels of experience to be a means of support and to understand that they face similar challenges within their context. Maslow himself within his hierarchy of needs has explored the promotion of leadership by focusing on what teachers need and what they can contribute to a network.

I find that networks are a good foundation and fundamental to support. It is within networks that mentorship happens, as role models take others under their wings and guide them effectively through the path they want to follow. It is within networks that educators collaborate to enact change and influence decision-making and policy at the institutional or even government level. Due to the use of educators' interpersonal skills, high value is drawn from teamwork and challenges are faced with resilience and achieving positive outcomes. There are multiple ways in which educators' can build empowering relationships within their own context, and as social media has become a growing trend, there are multiple ways in which teachers engage with other educators worldwide.

I have experienced myself how a network has boosted my leadership journey within the field of TESOL. I have been able to volunteer in different capacities as a reviewer of proposals and as a leader within award councils and interest sections. Ultimately, networks have allowed me to be the founder of an English teachers' association in Honduras and link it to international associations. They have allowed me to lead as president of a group of affiliates in Latin America and to be part of the TESOL International Association Board of Directors. Without an educator network to engage with, learn from, and access opportunities, none of the leadership opportunities I have been a part of would have been possible. I can undoubtedly confirm my leadership path has been the result of these connections and incredible role models and mentors.

Conclusions

Throughout this brief article I have mentioned research and my own experience within educator networks. I have described how relevant it has been to me as a teacher and learner, but most importantly, as a leader. I hope this article in *KOTESOL Proceedings 2022* can help other ESL teachers in Korea to see themselves as contributors, role models, experts, and mentors. I hope it allows them to use their own strengths and talents, but also to benefit from others expertise to grow. I can only say never doubt yourself, seek like-minded colleagues to collaborate with, seek those who have different views to broaden your horizons, and build a strong support network for those in your context so that everyone can thrive.

Happy networking!

The Author

Grazzia Maria Mendoza Chirinos is an education specialist at USAID Honduras, where she manages and designs education projects to support the Ministry of Education to ensure access, quality of education, and safe learning spaces. She has been a language educator for 29 years and is a consultant and teacher trainer. She holds a MEd in international education and a MA in TESOL. She has held a variety of positions in K–12 as well as higher education and has trained teachers in different parts of the world for over a decade. She is a U.S. State Department Alumna recognized for project development for teachers' professional growth projects. She was recognized by TESOL International Association for scholarship and service through the Virginia French Allen Award. She is the founder and former president of HELTA TESOL in Honduras and former president of Latin America and Caribbean TESOL. She was a member of the TESOL International Association Board of Directors (2019–2022) and served as chair of the Finance Committee (2021–2022).

References

Baker-Doyle, K. J., & Yoon, S. A. (2010). Making expertise transparent: Using technology to strengthen social networks in teacher professional development. In A. J. Daly (Ed.), *Social network theory and educational change* (pp. 115–126). Harvard University Press.

Coburn, C. E., Russell, J. L., Kaufman, J. H., & Stein, M. K. (2012). Supporting sustainability: Teachers' advice networks and ambitious instructional reform. *American Journal of Education*, *119*, 137–182.

Cole, R. P., & Weinbaum, E. H. (2010). Changes in attitude: Peer influence in high school reform. In A. J. Daly (Ed.), *Social network theory and educational change* (pp. 77–96). Harvard University Press.

Portell, M. (Host). (2021, May 21). Dr. Tracy Benson – Unconscious bias in schools (No. 45) [Audio podcast episode]. In *Trauma Informed Educators Network Podcast*. Paradigm Shift Education. https://paradigmshifteducation.com/2021/05/21/episode-45-dr-tracey-benson-trauma-informed-educators-network-podcast/

Research Papers

Utilizing Online Exchanges to Enhance Experiential Learning and Intercultural Competence

Gordon Carlson
Otemae University, Nishinomiya, Nishinomiya, Japan
Daniel Markarian
William T. Dwyer High School, Palm Beach Gardens, Florida, USA
Steven Hecht
Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale, Florida, USA

As the importance of the cultural dimension in education gains traction in language learning, instructors are increasingly expected to incorporate intercultural literacy into their teaching. However, opportunities for authentic cross-cultural exchanges may be limited, and digital media are often the only exposure to different worlds, resulting in misconceptions and skewed images of other people. We therefore conducted a ten-week exchange between 190 Japanese and American learners to examine how communication skills, interests in other cultures, and stereotypes might be altered. The project included a demographic questionnaire followed by a 22-question survey in which perceptions and attitudes could be compared through pre–post quantitative and qualitative data. Student tasks included creating three-minute group video productions, listening to music, drawing animations, tasting foreign foods, and culminating with an interactive 90-minute webinar. Learning outcomes included purposeful collaboration, experiential learning, self-reflection, and enhanced cross-cultural understanding.

Introduction

With globalization on the rise worldwide, the need to equip young people with cultural competency is increasing faster than ever. Social responsibility, economic issues, and global interdependence know no boundaries, and cross-cultural understanding is growing increasingly important by the day (Lokkesmoe et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2015). However, what exactly is cross-cultural competence? Throughout the literature, practitioners and researchers use a wide range of interchangeable terms to describe intercultural competence, including *global competence*, *intercultural communicative competence*, *cross-cultural awareness*, *transcultural communication*, *cross-cultural adaptation*, *intercultural sensitivity*, and *intercultural communication*, among others (Fantini, 2009; Krajewski, 2011). Although there is no consensus on the terminology around intercultural competence (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2016), the terms boil down to being aware of one's own worldview and the ability to step beyond it to reach out to others from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. For the context of this study, it can be broadly defined as the awareness of one's intrinsic cultural values and the ability to perform appropriately when interacting with people beyond the local or national level (Rumbley et al., 2012; Sandell & Tupy, 2015).

Foreign language and study abroad programs play a unique role in giving students the chance to develop their intercultural competencies. Regrettably, high costs, global unrest, and personal circumstances prevent most from doing so. In recent years, however, geographic distances between countries and cultures have been greatly diminished by the transformations in interactive technologies that open new doors and opportunities for cultural and academic exchanges. Readily available and accessible technology, such as online polls, video editing tools, and webinars, can be used as tools to bridge gaps to share their cultures and present their views. The acquisition of such cultural knowledge is essential not only for communicative proficiency and individual enrichment but also to equip future educators, professionals, and leaders with the capacity for promoting successful collaboration across cultures (Sinicrope et al., 2007).

From its inception, the primary aim of this project was to educate a new generation to consider universal and global issues by taking on social, economic, political, and environmental challenges. Based on this premise, the idea of using internet technology to bring together economics and financial literacy students in the United States with English language students in Japan, 12,000 kilometers apart, was conceived. The project commenced with the belief that a cross-cultural exchange would help students to challenge misinformation, stereotypes, and preconceived misperceptions, thus sparking new interest in others and an attitude of open-mindedness. The intention was to offer learners a unique opportunity to gain an awareness of their intrinsic cultural values by interacting with people beyond the local or national levels. It was also to increase the capacity for future leaders to spread economic knowledge and financial literacy by collaborating, co-producing, sharing resources, and finding harmony based on relationships and mutual understanding. Collectively, students would increase their economic and financial literacy, and develop a deeper appreciation for their counterparts across the world.

Literature Review

To date, scant attention has been given to how students engage with opportunities for global learning and what educators can do to encourage cross-cultural interaction. However, numerous studies from around the world reveal that many learners do not recognize, engage with, or realize the value of opportunities to enhance their global outlook and intercultural capabilities (e.g., Campbell, 2012; Green, 2019; Heffernan et al., 2019). Local students tend not to take advantage of opportunities for international interaction offered by the presence of exchange students, while international students cite significant difficulties when trying to establish relationships and meaningful interactions (Deakins, 2009; Gareis et al., 2011; Grumbine & Hirano, 2018; Lee & Markey, 2014; Sawir, 2013; Siaz et al., 2008). The research suggests that educators, particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels, may miss out on valuable opportunities to internationalize curricula, inadvertently keeping programs focused inward and unchanged. This is a potential concern because a lack of cultural appreciation and even ethnocentrism can result in releasing young people into society ill-equipped to deal with an ever-changing and ever-shrinking world community.

Despite a more connected world, opportunities for face-to-face cross-cultural encounters are limited at best. However, online intercultural exchanges can provide authentic and meaningful learning input as well as create new contexts for promoting social interaction (Guth & Thomas, 2010). Models of intercultural exchange can be divided into two categories: communication-oriented and research-oriented (Chen & Yang, 2016). Communication-oriented exchanges generally focus on purposeful, authentic communication on diverse topics accompanied by reciprocal feedback between participants (Bower & Kawaguchi, 2011; Chen & Yang, 2016; Menard-Warwick et al., 2013; Poliska, 2011). Research-oriented exchange tends to investigate corpus-based vocabulary frequencies and compare parallel data from their different cultures under the supervision of instructors (e.g., Aydın & Yıldız, 2014; Gorshkov & Lange, 2017; O'Dowd, 2007; Watanabe et al., 2007). Both models supply varied approaches to cross-cultural exchanges that can promote linguistic and pragmatic development while enhancing awareness of one's own cultural background as well as others (Thorne, 2005).

Various studies demonstrate that learners' misconceptions and stereotypes can change as a result of new exposure to intercultural contact, reducing bias and prejudice (e.g., Alvídrez et al., 2015; Chen & Yang, 2016; Dickson et al., 2010; Jackson et al., 2019; Sandell & Tupy, 2015). When new experiences alter learners, negative views toward the interlocutors, prejudices, and changes in stereotypes can be virtually eradicated (Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002). However, although rapid technological development and online cross-cultural communication are on the rise, misconceptions still exist in both the virtual community and the real world. Students could therefore be provided with opportunities to cultivate virtual intercultural communication skills in online contexts.

The need for financial literacy was reinforced by Newsom (2021) and supported three reorientations toward financial education that included understanding (a) changes to people's current financial situations and financial prospects; (b) changes in the importance of ecological and social factors in purchasing decisions and the role of cultural factors in access to financial products; and finally, (c) developments in how decisions are made. Individually or in collaboration, it may point to larger themes. Further, Gill and Bhattacharyab (2019) described that in light of the findings of low levels of financial literacy in its 2016 International Survey of Adult Financial Literacy competencies, a key recommendation of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD; 2016) was to introduce financial education early in life, ideally in the school curriculum. According to Pesando (2017), financial literacy is an essential component of sound financial decision-making, and education is the most traditional form of human capital investment. Lusardi and Mitchell (2014) define it as "people's ability to process economic information and make informed decisions about financial planning, wealth accumulation, debt, and pensions" (p. 2). Additional information may be useful for understanding financial decision-making in different cultures.

In sum, the existing literature provides firm evidence that internet-based international exchanges can produce meaningful results. The pedagogical implications open ways for educators and curriculum developers to incorporate materials that enhance their learners' cultural competency. However, few known studies have examined learners' changes in self-perceptions, interests in other cultures, or altering stereotypes of other societies over the course of international collaboration. This gap in the research led the authors of this paper to adopt a communication-oriented model of intercultural exchange with three research questions.

RQ1. To what extent did change occur in students' self-perceived ability to communicate with people from different origins after an international cultural/financial literacy and economics exchange?
RQ2. To what extent did an international cultural/financial literacy and economics exchange (making videos, Google meetings, post-survey) result in changes in rated interest levels in American/Japanese culture?
RQ3. To what extent did an international cultural/financial literacy and economics exchange help change students' views on stereotypes of their own and counterparts' cultures?

The answers to these questions, which adopt the communication-oriented model, contribute to the notion that intercultural collaborative exchange can positively affect understanding and changing stereotypes.

METHOD

Participants

The participants in this project came from two sides of the globe: Japan and the United States. The rationale for using this sample population was to increase high school and college students' economic and financial literacy by helping them gain an awareness of their intrinsic cultural values by interacting with people beyond the local or national level. Students were expected to develop skills such as planning, creativity, logical thinking, leadership, teamwork, presentation, and communication based on the Florida State Economic and Financial Literacy Standards for Grades 9–12.

The American group was composed of four tenth- through twelfth-grade high school classes in Palm Beach County, Florida, United States. According to *U.S. News and World Report* (2022), the school ranks 12th out of 59 high schools in its district. The student body comprises 2,158 students with a diverse makeup of White (45.6%), Black (31.8%), Hispanic (14.6%), mixed students of two or more ethnicities (3.7%), Asian (3.7%), Native American (0.5%), and Pacific Islander (0.2%) (*U.S. News and World Report*, 2022). The total minority enrollment is 55%, and 49% of the student body is economically disadvantaged. It has an advanced placement participation rate of 51%, with a pass rate of 28%. The groups involved in this project included 176 learners enrolled in economics/financial literacy courses with an emphasis on developing the ability to think critically about a range of global issues.

A smaller group from Japan was enrolled in an undergraduate elective course offered at a liberal arts university located in Nishinomiya, Hyogo Prefecture. The four-year undergraduate student body comprises approximately 3,242 students, who are primarily Japanese. Enrollments of non-Japanese origin currently stand at only 1.65% (Shozaichi betsu ninzu hyo, 2021), but the ratio for this class was 57% ethnically Japanese and 43% non-Japanese. The group of 14 students included eight Japanese, three Filipino, two Burmese, and one Nepalese. The median age was 20, with upper-intermediate to advanced levels of English. The course curriculum generally focused on cultural identity and world issues using English as the primary medium of communication.

Procedure

In the United States, researchers must request permission to conduct research through their organization's institutional review board. In this project, researchers were required to obtain permission from Palm Beach County School District and Nova Southeastern University. The review included all elements of the study and its potential impact on the participants. Many of the students in the United States were 18 or younger, which placed them in a specially protected class. Additionally, since the participants were also the co-investigator's students, it could cause undue influence on the students' participation. A final report was required at the conclusion of the study, with all outcomes supported in detail.

Two pre-study instruments were implemented to develop the survey. The first was to conduct a Delphi study that assessed survey questions by developing a consensus view across a group of six subject professionals with expertise in education. The analysis took into account reflections among three experts from the United States and three from Japan by examining their viewpoints to reach unanimity on the substance and wording of all survey questions. The study resulted in 19 items that were divided into three segments: self-perceived communicative abilities (five questions), interests in culture (nine questions), and stereotypes of their counterparts (five questions). These questions would then be used in pre- and post-surveys.

The next pre-study step was distributing parent and student consent forms to obtain permission and documentation. To mitigate any potential coercion resulting from the actual or perceived authority of the investigators, students were not forced to participate in the study and could drop out at any time. Participation was entirely voluntary without fear of repercussions or reprisals. Students were assured that their grades would not be affected in any form due to performance or a lack thereof. To promote anonymity, participants created usernames to connect the pre- and post-test data. All information was kept in password-protected files. Names or other identifying information, such as email addresses, phone numbers, home addresses, birth dates, student IDs, and/or social security numbers, were not accessed. Data were stored on password-protected external hard drives, and only the researchers had access to the data. These data were set to be destroyed 36 months after the conclusion of this project.

Pre- and Post-Exchange Surveys

Based on the results of the Delphi study, a pre-exchange survey with 54 questions was constructed using Google Forms. In addition to the primary 19 questions from the Delphi study, 35 multiple-choice demographic questions related to financial literacy were also included. These questions asked about students' use of time (14 questions), economics and success (17 questions), and transportation (6 questions).

The post-survey consisted of the same 19 Likert scale questions from the Delphi study and pre-survey. Participants were instructed to use the same usernames to connect the pre- and post-test data. All information was added to password-protected files and stored on password-protected external hard drives. After data collection was completed, the analysis procedures were aided using the Data Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS). Qualitative data were also collected by asking four optional, open-ended questions that encouraged students to describe their experiences and any changes in their perceptions.

Description of Intervention

Making a "Boro"

In connection with the economics and financial literacy classes, students on both sides made a *boro*. Literally translating to "rags" or "scraps of cloth" in Japanese, a boro is a symbol of *tsukai taosu* ("使い倒す," i.e., "to use everything and waste nothing"). In ancient times, Japan's merchants, peasants, and artisans saved every last piece, continually mending the fabric and passing down the patched cloth to the next generation. Akin to quilting, students used fabrics brought from home and wove them together in a design and texture unique to themselves. These "patches of life" represented students' personal histories, attitudes, and values, woven together to share a rich history. The boro made in Japan was sent to the United States, where the two boros were woven together into one for display in both countries.

Creating Videos

Using the Florida Grade 9–12 Economics and Financial Literacy Standards, students in both countries formed teams to make videos that represented economic and cultural differences or similarities between the United States and Japan. Instructors shared a brief list of approved videos that represented the goals of the project. Once concepts or scripts were written for a film or animation, the next step was to make storyboards to visually tell a story or plan by panels, like a comic book. After storyboards were approved, students commenced creating two- to three-minute videos. This was a chance for students to combine their creativity, talents, and abilities and work together for a common goal. Those who were adept at writing could make scripts. Others who were good at speaking could narrate, and those who were more tech savvy could edit video and add subtitles and effects. American students focused on economic themes, while students in Japan included themes that they thought were unique to Japan from their perspective. Some examples include customs that are practiced across the four seasons, student life, social manners and etiquette, and regional dialects.

Upon completion, videos were downloaded and exchanged in private links or coded zip files between the two sides to hold two different “film festivals.” Students rated their counterparts’ videos on a scale of 1 to 5, with “1” being the lowest and “5” the highest. Scores were then averaged, and the groups with the highest scores were awarded small prizes for their efforts.

“The Fastest Chopsticks in Town” Competition

In the spirit of healthy cultural competition, students used Japanese eating utensils (chopsticks) to move ten polished beans from one bowl to another. The fastest times were posted for Japanese and American competitors. A way to increase the common connection between the groups of students was through the use of chopsticks. It was something that both groups could do – competitive, challenging, and experiential. The difficulty was increased for Japanese students by using M&Ms, whereas the U.S. students used kidney beans, which may have been easier to grasp. The fastest times were posted and shared between the two groups.

Sensory Activities

Midway through the project, students experienced sensory “taste, touch, and feel” activities by sampling products from their counterpart’s country, such as food, drinks, art, and music. For the tasting, the American side tried Japanese noodles with soup, hot green tea, and chewy candy. On the Japanese side, the students tasted American pretzels, caramel popcorn, various soda drinks, and gum. During this time, students were also exposed to traditional and popular Japanese/American music played in the background during the various activities. The sensory activities concluded with a drawing contest where students drew pictures of animation characters from each other’s countries. Students in the United States drew Japanese characters, such as Naruto and Pokémon characters. Participants in Japan drew American cartoons, such as Stitch and Marvel comic characters. All art was displayed and judged by peers, and winners received small prizes.

Synchronous Google Meeting

The apex of the exchange involved a 100-minute synchronous Google meeting via Google Classroom that gave students an opportunity to meet and interact in real time. Due to time differences and logistics, not all students were able to participate. However, 69 students (11 in Japan and 58 in the U.S.) took part via personal computers, phones, and laptops. After introductions and a meeting overview, students joined an ice-breaker trivia game on their counterpart’s culture, history, and demographics. This was followed by a review of some of the top videos produced by each side. Students were able to respond to questions and interact using the Google chat bar, which resulted in 980 comments. The exchange culminated in a structured discussion time between students in breakout rooms. Using prompts from group leaders, students responded to one or more prompts on communication, interests, and stereotypes, such as the following:

- How can we improve understanding between our countries?
- What is your favorite form of communication, and why?
- What interests you the most about Japan/America and why?
- If you had a Japanese/American visitor, what would you want to show them and why?
- Describe one thing you like about your own country?
- How has your perception of Japan/America changed as a result of this exchange?

Results

The original sample consisted of 190 students, with 176 from the U.S. and 14 from Japan. However, 28 of the surveys on the U.S. side were discarded due to an inability to link the pre-test with the post-test data. The final sample size consisted of 162 tenth- through twelfth-graders from the U.S. and 14 first- and second-year college students in Japan.

Preliminary Analyses

The survey included 22 items in total, with six items on communication, nine questions on interest, and seven questions on stereotypes. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was obtained for each of these scales. The item–total correlations for one of the communication items and one of the stereotypes items were less than .25 and were thereby discarded. Internal consistency reliabilities were substantially higher when these items were deleted. As can be seen in Table 1, all reliabilities were marginally good to excellent, with a range of .685 to .893.

Answers to the Three Research Questions

To answer each of the research questions, the mean levels of rated questionnaire responses on each of the subscales were compared before and after the international cultural/financial literacy and economics exchange intervention. A paired-sample t test was performed, and effect sizes were expressed as the number of differences in means between pre-tests and post-tests expressed in standard deviation units (a.k.a. Cohen's effect size indicator, d; Cohen, 1988).

The first research question asked: To what extent did change occur in students' self-perceived ability to communicate with people from different origins after an international cultural/financial literacy and economics exchange? As can be seen in Table 2, there was a significant change from pre-test to post-test in student communication, with an effect size that exceeded the generally accepted cutoff for a large effect of .80 (Cohen, 1988).

The second research question asked: To what extent did an international cultural/financial literacy and economics exchange (making videos, Google meetings, post-survey) result in changes in rated interest levels in American/Japanese culture? As can be seen in Table 2, there was a significant change from pre-test to post-test in student communication, with an effect size of 1.07.

The third research question asked: To what extent did an international cultural/financial literacy and economics exchange help change students' views on stereotypes of their own and counterparts' cultures? As can be seen in Table 2, there was a significant change from pre-test to post-test in student communication, with an effect size of 1.06.

TABLE 1. Cronbach Alpha Reliabilities for Each Subscale at Pre- and Post-test

	Reliability	
Scale	**Pre-test**	**Post-test**
Communication	.685	.742
Interest	.893	.887
Stereotypes	.683	.775

Note. For the interest subscale, the sample size was 173 because the last item was not answered by one participant at the post-test. n = 174.

TABLE 2. Means, Standard Deviations, and t Test Findings

Subscale	Pre-test (*SD*)	Post-test (*SD*)	t value (df)	p value	ES
Communication	4.70(.79)	4.94(.77)	3.55(173)	<.001	.86
Interest	4.36(1.10)	4.55(1.01)	2.37(172)	.019	1.07
Stereotypes	4.51(.73)	4.72(.78)	2.71(173)	.007	1.06

Note. n = 174. For the interest subscale, the sample size was 173 because the last item was not answered by one participant at the post-test. "E.S." stands for "effect size," which was Cohen's d (Cohen, 1988).

To summarize, significant and large changes were found in students' ratings from pre-test to post-test time periods. Although the effect sizes were large, it should be noted that the means ranged from 4.36 to 4.95, which indicates that, in general, there was a tendency for students to improve on each of the subscales. However, for both communication and stereotypes, a score of 4 was rated as *slightly agree*, and a 5 was rated as *moderately agree* on the questionnaire. For student interest, the scale on the questionnaire was slightly different, with a 4 indicating *somewhat interested* and a 5 signifying *moderate interest*.

LIMITATIONS

There were limitations to this project. First, this study was administered within only two cultural contexts: Japanese and American. Therefore, the research was only applied to native English speakers and upper-intermediate level English learners in Japan. Students on the Japanese side were primarily English language learners enrolled in an elective course out of personal interest. They may have had a higher motivation to learn about American culture and language than the average Japanese learner. Other channels of analysis should be carried out in different cultural settings and with varied English proficiency and motivation levels. Second, the sample population on the Japanese side was low in comparison to the number of participants on the American side. Future studies should include a larger and broader sample population to create more rigorous mean values and yield a smaller margin of error. Further studies on both sides could consist of larger sample sizes from various regions and sociocultural backgrounds through a nationwide study of higher education institutions. Third, there was a lack of materials to collect qualitative data. Although there was space in the surveys for participants to write their thoughts, many did not take the time to write enough for an adequate analysis. Further endeavors could allot more space and time for participants to write comments and provide more detailed feedback.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This project contributes to the literature available to educators to enhance their curriculum, pedagogy, and approach to building students' cultural competence. It presents new ideas that other education professionals can use to enhance understanding beyond physical, linguistic, and cultural borders. Practitioners from all types of educational practices can gain insight into improving instruction and making course content as applicable as possible for students. Some of the lasting results are that students can learn to act more appropriately when interacting with people from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds.

Future projects could include providing more time and opportunities to enrich student-to-student interactions. For example, extra time could be devoted to adding personal introductions via video platforms such as Flipgrid, Telegram, or Connect. By extending webinar time, students could also communicate more comprehensively with their counterparts to build deeper bonds. Furthermore, a similar project could have a greater impact if the students' interests were identified and measured at the beginning. In this way, the researchers could tailor the interactive activities to improve the treatment process, thereby setting the stage for greater impact and effects and more significant changes.

A single exchange cannot turn students into perfectly culturally adept learners. However, it can serve as a bridge over thousands of kilometers between two cultures, greatly enhancing cultural appreciation within a short time. Whether the end goal is multicultural education, building stronger communities, or promoting economic development, future generations need to deal with varied racial, language, ethnic, or economic groups. Working with people from different cultural groups effectively requires the need to build strong relationships based on mutual respect, understanding, and shared goals. Therefore, meaningful communication is paramount to human relationships, and personal, first-hand connections between people can be the foundation for change. Forming bonds with people from different origins, often of many different cultures, is vital in building understanding, tolerance, and cooperation that can work together for the betterment of the world community.

THE AUTHORS

Gordon Carlson is an associate professor at Otemae University teaching EFL and global Japan studies. Areas of research interest include teacher development, CLIL, service learning, and language retention through interactive activities. Email: gordy@otemae.ac.jp

Daniel Markarian is an adjunct professor at Nova Southeastern University, teaching undergraduate, graduate, and doctoral dissertation, curriculum, and research courses. At W. T. Dwyer High School, he is a social studies teacher teaching 12th-grade economics and advanced placement government. Email: markariandaniel@gmail.com

Steven Hecht is a professor at Nova Southeastern University in Fort Lauderdale, Florida, USA. Dr. Hecht's primary areas of expertise are the study of academic learning from a cognitive perspective and applied quantitative methods for research. Dr. Hecht serves on the editorial boards of scientific journals, such as the *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology* and *Learning Disabilities Quarterly*. Dr. Hecht has authored or co-authored over 20 research articles in peer-reviewed scientific journals focusing on individual differences in reading and math skills. Email: shecht@nova.edu

REFERENCES

Alvídrez, S., Piñeiro-Naval, V., Marcos-Ramos, M., & Rojas-Solís, J. L. (2015). Intergroup contact in computer-mediated communication: The interplay of a stereotype-disconfirming behavior and a lasting group identity on reducing prejudiced perceptions. *Computers in Human Behavior, 52*, 533–540.

Aydın, Z., & Yıldız, S. (2014). Using wikis to promote collaborative EFL writing. *Language Learning and Technology*, *18*, 160–180.

Bower, J., & Kawaguchi, S. (2011). Negotiation of meaning and corrective feedback in Japanese/English tandem. *Language Learning and Technology*, *15*(1), 41–71.

Campbell, N. (2012). Promoting intercultural contact on campus: A project to connect and engage international and host students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *16*(3), 205–227.

Chen, J. J., & Yang, S. C. (2016). Promoting cross-cultural understanding and language use in research-oriented internet-mediated intercultural exchange. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *29*(2), 262–288.

Dickson, G. L., Argus-Calvo, B., & Tafoya, N. G. (2010). Multicultural counselor training experiences: Training effects and perceptions of training among a sample of predominantly Hispanic students. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *49*(4), 247–265.

Deakins, E. (2009). Helping students value cultural diversity through research-based teaching. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *28*(2), 209–226.

Gareis, E., Merkin, R., & Goldman, J. (2011). Intercultural friendship: Linking communication variables and friendship success. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, *40*(2), 153–171.

Gill, A., & Bhattacharyab, R. (2019). The effects of a financial literacy intervention on the financial and economic knowledge of high school students. *The Journal of Economic Education*, *50*(3), 215–229

Gorshkov, V., & Lange, E. J. (2017). Motivating English learning through international friendship letter exchanges. *The Bulletin of Kaichi International University*, *16*, 67–85.

Green, W. (2019). Engaging "students as partners" in global learning: Some possibilities and provocations. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *23*(1), 10–29.

Grumbine, R., Aka, N., & Hirano, R. (2018). Providing meaningful interactions at KOSEN between Japanese and international students. *SHS Web of Conferences*, *53*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20185301003

Guth, S., & Thomas, M. (2010). Telecollaboration with web 2.0 tools. *Telecollaboration*, *2*, 39–68.

Heffernan, T., Morrison, D., Magne, P., Payne, S., & Cotton, D. (2019). Internalising internationalisation: Views of internationalisation of the curriculum among non-mobile home students. *Studies in Higher Education*, *44*(12), 2359–2373.

Jackson, J. C., Gelfand, M. J., Ayub, N., & Wheeler, J. (2019). Together from afar: Introducing a diary contact technique for improving intergroup relations. *Behavioral Science and Policy*, *5*(1), 14–33.

Lee, L., & Markey, A. (2014). A study of learners' perceptions of online intercultural exchange through web 2.0 technologies. *ReCALL*: *The Journal of EUROCALL*, *26*(3), 281–297.

Lusardi, A., & Mitchell, O. S. (2014). The economic importance of financial literacy: Theory and evidence. *Journal of Economic Literature*, *52*(1), 5–44.

Menard–Warwick, J., Heredia–Herrera, A., & Palmer, D. S. (2013). Local and global identities in an EFL internet chat exchange. *The Modern Language Journal*, *97*(4), 965–980.

Newsom, J. G. (2021). Financial education is in need of a shake-up: Three guiding reorientations. *Waikato Journal of Education*, *26*(2), 21–35.

O'Dowd, R. (Ed.). (2007). *Online intercultural exchange*: *An introduction for foreign language teachers*. Multilingual Matters.

Pesando, L. (2017). Does financial literacy increase students' perceived value of schooling? *Wharton Pension Research Council Working Papers*, *27*.

Polisca, E. (2011). Language learning and the raising of cultural awareness through internet telephony: A case study. *The Language Learning Journal*, *39*(3), 329–343.

Sawir, E. (2013). Internationalisation of higher education curriculum: The contribution of international students. *Globalisation*, *Societies*, *and Education*, *11*, 359–378.

Sandell, E. J., & Tupy, S. J. (2015). Where cultural competency begins: Changes in undergraduate students' intercultural competency. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *27*(3), 364–381.

Shozaichi betsu ninzu hyo [*Location of people table*]. (2021). Otemae University, Hyogo, Japan.

Sias, P. M., Drzewiecka, J. A., Meares, M., Bent, R., Konomi, Y., Ortega, M., & White, C. (2008). Intercultural friendship development. *Communication Reports*, *21*(1), 1–13.

Sinicrope, C., Norris, J., & Watanabe, Y. (2007). Understanding and assessing intercultural competence: A summary of theory, research, and practice. *Second Language Studies*, *26*, 1–58.

Spencer-Rodgers, J., & McGovern, T. (2002). Attitudes toward the culturally different: The role of intercultural communication barriers, affective responses, consensual stereotypes, and perceived threat. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *26*(6), 609–631.

Thorne, S. L., & Payne, J. S. (2005). Evolutionary trajectories, Internet mediated expression, and language education. *CALICO Journal*, *22*(3), 371–397.

U.S. News & World Report. (2022). *Best high schools*: *U.S. News & World Report rankings*. https://www.usnews.com/education/best-high-schools/florida/districts/the-school-district-of-palm-beach-county/william-t-dwyer-high-school-5398

Watanabe, M., Kasami, N., Chung, N., & Tsai, S. H. (2007). *Project Ibunka*: *An international collaborative online project*. http://www.j-let.org/~wcf/proceedings/e-004.pdf

Does TESOL Teacher Motivation Matter? Values vs. Rewards

Bradford J. Lee
Fukui University of Technology, Japan
James Broadbridge
Bunkyo Gakuin University, Japan
Hyunsuk Park
Halla University, South Korea
Miori Shimada
Shibaura Institute of Technology, Japan
Randi F. Freeman
Othello School District, Othello, Washington, USA

This study sought to explore language teachers' values related to, and rewards gained from, their teaching jobs and careers. Responses to a modified version of the instrument used in the Kassabgy et al. (2001) study were obtained from 368 in-service instructors spanning the globe and analyzed by factor analyses. As in Kassabgy et al., intrinsic motivation was found to be central to reported feelings of job satisfaction and motivation, which were positive overall despite disparities between values and the realities of the job. However, slightly different factors and loadings were found, namely, a trend away from relationships with coworkers. One hypothesis is that the development of social networking in the past 20 years may have been an important influence.

INTRODUCTION

Motivation in TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages) continues to be an area of great interest, not only to second language acquisition (SLA) researchers but also to teachers, students, parents, and institutional stakeholders around the globe. Traditionally, the focus of SLA motivation research has been on the students. However, scholars of the past few decades have identified a major factor that can influence students' L2 acquisition: that of the *teacher's* motivation (TM). Han and Yin's (2016) review found 130 studies regarding TM published since 1980, though only 39 of those focused specifically on SLA teachers. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) highlight the significance of TM and its relationship to student motivation in their statement:

The teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important

> factors that can affect learners' motivation to learn. Broadly speaking, if a teacher is motivated to teach, there is a good chance that his or her students will be motivated to learn. (p. 158)

With this in mind, it can be seen that the mental state of the teacher should not be an afterthought but a primary factor to be studied and understood in order to provide the best conditions for students to succeed. As school effectiveness is largely determined by student outcomes (e.g., Scheerens, 2012), institutions have a vested interest in understanding and monitoring their teachers' motivation to help maintain the highest quality of instruction, teaching practices, and professionalism (Lent & Brown, 2008).

Literature Review

Teacher Motivation vs. Teacher Job Satisfaction

As motivation is complex and multifaceted, it is important to first discuss what is meant by *motivation* vs. *job satisfaction*. In conceptualizing TM, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) mentioned four underlying components:

1. Intrinsic components
2. Contextual factors
3. Being associated with a temporal dimension
4. Being fragile / being exposed to negative influences

Closely related to TM is the notion of teacher job satisfaction. For the purposes of this study, we define *job satisfaction* as "the perception of the fit between these underlying values and expectations ... and the reality of the work situation" (Pennington, 1991, p. 60).

Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt (2001)

The study of ESL/EFL teacher motivation can be said to have started in earnest by Kassabgy et al. (2001). At the time, there was a general lack of research in applied linguistics literature regarding language teachers' motivation, goals, and views on teaching as a career. The authors intended to test the dual-structure hypothesis (Herzberg, 1968) and the fit hypothesis (Pennington, 1991), common to process theories of motivation (i.e., the match between what one values and what one experiences). Adopting factor analyses of survey responses from 107 experienced ESL/EFL teachers from Egypt and Hawaii, Kassabgy et al. identified six motivators: intrinsic, extrinsic, autonomy, relationships, professional development, and institutional support that associated with either ESL/EFL teachers' values or rewards. Moreover, their findings indicated that values exerted very little influence on job or career happiness.

Motivation for This Study and Research Questions

Despite providing new insights into TM, the data collected by Kassabgy et al.

(2001) were inconclusive and could not support the two hypotheses tested, a result partially attributed to the relatively small sample size of N = 107. Consequently, this study sought to reexamine the issue with a much larger and diverse sample of teachers by asking the following:

RQ1. What aspects of work are most important to ESL/EFL teachers?
RQ2. What sorts of rewards do these teachers get from their current jobs?
RQ3. How satisfied are ESL/EFL teachers with their jobs and their careers?

METHOD

Instruments

An online questionnaire was created to gather teachers' perceptions on the values associated with a career in ESL/EFL teaching (Section 1), the rewards they felt they were receiving in their current ESL/EFL job (Section 2), and their level of career and job happiness (Section 3). The questionnaire also included an optional biodata section. The survey was based largely on the instrument in Kassabgy et al. (2001), with several modifications (e.g., online delivery method, order of items, elimination of open-ended questions, addition of an optional section for comments, and altering of the biodata section).

Participants

Invitations to participate in the study were made electronically through email, posted on TESOL listservs, and disseminated through social media. During the nine-day data collection period, 368 responses were received, though 5 submissions were discarded due to being incomplete, resulting in an initial sample of N = 363 (male: 94; female: 227; no response: 42). The demographics of the participants are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Overview of Participants

Gender	Age	NS/NNS ESL/EFL	Region	Teaching Experience (in years)	Degrees	Target Learners
M = 94	20s = 28	NS/ESL = 100	USA = 143	1-4 = 30	BA/BS = 28	Primary = 62
F = 227	30s = 93	NS/EFL = 166	Japan = 62	5-9 = 66	Incomplete = 1	Middle = 33
N/A = 42	40s = 96	NNS/EFL = 51	S. Korea = 40	10-19 = 112	MA/MS = 218	Secondary = 71
	50s = 81	NNS/ESL = 32	Canada = 28	20-29 = 108	Incomplete = 10	Tertiary = 263
	60s = 38	N/A = 14	Other = 65	30 ~ = 36	Doctorate = 51	Other = 86
	70s = 3		N/A = 25	N/A = 11	Incomplete = 47	
	N/A = 24				N/A = 28	

Note. N/A = no answer.

Data Analysis

All statistical calculations were made using SPSS version 24. Data preparation included reverse coding, checking that participants had completed at least 95% of the questionnaire, checking to make sure that each survey item was not missing more than 5% of the responses, and testing assumptions for exploratory factor analysis. Reverse coding was necessary for two items: Item 39 and Item 40. This was done in preparation to contrast with Item 37 and Item 38 to create a Career Happiness Index and a Job Happiness Index. Data from five participants who did not meet the completion threshold of 95% were discarded.

Values Factor Analysis

Following the procedure of the initial study, a principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 36 teaching values (Section 1) in order to transform the rather large number of highly correlated variables into a smaller number of uncorrelated ones. PCA was also considered to be appropriate as the sample size was large (N = 363), and it was hoped to account for the maximum amount of variance possible by the principal components (Jolliffe, 2002). Normality and linearity were checked by visualizing the data using additivity, histogram, normal probability plot, and residual plot. An additivity check confirmed that the value of 1.0 only appeared along the outside diagonal. The histogram showed normal distribution, as did the normal probability and the residual plots. One outlier identified in the residual plot was removed from the data resulting in a final sample size (n = 362) used to run the factor analyses and the correlations.

For power, the sample size of n = 362 was an acceptable number of participants for reliable results (Field, 2009). A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy value of .86 was returned confirming adequate sample size. Bartlett's test of sphericity, which tests the overall significance of all correlations within the correlation matrix, yielded ($\chi 2$ (630) = 4916.07, p < .001), indicating statistical significance. It was determined that it was appropriate to use the factor analytic model on this data set. The Kaiser criterion of using eigenvalues over 1 for retaining factors was also used, and .30 was used as a cut-off point for factor loadings (Field, 2009). A direct oblimin rotation (oblique) was used because it was assumed that the factors would be related.

Rewards Factor Analysis

Similar to the previous analysis, a PCA was conducted on 36 teaching values (Section 2). Again, normality, linearity, and additivity checks were completed with satisfactory results. A single outlier identified in the residual plot was removed from the data. The sample size of n = 362 was determined to be sufficient and a KMO sampling adequacy value of .90 was returned confirming adequate sample size. Bartlett's test of sphericity yielded ($\chi 2$ (630) = 5862.06, p < .001), indicating sufficiently large correlations between items. The Kaiser criterion of using eigenvalues over 1 for retaining factors was used with a .30 cut-off point and direct oblimin rotation.

RESULTS

RQ 1: What Aspects of Work Are Most Important to ESL/EFL Teachers?

The overall mean of the 36 teacher value items was 4.05 (*SD* = .41), with the definition of values of "4" and "5" being *somewhat important* and *very important*, respectively. The mean score of teacher values implies that our respondents consider their jobs to be important. As presented in Table 2, 23 out of 36 items received overall means of 4.0 or higher. Almost two thirds of the 36 items were considered important elements of teaching. The initial study reported that 15 out of 36 items received overall means of 4.5 or higher, which is far greater than those of the present study. In the present study, only 6 items received overall mean scores higher than 4.5. However, despite slightly different rankings, the same items ranked as the top 6 in both studies (see Table 2). The results indicate that our respondents value autonomy as well as intrinsic aspects of teaching.

The respondents ranked both "having a good relationship with my students' parents" and "having a prestigious job title" as the least important aspects of work. Their means were 2.60 and 2.67, respectively, where a value of "3" meant *neutral*, and "2" meant *somewhat unimportant*. These two items were also identified as the least important items in the original study. However, considering that most of the respondents were working with tertiary students, it seems reasonable that they would consider the relationship with their students' parents as being unimportant.

TABLE 2. Teacher Values

What is most important to ESL/EFL teachers? (*M* > 4.0)	***M* (*SD*)**	**95% *CI***
Really helping my students to learn English	4.79 (.51)	[4.77, 4.81]
Being fairly treated in my organization	4.75 (.53)	[4.72. 4.77]
Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	4.72 (.55)	[4.70, 4.75]
Having the freedom to do what is necessary in my teaching to do a good job	4.70 (.55)	[4.68, 4.73]
Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating	4.63 (.58)	[4.60, 4.65]
Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential	4.50 (.68)	[4.47, 4.53]
Having a manageable workload	4.48 (.73)	[4.46, 4.52]
Being able to work independently and use my own initiative	4.47 (.71)	[4.44, 4.50]
Having a supervisor who is responsive to suggestions and grievances	4.46 (.77)	[4.43, 4.50]
Job security	4.44 (.72)	[4.41, 4.47]
Being allowed to deal creatively with students' problems	4.39 (.76)	[4.36, 4.42]
Having a job in which I am relaxed and have peace of mind	4.29 (.80)	[4.25, 4.32]
Having good relationships with colleagues	4.28 (.77)	[4.24, 4.31]
Having a friendly relationship with my students	4.25 (.79)	[4.22, 4.29]
Being included in the goal-setting process	4.17 (.83)	[4.14, 4.21]
Being able to introduce changes without going through a lot of red tape	4.14 (.80)	[4.10, 4.17]

Being evaluated positively by my students	4.14 (.85)	[4.10, 4.17]
Having contact with professionals in the field of English language teaching	4.14 (.95)	[4.10, 4.18]
Having a supervisor who gives clear guidance	4.13 (.96)	[4.09, 4.17]
Earning a good salary	4.13 (.81)	[4.09, 4.16]
Having a good relationship with my supervisor(s)	4.12 (.83)	[4.09, 4.16]
Having a job that is fun	4.11 (.89)	[4.07, 4.14]
Being evaluated positively by my supervisors	4.00 (.92)	[3.96, 4.04]
What's least important to ESL/EFL teachers? (*M* < 3.0)	***M* (*SD*)**	**95% *CI***
Having a prestigious job title	2.67 (1.16)	[2.62, 2.71]
Having a good relationship with my students' parents	2.60 (1.40)	[2.53, 2.65]

Factor Analysis

In the factor analysis of teacher values, SPSS initially extracted nine components with eigenvalues greater than 1, accounting for 61.10% of the variance. However, a visual examination of the scree plot, along with a parallel analysis suggested that a five-factor solution would be the most suitable for this data set. Additionally, two items were excluded due to low communality scores (Items 2 and 32) and the analysis was re-run using the remaining 34 variables. The resulting extraction resulted in five factors accounting for 49.95% of the variance.

The final five factors are presented in Table 3. After examining the item loadings, the labels of *autonomy*, *extrinsic motivators*, *institutional support*, *relationship orientation*, and *self-realization* were determined to be appropriate.

TABLE 3. Five-Factor Solution of Teachers' Values

Autonomy	Being allowed to deal creatively with students' problems	.71
	Being able to work independently and use my own initiative	.68
	Having the freedom to do what is necessary in my teaching to do a good job	.64
	Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	.63
	Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential	.62
	Being able to introduce changes without going through a lot of red tape	.61
	Being included in the goal-setting process	.59
	Having sufficient variety in task or type of activity	.50
	Working for a reputable educational organization	.44
Extrinsic Motivators	Having a prestigious job title	.81
	Having a profession that is prestigious	.76
	Earning a good salary	.68
	Being promoted to a senior supervisory job at some point in my career	.67
	Job security	.59
	Fringe benefits	.54
Institutional Support	Having a supervisor who gives clear guidance	.77
	Having a supervisor who is responsive to suggestions and grievances	.74
	Having a manageable workload	.66
	Having clear rules and procedures	.66
	Being fairly treated in my organization	.62

	Working with other teachers as a team	.53
Relationships	Having a good relationship with my supervisors	.71
	Having a friendly relationship with my students	.70
	Having a job that is fun	.69
	Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating	.69
	Having good relationships with colleagues	.66
	Being evaluated positively by my students	.57
	Really helping my students to learn English	.54
	Being evaluated positively by my supervisors	.53
	Having a job in which I am relaxed and have peace of mind	.41
Self-Realization	Having contact with professionals in the field of ELT	.64
	Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance	.64
	Having a challenging job	.60
	Being recognized for my teaching accomplishments	.51

RQ 2: What Sorts of Rewards Do These Teachers Get from Their Current Jobs?

The respondents of the present study seemed to feel they received a certain degree of rewards from their jobs as the overall mean score of 36 rewards items falls on 3.42 (*SD* = .57), where "4" = *agree* and "3" = *neutral*. In addition, the results showed that none of the items received an overall mean higher than 4.5, which mirrors the results found by Kassabgy et al. (2001). Among 36 rewards items, eight items received an overall mean higher than 4.0 (see Table 4). The statements "I have a friendly relationship with my students" and "My students evaluate me positively" were the two rewards items ranked the highest. This implies that the respondents considered the relationship with their students as the best rewards they received from their current jobs. Among those eight items that had means over 4.0, five items were related to relationships with students, colleagues, or supervisors. These items were also considered as important teacher values except for the statement "Working for a reputable educational organization." While this item was ranked 7th in rewards (*M* = 4.06, *SD* = 1.01), it was ranked 25th as a value (*M* = 3.94, *SD* = 0.99). Three items received a score of less than 3.0, indicating that they were the least salient rewards experienced by the participants: "I have prospects for promotion," "The emphasis is on teamwork," and "I have a good relationship with my students' parents."

The item with the largest discrepancy between the two constructs was regarding job title. "Having a prestigious job title" ranked as the second least important on the values list, whereas "My job title is satisfactory" ranked 12th on the rewards list. On the other hand, "Being able to work independently and use my own initiative" and "Being included in the goal-setting process" were perceived as important aspects of teaching (ranked 8th and 15th, respectively). However, they ranked 32nd and 33rd on the list of rewards.

TABLE 4. Teaching Rewards

What rewards do ESL/EFL teachers get from their jobs? (*M* > 4.0)	*M* (*SD*)	95% *CI*
I have a friendly relationship with my students.	4.35 (.69)	[4.32, 4.38]

My students evaluate me positively.	4.28 (.74)	[4.25, 4.31]
I have good relationships with colleagues.	4.24 (.78)	[4.20, 4.27]
I know that I am really helping my students to learn English.	4.14 (.91)	[4.10, 4.17]
My supervisor evaluates me positively.	4.08 (.88)	[4.05, 4.13]
I have a good relationship with my supervisor(s).	4.07 (.94)	[4.03, 4.10]
I work for a reputable educational organization.	4.06 (1.01)	[4.02, 4.10]
I am allowed sufficient freedom to do what is necessary in my teaching in order to do a good job.	4.06 (.97)	[4.00, 4.10]
What rewards do ESL/EFL teaches not get from their jobs? (*M* < 3.0)	***M* (*SD*)**	**95% *CI***
I have a good relationship with my students' parents.	2.88 (1.14)	[2.84, 2.94]
The emphasis is on teamwork.	2.82 (1.21)	[2.77, 2.88]
I have prospects for promotion.	2.62 (1.28)	[2.57, 2.68]

Factor Analysis

In the factor analysis of teacher rewards, SPSS again extracted nine components initially, which accounted for 64.28% of the variance. After visually inspecting the scree plot and running a parallel analysis that suggested five components would be suitable, two variables were excluded due to low communality values (Items 2 and 22), and the analysis was re-run with the remaining 34 variables. This resulted in Factor Five only having two loadings, and it was determined that a four-factor solution would be the most suitable. The resulting output extracted a four-factor solution, which explained 48.67% of the variance (see Table 5). After examining the item loadings, the labels of *management*, *position*, *intrinsic motivators*, and *effects of teaching* were determined to be appropriate.

TABLE 5. Four-Factor Solution of Teaching Rewards

Management	My supervisor is responsive to suggestions and grievances.	.82
	My supervisor gives clear guidance.	.79
	I have a friendly relationship with my supervisor.	.76
	Independence and initiative are rewarded.	.72
	Creativity is emphasized and rewarded.	.71
	Teaching accomplishments are recognized.	.69
	My supervisor evaluates me positively.	.65
	I am included in my organization's goal-setting process.	.62
	I am fairly treated in the organization.	.61
	There are clear rules and procedures at work.	.60
	I receive frequent enough feedback about my performance.	.53
	I am able to introduce changes without going through a lot of red tape.	.51
	The emphasis is on teamwork.	.51

Position	I have good job security.	.74
	I have a good salary.	.71
	I have good fringe benefits.	.69
	I have prospects for promotion.	.68
	My job provides scope to learn and develop to my full potential.	.60
	My job title is satisfactory.	.46
	My job is challenging.	.45
Intrinsic Motivators	My job is fun.	.78
	I have a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability.	.77
	My work is enjoyable and stimulating.	.76
	I am relaxed and have peace of mind in my job.	.74
	I have a manageable workload.	.63
	I am allowed sufficient freedom in order to do a good job.	.59
	Teaching English is a prestigious profession.	.44
	I work for a reputable organization.	.43
Effects of Teaching	I have a friendly relationship with my students.	.77
	My students evaluate me positively.	.71
	I know that I am really helping my students to learn English.	.60
	I have good relationships with colleagues.	.54
	I have a good relationship with my students' parents.	.49

RQ 3: Job and Career Happiness

RQ 3 investigated how satisfied ESL/EFL teachers are with their jobs and their careers. The results for this question uncovered several findings. First, ESL/EFL teachers assigned higher ratings to statements asking them to rate some aspect of their work/career in importance (the overall mean for value items was M = 4.05, where "4" = *somewhat important* and "5" = *very important*) than when they were asked how strongly they agreed with statements about the rewards they were getting from their current job (M = 3.42, where "3" = *no opinion or neutral* and "4" = *agree*; see Table 6). This is not surprising because what one values in a job or career, idealistically, and what one actually receives may be disparate.

Table 6. Overall Mean Scores

	n	***M* (*SD*)**	**95% *CI***
Overall means for values	362	4.05 (.41)	[4.01, 4.09]
Overall means for rewards	362	3.42 (.57)	[3.36, 3.48]
Overall means for job happiness	362	3.42 (1.21)	[3.30, 3.54]
Overall means for career happiness	362	3.18 (.51)	[3.13, 3.24]

These findings trend with Kassagby et al. (2001). On the other hand, the Pearson correlation (two-tailed) between values and rewards resulted in r = 0.23, p = .00, *CI*[.12, .33], which indicates a relatively small relationship. However, the overall mean for job happiness (M = 3.42) vs. career happiness (M = 3.18) suggests that the observed pattern between values and rewards does not hold; in fact, it is opposite. However, the standard deviation for job happiness (1.21) was much larger than it was for the other overall means. This can be interpreted to mean that there was more variation in participants' responses to the job happiness items than values, rewards, or career happiness. In other words, from this current international sample, some participants may be slightly more content with their current jobs than with their career choice, which is contrary to the initial study's findings where they found the mean of their career happiness index to be 3.95 and the mean of their job happiness index to be 3.48 (Kassabgy et al., 2001).

Results of a Pearson correlation between composite variables created for career and job satisfaction indicated a negative relationship (r = -0.48, p = .00, *CI* [-.57, -.39]) with a medium effect size. Values did not seem to be correlated with either career or job happiness while rewards showed a negative relationship with career happiness (r = -0.20, p = .00, *CI* [-.17, -.05]) with a small effect size, and there was a strong positive correlation between rewards and job happiness (r = 0.69, p = .00, *CI*[.35, .44] with a large effect size). In other words, as the rewards associated with a particular job increased, so did teachers' happiness with it (see Table 7).

TABLE 7. Predictors of Job and Career Happiness

	Career Happiness	Job Happiness
Career Happiness	1.00 [1.00]	-0.48* [.73*]
Job Happiness	-0.48* [.73*]	1.00 [1.00]
Values	0.10 [.19]	0.05 [.19]
Rewards	-0.20* [.51*]	0.69* [.55*]

Note. An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the < .01 level. Square brackets ([ ]) indicate results from Kassagby et al. (2001) for comparison.

DISCUSSION

The current study found that while teachers report valuing certain aspects of their career highly, the reality of their working conditions does not necessarily match with their ideals. For instance, while respondents indicated that they value autonomy, they did not agree with the mirror statement when asked if they currently had autonomy in their current job. Despite this disparity, it is interesting that participants still largely reported being satisfied with their current jobs. This would appear to be contrary to the definition of job satisfaction that process theories proposed, essentially that the fit between underlying values and expectations and reality are what determine job satisfaction (e.g., Pennington, 1991).

One possible rationale might be that people may value autonomy as an ideal or an end goal, while resigning themselves to the reality that complete autonomy is unrealistic in most circumstances, or at least in their present one. This reasoning is supported by recent psychoanalytic theory, which posits that "autonomy is a necessary but unachievable fantasy" (Meyers, 2013, p. 123; see also Lacan, 1977). In other words, while people may strive for autonomy at each stage of their lives, the lack of it is not a deal-breaker due to the normalcy of the non-autonomous condition. It would be interesting if future studies could analyze this disparity further to determine at what point the disparity between values and rewards begins to negatively affect job satisfaction.

One notable finding is that the factor analysis of teacher values loaded slightly differently to Kassabgy et al. (2001) in terms of ranking and strength of loadings. Specifically, that study found that the strongest factor was relationship orientation, whereas the current study found this to be second to last. One possibility is that the development of social networking in the 20 years between studies has allowed ESL/EFL teachers to find more moral support *outside* their institutions, reducing the need for establishing such relationships within their immediate vicinities. This reasoning finds support in studies that have shown that social media use has a positive correlation with job satisfaction as a means of connecting with like-minded individuals (Chu, 2020; Hanna et al., 2017).

Another contrast with past research is that with a larger, more internationally diverse sample, participants were slightly more content with their current jobs than with their career choice. "Really helping my students to learn English" (Values Item 28) and "I have a friendly relationship with my students" (Rewards Item 30) topped the lists, indicating that participants are mainly focused on the present. After all, individual classes (and therefore time spent with any one student) are usually just a short part of the workday, not to mention the fact that classes change by semester and students eventually graduate. Teachers must adjust to the cyclical pattern of getting to know new students, helping them develop, seeing them off, and then welcoming in a next batch of learners. This idea is enforced by observing that "Having a prestigious job title" (values) and "I have prospects for promotion" (rewards) come ranked near the bottom of both lists.

Limitations and Directions for the Future

While the use of the internet allowed us to reach more participants than would have been possible face-to-face, the use of online surveys is known to introduce a participant bias (i.e., those with interest in the topic). Furthermore, teachers who tend to be very active on the internet tend to express greater job satisfaction (see Discussion), potentially skewing the data in the current study towards the positive. As such, we must allow for the possibility that the self-selected participants who chose to complete the survey may not be representative of the overall population of ESL/EFL teachers, thus limiting the generalizability of our findings.

Due to the uneven distribution of participants in terms of education levels, teaching conditions, and geographical distributions, individual statistical analyses were not conducted using these independent variables. If it were possible to obtain large amounts of data from each individual subgroup, reanalyzing the data to investigate trends would be highly recommended.

Similarly, now that interesting disparities have been identified (e.g., the high value placed on autonomy vs. largely non-autonomous conditions not affecting overall job satisfaction), adding follow-up questions or individual interviews could provide insight into participants' cognition and lead to other directions not yet identified.

Finally, while factor analyses are intriguing ways to uncover latent variables in the data, this type of analysis is highly subjective in nature and some of the decisions made here could be argued against or interpreted differently. The goal of the current study was, through our research questions, to identify the key factors that play a role in language teachers' motivation as derived from Kassagby et al.'s (2001) instrument. It is therefore suggested that a focus on the descriptive statistics associated with this study be further mined to uncover clues to what influences career and job happiness of ESL/EFL teachers in a more inferential (or confirmatory) manner in future studies.

Conclusions

On the theoretical front, researchers have largely overlooked the impact of TM on student outcomes, though there has been an increase in interest in recent years (e.g., Han & Yin, 2016). The current study sought to update the literature in this field by surveying 363 ESL/EFL teachers from multiple regions around the globe as to their job values, their actual job rewards, and their overall career and job satisfaction. The results suggest that there has been a slight shift since the first investigation of TM, which indicated that teachers' workplace relationships were the key factor to their job satisfaction (Kassabgy et al., 2001), to a more modern paradigm where possibly the impact of social networking has reduced this factor's impact, as teachers are able to find support groups virtually anywhere.

The Authors

Bradford J. Lee holds an EdD in TESOL from Anaheim University, a MA in applied linguistics from the University of Newcastle, and a BA in linguistics from the University of Hawai'i. He is currently the director of the International Center and an associate professor in the Organization for Fundamental Education at Fukui University of Technology. His main research areas include phonology/pronunciation instruction, noticing/perception-based instruction, and smartphone-based writing. Email: bradford-lee@fukui-ut.ac.jp

James Broadbridge is a teacher, researcher, and materials writer. He is currently working on his EdD in TESOL from Anaheim University and is an associate professor in the Faculty of Foreign Studies at Bunkyo Gakuin University. His main research interests are preparing students for EMI/CLIL courses, the connection between research and the classroom, and pragmatics. Email: jbroadbridge@bgu.ac.jp

Hyunsuk Park is an assistant professor in the Division of Liberal Arts at Halla University. She holds a PhD in applied linguistics from Gangwon National University, an MA in TESOL from Adelphi University, and a BA in psychology from Gangwon National University. She is currently working on her EdD in TESOL from Anaheim University. Her research interests include CLIL, motivation, and learning strategy. Email: hyunspark@halla.ac.kr

Miori Shimada has been teaching English in Japanese universities for 15 years both as a part-timer and a lecturer. Her research interests include English for young learners (application of picture books and songs), effects of anxiety on EFL students, and teacher education and professional development. She is a doctoral candidate at Anaheim University. Email: mioshima1@gmail.com

Randi F. Freeman, EdD, is a 34-year veteran TESOL educator who has worked in Sweden, California, and Washington State. She has worked directly as a teacher with language learners from pre-school through university level, as a materials/curriculum developer, as a teacher educator, and as a researcher. She has received various research awards including a 2018 TIRF Doctoral Dissertation Grant for her dissertation proposal and a Washington Education Research Association (WERA) Award for her research on using the Danielson Framework for Teaching (2011) to conduct evaluations of teachers of ELs in the K-12 setting in Washington. Email: randifreeman62@icloud.com

References

Chu, T. H. (2020). A meta-analytic review of the relationship between social media use and employee outcomes. *Telematics and Informatics*, *50*, Article 101379. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2020.101379

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. SAGE.

Han, J., & Yin, H. (2016). Teacher motivation: Definition, research development, and implications for teachers. *Cogent Education*, *3*(1), Article 1217819. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2016.1217819

Hanna, B., Kee, K. F., & Robertson, B. W. (2017). Positive impacts of social media at work: Job satisfaction, job calling, and Facebook use among co-workers. *SHS Web of Conferences*, *33*, Article 00012. https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20173300012

Herzberg, F. (1968). One more time: How do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business Review*, January/February, 53–62. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-02701-9_2

Jolliffe, I. T. (2002). *Principal component analysis*. Springer.

Kassabgy, O., Boraie, D., & Schmidt, R. (2001). Values, rewards, and job satisfaction in ESL/EFL. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 213–237). University of Hawai'i Press, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Lacan, J. (1977). The mirror stage as formative of the function of the I as revealed in psychoanalytic experience. In A. Sheridan (Trans.), *Jacques Lacan: Ecrits – A selection* (pp. 1–6). Tavistock. (Original work published 1949)

Lent, R. W., & Brown, S. D. (2008). Social cognitive career theory and subjective well-being in the context of work. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *16*, 6–21. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1069072707305769

Meyers, Z. (2013). Autonomy as a fantasy. *Griffith Law Review*, *22*(1), 122–149. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10383441.2013.10854770

Pennington, M. C. (1991). Work satisfaction and the ESL profession. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*, *4*(1), 59–86. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908319109525094

Scheerens, J. (Ed.). (2012). *School leadership effects revisited. Review and meta-analysis of empirical studies*. Springer.

Schmidt, S. (2009). Shall we really do it again? The powerful concept of replication is neglected in the social sciences. *Review of General Psychology*, *13*(2), 90–100. https://doi.org/10.1037%2Fa0015108

Modern Art in the Language Classroom: Cultivating Interests, Building Confidence

William Tiley
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Beppu, Japan

This study served as an initial investigation into the potential benefits of using modern art as a discussion topic in the language classroom. While research has shown that art can connect language learners with the culture of their target language, little research has been done in other areas. Despite this, considerable research has been undertaken on the value of art in educational institutions, finding that art can improve students' self-confidence, willingness to express themselves, and enhance inter-student connections in the classroom. The results of this study, carried out at an international university in southern Japan, indicate that art education may indeed offer similar benefits in terms of self-expression and willingness to display learning, although results regarding student connections remain inconclusive.

INTRODUCTION

Since the development of standardized modern education systems, the role of art in human development and therefore education has been a heavily debated and researched topic. John Dewey, considered to be one of the leading figures in the development of the modern American education system, argued that art is a crucial part of education and presented a wide range of benefits to students (Heilig et al., 2010).

With the development of readily accessible computer technology in the late 20th century, the role of art was called into question again, and a range of wide-reaching studies were undertaken to ascertain the role of art in modern society, namely, *Champions of Change* (Fiske, 1999) and *Critical Links* (Deasy, 2002). These studies universally extol the value of art in modern education and strongly support the use of art as a way to diversify the learning experience.

In particular, these studies and others found that art education offers considerable benefits to students' communication skills (Berliner, 2011; Malley & Silverstein, 2014), something that would also be considered desirable within language education. However, little research has been done into the use of art as a tool within the second language classroom. This paper will introduce a preliminary study into the use of modern art within the English language classroom at a Japanese university. This study used modern art in a content-based language instruction framework, using modern art to explore the potential benefits that art education may have on foreign language students' communication skills.

The study was initially carried out with 36 students across two classes in June 2021. Due to the preliminary nature of this study in a relatively under-researched area, the number of students participating in the research was relatively small. However, the study was repeated with a further group of 26 students in December 2021 to further corroborate the findings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Art in Second Language Education

One often-cited benefit of including art in education is that through art, students can generate a deeper understanding of cultural practices to facilitate their perception of the world around them (Kern, 2008). Art education can also help raise awareness across the spectrum of social justice (Garber, 2004; Dewhurst, 2014). As a result, art has been used in language education to help build a cultural background to the target language and provide cultural enrichment to the language experience. One study undertaken by Parra and Di Fabio (2014) involved learners of Spanish and Italian participating in an arts education program in partnership with a local gallery. Students reflected positively on the experience, as it provided an opportunity to learn different perspectives from the artwork as well as practice using the second language in a “real world” environment as opposed to the classroom (Parra & Di Fabio, 2014).

Outside of the chance to connect more directly with language and culture, quantitative research into the role of art education in the second language classroom is limited. Shier (1990) mentioned the idea that language education should be integrated into L2 curricula, as it can facilitate language acquisition in addition to developing critical thinking skills. Farokhi and Hashemi (2012) also explored the benefits of including art education in language curricula, extolling benefits including the opportunity to make learning meaningful, to foster creativity, to promote high levels of analysis, reasoning and questioning, and develop students’ self-esteem. However, both Shier (1990) and Farokhi and Hashemi (2012) simply postulated on the benefits of art education in second language teaching, with neither paper bringing any specific data on the topic to light.

Martello (2017) investigated the relationship between art education and student motivation, finding that art-based lesson content had an influence on Spanish learners’ motivational intensity; that is, the learners’ interest and desire to pursue further knowledge in the target language increased. Additionally, Martello (2017) suggested that art education may also have a positive impact on students’ vocabulary usage; however, analysis of student test data proved inconclusive.

In a similar study, Ekoç (2020) used art discussions in class with a group of 50 native Turkish speakers preparing to take university admission exams. Through interviews with these students, Ekoç found that students enjoyed the art discussions and found them motivating. Additionally, students reported that through art discussions, they felt more comfortable discussing personal issues that they otherwise found challenging to talk about with their classmates.

Żammit (2021) conducted a study and subsequent interviews with a group of Maltese learners to ascertain learners' perspectives on the role that art can play in their language acquisition. In these interviews, learners reported that art education provided them with opportunities to improve not only their vocabulary, supporting the proposals of Martinello (2017), but also their grammar (Żammit, 2021).

Art in Education

In contrast to research into the use of art as an educational tool within second language education, a wide range of studies on the beneficial role that art can play in educational institutions have been published. In fact, the benefits of art in education have been espoused since the turn of the 20th century. John Dewey (1859–1952) was a great proponent of art in education, arguing that the arts could offer children a way to enhance their view of the world, helping them to create new understandings of the world around them (Goldblatt, 2006). Dewey believed that art should be a "foundational part of the curriculum because it develops creativity, self-expression, and an appreciation of the expression of others" (Heilig et al., 2010, p. 136).

Among the numerous studies into the role of art in education, there are two compendia that stand out for their scale and thoroughness. The first is entitled *Champions of Change*: *The Impact of the Arts on Learning* (Fiske, 1999) and compiles the work of seven separate research teams. Of particular interest to this study is the third chapter, entitled "Learning in and Through the Arts: Curriculum Implications" (Burton et al., 1999), which explored the cognitive, social, and personal skills that can be developed through art education on over 2,000 public school students from ages nine to fourteen. The study found a strong correlation between art-rich programs in school and personal competencies needed for academic success, including creativity, originality, fluency, elaboration, willingness to take risks, and willingness to display learning. In short, art education increased students' academic self-confidence (Burton, et al., 1999). In addition, Fiske (1999) concluded that arts education also had an effect on the learning environment, reaching students in new and unique ways, creating challenges for students that were already considered "successful learners," and ultimately connecting students to themselves and each other.

The second large scale compilation of works on the role of art education in the classroom is entitled *Critical Links* (Deasy, 2002). This consists of 62 individual peer-reviewed papers, divided into multiple categories. This compilation provides a vast range of evidence supporting the inclusion of arts in education. Some specific findings were that students with high arts exposure showed higher levels of creativity, risk-taking, and academic self-concept (Burton et al., 2000) and that students who are exposed to arts in their education score higher on standardized tests (Catterall, 1998). Additionally, Harland et al. (2000) found that students reported increased self-confidence and enhanced expressive skills, and that arts education may create an encouraging, cohesive atmosphere within the educational institution.

Since these major studies were undertaken, research into the role of art in education decreased somewhat; however, a number of studies have continued to support the previous findings. Eisner (2002) stated that interaction with art loosens constraints on the imagination, thereby providing a safety net for experimentation and rehearsal (p. 4–5). While outlining the cognitive functions of art, Eisner also mentions that art encourages an "awakening" of aspects of the world that may not be immediately obvious, gives permission to engage the imagination in exploring new possibilities, encourages a tolerance of ambiguity, and facilitates introspection and an understanding of the self.

Berliner (2011) mentioned that art education provides students with an alternative way to view reality, expands students' perceptions of the world, and provides unobservable benefits for workers in the market economy. Additionally, Malley and Silverstein (2014), while exploring the intersection of art education and special education, stated that the arts allow students to use creativity and problem-solving, as well as provide opportunity for self-expression.

Art Education in Japan

Finally, the current state of art education in Japan should also be considered to provide a background into students' current experiences with art. Komatsu (2017) stated that art education in Japan is viewed as an efficient means of industrial development rather than a tool to encourage self-expression. Indeed, art instruction time has been reduced consistently over the years by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, and Japanese art classrooms have been described as "inorganic" and "factory-like" (Naoe, 2003, p. 102). From this, it can be concluded that the students involved in the study were likely to have had limited exposure to art and that the methods of analyzing art introduced in the course of this study were likely to have been new to the majority of the participants.

Accordingly, students were asked to indicate on a Likert scale their previous experience studying modern art. As can be seen from the results in Table 1, it is reasonable to conclude that the findings of existing literature on art education in Japan are also applicable to the students involved in this study.

TABLE 1. Initial Student Art Exposure

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have studied modern art before.	25	15	16	6	0

Research Questions

From the research detailed above, it is clear that art education presents a wide range of potential benefits when included in many forms of education, including second language education, but the current body of research relating specifically to the use of art within second language acquisition is lacking. Due to the preliminary nature of this study, it was decided to focus on more general benefits to ascertain the suitability of the use of art in language education. Specifically, encouraging self-expression (Harland et al., 2000; Malley &

Silverstein, 2014) and willingness to display knowledge (Burton et al., 1999) are key factors in the development of second language abilities. Additionally, the influence of art in promoting connections between students and encouraging an understanding of others (Fiske, 1999) is also suitable for investigation. Finally, it is worth assessing if students perceive art education as a meaningful experience (Fiske, 1999).

Thus, the following three research questions were determined:

RQ1. Does art provide students with a meaningful learning experience in the second language classroom?
RQ2. Does art enhance students' self-confidence and encourage students to express themselves in the second language classroom?
RQ3. Does art education deepen the connections between students in the second language classroom?

Method

Background

This study was undertaken with four intermediate-level English classes (totaling 62 students), classified as A2–B1 on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), at an international university in Japan. The course is compulsory for all Japanese-basis students at the university; however, students may be exempted from the course if they score high enough on a placement test. Consequently, classes at this level are made up of students from a range of cohorts rather than one specific year group. University policy also ensures that the classes contain a range of ability levels, mixing high-achieving and low-level students.

The course itself focuses on speaking, listening, and writing skills, and consists of four 100-minute classes per week over the course of a semester. Course content follows topics from *Contemporary Topics 1* (Pearson Education, 4th ed.). This study was carried out concurrently with the modern art unit (Unit 5) over a period of two weeks.

The study was carried out over two separate semesters to demonstrate the repeatability of the process and to lend validity to the results. One further point for consideration is that the researcher was the sole teacher involved in conducting the classes involved in this study.

Discussion Materials

Approaching a discussion about modern art can be highly daunting, even for highly fluent speakers. For this reason, students were first given some basic activities to provide them with the fundamental skills needed to successfully navigate a discussion about a work of art. In particular, the connection between color and emotion, and association was used to highlight how visual media can affect human perception, something which psychologists have been exploring for over a century (Evarts, 1919; Hupka et al., 1997). While very basic, this provided students with a framework to begin deriving meaning from works of art.

Following this, students were then encouraged to follow an interpretation framework derived from the Pyramid of Inquiry, suggested by art educator Nicola Giardina (2018). This breaks down the analysis process into manageable steps, namely, observation, evidence-based inference, and interpretation. This is also then supplemented by information from the instructor; however, this information is initially withheld to encourage students to first explore the artwork for themselves. Students were first encouraged to simply describe the image, then to discuss the stylistic features of the artwork (including color, texture, contrast, etc.), and finally use this to interpret the meaning and motivation behind the work (Giardina, 2018).

With this basic analysis framework in place, students were then given two works of art to discuss in pairs or small groups at the beginning of each class. Additionally, students were provided with some initial questions to help focus their initial inferences. Artworks were chosen in a deliberate order, starting with more “accessible” artwork and gradually becoming more complicated. Within this, artwork was thematically grouped, including self-portraits, surrealism, and sculpture.

Students were not put under time pressure when discussing the paintings but rather given the freedom to explore different ideas in groups. In fact, the first moments of the discussion were often very quiet, as students were observing the artwork and beginning to formulate opinions. This silent observation time is also recommended by Giardina (2018), so, while potentially disconcerting to instructors, it forms a vital first step in the analysis process for students.

Similarly, students were not pressurized into reaching a consensus and were encouraged to voice differing opinions and adapt their ideas. When the discussions had reached a natural close, the instructor then shared some interpretations with the class, as well as providing some further information about the work.

Data Collection

In order to address the research questions, students completed a survey (available in the Appendix) before and after the two week discussion process. These surveys provided a five-point Likert scale for students to indicate their perceptions on a range of personal competencies relating to art interest, intrapersonal skills, and interpersonal skills, thus addressing the three research questions. Students were asked about their current level of interest in modern art and their desire to learn more about the topic. Additionally, students were asked about their own willingness to express opinions and explore new ideas, and their perceptions on the value of interacting with their classmates.

The same survey (with the exception of the first question regarding previous art experience) was administered before and after the classroom interventions. This allowed the results to be compared directly, offering a clear insight into how students’ self-reported interest in art, communication skills, and appreciation of others changed over the two weeks of discussions.

RESULTS

To help analyze the data, student responses were transformed into numerical data. The five points on the Likert scale were assigned numerical values, which enables the calculation of average scores and further statistical analysis. Likert items were simply assigned a value from 1 to 5, converting the five-point scale (*strongly disagree* = 1, *slightly disagree* = 2, *neither agree nor disagree* = 3, *slightly agree* = 4, *strongly agree* = 5) into numerical data.

In this situation, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test was deemed the most suitable for statistical analysis of the data. This is because the data set will not meet the requirements of the central limit theorem, so therefore cannot be considered suitable for the standard *t* test.

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test, however, provides a similar metric: a statistical value indicating that two related data sets are statistically distinct from each other and not a result of natural variation in student responses. In the context of this study, the values derived from the test give a confidence level indicating that the results show a genuine change in students' self-assessments.

Research Question 1: Meaningful Learning Experiences

By analyzing student responses to the first two survey questions, it can be observed that student interest and desire to learn more about modern art has increased over the course of the study.

TABLE 2. Responses to Research Question 1

Question 1	I am interested in modern art.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.11	3.47	0.36	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	79.4
		3.81	4.00	0.19	
Question 2	I want to learn more about modern art.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.25	3.42	0.17	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	57.8
		3.62	3.81	0.19	

As can be observed in Table 2, both groups indicated an increased interest in modern art. The Wilcoxon signed-rank analysis also supports this finding, suggesting that the data show an increase in art rather than a natural fluctuation in student survey responses. However, the standard statistical requirement of exceeding the 95th percentile to definitively declare that the two samples are definitively distinct was not met.

While it is not possible to conclude that the discussion activities did definitively increase students' interest in art, both student groups indicated an increased interest in art, and the respective significance values of 79.4% and 57.8% would suggest that further, more extensive research into the subject is merited.

Research Question 2: Confidence and Self-Expression

Table 3 shows the full breakdown of results and statistical analysis for survey questions that addressed potential changes in student confidence and self-expression.

TABLE 3. Responses to Research Question 2

Question 3	I enjoy speaking English with my classmates.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		4.19	4.25	0.06	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	27.3
		4.31	4.31	0.00	
Question 4	I feel nervous when I speak English with my classmates.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.06	3.17	0.11	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	47.7
		3.35	2.85	-0.50	
Question 5	I feel nervous when I speak English with my teacher.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.67	3.31	-0.36	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	94.2
		3.23	2.69	-0.54	
Question 6	I enjoy learning new information.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		4.47	4.28	-0.19	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	48.9
		4.46	4.54	0.08	
Question 7	I have confidence in my opinions.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		2.89	3.17	0.28	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	70.5
		3.23	3.27	0.04	
Question 8	I enjoy sharing my opinions with my classmates.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.22	3.58	0.36	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	81.0
		3.42	3.58	0.15	
Question 9	I find it difficult to share my opinions.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.36	3.53	0.17	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	14.9
		3.42	3.23	-0.19	
Question 10	I enjoy talking about new topics that I do not understand.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		2.83	3.25	0.42	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	85.1
		3.23	3.35	0.12	
Question 11	I feel nervous talking about a topic that I do not know much about.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.81	3.36	-0.44	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	78.4
		2.96	2.96	0.00	

		June Pre	June Post	Change	Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval
Question 12	I enjoy discussing unfamiliar topics with my classmates.	3.75	3.83	0.08	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	84.4
		3.73	4.19	0.46	

Generally, the data suggest that after participating in art discussions, students are more willing to share opinions (Questions 7 and 8) and engage with unfamiliar topics (Questions 10, 11, and 12). Additionally, the results suggest that students feel less nervous when communicating in the classroom (Questions 4 and 5); however, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test result for Question 3 suggests that inter-student communication may not have been affected significantly. It is also important to note that, once again, the 95th percentile value was not exceeded.

As with Research Question 1, the data do not definitively prove that art education has a positive influence on students' willingness to express themselves. However, statistical analysis yielded several results around the 70–80% margin, once again suggesting that a relationship between the two may exist and that more rigorous research into the relationship between art education and self-expression in second language communication should be undertaken.

Research Question 3: Interpersonal Connections

As can be seen in Table 4, the results for questions pertaining to Research Question 3 appear to be less conclusive than for Research Questions 1 and 2. While the data suggest that students showed increased interest in the opinions of their classmates (Question 15) and derived enjoyment from listening to their classmates (Question 14), the perceived value of these opinions does not seem to have changed significantly. As with the previous research questions, however, the 95th percentile was once again not exceeded in any of the performed statistical tests.

TABLE 4. Responses to Research Question 3

		June Pre	June Post	Change	Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval
Question 13	I feel reluctant to disagree with my classmates' ideas.	1.81	2.00	0.19	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	25.7
		2.15	2.04	-0.12	
		June Pre	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
Question 14	I enjoy listening to my classmates' ideas and opinions.	4.53	4.44	-0.08	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	64.4
		4.15	4.58	0.42	
		June Pre	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
Question 15	I am interested in my classmates' opinions.	4.42	4.44	0.03	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	89.4
		4.08	4.58	0.50	
		June Pre	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
Question 16	I can learn new perspectives from my classmates.	4.61	4.47	-0.14	

		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	30.3
		4.46	4.54	0.08	
Question 17	I find it difficult to understand my classmates' opinions.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		2.00	1.97	-0.03	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	67.2
		2.12	1.77	-0.35	
Question 18	My classmates' opinions help me adapt my own ideas.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		3.72	3.69	-0.03	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	33.3
		3.77	3.69	-0.08	
Question 19	I feel bad when my classmates disagree with my ideas.	**June Pre**	**June Post**	**Change**	**Wilcoxon Test Confidence Interval**
		1.58	1.53	-0.06	
		Dec Pre	**Dec Post**	**Change**	85.6
		1.77	1.38	-0.38	

It should also be noted, however, that the average scores during the preliminary surveys for Questions 14, 15, and 16 were already very high, thus reducing the chances of returning a statistically significant increase.

Unlike the previous research questions, however, the statistical data indicate that it may not be possible to conclude that the art discussions entailed in this study can encourage the development of interpersonal relationships within the language classroom. While the data suggest that there may still be some positive correlation, it does not appear to be as distinct as that suggested by the data analysis pertaining to Research Questions 1 and 2.

Discussion

Limitations of the Study

The primary limitation in this study is with the overall scope. As a preliminary research project designed to function as a proof of concept, this limited scope (both in terms of participants and timeframe) was a deliberate choice as to not expend excessive time and resources into a study that may prove inconclusive. However, the low number of participants and two week limit also mean that the data may not be as conclusive as would have been possible if either parameter was to be expanded.

In addition to this, the survey itself was also relatively simple, covering three research areas in 15 questions. This was again chosen to keep this preliminary study relatively simple, but this simplicity could also be considered a limitation as the scope of the survey itself was not particularly wide.

An additional consideration is the use of Likert scales in recording survey data. Likert data can be prone to positive bias, where participants tend to choose more desirable outcomes that will reflect positively on themselves (Boone & Boone, 2012). In this study, however, the effects of this bias are less likely to be felt as the study consisted of a before and after survey. It does, however, introduce the assumption that any positive bias exhibited by the participants remains consistent across both surveys.

Additionally, converting Likert data into numerical data for statistical analysis also raises some reliability issues (Bishop & Herron, 2015). While it is common to assign ordinal numeric values, this commonly used method assumes that the participant perceives the difference between *strongly disagree* and *disagree* to be the same “size” as the difference between *disagree* and *neither agree nor disagree*. While average values derived from Likert data can still provide a meaningful insight into a data set and these averages can be compared to show a relative increase or decrease in any given parameter, it is not academically sound to comment on the size of any difference between two average values.

Future Implications

The future implications of this study present a range of options for further research. While it would be inappropriate to conclude that the data in this study statistically proves the value of incorporating art into the language classroom, the data do suggest that it may be possible to achieve conclusive data. In order to achieve this, a more extensive and rigorous methodology would have to be established and tested on a larger group of participants. Some potential avenues of exploration include using a more rigorous surveying framework such as the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLAS; after Horvitz et al., 1986).

Another avenue of potential future study relates to the application of art in the language classroom and even the possibility to explore further art forms. In this study, students were simply asked to discuss works of modern art, predominantly paintings. However, *Champions of Change* (Fiske, 1999) and *Critical Links* (Deasy, 2002) cover the educational role of a range of art forms including performance arts, music, dance, and drama, and extols the virtues of various different art forms and their effects on student development. Therefore, exploring not only the analysis of artwork but the creation of art and participation in art activities may also offer some benefits within the second language classroom.

Conclusions

Empirically, the results of this study can only be considered inconclusive. However, the data do open the door to further investigation into the potential benefits that art education may offer in the second language classroom. In particular, the ability for art to inspire students and deepen their interest in the topic suggests that it may be a valuable theme to utilize within the framework of content-based language instruction. Additionally, the study indicates that art discussions may have a positive influence on students’ willingness to express themselves, infer information and explore unknown topics, all points that can be invaluable in second language acquisition. The data also suggest that art discussions may also have an influence on interpersonal relationships within the language classroom, but the results in this regard are much less conclusive when compared to the role that interaction with art may have in developing student confidence.

This study serves as an interesting proof of concept, but further study will be needed in order to ascertain definitively what kind of influences the incorporation of modern art can have in the language classroom.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my gratitude to several people for their support and advice during this project. Firstly, I want to thank Ben Rentler for being an ever-willing sounding board for ideas and tolerating my general ramblings. Thanks also to Maiko Berger for guiding me towards a more academically sound methodology. I also want to thank Caroline Tiley for sharing her experience and wisdom in the world of art education and Isaki Ikeda for her help in translating the survey into Japanese.

Last but by no means least, I want to express my heartfelt thanks to all the students involved in this study.

THE AUTHOR

William Tiley is currently an English lecturer at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) in Beppu, southern Japan. In addition to this “pet” project regarding the role of modern art in language education, his other research interests include encouraging accurate vocabulary usage and how language teacher’s experiences of language learning can impact their pedagogical methods. Email: wtiley@apu.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Berliner, D. (2011). Rational responses to high stakes testing: The case of curriculum narrowing and the harm that follows. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *41*(3), 287–302. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764X.2011.607151

Bishop, P. A., & Herron, R. L. (2015). Use and misuse of the Likert item responses and other ordinal measures. *International Journal of Exercise Science*, *8*(3), 297–302.

Boone, H. N., & Boone, D. A. (2012). Analyzing Likert data. *The Journal of Extension*, *50*, 1–5. https://joe.org/joe/2012april/tt2.php

Burton, J., Horowitz, R., & Abeles, H. (1999). Learning in and through the arts: Curriculum implications. In E. B. Fiske (Ed.), *Champions of change*: *The impact of the arts on learning* (ED435581, pp. 34–49). ERIC. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED435581

Burton, J. M., Horowitz, R., & Abeles, H. (2000). Learning in and through the arts: The question of transfer. *Studies in Art Education*, *41*(3), 228–257. https://doi.org/10.2307/1320379

Catterall, J. S. (1998). Involvement in the arts and success in secondary school. *Americans for the Arts Monographs*, *1*(9), 1–10. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED466413

Deasy, R. J. (2002). Critical links: Learning in the arts and student academic and social development (ED466413). ERIC. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED466413

Dewhurst, M. (2014). *Social justice art*: *A framework for activist art pedagogy*. Harvard Education Press.

Eisner, E. W. (2002). *The arts and the creation of mind*. Yale University Press.

Ekoç, A. (2020). Teaching speaking with works of art in a preparatory class at university. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *15*, 415–427.

https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2020.1824232

Evarts, A. B. (1919). Color symbolism. *The Psychoanalytic Review*, *6*, 124–157.

Farokhi, M., & Hashemi, M. (2012). The impact/s of using art in English language learning classes. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *31*, 923–926. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.12.170

Fiske, E. B. (1999). *Champions of change*: *The impact of the arts on learning*. Arts Education Partnership and President's Committee on the Arts and Humanities (ED435581). ERIC. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED435581

Giardina, N. (2018). *The more we look*, *the deeper it gets*. Rowman & Littlefield.

Garber, E. (2004). Social justice and art education. *Visual Arts Research*, *30*(2), 4–22.

Goldblatt, P. (2006). How John Dewey's theories underpin art and art education. *Education and Culture*, *22*(1), 17–34. https//doi.org/10.1353.eac.2006.0001

Harland, J., Kinder, K., Lord, P., Stott, A., Schagen, I., & MacDonald, J. (2000). Arts education in secondary schools: Effects and effectiveness. In R. J. Deasy (Ed.), *Critical links*: *Learning in the arts and student academic and social development* (ED446413, pp. 87–88). ERIC. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED466413

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *70*(2), 125–132. https://doi.org/10.2307/327317

Hupka, R. B., Zaleski, Z., Otto, J., Reidl, L., & Tarabrina, N. V. (1997). The colors of anger, envy, fear, and jealousy: A cross-cultural study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *28*(2), 156–171. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022197282002

Komatsu, K. (2017). Genealogy of self-expression: A reappraisal of the history of art education in England and Japan. *Paedagogica Historica*, *53*(3), 214–227. https://doi.org/10.1080/00309230.2017.1307856

Heilig, J., Cole, H., & Aguilar, A. (2010). From Dewey to No Child Left Behind: The evolution and devolution of public arts education. *Arts Education Policy Review*, *111*(4), 136–145. https://doi.org/10.1080/10632913.2010.490776

Kern, R. (2008). Making connections through texts in language teaching. *Language Teaching*, *41*, 367–387. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444808005053

Malley, S. M., & Silverstein, L. B. (2014). Examining the intersection of arts education and special education. *Arts Education Policy Review*, *115*(2), 39–43. https://doi.org/10.1080/10632913.2014.883894

Martello, M. B. (2017). The use of visual arts in world language instruction to increase student motivation and attitude. *Boise State University Theses and Dissertations*, No. 1342. https://doi.org/10.18122/B27Q69

Naoe, T. (2003). Art education in lower secondary schools in Japan and the United Kingdom. *The Journal of Aesthetic Education*, *37*(4), 101–107. https://doi.org/10.2307/3527340

Parra, M. L. (2013). Expanding language and cultural competence in advanced heritage- and foreign-language learners through community engagement and work with the arts. *Heritage Language Journal*, *10*(2), 253–280. https://doi.org/10.46538/hlj.10.2.7

Shier, J. H. (1990). Integrating the arts in the foreign/second language curriculum: Fusing the affective and the cognitive. *Foreign Language Annals*, *23*, 301–314. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1990.tb00375.x

APPENDIX

Student Survey Questions

The following statements were given to students along with a Japanese translation and a five-point Likert scale.

I have studied modern art before. (*Only included in the preliminary survey*)
I am interested in modern art.
I want to learn more about modern art.
I enjoy speaking English with my classmates.
I feel nervous when I speak English with my classmates.
I feel nervous when I speak English with my teacher.
I enjoy learning new information.
I have confidence in my opinions.
I enjoy sharing my opinions with my classmates.
I find it difficult to share my opinions.
I enjoy talking about new topics that I do not understand.
I feel nervous talking about a topic that I do not know much about.
I feel reluctant to disagree with my classmates' ideas.
I enjoy listening to my classmates' ideas and opinions.
I enjoy discussing unfamiliar topics with my classmates.
I am interested in my classmates' opinions.
I can learn new perspectives from my classmates.
I find it difficult to understand my classmates' opinions.
My classmates' opinions help me adapt my own ideas.
I feel bad when my classmates disagree with my ideas.

Fulfilling a Dream: Two South Korean Students in Japan

Natasha Hashimoto
Tokyo Woman's Christian University, Tokyo, Japan

This study concerns two South Korean female university students currently living and studying in Japan. The participants are academically successful and come from relatively privileged backgrounds. They have transnational experience in living and receiving education in their home country, English-speaking countries (early education in Canada, New Zealand, and Singapore), and Japan. Both participants are multilingual, fluent in English (their major), and have a good command of Japanese, in addition to their L1, Korean. Data for this study were collected by conducting multiple semi-structured interviews with each student and utilizing Google Docs and email exchanges to clarify unclear points and ask follow-up questions. The focus of this study is on the participants' experiences in the classroom in Japan, their multilingual identity development, and efforts toward accomplishing their near-future goals.

Introduction

South Koreans have studied outside their home country in large numbers, ranking third or fourth in the number of students enrolled in educational institutions overseas even though South Korea is not among the ten most populous countries in the world (McCarthy, 2015; Ock, 2016). It is true that due to COVID-19, in recent years the number of Koreans studying abroad is not as high as in the past, but they still continue to account for four percent of the international student population in the United States (Institute of International Education, 2022). They also continue to study in Japan (Inaba, 2020; Institute for Statistics, n.d.). Despite the large numbers of Korean international students, research has not adequately addressed the conditions under which they study and live abroad.

There have been a handful of studies that focus on Korean students studying overseas, either as young learners or university students in dominant English-speaking countries, such as the United States (Lee, 2016; Lo et al., 2015; Park, 2020), but to the best of my knowledge, such studies are rare when it comes to Korean students studying abroad outside of dominant English-speaking countries. A notable exception is, for example, research by de Guzman et al. (2006) situated in the Philippines, where a group of young Koreans studied. The study investigated the difficulties the students' experienced with language learning and language use in the local community. De Guzman et al. found that the Korean participants struggled with achieving the desired English language proficiency.

In Japan, on the other hand, Matsubara (2017) explored Korean students' reasons for going to study in Japan. She found that the students were motivated to improve their Japanese because they were interested in Japanese culture and wanted to gain an advantage when seeking employment. Students believed that having a university degree, qualifications in the Japanese language, but also real-life experiences of living in Japan and mastering the language there would help them beat the competition in finding jobs. In this aspect, their motivation to learn and master the language was instrumental and similar to what de Guzman et al. (2006) found to be the motivation of Korean students learning English in the Philippines.

Other reasons cited for South Korean students enrolling in foreign countries' universities have been to escape taking fierce university entrance exams in their home country and, following successful graduation from universities overseas, to return to Korea or stay abroad to find employment (Hashimoto, 2022; Park, 2020).

The purpose of this study is to continue the investigation of two international students from South Korea, a country that has a complex relationship and difficult past shared with the host country where the students are enrolled in university, Japan. The focus of the current phase of this research is the Korean participants' linguistic identity, their interactions with their Japanese classmates, and their current efforts related to their plans for the near future.

Method and Participants

The majority of data for this study were collected from multiple individual semi-structured interviews with the participants. Interviews lasted one hour on average, ranging from 20 minutes as the shortest to 90 minutes as the longest. Some data come from follow-up email messages in which I asked for clarification and additional information about the topics that the participants discussed in the interviews. Data collection started in December 2020, when the participants were in their second year of university education. The study is still ongoing, and the last data collection phase for this paper was in April 2022.

The participants are Aera and Hana (pseudonyms), young South Korean women in their early 20s. Area's and Hana's several years' worth of early education was spent in Canada (for Hana) and New Zealand and Singapore (for Aera), where they were accompanied by their mothers, which means these two students could be categorized as belonging to the so-called "wild goose" or *gireogi* families (Lee, 2016; Lee, 2021; Lo et al., 2015). I discussed their early education abroad in more detail in an earlier article (Hashimoto, 2022). Both students are majoring in English and are in their fourth year in university in the same department at the time of writing this paper. They are multilingual and use English, Japanese, and Korean languages in their daily life in Japan. Hana is currently learning Mandarin, and Aera, who spoke it as a child when she lived in Singapore, is interested in relearning it.

Japanese University Classroom Experience

Although both participants can follow lectures and speak in Japanese, they strongly prefer English. Both of them have taken as many classes as they could that were taught in the English language. Aera was fortunate in that her field of interest is taught by foreign teachers in English, and she has been taking these teachers' courses, including her current fourth-year graduation thesis writing course. Hana has told me that "except for compulsory courses that I have to take in Japanese, I try to attend every course in English with foreign teachers." Almost all of these teachers were native English speakers from dominant English-speaking countries. In her university, the discipline she is interested in – language education – was taught only by Japanese professors in specialized classes (called "seminars" or *zemi* in Japanese) in which students write their graduation theses and in which smaller numbers of students enroll. However, despite her strong interest, Hana decided to choose a different seminar-style class with a foreign teacher, taught in English. It is important to note that students enrolled in the Japanese professors' classes also write their graduation theses in English, but class sessions are typically conducted in Japanese. Hana also felt that the Japanese professors' teaching style was less suited for her than that of the foreign teachers. Although her current foreign professor does not specialize in language education, Hana has been able to choose a topic on language education and pursue her interest with the professor's support.

Aera and Hana both found their Japanese peers' engagement in learning sometimes lacking. More specifically, they critiqued their reluctance to engage in peer feedback. Aera elaborated:

> Based on my experience, Japanese students tend to be afraid of expressing their opinions. Also, I think they are afraid of being wrong, incorrect, so this makes them silent. … To compare with Korean students, it's kind of similar, but at least Korean students have confidence in speaking out their ideas. To be honest, I could not get [enough detailed] feedback from Japanese students. I think Japanese students are not likely to criticize or point out something. They tend to see only the good points and compliment. I hope they could engage in more critical thinking when giving feedback. [Aera, May 12, 2021, email]

Hana shared Aera's sentiment. She mentioned an English academic writing course that she was enrolled in the previous semester:

> The main thing was writing academic essays, so we had to do some peer feedback. I tried to give as many comments as possible to my classmates to help with their writing, but some students didn't write much. Like, if I write ten comments, they just wrote three. But it's difficult for me to push them to give me more advice. When I ask them if they have any other ideas and comments, they just say my paper was good. It can be just a Japanese culture thing that they cannot say strictly or say bad things about it, but I wanted them to make more comments, negative or positive, because that will help my essay. In the end, the feedback I got was not that good for me. [Hana, February 1, 2021, interview]

Hana also compared the situation with how it would be in Korea, saying that for students in her home country, “the main point is giving feedback for improvement. It’s not about not hurting someone or not making them feel bad. Of course, that is also important, but the way we think, the main point is giving feedback” [February 8, 2021, interview] and that they tend to give more feedback to one another. To satisfy this need and improve her academic writing, Hana recruited help from her Korean friend, also an international student in Japan: “We talked using Line together. Same as me, her partner didn't give a lot of advice, so we both talk with each other. We exchange our essays and decide to give each five to ten comments to each other” [February 1, 2021, interview].

On the other hand, both participants were overwhelmingly positive about their multilingualism, specifically how it was manifested in the classroom and how it was beneficial for their learning. Aera said,

> Using both English and Japanese helps me to communicate fluently with other students. When I cannot express my thoughts and feelings in Japanese, I can use English at the same time. I can use both languages, so I think this is a positive point for multilingual students like me who are living in foreign countries. ... I really want to stress that point. Being a multilingual student in university or anywhere is the biggest benefit in my life. By using various kinds of languages, I can communicate with people from different countries, such as Japanese friends, Japanese professors, and foreign professors. This enables me to learn more about languages and even cultures. I can also take lectures in both English and Japanese, which can very much expand my knowledge. [Aera, February 2, 2021, interview]

Hana wrote about what she saw as positive related to her multilingualism in a similar way:

> I feel different from other students in a positive way. As I can speak three languages, I get to have more opportunities to speak out in class. I also feel I can handle problems more comprehensively, considering different cases in Korea, Japan, and English-speaking countries, for example, Canada. Moreover, I can write a research paper finding information in Korean, Japanese, and English. I can cast the net wide and seek reasonable shreds of evidence or examples globally. I feel I can consider things from a global perspective and get more changes both inside and outside classes. I want to try a new language soon. [Hana, May 12, 2021, online collaborative document]

They both are determined to make use of their languages, in particular English, in their future careers. More detail about their plans for the future follow in the section below.

Plans for the Near Future

When I asked the participants about their plans upon graduation, they both readily responded in detail. This year, Hana is preparing for graduate school. She is polishing her English to take a proficiency exam to qualify to enter graduate school in the United Kingdom. In addition, she is doing part-time work, not because she needs the income but to gain socio-cultural experience and use her languages. Aera completed several brief internships at different companies, applied for some jobs, and had one job interview for the job that she wants more than any other.

Hana had originally contemplated whether she should go to graduate school in Canada, the United States, or the United Kingdom, as she found all three countries very attractive. In the spring of 2022, she "decided to go to the U.K., with all the financial concerns and the schools that I wanted to apply to study. If I consider every point, U.K. was the best choice" [April 29, 2022, interview]. She argued that graduate schools in the United Kingdom were either less expensive than such schools in North America or the master's degree in education can be completed in less time. She added,

> The term is shorter, that's the biggest point because one-year degrees are time-saving and money-saving. Also, my brother is there as well, and my advisor [is] from the U.K., so asking for advice, getting information from [the advisor] and the recommendation paper from [them] is convenient. [Hana, April 29, 2022, interview]

Hana also had other reasons to go to the United Kingdom, where she has never been before, and which made her interested in the region: "I've never been to Europe before, so it might be a new interesting challenge to me, and the point England has a much smaller Asian community would be beneficial for me to get into the real English society" [same interview]. She is currently putting great effort into her studies in order to maintain a very high grade-point average and to take a standardized English exam in the summer. She is also preparing her personal statements and resume for graduate school applications.

At the same time, Hana has been eager to improve her overall work experience and socio-cultural knowledge of Japan. She shared that she has worked several part-time jobs and considered them a valuable life experience:

> In each field of work, there are different things that I can learn. So I changed a lot jobs, and I changed, too. Through doing all these jobs, I really learned that the basics are the same, but how to do things, how to finish things more effectively, more productively, is different, so I think I'm learning kind of the sense of working. [Earning a salary] is not quite important for me. For me, the priority is experience. [Hana, December 15, 2021, interview]

Aera, on the other hand, has focused on finding employment. She has been critical of Korean English education and its job market, and she wanted to use her English skills to study and work in other Asian countries because she thought that "all Koreans use English as a score to get a job, not for their personal skills. The only important thing is to know the TOEIC or TOEFL score to get a better job" [December 10, 2021, interview]. However, in the same interview, she also wanted to avoid competition with Korean students because "there are so many students who are good at English in Korea." Despite critiquing the Korean students' attitudes, Aera thought that her high English skills were an advantage compared to the Japanese students' levels of English. As her goal has been to "use English skills professionally," she found Japan to be a good choice because "Japan has very famous foreign companies than other Asian countries, so I thought Japan was the best place to use my English skills and to get a job" [same interview]. Her hope is to work in Japan for a couple of years and then move to another foreign country where she can continue working in English.

To achieve her goal, Aera took part in five internship programs at five companies in the fall and winter season last year. Short-term internship programs in Japan are designed for university students to explore a variety of work environments and, ideally, find what suits them best. However, Aera found that even in the international (foreign-owned) corporations in Japan, non-Japanese interns were rare. As a matter of fact, Aera was the only non-Japanese student in the internship programs she experienced. She spoke of the experience in terms of communication:

> I thought they would use English very much, but even though I participated in international companies they didn't use English that so much actually! ... In the end, this was a good experience and taught me how to choose a better company in the future. ... By doing different kinds of interviews in different kinds of companies, I think I'm getting the answer to what I really like and what I really don't like. So although the internship program was not that very interesting and fun, I think this kind of experience is teaching me this kind of thing, what I really like and what I am really interested in. [Aera, December 10, 2021, interview]

At the time of writing this paper, Aera is waiting for a response from an international company where she interviewed some time ago in hopes of being offered a job. She has shared that if she failed to find a job she wants, she is ready, with her family's support, to reenter university and study for another university degree and look for work after she earns another degree. She explained that some of her Korean friends have done the same when they were unable to find employment. Aera's sister as well has moved from an English-speaking country, where she had worked in a career that did not promise much advancement, to Japan and enrolled in another bachelor's degree program in hopes of building a better career afterward.

Unlike de Guzman et al.'s (2006) participants, Hana and Aera are confident and proficient speakers of English. What is more, both have learned the Japanese language as well. On the other hand, somewhat similar to de Guzman et al.'s (2006) and Matsubara's (2017) findings, the participants in this study are motivated instrumentally, and there was a certain "push factor" for them to go to Japan and avoid competition with other bilingual students in their home country. However, their plans are not to reenter South Korea but to build truly international careers across borders.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is hoped that this study illustrates some new aspects and details of South Korean international students enrolled in Japanese universities. There is still plenty to investigate regarding the participants' lives and dreams, and I plan to continue this research and talk to the participants once again in the fall of this year, and again after they graduate from university.

THE AUTHOR

Natasha Hashimoto, PhD, is an associate professor in the English Language Department at Tokyo Woman's Christian University. Her doctoral degree is in education/applied linguistics, and her master's is in human rights and social justice. Her teaching and research interests include Bourdieusian theory, multilingualism, metacognitive strategies, social-emotional learning, and fairness in language assessment. Email: nhashim@cis.twcu.ac.jp

REFERENCES

de Guzman, A. B., Albela, E. J. A., Nieto, D. S. D., Ferrer, J. B. F., Santos, R. N. (2006). English language learning difficulty of Korean students in a Philippine multidisciplinary university. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *7*(2), 152–161.

Hashimoto, N. (2022). From "wild geese" to transnationals: International students in Japanese university. *PanSIG Journal 2021* (pp. 298–303). Japan Association for Language Teaching.

Inaba, H. (2020). Experiences of international immigrant students in a Japanese university: An in-depth study. In Z. Gross (Ed.), *Migrants and comparative education*: *Call to re/engagement* (pp. 268–280). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004417014_016

Institute of International Education. (2022). *International students by institutional type 2003/04 – 2020/21*: *Open doors report on international educational exchange*. http://www.opendoorsdata.org.

Lee, S. H. (2021). *Korean wild geese families*: *Gender, family, social, and legal dynamics of middle-class Asian transnational families in North America*. Lexington Books.

Lee, M. W. (2016). *Early study-abroad and identities*: *Korean early study-abroad undergraduates*. Springer.

Lo, A., Abelmann, N., Kwon, S. A., & Okazaki, S. (2015). *South Korea's education exodus*: *The life and times of study abroad*. University of Washington Press.

McCarthy, N. (2015, July 2). These countries have the most students studying abroad. *Forbes*. https://www.forbes.com/sites/niallmccarthy/2015/07/02/these-countries-have-the-most-students-studying-abroad-infographic/

Ock, H. (2016, September 18). Korea sends fourth most students abroad. *The Korea Herald*. http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20160918000267

Park, S. C. (2020). *Korean international students and the making of racialized transnational elites*. Lexington Books.

UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (n.d.). *Global flow of tertiary-level students*. http://uis.unesco.org/en/uis-student-flow

Teaching Online: How Has the New Zealand Experience Matched International Experiences?

Tim Edwards
Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand

The move to online emergency remote teaching (ERT) in early 2020 affected education worldwide. Differences between ERT and planned online teaching were evident. This paper describes the experiences of staff teaching on several different ESOL programs from a university in New Zealand during 2020–2022. It finds that trends such as students appreciating courses being available, students missing social interactions, varying digital literacy among students and staff, and inequities in equipment, connectivity, and their reliability were to be found not only in New Zealand but also worldwide in a myriad of contexts. Suggestions for preparing staff, students, and infrastructure for future needs to teach online and how to do that are made.

INTRODUCTION

This paper will describe the experience of teaching various programs online from a New Zealand university during the first two years of the COVID-19 pandemic, giving examples from specific courses taught early and late in the pandemic and summarizing trends. It will then compare trends from this experience with those found in international research on similar topics. The paper will conclude with an overview of findings and some suggestions for the future. In preparation for this description and discussion, the paper begins with an overview of the context regarding education, especially EFL/ESOL, during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Context

In early 2020 the COVID-19 pandemic forced almost all education worldwide to happen online, in many cases with little warning or preparation. Online education in various forms had existed for over two decades before COVID-19. Despite a checkered history, online interactions had been shown to be effective for education in the right circumstances (Dhawan, 2020; Carrió-Pastor, 2019; Harrell, 2013). Some literature had shown negative impacts from online education lacking real-life connections to people (Taggart, 2017), while researchers such as Delahunty et al. (2014) and Gómez-Rey et al. (2018) explicitly recommended when planning online education to plan opportunities to engage with peers and instructors to counter the effects of not being in the group's physical presence. Humans are generally known to be social creatures, and it is worth noting that the most successful internet sites are devoted to social lives in some form

(Lieberman, 2013).

Despite online teaching having been effective and done well in the past, 2020 was different (Gacs et al., 2020; Zou et al., 2001). The phrase *emergency remote teaching* (ERT), essentially replication of face-to-face instruction but lacking proper redesign, was used by several commentators (e.g., Hodges et al., 2020; Naidu, 2020; Smith Jaggers, 2021) to distinguish the online teaching in the pandemic from online education that had traditionally been planned over several months (Clandfield & Hadfield, 2021; Elfman, 2020). The experiences of teachers and students depended greatly on the resources they had, including training, infrastructure, and equipment (Edwards, 2022; King, 2022), and this especially applied to students in lower socioeconomic groups and areas within countries.

That said, some students and teachers benefitted from ERT by developing new digital, 21st century skills, or by finding the home study environment preferable to inaccessible or bully-laden campuses (Brown et al., 2021; Hasper, 2021; Kern & Smith, 2020; Moore et al., 2021; Pusey & Nanni 2021). Some institutions were better placed for ERT than others due to having planned for, or previously taught online during or following, disasters (e.g., Dhawan, 2020; Pusey & Nanni 2021; Wong, 2020).

Research Question

Noting much of the research above as well as the differing educational and societal situations during the COVID-19 pandemic, the author of this study was interested to know how his experiences and those of his colleagues teaching ERT online from their homes, while working for a university in New Zealand, would compare to international experiences. The research question therefore is

RQ1. How does the New Zealand ESOL experience of ERT compare to international experiences, and what lessons can be learned?

This paper aims to relate the New Zealand experience and then compare that to findings from international literature. The plethora of publications on this topic in 2020–2022, and space limitations, necessitate use of examples of international literature that represent overall trends. Some such examples have already been cited above.

The New Zealand Experience

Before COVID

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, the English Language Institute (ELI) at Victoria University of Wellington in New Zealand taught several programs face-to-face. While colleagues in the wider university had taught some programs online for some time and some teachers within the ELI had themselves studied online, there was limited experience of teaching online among the ELI staff.

Existing face-to-face programs included the following:

- An English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course with several classes each of approximately 16 students of many nationalities, running over 10 to 12 weeks and aiming to increase students' language skills and vocabulary and grammar in the context of academic discourse, critical thinking, and learner autonomy. Activities included language classes, research skills, and the essay writing process, presentations, and analyzing academic style texts.
- The English Language Training for Officials (ELTO) program, designed for government officials from Southeast Asia, non-Anglophone Africa, and Mongolia. Desired outcomes were connected to language skills and professional knowledge in connection to participants' work and building knowledge about and connections with New Zealand and New Zealanders. Students spent several months in New Zealand undertaking language classes, while also working on professional development and explicitly interacting with local people. Past feedback from participants included, "Workplace visit also I saw the New Zealand culture, how they work, how they activity, what they do" and "I had an opportunity to meet different conversation partners, so going outside with them and talking with them. It give me how people ... are working or spending their time, etc." (For more information on this program, see Edwards, 2020, 2022.)
- Similar programs taught by ELI staff in Asia. For example, in Myanmar, teaching members of the civil service aiming to improve English for governance and public sector capacity, and also in Vietnam to increase the language and professional skills needed for hosting multilateral government meetings (e.g., ASEAN).
- University and postgraduate study preparation courses conducted in Myanmar for students who had provisionally received government scholarships to study in New Zealand.
- Language and culture courses conducted in New Zealand by arrangement with partner universities around Asia.

New Zealand closed its borders to people coming from China in early February of 2020. This meant that with two weeks to go before the start of many classes there was at least some warning that some EAP classes would need to be initially taught online before students (we thought) would be allowed to travel to New Zealand. Students and staff learned how to "Zoom"; teachers volunteered for those online classes as professional development. Staff from around the University and many online blogs advised on synchronous online (language) teaching, and students were reassured that they could study online as long as needed. Teachers discovered what worked, what was a good length of session, etc.

Two weeks into the courses, New Zealand entered a national lockdown (stay-at-home order). This meant that the programs that were taking place on campus switched to online ERT. There were two days' notice for students and staff to get set up at home. There was a lot of collegiality among staff, and the teaching continued partly to occupy students and staff. Students generally expressed a desire to keep studying, and generally passed online assessments comparable to "usual," but it was quickly discovered that full-length classes did not work, and they needed to be conducted in shorter "blocks."

The ELTO course spent nine out of 12 weeks being conducted online with online interaction from some local volunteers helping to continue the cultural connection aspect of the program. Some students returned to campus in late May, while others were "rescued" by their governments with evacuation flights. Feedback from the students included the following (for more details, see Edwards, 2020, 2022):

- "This is my regret about during the time in New Zealand. ... I want to come to touch the real snow and discover the beautiful landscape in New Zealand"
- "Zoom is quite not good but is really better than nothing"
- "I am so lucky because my conversation buddy is very close to me but some of the other people ... during the lockdown they didn't meet their conversation partner at all and some of them, and they only text or keep small talk online"
- "Even lockdown I feel like at home ... for example, hotel the receptionists and the employees ... they are very kind"
- "I can learn some ... new techniques from this classes ... in this covid conditions I think maintaining the online course is the best solution for us. I think all of us tried to adapt with this"
- Students missing the physical social interaction and feeling of belonging
- Issues with unequal tech access/reliability/literacy/suitable study environment

Both the civil service and University preparation programs taking place in Myanmar also switched online. The University preparation program's ERT involved the teachers being pulled back to New Zealand with two days warning and them teaching online during their own arrival quarantine. The course was very much re-organized into short teaching blocks with students in Myanmar also working in small study groups to support each other. Innovations included using more shared documents and mentors from previous programs, as well as prerecording and posting online some classes or lectures. Problems included eye strain and lack of internet or equipment reliability again, and, also again, lack of human interaction,

Luckily for logistics, the civil service program was on a break between modules when the change to online teaching came, so it was possible to "simply" delay the planned Modules 2 and 3, and convert them into three online blocks of study via Zoom. These took place later in the year, once liaison staff in Myanmar had checked government and student buy-in and technology capabilities. Most scholars were enthusiastic about continuing to study. However, enthusiasm did not equal someone's ability to effectively participate, given issues with workload, digital literacy, and connectivity and equipment reliability. Student feedback suggested that goals were met and they learned a lot, but there were issues with unreliable connectivity and equipment, the need to learn to use them, workload demands (this was a part-time program), and the lack of a classroom atmosphere.

As 2021 began, the ELI staff had more experience at teaching online, and "ERT" was transitioning to "online teaching." Later iterations of EAP ran more smoothly and a new version of training government officials to host multilateral meetings was taught to members of the Cambodian civil service online with 96% of the participants reporting that their confidence and language had improved. Innovations included students setting up social media networks as a way of being able to continue practicing English together, and further use of study groups and pre-recorded sections of class. That said, issues with connectivity and equipment equity, and reliability remained despite pre-course checking of such things.

"After": During 2021

During 2021, it became apparent that international students would not return to New Zealand in meaningful numbers until late 2022 or early 2023. This gave more certainty for planning and communication with offshore students about online classes, technology and workload *requirements* (not *recommendations*), and teaching styles. For students in New Zealand, it was possible to choose to attend face-to-face classes. However, all students and staff were explicitly made aware that the entire program might have to (and occasionally did), move online during COVID-19 waves, and that individual students, if unwell or if testing positive for COVID-19 might have to spend days or weeks online, even if asymptomatic, and thus, making it a hybrid class.

All students were now trained in online learning during their orientation period and home equipment/connectivity was checked as a prerequisite for fully enrolling in either the online or on-campus (sometimes hybrid) classes. Some funding from the university and government was available to help with inequities. Students online and on campus (hybrid) passed assessments at a similar rate to pre-2020, and the students remaining online had chosen to do so, and thus were motivated to engage. New skills had been learned by all, although there was a feeling of "online fatigue," and some offshore students chose to enroll in institutes in other countries where they were able to physically travel to since late 2021.

ELTO Alumni programs have taken place online as part-time programs (60 minutes, twice a week for a month) to help alumni re-engage with each other and reactivate their English. Feedback included "The best part of this course is being able to interact with other ELTO alumni as well as share insights with the community and institutions.... It is a golden opportunity to maintain relationship." New blended versions of the full ELTO program were being developed to be taught in late 2022 and 2023, with participants visiting New Zealand for shorter-than-previous periods in 2023. The first of these blended programs, including synchronous class and small-group work and asynchronous materials and resources (required and optional), began in June 2022. New programs with partner universities in Asia have seen university and ELI staff teach online to physical rooms of students clustered round laptops on their home campuses.

Summary

From the experiences above, we found that ERT can provide effective education, but it is not as effective as well-planned online education that students and teachers have chosen to take part in. Students appreciate having programs available, learning new skills, and the chance to interact with others, but they miss the community and atmosphere of being in a physical room for face-to-face classes. The feeling of reduced connections is exacerbated by inequities in the equipment and connectivity available and its reliability. These inequities may exist even where students know well in advance that they will study online.

The International Experience

Much international research, some of which was outlined above, has similar findings (e.g., Elfman, 2020; Jelińska & Paradowski, 2021; Rasiah et al., 2020; Soria et al., 2020). Students generally appreciated that courses were available, that they learned new skills, and that they had some type of interaction with classmates even if this was of lower quality than in face-to-face classrooms. Experience in many contexts has shown that synchronous learning online is different from classroom learning and needs to be done in shorter sessions with explicit effort put into encouraging interaction. It may be a useful tool rather than a 100% replacement for face-to-face learning. Many studies have found inequities in access to, skills using, and reliability of equipment software and connectivity, and appropriate study environments (e.g., Brown et al., 2021; Bryson, 2021; Darwin, 2022; Samson, 2022; Smith Jaggars, 2021). Overall, there were continued findings that lack of personal communication, face-to-face contact, and issues with technology access and reliability were main drawbacks to ERT (Chan et al., 2021; Vičič, 2022).

Those students and teachers who did not have relevant online teaching and learning experiences pre-2020 needed upskilling, and for future resilience, this will need to be continued into the foreseeable future (Chan, et al., 2021; Naidu, 2021; Zou et al., 2001). Many authors (e.g., Bryson, 2021; Kern & Smith, 2020; Rasiah et al., 2020; Soria et al., 2020) also recommended that staff, students, and infrastructure be prepared and trained for future study online even if it would not be their choice of study medium. Institutes and governments who invested in such things prior to 2020 have found this to be advantageous (Moore et al., 2021; Pusey & Nanni, 2021), and Wong (2020) outlined how this has already been done in Singapore, with one week each year being taught online. McCurrach (2022) noted how any use of technology in education is more effective if teachers and staff want to use it. Agar (2021), Moore et al. (2021), and Padilla Rodríguez et al. (2021) have all advised pre-empting connectivity problems by prescribing minimum equipment and internet reliability criteria for students.

After inequities around equipment, the lack of human connections is most prominent in concerns raised by literature focusing on education during the COVID-19 pandemic. In general it was clear that students preferred face-to-face teaching (Pusey & Nanni, 2021; VUW, 2022), as did teachers who online needed to do more personalized and a greater amount of interaction and feedback with each student than in a face-to-face environment to help students feel engaged, noticed, helped, and part of a community (Dong & Ishige, 2022). Surveys conducted in Australia during the pandemic found increased loneliness reported and that reduced or lost physical contact could not be fully replaced by online interactions (Patulny & Bower, 2022). Some staff and students also had mental health problems associated with lack of social interactions, boredom, loneliness, and anxiety (Leal Filho et al., 2021). The UK's Education Secretary summarized this topic by saying that face-to-face teaching is integral to high-quality education (Zahawi, 2022).

Some experiments with the use of virtual reality (VR) to replicate classrooms and field trip experiences online have been reported but with mixed results (Agar, 2021; Cinganotto, 2022; Kern & Smith, 2020; Kern, 2021). Read (2022) has provided and overview of the history of using VR in ESOL classes.

Discussion

Each country experienced the COVID-19 pandemic differently, yet also experienced many similar situations. Equally from an educational perspective, whether ERT lasted weeks or months and was conducted from homes or from offices, there were some consistencies worldwide. It has been remarkable how consistent publications, research, case studies, and commentators for a myriad of contexts have been in finding similar issues (and benefits such as learning new skills) arising from and revealed by ERT.

In New Zealand and worldwide, online education was achieved effectively under emergency conditions, but the level of effectiveness varied drastically according to local conditions and skill levels. "Local" could refer to a country, province, or family. Consistent findings included that despite online education being possible under emergency conditions (ERT), it is far more effective when chosen and planned in advance. Despite efforts to create a community feel online, such interactions are not a replacement for actual face-to-face interaction.

Inequities with equipment and connectivity can be partially reduced through training and funding, but many are a result of systemic issues and core infrastructure simply not existing. Inquiring about and then requiring of students a certain level of equipment, connectivity, and skill using them has helped make online courses run better in many cases, but equipment and infrastructure simply does not exist in some less-developed countries.

Teaching online has moved on from 2020's ERT to now becoming far more commonplace, less "scary," and better planned with better-trained teachers and students. Practical guidelines for teaching online, planned or as ERT, initially in a multitude of blogs, have now been published in books such as British Council (2021), Chan et al. (2021), and Hertz (2022). One recurring theme is that text-based discussions and asynchronous recorded lessons and lectures remain popular and are more accessible to many students than synchronous discussion- and collaboration-based classes (Heggelund, 2022; McCurrach, 2022), however the latter type of class is still beneficial if justified.

Conclusions

"Big breakthroughs happen when what is [already] possible meets what is desperately necessary" (Freidman, 2012, para. 3). Online (language) teaching has been done successfully for many years, but it has been done by choice and with planning. It is now accepted that this type of teaching may need to be done at any time and with little notice, and therefore it behoves educators and their institutes to ensure all parties have the relevant equipment, software, and practice using it.

Anecdotally from a multitude of 2022 conference presentations, students and society now expect some form of blended, hybrid, or online option to be available for almost all education. Experiences in many countries and contexts were similar, a finding which reinforces the collegial attitude shown by many educators in 2020 and beyond in making use of the internet to discuss their experiences and suggest ways of teaching online both in general and for specific learning goals.

The Author

Tim Edwards teaches on various programs with the English Language Institute at Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, where he completed an MA TESOL. He has been teaching for over twenty years and has worked in Asia, Europe, North America, and Australasia, spending recent years working on programs designed to develop language and professional knowledge among civil servants from Southeast Asia. With interests in English for specific purposes, English as a lingua franca, and study abroad programs, Tim has also recently been following research on teaching through the COVID-19 pandemic. Email: tim.edwards@vuw.ac.nz

References

Agar, N. (2021, August 10). *A warning for traditional universities*. Newsroom. https://www.newsroom.co.nz/a-warning-for-traditional-universities

British Council. (2021). *Remote teaching tips*. *https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/remote*-teaching-tips

Brown, C., Datt, A., Forbes, D., Gedera, D., & Hartnett, M. (2021). University student online learning experiences (SOLE) in COVID-times. *Ipu Kererū*: *Blog of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education*. https://nzareblog.wordpress.com/2021/09/06/uni-online-learning/

Bryson, E. (2021). The what and how of teaching digital skills online. *Modern English Teacher*, *30*(2). 57–59.

Carrió-Pastor, M. L. (2019). *Teaching language and teaching literature in virtual environments*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-1358-5

Chan, R. Y., Bitsa, K., & Allen, R. M. (Eds.). (2021). *Online teaching and learning in higher education during COVID-19*: *International perspectives and experiences*. Routledge.

Cinganotto, L. (2022, May 17). *CLIL and language learning in Italy during the pandemic* [Paper presentation]. IATEFL Conference, Belfast, UK.

Clandfield, L., & Hadfield, J. (2021). *Live online teaching*: *Creative activities for delivering language lessons remotely*. Pavilion.

Darwin, S. (2022, May 17). *Responding to unpredictable times*: *Analysing the challenges of pandemic pedagogies*. IATEFL Conference, Belfast, UK.

Delahunty, J., Verenikina, I., & Jones, P. (2014). Socio-emotional connections: Identity, belonging, and learning in online interactions. A literature review. *Technology, Pedagogy, and Education*, *23*(2), 243–265. https://doi.org/10.1080/1475939X.2013.813405

Dhawan, S. (2020). Online learning: A panacea in the time of COVID-19 crisis. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, *49*(1), 5–22. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047239520934018

Dong, Y., & Ishige, A. (2022, April 29). *Emotional presence in EFL students' virtual study abroad experiences under the pandemic* [Paper presentation]. Korea TESOL International Conference 2022, Online/Seoul, Korea. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MTVFs1dBBEM

Edwards, T. (2020). Connecting with New Zealand: The effect of the online mode on student experiences of an English language training course. *The TESOLANZ Journal*, *28*, 1–16.

https://www.tesolanz.org.nz/publications/tesolanz-journal/volume-28-2020/

Edwards, T. (2022). Connecting online: How two years of (emergency) remote teaching scholarship relates to an example course in New Zealand. *TESOLANZ Journal*, *30*(Special Edition), 44–56. https://www.tesolanz.org.nz/wp-content/uploads/2022/06/TESOLANZ_Journal_Vol30_2022_SE.pdf

Elfman, L. (2020). The move to online – Getting it done. *Women in Higher Education*, *29*, 9, 14.

Friedman, T. (2012, May 15). Come the revolution. *New York Times*. https://www.nytimes.com/2012/05/16/opinion/friedman-come-the-revolution.html

Gacs, A., Goertler, S., & Spasova, S. (2020). Planned online language education versus crisis-prompted online language teaching: Lessons for the future. *Foreign Language Annals*, *53*, 380–392. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12460

Gómez-Rey, P., Barbera, E., & Fernández-Navarro, F. (2018). Students' perceptions about online teaching effectiveness: A bottom-up approach for identifying online instructors' roles. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, *34*(1), 116–130. https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.3437

Harrell, L. (2013). *A learner centred approach to online education*. Information Age.

Hasper, A. (2021). Igniting the fire within: Motivating online learners. *Modern English Teacher*, *30*(4), 27–30.

Heggelund, O. (2022, May 18). *Advantages of online vs traditional face-to-face teaching: A case study* [Paper presentation]. IATEFL Conference, Belfast, UK.

Hertz, B. (2022). *Guidelines for teaching and learning online as part of the "new normal."* European Schoolnet. http://www.eun.org/resources/detail?publicationID=2161

Hodges, C., Moore, S., Lockee, B., Trust, T., & Bond, A. (2020). *The difference between emergency remote teaching and online learning*. EDUCAUSE Review. https://er.educause.edu/articles/2020/3/the-difference-between-emergency-remote-teaching-and-online-learning?fbclid=IwAR2hxcZCT2lNzi3QzNPj9QFa4sr7udsPCQU98Xi6VQYFyC4cL6kR2EkXLVM

Jelińska, M., & Paradowski, M. B. (2021) Teachers' engagement in and coping with emergency remote instruction during COVID-19-induced school closures: A multi-national contextual perspective. *Online Learning Journal*, *25*(1), 303–328.

Kern, N. (2021). Out of this world. *English Teaching Professional*, *134*, 4–7.

Kern, N., & Smith, Z. (2020). Online pre-sessional courses for university. *English Teaching Professional*, *131*, 44–46.

King, M. (2022, February). *How COVID has changed us: Professional, technological, and emotional development in the TESOL world* [Paper presentation]. The 19th Annual CamTESOL Conference on English Language Teaching. Online/Phnom Penh, Cambodia.

Leal Filho, W., Wall, T., Rayman-Bacchus, L., Mifsud, M., Pritchard, D. J., Orlovic Lovren, V., Farinha, C., Petrovic, D. S., & Balogun, A.-L. (2021). Impacts of COVID-19 and social isolation on academic staff and students at universities: A cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health*, *21*, Article 1213. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-11040-z https://bmcpublichealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12889-021-11040-z

Lieberman, M. D. (2013). *Social: Why our brains are wired to connect*. Crown.

McCurrach, D. (2022, April 29). *CALL after COVID: Asynchronous e-learning in higher education* [Paper presentation]. Korea TESOL International Conference 2022. Online/Seoul, Korea [and in this volume].

Moore, S., Trust, T., Lockee, B., Bond, A., & Hodges, C. (2021). *One year later … and counting: Reflections on emergency remote teaching and online learning.* EDUCAUSE Review. https://er.educause.edu/articles/2021/11/one-year-later-and-counting-reflections-on-emergency-remote-teaching-and-online-learning

Naidu, S. (2020). It is the worst – and the best – of times! *Distance Education*, *41*(4), 425–428. https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2020.1825929

Padilla Rodríguez, B. C., Armellini, A., & Traxler, J. (2021). The forgotten ones: How rural teachers in Mexico are facing the COVID-19 pandemic. *Online Learning*, *25*(1), 253–268. https://doi.org/10.24059/olj.v25i1.2453

Patulny, R., & Bower, M. (2022). Beware the "loneliness gap"? Examining emerging inequalities and long-term risks of loneliness and isolation emerging from COVID-19. *Australian Journal of Social Issues*, *00*, 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajs4.223

Pusey, K., & Nanni, A. (2021). EAP in time of crisis: Preliminary perspectives on emergency remote teaching. *English Australia Journal*, *37*(2), 5–19.

Rasiah, R., Kaur, H., & Guptan, V. (2020). Business continuity plan in the higher education industry: University students' perceptions of the effectiveness of academic continuity plans during COVID-19 pandemic. *Applied System Innovation*, *51*(3). https://doi.org/10.3390/asi3040051

Read, D. (2022, May 20). *Learning English in virtual reality*: *Ready for prime time?* IATEFL Conference, Belfast, UK. https://drive.google.com/file/d/1ULAnibKoWIyZQ8UK6OQQMT8bhUsR3NOe/view

Samson, A. (2022, January 14). *NZ schools need more than number eight wire*. Newsroom. https://www.newsroom.co.nz/nz-schools-need-more-than-number-eight-wire

Smith Jaggars, S. (2021). Introduction to the special issue on the COVID-19 emergency transition to remote learning. *Online Learning Journal*, *25*(1), 1–2. https://olj.onlinelearningconsortium.org/index.php/olj/article/view/2692

Soria, K. M., Roberts, B. J., Horgos, B., & Hallahan, K. (2020). *Undergraduates' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic*: *Disparities by race and ethnicity*. UC Berkeley, Center for Studies in Higher Education. https://escholarship.org/uc/item/1rf4p547

Taggart, G. (2017) The effect of online college attendance on job obtainment through social connections. *American Journal of Distance Education*, *31*(1), 43–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/08923647.2017.1258660

Vičič, P. (2022). *Distance language learning experiences during the COVID lockdown*. Proceedings of the 5th International Conference of Contemporary Challenges in LSP Teaching (pp. 248–262). https://unjsvu.hr/wp-content/uploads/2022/05/248-262-Polona-Vicic.pdf

VUW. (2022). *Course delivery preference*. Victoria University of Wellington. https://www.wgtn.ac.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0009/1992744/course-delivery-survey-results.pdf

Wong, J. (2020). ELT in the time of the Coronavirus 2020: Introductory remarks. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*, *2*(2), 1–3. https://doi.org/10.46451/ijts.2020.09.01

Zahawi, N. (2022, January 17). "Face-to-face teaching is a vital part of getting a high-quality student experience": Education Secretary Nadhim Zahawi writes to students. *Blog of the UK Department of Education*. https://educationhub.blog.gov.uk/2022/01/17/face-to-face-teaching-is-a-vital-part-of-getting-a-high-quality-student-experience-education-secretary-nadhim-zahawi-writes-to-students/

Zou, C., Li, P., & Jin, L. (2021). Online college English education in Wuhan against the COVID-19 pandemic: Student and teacher readiness, challenges, and implications. *PLoS ONE*, *16*(10), Article e0258137. https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0258137

Emotional Presence in EFL Students' Virtual Study Abroad Experiences

Yanning Dong
Tsinghua University, Beijing, China

Aika Ishige
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Beppu, Oita, Japan

The long-term impact of the global pandemic on international education makes it imperative to better understand international students' learning experiences in virtual learning contexts. Despite the importance of emotion in online learning (Torres & Evans, 2020), it has received scant attention in the studies on emergency remote teaching (ERT) experiences. Informed by an integrated model of community of inquiry (CoI) and emotional presence (Majeski et al., 2018), this study investigated the roles of emotional presence in ERT and the influential factors by interviewing 12 English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) students who virtually pursued their graduate programs at a Canadian university during the pandemic. Findings of the research show that instructors' emotional perception and understanding played a vital role in shaping students' ERT experiences. Factors such as instructors' approachability, ways of communication, and course design had significant impacts on emotional presence in ERT. Implications for providing effective emotional support are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Emotion is a "complex phenomenon" (O'Regan, 2003, p. 79) and is considered to have a large impact on students' cognition, behavior, motivation, and academic success (Breivik, 2016; Cleveland-Innes & Campbell, 2012). While positive emotions, such as enjoyment, may lead to increased motivation and better attention to learning, negative emotions, such as anxiety and hopelessness, may negatively affect the learning process or even result in academic failures (Cleveland-Innes & Campbell, 2012; Linnenbrink-Garcia & Pekrun, 2011; Pekrun, 2014).

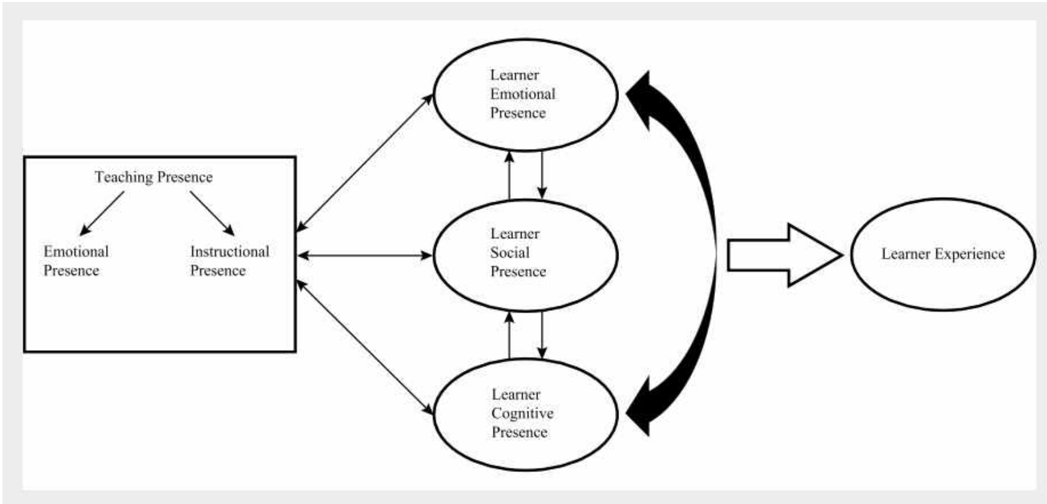
With increased enrollment in online learning programs in recent years, closer attention has been paid to students' online learning experiences. The development of digital technologies creates opportunities for learning regardless of time and space constraints; however, the nature of distance learning also brings challenges that have emotional impacts on online learners' learning process. Various emotional experiences have been identified in previous research, for example, enjoyment, confusion, bewilderment, fear, alienation, anxiety, dislike, and frustration (e.g., Cleveland-Innes & Campbell, 2012; Jiang & Koo, 2020; O'Regan, 2003; Schaller et al., 2002), many of which are associated with negative emotions. Due to a lack of emotional cues, such as facial expressions or eye contact, in online communication, responding to students' emotional needs becomes even more challenging in online learning environments than in face-to-face learning contexts.

In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, many higher education programs had to be offered online although they were initially planned to be offered face-to-face. This particularly unique context, labeled as *emergency remote teaching* (ERT; Hodges et al., 2020), has brought new challenges to international students, many of whom had to study abroad virtually without leaving their home countries. Since 2020, there has been a growing body of literature that explores students' remote learning experiences around the world (e.g., Alawamleh et al., 2020; Gelles et al., 2020; Kovačević et al., 2021; Lambert & Rennie, 2021; Limniou et al., 2021; Makgahlela et al., 2021; Poláková & Klímová, 2021). However, most of the studies have focused on students' ERT teaching and learning experiences. Little attention has been paid specifically to the emotional experiences of students, particularly, international English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) students. In light of the long-term impact of the global pandemic on international education and the essential role of emotions in students' online learning process (Torres & Evans, 2020), this study intended to obtain a comprehensive understanding of international EFL students' emotional presence in their virtual study abroad experiences during the pandemic.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The community of inquiry (CoI) framework (Garrison et al., 2000) is widely used to explore students' online learning experiences. It consists of three components: cognitive presence, social presence, and teaching presence. In this framework, emotional elements are perceived as emotional expressions that are placed under social presence (Garrison et al., 2000). Considering the importance of emotion and its close connection to multiple aspects of teaching and learning, some researchers argue for a broader view of emotional presence. For example, Majeski et al. (2018) have proposed an integrated model of CoI and emotional presence (see Figure 1), where emotional presence is viewed as emotional intelligence that is closely related to instructors' teaching and learners' emotional, social, and cognitive presences.

FIGURE 1. An Integrated Model of CoI and Emotional Presence



Note. From Majeski et al., 2018, p. 59.

In this integrated model, emotional presence is conceptualized as a construct that includes the following four aspects (Majeski et al., 2018, p. 55):

- Emotional perception: the ability to recognize one's own and others' feelings
- Emotional understanding: the ability to grasp why we feel the way we do and how our different feelings relate to each other
- Emotional facilitation: the ability to use emotion to fulfill non-emotional goals by enhancing thinking
- Emotional regulation: the ability to regulate emotions experienced within oneself and expressed in relationships with others

As Majeski et al. (2018) indicated, emotional presence is closely related to instructional presence in many aspects. For example, emotional perception and understanding correlate to how instructors identify learner needs and provide support and guidance; emotional regulation, as well as emotional perception and understanding, relate to how instructors monitor and manage interactions and reflections; and emotional facilitation connects to instructional design, facilitation of learning, and teaching content (Majeski et al., 2018). As this model provides a comprehensive conceptualization of emotional presence and illustrates the potential relationship between emotional presence and the process of teaching and learning, we used this model as the theoretical framework to understand and analyze the research results.

METHOD

With the purpose of investigating the roles of emotional presence in EFL students' ERT learning and the influential factors, we interviewed 12 EFL postgraduate students who virtually pursued their graduate programs at a Canadian university during the pandemic. Most of the participants were from East

Asian countries such as China and Japan. All the participants were from a faculty of education. The majority of them were female students (n = 10, 83%) and were enrolled in an MEd program (n = 9, 75%). Only one participant was pursuing a PhD. All of them enrolled in at least one course during the 2020 winter term, which was the first semester of their graduate program, and took their course(s) remotely while staying in their home countries. Table 1 lists the demographic information of the participants.

TABLE 1. Participant Details

Participant	Location	Degree	Program	Gender	Number of Courses Taken
P1	China	MEd	Language education	F	3
P2	China	MEd	Educational counseling and special education	F	3
P3	China	MA	Language education	M	3
P4	East Asia*	MEd	Language education	F	2
P5	China	MEd	Language education	F	2
P6	China	MEd	Educational counseling and special education	F	2
P7	Japan	MEd	Curriculum and pedagogy	F	2
P8	Nigeria	MEd	Curriculum and pedagogy	M	1
P9	Russia	MA	Educational counseling and special education	F	3
P10	East Asia*	PhD	n/a	F	2
P11	Cambodia	MEd	Education studies	F	2
P12	East Asia*	MEd	Educational counselling and special education	F	3

Note. * P4, P10, and P12 indicated their preference for not disclosing their specific location and nationality.

We used online, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews to collect data. The interviews took place after the students completed their first semester's ERT study in their graduate program. The questions prompted the participants to talk about their virtual study abroad experiences. Informed by Majeski et al.'s (2018) model, we analyzed the interview data and identified emotional presence from the four aspects: emotional perception, emotional understanding, emotional facilitation, and emotional management. The findings are reported and discussed in the following section.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Emotional Perception and Emotional Understanding

Emotional perception and emotional understanding are the abilities to recognize others' feelings and why they feel the way they do (Majeski et al., 2018). It is crucial for instructors to have and present these two elements of emotional presence to their students, in order for the students to "experience a sense of safety and comfort in the online classroom" (Majeski et al., 2018, p. 56). In our study, instructors' approachability and ways of communication played a vital role in fostering a positive emotional presence among the participants.

Instructors' friendly and open gestures positively shaped a safe online learning environment. P8's instructor was successful in creating such an environment by implementing unstratified communication with her students and answering their questions in a warm manner. These gestures made P8 feel that "[he] can ask her any questions without thinking twice" [P8]. P10, who frequently mentioned her concerns about her English, appreciated when one of her instructors called on her and asked questions relatable to her local context. She found her instructor's gestures "very helpful" because she was "not the one to speak first" [P10]. This instructor's approach to putting a spotlight on P10 with the questions that she could answer confidently was effective in presenting the instructor's emotional perception and emotional understanding of P10's challenge in the ERT classroom. P8's and P10's examples illustrate how their instructors consistently made efforts to present their emotional understanding of their students. In contrast, P7's case presents how one gesture made an enormous impact on shaping emotional understanding. When P7 was asked "what are the factors that have influenced your feelings about your instructors' presence during the online teaching," she immediately mentioned the virtual house tour that one of her instructors provided. She said, "one of the instructors was super nice, and they took us on their house tour. By that, we can connect to the instructor more. They showed their cats too and it was really chill" [P7].

Frequent, timely, and personalized communication was another characteristic of the successful approach that instructors took to present their emotional perceptions. P2 felt supported when her instructors responded to her emails quickly despite the time difference, which made her feel that they "were really there for [her]" [P2]. P1 appreciated individual emails that one of her instructors occasionally sent to her to check in "if everything is alright" [P1]. She thought this instructor proactively sent her and some other students emails because "some of [the students] might not be as active as others" [P1]. Likewise, P2 commended her instructor's effort to comment on every single discussion post that students wrote and described her feeling that "it was amazing and I felt very supported" [P2]. In sum, instructors' individualized support and feedback were frequently cited as an indication of their emotional perception and emotional understanding of their students.

In contrast, instructors'lack of attempts to communicate with their students may result in participants' negative emotional experiences. Discussion posts were a weekly assignment assigned in most of the graduate courses across the faculty during the 2020 Winter Term (i.e., when the study was conducted). The presence or lack of instructors' active presence in this collaborative learning space was frequently commented on by the participants intertwined with either their appreciation or frustration toward their instructors. Unlike P2, who was "amazed" [P2] by her instructor who responded to every single post, P4 was frustrated when she did not receive comments from one of her instructors on her discussion and response posts. She felt unsupported by the instructor and the result of "no comment" [P4] made her think her posts were not good enough. The lack of support and acknowledgment from that instructor was intertwined with her consciousness about her linguistic identity as an EFL speaker. This belief negatively influenced her self-assessment of her academic and linguistic performance. She was not satisfied with her posts and described them as something “like a baby one” [P4]. Also, the results show that the participants expected not only frequent instructor feedback on their performance for their course assignments but also timely responses to their questions. P3 emotionally described that one of his instructors did not respond to his email for two to three weeks, saying, “I cannot communicate with you. How can you do so?” [P3]. The data concerning participants’ negative emotional presence seem to suggest that communication between instructors and students in the ERT context had to be sufficient in terms of both frequency and timing for participants to sense emotional understanding from their instructors.

Emotional Facilitation and Emotional Regulation

According to Majeski et al. (2018), emotional facilitation and emotional regulation are closely linked to instructional design and direct instruction. Our study was conducted in the ERT context, which is an unexpected, forced transition from an in-person class to an online one (Hodges et al., 2020). Thus, it is challenging to design a course that effectively facilitates and regulates students’ emotions due to the lack of time to prepare for the course and instructors’ prior knowledge of online teaching. In this context, course designs and course modifications were found to be two major factors that shaped the participants’ emotional management during their online learning.

Successful implementation of emotional facilitation into course designs helped participants persist with challenging learning activities (Majeski et al., 2018). P11 appreciated the way in which one of her instructors divided the course assignments, which “kept [her] motivated to join the course” [P11]. P3 discussed how differently his instructors’ course designs informed him of their presence. While one course was so interactive that it made him feel like the instructor was “talking to him” [P3], another course instructor left the impression that she merely presented *her* demands to the students. He said,

> The expectation [of the course] is clear but it is not related to my learning experience...why should I learn this model, that is the course goal but how can I apply these theories to research or practice? ... Her emphasis is on us than her. My expectation, I want you to do something, I want you to do. ... Clare [pseudonym] did not know what our real feelings are. [P3]

P3’s experiences and feelings illustrate how differently course designs can have an impact on emotional facilitation and regulation. In terms of the format of online ocurses, P4 said that she was more critical of asynchronous course design than synchronous design because in the former, “students are lonely and isolated, so I think it’s difficult to keep themselves motivated” [P4]. Furthermore, asynchronous courses are more “encouraging” when they are “visually well designed [with] tables, pictures, and videos [instead of] many many articles” [P4].

As well, additional or modified instructions were viewed as forms of efficacious emotional facilitation. Many participants commended their instructors' assignment modifications during the semester (e.g., an extension of deadlines, reducing assignment loads). These adjustments were perceived as a sign of instructors' emotional understanding of their students and effective facilitation of their learning. In addition to course content, some instructors offered supplementary resources that were successful in motivating their students. For example, P2 commented on the YouTube videos that one of her instructors shared in class. The videos were "lectures and promotion of organizations working in the field" and they helped her keep motivated as they showed her "the real value of [her] work." After class, P2 continued to look for and watch videos like the ones shared by the instructor to make herself conscious of how her future work could impact the students and thus boost her morale during the ERT learning. This finding supports Majeski et al.'s (2018) suggestion of using activities that help learners understand the value of their learning. It seems that, in addition to learning activities, a careful selection of relevant learning resources could also help achieve that goal.

Conclusions

This study investigated the roles of emotional presence in EFL students' ERT experiences during the pandemic and the influential factors. It is a timely response to our prior studies (Dong & Ishige, 2022a, 2022b), which have revealed the complexity of international students' emotional experiences during their ERT learning and the necessity to investigate the correlation between teaching and emotional presences by using Majeski et al.'s (2018) framework. The findings of this study show that instructors' emotional presence – especially emotional perception and emotional understanding – played a vital role in shaping the participants' ERT experiences. Factors such as instructors' approachability, ways of communication, and course design had significant impacts on emotional presence during ERT learning. The findings seem to further suggest that the discrepancies between how much and how often the participants desired to communicate with their instructors and the ways instructors responded to their expectations in reality resulted in participants' positive or negative emotional experiences. Course designs and adjustments informed the participants of their instructors' emotional understanding and facilitated their learning in the stressful ERT context. On the contrary, the absence of emotional perception, emotional understanding, and emotional facilitation led to the participants' negative emotions, such as demotivation and frustration.

Although instructors might presume that clear instructions and course designs suffice their teaching presence, international students who were pursuing a virtual study abroad program during the pandemic appeared to expect and seek more support, especially emotional support. Although the degree of support expected from students may vary, the keys to successful emotional support relate closely to the establishment of a sense of safety and comfort in the online learning space and the implementation of motivating and encouraging course designs.

This study has focused on international graduate students' ERT learning experiences during the pandemic; nevertheless, the findings can be possibly generalized to other groups of online learners during and beyond the pandemic. It also has practical implications for teacher training and future online learning designs. The study clearly reveals the imperative need for instructors to understand how their design of courses and virtual learning spaces may greatly influence how they affect their students' emotional experiences and how they may be able to respond to students' emotional needs. As Torres et al. (2022) suggested, "a conscious effort" (p. 101) should be made to establish an emotional presence online. The factors identified in this study, which have positively or negatively influenced students' emotional experiences have shed light on how the "conscious effort" should be made. The study also serves as a timely reminder of envisioning post-pandemic online learning designs that should be constructed based on effective mechanisms, creating multiple channels for better perception, understanding, facilitation, and regulation of online learners' emotions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study was supported by the Department of Language and Literacy Education (LLED), University of British Columbia.

THE AUTHORS

Yanning Dong is a lecturer at Tsinghua University. She holds a PhD in TESL from the University of British Columbia. Her research interests include teaching English as a second language, second language writing, critical thinking, international education, and English for academic purposes. When this study was conducted, she was a lecturer at the Department of Language and Literacy Education (LLED), Faculty of Education, UBC. Email: dongyn@mail.tsinghua.edu.cn

Aika Ishige is a lecturer at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan. She holds an MA in TESL from the University of British Columbia. Her research interests include language learner identity, language ideology, and international education. Her MA thesis investigated Japanese English language learners' study abroad experience in the Philippines. When this study was conducted, she was an MA student at the Department of Language and Literacy Education (LLED), Faculty of Education, UBC. Email: aishige@apu.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Alawamleh, M., Al-Twait, L. M., & Al-Saht, G. R. (2020). The effect of online learning on communication between instructors and students during COVID-19 pandemic. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, *11*(2), 380–400. https://doi.org/10.1108/AEDS-06-2020-0131

Breivik, J. (2016). Critical thinking in online educational discussions measured as progress through inquiry phases: A discussion of the cognitive presence construct in the community of inquiry framework. *International Journal of E-Learning and Distance Education*, *31*(1). https://hdl.handle.net/10037/10768

Cleveland-Innes, M., & Campbell, P. (2012). Emotional presence, learning, and the online learning environment. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, *13*(4), 269–292. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v13i4.1234

Dong, Y., & Ishige, A. (2022a). Studying abroad from home: An exploration of international graduate students' perceptions and experiences of emergency remote teaching. *Education Sciences*, *12*(2), Article 98. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci12020098

Dong, Y., & Ishige, A. (2022b). Teaching presence in the context of emergency remote teaching: Exploring international students' study abroad experience. *Proceedings of INTED2022* (pp. 5533–5340). IATED. https://doi.org/10.21125/inted.2022.1424

Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer, W. (2000). Critical inquiry in a text-based environment: Computer conferencing in higher education. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *2*(2/3), 87–105.

Gelles, L. A., Lord, S. M., Hoople, G. D., Chen, D. A., & Mejia, J. A. (2020). Compassionate flexibility and self-discipline: Student adaptation to emergency remote teaching in an integrated engineering energy course during COVID-19. *Education Sciences*, *10*(11), 304. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci10110304

Hodges, C., Moore, S., Lockee, B., Trust, T., & Bond, A. (2020, March 27). *The difference between emergency remote teaching and online learning*. EDUCAUSE Review. https://er.educause.edu/articles/2020/3/the-difference-between-emergency-remote-teaching-and-online-learning

Jiang, M., & Koo, K. (2020). Emotional presence in building an online learning community among non-traditional graduate students. *Online Learning*, *24*(2), 93–111.

Kovačević, I., Labrović, J. A., Petrović, N., & Kužet, I. (2021). Recognizing predictors of students' emergency remote online learning satisfaction during COVID-19. *Education Sciences*, *11*(11), Article 693. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11110693

Lambert, C. G., & Rennie, A. E. (2021). Experiences from COVID-19 and emergency remote teaching for entrepreneurship education in engineering programmes. *Education Sciences*, *11*(6), Article 282. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11060282

Limniou, M., Varga-Atkins, T., Hands, C., & Elshamaa, M. (2021). Learning, student digital capabilities and academic performance over the COVID-19 pandemic. *Education Sciences*, *11*(7), Article 361. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11070361

Linnenbrink-Garcia, L., & Pekrun, R. (2011). Student emotions and academic engagement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *36*(1), 1–3. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2010.11.004

Lopes, A. P., & Soares, F. (2022). *Online distance learning course design and multimedia in e-learning*. Information Science Reference.

Majeski, R. A., Stover, M., & Valais, T. (2018). The community of inquiry and emotional presence. *Adult Learning*, *29*(2), 53–61.

Makgahlela, M., Mothiba, T. M., Mokwena, J. P., & Mphekgwana, P. (2021). Measures to enhance student learning and well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic: Perspectives of students from a historically disadvantaged university. *Education Sciences*, *11*(5), Article 212. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11050212

Marchand, G. C., & Gutierrez, A. P. (2012). The role of emotion in the learning process: Comparisons between online and face-to-face learning settings. *Internet and Higher Education*, *15*, 150–160.

O'Regan, K. (2003). Emotion and e-learning. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, *7*(3), 78–92.

Pekrun, R. (2014). *Emotions and learning*. Educational Practices Series.

Poláková, P., & Klímová, B. (2021). The perception of Slovak students on distance online learning in the time of coronavirus: A preliminary study. *Education Sciences*, *11*(2), Article 81. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11020081

Schaller, D., Allison-Bunnell, S., Borun, M., & Chambers, M. (2002). *How do you like to learn? Comparing user preferences and visit length of educational web sites* [Paper presentation]. The Museums and the Web Conference, Boston, MA, USA. http://www.eduweb.com/likelearn.html

Torres, I., & Evans, J. (2020). Emotion and online learning. In D. Schmidt-Crawford

(Ed.), *Proceedings of Society for Information Technology and Teacher Education International Conference* (pp. 330–333). Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE). https://www.learntechlib.org/primary/p/216018/

Torres, I., Statti, A., & Torres, M. K. (2022). Emotion and online learning. In A. Lopes & F. Soares (Eds.), *Online distance learning course design and multimedia in e-learning* (pp. 81–103). Information Science Reference.

Reviewing Narrow Reading for Incorporating Informal Learning into Classrooms

Hsiu Pin Cheng
Chung Yuan Christian University, ZhongLi, ROC

In this digital age, when students have easy access to the many online learning options outside classrooms, the choice of materials for classroom teaching and the role of teachers have become a question worth re-considering. To explore a possible incorporation of informal language learning (ILL) into classroom teaching, this paper reviewed a framework of ILL and revisited the concept of narrow reading, based on which the application of narrow reading with authentic materials was proposed and attested by a corpus-based vocabulary frequency check of selected narrow reading (NR) and non-narrow reading (NNR) real-life media articles. The results showed that NR authentic reading articles are better at yielding a vocabulary recycling rate that meets the lexical learning threshold within an article-length suitable for classrooms. It is also suggested that, as a response to the prevailing ILL, it is desirable that classroom teaching switch to being student-centered, allowing students greater control of their learning.

Introduction

In this digital age, students have many options for learning languages outside the classroom. With simply a mobile device, such as a smartphone, or a computer with an internet connection, learners can find themselves readily exposed to language input in a wide variety of forms (Kukulska-Hulme & Lee, 2019). With such a growing prevalence of tech-induced informal language learning (ILL) opportunities and the increasingly blurred boundaries between informal and formal language learning, there has thus been an unavoidable question for classroom-based formal education language teachers (Hubbard, 2019; Odo, 2019). That is, should they respond to the current ILL trend? If so, how? The following literature review contains a discussion on the rise of ILL and why it should not be ignored. Also, a review of the theoretical framework proposed by Alice Chik (2019) leads to a proposal of how ILL could possibly be incorporated into formal teaching.

Literature Review

Informal Language Learning

The Rise of Informal Language Learning and How It Has Been Eating into Formal Language Learning

Although it is neither possible nor necessary to define a specific point in time as to when informal language learning (ILL) started, a learner literally can embark on their own journey of foreign language learning when equipped with access to adequate resources. This process has been accelerated by the constantly evolving technology. Formal language teaching now faces enormous challenges, including authority, accessibility, and motivation, to mention just a few.

Formal foreign language teaching is typically curriculum-based and textbook-reliant. Teachers adopt teaching methods that they believe, based on their professional background, are the most suitable and effective. However, what can really happen in classrooms is that more and more there seems to be a mismatch between what students deem to be helpful and the strategies initiated by the teachers (Bernaus & Gardener, 2008; Cheng & Dornyei, 2007; Glas, 2016; Guilloteaux 2013). When students despise what is offered to them in the classroom, not only can the authorities of such formal teaching be undermined but also the students' learning motivations can be further reduced. With the many choices outside the classrooms, students can easily turn away and resort to alternative online resources to find whatever attracts or motivates themselves, even though such learning may be neither systematic nor sustainable. Also, in terms of teaching or training objectives, a student can be demotivated by the demanding writing tasks of academic essays. While at the same the time, they can readily get indulged in studying and trying to keep in mind the lyrics of pop songs, which, very unfortunately, is more likely to be considered as a more effective language learning tool by learners (Benson, 2015). To even further add to this formal vs. informal language learning crisis, it cannot be neglected that even today not all language learners are provided with full access to formal teaching. The factors behind this can be complex, including economic, social, and even war-induced matters.

To wrap up, there are many triggering factors that lead the trend of informal language learning, and now, regardless of whether the trend is positive or negative, the fact is that language learners have been diverted from a formal to an informal mode (Boo et al., 2015; Chik, 2019). It is thus inescapable for formal language teachers to understand the changing language learning landscape outside the classroom so that they can devise a positive and constructive way to respond to it (Chik, 2019).

A Theoretical Framework for ILL and Its Implications

Based on previous research (Benson, 2011; Chick, 2014, 2018), a five-dimensional framework has been compiled to theorize the construct of informal language learning and to provide a guideline for relevant academic discussions (Chik, 2019).

The five proposed dimensions cover location, formality, pedagogy, locus of control, and trajectory. Although this structure was originally devised to frame the discussion of informal language learning, when applied to both informal and formal language learning, it helps to reveal possible common ground where the two can be integrated.

To apply the ILL framework in a simplified way, it can be noted that informal and formal language learning are quite different in the context where they occur, i.e., *location*. The former is typically associated with natural occurrences while the latter normally occurs with structured effort. In terms of *formality*, ILL is driven and fueled by the learner's personal interests and choice. In contrast, learners attend formal language learning most likely for formal qualifications or degrees. Regarding the other two dimensions, *locus of control* and *trajectory*, both of them indicate a high level of learner control over the extent to which learning can go and over the developmental process of the learning. Unlike ILL, in formal language learning, learning objectives are definitely the teacher's responsibility, under some designated curriculum. Also, teachers are in charge of the diverse evaluations along the way, allowing them to keep the learning on the right track. It is clear from the above four dimensions that informal and formal language learning largely differ in the ownership of learning. "Learner controlled" describes the former well, while the latter is more reliant on "teacher control."

Despite a distinct difference between informal and formal language leaning on the above four dimensions, the *pedagogy* construct, containing learning material and instruction, shows a highly blurred area between them. If inspected from the ownership aspect, even in the informal mode, neither learning material nor instruction fall fully under the learner's control. Take Duolingo as an example (Chik, 2019). As a well-received online informal language learning platform, Duolingo offers learning material designed by the developer. Also, the site organizes a user community where users can communicate and exchange information. In this social learning group of users, language-oriented instruction can occur among learners. Such instructions can be random, but they can also be well-structured if it is from more advanced learners, a feature of social learning media where user communities are set up (Chik, 2019). In other words, it is possible for manipulated materials and a certain level of structured instruction to be used in ILL.

The implication here is that who owns the learning process is a crucial factor that largely indicates the level of formality. ILL provides learners greater control of their own learning while formal learning is mainly framed in a certain curriculum and led by the teacher. The pedagogical aspect, based on the above reviewed ILL framework, offers common ground where a bridge can be built between informal and formal language learning, allowing ILL to be incorporated into classrooms. A bridge could be built when teacher control retreats to a back-seat role, providing tailored learning material to ensure that learning is on the right track while giving learners the control to steer their learning.

A Revisit to Narrow Reading and Its Effect on Vocabulary Acquisition

Narrow reading was put forward in response to the teaching practice of the time. Back then, students were requested to read short collections of literature, but this approach turned out to be quite ineffective since with such an approach, struggling learners remained struggling. Then the concept of narrow reading was proposed based on the narrow reading hypothesis that books written by the same author rather than different authors could be more effective in improving reading ability (Krashen, 1981; Lamme, 1976). It was believed that reading articles on the same topic or by the same author could better facilitate learning, rather than reading assorted and non-related collections. Since its proposal, studies have been conducted, and positive evidence has been accumulating in support of the facilitating role of using narrow reading in improving reading ability in general (Chang & Millett, 2017; Cho et al., 2005; Cho & Krashen, 1994; Krashen, 2004; Redmer, 2019). Many of these studies focus on reading comprehension and reading speed.

Regarding vocabulary acquisition, one early attempt was a study where a thematically related series of readers was used. Adult ESL students, that is, learners of English as a second language, were reported to have become more keen readers after reading the series of readers. Meanwhile, a similar vocabulary gain was revealed among students who used and those who didn't use a dictionary during the reading, indicating that it was possible that reading alone, without explicit instruction, could lead to vocabulary learning (Krashen, 1996). EFL students, learners who learned English as a foreign language, were also found to be able to benefit from reading themed novels. These students demonstrated significant gains in vocabulary learning as well as reading comprehension (Krashen, 2005). In addition, a case study with an advanced EFL learner revealed how narrow reading improved reading ability and vocabulary learning during a long-term process. The result of this rare longitudinal study helped further confirm the effectiveness of narrow reading in vocabulary gains (Lee, 2019).

Relay studies were conducted to further explore how narrow reading affects vocabulary learning. One such study analyzed nine running newspaper articles. These articles were from a series of reports of the incident of Princess Diana's death (Schmitt & Carter, 2000). All these articles were converted into a word file with a total word count of 7,844. Word types as well as word re-occurrence were examined and compared with articles from different topics but with a similar word count. It was found that the Diana series contained fewer word types with a higher recurrence rate. This study concluded that narrow reading, using newspaper articles with the same topic, offered a lower word load but a higher recurrence rate, and this led to word learning.

In another study, where a corpus-based analysis was applied, children's article reading behavior was investigated (Gardner, 2008). Four sets of articles were chosen under the same topic. The four sets contained two types of articles: narrative and expository articles. For both narrative and expository articles, articles by a single writer as well as ones with different authors were selected. The findings of this study confirmed that narrow reading did have the advantage of providing a high vocabulary recycling rate. And the recycling rate of a word was dependent on both article type and authorship. For narrative articles, authorship had a stronger influence on vocabulary recycling, while for expository articles, the topic was a major factor in predicting vocabulary recycling.

Overall, the findings of these narrow reading studies clearly support a facilitating role of narrow reading in vocabulary acquisition.

This Study

These insightful studies helped provide some explanation of how narrow reading facilitates vocabulary acquisition. But if checked from the pedagogical aspect, the materials used in these studies were mainly graded readers, which are designed to be complementary to certain curriculum and inaccessible to the average learner. Only one set of themed newspaper articles, the Diana reports, was analyzed, and this was definitely not a sufficient reflection of authentic media articles that learners encounter in their daily lives. Also, in terms of vocabulary acquisition, an average of fourteen meetings with a word, and a minimum of six, is considered to be a requirement of vocabulary learning (Gardner, 2008; Herman et al., 1987; Saragi et al., 1978; Zahar et al., 2001).

To explore the possibility of bringing a sense of informal language learning into classroom-based learning, this study proposed an application of the concept of narrow reading to authentic media articles, materials that are easily accessible to ordinary learners. Two sets of narrow reading articles were chosen, together with two sets of non-narrow reading articles. The hypothesis here was that narrow reading sets could create a desired condition for vocabulary learning to occur by offering a vocabulary recycling rate that meets the proposed vocabulary threshold for vocabulary learning.

METHOD

Materials

Four sets of newspaper articles were chosen with four different topics. The material selection criteria included topics, newspapers, and length of articles.

In terms of topics, the criteria included (a) an avoidance of topics that had been causing great controversies in society and therefore might cause conflicts or unintentional offenses among learners, and (b) for one single topic, there were at least three articles available, either from the same newspaper or across newspapers.

In terms of newspapers, since the current study took place in Taiwan with local adult students as potential target learners, both local papers and international papers were included to represent the real-life newspaper reading of the target learners. For the local newspaper, the *Taiwan News* was chosen because it was one of the very few local English papers. For international newspapers, *BBC News* was chosen as the major source because it was intended for an international audience, and it was thus supposed that it would provide a linguistically good sample of formal English language usage.

In terms of article length, all sets were managed to be of the same general length: 1500 words. This length trim was also adopted in related previous research (Gardner, 2008), which was to ensure the comparability of vocabulary recycling rate among the reading sets.

With the above criteria, two topics were finally selected from the areas of business and weather, namely, *e-bikes* (electronic bikes), and *bushfires*, and for the two non-themed articles, business and social topics were selected (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. List of Four Newspaper Article Sets

Narrow Reading Sets		Non-narrow Reading Sets	
E-Bike series 3 articles www.taiwannews.com	*Bushfire* series 4 articles www.bbc.com www.cnn.com www.staff.co.nz	3 articles about local subway, travel, and bookstores www.taiwannews.com	3 articles about sleep, jobs, and robots www.bbc.com

Data Analysis

Once the four sets were selected, they were all converted into four separate word files. First, all content words were checked for their recycling rate in the set. Linguistically, content words refer to the “open” class, where it is possible for new words to be added constantly. They are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in terms of part of speech. In contrast, function words are pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, etc., which are also commonly referred to as the “closed” class, since there is no room for new words in this class. In this step, function words were excluded for the reason that they occupied the top rankings on the frequency list of vocabulary. For example, according to the free frequency list provided by Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), out of the top 50 vocabulary items, only 5 are content words, with the remaining 45 being function words. These five content words are *say*, *go*, *get*, *make*, and *know*, ranked 19th, 35th, 39th, 45th, and 47th, respectively. Even these five content words are polysemous verbs, meaning that they can have different meanings in different collocations or contexts. Since function words make up such a large proportion of the high-frequency words on the list, they were not used as target vocabulary in this study. As a result, this study focused on the counting of content words, namely, nouns, including proper nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Second, after these content words were counted, a list was generated based on how many times each content word appeared in its set, and the list was arranged from highest recycling rate to lowest recycling rate.

Third, this list was further analyzed via the website Compleat Lexical Tutor, developed by Cobb (2007, 2015), which was intended for research-related vocabulary analysis and tests. Through this website, major corpora are accessible for a word-frequency check. For the current study, the British National Corpus (BNC) was used because the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) is used as a major media source for reading materials. The BNC is based on 100 million contemporary British English words, which represents a wide range of authentic uses of the language. Therefore, this corpus is believed to make a good paradigm for a comparison of the recycling rates collected from the four authentic newspaper article sets in this study.

RESULTS

Vocabulary Recycling Rates in Narrow and Non-narrow Reading Sets

There were four sets of reading materials in this study. The two narrow reading (NR) sets were about e-bikes and bushfires. The former set was a series of three running stories from the same local newspaper, and the latter was a series of three concurrent stories from three different newspapers. The other two sets were non-narrow reading (NNR) sets taken from local and international newspapers, largely covering business and social topics. The vocabulary recycling rates collected from the four newspaper article sets are shown in Table 2. Taking the first row as an example and starting from the left column in the e-bike set, there was 1 word that appeared 21 times in the set, and 1 word that appeared 20 times. For recycling rates of 12, 11, 10 and 9 times, the corresponding number of words were 2, 1, 1, and 1. There were 4 words that appeared 7 times, and 7 words 6 times. In total, 81 content words appeared more than once in this set, among which 18 words recycled 6 or more times, i.e., the vocabulary threshold.

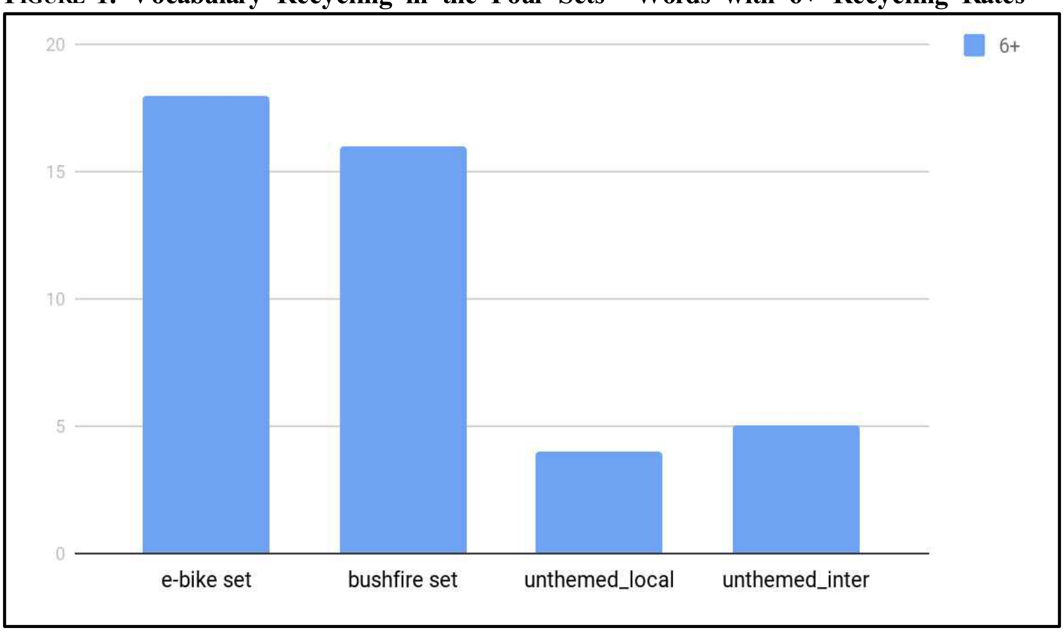
TABLE 2. Vocabulary Recycling Collected from the Four Newspaper Article Sets

Set	Recycling Rate															
	21	20	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	6+/total
NR: e-bike	1	1			2	1	1	1		4	7	3	7	15	38	18/81
NR: bushfire			2				2	2	1	4	5	1	6	19	29	16/71
NNR: local					1					1	2	4	7	20	46	4/81
NNR: international				1			1	1			2	1	1	13	45	5/65

Overall, the total numbers of word families that recycled more than once in the set were quite similar across the four sets. The e-bike set had 81 word families that recycled more than once. The bushfire set had a total of 71. The two NNR sets contained 81 and 65 word families which recycled more than once.

Based on the claim that six times was considered as a lexical threshold for vocabulary learning, the word families that recycled six times or more were further calculated. The e-bike set had 18 word families overall in this category. The bushfire set had a similar number: 16. In comparison, the two NNR sets had notably fewer word families with a recycling rate of 6 or greater. The local newspaper set contained 4 while the international set had 5. This result is further illustrated in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1. Vocabulary Recycling in the Four Sets – Words with 6+ Recycling Rates



When the number of word families with a recycling rate of six or more (6+) was divided by the total number of word families that recycled in the sets, the results showed the percentage of the 6+ group to the total number. For the e-bike set, 18 (6+ group) was divided by 81, giving 22.2%; the bushfire set was 22.5%. The local and international sets were 0.05% and 0.76%, respectively.

In sum, the two NR sets had a noticeably higher recycling rate compared to the NNR sets. In terms of recycling rate, the two NR sets displayed an overall similar recycling ability. In comparison, the two NNR sets did not show as strong a vocabulary recycling ability as the two NR sets.

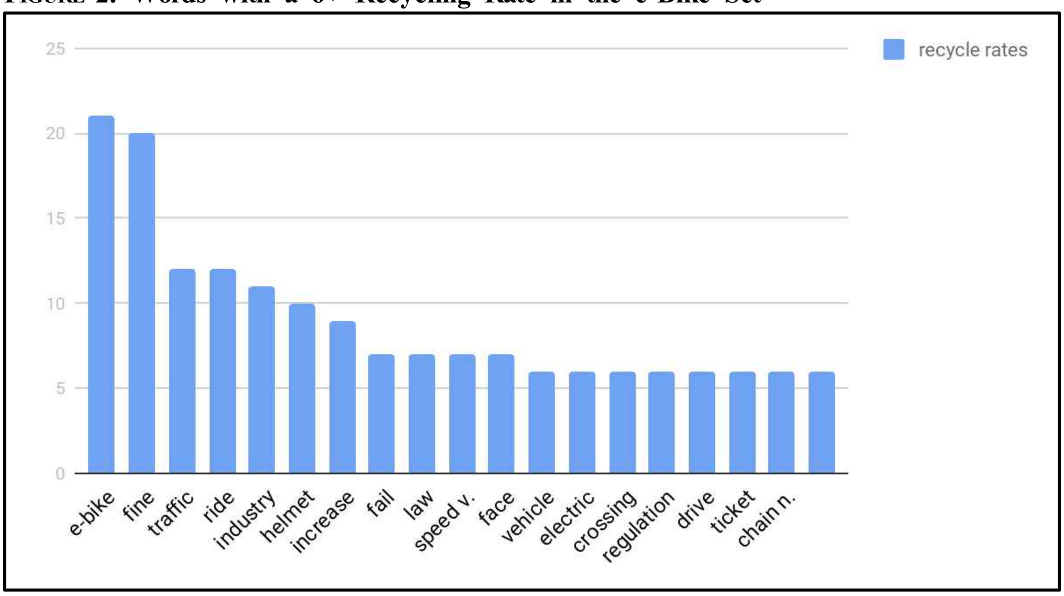
A Comparison with the BNC Word Frequency Check

In this section, the analysis focuses on the words that had a 6+ recycling rate in the two NR sets. Words with a 6+ recycling rate for the e-bike set are displayed in Figure 2, while those in the brushfire set are displayed in Figure 3. These recycling rates were further compared with the BNC word frequency check (see Figures 4 and 5).

Vocabulary Recycling Rate in the NR Sets

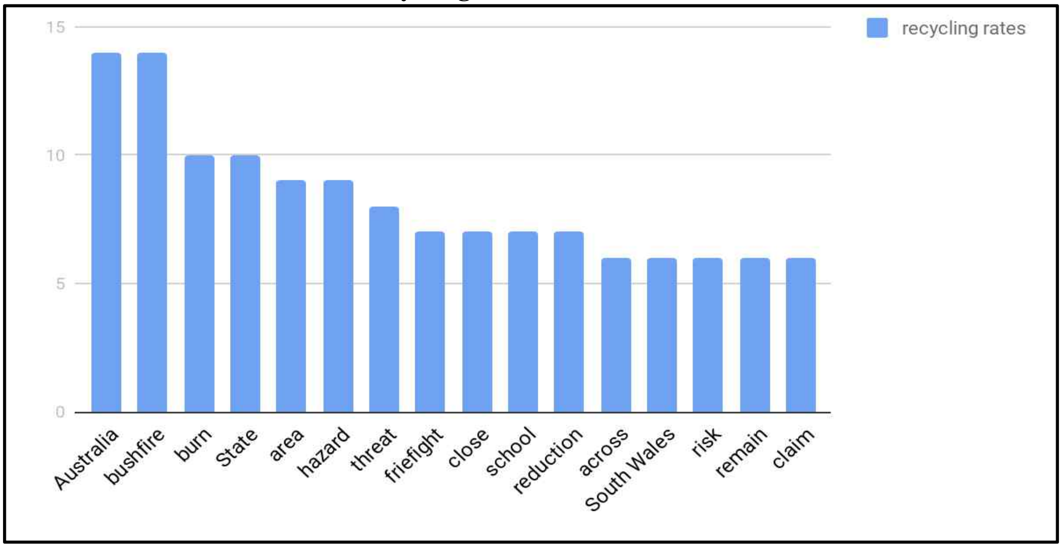
Figure 2 shows the words with a 6+ recycling rate in the e-bike set. Words with the highest recycling rates were *e-bike* and *fine*. *Fine* was used as a content word here, with a meaning referring to the money or penalty one had to pay for traffic offenses. It was obvious that the two words were very closely related to the theme e-bike.

FIGURE 2. Words with a 6+ Recycling Rate in the e-Bike Set



Similarly, Figure 3 displays the words with a 6+ recycling rate in the bushfire set. The words with the highest recycling rates were *Australia*, *bushfire*, *burn*, and *State*. *State* in this set referred to a district in Australia. Again, these high-frequency words in the set were apparently theme specific.

FIGURE 3. Words with a 6+ Recycling Rate in the Bushfire Set

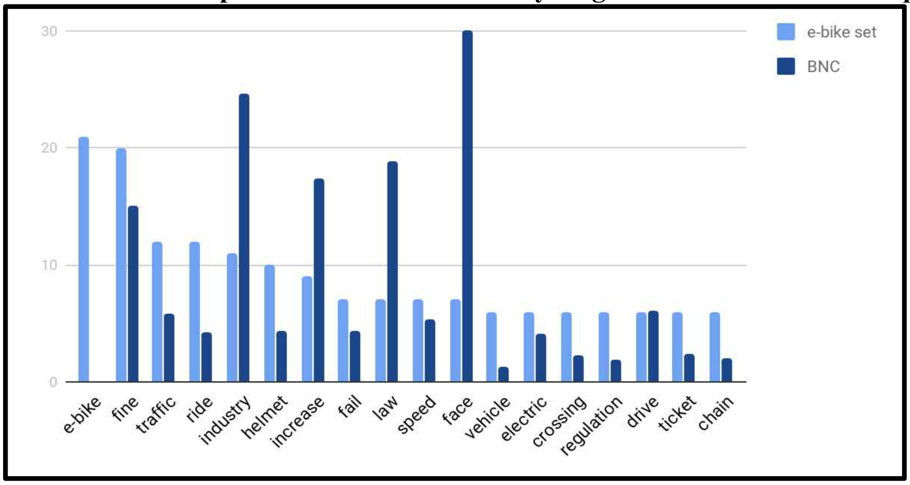


A Comparison of the Vocabulary Recycling Rate Between the NR Sets and the BNC

When these words were checked in the BNC for frequency, the results however showed a different pattern in terms of word recycling (see Figures 4 and 5).

Figure 4 illustrates a comparison between the vocabulary recycling rate in the e-bike set and the BNC word frequency check. For each vocabulary item at the bottom, the x-axis, there were two bars. The left bar indicates how many times the vocabulary item appeared in the e-bike set, while the right bar indicates the number of times it appeared in the BNC. This graph was arranged in this way in order to show a more clear comparison in a simple manner. Otherwise, if the recycling rate was shown based on percentages, i.e., how many times a vocabulary item appeared in the set or the BNC divided by the overall size of the set or the BNC, which had word sizes of 1,500 words and 1 million, respectively, the result would be complex and unnecessary due to the large numerical differences between the two sets. Take *helmet* as an example. In the e-bike set, it appeared 10 times. This led to a rate of 0.0066, i.e., 10 divided by 1,500. In the BNC, *helmet* appeared only twice, and that translated into a rate of 0.000002. This is the reason why Figure 4 and Figure 5 applied recycling times rather than percentages to demonstrate comparison.

FIGURE 4. A Comparison of the e-Bike Recycling Rate and the BNC Frequency Check

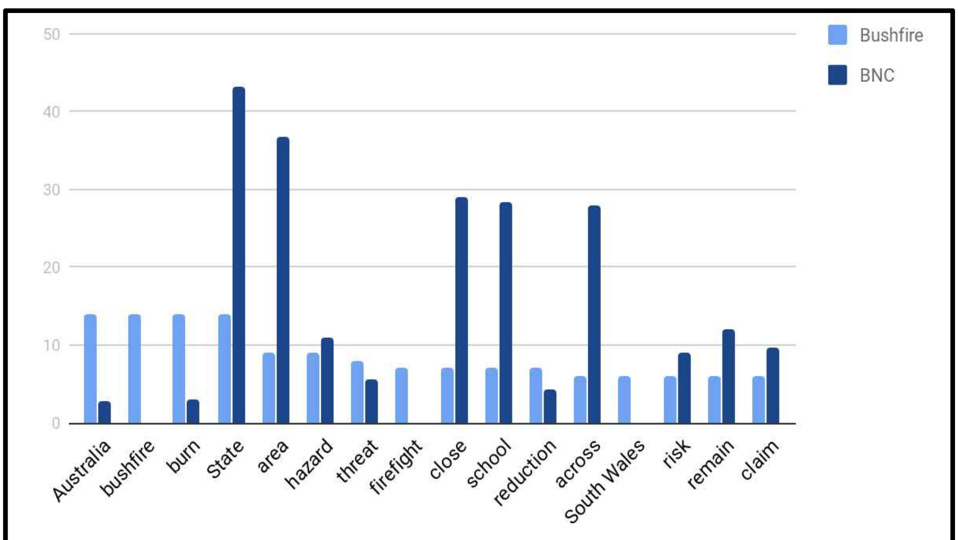


As shown in Figure 4, the words *industry*, *increase*, *law*, and *face* recycled more times in the BNC, a representative of general British English use. In the e-bike set, while these words were also on the most recycled word list, they did not have as strong a recycling rate as they did in the BNC.

Interestingly, these words *helmet*, *vehicle*, and *regulation*, which were apparently tightly related to the theme e-bike, showed a considerably higher recycling rate in the e-bike set than in the BNC. In other words, these words appeared more frequently in narrow reading than they did in general English reading, a simulation of natural daily reading context.

In sum, Figure 4 shows that vocabulary recycled differently in narrow reading and in the BNC. Words with a very low recycling rate in the BNC, such as *ride*, *helmet*, *vehicle*, *crossing*, and *regulation*, were able to recycle more times in the narrow reading e-bike set. These words were all closely related to the theme e-bike.

FIGURE 5. A Comparison of the Bushfire Recycling Rate with the BNC Frequency Check



Similar to Figure 4, Figure 5 illustrates a comparison between vocabulary recycling rates in the bushfire set and the BNC. The words *State*, *area*, *close*, *school*, and *across* were high-frequency words in both the bushfire set and the BNC, and their recycling rates were much higher in the BNC. Regarding the words *bushfire*, *burn*, *threat*, and *reduction*, their recycling rates were significantly higher in the narrow reading set than in the BNC.

Overall, similar to Figure 4, Figure 5 also shows a difference in terms of vocabulary recycling between the narrow reading set and the BNC. Again, words that did not appear frequently in the BNC, such as *bushfire*, *burn*, *threat*, and *reduction* enjoyed a comparatively higher recycling rate in the narrow reading set.

Discussion

Narrow reading is believed to be able to facilitate both reading comprehension and vocabulary learning (Chang & Millett, 2017; Cho et al., 2005; Gardner, 2008; Krashen, 2004; Lee, 2019; Redmer, 2019; Schmitt & Carter, 2000). This study helps to provide more specific evidence that more exactly describes how narrow reading can influence word learning in terms of vocabulary recycling rate.

Regarding narrow reading, the results of this study suggest that narrow reading does offer an ideal format for theme-related vocabulary to recycle. The two NR sets produced much higher word recycling rates compared to the two NNR sets (see Figure 1). This finding echoes previous research in which the power of themes in collecting theme-related words was investigated (Gardner, 2008; Schmitt & Carter, 2000). This study further shows that themes play a vital role in raising the recycling rate of words closely related to the themes and that the manipulation of themes, i.e., narrow reading, can make authentic materials into quality reading material for language learning.

Regarding vocabulary recycling rate, the results of this study show that vocabulary recycle differently in narrow reading compared to their natural recycling in general English use. The NR sets in this study showed an ability to alter the natural recycling rate and thus create a more desirable recycling rate for vocabulary learning. This is particularly important with words that do not appear frequently in natural contexts. For one thing, these words can be given priority in teaching and learning, since learners are not likely to meet them frequently enough in natural reading. In addition, it is quite difficult for learners to meet these words at least six times, i.e., the lexical threshold (Saragi et al., 1978; Zahar et al., 2001), in natural contexts. In this regard, narrow reading, as evidenced in this study, is a feasible and effective solution to vocabulary learning.

Implications and Conclusions

With technology, it has been an increasing and irresistible trend for learners to resort to the abundant, varied, and ready available input sources outside classrooms. ILL attracts learners by providing them with a higher level of control over their own learning. It is now imperative for teachers to understand the ILL context and respond to it accordingly.

A review of the ILL framework in this study indicates that one possible response is for classroom teaching to move from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness, granting students increased ownership of learning. It could be a good starting point for teachers to use authentic materials and use classroom activities to cultivate learners' self-learning abilities to transform them into better ILL learners.

To support the feasibility of this point, this study revisited the concept of narrow reading. The results of the study suggest that manipulating themes, i.e., employing narrow reading, be a vital factor in managing authentic newspaper articles for the purpose of vocabulary learning and thus provide clear implications for classroom teaching. Two NR sets in this study have a base word count of 1,500 per set, and in them, an average 22% of the words recycle 6 or more times. With adult learners, if using TOEFL reading articles as a reference, the average article length would be 700 words, which is expected to take students 10 to 13 minutes to read and complete comprehension questions. Therefore, if authentic newspaper articles are used as complementary reading and an average length of 700 words of reading is provided for learners each time, it is estimated that 10% of the words in the reading will meet the lexical threshold of 6 appearances. This could be used as a basic reference when authentic newspaper articles are to be used in classroom settings with a teaching objective of vocabulary learning.

As for the teacher's role, to add an informal sense and increase learners' motivation, a reduction in the teacher's explicit control is desirable. It is advisable for the teacher's control over learning recede to the background, allowing students to occupy center-stage. In regard to the formality and pedagogy aspects, teachers work as organizers, sorting out suitable NR sets that fit into the curriculum, allowing students to freely choose from the provided sets. As for the trajectory aspect, teachers act as an evaluator and a monitor to ensure that the learning progresses towards the established teaching objective. Also, although narrow reading is not a new concept in teaching and learning, revitalizing this concept in an attempt to fuse informal and formal language learning is still meaningful. If teachers could use limited class time to inform adult learners and cultivate them with the NR reading habit, they would definitely benefit.

When it comes to limitations, this study would have been able to produce more statistically significant data on vocabulary recycling rate had it applied a wider range of reading articles, both in terms of word count and themes. In addition, this study is based on the six-time lexical threshold. It has to be noted that this threshold itself is an estimate. This leaves room for further research to look into vocabulary recycling rate based on higher estimates.

As learners' attention has been glowingly drawn away from formal learning (Chik, 2019; Hubbard, 2019; Odo, 2019), instead of ignoring this irresistible trend, classroom-based teachers need to seriously consider common ground where students can be academically inspired without sacrificing curriculum goals. Further research is hereby called for, so as to explore and define areas where formal language learning and informal learning can complement each other.

The Author

Hsiu P. Cheng is a lecturer in the Department of Applied Linguistics and Language Studies at Chung Yuan Christian University in Zhongli, ROC, and a PhD candidate in the Department of English at Tamkang University in New Taipei City, ROC. Her research interests include SLA, vocabulary acquisition, teaching speaking and writing for academic purposes, and EMI. She has published articles on vocabulary acquisition, metaphorical mapping in vocabulary learning, and EMI. Email: maggiezxb@gmail.com

References

Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, student perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(3), 387–401.

Boo, Z., Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). L2 motivation research 2005–2014: Understanding a publication surge and a changing landscape. *System*, *55*, 145–157.

Chang, C. S., & Millett, S. (2017). Narrow reading: Effects on EFL learners' reading speed, comprehension, and perceptions. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *29*(1), 1–19.

Cheng, H. F., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *1*(1), 153–174.

Chik, A. (2014). Digital gaming and language learning: Autonomy and community. *Language Learning and Technology*, *18*(2), 85–100.

Chik, A. (2018). Autonomy and digital practices. In A. Chik, N. Aoki, & R. Smith (Eds.), *Autonomy in language learning and teaching*: *New research agendas* (pp. 73–92). Palgrave Macmillan.

Chik, A. (2019). Motivation and informal language learning. In M. Dressman & R. W. Sadler (Eds.), *The handbook of informal language learning* (pp. 13–26). Wiley.

Cho, K. S., Ahn, K. O., & Krashen, S. (2005). The effects of narrow reading of authentic texts on interest and reading ability in English as a foreign language. *Reading Improvement*, *42*(1), 58–65.

Cho, K. S., & Krashen, S. D. (1994). Acquisition of vocabulary from the Sweet Valley Kids series: Adult ESL acquisition. *Journal of Reading*, *37*(8), 662–667.

Cobb, T. (2007). Computing the vocabulary demands of L2 reading. *Language Learning and Technology*, *11*(3), 38–63.

Cobb, T. (n.d.). Range for texts v.3 [Computer program]. Accessed September 15, 2015 at https://www.lextutor.ca/cgi-bin/range/texts/index.pl

Gardner, D. (2008). Vocabulary recycling in children's authentic reading materials: A corpus-based investigation of narrow reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *20*(1), 92–122.

Glas, K. (2016). Opening up "spaces for manoeuvre": English teacher perspectives on learner motivation. *Research Papers in Education*, *31*(4), 442–461.

Guilloteaux, M. J. (2013). Motivational strategies for the language classroom: Perceptions of Korean secondary school English teachers. *System*, *41*(1), 3–14.

Herman, P. A., Anderson, R. C., Perrson, P. D., & Nagy, W. E. (1987). Incidental acquisition of word meaning from expositions with varied text features. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *22*(3), 263–284.

Hubbard, P. (2019). Leveraging technology to integrate informal language learning within classroom settings. In M. Dressman & R. W. Sadler (Eds.), *The handbook of informal language learning* (pp. 405–419). Wiley.

Krashen, S. (1981). Second language acquisition. *Second Language Learning*, *3*(7), 19–39.

Krashen, S. (1996). The case for narrow listening. *System*, *24*(1), 97–100.
Krashen, S. (2004). The case for narrow reading. *Language Magazine*, *3*(5), 17–19.
Krashen, S. (2005). Free voluntary reading: New research, applications, and controversies. *SEAMEO Regional Language Centre*, *Anthology Series*, *46*(1), 1–9.
Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Lee, H. (2019). Mobile collaboration for language learning and cultural learning. In M. Dressman & R. W. Sadler (Eds.), *The handbook of informal language learning* (pp. 169–180). Wiley.
Lamme, L. L. (1976). "Are reading habits and abilities related?" *The Reading Teacher*, *30*(1), 21–27.
Lee, S. Y. (2019). A fulfilling journey of language acquisition via story listening and reading: A case of an adult scholar. *Language Learning and Teaching*, *8*(1), 1–9.
Odo, D. M. (2019). Connecting informal and formal language learning. In M. Dressman & R. W. Sadler (Eds.), *The handbook of informal language learning* (pp. 421–438). Wiley.
Redmer, G. (2019). *Using narrow reading to develop fluency*. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1228250.pdf
Saragi, T., Nation, P., & Meister, G. (1978). Vocabulary learning and reading. *System*, *6*, 72–80.
Schmitt, N., & Carter, R. (2000). The lexical advantages of narrow reading for second language learners. *TESOL Journal*, *9*(1), 4–9.
Zahar, R., Cobb, T., & Spada, N. (2001). Acquiring vocabulary through reading: Effects of frequency and contextual richness. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *57*(4), 541–572.

Comparing Lexical and Syntactic Complexity Using Online Chat and Forum in the EFL Context

Tomotaka Shiroyama
The University of Exeter, Exeter, England, UK

The aim of this study is to compare how two different modes of computer-mediated communication (CMC) contribute to language learning in an EFL context. In EFL teaching, the main goal for learners is to be able to communicate with a wide range of people. According to Hagley (2020), "EFL often became an academic activity with few chances to use English in real-world communicative events" (pp. 74–75). To address this problem, this study examined whether two different types of social network communications have the potential to promote "real-world communication" in a university context. The results indicated that forum discussion is likely to contribute to improving students' syntactic abilities.

Introduction

In the EFL classroom, most learners have few opportunities to use the target language. To improve this situation, task-based language teaching (TBLT) using computer-mediated communication (CMC) has recently gained attention.

This study refers to the questions

RQ1. Are there any differences in lexical complexity between the discourse produced using online chats and forum discussions?

RQ2. Are there any differences in syntactic complexity between the discourse produced using online chats and forum discussions?

The study explores how CMC can be utilized effectively by English teachers within a TBLT framework to increase their students' output of target language.

Method

Participants

In this study, the total number of participants was nine, and their proficiency levels were advanced (equivalent to CEFR C1), which was self-reported using a background questionnaire. All participants were Japanese bachelor or postgraduate students. Their mother tongues were not English. I targeted advanced-level participants because beginner- or lower-intermediate-level learners seemed more likely to use emoticons, stamps, etc., in text messages to express their opinions.

Of the nine participants, the number of female and male participants were four and five students, respectively. Their nationalities were all Japanese. According to the background questionnaire, the mean age of the participants was 26, ranging from 20 to 40 years of age. Their average period of living abroad in English-speaking countries was 3.5 years, ranging from 10 months to 17 years. The average length of time studying English was 12.7 years, ranging from 8 to 20 years.

Ethical Considerations

The current study was given an ethical approval. In my study, I have read and abided by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (2018). All participants were university students and were over 18 years old. They were recruited via a notification board at each university's office. Before the students participated in this study, I conducted Skype meetings to explain the outline and purpose of this research. Also, I explained to the participants that their data would be treated as confidential with limitations. Their names would be replaced by numbers, and all data collected in this study could only be accessed by my supervisor and myself. All information collected while carrying out the study was stored in a database that was password protected and strictly confidential. The data and any paper documents used for the project would be destroyed afterwards to protect personal data. I also told participants they had the right to withdraw from the research at any time during the study and that they could also ask for the data to be partly or completely destroyed after three weeks had passed from the end of the study.

Instruments

In this study, two decision-making tasks (see Appendices A and B) and a background questionnaire (see Appendix C) were employed as research instruments.

Data Collection

The data collections were conducted remotely several times on different dates. The nine participants were randomly divided into groups of three, making three groups: Group A, Group B, and Group C. Each group needed to work on two different decision-making tasks. First, Group A worked on a task for 20 minutes using an online chat (Google Chat), and then on another task using a forum for discussion (Google Classroom). Meanwhile, Group B first worked on a task using online chat (Google Chat) and then on another task using the forum discussion (Google Classroom). Group C first worked on a task using the forum discussion (Google Classroom) and then on the other task using online chat (Google Chat). With regard to forum posting, each group posted their opinions at least twice a week. To resolve order effects, it was necessary to time the posts of each group accordingly to counterbalance forms of CMC and tasks. Table 1 shows the schedule for each group.

TABLE 1. Data Collection Procedure

Session	Group A (3 participants)	Group B (3 participants)	Group C (3 participants)
Session 1	(Guidance) Chat Task A	(Guidance) Chat Task B	(Guidance) Forum Task A
	↓	↓	↓
Session 2	Forum Task B	Forum Task A	Chat Task B

RESULTS

Lexical Complexity

The term *lexical complexity* is an umbrella term of lexical diversity. Malvern and Richards (2013, p. 1) refer to it as "the quality of vocabulary" while McCarthey and Jarvis (2007, p. 459) define it as "the range and variety of vocabulary." This study follows their definitions.

To measure lexical diversity, there are several metrics: the type–token ratio (TTR), Guiraud's Index (Root TTR), D (VOCD-D), and the measure of textual lexical diversity (MTLD). However, TTR, Guiraud's Index (Root TTR), and D (VOCD-D) were ruled out because they are predisposed to be influenced by text length (deBour, 2014). Thus, this study chose MTLD because this metric can measure various text lengths. The mean number of words produced in SCMC (synchronous computer-mediated communication; chat) was 117.55 words per group, ranging from 71 to 185 words, while the mean number of words produced in ACMC (asynchronous computer-mediated communication; forum) was 302.67 words per group, ranging from 117 to 589 words. Thus, texts varied considerably in length. To calculate the MTLD value, the computational software Coh-Metrix 3.0 was employed.

Results of Lexical Complexity Between Online Chat and Forum Discussion

In this study, the same participants (N = 9) were assessed on the same dependent variable (i.e., the MTLD value) under two conditions (i.e., online chat and forum discussion). For this research design, a paired-samples t-test was considered to be the most appropriate test. To judge whether the data set in this study met with the assumptions of a paired-samples t-test, the difference between the two CMC modes (SCMC and ACMC) was first calculated. Next, the assumption of normality and no outliers was examined. As evaluated by inspection of a boxplot, outliers were not shown. The difference scores were also normally distributed, as shown by Shapiro-Wiki's test, $p = .330 > .05$. Thus, to investigate differences, using MTLD, between online chat and forum discussion, it was concluded that a paired-samples t-test was the most proper statistical test. Descriptive statistics for MTLD in discourse in online chat and forum discussion are shown in Table 2. The findings of a paired-samples *t*-test showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the discourse of the two CMC modes regarding MTLD, $t(8) = 1.178$, $p = .272$.

TABLE 2. Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity Using Chat and Forum

SCMC (Chat)		ACMC (Forum)	
Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
79.46	20.59	69.03	15.11

Note. SCMC = synchronous computer-mediated communication, ACMC = asynchronous computer-mediated communication. $N = 9$.

Syntactic Complexity

Syntactic complexity is one component of linguistic complexity (Ortega, 2003). Kyle (2016, p. 8) defines syntactic complexity as "the formal characteristics of syntax (e.g. the amount of subordination)." Ortega (2003) emphasizes that syntactic complexity is an important construct within SLA research, because it is assumed that students' language development entails an increase in the students' syntactic repertoire and their masteries of appropriate usage.

To measure syntactic complexity, this study chose the following three indexes from the area of "length of production unit" (Ai & Lu, 2013, p. 253). They were (a) mean length of clause (MLC), (b) mean length of sentence (MLS), and (c) mean length of T-unit (MLTU). These indexes were analyzed by the syntactic complexity analyzer.

The Results of Syntactic Complexity Between Online Chat and Forum Discussion

The same participants ($N = 9$) were assessed on the same dependent variables (i.e., the MLS, the MLC, and the MLTU values) under two conditions (online chat and forum discussion). A paired-samples *t*-test was considered to be the most suitable statistical test. To judge whether the data set met the assumptions of a paired-samples *t*-test, the difference between the MLS values in the online chat and the forum discussion was first calculated. Then, the assumptions of normality and no outliers were examined on the difference scores. The assumption of normality was not violated, as measured by the Shapiro-Wilk test, $p = .947 > .05$. One outlier was detected that was more than 1.5 box-lengths from the edge of the box in a boxplot, but inspection of this value did not reveal it to be extreme, so it was kept in the analysis. To find out whether there were differences in MLS between the discourse produced in the online chat and the forum discussion, a paired-samples *t*-test was used. The findings indicated that the learners produced more words per sentence in forum discussions (17.98 ± 4.40 words) as opposed to online chats (12.22 ± 3.53 words). There was a statistically significant difference of 5.76 (95% CI, 0.261 to 11.262) words, $t(8) = 2.415$, $p = .042 < .05$, $d = 0.805$. The effect size is seen as a large effect size (Cohen, 1992).

TABLE 3. Mean Lengths of Sentences, Clauses, and T-Units for Chat and Forum

	SCMC (Chat)		ACMC (Forum)	
	Mean	***SD***	**Mean**	***SD***
MLS	12.22	3.53	17.98	4.40
MLC	7.15	1.04	11.10	1.82
MLTU	11.51	2.23	16.47	4.53

Note. MLS = mean length of sentence, MLC = mean length of clause, and MLTU = mean length of T-unit (MLTU) using chat and forum. SCMC = synchronous computer-mediated communication, ACMC = asynchronous computer-mediated communication. $N = 9$.

The same procedure was employed for the other two index values (i.e., the MLC and MLTU values). Regarding the MLC value, the difference scores were normally distributed, as assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test, that is, $p = .050 \geqq .05$. No outliers were detected. The findings of a paired-samples *t*-test indicated that the students produced more words per clause in forum discussions (11.10 ± 1.82 words) compared with online chats (7.15 ± 1.04 words). There was a statistical difference of 3.95 (95% CI, 2.058 to 5.840) words, $t(8) = 4.815$, $p = .001 < .05$, $d = 1.605$. The current effect size is considered large (Cohen, 1992). Regarding the value of MLTU, the difference scores were also normally distributed, as measured by the Shapiro-Wilk test ($p = .439 > .05$). There were no outliers, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Thus, the data set met with the assumption of a paired-samples *t*-test. The findings showed that the learners wrote more words per T-unit (terminable unit) in forum discussions (16.47 ± 4.53 words) than in online chats (11.51 ± 2.23 words). There was a statistically significant difference of 4.96 (95% CI, 0.714 to 9.211) words, $t(8) = 2.693$, $p = .027 < .05$, $d = .898$. The present effect size is seen as nearing a large effect size (Cohen, 1992).

DISCUSSION

This study was motivated by an aspiration to investigate how CMC can be utilized effectively within a TBLT framework. Stockwell (2010) argues that studies using more than one form of CMC are scarce. Taking this into consideration, this study examined discourse features using two different types of CMC, lexical complexity and syntactic complexity. Regarding task typology, Stockwell (2010) states that most past studies employed open-ended tasks, but this study employed decision-making tasks. As discussed by Stockwell (2010), if participants were in different groups, it would be difficult to validate the findings. In the current study, the participants worked on both tasks, using one form of CMC per task. All participants were allowed to use dictionaries or grammar textbooks when they worked on their two tasks using different types of CMC.

Regarding lexical complexity, the results showed no significant difference between the two modes. As Stockwell (2010, p. 84) pointed out, the differences between the two modes relate to “time burden” (Stockwell 2010, p. 84). This study’s findings indicated that the participants using forums had more time to generalize text, whereas they did not produce a wide vocabulary. In Stockwell's (2010) study, there was no significant difference between the two modes regarding lexical density, but slightly more variations was seen within forum discussions. However, his study differs from this study in that Stockwell used open task questionnaires and employed lexical density. However, this study used decision-making tasks and lexical complexity. Therefore, one should be careful in making comparisons of the findings of the two studies.

Regarding syntactic complexity, there are differences between past studies (i.e., Kitade, 2006; Hwang, 2008; Stockwell, 2010) and this one. However, the metrics of syntactic complexity differed from this study, so caution should be taken in making any comparisons of this study's results with those of others. To investigate syntactic complexity in various forms of CMCs, several past studies employing different measures have been carried out. To verify those results and explore more effective methods to promote syntactic complexity in TBLT using CMC, further investigation will be necessary.

Conclusions

The current study has investigated the potential for the integration of different modes of CMC and TBLT. The findings in the current study show that there was no significant difference regarding lexical complexity using online chats and forum discussions. However, a significant difference was indicated in terms of syntactic complexity. For future studies, firstly, it will be necessary to investigate not only lexical and syntactic aspects, but also accuracy and fluency to make use of CMC effectively in a TBLT framework. Another direction would be to focus on learners' language production when they work with different types of interlocutors because nowadays many young people tend to use language exchange applications (e.g., Hello-Talk, Tandem), where they can choose not only target language appropriate to their proficiency level but also interactions with people who speak English as their second language. In conclusion, we still have plenty to discover regarding the ways in which CMC can assist language students to improve their target language skills.

The Author

Tomotaka Shiroyama is a postgraduate student at the University of Exeter. Currently, he holds a publicity position at JALT Toyohashi. His research interests are computer-assisted language learning (CALL), task-based language teaching (TBLT) in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings, and second language acquisition (SLA). He is currently teaching English in the nursing school at Nagoya Women's University. Email: reading2671@gmail.com

References

Ai, H., & Lu, X. (2013). A corpus-based comparison of syntactic complexity in NNS and NS university students' writing. In A. Díaz-Negrillo, N. Ballier, & P. Thompson

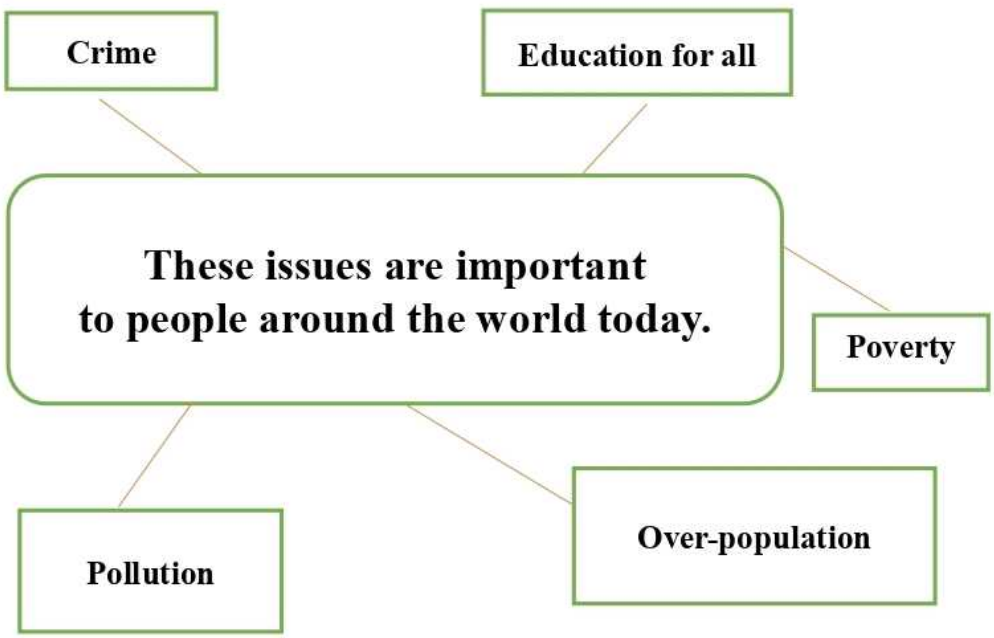
(Eds.), *Automatic treatment and analysis of learner corpus data* (pp. 249–264).
Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, *112*(1), 155–159.
deBoer, F. (2014). Evaluating the comparability of two measures of lexical diversity. *System*, *47*, 139–145. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118914069.ch2
Hagley, E. (2020). Effects of virtual exchange in the EFL classroom on students' cultural and intercultural sensitivity. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal*, *21*(3), 74–87.
Hwang, P. A. (2008). Characteristics and transferability of text-based CMC to oral performance. *English Teaching*, *63*(2), 3–21.
Kitade, K. (2006). The negotiation model in asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC): Negotiation in task-based email exchanges. *CALICO Journal*, *23*(2) 319–348.
Kyle, K. (2016). *Measuring syntactic development in L2 writing*: *Fine grained indices of syntactic complexity and usage-based indices of syntactic sophistication* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Georgia State University.
Malvern, D., & Richards, B. (2013). Measures of lexical richness. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 1–5). Blackwell.
McCarthy, P. M., & Jarvis, S. (2007). vocd: A theoretical and empirical evaluation. *Language Testing*, *24*(4), 459–488.
Ortega, L. (2003). Syntactic complexity measures and their relationship to L2 proficiency: A research synthesis of college-level L2 writing. *Applied Linguistics*, *24*(4), 492–518.
Stockwell, G. (2010). Effects of multimodality in computer-mediated communication tasks. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Task-based language learning and teaching with technology* (pp. 83–104). Continuum.

Appendix A

Decision-Making Task A

Please discuss the question below in groups.

Task A: Adapted written prompt
These issues are important to people around the world today.
Which two would be most urgent to address?



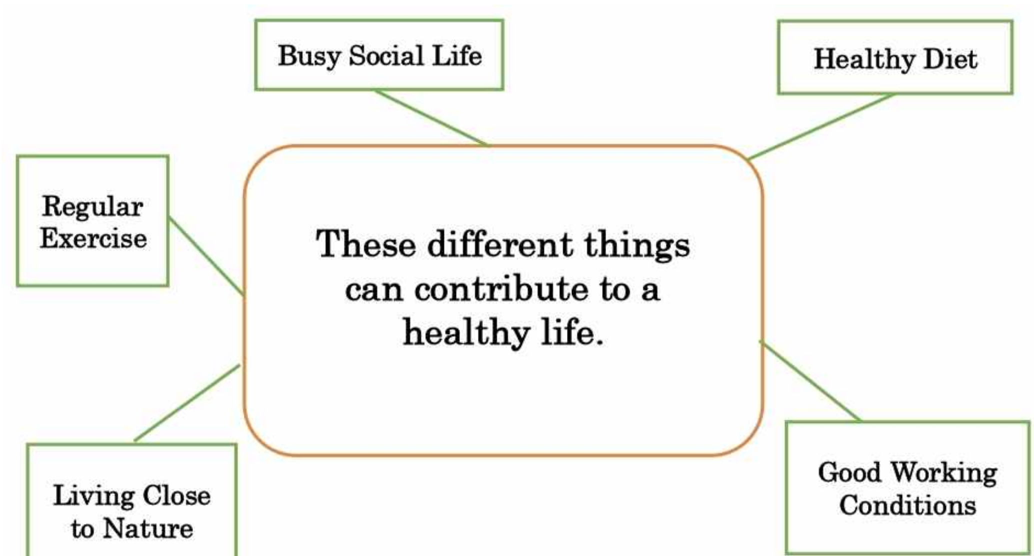
(Cambridge English Exam, CAE 2015, C3)

APPENDIX B

Decision-Making Task B

Please discuss the question below in groups.

Task B: Adapted written prompt
These things can contribute to a healthy life.
Which two would be most effective?



(Cambridge English Exam, CAE 2015, C3)

APPENDIX C

Background Questionnaire

1. Name (   )

2. Age   (   )

3. Have you ever taken any English language test (e.g., IELTS, TOEFL, TOEIC, or Eiken)?
   (Yes or No): _____________
   If yes, what was your score?
   * IELTS (Overall)_________ (Writing)___________ (Speaking)__________
   * TOEFL _______________ * TOEIC ___________ * Eiken ____________

4. When did you start learning English? ____________________

5. How long have you been learning English? ________________

6. Where did you learn English? (Please tick each relevant category)
   (1) At school
   ☐ primary school ☐ junior or secondary school
   ☐ university ☐ graduate school
   (2) Outside school
   ☐ English conversation school ☐ extracurricular activities
   (3) Other: (Please be specific, e.g., having native English-speaking friends)
   ____

7. Have you ever lived/studied in English-speaking countries? ________________

8. If you answered yes in (7), for how long? ____________________

Thank you for the information you have provided.

Investigating the Roles of Homophones in Airline Safety

Ryouma Ishikawa
Aoyama Gakuin University, Japan

Daniel Dusza
University of Southern Queensland, Australia
Hosei University, Tokyo, Japan

This study investigates the role of nonstandard English homophones in aircraft accidents. The aviation industry now employs mostly non-native English speakers, which impacts tremendously on the number of homophone confusions due to phonemic gaps between languages. These specific linguistic communication problems have been identified as contributing to stress, anxiety, airline safety incidents, and accidents, which have resulted in loss of collateral and life. This article discusses the confounding problems behind English as an official language and how the growing number of nonstandard English speakers impacts on safety. Language analysis of English, spoken by Thai, Vietnamese, and Japanese personnel, was used to identify, catalogue, and classify homophone conflicts from language analysis, incident reports, and black box flight recordings. The implications to other language combinations are mentioned, and recommendations for educators, trainers, and industry are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

In 2021, there were almost 1.5 billion English speakers globally (Szmigiera, 2022), and of these, nearly one billion are from non-English speaking backgrounds. To communicate clearly in English, context and grammar are particularly important, particularly when words are blended or sound similar. The English language has more than 6,000 similar sounding words. These homophones typically present few problems when used by Anglophones in context. However, context is confused by non-native English speakers' mispronunciations, receptive misunderstandings, and other cognitive factors. One industry where cognitive resources are often strained is the aviation industry. English is the official language in the aviation industry, and these days, the majority of aviation industry employees are from non-native English-speaking backgrounds (SKYbrary, 2022a).

Over the past 50 years of commercial aviation, communication issues have been identified as a significant contributor to the loss of millions of dollars of collateral and, more importantly, the loss of thousands of lives (Mathews, 2004).

While some of these communication problems have been attributed to technical issues, others were linguistic in nature. These linguistic threats to safety include ambiguous language from non-standard phraseology, number and terminology confusions, and language barriers that result in word meaning confusions. These confusions have been identified as the cause of an increasing number of aircraft incidents and fatalities (Griffith Law, n.d.).

Problem Identification in the Aviation Industry

Although English is the official language in the aviation industry, this does not necessarily mean it has been the best choice. English has been the predominant language in the aviation industry due to the prevalence of English-speaking countries manufacturing aircraft. At the 1944 convention on international civil aviation, 54 countries drafted an agreement to prompt cooperation and "create and preserve friendship and understanding among the nations and peoples of the world" (ICAO, n.d.). As a consequence, English was established as the language of aviation. The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) has ever since been overseeing the core principles permitting international air transport, and the standardization of phrases, in English. However, the dominance of native English speakers in the aviation industry has diminished, and with it, the regularity of expressions and the accuracy of pronunciation.

Over the past fifty years, the number of non-native speakers of English in the aviation industry has escalated. Now, there are more non-native English-speaking flight crews, air and ground traffic controllers, and ground crew than native English speakers. The abundance of non-standard English and non-native English personnel could lead to substantial communication issues that may diminish flight safety (SKYbrary, 2022a). In fact, efficient and effective communications within and between crew members and controllers are essential for safe air travel. The ICAO reported that in the 25 years leading up to the end of the last millennium, more than 1,100 passengers and crew lost their lives in accidents where language issues were a contributing factor (Mathews, 2004). In fact, language and communication problems between pilots and controllers were the major contributing factors in the worst airline disaster in aviation history in Tenerife in 1977, according to accident reports (Airline Pilots Association, 1979; CIAIAC, 1977) based on evidence from flight recording data.

Another form of analysis related to pilot–controller communication errors was drawn from analysis of confidential reports from the Aviation Safety Reporting System (ASRS) database. Grayson and Billings (1981) analyzed more than 5,000 confidential reports and identified 10 categories of pilot–controller communication problems. Two of the categories in that study identified misinterpretation (phonetic similarity) and ambiguous phraseology (phrases with more than one meaning) to be directly related to linguistic issues in aviation incidents.

The design and implementation of standard phraseology in the aviation industry is intended to be used without variation throughout the world. International standards of phraseology are published by the ICAO in Annex 10, Volume II, Chapter 5; ICAO Doc 4444 PANS-ATM, Chapter 12; and ICAO Doc 9432: Manual of Radiotelephony (SKYbrary, 2022b). Many national authorities also publish radiotelephony manuals that amplify ICAO provisions, and in some cases, they are modified to suit local conditions.

While standardizing phraseology addresses many of the language issues mentioned earlier, there are many circumstances where pilots and/or controllers need to resort to the use of higher levels of communication to convey a message. In the events of the worst single aircraft disaster (i.e., JAL 123), pilots and the air traffic controller (ATC) resorted to non-standard phraseology, communicating in Japanese just prior to impact. It is implausible to believe that native language communications alone could have saved flight JAL 123, because there were other critical flight issues. However, if communication problems earlier in the flight could have been averted, the flight could have been diverted to “land” closer to help and the number of fatalities would probably have been reduced.

Even when both parties can speak English fluently, there are pitfalls in the nature of the English language and the way that language is heard that can affect safety (Cushing, 1995). For example, within English, some words have dual meanings and/or pronunciations; others can easily be misread or misunderstood. Therefore, due to the already abundant communication issues, and the increase of nonstandard English and non-native English personnel, the problems associated with communications must focus not only on the intelligibility of communications between native English speakers, but between non-native speakers and the entire English speaking community, and in this study, this community includes all personnel involved with the aviation industry.

Problem Identification in Language

Essential underlying linguistic elements that affect controller and flight crew miscommunications have been identified predominantly on native English language analysis. These elements include (SKYbrary, 2022b): pragmatics (e.g., context and expectations); code switching; paralinguistic factors, which include voice intonation, stress, rate of delivery, pausing, and hesitation; ambiguity through using aviation jargon; and speech intelligibility. Speech intelligibility is maintained by the ICAO language proficiency requirements, which apply similarly to both native and non-native speaker (SKYbrary, 2022a). What is not completely appreciated in these proficiency requirements and tests is the intelligibility of non-native speakers due to the phonetic gaps in their languages and how these gaps impact on grammatical and contextual understanding, and then, how these problems are affected under the cognitive stress of operating aircraft, particularly in critical operations and emergencies.

Since the 1990s, the NASA aviation reporting system has documented thousands of cases of communication breakdowns between pilots and air traffic controllers, many the result of unintelligibility. One incident that illustrates these confounding problems associated with non-native English understanding of context and grammar, specifically with homophones, involved a native English-speaking ATC and a non-native English flight crew. The ATC cleared the aircraft for a descent to an altitude of “two four zero zero”. The pilot read back, “OK. Four zero zero.” The pilot mistook the number “two” to mean the preposition “to” and consequently descended to 400 feet instead of 2,400 feet

(Cushing, 1995, as cited in Munro, 2011, p. 8). Tragically, this mishap also resulted in the loss of the aircraft and four crew. Furthermore, according to McMillan (1998), this problem is not uncommon.

There are reasons why these confusions continue to rise. One reason is the disregard for discipline in the use of standard phraseology. For example, the USA remains isolated in its use of local time and non-SI (non-international standard; i.e., imperial not metric) units, which complicates international communications. Hawkins (1993, as cited in McMillan, 1998) noted that the English language over Frankfurt, Germany, may be closer to international standards and more intelligible than that over Chicago. Another problem involves "expectation error." An example of expectation error is when the listener hears something they expect as opposed to what was intended. One example (McMillan, 1998) was when the ATC issued vectors to "Tango Alpha Delta" (TAD), but the vectors were acknowledged by flight "Tango Alpha Alpha" (TAA), causing both aircraft to adjust course simultaneously. In this case, the words sounded similar not because they were homophones in any language, but the confusion was due to the cognitive effects of expectation error. Although these problems occur frequently, they do not account for the rise in communication problems because they have been a part of the industry for decades.

This study, therefore, turns attention to what can be identified as a contributor to miscommunications. As mentioned earlier, the number of non-native English speakers has risen drastically, the testing methods do not include poor communication channels under the cognitive demands of flying, and non-standard phraseology and expectation error have already received attention. The gap in the research, the training, and interventions, then, is to find why, when, and where these confusions originate. This investigation identifies homophones as a source of confusion.

Many homophones exist in the English language and present few problems. With context and sufficient knowledge of English grammar, phrases like *B course*, *because*, *B cause*, *b chords*, *b cords*, *bee courts*, *B calls*, even *Pete caught* present few problems (vis. in Thai, the end plosive is dropped, making many of these phrases sound similar). However, where there are "gaps" in the lexis, or gaps in the phonetic library of the speaker and/or listener, the meanings of these phrases and words take tremendous cognitive resources to resolve. Therefore, this study turns attention to the influence of phonological gaps between English and other languages that create original homophone confusions in places where expectation error is influential and grammatical knowledge alone is also not enough to resolve the miscommunication.

Problem Identification in Homophones

Why Homophones?

Some communication errors and confusions arise when words sound or look alike but have different meanings. Such words are known as homophones, homographs, or homonyms. There are more than 6,000 English homophones, and the negative effects of these similar words have been mitigated through standardized phrasing. However, these words are particularly difficult to distinguish for non-native English speakers, particularly where grammatical cues or context are scarce.

Homophones are words that sound alike but have different meanings and may or may not be spelled the same way (e.g., *too*, *to*, and *two*). *Homographs* are words that are spelled the same way but have different meanings (e.g., *sewer*, a conduit for waste vs. *sewer*, a person who sews); they aren't always pronounced differently (e.g. "wait a *second*" and "he came *second*"). This latter case is what is known as a *homonym*.

Homonyms both sound the same and look the same, like the noun *desert* and the verb *desert*. These problems are evident in aircraft incidents, particular to reading. Additionally, expectation error can also affect reading accuracy. For example, the commonly misspelt nouns for food, *desert*, and the dry *desert*.

This research concentrates specifically on homophones because their similar sounds are confounded by second language phonological gaps, which is being investigated as the predominant influence on airline safety in this study.

Phonological Gaps and Interaccent Homophones

This study of non-standard English homophones centers on the phonological gaps between an individual's native language and English. More specifically, the influence of phonological gaps between English and Thai, Vietnamese, and Chinese. Phonological gaps refer to the absence of a phonemic contrast in part of the phonological system. In this interlanguage example, these gaps are the places where phonological knowledge cannot be reliably transferred, or there is no phonology to transfer. For example, Japanese has no |jɪə| sound to transfer to English, so *year* sounds like *ear*.

Well-known examples of phonological gaps between many Asian languages and English include the sounds for the letters "r" and "l." The Japanese language, for example, does not distinguish between these sounds at all. In fact, "L/l" does not exist in the Japanese Romanized alphabet. One example of this problem occurred in the 1990s. In 1991, a waypoint in the north to the east of Hokkaido was changed from *Nippi* to *Nogal*. This waypoint is about 20 minutes northeast of another waypoint. For American English speakers, these waypoints are distinguishable. However, for Japanese, the first waypoint, *Nogar* sounds like *NOGARU* /nəʊ gɑ:ru:/ and the following waypoint, *Nogal* sounds the same (i.e., *NOGARU*, /nəʊ gɑ:ru:/). While this problem has not caused any accidents, cabin crew have become confused and not been ready to report confusion. Other instances were found in this investigation and will be discussed later with other language combinations. The result of phonological gaps is that in order to resolve the phonetic confusion of words, speakers must think more about how to use those unique sounding phonemes to pronounce words correctly; this process steals precious cognitive resources. These "gaps" are also known as *interaccent homophones*.

Interaccent homophones can be found where other language graphemic and phonemic constraints make resolving sounds impossible without practice or conscious effort. Examples of interactive homophones occur where there are orthographic gaps between Japanese and English (e.g., "r-l," "a-u," "f-h"). Other examples include "si." This letter combination is pronounced as "shi". Another Japanese example is pronouncing [Θ] as [s]. The "th" sound is not in the Japanese phonetic library, so the word "bath" would sound like "bus." These kinds of interaccent homophones are caused by the negative interference of the phonological system in the speaker's mother tongue and also the absence of the sounds in the mother tongue, which conflict with those in the English phonological system. Pronunciation rules are also related to interaccent homophones. One example is from Thai. The Thai language does not have plosive sounds in syllable-final position. Therefore, *mask* would sound like *mas* (i.e., |mɑ:s|) in the word *mast*. This is confusing for English speakers, but when the listener is also a non-native speaker, the problem is compounded.

METHOD: IDENTIFYING HOMOPHONE INTERFERENCE

Three approaches were adopted to identify and catalogue non-standard English interactive homophone confusion tokens. These include predictive identification from language analysis, investigative identification from previous literature and incident reports, and finally, forensic identification. Predictive identification commences with listing the phonetic library of each language under review and identifying gaps between the two languages (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. Predictive Identification from the Phonological Library for Four Language Pairs: English, Thai, Vietnamese and Chinese

English	Thai	Vietnamese	Chinese
[Θ]	[t][s]	[t][s]	[t][f][s]
[ð]	[d]	[d]	[d][z]
[tʃ]	[ʃ]/[tʃ]	[ʃ]/[tʃ]	[tʃ]
[ʃ]	[ʃ]/[tʃ]	[ʃ]/[tʃ]	[ʃ][ç]
[v]	[v]	[v]	[w][f]

The analysis in Table 1 indicates merely a sample of the complete set of areas where attention is required when language pairs are brought together. Nonetheless, this table can be used to identify the source of future problems but also perform analysis of transcripts and flight box recordings. Gaps are identified as similar sounds that would conflict or places where phonology cannot transfer because the phoneme does not exist in one language of the pair.

Investigative identification comes from documentary sources. These documentary sources include flight records, maps, waypoint listings, lexical searches of industry-specific corpora, and incident reports. From this in depth and time-consuming analysis, words can be identified that have caused communication problems. From this evidence, a list of token words can be catalogued (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. Word Tokens That Have Caused Problems Including Direction of Influence

	English Token	Thai	Vietnamese	Chinese
1	NORTH	E< NOT/NORTH	E< NOT/NORTH	E<NOT/NORTH
2	AFTER	AFTER	E< APT/AFTER	AFTER
3	WIND CHECK	E<> WIND SHEAR/WIND CHECK	E<> WIND SHEAR/WIND CHECK	E<> WIND CHECKER
4	VEHICLE	VEHICLE	VEHICLE	E>WE HERE KILO
5	CHARLIE	E<> SURELY/CHARLIE	E<> SURELY/CHARLIE	CHARLIE

Note. E< means the spoken word influences English perception. E> means English influences the non-native listening perception. No mark indicates no misunderstanding was registered.
This list is merely an example of the complete catalogue, which will be updated as the study progresses.

The lists of words in Table 2 are all referenced to English communication. The arrows indicate the direction of influence; some influences are unidirectional (e.g., English Token 5, *Charlie*). After identification, the token English word is placed in the English Token column and all possible language combinations are investigated. For example, English Token 3 was first found using language analysis. Receiving a command to check wind is just a caution. However, receiving a warning about wind-shear is a critical warning, there are only seconds to respond. An example of the seriousness of taking time to resolve this communication mishap is illustrated in a flight recording of Delta 191 (MorfoAtari, 1985). The flight suffered wind-shear and crashed seconds later destroying property, the aircraft, and cost the lives of 134 of the 163 onboard.

After the language analysis is verified against other language phonological gaps, the catalogue of word tokens is then used to conduct forensic analysis. The tools used for collecting forensic language data are listed in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Research Tools for the Collection of Forensic Data from Accident and Incident Reports and Flight Recordings

Data Type	Source
Incident Reports	ASRS database Voluntary Information Contributory to Enhancement of the Safety Ministry of Transport (in each nation)
Flight Recordings	YouTube (from Live ATC net) 1. https://youtu.be/MKanHBY7eA4 2. https://youtu.be/Xfh9-ogUgSQ
Accident Investigations	Official reports http://www.project-tenerife.com/engels/PDF/Tenerife.pdf
Live (and archived) ATC recordings	https://www.liveatc.net/

Note. The list of resources above is not exhaustive.

One example of the updating process from forensic analysis is from a flight recording example found on YouTube (Item 1 in Table 3). The incident happened in the winter at Chicago Airport. The American ATC commanded the pilots to follow the taxi “vehicle.” The Chinese pilots acknowledged hearing the direction to follow "a(t) kilo" and replied, "We hear 'kilo.'" This was a response influenced by expectation error, because the directions they were expecting was a taxiway. The pilots did not have a visual on the vehicle they were to follow at that time. Nonetheless, this situation made no sense, and caused distress and communication breakdown between the ATC and the pilots. After logging this in the word token catalogue, language and forensic investigations were conducted to investigate if the same problem exists in the other language. In this case no problems were recognized and the entries were made accordingly (see Table 2, Token 4).

RESULTS

The language analysis identified possible conflicts, and word tokens were catalogued. From these catalogued items, incident and accident reports, and flight recordings were used to identify phonological gaps between foreign speakers' language and English. From this data of characteristic pronunciations in Thai, Vietnamese, and Chinese, interlanguage homophones could be identified. Examples included those from Thailand and Vietnamese [tʃ] to [ʃ], and Chinese speakers' dropped final consonants. From this catalogue, the seriousness of each token could be assessed against flight incident data.

Results reliability of tools are also worth noting in these results. YouTube videos and flight recording data are laborious to analyze unless the accident investigation first determines the timing of the communication breakdown. From that point, the audio can quickly be assessed, and then the value of the recording is evident. From the recording, the amount of stress, cognitive load, interference in radio traffic, and cabin communications can be considered. To expedite forensic analysis, the first step, therefore, is to access incident reports or accident investigation data. The online resources for these are listed in the reference list and in Table 3. Another source of information is the ASRS database online. This site is particularly useful because it includes anonymous close-call incidents, usually reported by aviation workers. Using the ASRS database provides a greater scope of input to the word token identification database. The anonymity means incidents are reported that usually do not make it to official sites or into organizational investigations. The ASRS database also contains problems in maintenance staff, cabin crew, and ground staff.

Through this systematic analysis of language and flight data, it was possible to identify the sources of communication breakdowns between airline personnel. The cause of the problem appeared to be interlanguage homophones. The cause of these interlanguage homophones was traced to the phonological gaps between language pairs.

IMPLICATIONS

While miscommunications cause anxiety, stress, and financial loss in industry, the consequences of communication problems in the airline industry are much more serious. The following implications are directly related to the present education, training, and regulations in the airline industry.

Air safety is built upon reliable communications, and detailed standards are set for phraseology (Eißfeldt, 2006). The language tests for pilots' "English" proficiency is not and need not be based on conversational English standards. ATCs, crew, and pilots should be aware of the importance of utilizing standardized phrasing when communicating flight-specific information. This includes the communications of waypoints, situation reports, and of course, in the case of emergencies. According to the ICAO, the burden of improving communication should be shared by native English personnel, not only non-native personnel (Borowska, 2017).

The present testing for industry-specific English and standardized phrasing should include interlanguage homophones. In this way, personnel will have their awareness raised. According to the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 2001), although repair is not instantaneous, encounters with the words in the future provide input for acceptance into the mental lexicon. Consequently, individuals will have a greater chance of self-repair and producing the words correctly. Therefore, increasing awareness should mitigate the risk of interlanguage homophones causing communication problems, even under extreme cognitive demand.

As a result of this extra training, the follow-on effect in the education industry includes the adjustment of testing and certification. These mandatory tasks should not be conducted in a classroom but under emergency conditions, not only for pilots but also ATCs, cabin and ground crews, and support personnel. Training books, reading material, and exercises should include high-frequency interlanguage homophone tokens. The reason for this is to increase the occurrences of meeting with these rare words. According to usage-based accounts (Wulff & Ellis, 2018), by incorporating these tokens into training, there should be sufficient opportunity to "force" these words, their pronunciation, and the context into the mental lexicon. If this is possible, even under cognitive load (i.e., during an emergency), the probability of drawing on lexical access will be increased.

CONCLUSIONS

This study developed an approach for identifying a common source of communication problems that impact on safety in the airline industry. Since the development of the ICAO nearly a century ago, English has been the standard language in aviation globally. Strict rules for communications have been mandated to reduce incidents and accidents in aviation. However, due to the number of airline staff from non-English speaking backgrounds, the number of miscommunications has noticeably increased. Therefore, the importance of being proficient in using standard phraseology has never been greater. This research presents an approach to identifying, cataloguing, and verifying word tokens that cause communication problems. These word tokens are derived from identifying phonological gaps between foreign languages and English. These word tokens were catalogued and then used in a forensic language analysis of incident and accident reports, airline industry staff, and flight data recordings. The implications to the industry and education suggest that these token words should be incorporated into training material and programs to raise the awareness of pilots and other support staff.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to thank Marina Goto for her help in editing, formatting and providing academic advice during the writing process.

THE AUTHORS

Ryouma Ishikawa is an aviation enthusiast with a plan of one day becoming an airline pilot. During his matriculation into university he became interested in world Englishes and realized the risk of inter-accent homophones in the aviation industry. He is presently completing his undergraduate studies at Aoyama Gakuin University in Tokyo, Japan. Email: a1322803@aoyama.jp

Daniel Dusza is a teacher/researcher in Tokyo, specializing in second language psycholinguistics and cognition, and has more than a decade of aerospace industry experience. His thesis focuses on the cognitive processing of English and Japanese orthography in Japanese children beginning to write and read English letters. Daniel is an award-winning writer and presenter, and he has worked with leading tech, science, and engineering companies and universities in Japan and worldwide. Email: q9221895@umail.usq.edu.au

REFERENCES

Airline Pilots Association. (1979). *Human factors report on the Tenerife Accident Aircraft Accident Report Pan American World Airways Boeing 747 N737PA, KLM Royal Dutch Airlines Boeing 747 PH BUF, Tenerife Canary Islands March 27 1977.*

Borowska, A. (2017). Aeronautical English: An analysis of selected communication strategies used by native English speakers in interaction with operational level-4 personnel. *Proceedings of the National Aviation University*, *2*(71), 140–147. https://doi.org/10.18372/2306-1472.71.11759

CIAIAC. (1977). *A-102/1977 and A-103/1977. Accident occurred on March 27, 1977 to the Aircraft Boeing 747, registration PH-BUF of KLM and aircraft Boeing 747, registration N736PA of PANAM at Los Rodeos Airport, Tenerife (Canary Islands).* Commission for the Investigation of Civil Aviation Accidents and Incidents. https://www.mitma.es/organos-colegiados/ciaiac/publicaciones/informes-relevantes/accidente-ocurrido-el-27-de-marzo-de-1977-aeronaves-boeing-747-matricula-ph-buf-de-klm-y-aeronave-boeing-747-matricula-n736pa-de-panam-en-el-aeropuerto-de-los-rodeos-tenerife-islas-canarias

Cushing, S. (1995). Pilot–air traffic control communications: It's not (only) what you say, it's how you say it. *Flight Safety Digest*, *14*(7), 1–10.

Eißfeldt, H. (2006, September). Increasing aviation safety by assessing English language proficiency among aviation professionals. *The 25th International Congress of the Aeronautical Sciences, Hamburg* (pp. 3–8). http://www.icas.org/ICAS_ARCHIVE/ICAS2006/PAPERS/081.pdf

Grayson, R. L., & Billings, C. E. (1981). Information transfer between air traffic control and aircraft: Communication problems in flight operations. In C. E. Billings & E. S. Cheaney (Eds.), *NASA technical paper*, *1875*, *Information transfer problems in the* *aviation system* (pp. 47–61). National Aeronautics and Space Administration. https://ntrs.nasa.gov/api/citations/19810022620/downloads/19810022620.pdf#page=51

Griffith Law. (n.d.). *Many aviation accidents are the result of miscommunication*. https://www.griffithinjurylaw.com/library/airline-accidents-caused-by-miscommunication.cfm

ICAO. (n.d.). *The history of ICAO and the Chicago convention*. International Civil Aviation Organization, United Nations Specialized Agency. https://www.icao.int/about-icao/History/Pages/default.aspx

ICAO. (2009). *Guidelines for aviation English training programmes* [Circular 323]. International Civil Aviation Organization. https://www.icao.int/safety/lpr/Documents/323_en.pdf

Mathews, E. (2004). New provisions for English language proficiency are expected to improve aviation safety. *ICAO Journal*, *59*(1), 4–6.

McMillan, D. (1998). *Miscommunications in air traffic control* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Queensland University of Technology. http://www.pacdeff.com/pdfs/Communication%20Issues.pdf

MorfoAtari. (1985, August 2). *Delta Airlines Flight 191 crash animation + CVR* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dKwyU1RwPto

Munro, M. J. (2011). Intelligibility: Buzzword or buzzworthy? In. J. Levis & K. LeVelle (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 2nd Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference*, *Sept. 2010* (pp. 7–16). Iowa State University. https://www.academia.edu/12031228

Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language* instruction (pp. 3–32). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524780.003

SKYbrary. (2022a). *Communication*: *Linguistic factors (OGHFA BN)*. https://skybrary.aero/articles/communication-linguistic-factors-oghfa-bn

SKYbrary. (2022b). *Standard phraseology*. https://skybrary.aero/articles/standard-phraseology

Szmigiera, M. (2022, April 1) *The most spoken languages worldwide in 2022*. Statista. https://www.statista.com/statistics/266808/the-most-spoken-languages-worldwide/

Wulff, S., & Ellis, N. C. (2018). Usage-based approaches to second language acquisition. In D. Miller, F. Bayram, J. Rothman, & L. Serratrice (Eds.), *Bilingual cognition and language*: *The state of the science across its subfields* (Vol. 54, pp. 37–56). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/sibil.54.03wul

Student Beliefs: Teacher Role in Decreasing Anxiety in the Language Learning Classroom

Miriam Vasquez and Lidija Elliott
Nagoya University of Foreign Studies, Nagoya, Japan

Foreign language anxiety is known to interfere with the acquisition, retention, and production of the target language. This study sought to investigate student beliefs about the role of the teacher and whether the teacher can assist in mitigating learner anxiety. A qualitative study was conducted on 125 participants, consisting of first- and second-year university students in a communicative course. The findings demonstrated that rather than affecting causes of anxiety, the teacher plays a significant role in learner enjoyment. Though it is unclear if there is a direct correlation between learner anxiety and classroom enjoyment, in creating a positive learning environment the teacher can play a major role in helping students achieve academic success and emotional well-being.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign language anxiety affects students in many ways in a foreign language classroom. Research has shown that it is a major obstacle for foreign language learners (Effiong, 2016; Horwitz et al., 1986). Horowitz et al. (1986) were the first to determine that language anxiety is unique to language learning. According to these authors, “Anxiety is the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (p. 125). Later studies built upon the ideas conceptualized by Horowitz et al. According to Chiang (2012), language anxiety is synonymous with worry, uneasiness, disquiet, and inquietude, while for Suleimenova (2013) language anxiety is “distress or an uneasiness of mind caused by fear of danger or misfortune” (p. 1). Due to the significant influence of anxiety in the foreign language classroom, it has become a topic that has been frequently analyzed.

Authors (Elliott & Vasquez, 2021) conducted a study on language learning anxiety that investigated anxiety-causing activities as well as student beliefs. In this study it was determined that the teacher may play a key role in helping students mitigate foreign/second language anxiety in the classroom. Based on the results, students felt anxious about speaking in the target language as a result of a perceived lack of skills, a fear of a negative perception from others, and a fear of making mistakes. Interestingly, the study revealed that students believed a teacher could possibly play a significant role in mitigating foreign language anxiety. As a result, the authors sought to determine what role, if any, a teacher has in mitigating learner anxiety. Results revealed that learning anxiety was consistent with previous studies whereby perceptions of “self” (Pappamihiel, 2002) as well as perceptions about their language ability (Suleimenova, 2013) were among the factors that cause anxiety. However, participant responses revealed that the teacher does not play a crucial role in mitigating learner anxiety. Instead, findings coincided with research that suggests that the teacher is a significant player in foreign language enjoyment (FLE; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019). So, although a teacher may not play a role in minimizing learner anxiety, they are responsible for creating an "enjoyable" environment (Dewaele et al., 2019). Thus, a positive relationship between a teacher and students is essential (Patall, 2013; Xie & Derakhshan, 2021). In creating a positive relationship and environment, teachers can assist in encouraging positive behavior that is advantageous to language learning.

Research Questions

RQ1. What are student expectations about the role of the EFL teacher?
RQ2. Does the teacher have a role in decreasing foreign language anxiety in the EFL classroom?

Methodology

Participants and Setting

Data were collected via a qualitative survey, which was made accessible to participants online via Google Classroom. The study was conducted mid-semester, during the spring of 2022. Participation was voluntary and students were assured participation would have no bearing on their course grades.

A total of 125 participants (83 female, 40 male, 2 identifying as "other") completed the questionnaire. Participants were between the ages of 18 and 20, were attending a Japanese university (51 first-year, 74 second-year students), and were part of the English department.

Data Collection

Students were given a questionnaire aimed at discovering student beliefs about the role of the teacher and student beliefs about the relationship between the teacher and learner anxiety. The questionnaire consisted of 15 items and was written in both English and Japanese (see Appendix). The questionnaire began with a demographics section from which the participant information provided above was collected. The second section focused on student perceptions of the teacher and their overall beliefs regarding the role of the teacher in the language learning classroom. The third section of the questionnaire focused on learner anxiety and the role of the teacher. Questions in this section sought to determine whether students believed that the teacher plays a role in minimizing learner anxieties.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Learning Experience in the Classroom

According to the results, 92 percent of the students stated that teachers influence their language learning experience, indicating that teachers play a significant role in the language learning process. Hence, teachers play an essential role in creating the ideal environment that supports student learning enjoyment (Schuitema et al., 2016). These positive emotions, such as enjoyment, are beneficial for motivating and facilitating flexible learning strategies, thus enhancing achievement (Pekrun et al. 2002).

TABLE 1. Teacher Importance in Students' Learning Experience

Code	Responses
Practice and Improvement	36
Positive Classroom Environment	29
Encouragement and Motivation	25
Miscellaneous	19
Communication	15

According to the results (see Table 1), language teachers significantly affect students in providing the necessary practice for improvement. Examples of student responses include the following:

- There was plenty of discussion opportunities related to each unit's topic to train in English conversation. (Not just the questions in the textbook.) [Kei]
- By allowing me to make presentations and have conversations with the teacher, I can practice using English from various angles. [Mina]
- Some students wrote that a positive environment is vital for better foreign language learning.
- It was easy to speak because of the gentle atmosphere. [Maria]
- My teacher enjoyed teaching with my classmates. [Reiko]

Teachers also play an essential role in inspiring students to speak more during communication classes. Example responses include the following:

- They encourage us to speak. It is exciting. [Kosei]
- Teacher gives us a chance to speak in English a lot. [Kosuke]

Based on these responses, it is clear that the teacher role is not seen only in the delivery of curriculum and managing the classroom but also to create an environment that creatively promotes student growth. Although students must complete their given work and discover ways to comprehend what they have been taught, teachers who hold themselves to higher standards are more likely to receive better outcomes from their students than teachers who do not. By improving learner experiences, a teacher can not only motivate but create the positive emotions needed for lifelong language learning (MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014).

Student Ideas for Teacher Improvement

TABLE 2. Things Teachers Do That Are Not Good/Helpful to Your Language Learning

Code	Responses
No Answer	107
Improvement Ideas	12
Miscellaneous	9
Understanding and Encouragement	3

Although 107 students (85%) stated that there is nothing a teacher does that is harmful to their learning process. Fifteen students (12%) provided significant insight into factors that impede their learning (see Table 2). With regards to suggestions for improvement presented by students, students stated that they wanted teachers to be more active and have more fun in the classroom, not focus on grammar, offer more opportunities to speak, and limit the number of tests they have to take. Example responses include the following:

- Needs power. [Keiko]
- Many teachers in Japan put emphasis on grammar, but I think speaking is the most important ability in language learning. [Reiko]
- Doing long written-tests for finals. I prefer reports than examinations. [Kota]

With regards to understanding and encouragement, students felt that in providing understanding and encouragement, a teacher can better address any behavioral challenges and improve student attitudes regarding language learning, as exemplified in these responses:

- When I made mistakes, my another English teacher said to me "あ？" "は？", also when I didn't understand what my teacher said, my teacher was frustrating, so I feel uncomfortable. [Marina]
- Sometimes if the teacher looks scary, it may make me feel too scared to ask questions. [Emi)

Although students may not like negative feedback, according to Cutumisu and Schwartz (2018), critical feedback can aid in performance in some situations, but individual factors (mindset, self-worth, etc.) may affect engagement (Kluger & DeNisi, 1998). Thus, teacher negative attitudes might harm student performance levels, personality development, and emotional well-being.

Student Perception on Improving the Learning Process

TABLE 3. Teacher Action to Make the Learning Process Better

Code	Responses
No Answer	41
Miscellaneous	20
Increasing Opportunities to Speak	18
Teacher Attributes	16
Engagement and Support	15
Open Communication	8
Understanding Student Needs	7

Forty-one students (32.8%) stated that there is nothing that teachers need to do to improve the learning process (see Table 3). For them, a teacher is a guide in the classroom. Therefore, a teacher must assist them to become bold enough and to conquer their anxiety. Based on responses, the fundamental best practices that teachers must use to react to the needs of students are speaking slowly and clearly, and providing students enough time to think about their replies before speaking. The following are some example responses:

- I think it will be easier for me to understand if the teacher speaks English slowly or with simple words. [Reika]
- I think teachers should be friendlier. [Mai]

In addition, if a teacher can act as a friend, the students will feel comfortable in the class:

- A teacher listens to students' talks patiently. [Maria]

If the teacher has a positive and patient attitude, students may feel motivated to participate in the class, potentially helping them succeed. Thus, teachers play a vital role in increasing student learning through motivation and support (Theobald, 2006; Thoonen et al., 2011). According to Rimm-Kanfmon and Sandilos (2010), "Positive teacher–student relationships draw students into the process of learning and promote their desire to learn." Therefore, teachers who build positive relationships with their students are more likely to influence their drive to learn and have a significant impact on a student's willingness to prioritize success and to learn (Ferlazzo, 2015). Finally, creating a positive classroom dynamic between teacher and learners is significant for communication and personal interactions.

Causes of Anxiety in Language Learning

Of the 125 participants, 55 (44%) stated that they experience anxiety in the language learning classroom. Based on these responses, a lack of (language) skills and negative emotions (which consist of low self-esteem, lack of self-confidence, and a fear of making mistakes), were the primary factors resulting in learner anxiety (see Table 4). These results are in line with previous studies that suggest internal variables such as negative perceptions of "self" (Mayer, 2008; Young, 1991), learner insecurities about their language abilities (Cheng, 2002; Kayaoglu & Sağlamel, 2013), as well as a fear of making mistakes (Hashemi, 2011; Papamihiel, 2002) have a significant impact on learner anxiety.

Table 4. Causes of Anxiety in Language Learning

Code	Responses
Lack of Skills	25
Negative emotions	21
Miscellaneous	7

With regards to a lack of skills, learner anxiety stemmed from the belief that they lacked the necessary language skills to communicate in the target language. Responses common among respondents included these:

- When I try to express my thoughts in English, I get stuck in the conversation because I don't know how to explain. [Sakura]
- Sometimes I don't understand the language or can't say what I want to say. [Kazuki]

This uncertainty in abilities, in addition to other factors, can influence the effort a learner exerts in learning the target language, which may impede their learning (Suleimenova 2013).

In addition to feelings of inadequacy, due to a perceived lack of language skills, students often experienced anxiety as a result of negative feelings or feelings of inadequacy within themselves:

- Sometimes when I speak English I worry if I'm saying it correctly. [Miku]
- Everyone's ability is so great that I feel like I haven't done it at all. [Ryosuke]
- Sometimes I am afraid of making mistakes and can't speak. [Ami]

These results coincide with previous research stating that a negative sense of "self" (Mayer, 2008; Young, 1991) as well as a fear of making mistakes (Hashemi, 2011; Pappamihiel, 2002) have a significant effect on learner anxiety. When factors related to self-confidence and self-esteem arise, learners often engage in self-deprecating thoughts, resulting in the inability to see themself as a successful learner (Kalra & Siribud, 2020; Pappamihiel, 2002), which in turn adversely affects their performance in the course (Brunotte, 2021).

The Role of the Teacher in Mitigating Anxiety

When respondents were asked what the teacher could do to assist with mitigating feelings of anxiety, student comments centered on factors related to learner enjoyment, rather than learner anxiety. To enhance foreign language enjoyment, students primarily sought teacher support and encouragement, specific teacher characteristics, open communication, and a positive classroom environment (see Table 5).

TABLE 5. How Teachers Can Help Minimize Student Anxiety

Code	Responses
Support and Encouragement	33
Teacher Characteristics	32
Open Communication	13
Create Positive Atmosphere	12

With regards to support and encouragement, respondents felt that in order to provide an enjoyable classroom environment, it was necessary for teachers to compliment student work, as well as provide feedback. Common responses among the participants included these:

- Compliment the good points without only pointing out the mistakes. [Haruki]
- Make a comment when submitting the assignment. "Thank you for submitting the assignment" etc. [Haruna]
- Explain what or where do I need to fix. [Ami]

In addition to the need for support and encouragement on behalf of the instructor, students believed teachers with specific characteristics are best suited to language teaching. Based on student responses, teachers that are personable and listen to their students are preferred. Respondents frequently used terms such as "friendly," "treats [students] gently," "always smile," and "listens to students," to describe the ideal teacher. These results fall in line with studies that revealed that personal trait-related characteristics such as being kind, friendly, and patient are considered favorable characteristics for a language teacher (Chen, 2012; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016; Liando, 2010).

The final two factors that respondents believed to be essential for a language teacher are open communication and someone that creates a positive atmosphere. With regards to open communication, students seek someone that frequently engages with students:

- Teachers have to communicate more with students. [Sora]
- Students are encouraged to come into contact with English by earnestly consulting with students and communicating with students in English during class. [Mayuko]

In addition, creating a good rapport with students is essential in creating a positive classroom atmosphere (Chen, 2012). For respondents, a positive atmosphere has been essential in motivating them to participate in the learning process:

- Create an environment where students can easily participate in classes. [Akira]
- I want you to create an environment where you can easily ask questions. [Sota]
- I think it is important to create an atmosphere of class that is easy to participate in. [Riku]

These results concur with several studies that found teaching-related characteristics, such as having a good classroom atmosphere, are essential in creating learner enjoyment (Chen, 2012; Dewaele et. al., 2019). Thus, by communicating with students, a teacher can increase the level of class enjoyment, resulting in a more positive classroom atmosphere.

Overall, results seem in line with research that suggests that the role of the teacher is one that impacts positive emotions in the learner via their learner enjoyment rather than having a direct effect on factors that contribute to anxiety. Teachers who can create an enjoyable environment, through a combination of personal traits (for example: being kind, being a good listener, and being engaging) and teaching-related characteristics (having a good/open relationship with students and a positive classroom atmosphere) can help students to overcome fears, feel comfortable, and participate more (Chen 2012), which would enhance a student's ability to learn (Dewaele et. al., 2019). Thus, in helping generate positive emotions among learners, the instructor can help learners become more aware of language inputs, thereby "absorbing" language better, as well as encourage learners to take risks and better manage stressful events (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

Teacher Role in the Learning Experience

TABLE 6. Positive Learning Experiences as a Result of a Teacher

Code	Responses
Positive Environment	21
Encouragement and Support	14
Understanding Student Needs	9
Miscellaneous	36

In an effort to understand foreign language learner experiences and how they have shaped learners' anxieties as well as their perceptions of the role of the teacher, the participants were asked to share both positive and negative learning experiences as a result of a teacher. With regards to a positive learning experience, students often cited teacher characteristics as the primary cause for positive experiences. Similar to results presented in the above section, a teacher's ability to create a positive environment allowed students to feel confident in taking control of their own learning. Example responses include the following:

- I was confident in speaking English because he listened to me without worrying even if the details of English were not correct. [Yuna]
- The teacher talked to me cheerfully so I could talk without being nervous.

[Hina]

Once again, factors such as encouragement and support were recognized as characteristics that created a positive experience:

- When I made fail, she encouraged me. [Miyu]
- I'm relieved because it says it's okay if you don't understand. [Itsuki]

Finally, students also added that a teacher who was aware of their student needs resulted in a positive learner experience:

- It was easy for me to be interested because the teacher often talked about success stories and failure stories when he was studying abroad or learning a language. [Takumi]
- Everyone got a long pretty quickly because our teacher in Core English was very kind and very mindful about our needs as a student. [Takuto]

TABLE 7. Negative Learning Experience as a Result of a Teacher

Code	Responses
Negative Environment	6
Teacher Characteristics	3
Miscellaneous	5
No Negative Experience	111

With regards to a negative learning experience, though, few respondents stated that they had encountered a negative learner experience as a result of a teacher. Of those who had, the teacher's inability to create a positive atmosphere as well as negative teacher characteristics were cited as the primary causes for their negative experience. These are example responses:

- No one was willing to speak in the class because of the intimidating feeling or feeling sick. [Honoka]
- Being misunderstood as talking nonsense when sharing the teacher's instructions with others. [Sayaka]
- I worked hard on my presentation but didn't get any praise. [Chiho]
- When I didn't understand the meaning of the teacher's words, he just kept speaking without explaining. [Mei]

Once again, these results show that a combination of personal traits and teaching-related characteristics (a good rapport and a positive classroom environment) significantly affect a learner's experience in the foreign language classroom.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The first drawback of this study were that participation size was small. While the insights acquired are valuable, the study might have benefitted from a larger study size. In addition, data were collected from a single survey conducted at the end of the second semester. A study conducted over a longer period of time and with regular surveys may have produced differing results. Respondent bias is also a possibility in that respondents may have answered questions in an effort to please the teacher. Finally, some respondents may have been reluctant to answer some survey questions, thereby impacting the survey results.

CONCLUSIONS

Results showed that in foreign language classrooms, students experience both positive and negative emotions. The former are affected largely by external variables such as teacher attributes and a positive classroom environment, while the latter is affected by internal variables such as a perceived lack of skills, a fear of a negative perception by others, and a fear of making mistakes. Foreign language anxiety was mostly connected to learner-internal variables, while teacher-related variables were linked to learning enjoyment. However, it must be made clear that there may not be a direct correlation between enjoyment and language anxiety. Enjoyment and anxiety may be independent emotions rather than being diametrically opposed. Thus, based on this study, teachers are more likely to "boost" learner enjoyment than limit learner anxiety. Hence, a positive classroom environment is important to enhance the learner's enjoyment in order to strengthen and improve language acquisition. This would seem to indicate that teachers need to focus more on improving learner enjoyment rather than trying to reduce anxiety.

THE AUTHORS

Miriam Vasquez is currently a lecturer at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies in Nagoya, Japan. Her background consists of ten years in foreign language teaching across elementary, secondary, and higher education. Her professional interests include learner anxiety and learner enjoyment, intercultural communication, bilingualism and multilingualism, and language attitudes. Email: mvasquez@nufs.ac.jp

Lidija Elliott is currently teaching at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies, Japan. Her research interests are in English language teaching, students' speaking anxiety, students' motivation in language learning, and native and non-native teachers in the EFL classroom. Email: lidija@nufs.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Brunotte, J. (2021). Public speaking anxiety in Japanese university students: Sources and strategies. *Journal of the Faculty of Foreign Studies, Aichi Prefectural University: Language and Literature*, *53*, 265–281. https://doi.org/10.15088/00004459

Chen, J. (2012). Favorable and unfavorable characteristics of EFL teachers perceived by university students of Thailand. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *2*(1), 213–219. https://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ijel/article/view/14684

Cheng, Y. S. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals*, *35*, 647–656. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2002.tb01903.x

Chiang, M. C. (2012). The relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language speaking proficiency among elementary school students in Taiwan [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Ming Chuan University.

Cutumisu, M., & Schwartz, D. L. (2018). The impact of critical feedback choice on students' revision, performance, learning, and memory. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *78*, 351–367. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2017.06.029

Dewaele, J. & MacIntyre, P. (2016). Foreign language enjoyment and foreign language classroom anxiety: The right and left feet of the language learner. In P. MacIntyre, T. Gregersen, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive psychology in SLA* (pp. 215–236). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783095360-010

Dewaele, J.-M., Franco Magdalena, A., & Saito, K. (2019). The effect of perception of teacher characteristics on Spanish EFL learners' anxiety and enjoyment. *The Modern Language Journal*, *103*(2), 412–427.

Effiong, O. (2016). Getting them speaking: Classroom social factors and foreign language anxiety. *TESOL Journal*, *7*(1), 132–161.

Elliott, L., & Vasquez M. (2022) Speaking anxiety: Japanese students in the EFL environment [Paper presentation]. *The Asian Conference on Education 2021*: *Official conference proceedings*. IAFOR. https://doi.org/10.22492/issn.2186-5892.2022.35

Ferlazzo, L. (2015, September 14). Strategies for helping students motivate themselves. Retrieved October 6, 2016, from http://www.edutopia.org/blog/strategies-helping-studentsmotivate-themselves-larry-ferlazzo

Jiang, Y., & Dewaele, J.-M. (2019). How unique is the foreign language classroom enjoyment and anxiety of Chinese EFL learners? *System*, *82*, 13–25.

Hashemi, M. (2011). Language stress and anxiety among the English language learners. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *30*, 1811–1816. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.10.349

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *70*(2), 125–132.

Karla, R., & Siribud, S. (2020). Public speaking anxiety in the Thai context. *LEARN Journal*: *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, *13*(1), 195–209.

Kayaoglu, M. N., & Saglamel, H. (2013). Students' perceptions of language anxiety in speaking classes. *Journal of History and Art Research*, *2*(2), 142–160. https://doi.org/10.7596/taksad.v2i2.245

Kluger, A. N., & DeNisi, A. (1998). Feedback interventions: Toward the understanding of a double-edged sword. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *7*(3), 67–72. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.ep10772989

Liando, N. V. F. (2010). Students' vs. teachers' perspectives on best teacher characteristics in EFL classrooms. *TEFLIN Journal*, *21*(2), 118–136. https:doi.org/ 10.15639/teflinjournal.v21i2/118-136

Mayer, D. P. (2008). How to help your child deal with separation, tests, homework, bullies, math phobia, and other worries. Amacom Books

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gregersen, T. (2012). Affect: The role of language anxiety and other emotions in language learning. In S. Mercer, S. Ryan, & M. Williams (Eds.), *Language learning psychology*: *Research*, *theory*, *and pedagogy* (pp. 103–118). Palgrave.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Mercer, S. (2014). Introducing positive psychology to SLA. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *4*, 153–172.

Pappamihiel, N. E. (2002). English as a second language students and English language anxiety: Issues in the mainstream classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *36*, 327–355.

Patall, E. A. (2013). Constructing motivation through choice, interest, and interestingness. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *105*, 522–534.

Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Titz, W., & Perry, R. P. (2002). Academic emotions in students' self-regulated learning and achievement: A program of qualitative and quantitative research. *Educational Psychologist*, *37*(2), 91–105.

Rimm-Kaufman, S., & Sandilos, L. (2010). *Improving students' relationships with teachers to provide essential supports for learning*. American Psychological Association. https://www.apa.org/education-career/k12/relationships

Schuitema, J., Peetsma, T., & van der Veen, I. (2016). Longitudinal relations between perceived autonomy and social support from teachers, and students' self-regulated learning and achievement. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *49*, 32–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.05.006

Suleimenova, Z. (2013). Speaking anxiety in a foreign language classroom in Kazakhstan. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *93*, 1860–1868.

Theobald, M. A. (2006). *Increasing student motivation*: *Strategies for middle and high school teachers*. Corwin Press.

Thoonen, E. E. J., Sleegers, P. J. C., Peetsma, T. T. D., & Oort, F. J. (2011). Can teachers motivate students to learn? *Educational Studies*, *37*(3), 345–360. https://doi.org/10.1080/03055698.2010.507008

Xie F., & Derakhshan A. (2021). A conceptual review of positive teacher interpersonal communication behaviors in the instructional context. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, Article 708490. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.708490

Young, D. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, *75*(4), 426–439. https://doi.org/10.2307/329492

Appendix

Questionnaire

Part 1: Background Information

1. Name
2. Sex
    1) Female
    2) Male
    3) Other
3. School Year
    1) First Year
    2) Second Year
4. University Major
    1) EIBEI
    2) English Communication

Part 2: Teacher Role/Perceptions

1. Does your teacher influence your English learning experience? (先生はあなたの英語学習体験に影響を与えていますか？)
    1) Yes
    2) No
2. If you answered "YES" to Question #1, how much does the teacher impact your learning experience? (質問 1 に「はい」と答えた場合、教師はあなたの学習体験にどの程度影響を与えていますか。)

	1	2	3	4	5	
Does not Influence At All	○	○	○	○	○	Extremely Important/Influential

3. In what way does your teacher affect your learning experience in the classroom? (Please explain.) [先生は、教室での学習体験にどのように影響を与えていますか（説明してください)]
4. In your opinion, what do teachers do that is not good/helpful for your language learning? (あなたの意見で、あなたの言語学習にとって　教師はなにか良くない / 役に立たないことを　していますか)
5. In your opinion, what does a teacher need to do, or have, to make you learn better? (あなたの意見では、教師はあなたがよりよく学ぶために何をする必要があるか、またはしなければなりませんか)

Part 3: Speaking Anxiety & Teacher Role

1. Do you experience anxiety in your language learning? (語学学習に不安を感じますか？)
    1) Yes
    2) No
2. If you said "YES" to Question #1, please explain your experience. (質問 1 に「はい」と答えた場合は、不安体験について説明してください)
3. What can a teacher do to help you minimize your anxiety? (不安を最小限に抑えるために、先生は何ができますか)

4. Please share a positive experience you have had in your language learning experience because of a teacher. (先生のおかげで語学学習の経験で得た前向きな経験を共有してください。)
5. Please share a negative experience you have had in your language learning experience because of a teacher. (先生のせいで語学学習の経験でネガティブな経験をしたことを教えてください。)
6. Do you have any comments/suggestions? (コメント/提案はありますか)

Exploring Flipped Learning Through Preservice Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions

Eunjeong Park
Sunchon National University, Suncheon, Korea

This study examined EFL preservice teachers' perceptions and experiences of flipped learning. Thirty preservice teachers participated in an open-ended survey, and fifteen of them agreed to interviews. For data analysis, survey responses and interviews were analyzed through thematic analysis, which is useful in exploring emerging themes and patterns in qualitative data analysis. The findings revealed that the preservice teachers considered flipped learning extremely useful and effective for self-regulation and autonomy. They also discussed affordances and challenges of flipped learning. However, they perceived the need for spontaneous feedback from instructors and frequent interactions with colleagues in terms of online pre-sessions. Lastly, the preservice teachers argued that the online sessions before class should be closely connected to the actual classroom learning. Pedagogical implications are also discussed in this study.

INTRODUCTION

Flipped learning (FL) is one of the advanced forms of technology used in higher education institutions. It has been extremely useful in preparing college students for flexible and open use in a variety of disciplines. FL promotes individualized learning, since learning takes place not only in the classroom but also in various physical or virtual spaces (Lee, 2013). Students complete some prior learning of the assigned content through a video watched before attending the class, after which the instructor and all the learners interact with each other in discussions and question-and-answer sessions about the content in FL (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015). The instructor reduces the lecture time, and students learn at their own pace in the FL context. In order to effectively design FL, activities before, during, and after class should be systematically aligned and performed (Strayer, 2012). There is also a growing number of studies showing that learner achievement significantly improves through FL (Du, 2018; Ekmekci, 2017; Ngo & Yunus, 2021; Yavuz & Ozdemir, 2019; Yi & Lim, 2020). Yi and Lim (2020) emphasized that the self-directed learning ability has an organic relationship with FL, the two influencing each other.

FL is effective for self-directed learning. The Li et al. (2015) experimental study also supported the positive effect of FL with e-learning course flexibility, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and perceived e-learner satisfaction. Therefore, it is necessary to design and manage FL by observing if students actually learn independently and whether they perceive FL as effective. Hence, this study explored EFL preservice teachers' experiences and perceptions of flipped learning in the Korean university classroom context.

FLIPPED LEARNING

The ultimate purpose of flipped learning is for students to learn how to induce active, self-directed learning on their own and then take the time to internalize the learning in the classroom. McLaughlin et al. (2014) reported on audience responses, pair-and-share activities, discussions, and individuals and groups. It was said that FL can be used successfully through a series of activities with individual or paired quizzes. In FL, teachers provide feedback based on students' responses in class and answer students' questions related to the materials provided. Teachers create a self-directed learning environment with students presenting and discussing the content of the course, and they check whether the students understand what they have learned through a quiz before the end of class (DeLozier & Rhodes, 2017). Pair-and-share activities are used in diverse ways; students are given a discussion problem during class, which is presented after discussion in pairs. As a reflective activity, a brief discussion problem is presented after two or three days of classroom learning. After writing an essay as an assignment, it is presented in a general discussion (McLaughlin et al., 2014). In addition, there are paired problem-solving activities (Love et al., 2014) and guess-observe-explain activities (Flynn, 2015) in which the students construct research hypotheses, guess and observe results, and explain or discuss differences.

Other scholars (Du, 2018; Mostafaei Alaei et al., 2019; Ngo & Yunus, 2021) have offered strategies for applying FL in the classroom context. Du (2018) stated that language teachers may assign students to groups according to their individual characteristics and natures in order to complete tasks in FL. Teachers actively encourage students with high English language proficiency to complete self-study by finding problems and asking questions in their self-learning processes. For students with basic or below-level English proficiency, teachers should pay close attention in class by communicating more with them during and after class. Organizations and sequences of content and methodology are crucial in FL. For example, warm-ups, content detection, and content expansion can be moved online pre-class with a semiotic system (e.g., language, image, and/or sound) for students' autonomous learning. The knowledge portion and controversial topics need to be presented in class for practice and clear understanding. Mostafaei Alaei et al. (2019) showed that visual scaffolding helped students better understand the literal meaning of L2 words and some grammatical components in FL materials. In addition, visual scaffolding aided students in generating different types of production.

FL allows students to learn at their own levels and comprehension speeds, and they learn to solve problems by observing their own learning patterns while checking the learning situations of other students by doing assignments in the classroom (Fulton, 2012). FL induces active learning, allows interactions between the teacher and students as well as among students active in classroom, and enables individualized learning. Therefore, it is also appropriately used for learner-centered group activities such as roleplay, cooperative learning, and project learning (Ferreri & O'Connor, 2013). As such, in order to successfully apply FL in the classroom setting, teachers should systematically organize lesson and course design, and clearly present its purpose and direction to the students so that they can adapt to the new educational paradigm.

METHOD

Context and Participants

This study was conducted at a mid-sized university in a southern region of South Korea. Thirty preservice teachers attending the Department of English Education at a college of education participated in a survey, and fifteen of them participated in interviews. The participants of this study ranged from second-year to fourth-year students in their college education. There were ten male and twenty female preservice teachers aged 21 to 28 (average age: 23) preparing to teach English at the secondary school level. The course that the participants were enrolled in was Logic and Essay Writing in English Education, which is one of the compulsory courses for qualification as a Level 2 teacher. The main learning objective of the course was to understand the genre of English essays and to write systematic essays using various sources. Among the assignments, the main essay genres were narrative, comparison/contrast, and argumentative writing.

Data Collection and Analysis

The survey was conducted over two weeks using Google Forms. The preservice teachers accessed and responded to the online questionnaire. The total number of students who took the course in English Logic and Essays was 36, but only 30 participated in the survey (response rate: 83.3%). Interviews were conducted face to face and by telephone over a four-week period. The interviews were conducted at least once or twice for each participant, lasting 30 to 60 minutes (40 minutes on average). Each interview was recorded and transcribed verbatim. Among the main interview questions were *Did the video lecture help you learn the principles of writing an English essay*, *What are the advantages of flipped learning*, and *What would be an improvement in your flipped learning experience*? In relation to these questions, each interviewee explained their responses, and additional questions were asked, depending on individual responses.

Survey responses and the interview data were analyzed through qualitative thematic analysis. Thematic analysis aids qualitative research by allowing the researcher to discover, analyze, and integrate recurring themes or trends (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis was employed, including the detailed analysis procedure: (a) familiarity with the data, (b) generating the initial code, (c) finding the topic, (d) reviewing the topic, (e) defining the themes, and (f) writing. Recurring themes were grouped and compared continuously to refine and narrow down the major themes. The interviewees were invited to a follow-up meeting to confirm that the responses recorded in the results were the same as their original responses.

RESULTS

The Benefits of Flipped Learning

The participants mentioned several benefits of FL. Several relevant responses from interviews with some of the participants are contained in the following excerpts:

> When studying the lesson theory part, I ask the professor in the middle of the class for the part I don't understand in the face-to-face class, or I don't have time to actually understand it, while I go back to the part, I don't understand easily through the FL video lecture. It's nice to be able to take some time to understand, such as pausing the video and reading the textbook. That's why I think the video lectures on flip learning have been very positive for me. [PT1, interview]

> I think the advantage of flip learning classes is that students can take classes at their own pace. Flipped learning seems to be a really big strength in that each person has enough time to listen to or understand the parts they do not understand differently. By watching the video lectures, I was able to participate more actively in the class. [PT2, interview]

> When listening to face-to-face lectures, if there was something I did not understand, I could not stop the class, and it was burdensome to ask the professor directly, so there were many cases where I did not understand the contents of the class. However, when watching video lectures in flipped learning, I watched the video with full focus on the class, and I thought I was actively listening to the lecture because I could listen to the parts I didn't understand. Video lectures seem to be the best resource to understand the theory from the class. That's why I actively listened to video lectures more diligently. [PT3, interview]

Many of the participants agreed upon efficiency as the major benefit of FL. They were able to understand the contents with sufficient time according to a systematic sequence of pre-class online video and a face-to-face class under the guidance of the teacher.

> By inserting various video materials into online lectures, I was able to watch the video lectures relatively well because I was able to pay attention and focus without being bored. [PT4, e-survey]

> It was a systematic video lecture that started with the learning goals presented in the video lecture and what to learn, and it was impressive that the writing theory was presented in a visual way to write an English essay. [PT5, interview]

In addition, through online video lectures, students can prepare for discussions or participation in face-to-face lectures by first understanding the content of the lesson. Well-aligned structures in flipped classrooms may encourage students to actively learn at their own pace.

Potential Improvements for Flipped Learning

Despite the various advantages listed for FL, these preservice teachers addressed potential improvements to FL. Contrary to their outlooks on the merits of FL, the participants offered some opinions about disadvantages of or improvements that could be made to FL. Relevant excerpts from the interviews are as follows:

> Regarding the access issue, the school server was often not smooth, and it was difficult to watch the video. At times like this, I was frustrated and annoyed by this type of class. [PT6, e-survey]

> It is unfortunate that we cannot immediately ask the professor what we need to ask about the class content, and that there is no sense of presence, such as the professor's immediate feedback or interaction with classmates. [PT7, e-survey]

The participants' responses indicated that low-quality technology often interrupts the learning process. In other words, accessibility problems in the video lecture materials due to server instability were problematic. Furthermore, FL lacks immediate interaction and communication. One participant argued that learner comprehension and concentration decrease due to overwhelming amounts of materials in the content. Even in the face-to-face class, the transition from the online pre-class portion was not sequenced and often made students feel awkward in communicating with others or asking the teacher questions.

Discussion

Flipped learning is a self-directed technology-based method that can help students learn in that they can proceed at their own speed and based on their own abilities. FL improves self-directed learning abilities, which lead to increased learning effect (Sirakaya & Özdemir, 2018; Yi & Lim, 2020; Zainuddin & Perera, 2018). This study also uncovered how Korean college students perceived FL as positive because they were able to self-study the content online at their own pace. All thirty participants responded that they tried to preview the given materials from online pre-lectures at their own pace so that they could prepare for face-to-face classes afterwards. In fact, FL provides an opportunity for learners to plan and check their own learning, eventually helping them to systematically learn to self-evaluate. If the teacher systematically organizes pre-learning online and face-to-face classes according to the characteristics of FL, this systematic organization of the instruction will be effective in improving self-directed learning through FL.

The nature of FL is to increase efficiency by offering time for discussion and question-and-answer sessions in face-to-face classes for self-directed learning and pre-learning without the teacher's supervision. Because of this, immediate feedback or interaction does not occur during the online learning. The preservice teachers who participated in this study expressed disappointment that feedback was not provided immediately. As a result, it is necessary to resolve the issue of how to offer useful feedback for effective learning. Feedback management is a significant factor for the success of students' FL (Alrowais, 2014; Luo et al., 2020). Like prior studies in the literature, it is necessary to have teacher feedback to check whether the learning is processed well. Teachers should use various communication media (email, memos, or text messages) to facilitate learning during the prerequisite period so that learners can recognize that there is an opportunity to receive immediate feedback.

CONCLUSIONS

This study is significant in examining preservice teachers' experiences and perceptions on FL, allowing them to be used in the design of university classes for effective use. This study provided the educational purpose and direction to be considered in the design of FL and considered the educational value and pedagogical direction of FL. The study found that the self-directed learning ability of preservice teachers was improved in the FL context. It shows that FL can be an effective teaching and learning method in that students actively engage in the video pre-learning to prepare for the face-to-face classes. Second, even during the online pre-learning, teachers need to make an effort to provide feedback based on the needs of students. Therefore, by using various interactive media, teachers should create an atmosphere and a class system in which students can request the teacher's scaffolding even during the online learning.

Both teachers and students need to be willing to apply FL in their teaching and learning processes. A flipped classroom approach may promote autonomous learning abilities and self-directed learning and teaching. Hence, this exploratory study is expected to offer guidance for future researchers who wish to conduct studies on FL in education. Furthermore, teachers and other educators who wish to innovate in their instruction and pedagogy can benefit from gathering information about FL based on this study. All in all, this study implies that teachers should focus on instructional design that increases the educational value and effectiveness of FL for the improvement of student learning.

THE AUTHOR

Eunjeong Park is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language Education at Sunchon National University. Her research interests include second language writing, teacher education, and the interdisciplinary study of foreign/second language learning in education and applied linguistics. Email: parkej@scnu.ac.kr

REFERENCES

Abeysekera, L., & Dawson, P. (2015). Motivation and cognitive load in the flipped classroom: Definition, rationale, and a call for research. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *34*(1), 1–14.

Alrowais, A. S. (2014). The impact of flipped learning on achievement and attitudes in higher education. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education*, *4*(Special 1), 1914–1921.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*, 77–101.

DeLozier, S. J., & Rhodes, M. G. (2017). Flipped classrooms: A review of key ideas and recommendations for practice. *Educational Psychology Review*, *29*(1), 141–151.

Du, Y. (2018). Discussion on flipped classroom teaching mode in college English teaching. *English Language Teaching*, *11*(11), 92–97. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n11p92

Ekmekci, E. (2017). The flipped writing classroom in Turkish EFL context: A comparative study on a new model. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, *18*(2), 151–167.

Ferreri, S., & O'Connor, S. K. (2013). Redesign of a large lecture course into a small-group learning course. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, *77*(1), 1–9.

Flynn, A. B. (2015). Structure and evaluation of flipped chemistry courses: Organic and spectroscopy, large and small, first to third year, English and French. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice*, *16*, 198–211.

Fulton, K. (2012). Upside down and inside out: Flip your classroom to improve student learning. *Learning and Leading with Technology*, *39*(8), 12–17.

Lee, D.-Y. (2013). Research on developing instructional design models for flipped learning. *The Journal of Digital Policy and Management*, *11*(12), 83–92.

Li, Y., Zhang, M., Bonk, C. J., & Guo, N. (2015). Integrating MOOC and flipped classroom practice in a traditional undergraduate course: Students' experience and perceptions. *IJET Journal*, *10*(6), 4–10.

Love, B., Hodge, A., Grandgenett, N., & Swift, A. W. (2014). Student learning and perceptions in a flipped linear algebra course. *International Journal of Mathematical Education in Science and Technology*, *45*, 317–324.

Luo, Z., O'Steen, B., & Brown, C. (2020). Flipped learning wheel (FLW): A framework and process design for flipped L2 writing classes. *Smart Learning Environments*, *7*(10), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40561-020-00121-y

McLaughlin, J. E., Roth, M. T., Glatt, D. M., Gharkholonarehe, N., Davidson, C. A., Griffin, L. M., & Mumper, R. J. (2014). The flipped classroom: A course redesign to foster learning and engagement in a health professions school. *Academic Medicine*, *89*, 236–243.

Mostafaei Alaei, M., Kardoust, A., & Saeedian, A. (2019). The role of visual scaffolding in enhancing Iranian EFL students' writing ability. *Issues in Language Teaching*, *8*(2), 187–211.

Ngo, H. K., & Yunus, M. M. (2021). Flipped classroom in English language teaching and learning: A systematic literature review. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *11*(3), 185–196. http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v11-i3/8622

Sirakaya, D. A., & Özdemir, S. (2018). The effect of a flipped classroom model on academic achievement, self-directed learning readiness, motivation, and retention. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *6*(1), 76–91.

Strayer, J. F. (2012). How learning in an inverted classroom influences cooperation, innovation, and task orientation. *Learning Environment Research*, *15*(2), 171–193.

Yavuz, F., & Ozdemir, S. (2019). Flipped classroom approach in EFL context: Some associated factors. *World Journal on Educational Technology*: *Current Issues*, *11*(4), 238–244. https://doi.org/10.18844/wjet.v11i4.4296

Yi, E.-S., & Lim, H.-S. (2020). Suggestions for using flipped learning videos and a study on the educational value. *Journal of Convergence for Information Technology*, *10*(6), 87–95. https://doi.org/10.22156/CS4SMB.2020.10.06.087

Zainuddin, Z., & Perera, C. J. (2018). Supporting students' self-directed learning in the flipped classroom through the LMS TES BlendSpace. *On the Horizon*, *26*(4), 281–290. https://doi.org/10.1108/OTH-04-2017-0016

Multilingual Learners: The Importance of the Right Terminology

Keirah Comstock
University of Rochester, Rochester, New York, USA

Over the last two decades, the population of K–12 students in the United States for whom English is not their first language has increased. Many educators and administrators have referred to these students as English language learners (ELLs), English as a second language (ESL) learners, or limited English proficiency (LEP) students. However, based on the terminology, these descriptions are misrepresentations. To understand the use of specific terms in current school culture, this study explored how K–12 public school teachers in the United States use particular terminology. The study was conducted on public school K–12 teachers with an inquiry group during their professional development. Data collection included participants' observations, individual interviews, teachers' journals, and artifacts. Due to the limited amount of research currently available, this study serves to understand the phenomena of school culture better.

INTRODUCTION

Students for whom English is not their first language have entered public schools in the United States at consistently higher enrollment levels from 2010 until the fall of 2018 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2021). Currently, one in five children speak a language other than English at home, and one in ten students is classified as an *English learner* (EL) in the United States (Thompson & Kieffer, 2018). There are gaps between the increasing number of EL students who enroll in schools in the United States and school districts' abilities to support these students academically (Yi & Choi, 2015). Additionally, the terminology used to refer to students for whom English is not their first language has changed several times over the last two decades. In California, the terminology has shifted from *limited English proficiency* (LEP) to *English language learner* (ELL), while other states use *English learners* (Matinez, 2018). Martinez (2018) states that using the terms "ELL" or "EL" does not support students with "what they do know" (p. 515). Instead, when people use "ELL" or "EL," it implies, "what do they not know" (p. 515). Using the correct terminology for students for whom English is not their first language is essential. When teachers, administrators, and students are using misterms for bilingual learners (BLs) and multilingual learners (MLs), it limits equity (Garcia, 2009) and impacts the non-native speaker's identity and academic success (Webster & Lu, 2012). To understand why it is so important to use the correct terminology, this paper begins with reviewing the United States' history of transitioning between the terms *monolingual*, *bilingual*, *dual language*, and *multilingual*.

During the 1660s, people in Manhattan, New York (in the United States) spoke at least 18 different languages (Lessow-Hurley, 2012). When people settled in the US from various countries, using their home country's language seemed normal, and learning English was unnecessary. Lessow-Hurley (2012) indicated that some refugee children began to lose the English they had acquired because they found it unnecessary for day-to-day life. In the 1780s, several people, including John Adams and Noah Webster, started to establish an American language academy and develop standards for "Federal English" (Lessow-Hurley, 2012, p. 6). These decisions were not advantageous for bilinguals and multilinguals as they created language barriers and limited freedom of expression. When the federal government mandated school instruction in English only in 1879, Native American children had to leave their families to attend off-reservation boarding schools. Students were not allowed to use their native languages and were punished when they were caught speaking their home languages (Lessow-Hurley, 2012). Furthermore, during the 19th century, language programs in the US began to eliminate using languages other than English, including German language instruction. As a result, by 1923, 34 out of 48 states had English-only instructional policies (Lessow-Hurley, 2012). These policies were harsh for BLs and MLs, who were then forced to use only English during their learning.

After the Elementary and Second Education Act (ESEA) approved the Bilingual Education Act in 1965, districts had the option to establish their own bilingual programs. By 1971, all 50 states were permitted to support bilingualism, and "nine states had laws requiring some form of dual language instruction for students with limited English proficiency" (Lessow-Hurley, 2012, p. 25). Over the following two decades, there have been shifts, updates, and developments in education systems nationwide, including the usage of terminology for students. However, there are challenges to supporting MLs, especially regarding how to refer to the students in this population.

Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to explore the current status of terminology used for students for whom English is not their first language. It is important to use the right terminology when referencing MLs, which ties in with diversity, equity, and inclusive teaching. Every student has the right to receive equal opportunity in education. Referring to MLs with the wrong terminology can be limiting while accentuating the barriers to opportunities (Garcia, 2009; Martinez, 2018). This study explored how and what terminology K–12 public school teachers in the United States are currently using. This technical professional development (tech PD) invitation was specifically for teachers who taught MLs to support the MLs. Data collection included participants' observations, individual interviews, teachers' journals, and artifacts. Due to the limited amount of research currently available, this study serves to understand the phenomena of school culture related to MLs. The goal of this study is to share how current K–12 teachers refer to MLs, and the teachers' thoughts about shifting their ideas regarding the referencing of MLs.

The primary research questions were as follows:

RQ1. What terminology are the teachers using?
RQ2. What are the teachers' thoughts about using new terminology?

METHOD

This study was designed as qualitative design-based research (DBR) focusing on exploring the relationships and the use of terminology among the teachers who teach MLs during tech PD. The reasoning behind selecting a qualitative DBR was to explore using multiple perspectives where I, as a researcher, could employ an explicit focus on dynamic interactions to gain a deeper understanding (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). In this paper, I specifically focus on what terminology the teachers used and their reflections on switching terms.

The setting for this study was the North Kircum Central School District (pseudonym) in upstate New York, USA, which has approximately 4000 students and 300 teachers. Four teachers and one instructional technology leader participated in this study. The inclusion criteria for participation in the study was that the teachers must teach MLs or one of their roles must be an English as a new language (ENL) teacher. Participants met weekly for three months in a professional development program designed with a specific emphasis on blended teaching that focused on supporting MLs. This study has three phases: the initial individual interviews, ten weekly sessions, and the final individual interviews. The participants shared their artifacts, including teaching materials and journal reflections. This is part of a larger script, and I am sharing the preliminary findings in this paper. All the names indicated in this paper are pseudonyms.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

I find a great deal of the current terminology to be quite confusing.

The study found that the teachers who participated in this study were also confused with terminology related to both students and teachers. The terminology used to describe MLs has changed numerous times, including LEP, ESL, ELL, and EL. Due to their confusion, the teachers acknowledged that they chose terms that best suited them. Ms. Jones, a high school ENL teacher, stated,

> There have been so many shifts in terminology in our field: LEP, and then it was TESOL, and it was ESOL, and then it was ENL and ELL, and now it's MLL or EL. It's all for the same thing. I almost wish they wouldn't change it. To me, ELLs, are the clearest one out of all the different acronyms. We've used it over the years because what they're doing, they're learning English. [Ms. Jones, interview, 5/13/22]

Ms. Garcia, a K–3 ENL teacher relayed,

> There's already a lot of confusion around some of the things, we have ELLs, English language learners. Now we went from ESL, English as a second language, to ENL, English as a new language. Some people were calling it ESOL, we never said in our district. Some people asked, are you an ELL teacher or an ENL teacher? I always say "English as a new language teacher." I think then people are still confused. [Ms. Garcia, interview, 5/11/22]

None of the participants were clear about which terminology they needed to use in terms of supporting MLs. As a result, they chose to use the one they thought was the best fit for their students. They did not want to receive any negative impact by using the wrong terminology, instead they wanted to use it correctly.

I will use new terminology if it supports my students.

The study also found that the teachers did not mind shifting to new terminology if it supported their students. Ms. Moore, a fourth-grade teacher, said,

> We obviously aren't saying ELLs thinking, they have a deficit. But that is truly kind of how we label them. If we're saying they're English language learners, it's not like we're saying to the kid, that you know, those other ones don't have that kind of label. ... It sounds too much. I don't know, too fancy I guess. But I do like multilingual. I am starting to like that more ... because you're celebrating whatever language they might know or might be aware of. [Ms. Moore, interview, 5/12/22]

Ms. Smith, a kindergarten teacher, suggested,

> It's not like they're coming here just to learn English, we also need to respect the fact that they're coming here, already knowing something about that. We have a couple of students in my classroom who celebrate Ramadan. So, this year, I made it a point to learn and focus more on that in my classroom. During the traditional holiday season, we talked about Kwanza [pause], Ramadan [pause] ... I think if there's any way that we can continue to do that, even if it's just a shift in how we're talking about [pause] I think it's really important." [Ms. Smith, interview, 5/9/22]

During the study, most of the teachers used the term "ELL," and once in a while, they used "ML" during the weekly meetings. This study found that the teachers were aware of the "ML" terminology, but they had used "ELL" for so long that it came more naturally to them. As a result of the study, the findings illustrated two parts to the confusion. The first was that the teachers were confused with the many terms used to describe the students. The second finding was that there was also confusion surrounding the terms for teachers. The teachers have used certain terminology based on what they believed was the best fit for their students.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study has shown what terms are used by some K–12 teachers during their teaching and the confusion surrounding choosing the right terminology for their students. Since there are no guidelines on how to refer to MLs correctly, each teacher had to choose their own definition. The study found that although they had been using what they were accustomed to, the teachers were willing to change their terminology if it benefitted their students. All the teachers were in agreement that students deserve to receive equal opportunity in education and that they should not be categorized by their language barriers. I argue that students who speak more languages than just English or students who speak their native language but are not yet fluent in English should be referred to by educators as "multilingual learners" (MLs). Using the term "ELLs" has implied misconceptions of the students' equity and can lead to misrepresentation in the classroom. Although this study was based on a small group of participants, it highlights the need for future studies to examine and develop further terminology changes in districts across the state or nationwide. This study supports researchers who work on diversity, equity, and inclusion and teachers and administrators who want to make a shift that will better support their students.

The Author

Keirah Comstock is a PhD candidate in the Warner School of Education at the University of Rochester in the United States of America. Her research interests are teacher education and inclusive teaching, technology and education, and art education. She is currently conducting several studies, including K–12 teachers' technology integration and inclusive teaching with preservice teachers. She has published various children's books and youth books, including the bilingual children's books, *Fiery Frank Makes Friends* and *T-tek, Unbearable T-rex*. She has won numerous awards as a professional photographer, including the PDN and International Photo Awards. She has been teaching in K–12 and higher education as an English as a new language (ENL) teacher and art professor since 2006. Email: kcomsto2@u.rochester.edu

References

Carnoy, M., & García, E. (2017). *Five key trends in U.S. student performance*. Economic Policy Institute. http://www.epi.org/files/pdf/113217.pdf

Lessow-Hurley, J. (2012). *The foundations of dual language instruction*. Pearson Higher Education.

Martínez, R. A. (2018). Beyond the English learner label: Recognizing the richness of bi/multilingual students' linguistic repertoires. *The Reading Teacher*, *71*(5), 515–522.

Thompson, K., & Kieffer, M. (2018). *Multilingual learners doing better in US schools than previously thought*. The Conversation. https://tinyurl.com/y96z2ter

Webster, N. L., & Lu, C. (2012). "English language learners": An analysis of perplexing ESL-related terminology. *Language and Literacy*, *14*(3), 83–94.

Effects of VR and Online Public Speaking Lessons on Students' Speaking Skills

Yukie Saito
Chuo University, Tokyo, Japan

Public speaking skills are needed skills for those who hope to work globally. However, university students in Japan lack opportunities to practice public speaking skills (Pribyl et al., 2001). Japanese university students were offered three virtual reality (VR) English lessons and a public speaking course as part of an online study abroad program. The results of pre- and post-TOEIC speaking tests showed no significant improvement in their speaking scores compared to studies on the possible effects of VR on speaking performance (Saito, 2021; Tricia, 2022) and of the online public speaking courses on speaking performance (Yee et al., 2021). However, results of self-evaluation questionnaires showed that the students perceived that they had improved their public speaking skills. Based on the results, the possibility of integrating VR English lessons into a public speaking course and offering an online public speaking course will be discussed.

INTRODUCTION

In this global society, having public speaking skills is one of the skills needed for those who hope to work globally. Nowadays, students and those seeking employment highly value public speaking skills (Hasibuan et al., 2022). However, university students in Japan lack opportunities to learn and practice public speaking skills compared to American students (Pribyl et al., 2001). Thus, Japanese university students are expected to have an opportunity to improve public speaking skills while they are students.

Now, students can take public speaking courses asynchronously and synchronously, thanks to the development of technology. For example, in the study by Linardopoulos (2010), a public speaking course was offered fully asynchronously by having students view PowerPoint lectures with audio and submit either streaming video online or via VHS/DVD, and the participants viewed the experience positively. Now, with further development of technology and the difficulty in implementing a face-to-face public speaking course because of COVID-19, a public speaking course is available synchronously using online meeting tools. In the study by Yee et al. (2021), students' anxiety levels and speech performance were examined between online and face-to-face public speaking, and the results showed that there was no difference in anxiety, but the participants who delivered their speech online performed better than those who delivered their speech face-to-face.

However, the Yee et al. (2021) study results also show that most of the participants were still anxious about online and face-to-face public speaking. Hasibuan et al. (2022) investigated public speaking anxiety factors among EFL students through online learning, and the results showed that English oral proficiency was the most dominant factor causing students' public speaking anxiety. Thus, students' foreign language anxiety is considered to be a factor affecting students' performance in public speaking. In order to help students to reduce foreign language anxiety and improve speaking skills, the use of virtual reality (VR) might be helpful, as possible positive effects of VR on participants' foreign language anxiety (Lin & Lan, 2015; York et al., 2021) and foreign language anxiety and speaking performance (Saito, 2021; Thrasher, 2022) have been reported.

To the best of my knowledge, few studies have investigated the effects of VR English lessons focusing on public speaking and online public speaking lessons on Japanese students' English proficiency. Also, no study investigated whether students' perception of their public speaking skills changed after VR English lessons and online public speaking lessons were introduced. Based on the previous research and the existing research gaps, this study set to investigate the following three research questions.

RQ1. Do VR English lessons and online public speaking lessons improve students' speaking proficiency?
RQ2. Do individual students' self-evaluations of public speaking skills change after the administration of VR English lessons and the online public speaking lessons?
RQ3. How do the students perceive the VR English lessons and the online public speaking lessons?

METHOD

In this section, the background and an outline of an online study abroad program will first be explained. Then, the program participants will be presented, and data collection and analysis to answer the research questions will be provided.

The Background and an Outline of an Online Study Abroad Program

Initially, a two-week study abroad program with a public speaking course, lectures related to ICT, and IT company visits in the U.S. were supposed to be offered as a fall semester course in February 2022. However, due to ongoing travel restrictions, the program had to be offered online. The online study abroad program aimed to help students improve their public speaking skills and acquire ICT knowledge.

The main program was a two-week online study abroad program. Prior to the main program, a pre-program was offered. As a part of the pre-program, lecturers from Japanese offices of IT companies such as Microsoft, Google, and Facebook gave lectures in Japanese. Through the lectures, students learned about IT businesses, including the development of AI and VR technologies and ethical issues related to their development. Following that, three VR English lessons were offered. The VR lessons focused on discussion, debate, and presentation to prepare for a public speaking course in the main program. Based on what they learned from the lectures, the students participated in a discussion, such as whether VR will be popular; had debates on topics such as whether AI will help humanity; and made presentations on what technology they have found to be the most interesting and what ethical issues related to the technology needed to be considered.

For the VR English lessons, a VR platform offered by Immerse was used. One main reason for selecting this VR platform was that students could be in 3D-generated scenes so that they could feel as if they were present in the scenes. Also, there were sceneries such as a meeting room, a debate room, and a presentation room that were appropriate to practice having a discussion, having a debate, and giving a presentation; thus, the platform was considered suitable for the English lessons focusing on public speaking.

The main program after the VR English lessons was offered by a university in the U.S. using an online meeting platform. The main program consisted of a public speaking English course focusing on discussion, debate, presentation, and a series of lectures from IT companies such as Google, Amazon, Facebook, Zoom, and Netflix. A native English-speaking professor offered the public speaking English course with four public speaking lessons. One example lesson was that the students watched YouTube and TED Talks videos related to IT, such as *The Genesis of Google* and *Filter Bubble*, and followed up with a discussion. They practiced making short introductions and participatory discussions in the first class, a presentation in the second class, and debates in the third class. Based on what they learned in the public speaking course and the lectures, they made a group presentation about how the latest technology can solve a problem in the world.

Participants of the Program

The participants were 13 students: 4 were third-year university students, and 9 were second-year students. All of them were in the university's Department of Global Informatics. The average TOEIC Listening and Reading score among the thirteen students was 766, which is CEFR B2 level.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data collected for this study were pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests, pre- and post-self-evaluation questionnaires about their public speaking skills, and a questionnaire about the online study abroad program. The questionnaire about the online study abroad program included questions about the VR English lessons and the public speaking course.

To answer the first research question, pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests were administered before and after the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons. Both the pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests were conducted online. Eleven of the thirteen students took the pre-TOEIC Speaking test, and all of the thirteen took the post-TOEIC Speaking test. The TOEIC Speaking test is comprised of five types of questions: reading a text aloud, describing a picture, responding to questions, responding to questions using the information provided, and expressing an opinion. According to the Institute for International Business Communication (2022), which administers the TOEIC Speaking test, a perfect TOEIC Speaking score is 200, and the latest results show that the average score among the test takers is 128.4. The average scores of the eight students in the pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests were compared, and scores of the pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests of individual students were also compared.

To answer the second research question, a self-evaluation questionnaire about public speaking skills created with reference to can-do descriptors of the CEFR Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2020) was administered before and after the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons. Reflecting the need for changes in the CEFR published in 2001 (Council of Europe, 2001), the Council of Europe (2018; 2020) published the CEFR Companion Volume in 2018 (hereafter CEFR/CV 2018), and the final version of the CEFR Companion Volume in 2020 (hereafter CEFR/CV 2020). CEFR/CV 2018 has been adapted to different learning contexts, such as for Italian learners (Cinganotto, 2019), Cuban students learning English (Harsch et al., 2019), for teaching pluringualisim at a Canadian university (Galante, 2018), and for university students in Japan (Saito, 2020). In CEFR/CV 2018 and CEFR/CV 2020, can-do descriptors related to public speaking as well as online discussions are included. Since the final version of CEFR/CV is available, can-do descriptors from CEFR/CV 2020 were adapted to the self-evaluation questionnaire in relation to students' public speaking skills. Their average TOEIC Listening and Reading score was equivalent to the CEFR B2 level. In general, Japanese students' speaking skills are lower than listening and reading skills; thus, B1 and B2 levels of can-do descriptors related to public speaking skills from CEFR/CV 2020 were selected and adapted to the self-evaluation questionnaire. The students also prepared for a group presentation online; thus, can-do descriptors for goal-oriented online transactions and collaboration were also adapted to the self-evaluation questionnaire. Answer choices were *I cannot do it now*, *I can do it to some degree*, and *I can do it to a large degree*, and the answer choices were 1 point, 2 points, and 3 points, respectively. The average score was calculated for each can-do descriptor in the pre- and post-self-evaluation questionnaires.

At the end of the course, an additional questionnaire was conducted to investigate how the students perceived the online study abroad program and the pre-program. It was conducted anonymously to obtain the students' honest opinions. To answer the third research question, the questions in the end-of-course questionnaire related to the VR English lessons and the public speaking course were analyzed. Closed questions were about whether the students thought the English classes using VR as part of the pre-program helped improve their English discussion, debate, and presentation skills and whether the online public speaking English classes helped improve their English discussion, debate, and presentation skills. In addition, open questions about the feedback to the VR English lessons and the public speaking course were added.

The students wrote their feedback about the pre-TOEIC Speaking test, each VR and public speaking lesson, and the post-TOEIC Speaking test as a self-evaluation in their portfolio. Their comments in their portfolio were used as additional information to explain the results of the self-evaluation questionnaires.

RESULTS

In this section, the results of the pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests, the pre- and post-self-evaluation questionnaire, and the end-of-course questionnaire are presented.

Results of the TOEIC Speaking Tests

Table 1 shows the overall results of the pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests and Table 2 shows the individual students' results of the pre- and post-TOEIC Speaking tests. Although the program participants were 13 students, two could not take the pre-TOEIC Speaking test. Thus, the results of the tests include those of the 11 students who finished both of the pre- and the post-TOEIC Speaking tests. The average score on the pre-TOEIC Speaking test was 125.5, and that on the post-TOEIC Speaking test was 131.8. The average score on the post-TOEIC Speaking test increased by 6.3 points compared to the pre-TOEIC Speaking test.

TABLE 1. Overall Results of TOEIC Speaking Tests

Item	Pre-TOEIC Speaking	Post-TOEIC Speaking
Number of Participants	11	11
Average	125.5	131.8
Medium	120	130
Mode	120	130
SD	19.7	16.4
Range	60	60
MIN	90	100
MAX	150	160

As shown in Table 2, only student H increased their score significantly (i.e., by 40 points). Six students increased their scores by 10 points. Scores of two students did not change, and one student's score decreased by 20 points. Speaking proficiency levels are the levels that the Institute for International Business Communication shared. The results show that five students improved their proficiency levels while six students did not change. Overall, the results show no significant improvement in their TOEIC Speaking score on the post-test as compared to the pre-test.

TABLE 2. Individual Students' Results on Their TOEIC Speaking Tests

Participants	Pre-test	Post-test	Gap (Post - Pre)	Proficiency Level		Up or Down
				Pre-test	Post-test	
A	120	130	+10	5	6	Up
B	150	160	+10	6	7	Up
C	140	130	-10	6	6	No Change
D	150	130	-20	6	6	No Change
E	120	130	+10	5	6	Up

F	100	100	0	4	4	No Change
G	130	140	+10	6	6	No Change
H	90	130	+40	4	6	Up
I	120	120	0	5	5	No Change
J	110	120	+10	5	5	No Change
K	150	160	+10	6	7	Up

Results of the Self-Evaluation Questionnaire on Public Speaking Skills

To answer the second research question, the pre-self-evaluation questionnaire on public speaking skills was administered before the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons, and the post-self-evaluation questionnaire was administered after the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons. Table 3 shows the results of the pre- and post-self-evaluation questionnaires.

TABLE 3. Results of Self-Evaluation of Public Speaking Skills

No.	Can-Do Descriptor	Pre-Self-Evaluation	Post-Self-Evaluation	Gap (Post - Pre)
1.	Can develop an argument well enough to be followed without difficulty most of the time.	1.75	2.25	+0.5
2.	Can give simple reasons to justify a viewpoint on a familiar topic.	2.08	2.67	+0.6
3.	Can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans, and actions.	1.92	2.58	+0.7
4.	Can give a prepared presentation on a familiar topic within their field, outlining similarities and differences.	2.00	2.50	+0.5
5.	Can give a prepared straightforward presentation on a familiar topic in which the main points are explained with reasonable precision.	2.00	2.67	+0.7
6.	Can take follow-up questions, but may have to ask for repetitions if the delivery is rapid.	2.25	2.50	+0.3
7.	Can give simple reasons to justify a viewpoint on a familiar topic.	2.00	2.67	+0.7
8.	Can take an active part in informal discussion in familiar contexts, commenting, and putting a point of view clearly.	1.67	2.50	+0.8
9.	Can explain and sustain their opinions in discussion by providing relevant explanations, arguments, and comments.	1.75	2.42	+0.7
10.	Can participate actively in routine and non-routine formal discussions.	1.67	2.42	+0.8
11.	Can contribute, explain, and sustain their opinion, and evaluate alternative proposals.	1.67	2.17	+0.5
12.	Can participate actively in an online discussion, stating and responding to opinions on topics of interest at some length.	1.83	2.42	+0.6

13. Can engage in real-time online exchanges with more than one participant, recognizing the communicative intentions of each contributor.	1.67	2.25	+0.6
14. Can interact online with a group that is working on a project, following straightforward instructions, seeking clarification, and helping to accomplish the shared tasks.	1.92	2.50	+0.6
15. Can interact online with a partner or small group working on a project, provided there are visual aids to clarify more complex concepts.	1.83	2.50	+0.7

As shown in Table 3, all of the can-do self-evaluations improved in the post-self-evaluation questionnaire compared to the pre-self-evaluation questionnaire. Can-do descriptors 8 and 10 each improved by 0.8 points compared to the pre-self-evaluation questionnaire. Five out of the 15 can-do descriptors increased by 0.7 points. Among the 15 can-do descriptors, No. 6 showed the lowest increase at 0.3 points.

Related to the difficulty in answering follow-up questions, three students wrote about the difficulty in answering questions after the group presentation on the portfolio:

- What I felt hard was a part of questions and answers.
- As for my presentation, I had difficulty anticipating the questions people would ask.
- I thought we made an interesting presentation; however, we did not really think about how to answer the question, so I have regretted it.

The students' comments support that taking up follow-up questions is still difficult for some students.

Results of the End-of-Course Questionnaire

Table 4 shows the results of the closed questions about the VR English lessons and the public speaking course from the end-of-course questionnaire. As shown in Table 4, most of the students thought that English lessons using VR helped them improve their discussion, debate, and presentation skills in English; however, one student chose *neither disagree nor agree.*

TABLE 4. Results of the Closed Questions in the End-of-Course Questionnaire

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
English lessons using VR as part of the pre-program helped improve discussion, debate, and presentation skills in English.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (9.1%)	5 (54.4%)	5 (54.4%)
The public speaking course helped improve discussion, debate, and presentation skills in English.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (9%)	1 (9%)	9 (81.8%)

Regarding the open question to ask about the VR English lessons, the following positive responses were made:

- Communication that can only be done in VR was very interesting.
- By having a discussion using VR, I was able to understand the flow of the discussion.
- It was my first time to use VR, so it was very fresh. It was fun as if I were taking classes in the same space.
- Although VR Lesson was an online conversation, it made me feel like I was actually talking in the classroom because I used an avatar, and the hurdles for speaking and talking were low.
- It was a very fresh experience to be able to take classes as if I were in the same classroom even though I was away.
- I was able to play a role well in an environment where it was easy to get into the situation.

One student wrote about communication that can only be done in VR. It is assumed that the student found it interesting to communicate using gestures in the VR scenes. Several students wrote about feeling as if they were present in the same place. Also, the use of the avatars seemed helpful in lowering the anxiety to speak, and the situations created by VR also helped the students in performing in their roleplay well. However, there were some negative comments:

- There were only 3 VR lessons in about 45 minutes each time, so I felt that it was not enough as an opportunity to speak English.
- I thought it would be difficult to wear it [the head-mounted display] for a long time because it would make me tired.
- I felt that the equipment was heavy, and it was difficult to use it for a long time.

Regarding the open question about the public speaking course, most of the comments were favorable. It seems that the course was helpful for them to improve pronunciation and listening:

- I feel that it was very helpful in improving my English skills, such as practicing correct pronunciation and listening to TED Talks.
- I enjoyed learning the way of making good presentations, phrases that can be used in presentations and debates, and differences in pronunciation between "r" and "l."

Also, the following comments indicate that the public speaking course helped the participants improve presentation and debate skills as well as speaking skills:

- It was a high hurdle to give presentations and debates in English, but I got a sense of accomplishment and a lot of inspiration through them.
- I was able to acquire practical communication skills such as debates and expressions necessary for questions, which was meaningful.
- It was difficult because I had never had to speak all in English and express

my opinion in English, but I think it helped me improve my English proficiency.

However, one student wrote about the limited time for practicing debate:

- The debate itself was very interesting. However, I couldn't do enough debating to meet my satisfaction. The debate time was so short that I could only speak once.

Overall, the students felt that being present and immersed in the VR scenes and the VR English lessons before the public speaking course were helpful in preparing for discussions, debates, and presentations, though the time was insufficient. However, the heaviness of the head-mounted display (HMD) and the difficulty in using it were pointed out. About the public speaking course, the students thought that the course helped them improve debate and presentation skills, although one student thought that the time allotted was insufficient.

Discussion

The possible effects of VR lessons on students' French proficiency (Tricia, 2022) and on students' English proficiency (Saito, 2021) have been reported. Also, positive effects of an online public speaking course on students' speaking performance were also reported (Yee et al., 2021). However, no significant change between the pre-TOEIC Speaking test and the post-TOEIC Speaking test was obtained in this study.

Regardless, the students' self-evaluations of their public speaking skills changed positively after the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons. Possible reasons for the positive change might be that the can-do descriptors used for the questionnaire were more relevant to what they learned in the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons than the contents of the TOEIC Speaking test. Consequently, the questionnaire adapted from can-do descriptors of the CEFR/CV 2020 might be appropriate for the students to evaluate their own learning in this course aiming at improving public speaking skills. The adaptation of can-do descriptors from CEFR/CV 2018 to different learning contexts has been promoted for different purposes in different contexts (Cinganotto, 2019; Galante, 2018; Harsch et al., 2019; Saito, 2020). Those studies were conducted before the publication of CEFR/CV 2020. However, in this study, CEFR/CV 2020 was used as a reference, and adapting can-do descriptors from CEFR/CV 2020 to this course seemed appropriate for the students' self-evaluation.

The students' comments concerning the VR English lessons were similar to the results in past VR studies in relation to learner involvement (Freina & Ott, 2015), and engagement (Hu-Au & Lee, 2017). Scrivner et al. (2019) mentioned that VR could help learners become active participants in virtual scenes, which is supported by the comment by a participant in this study that they played well in the study's VR scene. Also, one student wrote that the hurdle to speaking English was lowered by using an avatar. It is assumed that there was a positive effect of VR on students' foreign language anxiety, which was also indicated in past studies

(Lin & Lan, 2015; York et al, 2021; Tricia, 2022).

In the study by Linardopoulos (2010), the participants in the asynchronous public speaking course viewed the experience positively. The students in this study had favorable opinions about the synchronous public speaking course as part of the online study abroad program. However, there was no significant change in their TOEIC Speaking test scores, in contrast to Yee et al. (2021), in which the participants who delivered their speeches online performed better than the participants who delivered their speeches face-to-face. There was no significant change in the results of the post-TOEIC Speaking test compared to the scores on the pre-TOEIC Speaking test in this study, even though the students perceived that they had improved their public speaking skills. One of the reasons for no indication of significant change might be related to the limited number of public speaking classes. Another possible reason might be that the TOEIC Speaking test may not be for evaluating public speaking skills. Thus, other methods to evaluate public speaking skills may need to be considered.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study have shown that the students perceived that they had improved their public speaking skills though no significant improvement was obtained from the post-TOEIC Speaking test. Also, the students viewed positively the VR English lessons as preparation for the public speaking course. Characteristics of the VR English lessons such as enjoyment, the feeling of immersion and presence, and lowering anxiety mentioned by the students imply positive effects of introducing VR English lessons as preparation for public speaking lessons. However, to introduce VR English lessons, the negative issues raised by the students in this study, such as the heaviness of the HMDs and tiredness caused by the HMDs, need to be addressed.

Also, the students viewed the online public speaking course positively though they felt that the number of lessons was limited. Thus, it appears that the number of public speaking lessons needs to be increased to investigate the effects of public speaking lessons on student speaking proficiency. However, the potential benefits of offering an online public speaking course were indicated in this study. At the same time, COVID-19 caused business people to shift to working from home and participate in online meetings, which is considered to remain to some degree even after COVID-19 abates. Thus, being accustomed to having discussions, having debates, and making presentations online will be an essential business skill in the future. For these reasons, there is benefit of offering a public speaking course online.

This study was based on the results obtained from a limited number of participants in a limited number of VR English lessons and public speaking lessons; therefore, to investigate the effects of VR English lessons and public speaking lessons on students speaking proficiency, a longitudinal study with more participants and a comparison with a treatment group and a control group with other methods such as face-to-face lessons will be needed. Also, the TOEIC Speaking test was not implemented between the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons. Thus, the effects of the VR English lessons and the public speaking lessons could not be separately investigated. This could be done by introducing a speaking test after the VR English lessons and before the public speaking lessons. Also, this study did not investigate students' foreign language anxiety; thus, questionnaires to investigate the effects of VR English lessons and public speaking lessons on students' foreign language anxiety may need to be considered.

This study abroad program had to be offered online without much preparation due to the spread of COVID-19. However, it seems that the IT lectures in Japanese became the scaffolding for the VR English lessons, which became the scaffolding for the public speaking course. Also, what the students learned from the IT lectures in Japanese as part of the pre-program and in English in the main program was helpful for them to become familiar with the contents of discussions, debates, and presentations. Thus, the pre-program with the VR English lessons and the IT lectures in Japanese and the online study program with the public speaking course and the IT lectures in English may have much potential in helping students improve public speaking skills and acquire IT knowledge, both of which are important skills for this global society. Thus, the program itself will need to be well-designed, based on the feedback from the students and those involved in the program, such as the professor of the public speaking course.

The Author

Yukie Saito is an associate professor in the Faculty of Global Informatics at Chuo University in Japan. She holds a PhD in education. Her main research areas are the application of edtech in English education, the application of CEFR, and teachers' cognition and classroom practice. Email: ty-saito@tamacc.chuo-u.ac.jp

References

Cinganotto, L. (2019). Online interaction in reaching and learning a foreign language: An Italian pilot project on the companion volume to the CEFR. *Journal of E-Learning and Knowledge Society*, *15*(1), 135–151. https://doi.org/10.20368/1971-8829/1618

Council of Europe. (2001). *The common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. https://rm.coe.int/16802fc1bf

Council of Europe. (2018). *CEFR companion volume with new descriptors*. https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment companion volume*. https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/home

Frenia, L., & Ott, M. (2015, April). *A literature review on immersive virtual reality in education: State of the art and perspectives* [Paper presentation]. The 11th International Scientific Conference on eLearning and Software for Education, Bucharest, Romania.

Galante, A. (2018). *Plurilingual or monolingual? A mixed methods study investigating plurilingual instruction in an EAP program at a Canadian university* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto]. University of Toronto T-Space.

Hasibuan, S., Manurung, I., & Ekayati, R. (2022). Investigating public speaking anxiety factors among EFL university students through online learning. *Applied Research on English Language*, *11*(1), 21–38. https://doi.org/10.22108/are.2021.130092.1767

Hu-Au, E., & Lee, J. (2017). Virtual reality in education: A tool for learning in the experience age. *International Journal of Innovation in Education*, *4*(4). 215–226. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJIIE.2017.091481

Lin, T. J., & Lan, Y. J. (2015). Language learning in virtual reality environments: Past, present, and future. *Journal of Educational Technology and Society*, *18*(4), 486–497. http://www.jstor.org/stable/jeductechsoci.18.4.486

Linardopoulos, N. (2010). Teaching and learning public speaking online. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, *6*(1), 198–209.

Pribyl, C. B., Keaten, J., & Sakamoto, M. (2001). The effectiveness of a skill-based program in reducing public speaking anxiety. *Japanese Psychological Research*, *43*(3), 148–155.

Saito, Y. (2020). Developing an e-portfolio reflecting the concept of mediation for university students. *CEFR Journal Research and Practice*, *3*, 104–115. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTSIG.CEFR3-7

Saito, Y. (2021). Potential and challenges of the use of VR in English education. *KOTESOL Proceedings 2021*, 127–136.

Scrivner, O., Madewell, J., Buckley, C., & Perez, N. (2019). Best practices in the use of augmented and virtual reality technologies for SLA: Design, implementation, and feedback. In M. L. Carrió-Pastor (Ed.), *Teaching language and teaching literature in virtual environments* (pp. 55–72). Springer.

The Institute for International Business Communication. (2022). *Average score / score distribution details (May 15, 2022)*. https://www.iibc-global.org/toeic/official_data/speaking/data_avelist/s_20220515.html#anchor01

Thrasher, T. (2022). *Saying “au revoir” to anxiety in a heartbeat: The benefits of virtual reality for language learning* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Yee, B. C., Mohd Nawi, A. & Abdullah, T. (2022). Potential disruptive innovation: Online learning of public speaking courses in higher education. *Foresight*, *24*(3/4), 445–455. https://doi.org/10.1108/FS-01-2021-0017

York, J., Shibata, K., Tokutake, H., & Nakayama, H. (2021). Effect of SCMC on foreign language anxiety and learning experience: A comparison of voice, video, and VR-based oral interaction. *ReCALL*, *33*(1), 49–70.

Action Research Papers

Business English Case Studies for Social Responsibility and Sustainable Development

Travis H. Past
Kwansei Gakuin University, Hyogo, Japan

This study reports on an action research project focused on the implementation of a new business English course curriculum that utilizes case studies to bridge the gap between the classroom and the outside business world. Seven intact business English classes followed the new course syllabus and students from one class (n = 3) participated in a follow-up interview upon completing the course.

Business English has been a fixture among foreign language English classes since the 1980s and continues to be an active field of study in the English for specific purposes (ESP) community. While effective business English courses have clear goals for specific contexts, university-level classes tend to be broad in scope and without direct connection to the outside business world. Therefore, the newly implemented course aims to use case studies, specifically targeted at corporate social responsibility, to connect the classroom and business world in a meaningful and engaging way.

INTRODUCTION

The world is in crisis. War, disease, billions living in poverty, the ever-increasing income gap, access to health care, gender equality, intense natural disasters, depletion of natural resources, and the ever-looming threat of climate change – these create an abundance of issues that need to be tackled head on. However, inherent in each of these threats is a challenge and opportunity for growth. In recent years, nations as well as companies around the globe have joined together to address these dilemmas and take responsibility for the impact they have on the earth. In 2015, the United Nations introduced the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development that highlighted 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to be achieved by 2030. The goals target issues such as poverty, hunger, health, education, equality, energy, consumption, infrastructure, climate, and life on land and below water. While no problem has been "solved," progress has been made in many of these areas.

Educators are given an opportunity to help raise up future generations to be knowledgeable on these issues and push for sustainable development. While sustainability can be covered in most any course, business English classes provide a unique chance to prepare students to be informed on the SDGs and able to contribute to them in the international business world. These threats are global, and a worldwide response is necessary. As such, English as a lingua franca (ELF), the most used language in international business, is essential for people from various backgrounds to work together and meet the SDGs.

Literature Review

With the rise and dominance of globalism in the late 20th century, English has become the de facto language for international business. Accordingly, as early as the 1980s, the field of English for specific purposes for business (ESPB) and business English as a lingua franca (BELF) have gained great interest in the greater English for specific purposes (ESP) community and around the world as businesses sought to expand their influence on an international stage. These two schools of thought, ESP and ELF, have each developed their own approach to teaching business English. ESP is grounded in Swales' (1990) genre theory, where the salient features and forms of a genre are identified and taught to students. To that end, Boyd (1991) defines the goal of a business English course as "the development of communicative competence for business settings by fostering grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence." This relatively early definition equates successful business communication to linguistic knowledge and ability. ELF, on the other hand, shifts attention away from native speaker norms and looks to how English is spoken throughout the world as a lingua franca. While these two views on business English originated on different sides of a spectrum, over time, the distance between the approaches has narrowed. Indeed, Nickerson (2005) found that in the years since its inception, there has been a shift in ESPB research from teaching isolated words and phrases to placing a stronger emphasis on contextualized communicative genres (e.g., meetings, negotiations, and emails) and cultural factors. She further argues that language strategy, and not just language skills, used in effective business communication have become of increasing importance as more non-native speakers use BELF.

Overcoming Issues Common to Business English Courses

Ever since this paradigm shift in ESPB research, there has been a gap between research findings and pedagogy. While the gap may be narrowing, many materials written for business English place more emphasis on linguistic form and how to sound like a native speaker. Meanwhile, current research places greater emphasis on the influence of culture and genre as well as the use of successful business strategies. One possible explanation of this mismatch is that materials are created for the widest possible audience. Successful business communication, on the other hand, is context specific. Materials should reflect the language and communication strategies used in specific contexts. Instructors, therefore, should identify the needs of the learners and then provide materials suited to meet those needs (Bhatia & Candlin, 2001; Jackson, 2004). Therein lies a problem with the typical university business English courses. Students generally have not yet decided their future careers and do not know to what capacity they will use English in the future. It is therefore impossible to predict the context-specific needs and uses for English in their future careers. The "solution" has been that textbooks and materials remain broad and general, attempting to teach common phrases and constructions to be used universally in international business. Consequently, it is necessary for ESPB practitioners to find a balance between general use and context-specific materials when offering business English courses.

To achieve this goal, teachers should create activities that connect with the real workplace outside of the classroom. Rogerson-Revell (1999) suggests using task-based learning (TBL) activities such as case studies, fieldwork, and presentations to further develop students' language skills and knowledge of the international business world. Accordingly, for many years, case studies have been a commonly used pedagogical approach used for ESPB. Implemented in classrooms of many different fields, the case study method is a form of TBL where students are given a problematic situation (case) and are asked to analyze it, identify problems, discuss and decide courses of action, and propose solutions to implement. In the ESPB classroom, case studies allow students to acquire language in a communicative way: They use the language as a tool to complete the task rather than learning through formal language exercises or drills (Roell, 2019). In this approach, the teacher does not need years of business experience and acumen, rather the role of the teacher is the "process and language consultant" (Boyd, 1991). Instructors guide students through the case study process as they gather information, read authentic texts, investigate and analyze problems, discuss solutions, and present their findings. The case study can also be supported by classroom language exercises focusing on communication skills and strategies, negotiation, business and genre discourse, vocabulary, and grammar.

Research has shown that using case studies has a positive impact on student motivation and overall learning experience (Aggarwal & Zhan, 2018; Finney & Pyke, 2008). Furthermore, case studies have been found to enhance skills necessary for communication, listening, synthesizing information, and inferencing (Almargo Esteba & Pérez Cañado, 2004). This is in addition to improving teamwork, problem solving, critical thinking, and better understanding one's values and beliefs (Peach et al., 2007). While case studies are a good fit for ESPB practitioners and beneficial for learners, they need to be adapted to meet the needs and levels of students. Almargo Esteba and Pérez Cañado (2004) point out that authentic case studies can be difficult to use; studies are typically long and require a high linguistic level. Moreover, pre-written authentic case studies can be difficult to find. Nonetheless, there is a wealth of information online that can be adapted and used in case studies.

One readily available and adaptable focus for a case study is corporate social responsibility (CSR) and environmental social governance (ESG), as policy information is available on most any international corporation's website. Investigating CSR/ESG is applicable to case studies since every company has weaknesses and opportunities to grow. As people around the world consider the values of the companies they are supporting and whether it is ethical to buy and consume their products, corporations have responded by being more upfront with their policies. Meanwhile, there has been a global push for both nations and corporations to improve the quality of life for people and reduce the negative impact they have on the earth. Spearheading this movement is the U.N.'s Sustainable Development Goals, set in 2015 with the ultimate goals of ending poverty, inequality, fighting climate change, and improving health by 2030. Investigating CSR policies and evaluating to what degree it meets the SDGs helps students create interesting and meaningful case studies. Most corporations have areas where they are making efforts to align with SDGs, as well as areas where innovation and growth are necessary. Asking students to research and identify these areas builds their awareness of global issues, bolsters their critical thinking skills, and encourages reflection on their own values and consumption habits, all while building their ability to understand and communicate in English for business.

METHODOLOGY

Description of the Problem

This action research study was conducted at a private university in Japan. The focus of the study is a newly implemented business English course design that utilizes CSR/SDG case studies. The department where this study was conducted requires students to complete three years of English credits. However, third-year students are permitted to double up their English classes in the first semester, which allows them to fulfill their credits early. Most third-year students in the department take this option, which leads to full classes of more than 20 student in the first semester and fewer than 10 in the second semester. This created a problem where greater focus was placed on the well-attended first semester and less on the second semester. When the current teachers inherited the program from their predecessors, the first semester course contents had been well developed and had a clear entrepreneurship-centered goal. The second semester, however, lacked clear direction and needed improvement.

Implemented Solution

A new team of teachers designed and implemented a new course using case studies for the students who remained in the second semester. The semester was divided into three case study projects, each of increasing demand and difficulty. The first project was a case study generated by the teacher that was used to introduce the overall case study method as well as outline key concepts and goals. Then, building upon the first introductory project, the students used a local business or part-time job experience as the topic of a second case study project. In the final phase of the semester, the students applied the case study method to a large international corporation targeting CSR policies and SDGs.

Each of the three case study projects followed the outline introduced by Roell (2019):

1. Teacher introduces the situation (or students generate a case)
2. Students read materials and analyze the situation
3. Students discuss possible solutions in groups
4. Students present and justify solutions to the whole class
5. Class discussion and feedback session
6. Students reflect on the case study procedure

A single project was completed over the course of multiple weeks. Table 1 displays a sample weekly outline and the activities completed. During each stage of the case study method, class activities and assignments require students to practice and build their negotiation skills, acquire vocabulary and grammar, learn discourse pattern in business correspondence, and finally activate their critical thinking skills in justifying their solution to the case.

TABLE 1. Case Study Project Weekly Activities

Week	Activities
1	Gathering information, reading authentic texts, and identifying problems
2	Writing business emails, holding interviews, conducting surveys, research
3	SWOT analysis, determining solutions, translating
4	Presentation, discussion

Project 1: An Introduction to Case Studies

The first project was designed to introduce the case study method in a clear and understandable way. Students were given a case study written by the instructors that highlighted a local restaurant that was struggling to maintain business. The instructor led the students through each of the steps and activities outlined above as they identified issues and suggested courses of action for the restaurant management. Students worked in small groups and presented their solutions to the class.

Project 2: Students' Experience

The second project asked students to consider their own work experiences and develop a case study with a partner. To introduce the topic, students were asked to think about common issues and problems in the workplace, specifically drawing from their own experience. Building from this discussion, partners chose from among their part-time jobs as the topic of the study and identified issues ranging from poor sales and few customers to unequal treatment of employees and ineffective management policies. Students then interviewed staff members (when possible), researched market trends, conducted surveys with classmates and other students, wrote emails, and gathered information on competitors. Using this information, students were able to complete a SWOT analysis of the business. SWOT analyses are a commonly used method to identify and analyze a business's internal strengths and weaknesses along with external opportunities and threats. With the SWOT analysis completed, students then developed courses of action and suggested solutions for the business. Finally, they presented their findings to the class and held discussions justifying their solutions.

Project 3: Connecting to CSR and SDGs

The final project asked students to demonstrate their understanding of the case study method and apply it to an international corporation. As mentioned above, the objective for this case study was to have students consider the ethical and environmental impact a multinational company has on the world. As such, students targeted their research to corporate social responsibility (CSR) policies and how well they aligned with the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

This theme was introduced by the teacher with examples of companies that are actively working to decrease their footprint on the globe. At this point, the teacher also formally introduced the SDGs. Students were encouraged to research and choose a company they were interested in or whose products they consume. Students gathered information online from company CSR websites and news articles. After reporting on what the company was currently doing, students then considered ways in which the company could improve their CSR policies and their contribution to the SDGs.

One of the major difficulties faced by the students in this final stage was parsing through the CSR reports. These reports can often be particularly long documents full of lower-frequency and technical vocabulary. Therefore, teachers should help students identify key areas of interest within the report and guide them through some of the more difficult passages if necessary.

Once students have gained an understanding of the company's current policies, they are asked to find contact information for the company and write an email requesting an interview and their questions. While not everyone gets a response, some do, and it provides a good experience practicing writing a business email regardless of the outcome. The last steps of this project follow the same format as the previous case study projects: students complete a SWOT analysis, determine courses of action, and present their solutions to the class.

Results and Discussion

Due to the interruption caused by COVID-19 and online classes, in-class data collection was delayed. More formal research on this project and course design will be conducted this upcoming school year. That said, three students of an intermediate-level business English class (Mei, Kiku, and Shun [pseudonyms]) were interviewed upon completing the new course. A summary of their comments and opinions is presented below.

The first takeaway to note is that students could connect to the business world outside of the classroom. Mei chose her part-time job working at a bakery and McDonald's for projects two and three, respectively. In her course completion interview she comments,

> I liked the interview part of research. It was interesting talking to my part-time job boss about his bakery. And I got an email response from McDonald's about some of the CSR policy. That was good. [Mei, interview]

Mei also noted that CSR research, in particular, was a demanding task and above her English level. She admitted that after some initial research in English, she checked her understanding by looking on McDonald's Japan website.

One of the main goals of this new curriculum was to encourage students to consider and engage global issues. Kiku achieved this goal in her case studies on restaurants, her part-time job at a small soup house and KFC, respectively. She began thinking more deeply about food sourcing and supply chain with her part-time job, and then further expanded her research in that direction with KFC. She commented,

> For the final project, I did my case study on KFC. Honestly, I never thought about where chicken comes from. I [was] surprised to know the detail and the conditions of chickens. It made me think about eating meat and the impact on the earth. [Kiku, interview]

An important point to note is that not all case studies are equal. Allowing students freedom to choose and develop their own case studies can be motivating, but it can be the source of task difficulties. Shun struggled to complete projects 2 and 3. The companies he chose for both projects were more complicated and nuanced than his classmates' choices. His main work experience was through a dispatch company that placed him in different work environments over the year he was employed. The dispatch company was the topic of his first student-generated case study, which highlighted issues in work assignments and management. He then researched Netflix's CSR policies and how it was handling a union strike that was happening around the same time. He comments,

> I chose my part-time job at a dispatch company for the first project and Netflix for the second project. There were felt more difficult than some of my classmates' projects. It was hard to think of good topics to research for the problems and solutions. [Shun, interview]

Despite the challenges he faced in identifying issues and suggesting feasible solutions, Shun had perfect attendance, stayed engaged in class activities, and completed his project presentations on time. He shared that the course deepened his knowledge and consideration of CSR and SDGs:

> I studied SDGs some in other classes, but I never thought about CSR really and I think I learned some stuff. I will think about it more in the future. [Shun, interview]

General Takeaways and Discussion

The new curriculum was an effective way to make this business English course more meaningful and connected with the world outside of the classroom. As Nickerson (2005) pointed out, there has been a gap between what is taught in the business English classroom and what students need in the workplace. Many business English materials focus solely on language used to complete common workplace activities and communication. The goal of this new course is not throwing away old business English activities and curricula, instead it is an attempt to contextualize these activities in a meaningful and socially responsible way. Doing so can lead to greater levels of student engagement, motivation, and interaction with the real business world outside of the classroom.

Instructors interested in using this CSR/SDG case study method should consider the following thoughts and considerations before implementing it in class. First, it can be a time-consuming process. Each of these case study projects required at least three or four 90-minute weekly lessons to complete. More class time could be saved if the teacher prepares cases for students to choose from for their final CSR/SDG project. This could also help students avoid running into "dead ends" where they have completed hours of research but cannot develop a feasible solution for any of the issues they have identified. One of the main reasons for this is that official CSR reports can be rather dense and require a high language proficiency and familiarity with key concepts. Preparing cases for students can also be an effective way to simplify the language demands for lower-level students. Students should still research and gather authentic materials on their own, but the teacher could also supplement this with simplified reports that highlight areas of potential interest.

Conclusions

The early 2020s have been a challenging time for people around the world. Reading the news each day can give the impression that the world is falling into a downward spiral. Educators have a unique opportunity to stand and push against this current by incorporating meaningful content into lessons in a way that enrichens the classroom experience as well as prepares students to engage with the outside world. Alone, no single person has the power or influence to enact corporate policy changes. However, educators do have the attention and minds of future generations in their hands. With that comes a responsibility to build students' awareness of global issues and encourage them to hold governments and corporations that lead the world to a higher standard. It might just be a drop in a bucket, but what are storms if not many drops of water?

The Author

Travis Hunter Past is an instructor of English as a foreign language at Kwansei Gakuin University in Hyogo, Japan. He has been teaching English in Japan for over ten years. He received an MA in TESOL from Temple University. His research interests include business English, computer-assisted language learning, extensive reading, and storytelling. Email: thpast87@gmail.com

References

Aggarwal, R., & Zhan, F. (2018). Course design considerations in international business education. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, *29*(4), 267–271.

Almargo Esteban, A., & Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2004). Making the case method work in teaching business English: A case study. *English for Specific Purposes*, *23*(4), 137–161.

Bhatia, V. K., & Candlin, C. N. (Eds.). (2001). *Teaching English to meet the needs of business education in Hong Kong*. City University of Hong Kong.

Boyd, F. A. (1991). Business English and the case study method: A reassessment. *TESOL Quarterly*, *25*(4), 729–734.

Finney, S., & Pyke, J. (2008). Content relevance in case-study teaching: The alumni connection and its effect on student motivation. *Journal of Education for Business*, *83*, 251–258.

Jackson, J. (2004). Case-based teaching in a bilingual context: Perceptions of business faculty in Hong Kong. *English for Specific Purposes*, *23*, 213–232.

Nickerson, C. (2005). English as a lingua franca in international business contexts.

English for Specific Purposes, *24*(4), 367–380.

Peach, B. E., Mukherjee, A., & Hornyak, M. (2007). Assessing critical thinking: A college's journey and lessons learned. *Journal of Education for Business*, *82*(6), 314–320.

Roell, C. (2019). Using a case study in the EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, *57*(4), 24–33.

Rogerson-Revell, P. (1999). Meeting talk: A stylistic approach to teaching meeting skills. In M. Hewings & C. Nickerson (Eds.), *Business English*: *Research into practice* (pp. 55–72). Longman.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis*: *English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University Press.

Teaching EFL Listening and Speaking Skills Using Service Learning

Monaliza H. Mamac and Titmonyneat Chalk
Prince of Songkla University, Pattani, Thailand

This study reports on a service-learning (SL) project of psychology students at a university in Southern Thailand under an English listening and speaking course. The learners created a set of bilingual materials addressing the issues of their local communities. The materials were a set of multilingual informational posters and a relaxation video for managing stress, which aimed to addresses online-learning stress among university students. The paper lays out the step-by-step procedure for designing these materials deploying systematic and language-based approaches to research, specifically the CREDIBLE approach and positive discourse analysis (PDA). The learners demonstrated their listening and speaking skills through constant negotiations with the stakeholders and oral academic reports conducted in English. This paper is a viable resource for using SL in teaching EFL listening and speaking skills.

INTRODUCTION

Speaking and listening skills have been an area of interest in EFL teaching research in Thailand. Studies have extensively documented the factors that influence Thai students' English listening and speaking skills, which typically are overall linguistic competence (Anderson & Lynch, 1988), lack of self-confidence (Chetchamlong et al., 1987), classroom facilities and physical environment (Yagang et al., 1994), and traditional teaching methods (Supharatypthin, 2014). In terms of classroom experience, Tavil (2010) emphasizes the importance of practice in an authentic setting to learn the skills effectively instead of learning decontextualized grammar. However, this aspect is somewhat elusive in the three southernmost provinces in the country. The inadequate opportunity to use the target language is exacerbated by the region's economy that is relatively un-reliant on international engagements (e.g., international tourism) compared to their urban counterparts. The purpose of EFL learning for the university psychology students, the context of the research, is to operate in professional contexts and access relevant knowledge available in the language. Thus, a pedagogical approach that enables them to use the language for these purposes is needed. This drives the aim of the action research, to teach English listening and speaking skills using service learning (SL). SL is an approach to teaching that applies classroom learning to solve real-world problems in local communities (McLeod, 2017). The study is classroom action-based research done with psychology students at a university in Southern Thailand. It reports on a successful SL-based student project supplemented by systematic language-based approaches.

On Service Learning

The emergence of SL can be traced to the United States' progressive constructivist pedagogies by John Dewey and Robert Coles (Askildson et al., 2013). The approach has been institutionalized in the country (e.g., National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2007) and was originally used primarily in science, history, and psychology. Later, it was introduced into English language teaching (ELT) practices in the US and worldwide (Vinca, 2011). Studies in ELT grounded on SL have been proven effective, as it provides reflection and spaces for real-world use of the language (Elwell & Bean, 2001; Fairbairn & Jones-Vo, 2010; Kistler & Crosby, 2014; Warschauer & Cook, 2009).

Research on SL has illuminated various aspects of the approach, but some aspects still need adequate attention. SL research has primarily focused on writing (Bippus & Eslami, 2013), while listening and speaking skills are often neglected. Most studies implement the approach sporadically, not as the central part of a course program. Bippus and Eslami (2013) pointed out that SL studies often implement the approach for a short time, specifically from one weekend to eight weeks (Cummings, 2009; Elwell & Bean, 2001; Minor, 2002). Moreover, various studies have suggested varied and overlapping guidelines and steps to undertaking the approach through more global lenses (i.e., curriculum [Perren, 2013]) and more specific ones (i.e., classroom teaching [Roehlkepartain, 2009; Kaye, 2004]). Although the guidelines may have been successful in content areas, these guidelines often lack linguistic and discursive grounding. This is not surprising, as SL stems from non-language fields. However, when used in language subjects, linguistic and discursive approaches to conducting the projects are detrimental to learners' deep understanding of the target language. This action research addresses these literature gaps. It reports a speaking and listening skills-focused study that involves a semester-long implementation of SL, in line with Bippus and Eslami's (2013) implementation length. Furthermore, the SL program employs discursive approaches to research and analysis – the CREDIBLE approach and positive discourse analysis (PDA).

Methods

The study deploys an action research approach drawing from qualitative data. The data involve classroom observations, video recorded teachings, and student outputs. This section outlines the participants and context, the theoretical approaches, and teaching intervention methods.

Participants and Context

The participants are six third-year university students from the Prince of Songkla University Pattani, Thailand. Pattani is one of the southernmost provinces of Thailand. Compared to central Thailand, dominated by Buddhists and Thai language speakers, Pattani Malay is the dominant first language of the region, and Islam is the dominant religion (Premsrirat, 2016; Chorbwhan et al., 2018). The students study psychology with a minor in the English language. This action research was implemented in the course 262-304 Learning Management in Speaking and Listening Skills and conducted entirely online. It was held for 16 weeks with three hours of contact per week. The SL project's general goal was to create a set of bilingual materials to address a local issue faced by the students' chosen community. The issue had to be psychology-related to use their knowledge in psychology. The linguistic goal was to use English to listen to lectures and report their independent projects orally in the academic register.

Approaches

The SL projects were grounded on CREDIBLE research and PDA to deepen the students' knowledge about the target language and systematize their approach to creating the materials.

CREDIBLE Research

CREDIBLE Research is an approach to research that aims to "enable and support practices that bring harmony and prosperity to the community" (Mahboob, 2019, para. 2). It is an acronym that stands for the following:

Contextually relevant {think locally}

Responds to practical needs {not driven by theory}

Engages stakeholders {not just collecting "data"}

Draws on an understanding of local knowledge and practices {pay attention to beliefs, practices, and expressions of the locals}

Informed by diverse approaches and experiences {not just western}

Benefits local communities {without benefit, there is little credibility of a project}

Leads the field/discipline and contributes to the larger (global) theories {there is no one way of doing things}

Ethical {responsible and respectful; not just having consent forms signed}

The approach is a response to the traditional approach to research where humans are seen as "objects of study" instead of beneficiaries and stakeholders that can actively engage with the creation and practice of knowledge (Mahboob & Koay, 2019). The approach has generated numerous locally responsive projects carried out in Australia (e.g., Mahboob & Koay, 2019), South America (Gonzales, 2021), Myanmar (Oo, 2020), Malaysia (Koay, 2018), and worldwide (The Trash Project, 2019; Mahboob & Koay, 2019). The principles of the CREDIBLE approach were applied in the students' SL projects.

Positive Discourse Analysis

Positive discourse analysis (PDA) is a complementary approach to critical discourse analysis (CDA). Compared to CDA, which reveals the power struggles reflected in discourse (Van Dijk, 2001), PDA examines the discourses and practices that work (Martin, 2004) and understands why they work (Bartlett, 2017). PDA has two approaches: narrow and broad. Narrow PDA examines language and text. Since this approach is highly linguistic, it is carried out by language experts (e.g., Humphrey, 2006; Mallet, 2020). The action research participants were not linguists; therefore, they employed the broad PDA approach, developed by Mahboob (2019). Mahboob's broad approach aims to

> 1) to review examples and case studies of projects that make an impact and take notes on how the project relates to first- and second-order socio-semiotics and 2) to design and, if feasible, implement a project that draws on understandings of local material, biological, and socio-semiotic resources to benefit one's own community and environment. (Mahboob & Koay, 2019, p. 2)

The broad approach draws from Mahboob's (2019) socio-semiotic theory. He asserts that humans make meanings primarily through the five material senses – sight, sound, touch, smell, and taste – which he termed first-order socio-semiotics. The things humans gather from these senses are interpreted through their interpretive frameworks (e.g., culture, language, and religion), which he termed second-order socio-semiotics. For example, when the eyes see the color green (first-order), it can be interpreted in different ways (e.g., nature, spoiled, or Islam) depending on the context and the interpretive frameworks a person has (second-order). These understandings are transformed into an analysis form, as shown in Appendix A. The form is designed simply to be successfully used by laypersons.

Teaching Intervention Methods

The teaching intervention follows an extensive syllabus design. The goal of the course is for the learners to create contextualized materials that address the issues of their local communities. Since the SL projects were anticipated to be complex, the teaching stages were carefully crafted to provide sufficient scaffolding for learners' success. The teaching design involved three stages separated into colors, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Course Syllabus

Week	Content
1	Introduction
2	1. How do we mean? Material-biological and socio-semiotic spaces (Mahboob, 2019) 2. Difference between spoken and written language (by Halliday)
3	1.Varieties of English (World Englishes model by Kachru) 2. Issues with Kachru's model of concentric circles 3. A different way into looking at varieties of English: 'glib-speak' by Hasan
4	1. Genre, register and domains (3D model by Mahboob) 2. Understanding and analysing the language of academia (schools) through Bernstein's theory of common-sense and uncommon-sense language and codes
5	How do we apply these knowledges into teaching? The CREDIBLE research (Mahboob, 2019)
6	Positive discourse analysis (Martin, 2004; Mahboob 2019)
7	Finalisation of topics
8	PDA in-class presentation
9-11	Working on the project and individualised feedback
12	First presentation of artefacts
13-14	Second presentation of artefacts
15	Working on oral report
16	Submission of oral report and CREDIBLE project artefacts

The teaching started with theories (green) comprising the first stage. The stage's goal was to develop the learners' understanding of the field. Since it was a language course, the theories were linguistic. The course started with the orientation of language as a meaning resource, which gave them an orientation to Mahboob's (2019) socio-semiotic theory. It was complemented by Halliday's spoken and written modes. The third week shifted the gaze to the socio-political dimension of the English language, which was the World Englishes model by Braj Kachru and Hasan's concept of "glib-speak." Mahboob's (2017) 3D model of language domains and Bernstein's sociology of education that explains knowledge inequality were also discussed. Once the learners understood the field, they needed scaffolding for application, hence the goal of Stage 2 (yellowish-tan). Stage 2 concerns the activities jointly constructed with the teacher. The teacher taught the CREDIBLE approach and PDA and provided classroom exercises to practice materials analysis. All activities were done with the teachers' support, and the medium of interaction was English to practice listening and speaking. When the learners decided on their independent projects, they reported their weekly progress in the English medium. They also received both teacher and peer feedback. This was the third stage (blue). The general teaching design structure can be attributed to the teaching-learning cycle (TLC; Rose & Martin, 2012), designed by linguists in Sydney, Australia. The teachers using the TLC approach start with building the field (attributed to the syllabus' Stage 1), where they teach students what the field is about and the purpose of the skill they need to achieve. In TLC, it is called deconstruction. Then, high-level activities are conducted with the teacher's guidance – joint construction (Stage 2). Once the students have enough skills, independent activities are given (Stage 3).

RESULTS

This paper reports one project, which is an outcome of the intervention. This section outlines the students' steps to develop their SL project using the CREDIBLE approach and PDA.

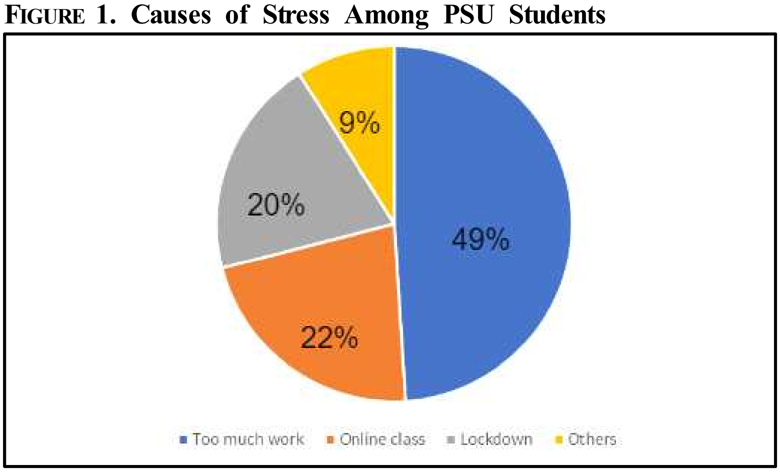
The Stress Management Project

The students conducted a CREDIBLE project to address university students' stress. The issue was identified from an expert interview with a guidance counsellor of PSU. According to the guidance counsellor, the contemporary mental health problem the PSU students often struggle with is stress. The students conducted a survey to identify the specific triggers of the stress for a more local understanding of the issue. They also conducted a PDA analysis of successful materials gathered from similar campaigns. The survey and analysis results were used to design materials to raise awareness of stress and how to deal with this mental health problem. The materials the students chose to develop were posters and a mediation video contextualized for PSU students considering their unique backgrounds. Each step is outlined and discussed in the proceeding sections.

Step 1: Research About the Issue and Solution

The first step involved researching the causes of the PSU students' stress and how to address it. The students conducted a survey and a literature review. The survey aimed to understand the factors causing the stress of the PSU students. Peytcheva (2020) emphasized the centrality of language in survey research. She stated that "survey data are meaningless if respondents do not understand the survey questions as intended by the researchers" (Peytcheva, 2020, p. 4). To ensure the quality of the survey data, the survey questions were designed and conducted in Thai. Forty-two participants responded to the survey. Figure 1 shows that the students' stress stemmed from decreasing workload (49%), online classes (22%), lockdown (20%), and other personal problems (9%). After learning about the causes of stress, the students conducted a literature review to understand stress and some practical solutions to address it. Specifically, they reviewed the book *The Fundamentals of Abnormal Psychology* by Ronald J. Comer (2016). The information from the research was presented to psychologists to confirm its validity and appropriacy to the Thai context.

FIGURE 1. Causes of Stress Among PSU Students



Step 2: Analyze the Successful Materials Using PDA

After the students finished with the survey and literature review, the next step was to decide on materials design. Hence, the students gathered model materials from similar campaigns relevant to the local issue they were addressing. The model materials were analyzed using the PDA form (see Appendix A) to identify the elements that make the materials “work” (Bartlett, 2017). Once the elements were revealed, they were adopted to create re-contextualized and locally grounded materials. The students gathered and analyzed numerous posters and video meditation materials. This section shows a PDA of two posters (see Appendix B). The first poster is from Achieve Medical Center under the title Tips to Reduce Stress and Anxiety, and the second material was on stress management in university from a blog called Foosball Zone. The PDA is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. PDA of the Model Campaign Material

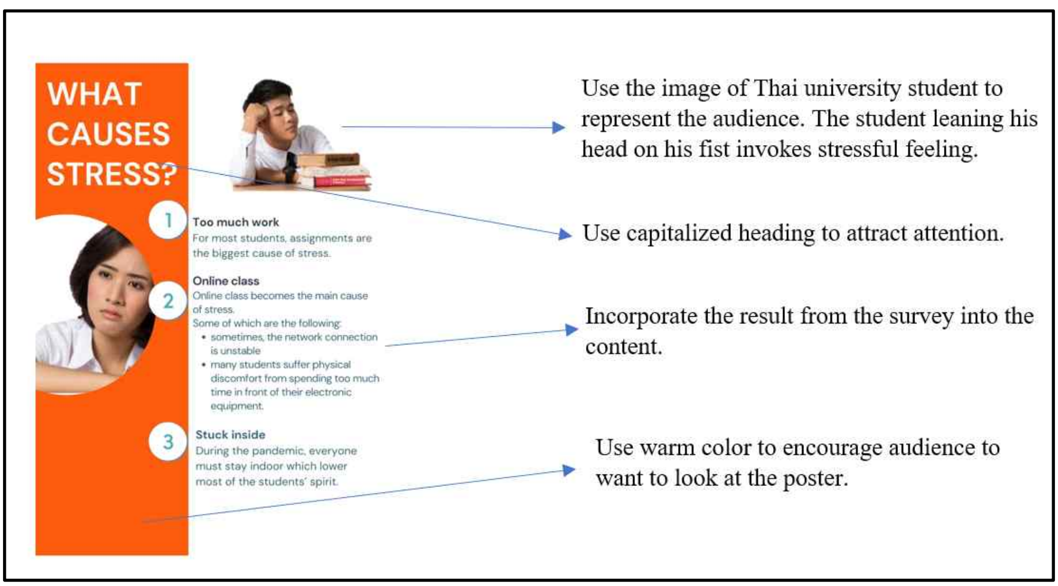
	Description	What Meanings Are Being Projected?
Sight	Language	The language is easy to understand. The explanation is easy to follow. Provides information about the causes, the symptoms, the prevention of stress and anxiety, and treatment options.
	Images	The images help build mental pictures so that the people can remember the messages more easily and attract the people’s attention to the poster. Moreover, the pictures empathize with the feelings behind each message. For example, the image of the guy near the heading evokes the feeling of unhappiness.
	The use of different color between each part’s division	The use of different colors to divide each part of the message helps the reader to distinguish the meaning behind each part more clearly. The use of dark color emphasizes that the problem is serious.
	The contrast between the colors of the letters and the background	The contrast between the colors of the letters and the background makes it easier to read the text. The emphasis of red color on the heading evokes the feeling that the message is important, and it needs to be paid serious attention to.
	The phone number	The phone number indicates that the readers should call the number to get professional help and treatment if they happen to undergo stress and anxiety.
Sound	The image of the phone	The image of the phone induces the feeling of the busy vibration sound of the phone, which indicates the busy and hectic lifestyle.
	The image of the man grabbing his head.	The image of the man grabbing his own head evokes the feeling of hearing screams of agony due to stress and anxiety.
	The image near the “What is anxiety?” heading	The image near the “What is anxiety?” heading evokes the feeling that too much sound and noises could cause one to undergo stress and anxiety
Smell	N/A	
Touch	The image of the man grabbing his head	The image of the man grabbing his head indicates the feeling of hair being pulled due to stress.
Taste	N/A	

Table 2 shows how the campaign materials work successfully. According to Mahboob (2019), the first-order social semiotics greatly influence the second-order. He asserts that this is the reason why studies show that multiple sensory activities (e.g., touch+taste+smell) are often linked to effective learning and motivation (e.g., Ponticorvo et al., 2019). It is also a theoretical explanation on how advertising materials engage people effectively: The more senses and elements engaged in a material's design, the more effective the material. It is notable in Table 2 that the materials engage three out of four senses through multimodal elements. Specifically, in the sense of sight, they use simple language and images that evoke emotions, and divide the sections using colors (e.g., Rows 1–5), including practical information such as phone numbers. The sense of sound is engaged by using an image of a phone and a man grabbing his head to represent sounds causing stress (Rows 6–8). Touch also metaphorically represents stress, where the man grabs his head (Row 10). These sensory representations engage the audience through constructing the following messages in second-order: They experience stress, stress is a problem, and it can be resolved.

Step 3: Develop the Materials Based on PDA Results

The students used their language understanding from previous lessons, survey results, the literature review, and PDA analysis to apply to their materials, hence the third step. Figure 2 shows a sample of how this was done. For instance, they used a capitalized heading and warm colors to engage the sense of sight. They also used images of Thai students to make it more contextualized by representing the students' ethnic background in the content. The survey results regarding the causes of stress were integrated. These features, and others not mentioned here, were incorporated into all parts of the materials.

FIGURE 2. Sample SL Project Poster



Furthermore, it is significant to note that the materials design was grounded on the understanding that language is based on the theories the students learned from the previous weeks. For example, according to Bernstein’s theory of knowledge, language is a tool for unequal distribution of knowledge. Bernstein (1990, 1996) considered education a social institution that produces and distributes knowledge. Language is one of the knowledge resources; therefore, the people who do not have the language in which the knowledge is available do not have access to knowledge resources. In the case of psychology students, most information and research in psychology are available in English; thus, students who have “good English” have access to mental health information. The students’ knowledge of this allowed them use lesser and simpler texts and more images in their designs. They also designed a Thai version to reach a larger audience (see Appendix C).

Step 4: Make Adjustments Through Peers’ and Experts’ Reviews

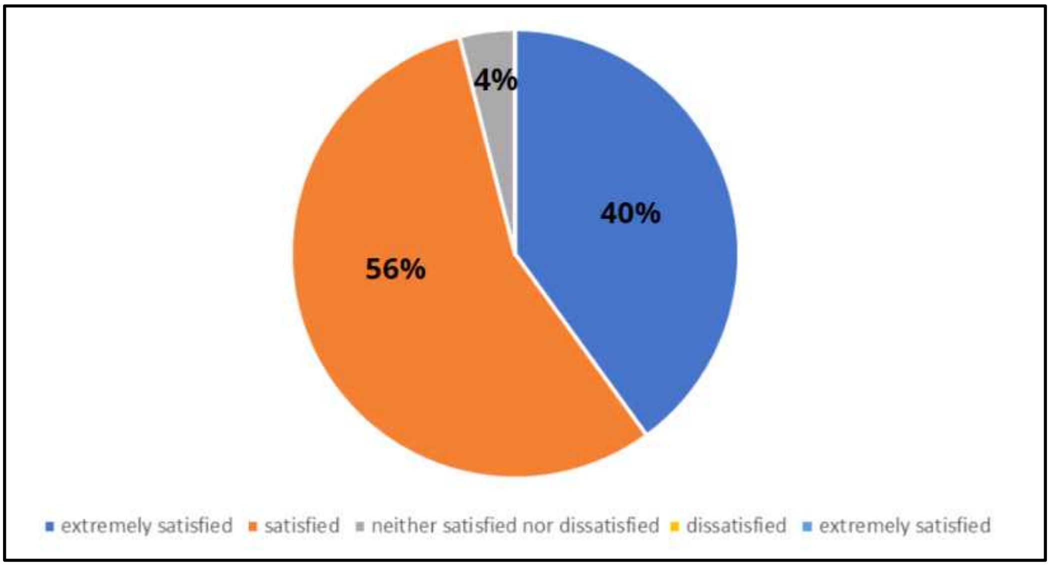
One of the principles of the CREDIBLE project is the engagement of stakeholders to guarantee its success with the community (Mahboob, 2019). To achieve this, the designed materials (i.e., campaign poster and meditation video) were reviewed by peers and expert reviewers. The peers were the students’ classmates from another group who were also a part of the university community. The peer feedback was conducted during the classes where the students reported their projects’ development. The expert community involved the course teacher, a linguist, and the university psychologist to ensure the validity of the content.

Step 5: Sharing and Evaluating the Materials

The finalized materials were posters with the explanation, causes, and method of prevention of stress with an attached QR code that the students could scan to gain access to the meditation video. The posters were both in English and Thai (see Appendix C), and the meditation video was in Thai with English subtitles at the bottom. To reach a more significant number of PSU students, the materials were posted and shared through Facebook.

One of the principles of the CREDIBLE project is to benefit communities (Mahboob, 2019). Therefore, the students conducted another survey through Facebook for community feedback. The PSU students’ satisfaction with the materials was rated using the Graphic Rating Scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being *extremely satisfied*, 4 being *satisfied*, 3 being *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied*, 2 being *dissatisfied*, and 1 being *extremely dissatisfied*. The survey was conducted in Thai to elicit quality and accurate responses. Fifty-four PSU students responded to the survey (Figure 3). The responses revealed that thirty students rated themselves as extremely satisfied (56%), twenty-two students were satisfied (40%), two students were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4%), and none of the students rated themselves as dissatisfied or extremely dissatisfied. Moreover, four students commented that they found the materials helpful and informative. Therefore, it is evident that the materials were successful.

FIGURE 3. Responses from the Evaluation Survey



Oral Reports of the Service-Learning Projects

Oral presentations were conducted as the class's final project to use spoken English language in an academic setting. Below is an excerpt from one student's oral report.

Excerpt 1

The best part about this university is that it is a very inclusive university. So, there are students from various nationalities and students from different religious backgrounds. So, it is not surprising seeing students busting here and there throughout the campus. ...

However, during the pandemic situation here in Thailand, this busy university became a place of empty buildings as students were required to take online courses via online platform in the comfort of their homes. ...

There are alarmingly large number of students who are posting to their social media platforms such as Facebook and Instagram about how stressful they are during this pandemic situation. ...

And tragically, there is not enough discussions about this issue. And as you know that stress is also a part of the mental health issue that is very crucial to your wellbeing as well. So, we decided, this is a serious problem, and we need to look further into it.

Excerpt 1 is a report on the problem and background of the SL project on stress management. The background is developed effectively through building on problems revealed in the report's discursive phases and using academic linguistic features. In the discourse aspect, the report starts with a description of the university and its students' social backgrounds (para. 1). It proceeds to introduce the problem, which is the COVID-19 pandemic (para. 2). Then, it builds up with the students' response to the pandemic and online learning (para. 3). In paragraph 4, the problem is linked to social awareness and psychological implications.

Academic linguistic features are evident in the report. For example, nominalizations, a feature of scientific discourses (Martin & Rose, 2007), are present (e.g., *empty buildings*, *the comfort of their homes*, and *an alarmingly large number of students*). It also includes academic lexis related to health and psychology (e.g., *pandemic*, *wellbeing*, and *mental health*). Non-everyday terms are also present (e.g., *inclusive university*, *issue*, *crucial*, *religious backgrounds*). The report also classifies stress as an aspect of mental health (i.e., *stress is also a part of the mental health issue that is very crucial to your wellbeing*.) The classification reflects the students' knowledge in psychology being used as a support to argue the issue's importance. These discursive and linguistic features of the excerpt are evidence that the linguistic goals of the course were successfully met.

Although there are some syntactic errors based on a puritanical perspective on foreign language teaching, the message remains clear. This may be due to the students' control of the academic report's discourse construed in effectively phasing the problem and using appropriate academic language. Moreover, it is crucial to notice that the students come from a very low English language skills level; thus, being able to control the discourse and language, as shown above, demonstrates significant achievement.

REFLECTIONS

The results demonstrate that the students developed their speaking and listening skills in the English language using SL. They created re-contextualized bilingual materials for the local community based on their understanding of language and psychology. Following the studies that reflect the effectiveness of SL in providing reflection and spaces for real-world use of the language (Elwell & Bean, 2001; Fairbairn & Jones-Vo, 2010; Kistler & Crosby, 2014; Warschauer & Cook, 2009), the paper contributes to the field by demonstrating how an SL pedagogy supplemented by systematic language-based approaches can develop content knowledge and language skills in an EFL context. This was done through research on the issue, peer and expert feedback sessions, materials design, and oral project reports.

In researching the issue, the learners needed to speak to the university psychologist, which allowed them to use the language in professional settings. Moreover, they used the English language to access and build knowledge in psychology through a literature review but with a purpose. Due to the freedom of choice to review only the information they needed, they could read and access the English language materials more easily, compared to the traditional approach of reading a list of required articles.

The feedback sessions were conducted in English, thus, giving them the practice space for listening and speaking the target language. Furthermore, they did not neglect the importance of the local language at the cost of learning English. Instead, they used it in their survey and materials design.

In the materials design, they transformed their content and linguistic knowledge into real-world applications. Specifically, they approached language-based research through PDA and CREDIBLE approaches as a system to inform their materials design. Additionally, they deepened their understanding of stress and mental health, especially among Thai students.

The oral project reports offered an authentic space to use the English language in the academic setting as Tavil (2010) has mentioned. They reflected the learners' control of the academic discourse and the features of spoken language.

Whilst this action research produced promising outcomes, it should be noted that it was implemented in a class of small size with a well-resourced environment. Additionally, the teacher was well-trained in language science, which gave the project a significant advantage in using the supplemental approaches successfully. In the future, the authors hope to apply the approaches to larger class sizes and explore how the pedagogy can be adjusted to this size to create promising language learning outcomes.

THE AUTHORS

Monaliza H. Mamac is an international lecturer at the Prince of Songkla University in Pattani, Thailand. She received her master's degree in cross-cultural and applied linguistics at the University of Sydney, Australia, in 2019, where she was awarded the MAK Halliday Medal. She is trained extensively in the systemic functional linguistics approach and conducts research projects on educational linguistics, genre pedagogy, language and the law, and subaltern linguistics. Email: missmonaliza.h@psu.ac.th

Titmonyneat Chalk is an undergraduate student at the Prince of Songkla University in Pattani, Thailand, through the Royal Scholarship under Her Royal Highness Princess Maha Chakri Sirinhorn Education Project to the Kingdom of Cambodia. She is undertaking a major in educational psychology and a minor in English. She is interested in the interconnections between sociopsychology and linguistics. Email: 6220117287@psu.ac.th

REFERENCES

Anderson, A. C., Anderson, A., & Lynch, T. (1988). *Listening*. Oxford University Press.

Comer, R. J. (2010). *Fundamentals of abnormal psychology*. Macmillan.

Askildson, L. R., Kelly, A. C., & Mick, C. S. (2013). Developing multiple literacies in academic English through service-learning and community engagement. *TESOL Journal*, *4*(3), 402–438.

Bartlett, T. (2017). Positive discourse analysis 1. In J. Flowerdew & J. E. Richardson (Ed.), *The Routledge Handbook of Critical Discourse Studies* (pp. 133–147). Routledge.

Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy, symbolic control, and identity: Theory, research, critique*. Taylor & Francis.

Bernstein, B. (1990). *The structuring of pedagogic discourse: Volume IV of class, codes, and control*. Routledge.

Bippus, S. L., & Eslami, Z. R. (2013). Adult ESOL students and service-learning: Voices, experiences, and perspectives. *TESOL Journal*, *4*(3), 587–597. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.89

Chetchamlong, S. (1987). *Problems in teaching English listening of teachers in government secondary schools in Chon Buri* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Kasetsart University.

Chorbwhan, R., McLellan, J., & Ho, D. G. E. (2018). Pattani Malay and southern Thai speakers' language learning strategies in acquiring English collocations. *rEFLections*, *25*(1), 31–45.

Comer, R. J. (2016). *The fundamentals of abnormal psychology* (8th ed.). Worth.

Cummings, S. (2009). Purposeful language development through service learning. *Essential Teacher*, *6*(3/4), 45–47.

Elwell, M. D., & Bean, M. S. (2001). Editor's choice: The efficacy of service-learning for community college ESL students. *Community College Review*, *28*(4), 47–61. https://doi.org/10.1177/009155210102800403

Fairbairn, S., & Jones-Vo, S. (2010). *Differentiating instruction and assessment for English language learners*: *A guide for K–12 teachers*. Caslon.

Gonzales, I. P. (2021). *The making of The Ribbit Ribbit Pond*: *Nurturing children's intercultural communicative competence through a CREDIBLE Project* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The University of Sydney.

Humphrey, S. (2006). "Getting the reader on side": Exploring adolescent online political discourse. *E-learning and Digital Media*, *3*(2), 143–157. https://doi.org/10.2304/elea.2006.3.2.143

Kapur, R. (2020). *Understanding the types of stress*. University of Delhi.

Kaye, C. B. (2004). *The complete guide to service learning*: *Proven*, *practical ways to engage students in civic responsibility*, *academic curriculum*, *and social action*. Free Spirit.

Kistler, S. L., & Crosby, C. (2014). Integrating service learning into a course on teaching English language learners and looking at preliminary data. *Pennsylvania Teacher Educator*, *13*, 36–46.

Koay, L. C. (2018). *Creating a language-based micro-economy through tourism and prestige planning*: *The case of Language Travels in Malacca* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The University of Sydney.

Mahboob, A. (2017). Understanding language variation: Implications of the NNEST lens for TESOL teacher education programs. In J. D. M. Agudo (Ed.), *Native and non-native teachers in English language classrooms*: *Professional challenges and teacher education* (pp. 13–32). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501504143

Mahboob, A. (2019). *Doing subaltern linguistics*. We Mountains. https://wemountains.com/03/11/1157/

Mahboob, A., & Koay, L. C. (2019). *Doing subaltern research and education* [Unpublished manuscript]. University of Sydney.

Mallet, A. M. B. (2021). *Australia's National Tobacco campaign*: *Discourse and change over two decades* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Sydney]. Sydney Digital Theses.

Martin, J. R. (2004). Positive discourse analysis: Solidarity and change. *Revista canaria de estudios ingleses*, *49*(1), 179–202.

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2007). *Working with discourse*: *Meaning beyond the clause*. Continuum.

McLeod, A. K. (2017). Service learning and community engagement for English classes. *English Teaching Forum*, *55*(3), 20–27.

Minor, J. (2002). Incorporating service learning into ESOL programs. *TESOL Journal*, *11*(4), 10–14.

Oo, S. K. (2019). A study of linguistics as immediate applicable linguistics. *The 1st international conference on languages and humanities* (pp. 18–36). https://meral.edu.mm/record/6642/files/Su%20Khine%20Oo%28English%29.pdf

Perren, J. (2013). Strategic steps to successful service-learning in TESOL: From critical to practical. *TESOL Journal*, *4*(3), 487–513. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.96

Peytcheva, E. (2020). The effect of language of survey administration on the response formation process. In M. Sha & T. Gabel (Eds.), *The essential role of language in survey research* (pp. 3–21). RTI Press. https://doi.org/10.3768/rtipress.bk.0023.2004www.rti.org/rtipress

Premsrirat, S. (2016, Aug 19). *Pattani Malay – Thai bilingual/multilingual education, Thailand*. UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning. https://uil.unesco.org/case-study/effective-practices-database-litbase-0/patani-malay-thai-bilingual-multilingual-education

Ponticorvo, M., Di Fuccio, R., Ferrara, F., Rega, A., Miglino, O. (2019). Multisensory educational materials: Five senses to learn. In *Methodologies and intelligent systems for technology enhanced learning, 8th international conference* (MIS4TEL 2018). Advances in Intelligent Systems and Computing, Vol. 804. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-98872-6_6

Roehlkepartain, E. C. (2009). Service-learning in community-based organisations: A practical guide to starting and sustaining high-quality programs. *Service Learning, General*, *140*, 3–61. https://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/slceslgen/140

Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge, and pedagogy in the Sydney school*. Equinox.

Supharatypthin, D. (2014). Developing students' ability in listening and speaking English using the communicative approach of teaching. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, *7*(3), 141–149.

Tavil, Z. M. (2010). Integrating listening and speaking skills to facilitate English language learners' communicative competence. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *9*, 765–770. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.12.231

The Trash Project. (2019). Free Linguistics Conference Group. http://www.flcgroup.net/trash-project/

Van Dijk, T. A. (2001). Critical discourse analysis. In D. Schiffrin, D. Tannen, & H. E. Hamilton (Eds.), *Discourse analysis* (pp. 352–371). Backwell.

Vinca, A. (2011). *Service learning in English language teaching* [Master's thesis. Southeast European University]. Equal Access Through Service Learning for Persons with Disabilities. https://equalaccess4pwds.org/sites/default/files/resources/Service%20Learning%20Arta%20Vinca%2009%2011%202011.pdf

Warschauer, M., & Cook, J. (1999). Service-learning and technology in TESOL. *Prospect-Adelaide*, *14*(3), 32–39.

Yagang, F. (1994). Listening: Problems and solutions. In T. Kral (Ed.), *Teacher development: Making the right moves* (pp. 626–636). English Language Programs Divisions, USIA.

Appendix A

Broad PDA Form

[INSERT MATERIAL]

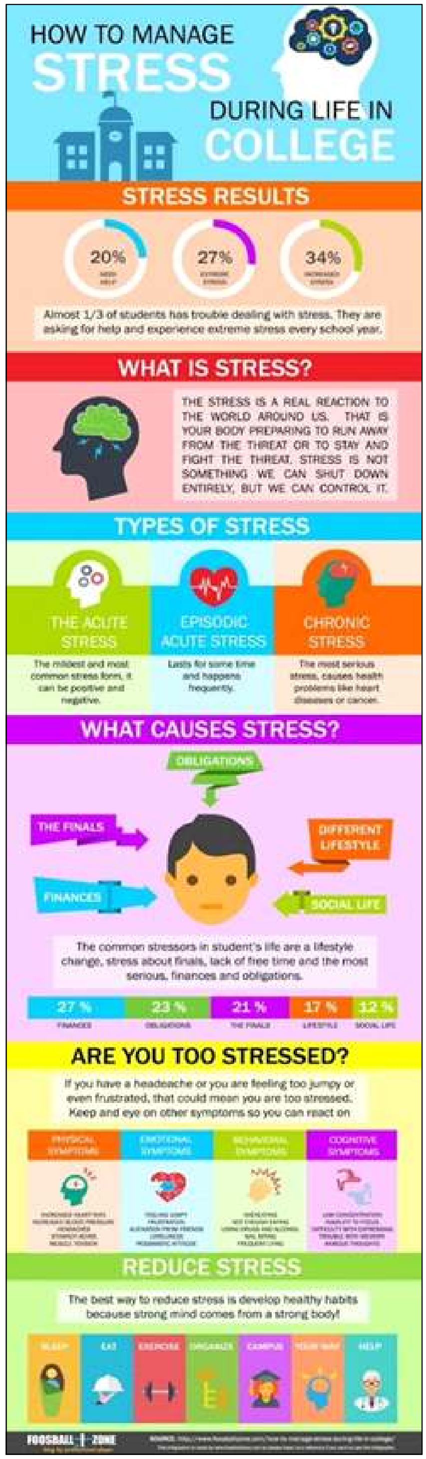
- Name the thing:
- Describe the thing:
- Is this part of a larger campaign:
- If yes, what other things are part of this campaign? Provide an overview of materials included in the campaign and highlight which/how many things you will analyse. Add a reason for your decision.
- What are the goals of the thing?
- Context and details about the thing:
    - Who created it?
    - Why was it created?
    - Where was it created?
    - When was it created?
- Other info as necessary:
    - External references, if any:
- Why do you think this is a successful thing?

	Description	What meanings are being projected?
Sight		
Sound		
Smell		
Touch		
Taste		

APPENDIX B

Model Materials from Successful Campaigns

Achieve Medical Center



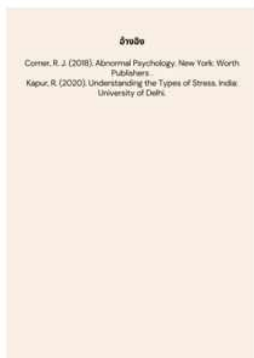
Foosball Zone

APPENDIX C

Final Poster Designs

English Version

Thai Version



Techniques and Approaches

An Ecolinguistics Approach to Education

Jason D. Gold
Kobe University, Kobe, Japan

Schools play a vital role in shaping students' learning and beliefs. In light of the ecological issues facing our world today, a more ecojustice-focused approach to education is vital. The theoretical framework of ecolinguistics (Stibbe, 2020) provides a useful tool for students to critically analyze the language of the texts they encounter in everyday life, school, and the media, in order to determine their underlying "story" and impact from an ecological perspective. This article will discuss the potential benefits ecolinguistics can offer to educators and students, and provide examples of how to incorporate it into classroom lessons through linguistic analysis of academic texts and consumer advertising.

Introduction

Schools play a vital role in shaping students' learning and beliefs, and thus it can be argued that educators have a responsibility to help foster environmentally minded youth; to prepare this next generation of business owners, innovators, scientists, politicians, and leaders to be able to overcome the ecological challenges they will face; and to pave the way for a new way of life that prioritizes protecting our planet. Towards this end, students need to be taught to not blindly believe what they read or are told in the media or other texts, but instead learn how to critically and logically analyze the arguments, facts, and underlying ideologies being conveyed in order to determine for themselves their validity and reliability.

One major curricular goal of literacy classes is to enable students to think critically and be able to analyze media and texts from multiple perspectives – to see more of the whole picture. Thus hand in hand with developing an awareness of the environmental issues that we as a planet are currently facing, students also need to be equipped with a practical theoretical framework that will allow them to understand the underlying ideologies and "stories" inherent in our modern way of life, and how some of these are perpetuating a cycle of unlimited development and economic growth at the cost of environmental destruction. Only after these ideologies have been exposed and understood can students be in a position to meaningfully discuss and engage with them. The purpose of this article is to introduce and discuss one such promising framework – that of ecolinguistics.

The Theoretical Framework of Ecolinguistics

In his book *Ecolinguistics*, Arran Stibbe (2020) contrasts the difference between the everyday stories we tell our friends, colleagues, and loved ones with the *stories-we-live-by*. These latter stories are different in that they are largely unconscious worldviews that we have learned and internalized throughout our lives pertaining to how the world works; how to treat other people, living things, and the planet; and what things are important and should thus be valued. Such stories are deeply ingrained within us as individuals as well as within our collective society.

A concern with these kinds of stories is that because they have been with and around us our entire lives, we are often not aware of them. As a result, we may not have really ever taken the time to consider them deeply – to determine if they are actually working or not, helpful stories or harmful ones. Such analysis is crucial because these stories shape our perception of reality, and "unaware that our stories are stories, we experience them as the world" (Loy, 2010, p. 5). Thus, they come to be internalized as the *truth* instead of just one of many potential *stories*.

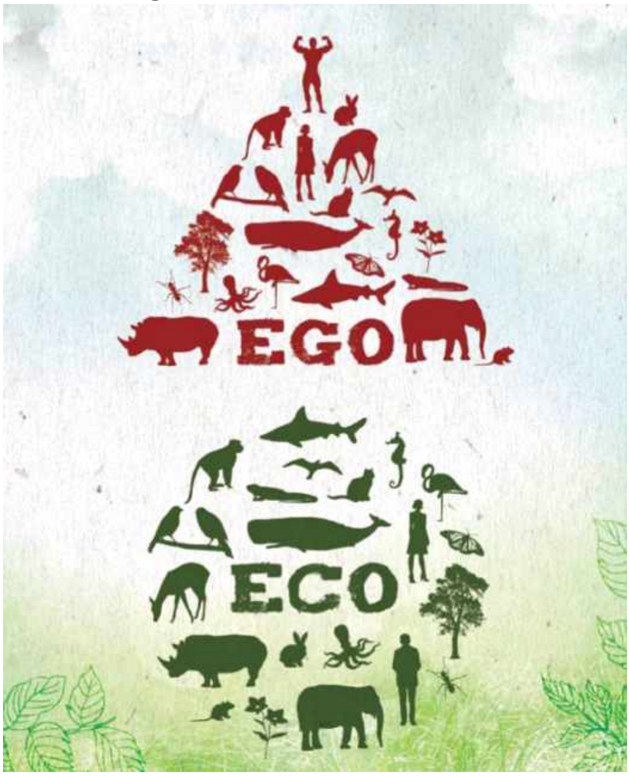
One way to reveal these underlying stories and make them more transparent is through ecolinguistics, which is the study of analyzing the language and linguistic manifestations used in the various "texts" that surround us in modern society in order to determine their message and impact from an ecological perspective. As Stibbe (2020) explains,

> Underneath common ways of writing and speaking in industrial societies are stories of unlimited economic growth as the main goal of society; of the accumulation of unnecessary goods as a path towards self-improvement; of progress and success defined narrowly in terms of technological innovation and profit; and of nature as something separate from humans, a mere stock of resources to be exploited. (p. 3)

Climate change, pollution, and the destruction of the natural world are real threats that we as a planet face, yet the above stories-we-live-by continue to foster their perpetuation. In light of this, in order to have any hope of adequately responding to these ecological challenges it is first critical to become aware of the fundamental stories used within our society. This is necessary because any actions we take individually or as a society to try and protect the natural world will be largely ineffective unless they are also accompanied by an examination and rethinking of the ideologies that are the cause and continuation of these issues in the first place.

Part of an ecolinguistics approach is its emphasis on *ecosophy* (i.e., ecological philosophy), or the normative principles, assumptions, and values held pertaining to our relationship with people, other living things, and the environment that guide our lives. Our ecosophy influences how we interpret the stories we uncover through linguistic analysis and whether we consider them to be overall destructive, beneficial, or ambivalent (i.e., partly destructive, partly beneficial). The ecosophy of ecolinguistics takes an ecological worldview that sees humanity as part of nature, values life and the well-being of all, and considers environmental limits and social justice rather than an ego or human-centered worldview, which sees mankind as separate from and superior to nature and ultimately undermines social justice and sustainability (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Ego vs. Eco Worldview



Thus the aim of ecolinguistics is to encourage people to be more critical and discerning of the environmental impact of the stories-we-live-by to determine if we should continue to live by them or seek an alternative story. One major way these stories get perpetuated is through education, with schools, and particularly educators playing an instrumental role regarding which ideologies students come to believe. As such, schools have a responsibility to "prepare students at all levels to think critically and carefully – that is to say, ethically – about the patterns of belief and behavior in our culture that have led to destructive relationships and practices that have harmed the natural world as well as human communities" (Martusewicz et al., 2021, p. 9). Ecolinguistics can provide a tool for educators to incorporate into our classroom curricula, aiding us in guiding our students through a critical examination, and if necessary, reevaluation of these stories-we-live-by.

The rest of this paper will provide examples for applying an ecolinguistics approach to text analysis to understand the underlying stories and ideologies present, show ways to incorporate ecolinguistics into classroom lessons, and demonstrate some of the potential benefits it can offer.

Educational Applications of Ecolinguistics for Student Learning

Textbook Analysis

In his book *Ecolinguistics*, Stibbe (2020) illustrates how educators can incorporate the theoretical framework of ecolinguistics into their classrooms by practically applying it to various texts. In one particular case study, he analyzes the discourse of neoclassical economics (a dominant story-we-live-by in society today) used within five prominent microeconomics textbooks to determine their embedded ideologies. He explains that a starting point for analysis is to determine who the characters are, how they are described, and what they are positioned as thinking, feeling, and doing. Within the textbooks, microeconomics is described as dealing with the behavior of "individual economic units" such as "consumers, workers, investors, owners of land, and business firms" (p. 32). Upon analysis, such discourse used in the textbooks portrays humanity as divided up into simplified categories based on a single role they perform (e.g., consumers consume, owners own, workers work, etc.) and assumes that people within these categories think and act alike, with the predominant action being that of purchasing goods.

Stibbe next analyzed the language in the textbooks used to portray the typical goals that consumers are represented as pursuing. This comprised discourse such as "the consumer wishes to do as well as possible, to select that consumption pattern out of all those available that will yield the highest level of satisfaction," "consumers decide ... what goods and services to buy ... to achieve the highest possible level of satisfaction," and "the utility-maximizing consumer obviously wishes to maximize this net gain" (p. 33). From this, throughout the textbooks, consumers all had the same main goal: to achieve the highest level of satisfaction, utility, or well-being. The story-we-live-by that ultimately emerges from this language is that "consumers maximize their own satisfaction through purchase." Stibbe expounds that through an ecolinguistics ecosophy, this ideology is destructive, since it not only represents consumers as "egotistically trying to satisfy themselves without regard to anyone else" but that "the only path to satisfaction is represented as being through purchase" (p. 34). This view equates money and buying with one's happiness and well-being, with no regard for other people nor any mention of other ways that people could achieve satisfaction apart from consumption.

Another predominant story that emerged from the textbooks, from discourse such as "consumers will want to purchase more of a good as its price goes down," "consumers always prefer more of any good to less ... more is always better, even if just a little better," and "people, both rich and poor, want more than they can have" (p. 35), was that consumers are interested simply in maximizing their own well-being through consumption, will always want more, and can never be satiated. Combined, Stibbe explains that in this story-we-live-by, "consumers can never be satisfied" (p. 38) is another example of a destructive ideology in a world where rampant consumerism has led to overconsumption and pollution that are gradually destroying the land, air, and sea of our planet.

While the underlying ideologies found in an economics textbook may seem innocuous, such texts can and do have serious real-world consequences, since many politicians, businessmen, and world leaders are either trained in neoclassical economics or are advised by those who have, and thus unconsciously internalize these stories as true and the only stories. This then influences how they think, feel, and act, including the policies they put forth pertaining to the economy and the environment. This case study demonstrates how the language of textbooks and other course materials educators use in their teaching may be contributing to the perpetuation of the global issues we face today and, thus, emphasizes the importance of both educators and students becoming more aware of these ideologies through the use of ecolinguistics to critically analyze the discourses and determine their underlying ecosophy.

Consumer Advertising

One major contributor to many of the stories-we-live-by in modern society comes from consumer advertising, which surrounds and inundates us on a daily basis. This has been the case our entire lives, resulting in advertisements becoming a kind of unconscious background noise; having grown accustomed to their constant presence, we often do not think about the influence the ideologies these ads portray have on how we think, feel, and act, particularly towards the environment. Hence, due to their prominence in our daily lives, advertisements can be a great resource for introducing students to an ecolinguistics approach to critical analysis – to equip them with the tools to become more conscious of the messages in such texts and enable them to decipher the underlying stories as beneficial or destructive in accordance with their own ecosophy. Moreover, advertisements are often short, making them practical and easy to incorporate by educators into a wide range of school disciplines and lessons, even those with a strict pre-established curriculum or a heavy core standards focus.

In the following section, I demonstrate how educators can teach their students to analyze advertisements using several of Stibbe's (2020) ecolinguistics cognitive structures that shape the stories-we-live-by: framing, metaphor, erasure, and identity. These particular cognitive structures were chosen because they are commonly utilized in modern advertising and help to reveal powerfully different ways of conceptualizing the underlying messages depicted. In framing, language from one area of life is used to describe or juxtapose a different area of life. The triggering words of the frame are used to evoke certain thoughts, feelings, and associations (positive or negative) that we have with it and seek to have them be applied to the other area of life to influence our thinking and behavior in some way. An especially influential type of framing that occurs frequently in advertising is through the use of metaphors, which evoke powerful images to create an emotional impact and seek to influence our association of it with the unrelated area of life, creating a new story to live by.

However, sometimes in advertising one area of life is portrayed as unimportant or unworthy of consideration; this is known as erasure. This can occur through one of three methods: The Void, in which the environment or natural world is entirely absent; The Trace, in which the environment or natural world is only briefly or indirectly mentioned, or The Mask, in which the environment or natural world is obscured and replaced with an alternative story.

These methods of erasure attempt to misdirect the audience into believing one kind of story through the hiding or altering of an area of reality. Framing, metaphors, and erasure in advertising all seek to influence individually and collectively our identity, or what it means to be a particular kind of person, which includes a particular set of associated thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Advertisements often use stories to portray their product in a certain beneficial way to best appeal to their target market audience as well as to craft a specific positive identity to be attained by consumers who purchase it.

Below are three examples of consumer advertising of common everyday products (automobiles, fast food, and laundry detergent) to illustrate how an ecolinguistics approach can be applied to uncover their underlying stories in order to open up meaningful dialogue with students and determine if the ecosophy of those stories is beneficial or destructive for the future of our planet.

FIGURE 2. Jeep Advertisement: This Theme Park Only Has One Ride. (1994)

The 1994 Jeep Wrangler ad depicts a beautiful scenic background with lush green hills and snow-covered mountains (see Figure 2). In jarring contrast is a bright red Jeep Wrangler, which sits at the bottom left facing up towards the mountains. The header at the top of the ad states, “This Theme Park Only Has One Ride,” eliciting a metaphor. In ecolinguistics, metaphors consist of a source frame (an unrelated area of life portrayed in the ad), a target domain (the area of life the ad makers are trying to get us to associate with the source frame), and an entailment, pertaining to how effectively the source frame is able to influence how we think about the target domain (i.e., if it successfully creates a new association in our mind between these two different areas of life).

In this advertisement, the target domain is owning/driving a jeep, and the source frame sought to create a new association is that of the natural world as a (free) theme park. The language used in the text at the bottom of the ad triggers this association with key phrases such as “attracting visitors to this theme park,” “thrills,” and “price of admission very reasonable.” Theme parks are manmade creations that exist solely for the pleasure and excitement of its customers. However, downsides of them can be that they are sometimes expensive to enter, and require long waits to enjoy the rides, which often do not last very long (e.g., three minutes). The message of this metaphor then is that as long as you are a jeep owner, all of nature can become your amusement park for free; the natural world exists for your own pleasure and excitement. This metaphor is also an example of erasure of the natural world through use of The Mask, replacing it instead with this alternative image of a theme park.

The identity this ad creates, then, is that of a jeep owner being someone tough who can dominate over nature and the environment, which is highlighted by the contrasting red color of the jeep and its position up to the right, seemingly getting ready to face off against the natural world. Jeep owners being able to dominate the natural world can thus use it as their playground and a source of self-serving thrills and excitement like a theme park ride, which is often fast and violent, with lots of sharp turns and extreme maneuvers. The ecosophy of this advertisement and the metaphor it chooses to use is an example of a destructive story, since it disregards the damage to the environment and living creatures that would occur by driving around treating it like it was a theme park ride and erases the story of nature as something to be valued, cherished, and protected.

FIGURE 3. Chick-fil-A Advertisement: Owr Happiness – Yer Chikin Eatin (2015)

Particularly prevalent in modern advertising is the use of anthropomorphism, or attributing human traits, emotions, or intentions to non-human entities, especially animals. As countless Disney and Pixar movies have proven over the years, this can be an extremely effective way to influence our thoughts, feelings, and actions, by allowing us to better relate, and thus care about, the non-human entity. However, anthropomorphism in advertising can also be used as a means of erasure, to misdirect us into believing one kind of story while hiding or portraying another story as unimportant or unworthy of consideration (Stibbe, 2020). An example of this can be found in the chicken fast food chain Chick-fil-A's "Eat Mor Chikin" campaign, which began in 1995 and features cows promoting the consumption of chicken instead of beef (see Figure 3). This campaign was wildly successful, doubling their store sales and turning Chick-fil-A into one of the largest U.S. fast food chains (Meyers, 2016).

In this highway billboard advertisement, we see the two anthropomorphized "rebel" cows of this ad campaign working together stealthily, to draw a simple chart in black on a glaring yellow background that highlights two misspelled yet understandable phrases – "YER CHIKIN EATIN" on the x axis and "OWR HAPPINESS" on the y axis – with a bright red arrow pointed incrementally upwards. One cow is standing on the other cow's back to reach the billboard and make this chart, while the other has her head turned away, indicating that she is the "lookout" in this stealthy endeavor. This portrays the cows as activists of some kind, secretly rebelling against an unjust cause and trying to get their important message to us (consumers) to increase our consumption of chicken, and thus reduce our consumption of beef (i.e., them), which will increase their happiness by allowing them to live (i.e., instead of getting turned into burgers). Yet at the same time, this heavy message comes off as light and even humorous due to the style of the ad using life-size cow replicas, one standing on top of the other; the cows' clumsy capital-letter writing, and their cute child-like misspelled words (because cows are illiterate, but they are trying to write like humans).

At a surface level analysis, this ad may seem to be a beneficial one. It uses these cute anthropomorphized cows to have us relate to their plight and feel sympathy for them in a bid to raise awareness that cows are sentient creatures that want to live, thus promoting sympathy and hopefully a change in consumer behavior through reduced beef consumption. Yet a deeper ecolinguistics analysis reveals how this advertisement uses erasure (via The Mask) to misdirect and manipulate the underlying story here: how fast food chains for both beef and chicken historically have used cruel and inhuman farming systems to raise, slaughter, and harvest animals in a cheap and efficient way, resulting in the needless suffering of animal lives.

In order to keep people from thinking about where the fast food they eat comes from and how awful the conditions are for the animals at those farms, advertising campaigns often utilize cute or silly images of animals acting in human-like ways, sometimes even promoting their own consumption. In this case the cows, in a bid to save their own lives from the big bad beef fast food chains (i.e., Chick-fil-A's competitors), they are promoting the consumption of another animal instead (Chick-fil-A chickens). Essentially, the cows are supporting Chick-fil-A because they don't want to be slaughtered and eaten themselves. All that is being done in this advertisement is shifting the focus of the animal to be eaten; there is no message of the inherent worth of living creatures, they are interchangeable. Both cows and chickens are sentient creatures, and Chick-fil-A's own treatment of their chickens has been documented to be cruel and unjust (Subway, Starbucks..., 2020; Tomlinson, 2014).

The identity this advertisement seeks to foster is not someone who cares about the humane treatment of cows and chickens raised in fast food farming systems, but simply that of a consumer who, when given the choice between eating beef or chicken, will decide to eat Chick-fil-A chicken. This kind of use of anthropomorphized animals in advertising by commercial agribusiness seeks to detach food production from food consumption and justify intensive and cruel farming methods, and thus erases "respect for animals as beings with mental lives who are living their own lives for their own purposes" (Stibbe, 2020, p. 171) and belittles their inherent worth as co-inhabitants of this planet, resulting in a destructive story-we-live-by.

FIGURE 4. Tide Advertisement: Keep It Cool. (2014)

The advertisement in Figure 4 is for Tide Coldwater laundry detergent, which was originally launched in 2005 and is part of their ongoing campaign to get people to do an average of three out of four loads of laundry with cold water by 2030 (Jagyasi, 2019). The advertisement states this product is specially formulated to provide a deep clean in cool temperatures. The first thing we notice is the product located largely in the center of the ad, the appealing light blue background, and the large capital text at the top saying, "KEEP IT COOL." This headline plays off the dual meaning of *cool*: it applies to both the cool (cold) temperature of the water that this product enables us to use to wash our clothes as well as the meaning of *cool* as attractive, fashionable, or trendy. Reading the text on the left of the ad, this appears to be an environmentally friendly product, since washing our clothes in cool rather than warm water can lead to energy reductions and potentially reducing CO_2 emissions each year.

However, while mentioning potential environmental benefits, the main framing of this advertisement is ultimately an economic one, focusing on the finances and savings for the consumer. While it does mention CO_2 reduction, this comes second to how long it can power the Empire State Building, and all of the text on the right-hand side focuses solely on household energy savings on washes and how they can be diverted towards entertainment purposes such as watching TV, playing XBOX 360, or charging one's smartphone; this frames the energy savings solely in terms of redirecting its use for entertainment. Lastly, the text at the bottom of the ad utilizes bolding of the trigger words "smart practical choice," "cut household costs," and "save up to 50% of energy" to emphasize this point of economic savings. Thus, the predominant identity the framing of this ad creates is not that of someone who is saving energy to lower CO_2 emissions and protect the planet, but that of a smart, practical consumer, reducing household energy expenses and using those savings for one's own pleasure via entertainment.

This would be an example of an ambivalent story-we-live-by, since the product can potentially lead to significant energy savings for not just individual households but the entire country if everyone were to switch over to using more cool water for laundry, which is a beneficial story. However, how these energy savings can benefit the planet by reducing CO_2 emissions is only briefly mentioned, with the ad instead focusing predominantly on financial savings or other ways people can use that energy to have fun, which is ultimately a destructive story that will continue to contribute to global warming and climate change. There is no appeal for using Tide Coldwater to stop climate change or to save our planet, just for households to save energy; thus the identity this ad seeks to establish is ultimately not that of an environmentally conscious person but instead that of a smart, practical consumer.

The above were just a few examples but illustrate how, by learning to identify the framing, metaphors, erasure, and identity used in everyday advertising, students can come to see the underlying story being told and how it shapes our thoughts and beliefs about the environment in subtle ways. Only with this understanding can students come to consciously make the decision whether they agree with it or want to seek an alternative story, based on their own values and ecosophy.

CONCLUSIONS

"Nothing can be more important to teach about than the future of the planet and the lives that support it" (Martusewicz et al., 2021, p. 8).

This article has sought to introduce the theoretical framework of ecolinguistics and how it can be applied to different types of texts, such as school textbooks, media sources, and modern advertising. By applying linguistic analysis to Stibbe's cognitive structures of framing, metaphor, erasure, and identity, educators can aid students in not only becoming more aware of how language can portray certain ideologies, but also in how texts ultimately shape our thoughts, attitudes, and actions towards the environment, as it is ideologies that "allow people, as group members, to organize the multitude of social beliefs about what is the case, what is good or bad, or right or wrong for them, and to act accordingly" (van Dijk 1998, p. 8).

Several destructive stories prevalent in modern society discussed in this article included the construal of nature as something separate from humans, to be owned or dominated; the viewing of economic savings and growth as the predominant goal of society; and the purchasing of material goods as the main path towards self-improvement or attainment of an "ideal" identity. We can help our students recognize and reconsider these and other destructive discourses by fostering an awareness that "the ideology conveyed by the discourse is just a story and that the story has harmful effects" (Stibbe, 2020, p. 24), thus allowing them to develop their own informed ecosophy. This can be achieved by exploring with students questions such as the origin of where these stories came from, how they shape our understandings and experiences, and what their consequences are for different groups of people (Damico et al., 2020). It is only after students realize that an underlying story-we-live-by is destructive can meaningful dialogue occur on the impact of such stories on our planet and how to bring about change through the opening up of space for more beneficial alternatives.

Schools play a vital role in shaping students' learning and beliefs. In light of the ecological challenges facing our world today, an ecolinguistics and ecojustice approach of responsible education calls for a "rethinking of what it means to be educated" (Martusewicz et al., 2021, p. 8). While we educators may often encounter various constraints in our teaching context that can make it challenging to incorporate an ecojustice approach into our pedagogy (e.g., time limitations, pre-established curricula, a need for strict adherence to core standards), such reasons must not be allowed to diminish the importance of ensuring that our students can critically think about and meaningfully discuss the impact our modern lifestyle is having on the future of our planet, as this pertains to the quality of their future as well. An ecolinguistics approach to education can help aid teachers in working towards this noble goal.

The Author

Jason Gold has been a university instructor in Japan for the past ten years and is currently an associate professor at Kobe University. He holds an MA in TESOL from Arizona State University and is working on his EdD in education and learning sciences at Indiana University. His research includes educational psychology applications and practical use for classroom teaching, particularly regarding motivation, learner mindsets, and academic tenacity. Email: jasongold526@gmail.com

REFERENCES

Damico, J. S., Baildon, M., & Panos, A. (2020). Climate justice literacy: Stories-we-live-by, ecolinguistics, and classroom practice. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, *63*(6), 683–691.

Jagyasi, P. (2019, April 3). *9 inspiring advertisements of eco-friendly products*. Dr. Prem. https://drprem.com/business/9-inspiring-advertisement-of-eco-friendly-products-ideas

Loy, D. (2010). *The world is made of stories*. Wisdom.

Martusewicz, R. A., Edmundson, J., & Lupinacci, J. (2020). *Ecojustice education*: *Toward diverse*, *democratic*, *and sustainable communities* (3rd ed.). Routledge.

Meyers, E. (2016). Chick-fil-A ends 22-year relationship with cow campaign ad creator, The Richards Group. *Dallas News*. https://www.dallasnews.com/business/local-companies/2016/07/21/chick-fil-a-ends-22-year-relationship-with-cow-campaign-ad-creator-the-richards-group/

Stibbe, A. (2021). *Ecolinguistics*: *Language*, *ecology*, *and the stories we live by* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Tomlinson, S. (2014, November 20). *Chick-fil-A supplier accused of animal abuse after being caught on camera kicking*, *throwing*, *and burning alive its chickens*. MailOnline. https://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2842095/Chick-fil-supplier-accused-animal-abuse-caught-camera-kicking-throwing-burning-alive-chickens.html

van Dijk, T. (1998). *Ideology*: *A multidisciplinary approach*. SAGE.

Subway, Starbucks, Dunkin' Brands, Chick-fil-A and other brands fail to make animal welfare improvements. (2020, March 30). World Animal Protection. https://www.worldanimalprotection.org/news/subway-starbucks-dunkin-brands-chick-fil-and-other-brands-stubbornly-resist-animal-welfare

Advertisements

Chick-fil-a. (2015). Owr happiness. Yer chikin eatin [Advertisement]. https://i.ytimg.com/vi/n-YTai_VQlY/maxresdefault.jpg

Ego vs eco worldview. (n.d.). [Advertisement]. https://otinternational.org/images/YouthProjects/2021/EGOvsECO/EGOvsECO_banner.png

Jeep. (1994). *This theme park only has one ride* [Advertisement]. https://i.pinimg.com/originals/6e/33/ef/6e33ef8f5f9cdd38c9cb3e53498fe835.jpg

Tide. (2014, April). *Keep it cool* [Advertisement]. https://drprem.com/business/wp-content/uploads/sites/28/2018/03/tide.jpg

Dictation in the L2 Classroom

Joshua Cohen
Kinki University, Osaka, Japan

In this article, I provide an overview of using dictation as a foreign language teaching and testing device. The aim is a summary of ideas that should help teachers improve their students' overall language acuity through the use of the technique. The article begins with a brief discussion on how the mind is thought to process language during dictation and quickly transitions to a review of literature applying it in classroom and controlled settings. Next, a set of principles for curriculum planning is presented followed by a suggestion for implementing the technique in the modern language classroom. The article concludes with a call out to readers to help revitalize the technique through more consistent application of it.

INTRODUCTION

Dictation has been used as a language teaching technique since the Dark Ages (Kelly, 1969), although its popularity has fluctuated throughout history. In the past, it was associated with the grammar-translation method, the reading method, and the direct method, while the natural method, the audio-lingual method, and total physical response method did not advocate it (Stansfield, 1985). Practitioners of more contemporary approaches to language teaching have also been divided, with some referring to it as uncommunicative, inauthentic, teacher-centered, and old-fashioned (as cited in Bowen, 1991; Lightfoot, 2005; Wajnryb, 1990).

However, dictation is far from passé. It is flexible enough to be used in most modern classroom settings (including online), and the research endorsing it is irrefutable. For example, it is widely endorsed for the teaching of orthography and phonics as well as for syntax and grammar (Kidd, 1992; Mark, 1996; Vasiljevic, 2010; Wajnryb, 1990). It is respected for its reliability and validity as a means of testing language (Heaton, 1988; Kimura, 2016; Leeming & Wong, 2016; Oller, 1971, 1979) and nonpareil for the development and enhancement of listening comprehension (Cohen, 2015; Nation & Newton, 2009; Rost, 2011). Dictation has also been used to promote overall textual comprehension (Valette, 1964) and to aid in the development of auditory discrimination, auditory memory span, and spelling, and has potential for the teaching of verbalization and pronunciation (Blanche, 2004).

DICTATION

Describing Dictation

The ability to reproduce in writing aural input held temporarily in memory is quite amazing. And complicated, too. It requires the brain to decode and unpackage, and then recode and repackage messages from sounds into written words. Provided one's language skill and listening competency is sufficient, most people can carry out the task instantaneously and with virtually no load on their brain's processing capacity. The only real challenge to accuracy during dictation is the power to hold what was heard in short-term memory. So, what happens during dictation and how exactly do we do it?

To understand how the mind processes language during dictation, it is helpful to consider things from a connectionist perspective. Connectionist models of cognition are loosely based on the mapping of the brain, where interconnected nodes and networks are used to send messages rapidly back and forth to one another the way neurons fire signals across synapses. Connectionist theory asserts that language learning – all learning, actually – is based upon occurrences or examples we encounter from the input we receive. The more we are exposed to an example, or an instance of something, the more a series of patterns starts to emerge. In the case of language learning, the patterns that emerge over time create what is commonly referred to as the "rules" of grammar. In reality, though, grammar rules or patterns don't actually exist. What is thought to exist in the mind of the learner is a system of weighted connections, where weight refers to the overall strength of the connection made (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). For example, the words *bears*, *dolls*, and *cars* imply a kind of statistical likelihood that the plural form of the word *toy* would be *toys*. Using this system of connections may lead learners to make overgeneralizations and declension errors based on probability, such as in the case of **mans*, **mouses*, or **catched*. Research in this area has shown that the wider the array of irregular plural noun forms and verbs that learners are exposed to, the less errors they make (Elman, 2001; Plunkett & Juola, 1999).

Thus, rather than acquiring language through an elements-and-skills approach, individuals are thought to achieve proficiency through cognitive processes. One of dictation's most prolific advocates, John Oller, has described a "grammar of expectancy" (e.g. Oller 1971, 1978, 1979), in which syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic knowledge combine to create a system of predictive ability in the mind not unlike connectionist models of language acquisition. According to him, the ability to hypothesize based on what was heard or said is derived from an internalized grammar of a language. Oller (1979) further suggested that changes to the system

> cause the learner to process (either produce or comprehend; or possibly to comprehend, store, and recall; or some other combination) temporal sequences of elements in the language that conform to normal contextual constraints (linguistic and extralinguistic) ... and require the learner to understand the pragmatic interrelationship of linguistic contexts and extralinguistic contexts. (p. 33)

Put another way, pragmatic expectancy grammar is the association of speech units (i.e., morphemes, words, phrases, sentences) and syntactic forms with their underlying contextual meanings. The narrative that arises between them mirrors everyday language use in that the associations reflect the most likely word choices made by users. In comprehending language, people connect talk to structurally appropriate patterns through inference (Oller, 1971), thereby creating a system of grammar based upon and built by prior exposure. An individual's grammar of expectancy is said to facilitate and then enable language fluency, since these kinds of situations are likely what speakers use to process input or forecast potential output.

Oller also claimed that expectancy grammar is what controls a learner's power of prediction and allows them to interpret what was heard by "continually formulating, modifying, and reforming hypotheses about the underlying structure and meaning of input signals" (Oller, 1978, p. 62). In this way, the theoretical constructs of connectionism and expectancy grammar appear to operate in similar ways: learners make guesses about meaning based on recognized language units, structural patterns, and the context of what was seen or heard while analyzing and synthesizing information sequentially (Kuperberg & Jaeger, 2015). Both connectionism and expectancy grammar are top-down in nature and rely heavily on the processing of background knowledge, patterning, and predictive competence to enable the interpretation of sounds into concepts. Dictation is an activity that makes use of these processes because it requires learners to attend to the form and meaning of utterances both semantically and pragmatically (Kidd, 1992).

Types of Dictation

There are four principle types of dictation used in second language (L2) classrooms: phonemic item, orthographic item, phonemic text, and orthographic text dictation (Sawyer & Silver, 1961). Phonemic item dictation involves the dictation of individual phonemes. This kind of dictation has value in improving beginning learners' ability to differentiate between distinct sounds and likely assists in their reproduction of them. It may also be helpful in encouraging learners not to impose their native sound systems onto the sound system of their target language.

Phonemic text dictation builds on the groundwork laid by phonemic item dictation: however, students engaged in this type of activity typically transcribe words and longer passages of text. Perhaps the most constructive aspect of this type of dictation is its capacity to demonstrate how the sounds of a language change when used in connected speech (Alkire, 2002).

Like its phonemic counterpart, orthographic item dictation involves learners working with individual units of text. This type of dictation is useful when teaching students to recognize the relationship between a language's sound system and the pronunciation and spelling of its words. Orthographic item dictation is also commonly used to test general comprehension, as demonstrated by its frequent deployment as a cloze procedure.

Orthographic text dictation is the type of dictation most language learners are probably familiar with. Traditional orthographic text dictations are usually done with a teacher or religious elder reading a passage (two or three times), while learners attempt to recreate the passage as close to the original version as they can. This category of dictation expands on item dictation and uses phrases, clauses, and sentence-level strings of text. In addition to reinforcing the sound and spelling correlations associated with language, this kind of dictation can also cast light on comprehension and grammatical deficiencies, which teachers can focus on and address in future lessons (Sutherland, 1967).

Two additional forms of dictation worth noting are dictogloss and dictocomp. Both are manifestations of traditional dictation but feature a more progressive design and execution. Unlike traditional dictation, dictogloss and dictocomp don't require learners to reproduce what they heard verbatim. Instead, participants listen for gist and attempt to recreate a version that is similar but not identical to the original. Working with longer sequences of text may facilitate deeper, more meaningful linguistic processing (Macalister & Nation, 2009). In a dictogloss activity (Wajnryb, 1990), learners first listen to a passage read to them while they take notes. Then, they work together in small groups to recreate a written version of the text based on their notes and whatever other grammatical and linguistic resources they have internalized (Nation, 1991).

Dictocomp functions similarly to dictogloss; however, learners engaged in this type of activity do not consult or work with others to arrive at a final version of the text. Because dictogloss and dictocomp activities emphasize gist and meaning over accuracy, they can be designed so that learners are led to use target vocabulary or to notice specific language and grammatical phrasings.

Benefits and Drawbacks

Benefits of Dictation as a Teaching Tool

The body of literature supporting the use of dictation continues to expand every year. It's not hard to see why: Dictation activities are easy to organize and produce, virtually free to carry out, adaptable for online settings (Marcotte, 2020), and the pedagogical benefits associated with them are indisputable.

For example, in a 2008 paper, Rahimi reported encouraging results using dictation as a treatment for EFL students. His study investigated whether the technique could improve L2 learners' overall language proficiency. In his study, an experimental group took 50 dictations over a 17-week period. Post-test evaluations administered one semester after the intervention took place revealed the gains in his students' language skills were not ephemeral. Based on his results, Rahimi argued that practice with dictation has the potential to improve learners' language competency, specifically in the areas of grammar, vocabulary, and reading.

Twenty-five years before Rahimi, Morris (1983) came to a similar conclusion after reviewing the patterns of errors her EFL students made on three dictations. According to her, dictation is far from being simply a test of spelling, it is a way learners create meaning in a real, purposeful way. She further asserted that dictation has the power to improve learners' short-term memory and accelerate the development of their listening skills, which is why the technique can be so effective as a diagnostic tool. She also claimed that dictation can help learners identify their weaknesses and strengthen their knowledge of sentence structure.

Employing a collaborative dialog approach in which L2 learners worked together to recreate zero-error dictations, Ammar and Hassan (2018) found that dictation tasks, particularly those that require cooperation, interaction, and accuracy, were highly effective in students' acquisition of French morphology. In their study, participants were assigned to a low- or high-proficiency group depending on their grade level and score on a pre-test. Two control groups sat teacher-led dictations while two experimental groups did a task resembling a dictogloss. Unlike typical dictogloss activities where learners listen for the main idea, participants were told to replicate the text verbatim. Students were instructed to collaborate with one another and to query the teacher if they needed help recalling what they heard. Although the treatment lasted only five weeks, the authors noted an abundance of metalanguage was used during the task. Analysis of the experimental group's gain scores revealed that the degree of learning varied based on the participants' proficiency level. It is interesting to note that all participants' scores improved, but those engaged in the dictogloss activity improved more. Specifically, lower-proficiency participants made greater gains than higher-proficiency students, while the gain in scores between high- and low-proficiency learners were similar in the comparison group.

Takeuchi (1997) also reported promising results using dictation. His study focused on the efficacy of using dictation to teach English to first-year Japanese college students. Participants in his 13-week experiment were divided into three homogeneous groups and given a series of sentence-level dictations drawn from a popular movie script. All of the participating students showed significant gains in their listening comprehension, leading Takeuchi to contend that dictation is effective in the teaching of foreign languages. According to him, dictation requires students "to make the most of the knowledge available to them, and activate the predicting-and-testing process of listening comprehension. This activation then leads to better understanding of input, which is essential to the improvement of foreign language ability" (p. 61).

Focusing their attention on aural competence, Kiany and Shiramiry (2002) showed that dictation could be used to improve the listening skills of L2 learners. Their research focused on the effect of frequent dictations on the listening comprehension of elementary EFL learners in Iran. Their study showed that dictation had a significant effect on the listening ability of the experimental group. Speculating as to why, the authors suggested that dictation may compel participants to listen more conscientiously in the unpackaging of foreign speech and that dictation may improve learners' memory because the activity requires them to keep chunks of meaningful speech in their minds until they can note down what they heard.

Yonezaki (2014) too sought to confirm whether dictation practice was effective in improving the listening ability of high school students. Participants in his study listened to a story serialized into eight parts and took dictations that became increasingly more difficult as the exercise progressed. The study began with students sitting a cloze test where the first letter of each word was provided as a hint. Subsequent dictations grew more challenging, ultimately requiring students to recreate the week's passage verbatim, without hints. His results showed that although both groups improved, only the experimental group made statistically significant gains. This led him to speculate that dictation has the capacity to help improve learners' listening abilities. According to him, dictation is an effective teaching technique because "it develops several competences necessary in listening such as predictive competence and a rather complicated competence of filling up missing information with cues a learner has scooped up from the context" (Yonezaki, 2014, p. 28).

Benefits of Dictation as a Testing Tool

There has been some controversy over what dictation measures when used as a testing device (Stansfield, 1985), but there is strong evidence suggesting that it is both valid and reliable as a form of assessment (Fouly & Cziko, 1985; Kimura, 2016). Although most typically used to measure bottom-up and top-down listening skills (Cai, 2012), it has also been shown to correlate highly with an individual's overall proficiency level more accurately than other singular methods of testing such as vocabulary, cloze, or writing (Oller & Streiff, 1975). This is because dictation is integrative in nature and requires the synthesis of multiple skills concurrently (Morris, 1983). According to Heaton (1998), dictation tests "can prove good predictors of global language ability" (p. 17) because they involve the testing of language in context and are thus concerned primarily with meaning and the total communicative effect of discourse.

One early study by Savignon (1982) showed that dictation can be a reliable and efficient form of assessment and an excellent alternative to typical means of measuring language competence. Students participating in her study had three French passages dictated to them and were evaluated on the bursts or chunks of language they produced afterward. Savignon measured three types of chunks – conveyance of meaning, exact word, and phonetic similarity – and discovered that the scoring method she used was both reliable and useful for diagnostic purposes. In fact, she found the reliability indices she used for the conveyance of meaning scores were as high as and sometimes higher than the reliability of the other two forms she analyzed.

Research by Cai (2012) supports Savignon's assertion that dictation is a good measure of general linguistic ability. Her study sought to determine whether partial dictation could be used to measure lower-order abilities exclusively or both lower- and higher-order abilities. To test her theory, she used a listening comprehension test that had four parts: two different forms of partial dictation, a gap-filling section, and several constructed response tasks representing increasingly higher-order abilities. After administering the test she compared a simplex four-factor confirmatory factor analysis model with the four latent factors of different levels of listening proficiency to more complicated second-order and bi-factor models. Her findings led her to conclude that dictation can indeed do more than measure students' ability to discriminate phonemic sounds, recognize words, or test spelling.

Kimura (2016) arrived at a similar conclusion. Like Cai and Savignon before her, she demonstrated that dictation can be a reliable form of assessment and a trustworthy method of checking language learners' overall proficiency levels. A total of 1,177 participants sat a six-minute dictation test designed as a "smart and efficient" way to stream students. According to her, the test was an assessment of students' phonemic discrimination, word recognition ability, and structural knowledge of English. Her results, scored using Rasch analysis, demonstrated that a "good quality" test of language aptitude can be created using the technique.

But it was really John Oller (1972, 1975, 1978, 1979) who made one of the earliest and strongest cases in favor of using the cloze procedure and dictation as integrative language test formats. Oller (1979) argued that dictation could be viewed as a pragmatic test because it met two "pragmatic naturalness criteria." The first was that it required "temporal sequences of elements in the language constrained by the normal meaningful relationships of such elements in discourse" (p. 263). The second was that it required processing of the meanings coded in discourse. His experimental studies during the 1970s showed unequivocally that dictation can be used as a tool to test language. In his research, Oller used correlational analysis to demonstrate how the dictation sub-score of an ESL test was the best single predictor of scores on all other parts of a language proficiency test. This led him to conclude that dictation offers more in the way of information of an individual's language aptitude than any other part of the test.

Drawbacks and Challenges of Using Dictation for Teaching and Testing

Not everyone agrees with the writers above. Seeking to test Oller's theories on the feasibility of dictation as a testing device, Takahashi (1988) found no correlation between test scores and language proficiency. According to him, a dictation test is an unreliable evaluation of language skill because it is based on an individual's ability to recall what was said and typically uses a text's length as a measure of its difficulty. Success in dictation, he claimed, is more indicative of one's memory capacity than one's language mastery.

Some have claimed dictation doesn't require any skill or talent by the instructor and that it can frighten insecure students. Still others have insisted that only aural skills are developed through the technique. Perhaps unfairly, Brown (2001) placed dictation at the opposite end of a "communicative" continuum, referring to it as highly manipulative and controlled totally by the teacher requiring only predicted responses from students.

These descriptions seem unfair considering how effective dictation has been shown to be for learning language. What follows is a set of principles educators can use when making decisions about how best to deliver the content of their classes they are teaching.

Principles for Implementing Dictation in the L2 Curriculum

Many classrooms across the globe have transitioned to online settings, but there are still dozens of different ways you can use dictation to teach or test regardless of your students' age or the material you are responsible for (see, for example, Davis & Rinvolcri, 1988; Nation, 1991; Wajnryb, 1990). At elementary levels, dictation allows learners to observe a teacher displaying proper penmanship, punctuation, and letter spacing, and it can help them develop phonological awareness and phonetic skills as well as writing skills. In virtual contexts, teachers can use dictation to help students practice keyboard recognition and typing. After phonemes and consonant clusters are mastered, dictation can be used to model listening for whole words, sentences, and paragraphs. It can also help learners become more comfortable with graphic landmarks such as capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and contractions. And teachers can use dictation as a consciousness-raising activity by showing students that the omission or misuse of small function words alters the grammatical signaling of the language (Sutherland, 1967).

Once students have progressed past the beginning stages of acquisition, teachers can use dictation to help develop integrated language skills. Dictation is an excellent way to highlight grammar rules or to have students focus on forms in a more holistic way because teachers can "bake in" whatever language they wish their students to be exposed to (Cohen, 2019). And with the option of using longer, more meaningful texts, teachers can turn their attention toward the content of the passages they choose.

Classic literature was used as source material for centuries (Stansfield, 1985) in foreign language classrooms; however, exposing learners to more colloquial forms of language is equally as important. Drawing learners' attention to spoken features such as assimilation, linking, and elision can help them improve their listening comprehension while simultaneously improving their ability to write or type. The use of authentic materials can be motivational in that it can grab and hold the attention of even the most reluctant language learner (Peacock, 1997) and serves as a nice transition away from the stodgy content of typical language textbooks. Dictation practice can also be used to help learners to determine the appropriacy of words and phrases as well as detect the emergence of patterns when the theory underpinning the technique is considered.

When planning a dictation the following set of principles may be of use:

- *Content is the vehicle that drives success.* Having an objective is essential, but give content priority wherever possible. A good text is rich in the essentials and provides learners with a purpose for engaging with it. Setting a goal, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, gives students a reason to focus until the end.
- *Keep expectations realistic.* In addition to selecting a text with an appropriate length, your learners' ages, levels, and abilities should also be kept in mind. Allow yourself and your students some wiggle room, particularly if you are working in an online environment.
- *Repetition is imperative.* Most practitioners read a dictation passage two or three times. The first time allows learners to listen for nuance and gist; the second time allows them to note down what was heard; and the third time allows them to edit, correct, and reflect on what they heard and wrote.
- *Consider the focus.* Shift learners' attention and make the activity more student-centered by asking one of them to deliver the material to their classmates or play an audio or video recording for them.
- *Use it as a segue to other tasks.* Whether it involves embedding a grammar point or highlighting a discourse structure, dictation can be a good lead in to "focus on form" and other grammar consciousness-raising activities commonly associated with task-based teaching.
- *Vary the approach.* You can use the technique to give students directions or

to assign homework. Alternatively, you can use dictation in association with subjects separate from language study. (This principle is commonly used by teachers of content-based classes.)

- *Allow students time to self-correct.* When feasible, give students time to analyze and understand the errors they have made. This will help them improve and may lead to more and better uptake. You can also have them compare their work with a shoulder partner to check and edit it. If you are teaching online, you can encourage your students to seek out similar examples of your dictated items via a web search after they have had time to reflect on their mistakes.

Practical Application of Dictation

In addition to the pedagogical justifications for using dictation, there are a number of pragmatic reasons for using it. Table 1 lists several of the practical benefits associated with using dictation in the language classroom. From a management perspective, dictation can be a very effective way of controlling the flow and direction of a class as well as being a vehicle for learning or delivering content.

Table 1. Dictation as a Tool for Classroom Management

Benefits	Why It Works
Works well with large groups.	Teachers with large classes are often at a loss for activities that can engage the entire class simultaneously; however, dictation works with any number of students. The only limitation for teachers here is how far they can project their voice.
Can have a calming effect.	Because dictation requires active listening and concentration by participants, teachers often employ the technique going into or coming out of a break (such as lunch or recess).
Students are active before and after the task.	Teachers can include pre- and post-tasks that require interaction and meaningful language exchange (such as questions).
Copes well with mixed-ability groups.	Despite placement tests and administrators' best intentions, typical language classrooms often contain a range of skill levels (and intelligences). Dictation activities can be designed to capitalize on learners' differences by varying the assignment based on learners' level of proficiency.
Can be used as a consciousness-raising activity.	By pre-selecting the structures and vocabulary used in the text, teachers can jumpstart a cognitive process called "noticing." Providing samples of language to work on with the teacher can encourage learners to draw their own conclusions about how language works naturally.
Gives access to interesting texts.	Newspaper or magazine articles, poetry, menu items, even short-but-complete literary passages taken from the work of acknowledged masters can be used as authentic source material.
Is safe for the non-native teacher.	Teachers who have achieved a high level of competence in a foreign language occasionally feel their pronunciation or intonation is not good enough to present dictations to students. With a little practice ahead of time, this issue can be alleviated easily. Alternatively, teachers who lack confidence can use pre-recorded sound bites in class.

Classroom Suggestion: Learner-Driven Dictoquiz

Teachers looking for a new way to implement dictation in their classrooms may find the following activity intriguing. It is called the "dictoquiz" (Cohen, 2022), and it can be used as an informal assessment tool at the end of a unit or deployed as a stand-alone classroom activity. Its value lies in its communicative nature and capacity to unite students toward a common goal. With a few minor modifications the activity can be converted easily for online application.

Depending on the level of your students, find five words, phrases, structures, or sentences you have covered previously in class or you wish your students to learn. I like to source material directly from the textbook, but embedding a desired grammar point has tremendous value, too. Pass out paper or have your students use the back of something old from their notes. (If you are teaching on a web-based platform, prepare a Google Classroom quiz or activity template as described below). Tell your students that you are going to read five sentences, three times each, and that they should listen intently and try to note down exactly what they hear. Before you begin, have your students fold their papers in half lengthwise and instruct them to write the words "first answers" on the top of the left side and "final answers" on the top of the right. Tell them the "first answer" column is for listening and noting down what they hear during the dictation; the right side for proofing and rewriting their work after the dictation is over. Be sure to explain to them that you will only check the right side of the paper, the final answer column, and not the left side, regardless of whether they had the sentence written correctly or not in the first-answer column.

Next, read the five words or sentences three times, pausing briefly each time so that your students can write down what they heard. Once you have finished reading, tell your students they have 12 minutes (slightly longer if you are online) to use whatever resources they wish to correct their sentences. This means they may use their textbooks, their dictionaries, their cell phones, their notebooks, or the internet; they may even query one another. In short, they may use anything they can to seek out and correctly write the sentences you dictated. I add one caveat that I think adds a deeper layer of learning to the activity: I tell students they may query one another for the answers, provided they remain in English. This twist allows students to practice useful language functions like clarifying and confirming in a real setting, while at the same time conversing in meaningful language exchanges. I don't usually tell my students when I have taken sentences from their textbook, as I want them to find that out for themselves. If you are using Zoom or Teams, you may wish to cycle students into and out of breakout rooms to give them a chance to confer with one another.

When 12 minutes have elapsed (longer if you are having students input the answers via their keyboards) tell students to hand in their work. I like to point out that students who collaborate with one another tend to score higher because two or three (or four) heads are better than one!

Conclusions

In this article I have attempted to recirculate ideas associated with the use of dictation as a language teaching and testing device with the goal of providing educators a sound understanding of the method and a solid framework for its implementation. My hope is that its versatility persuades readers to apply it more frequently in their own language classrooms. Its greatest strength is its versatility: It can be designed to complement other tasks or used as a stand-alone activity, it can be inserted at the beginning of a task to help activate or build schema or at the end of a task as a summary activity or an assessment, and dictations can easily be adapted to precede or scaffold more “communicative” activities. Teachers with limited time or a demanding curriculum can rest assured knowing that dictation is both pedagogically sound and endorsed by many well-known scholars and researchers in the field of linguistics and second language acquisition.

The Author

Joshua Cohen teaches English in the Intensive International Program at Kinki University in Osaka, Japan. He received his bachelor’s degree in journalism from San Diego State University and his master’s degree in TESOL from Temple University. In his free time Joshua enjoys golf, gardening, and giggling with his wife and three children. Email: jcohen@kindai.ac.jp

References

Alkire, S. (2002). Dictation as a language learning device. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *8*(3). http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Alkire-Dictation.html

Ammar, A., & Hassan, R. M. (2018). Talking it thru: Collaborative dialog and second language learning. *Language Learning*, *68*(1), 46–82.

Blanche, P. (2004). Using dictation to teach pronunciation. *Linguagem & Ensino*, *7*(1), 175–192.

Bowen, T. (1991). Dictation: New methods, new possibilities [Review of the book *Dictation*: *New methods, new possibilities*, by P. Davis & M. Rinvolucri] *ELT Journal*, *45*(2), 180–181.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles*: *An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Longman

Cai, H. (2012). Partial dictation as a measure of EFL listening proficiency: Evidence from confirmatory factor analysis. *Language Testing*, *30*(2), 177–199.

Cohen, J. (2015). The effectiveness of using dictation to develop listening comprehension. *Kinki University Center for Liberal Arts and Foreign Language Education Journal*, *6*(2), 1–12.

Cohen, J. (2019). Some unheralded benefits of dictation. *Hawaii TESOL*, *The Word*, *28*(3), 13–15.

Cohen, J. (2022). The dictoquiz: A new twist on an old tradition. *WAESOL Educator*, *47*(1), 11–13

Davis, P., & Rinvolucri, M. (1988). *Dictation*: *New methods*, *new possibilities*. Cambridge.

Elman, J. (2001). Connectionism and language acquisition. In M. Tomasello & E. Bates (Eds.), *Essential readings in language development*. Basil Blackwell. https://crl.ucsd.edu/~elman/Papers/ elman-chapter.pdf

Fouly, K. A., & Cziko, G. A. (1985). Determining the reliability, validity, and scalability of the graduated dictation test. *Language Learning*, *35*(4), 555–566.

Heaton, J. B. (1988). *Writing English language tests*. Longman.

Kelly, L. G. (1969). *25 centuries of language teaching: 500 B.C. – 1969*. Newbury House.

Kiany, G. R., & Shiramiry, E. (2002). The effect of frequent dictation on the listening comprehension ability of elementary EFL learners. *TESL Canada Journal*, *20*(1), 57–63.

Kidd, R. (1992). Teaching ESL grammar through dictation. *TESL Canada Journal*, *10*(1), 49–61.

Kimura, H. (2016). Developing a dictation test to stream learners: Quick and dirty or smart and efficient? *Bulletin of Miyagi Gakuin Women's University*, *123*, 53–72.

Kuperberg, G. R., & Jaeger, T. F. (2016). What do we mean by prediction in language comprehension? *Language, Cognition, and Neuroscience*, *31*(1), 32–59. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4850025/

Leeming, P., & Wong, A. (2016). Using dictation to measure language proficiency: A Rasch analysis. *Papers in Language Testing and Assessment*, *5*(2), 1–25.

Lightfoot, A. (2005). *Using dictations*. Teaching English. https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/using-dictation

Macalister, J., & Nation, I. S. P. (2009). *Language curriculum design*. Routledge.

Marcotte, S. (2020, August 25). Three innovative ways to use breakout rooms in ELT. *TESOL Blog*. http://blog.tesol.org/3-innovative-ways-to-use-breakout-rooms-in-elt/

Mark, R. (1996). Using dictation to teach ESL grammar. *Shinshu University Kiyo*, *2*(30), 127–136.

Morris, S. (1983). Dictation: A technique in need of reappraisal. *ELT Journal*, *37*(2), 121–126.

Nation, P. (1991). Dictation, dicto-comp, and related techniques. *English Teaching Forum*, *29*(4), 12–14.

Nation, I. S. P., & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking*. Routledge.

Oller, J. W. (1971). Dictation as a device for testing foreign-language proficiency. *English Language Teaching Journal*, *25*(3), 254–259.

Oller, J. W. (1978). Pragmatics and language testing. In B. Spolsky (Ed.) *Advances in language testing Series: 2. Approaches to language testing*. Center for Applied Linguistics.

Oller, J. W. (1979). *Language tests at school: A pragmatic approach*. Longman.

Oller, J. W., & Streiff, V. (1975). Dictation: A test of grammar-based expectancies. *ELT Journal*, *30*(1), 25–36.

Peacock, M. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. *ELT Journal*, *51*(2), 144–156.

Plunkett, J., & Juola, P. (1999). A connectionist model of English past tense and plural morphology. *Cognitive Science*, *23*(4), 463–490.

Rahimi, M. (2008). Using dictation to improve language proficiency. *The Asian EFL Journal*, *10*(1), 33–47.

Rost, M. (2011). *Teaching and researching listening*. Pearson.

Savignon, S. (1982). Dictation as a measure of communicative competence in French as a second language. *Language Learning*, *32*(1), 33–47.

Sawyer, J., & Silver, S. (1961). Dictation in language learning. *Language Learning*, *11*(1/2), 33–42.

Stansfield, C. W. (1985). A history of dictation in foreign language teaching and testing. *The Modern Language Journal*, *69*(2), 121–128.

Sutherland, K. K. (1967). The place of dictation in the language classroom. *TESOL Journal*, *1*(1) 24–29.

Takahashi, T. (1988). An evaluation of dictation as a means of testing. *The Chugoku Academic Society of English Language Education*, *18*(1), 127–141

Takeuchi, O. (1997). Dictation: Is it really effective for language teaching? *Kansai University Audio Visual Education*, *20*, 55–63. https://kansai-u.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action

=repository_uri&item_id=10473&file_id=19&file_no=1
Valette, R. M. (1964). The use of the dictée in the French language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *48*(7), 431–434.
Vasiljevic, Z. (2010). Dictogloss as an interactive method of teaching listening comprehension to L2 learners. *English Language Teaching*, *3*(1), 41–52.
VanPatten, B., & Benati, A. (2010). *Key terms in second language acquisition*. Continuum.
Wajnryb, R. (1990). *Grammar dictation*. Oxford University Press.

Diversity in Learner Negotiation of L1 Identity: Implications for Korean ELT Praxis

Kara Mac Donald and Sun Young Park
Defense Language Institute, Monterey, California, USA

Research on language and identity has primarily concentrated on the negotiation of second language (L2) identity in ESL contexts (Norton, 1995, 2006; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004). However, an understanding of the first language (L1) identity of EFL learners is equally significant. McNeill's (2021) argues that the components of teacher language awareness (TLA) should be extended to encompass an understanding of students' L1 (i.e., lexical and grammatical aspects), L1 status in students' home country, and associated L1 identities. Based on McNeill's work and relevant literature on language and identity (Cummins, 2001, 2005; Czarniawska, 2000; Pavlenko, 1998, 2001), the authors share the value of exploring students' L1 as a means for teachers to understand their students' Korean L1 identity and the relationship it may have on the negotiation of their English L2 identity. Leveraging awareness of students' L1 identity places them in the position of subject matter experts, offers a form of socio-cultural dialogue in the classroom, and expands the English language learning experience. With this, the authors share activities and projects for how EFL teachers can explore the complex interrelationships between language and culture, and their students' L1 identities through explicit discussions in their classrooms.

INTRODUCTION

Building off McNeill's (2021) work examining the value of the first language (L1) and associated L1 identity in ESL/EFL classrooms, the authors introduce the role of exploring students' L1 identities as a means for EFL teachers to understand their students' personal L1 Korean identity and the influence it may have on negotiating their EFL identity. Exploring students' awareness of their L1 identity and its implication on their EFL identities places learners in a position of being resource experts, fosters a form of socio-cultural dialogue in the classroom, and expands the English language learning experience.

A significant amount of research on language and second language (L2) identity has focused on ESL contexts (Norton, 1995, 2006; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004). An understanding of the L1 identity of EFL learners is equally significant across varying global contexts, as shown in McNeill's (2021) work. He argued that teacher language awareness (TLA) should be extended to encompass an understanding of students' L1 (i.e., lexical and grammatical aspects), L1 status in students' home countries, and associated L1 identities. His work addresses ESL/EFL learners at English-medium instruction (EMI) institutions, with a focus on EFL learners at an EMI Thai university with students from predominantly Asian and Southeast Asian countries.

The authors were attracted to McNeill's (2021) very recent work on L1 identity in an EFL context and considered how it may inform Korean EFL classrooms with often solely or predominantly Korean L1 speakers as English language learners. The L1 identity of Korean learners in the EFL context is equally as dynamic and important for supporting their linguistic success and personal development in English. Surface-level assumptions that may at times presume that most Korean EFL students have similar orientations to or motivations for learning English can be innocent overgeneralizations, as each learner comes to the classroom with their unique experiences and diversity in the negotiation of their L1, and therefore the negotiation of their EFL identity. The authors examine literature and instructional practice related to identity and language learning, and share activities and projects for how EFL teachers in Korea can explore the complex interrelationships between language and culture, and their students' L1 identities through explicit discussions in the classroom.

Literature Review

Teacher Language Awareness and Knowledge of Students' L1

TLA consists of what teachers know about instruction (i.e., pedagogical practice) and content knowledge (i.e., language), including not only linguistic knowledge but also encompassing beliefs and understanding about language. Understanding of TLA has been shifting and is no longer constrained by the above definition (Andrews, 2008) with limited focus on language knowledge and proficiency, but now also takes other factors into consideration for teachers to be effective in the classroom. McNeill (2021) called for knowledge of students' L1 to be a component of TLA. With the focus on developing students' communicative competence through task-based instruction that reflects real-world interactions, and often with English-only instructional policies, an interest in students' L1 and associated identities was not considered as part of TLA. The notion was that with more English language instruction and use, language acquisition would be faster.

However, TLA of the L1 and students' L1 identity are also beneficial in predominantly L1 monolingual EFL contexts, as the L1 is not solely linguistic knowledge and proficiency, but the L1 also encompasses how individuals negotiate their experiences across time and space (e.g., the EFL classroom). Therefore, the L1 has a significant impact on EFL learners with respect to personal understanding of themselves through language use itself, socio-cultural factors, the status of the L1 in the home country, and their experiences as speakers of their L1 (McNeill, 2021).

This implies that even in a predominantly L1 monolingual EFL context, like Korea, awareness of learners' L1 identity is also an essential component of TLA and supports learners' expression of their L1 identity in the classroom, and can also assist the negotiation of both their L1 identity and their EFL identity through a better understanding of themselves as emerging bilinguals, or multilinguals. Korean EFL learners have multiple, dynamic, and intersecting identities, based on one larger language system through which they understand the world and themselves.

Identity and Its Components

The postmodernist perspective highlights the multiplicity of identity, as it results from the intersection of numerous personal factors, such as age, race, class, ethnicity, gender, social status, profession, and locality. Individuals frequently adjust the way in which they identify and position themselves in different contexts. Therefore, individuals reconstruct themselves according to identity options available to them as they are relevant for specific times and places (Norton, 2006; Pavelenko & Blackledge, 2004). Another view, the sociocultural perspective, considers the influence society has on an individual (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986) through how cultural beliefs and interactions contribute to an individual's growth and view of themself. Identity is in constant flux and is symbolically mediated based on past, present, and hoped-for future experiences (Czarniawska, 2000; Pavlenko, 1998, 2001).

The connection between language and identity (Cummins, 2001) is impacted by social power distributions and that people possess multiple social identities and negotiate these to leverage power as available. This leveraging of power is captured in Bourdieu's (1991) concept of "capital." The complex set of resources that an individual possesses can become assets in a variety of social domains, or their absence can serve as limitations. Bourdieu coined *social capital*, which consists of the social network of resources at one's disposal, and *cultural capital*, which consists of the set of non-materialist resources related to family background, social status, and knowledge. Another, is *linguistic capital*, which draws on a particular language, dialect, or accent that can afford one power. The presence or absence of these different forms of capital influence how an individual understands themself within the large social realm.

The take-away is that identity is an on-going developmental process that is dynamic, based on space and time, is social and discursive, and is co-constructed while being adapted for different contexts, groups, and timeframes.

Identity in the EFL Classroom

When students take possession of their language learning, they are active participants in creating knowledge and invest in their language learning and identities (Cummins, 2005). Providing opportunities for EFL learners to explore their L1 selves and how it influences the negotiation of their EFL identity opens instruction to a range of topics that learners can relate to and with which they can be meaningfully engaged. Warschauer et al., (2004) shared evidence that lock-step scripted language instruction delivers instruction that makes students passive recipients rather than engaging them in instruction and interaction that builds on socio-cultural and linguistics schemata for discursive learning. Also, Cummins (2005) highlighted that learners' L1 skills and L1 identity are left outside the classroom. In doing so, the student is always potentially seen as a deficient English learner rather than as a speaker of their L1 and an emerging but legitimate speaker of English. Engaging with the whole learner gives recognition of aspects of them that are important and how the learner may wish to be seen. Always potentially being seen through the lens of a learner of English, without recognition of who they are outside the classroom, fails to permit other aspects of the learner to come into play in the classroom.

Although not yet fully proficient, which is an arbitrary term as all language learners continue to improve their L2s at some level, the fact is that even elementary English language learners can communicate and negotiate meaning in English to meet their immediate needs. This is something to be acknowledged rather than overlooked. This unintentional stance of always positioning students as English language learners (i.e., deficient English speakers) influences the learner's view of themself and the negotiation of their relationship with the English language and the related L1 and EFL identity. Teachers can both identify and validate students as valid L1 language speakers, while also supporting the development of their EFL proficiency even at the beginner levels. This serves to validate students' English language achievements and multi-faceted identity, which often intersects with their L1 identity.

McNeill's Work on L1 Identity in the EFL Classroom

To consider the role of L1 and L1 identity in the EFL classroom, McNeill explained, for example, that students who attend classes at bilingual, EMI, or international schools in Thailand do not acquire the same Thai proficiency level as students attending local conventional schools with Thai-medium instruction. Students in the former schooling context frequently do not master high proficiency levels in Thai nor English and end up with sub-par proficiency in both languages. In such cases, an individual's connection to their L1 and its culture will influence their identity. The same is true for their connection to English and its influence on their EFL (i.e., English) identity.

Another example McNeill offered is one of Myanmar, where students are often sent to private or international schools, when possible, to offer them a better quality of education where instruction is in English. Commonly, the result is that although the students are born and raised in Myanmar, they have no or little proficiency in Myanmar (i.e., speaking, reading, and/or writing). It is meaningful to consider how this impacts an individual's connection to their L1 culture and nation-state, and therefore identity.

McNeil offered activities based on students' L1 profiles for the EFL classroom that examine learners' L1 status and identity, and also offers suggestions on how pre-service and in-service teacher training can make use of such activities. In doing so, he aims to broaden the awareness of current teachers as well as teachers in training so that their TLA encompasses understanding of students' L1 and L1 identities, while also fostering discussions and connection among teachers and students. For example, he suggests asking students to select a film or film clip that accurately reflects their L1 culture and why, or to present a bilingual/multilingual sign and/or public announcement and how the language used makes the content accessible to some populations and not others, and what the significance is of this for them and their L1 community.

Most Koreans learn English in conventional local public schools with EFL instruction provided by teachers during dedicated class periods. Additionally, most

Korean students attend additional extracurricular EFL instruction at *hagwon*, English villages, and other English language learning venues. In such contexts, Korean as an L1 may be assumed to have less impact on EFL learners' L1 when compared with the two examples provided above regarding Thailand and Myanmar. Yet there are contexts where Korean EFL learners may be in multilingual households, professional or personal contexts, or not, but the L1 and L1 identity are part of learners' identity. Depending on the age of the students and contextual factors, they may have varying levels of explicit awareness, but nonetheless, the Korean L1 identity of EFL students can be informative to explore both for instructors' TLA of the L1 and to provide insights into the negotiation of learners EFL identity.

Example Applications for the Classroom

The sample games, activities, and projects below are offered as models of how L1 identity can be incorporated into the EFL classroom. Readers are asked to consider how these ideas can be adapted for their different age groups and language levels. Also, they are asked to reflect on which aspects of identity they wish to focus on in their classrooms and how the suggested instructional examples can be adapted.

The first example is a notional instructional consideration, starting with something as simple as a name. The second example is a concrete outline of an L1 activity for the classroom. Finally, a broad range of ideas for games, activities, and projects for exploring L1, or L2, identity is provided for readers to draw on for their contexts. Since each Korean EFL context is unique, with some adhering to a very lock-step curriculum and others with more flexibility, prescriptive lesson plans are not provided, as teachers will inevitably need to adapt content presented for their context and learners' needs, as well as the focus of identity exploration.

Sample Activity 1. What Is in a Name?

Just as the L1 is the basis for a learner to interpret themself and negotiate the world, a name can also have a similar fundamental role in self-understanding and can be a starting point for classroom exploration. The authors draw from *Facundo the Great* (StoryCorps, 2012), a video clip, where a cartoon depiction of an early elementary child, Ramon, from a small farming community in California in the 1950s, shares his story. When he started elementary school, it was common for teachers to anglicize the Mexican American names of students. Ramon, became Raymond, Maria became Mary, and so on for all children with Hispanic names. The tone of Ramon as a child in the cartoon depiction is one of confusion, as he does not understand why teachers systematically changed students' names. The result is that he positioned himself as one person a home and as another at school, and his home identity seems not to be acknowledged at school. Then, Ramon shares the experience of when a new classmate arrived. His name was Facundo. The teachers and administrators called an emergency meeting to see what name could be assigned, but *Fac* (i.e., very similar to the English expletive) just did not seem suitable. So, "Facundo" remained "Facundo." For Ramon, Facundo proved to be the exception to the rule of Anglicizing names at the school, and he seemed to esteem Facundo as a *revolutionary* (StoryCorps, 2012). Facundo's L1 identity was worn explicitly as a badge, not hidden.

This content from this video is one specific to the experiences of individuals in a particular area of the U.S in a certain timeframe and may not appear relevant to the Korean EFL context. The issue is at many levels still relevant in a similar regional area of the U.S. today, but is also at the same time relevant as an example within Korean EFL practice. For example, students often choose English names for a reason that pronunciation of their Korean name may be difficult for English speakers, they may wish to assume an English persona, or take on the persona of a famous person in the English-speaking world that they esteem and/or a variety of other reasons. So, for example, LEE Joo Hee may become "Michelle," or JANG Tae-Sung may go by "Steve."

One possible activity for the Korean EFL classroom can be based on exploring the use of an English name in the EFL classroom or not using one. The stated video (StoryCorps, 2012) can be used, if teachers feel it is suitable for their context and focus area. Discussions can focus on whether the learner uses an English name or why the learner chose that name and its meaning for themself. If a learner does not use an English name in the EFL classroom, the reason why they choose not to can be shared as well as the significance of their Korean name to them. What students learned about each other through such discussions can be a follow up. There are a lot of ways that teachers can be creative with just the topic of the name used in the classroom, and in doing so, they can offer an exchange among the teacher and students that is a meaningful and engaging way of using English and exploring the self, while stepping out of the typical textbook activities.

The suggested activity, What Is in a Name, also is likely to be suitable for EFL learners' across different proficiency levels and age groups, and can also be adapted into different games and projects. Figure 1 shows an example of a tangible outcome of the expression of a learner's L1 name identity project. This project can be adapted into a game in several ways. For example, on index cards, learners can write their name on two or three cards, and then on two or three index cards write characteristics featured in the My Name, My Identity wall hanging (see Figure 1). Students can then place the index cards face down on a table, mixed up with other classmates' cards, and a memory card game can be played, as students turn over selected cards and try to match a characteristic described with the appropriate learner, based on having viewed classmates' wall hanging projects. Another project adaptation for learners who are older and tech savvy could be to make short video clips, allowing the learners to use multimodal publishing (i.e., videos, audios, images, and text) to express their L1 identity. This is also valuable, as learners can express complex and in-depth characteristics about themselves even at lower English proficiency levels.

FIGURE 1. My Name and Identity Project

(Project Corner Stone – ABC, n.d.)

Sample Activity 2. Language and Culture, and My Identity

This activity/game idea can address the L1 and be extended to examine students' L2 identity, depending on instructional objectives. Sentence prompts can be written on individual cards or post-it notes (e.g., *I am…*; *In my culture, I value…*; *A stereotype about my culture is…*; etc.), with the language and concepts addressed for the learners' level and age. This activity/game can be conducted with the cards taped to the floor in a circle or a line for younger and/or lower-proficiency students to complete verbally to develop their speaking skills by moving to each question one by one and sharing out load. Some support vocabulary can be pre-taught to facilitate the activity/game.

FIGURE 2. Identity Language and Culture Floor Activity

(EdCaptain, 2017)

The same activity concept can be conducted using Post It note responses under category question cards that are spread out on a table (see Figure 3) or taped to the wall, and students place their responses accordingly under each question prompt. This provides simple phrase-level writing and scaffolds ideas for speaking practice and/or discussion. For higher-level learners, an essay could be assigned to respond to each question prompt and/or offer a class presentation or conduct a classroom poster board gallery walk as a tangible outcome that encompasses speaking and writing skills at different registers.

FIGURE 3. Identity Language and Culture Table Activity

(Rikaru, n.d.)

Broader Sample Activity Ideas

Below, the authors offer an overview of possible topics useful in developing games, activities, and projects that are general enough to meet the needs of EFL learners across different proficiency levels and age groups.

L1 and L2 Identity Games, Activities, and Projects
- Connection to Ethnicity
- Family Ties
- Personal Values
- Personal Beliefs
- Personal Interest
- Drawing Jam: Draw Identity and Culture
- Identity Narratives (What Is a Name?)
- Exploring Cultural Stereotypes
- Investigating Cultural Symbols
- Understanding Values and Beliefs Systems (L1/L2 Portfolio Project)
- L1/L2 Identity Presentation
- L1/L2 Identity Essay
- L1/L2 Identity Interview Activity

As desired, the above topics can be used to examine learners' L1 identity or their EFL identity, or even a combination of the two identities, as they are not always separable.

Korean L1 EFL Learner Example: A Micro Inquiry Practice

To offer an instructional practice example with Korean L1 EFL learners to complement the discussion and recommendations found in the literature, the authors informally reached out to Korean friends and colleagues living in Korea with middle school-aged children to see if their children would be interested and willing to participate in a Korean L1 identity activity as an EFL learner through a virtual activity and correspondence. Four Korean L1 middle school students having always lived in Korea with both parents of Korean (i.e., L1) origin participated in the activity. This inquiry was not action research or a formal inquiry. It solely had the purpose of presenting an example of L1 identity exploration in the Korean ELT context to model the potential value in conducting such inquiries. The activity consisted of two components: (a) a survey inquiring about (i) the value of the learner's L1 Korean identity and (ii) the value, or not, in learning English, and (b) a creation of an L1 identity graphic based on an empty model graphic organizer provided.

One learner's responses to an online L1 identity survey (see below) and associated identity chart activity (see Figure 3) were examined for this article's discussion. The student's anglicized name is Lynn (14 years old), who used this preferred name in this English-speaking context, as opposed to her Korean name, Hae-Rin. The following are her survey responses and tangible outcome of the activity assigned.

Lynn's L1 Identity Survey Responses

Question 1a

- *What do you value most as a Korean national and/or speaker of Korean?*
- As a Korean national and native speaker of Korean language, I don't have any special thoughts about my identity related to my mother tongue. It is just a part of life. Likewise, do we humans have particular philosophy about breathing or drinking water? There would be only a few people who would do so except Socrates or Nietzsche.

Question 1b

[As a follow up to Question 1a, where the student indicated she did not have any thoughts or connections to her Korean identity.]

- *Is there a particular Korean cultural tradition or part of history you feel proud of or have a connection to?*
- The cultural aspect of historical event that I enjoy and feel most proud of is the way Korean people resisted when they were forced to change their names to Japanese names. Some Koreans chose ridiculous and meaningless names to show that they were not pleased to change their names at all. Furthermore, there were a few people brave enough to select the names which give indication of criticizing and ridiculing the Name-Changing Program or the emperor of Japan. (The fact that Japanese names are written in Chinese character and every Chinese characters has its own meaning enabled them to do so. For instance, the spelling of Japanese surname "Yamamoto" literally means "mountain root.") I do respect their courage to do so, since what they've done could put them in a serious danger, and also, some of the weird names from that time makes me laugh. That's why I selected this episode as my answer.

Question 2

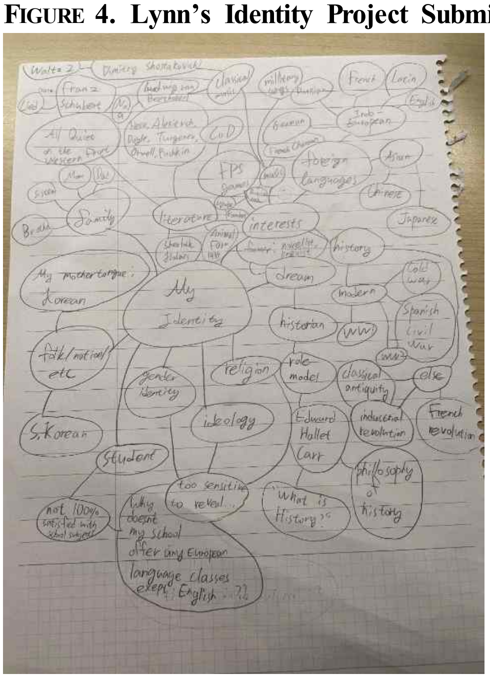
- *What do you value in learning English, or find no value? And why?*
- The factor I value the most is the benefits of learning English in terms of gathering many materials to read or explore or enjoy. I'm interested in European history and culture; thus, it is important for me to learn European languages including English. It helps me read countless articles that are not translated into Korean and enables me to understand Europe deeper. Also, I used to want to be a linguist and still I do like linguistics; therefore, analyzing English vocabulary and grammar or comparing them with those of other European languages like German, Russian, French, and Latin really amuses me. Additionally, my dream job is a historian who researches European history, which requires fluent language skills enough to read and understand primitive materials. Primitive materials are essential for professional historical research.

From the first responses and the follow up response, it can be understood that Lynn had not thought much about her L1 Korean identity. It was something almost taken for granted and/or was a given as it entails her birth language and culture. There was no choice. However, when asked the follow up question, her response shows a deep-rooted pride and value in Korea and Koreans. It is as if she gains self-esteem and joy from the resistance of the Korean population under Japanese rule to a policy requiring them to change their names. Through the questions, Lynn in fact realized how much aspects of her Korean identity mean to her.

Her response to the second question shows how much European history, culture, and language are part of who she is in her L1 identity. A possible assumption that Lynn traipses off to obligatory English classes in school and for *hagwon* classes outside of school, by clumping her into a common stereotype, would totally undermine how she understands herself and wants to be understood. In fact, the often-assumed topic of grammar instruction as being a chore and boring is what she enjoys, and she autonomously seeks opportunities to compare grammatical structures among languages she is familiar with but may not yet speak. In response to the question of valuing learning English, her responses, hands down, were ones that found multiple benefits for her personal present and professional future opportunities and contributed to how she understands herself.

Next, Lynn's response to the creation of an L1 identity graphic based on an empty model is provided in Figure 4. There are many aspects that are valuable for understanding Lynn's L1 identity from this drawing, but the authors will touch on three. First, Lynn again revealed how influential Korean folk culture and nation-state are part of her sense of self. Second, she finds her Korean education system limiting to her, based on what she is interested in. Third, she extensively connects her L1 identity to Western literature, history, and culture. This could, in turn, be understand as internal motivation for English language learning and associated cultures.

FIGURE 4. Lynn's Identity Project Submission



(Chung, 2022)

In some sense, Lynn seemingly represents the current Millennials–Generation Z (Gen MZ) generation, which is a marketing and growing political and economic classification of two generations across different time periods. “Millennials (born 1981–1996) and Gen Z (born 1997–2012) cohorts may be distinctly separate in age but there are many similarities in the two groups, and this is the point that Koreans seem to find more compelling” (Waltzer, 2021). This is to say that these generational demographics possess digital fluency, come from distinct environments, but share common ground in that they are interested in and concerned about social justice and climate change, and in some cases may be more educated than previous generations. Additionally, when these two generations came of age as adults both have been impacted by economic downturns and socio-political uncertainty (e.g., the 2008 financial crisis and the COVID-19 pandemic).

Lynn reflects these characteristics in that she appears to see herself not only as a Korean but also as a global citizen in both cosmopolitan terms as well as social terms. She is digitally fluent, embraces diverse backgrounds, cares about social justice and global issues, and maybe for her age is more aware and more educated than her parents or grandparents at her age. The value in gaining such insight into Lynn as a learner is that it is important to accommodate instruction and learning opportunities for such learners (e.g., Generation MZ) and respond to the diversity of language practices in a global community by taking L1 identity into consideration in the EFL classroom.

Conclusions

This article expanded on the perspectives of McNeill’s L1 identity and language learning in the EFL context. Language learners who enter a language classroom – a new community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1989) – take on an identity different than one in their L1 community. The classroom creates an environment in which learners express and share their ideas, thoughts, values, and opinions using the target language (i.e., English) among its members legitimatized by that community (Wegner 1998). In such a social process, they constantly construct and re-construct their individual and social identities in relation to the self, others, and the world to legitimate who they are.

Despite a limited exposure to English in EFL contexts, learning English in Korea through various venues is still a social acculturation process that requires language learners to position themselves in relation to the target language (i.e., English) and culture with which they are associated. The language learning process informs goals, values, and desires of language learners about the world with which they intend to interact and communicate, and develops complex multiple identities and desires in language learners. As Lynn’s interview indicates, L1 identity as a Korean is inseparable from her daily being, like water and air, and is continually evolving as hybrid, intercultural identities because her goals, desires, and inspirations are focused on interaction with Western society to gain full access to unlimited foreign language information and a possible profession in linguistics in the future. In this process, her L1 identity is a source of self-esteems and self-validation (Coelho, 2012) and plays a significant role in the development of hybrid identities as a language learner because individuals cannot acquire language and culture without being aware of their own self as well as others. This indicates that language teachers should capitalize on the cultural and linguistic differences that language learners bring from their L1 identity, incorporate them into the language curriculum, and encourage learner participation in classroom activities to develop their evolving voices and identities.

In closing, language teachers should be conscientious of learners' L1 language and identity and examine the roles these have in shaping the development of learners' overall identities that have a significant influence on the EFL learning processes. Effective and meaningful use of the L1 language and identity in the EFL classroom can be a valuable strategy to facilitate language learning in the EFL context. Also, language learning should engage the learner in a critical self-reflection to not only inform learners but to also increase TLA.

The Authors

Kara Mac Donald is an associate professor at the Defense Language Institute. Her background consists of over twenty-five years in foreign language teaching and teacher training, across elementary, secondary, and higher education. She earned a master's in applied linguistics, TESOL and a doctorate in applied linguistics. Email: kmacd@rocketmail.com

Sun Young Park is an associate professor at the Defense Language Institute. She earned a master's in TESOL and a doctorate in curriculum and instruction. Email: sun.young.park@dliflc.edu

References

Andrews, S. (2001). The language awareness of the L2 teacher: Its impact upon pedagogical practice. *Language Awareness*, *10*(2/3), 75–90.

Andrews, S. (2008). Teacher language awareness. *ELT Journal*, *62*(3), 322–324. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn033

Bialystok, E. (2010). Global-local and trail-making tasks by monolingual and bilingual children: Beyond inhibition. *Developmental Psychology*, *46*, 93–105.

Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Harvard University Press.

Chung, J. E. (2022). *Lynn's identity project submission* [Photograph]. Ji Eun Chung.

Coelho, E. (2012). *Language and learning in multilingual classrooms: A practical approach*. Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, J. (2001). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society*. California for Bilingual Education.

Cummins, J. (2005). A proposal for action: Strategies for recognizing heritage language competence as a learning resource within the mainstream classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *89*(4), Article 5850592.

Czarniawska, B. (2000). Identity lost or found? Celebration and lamentation over the postmodern view of identity in social science and fiction. In M. Schultz, M. Hatch, & M. Larsen (Eds.), *The expressive organization: Linking identity, reputation, and corporate brand* (pp. 271–283). Oxford University Press.

Garcia, O., & Wei, L. (2014). Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism, and education, *The Journal of the National Association of Bilingual Education*, *37*(3), 366–369.

EdCaptain. (2017). *My identity: An activity for developing self-awareness in children*. Pinterest. https://www.pinterest.com/pin/122442302215415 82/
Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press.
Mac Donald, K., & Park, S. Y. (2019). Multicultural households: Student identity negotiation and implications for the classroom. *KOTESOL Proceedings 2019*, 107–121.
McNeill, A. (2021). Critical praxis and teacher language awareness: What should teachers know about students' L1? In J. Crawford & R. A. Filback (Eds.), *TESOL guide for critical praxis in teaching, inquiry, and advocacy*. IGI Global.
Norton Pierce, B. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *29*(1), 9–31.
Norton, B. (2006). Identity: Second language. In K. Brown (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and linguistics* (Vol. 5, pp. 502–507). Elsevier.
Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Language Teaching*, *44*, 412–446.
Pavlenko, A., & Blackledge, A. (2004). *Negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts*. Multilingual Matters.
Pavlenko, A. (1998). Second language learning by adults: Testimonies of bilingual writers. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, *9*(1), 3–19.
Pavlenko, A. (2000). Access to linguistic resources: Key variable in second language learning. *Estudios de Sociolinguistica*, *1*(2), 85–105.
Pavlenko, A. (2001). "In the world of tradition, I was unimagined": Negotiation of identities in cross-cultural autobiographies. *The International Journal of Bilingualism*, *5*(3), 317–244.
Project Corner Stone – ABC. (n.d.). *My name and identity project*. Pinterest. https://www.pinterest.com/pin/416864509246099012/
Rikaru. (n.d.). *Playtesting: Identity game*. Creative Commons. Licensed under CC BY-NC-BY-NC-SA 2.0. https://wordpress.org/openverse/image/02dc1999-8fd8-4bea-b7c7-5c560658abc0
StoryCorps. (2012). Facundo the Great, *National Public Radio*. https://storycorps.org/animation/facundo-the-great/
Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.
Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*. MIT Press.
Waltzer, J. (2021, February 22). *MZ Generation is a real thing* [In Korean]. LG Newsroom. https://www.lgnewsroom.com/2021/02/in-korea-mz-generation-is-a-real-thing/
Warschauer, M., Knobel, M., & Stone, L. (2004). Technology and equity in schooling: Deconstructing the digital divide. *Educational Policy*, *18*(4), 562–588.
Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge University Press.

Don’t Simply Write Your Opinion – Show a Critical Analysis

John Breckenfeld
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Korea

Classroom writing shouldn’t be dreadful. Instead, writing exercises may challenge, inspire, and compel students. By completing *argument/ counterargument analysis* writing tasks, students become equipped to develop essential persuasive writing skills while exploring the strategic art of concealment – an unconventional but compelling learning opportunity. During the fall semesters of 2020 and 2021, the author utilized a highly structured writing project, transcending the standard opinion essay, with 300 university students. The following article details the step-by-step processes students completed, including sentence structure development, small group writing roleplays, and ultimately, producing opposing paragraphs – where the final product was so convincing and tonally objective that the students’ true convictions about the writing prompt remained hidden. These procedures naturally cultivate critical thinking, and even empathy, as students evaluate and then communicate a wide range of viewpoints on a given issue. Ultimately, students develop essential academic writing skills while enjoying a fresh, creative twist to academic writing development.

Phase 1: Sentence Structure Development

First and foremost, it is essential that students understand the rules and requirements of basic sentence structure for academic writing. Within my department, writing skills development is emphasized in the fall semester, along with reading skills (the spring semester focus is put on speaking and listening skills development). While all four major skill areas are utilized during lessons and formative assessments within my communicative English classes, the spring/fall semester focus areas are utilized within summative assessments. Therefore, Week 2 of the fall semester commences with meticulous sentence structure development, which continues through Week 7, and culminates with the midterm exam (Week 8). I like to introduce the importance of developing sentence structure proficiency by telling students a real-life anecdote of my time as a freshman in college:

> Twenty (or 19, 21, etc.) years ago, I was in the exact same position as you are now: sitting in my freshman English writing class, not sure what would happen next. Then, Dr. Guido, my professor, taught us how to write correct English sentences. And – this is 100% true – I would not be here today without Dr. Guido’s class. What we learned 20 years ago has been essential to my life and career as a student and educator ever since. So, please listen carefully!

Despite the calculated sensationalism, I am confident students latch on to the urgency of my message: that students must develop correct English sentence structure. Moving forward, we thoroughly practice writing independent and dependent clauses (ICs and DCs) for the first seven weeks of the semester, and also hone in on the foundational parts of the four common types of sentences: (a) simple, (b) compound, (c) complex, and (d) compound-complex. By mid-October, students successfully understand the related academic jargon, repeated extensively through shorthand verbal cues ("IC," "DC"), and students are able to put the language rules into practice by producing correct sentences. Table 1 summarizes the writing instruction and sentence structure rules that I share with students during the first half of the fall semester.

TABLE 1. Sentence Types, Structural Requirements and Examples

Sentence Type	Structural Requirements *and Examples*
1. Simple Sentences	Must include only one IC; for example: *Academic writing is essential for college students.*
2. Compound Sentences	Must include two or more ICs, which must be connected with a comma mark that is followed by a coordinating conjunction: *At the moment, my self-confidence is lacking, but I am hopeful my writing will improve with time and practice.*
3. Complex Sentences	Must include one IC and one or more DCs, which must begin with a subordinating conjunction and require a comma mark only when the DC is followed by the IC: *While it may seem complicated at first, we must understand how to write complex sentences correctly.* (DC/IC) or *I know I can learn how to write sentences correctly even though these sentence structure rules are quite new to me.* (IC/DC)
4. Compound-Complex Sentences	Must include two or more ICs combined with one or more DCs, and must follow the same comma mark and coordinating/subordinating conjunction rules as detailed in 2) and 3), above: *While I did very little academic writing in English as a high school student, and I am still a first-year student at university, I know I can improve as a writer, but I am still feeling a bit nervous.*

As displayed in Table 1, writing correct sentences in English requires the precise application of somewhat complicated sentence structure rules. Keeping this in mind, we start off the semester by focusing on the more basic requirements of simple and compound sentences. Each week students produce dozens of sample sentences – on paper and/or electronically – and share their writing with a partner or small group. Peer feedback, including pointing out mistakes, is highly encouraged during all lessons. I also make sure to check-in with all students during lessons, giving them on-the-spot feedback about their writing samples and correcting targeted mistakes, focusing primarily on IC and/or DC requirements. In the classroom it is manageable to quickly look over everyone's practice papers, and while online students complete all writing tasks using Google Docs, writing in groups of three or four, with 12–15 students working together on one document (lessons in 2020 and 2021 were primarily completed through Zoom). After a few weeks of intensive focus on the basics, students repeat similar procedures while moving on to complex sentences.

Additionally, students complete two essays, which function as project-based, formative writing tasks. In-class instruction is given around paragraph structure (topic, body, and concluding sentences) and essay structure (introduction, body, and concluding paragraphs). During lessons, students also practice writing whole paragraphs as well as targeted sentences, such as the hook and thesis statement of the introductory paragraph, and the summary statement and final thought of the concluding paragraph. Moreover, during Weeks 4–7, and then Weeks 11–14, students write two essays, with the options of completing one or two team essays (3–4 students) and up to one individual sample cover letter. Table 2 details the Essay 1 and Essay 2 requirements.

TABLE 2. Essay 1 and Essay 2 Requirements

Essay Type	Essay Requirements
Essay 1 (wk. 4–7) **Individual Essay:** **Sample Cover Letter**	• The student completes a 4-paragraph Sample Cover Letter. • The cover letter must include 1 Intro Paragraph, 2 Body Paragraphs, and 1 Concluding Paragraph. • Each paragraph must have 4 - 9 sentences. • The student writes a fictitious cover letter (in English) to an authentic company or organization of their choice, which they would be interested in applying to in their future.
Essay 1 (wk. 4–7) **Team Essay:** **Compare and Contrast** (non-academic)	• Each student must write 2 paragraphs; 3 students = 6 paragraphs in total, or 4 students = 8 paragraphs in total. • The essay must include 1 Intro Paragraph, 4 or 6 Body Paragraphs, and 1 Concluding Paragraph. (2 paragraphs per student) • Each paragraph must have 4 - 9 sentences. • The essay content must include an informal compare/contrast analysis based on students' preferences and experiences (not a research report). • Students consider recommended topics provided by the professor or create a topic area of their choice.
Essay 2 (wk. 11–14) **Individual Essay:** **Sample Cover Letter**	(*See details for Essay 1 above.*)
Essay 2 (wk. 11–14) **Team Essay:** **Current Issue Analysis – Problem/Solution** (academic research report: APA style, 7th ed.)	• Each student must write 2 paragraphs: 3 students = 6 paragraphs in total, or 4 students = 8 paragraphs in total. • The essay must include 1 Intro Paragraph, 4 or 6 Body Paragraphs, and 1 Concluding Paragraph. (2 paragraphs per student) • Each paragraph must have 4 - 9 sentences. • Students consider recommended topics provided by the professor or create a topic area of their choice. • Each team research report must include a reference list compiled of at least six or eight online sources - at least two sources per student - including in-text citations, following APA 7th ed. style guidelines.

PHASE 2: SMALL GROUP WRITING ROLEPLAYS

During Week 6 and Week 13 of the semester, students work in small groups of three or four to complete small group writing roleplays. These activities focus on compound and compound-complex sentence types. The gist of the activity is thus: A fictitious group of people, who know each other well, write a mini-debate that focuses on two options (see Table 3) and a final decision – outcome or "verdict" – made by the team "leader," such as a parent, school administrator, etc. The roleplay prompts include familiar situations and playful mini-debate scenarios: (a) a family choosing the family trip destination or (b) a school leadership team choosing the school trip destination. Table 3 details the process.

TABLE 3. Small Group Writing Roleplay Details and Procedures

Scenario	Student A	Student B	Student C
Friends' meeting (Professor's example)	**Friend A:** "Let's have coffee." ***Although*** *tea may be healthier than coffee, everyone knows tea is for babies,* ***and*** *coffee is tastier, too.*	**Friend B:** "Let's have tea." ***While*** *coffee may be tastier, tea is definitely healthier and cheaper,* ***so*** *we should save some money by getting tea.*	**Friend C:** (verdict...) *Coffee is tastier,* ***but*** *tea is healthier and cheaper. However, tea is actually for old people,* ***so*** *let's get some coffee.*
Family Trip	**Kid A:** "Let's go to the mountains." Use ***although***, ***though***, or ***even though*** + ***and*** to create a **compound-complex** sentence (**DC/IC/IC**) that introduces an argument/counterargument about why **the mountains are better than the beach**.	**Kid B:** "Let's go to the beach." Write a **compound-complex** sentence (**DC/IC/IC**) using ***while*** + ***so*** to describe an argument/ counterargument about why **the beach is better than the mountains**.	**Adults:** (verdict...) Write a **compound** sentence using ***and*** or ***but***. Then, write a second **compound** sentence using ***However***, ... + ***so*** **to declare the final decision**.
School Trip	**School President:** "Let's go to Seoul." Use ***although***, ***though***, or ***even though*** + ***and*** to create a **compound-complex** sentence (**DC/IC/IC**) that introduces an argument/counterargument about why **visiting Seoul is better than visiting Gyeongju**.	**6th Grade Teacher:** "Let's go to Gyeongju." Write a **compound- complex** sentence (**DC/IC/IC**) using ***while*** + ***so*** to describe an argument/counterargument about why **Gyeongju is better than Seoul**.	**Principal/VP:** (verdict...) Write a compound sentence using ***and*** or ***but***. Then, write a second compound sentence using ***However***, ... + ***so*** **to declare the final decision**.

The familiarity and friendliness of the group scenarios within the roleplay prompts, combined with the novelty of the "mini-debate style" writing task, has been highly successful with my university students. At the Korea TESOL International Conference (April 30, 2022), workshop attendees also completed Small Group Writing Roleplays. In that case, I suggested that attendees create their own scenario, which ended up being (a) *soju* vs. *maekju* (beer) and (b) Korean food vs. Western food. Based on their responses during and after the workshop activity, the KOTESOL conference participants also enjoyed the freshness and creativity of the writing task. This activity in particular – completed twice during the semester, in Week 6 and Week 13 – has successfully allowed students to put useful academic writing skills into practice while having fun and collaborating with peers.

PHASE 3: PRODUCING OPPOSING PARAGRAPHS

During the final exam, students showcase their abilities to produce an argument/counterargument analysis in writing. First, they write two separate compound-complex sentences, selecting one of two sentence prompts per question (see Table 4).

TABLE 4. Writing Compound-Complex Sentences

DIRECTIONS:	Choose ONE (1) of the following statements (a. or b.), and write one (1) Compound-Complex sentence for each question. Use **although**, **even though**, or **while** (using a different subordinator word per answer) to start a DC/IC structure (complex sentence). Then, use **and/but/so** (2 out of the 3) to add another IC and finish the sentence.
	• a. "Children should spend more time reading books than watching videos." (or) b. "Children should spend more time watching videos than reading books." • a. "Foreign tourists should prioritize visiting Jeju over Seoul." (or) b. "Foreign tourists should prioritize visiting Seoul over Jeju."

At the culmination of the final exam, students write two opposing paragraphs, detailing two extreme, opposing positions of a current issue (see Table 5).

TABLE 5. Writing Opposing Paragraphs (Argument/Counterargument)

DIRECTIONS:	Choose one of the following two topics (a/b or c/d). Write **5–9 sentences for P-1** (paragraph 1) and **5–9 sentences for P-2**. Write a convincing argument for each opposing side of the **SAME** topic, to an unknown public audience, *without using first person singular pronouns ("I," "my," etc.).*
	• a. "Public schools should provide PE classes for children every day of the school year." b. "Families should be responsible for children's physical health and development." • c. "Korea's Ministry of Culture should promote K-pop over traditional Korean music." d. "Korea's Ministry of Culture should promote traditional Korean music over K-pop."

Both assessment prompts – the compound-complex sentences and the opposing paragraphs – clearly demonstrate the results of students' efforts and writing skills development throughout the semester. Table A1 (see Appendix), displays student and instructor samples of opposing paragraphs.

CONCLUSION

Writing skills development, like many other ELT focus areas, may be a more fruitful endeavor when practiced in novel, creative ways. For the past two years, this approach has proven to be successful with my students at the university level. I have been highly intentional about providing guided writing instruction through ample scaffolding, writing practice, sentence-type differentiation and repetition, encouraging peer support, and giving corrective feedback to students throughout each semester. Ultimately, as I experienced in my freshman writing class back in 2001, I am hopeful that students may use the academic writing skills they acquire from my course throughout their time as college students and beyond. I look forward to continuing student writing development during the fall 2022 semester.

THE AUTHOR

John Breckenfeld has been living in Korea for ten years and is currently working at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (HUFS) in Seoul, where he teaches Communicative English. The author is grateful to KOTESOL, which has been a highly rewarding source of professional development to the author for the past seven years. Mr. Breckenfeld's pedagogical and research interests include student motivation, problem-posing education (Friere), the input hypothesis and the compelling input hypothesis (Krashen), as well as combining music and ELT. Email: jbreckenfeld.hufs@gmail.com

APPENDIX

TABLE A1. Opposing Paragraphs (Fall Semester, 2021)

Student's Opposing Paragraphs (Samples)	
• Korea's Ministry of Culture should promote K-pop over traditional Korean music. The popularity of K-pop does not cool down, and its influence changes the world's perception of Koreans. There is an example of foreigners learning Korean to understand the lyrics of the group BTS. Of course, it is important to maintain tradition through traditional Korean music, but it is necessary to focus more on the present. It is important to grow K-pop in the future to advance overseas and promote economic benefits. To do so, Koreans need more understanding of K-pop. Therefore, Korea's Ministry of Culture should promote K-pop over traditional Korean music.	• Korea's Ministry of Culture should promote traditional Korean music over K-pop. Traditional Korean music is gradually disappearing. Sometimes traditional performances are held, but people are less interested. This may be the result of a lack of publicity rather than an inevitable flow. In addition, K-pop may be more effective in promoting Korea to the world, but traditional music is no less attractive than K-pop. Losing tradition is a fatal mistake of a country. Korea's Ministry of Culture should promote traditional Korean music over K-pop.
Author's Opposing Paragraphs (Study reference materials)	
• The government should implement a vaccine pass for children aged 12–19. S. Korea has been "living with Covid" for several weeks now, and the results are no surprise: steadily rising daily case numbers and dangerously overcrowded hospitals. Even though youths are a relatively low-risk age group and will likely survive Covid with minimal side effects, they likely spread Covid more than other groups. While they may not end up in a hospital, their parents' or grandparents' health and safety could be compromised if the child or grandchild spreads Covid within the home. Vaccine-hesitant groups argue that a vaccine mandate would further limit children's essential social skills' development. And while social isolation has been very difficult, children around the world are highly adaptable and thrive in the face of challenges – clearly, Korean youths are no different. Scientific and medical communities agree that vaccination is the most effective way to move toward herd immunity. Therefore, the government should implement a vaccine pass for children aged 12–19.	• The government should not implement a vaccine pass for children aged 12–19. Covid fatigue is becoming a serious problem. After severely altering our lives for nearly two years, all Koreans – especially students – are ready to move on from Covid. A major long-term cultural side effect of the Covid years will likely be youths with severely under-developed social skills. While students are a relatively low-risk age group, they follow mask culture well, like all Koreans. Although vaccination may be the most effective way to move toward herd immunity, there has been less testing with younger groups, and there is consequently less data to prove that risks of vaccine side effects are lower than risks of Covid infection for youths. Ultimately, the advantages of improving students' social skills would likely outweigh the risks of lingering Covid case numbers throughout 2022. Therefore, the government should not implement a vaccine pass for children aged 12–19.

Making Friends with Machine Translation in the EFL Classroom

Kio Iwai
Rikkyo University, Tokyo, Japan

Joel P. Rian
Hokkaido Information University, Ebetsu, Japan

Ever-developing technology puts sophisticated translation software within ever-closer reach year by year. There is a tendency for teachers of EFL classes to resist or forbid students' use of machine translation (MT) output because they fear students' learning will be minimal when they unquestioningly trust MT output, copying and pasting it into their writing assignments and relegating markup to their teachers. However, as MT becomes more accurate handling complex language, it becomes harder to detect in students' writing. The tendency for teachers to resist MT arises from a fear that learning is minimal when students unquestioningly trust MT output. This paper proposes embracing rather than eschewing MT in the EFL classroom by offering students hands-on in-class practice. Four activities presented at the KOTESOL 2022 International Conference are reviewed as examples of activities that teachers can easily construct and introduce into their classes, with relevant reference to pertinent literature.

"Machine translation will only displace those who translate like machines."
— Arle Richard Lommel

Introduction: Making Fun of Machine Translation

Even as machine translation (hereafter, MT) is constantly becoming more sophisticated as time goes by, there are still plentiful examples to remind us of an inextricable and fundamental limiting factor: operator negligence. Figure 1 gives a prime example of this neglect, captured by a Twitter user in Japan.

Those literate in Japanese are reminded to take care that the toilet does not clog. English-only readers, meanwhile, get just what the sign asks for: an interesting restroom experience.

Japanese writing is composed primarily of two forms of script: *kana*, which represents the sounds of syllables, and *kanji*, which represent meaning. Like Korean *hangul*, it is possible to write Japanese using only kana. However, the Japanese language contains many homophones, or words with the same pronunciation but with different meanings. Using kanji (Chinese characters) is helpful – and sometimes essential – for distinguishing meaning between homophones.

In Figure 1, the Japanese verb つまらない (*tsumaranai*) is given in kana only. The kana-only version tends to mean "to be boring." On the other hand, when *tsumaranai* is written with its corresponding kanji (詰まらない), the meaning is "to clog," as the kanji 詰 means "to clog or pile up." Table 1 gives translations for the original Japanese text, トイレがつまらないようにお使いください (*toire ga tsumaranai you ni o-tsukai kudasai*). Translations of this text are by Google Translate and DeepL.

FIGURE 1. Machine Translation Fail (Twitter Post)

(Posted by Aki, @NurseAki4649, March 18, 2020, 9:02 a.m.)

TABLE 1. Translations of "Toilet" Sign Text by Google Translate and DeepL

	toire ga tsumaranai you ni o-tsukai kudasai.	**Google Translate**	**DeepL**
With kanji	トイレが詰まらないようにお使いください。	Please use it so that the toilet does not become clogged.	Please use it to avoid toilet blockage.
Without kanji	トイレがつまらないようにお使いください。	Please use the toilet so that ***it is boring***.	Please use it to prevent clogged toilets.

Notably, DeepL recognized the toilet context even with the kana-only *tsumaranai*, while Google rendered kana-only *tsumaranai* as "boring." This difference exemplifies that even big-name MT platforms are fallible, and that when it is important what a message conveys in a foreign language, accuracy checks are essential.

Websites like engrish.com and fropki.com offer plentiful evidence that even in this age of exponentially developing technology, MT fails are prevalent – though in some cases entertaining. Two short articles by Ryukoku University professor and long-term Japan resident James Dougill (1987, 2008) explore the notion of English as a decorative language in Japan. He points out that, culturally, conveying mood is more important than meaning. Where advertising is concerned, he points out the difference that in Japan, the goal is to evoke an emotion, whereas in the West, the goal is to inform. In cases such as these, where the appearance of English text is sufficient, copyediting and accuracy checks are unnecessary.

The problem, however, is when the decorative-English mindset finds its way into EFL classrooms. While unchecked (decorative) English has provided gales of laughter over the years, EFL teachers tend to find little amusement when some students see nothing wrong with submitting MT output for teachers to wrangle with, thinking that certainly MT must be better than whatever they could come up with on their own. They may think, like the copywriters mentioned in Dougill (2008), that meaningful output is not worth the investment of time and effort, preferring instead to wait for teachers to give them instructions – in other words, for teachers to edit it for them. For these teachers, MT used by students in this way is irritating at best and maddening at worst.

Machine Translation in EFL Classes: Boon or Bane?

Technology at our fingertips has increasingly made it easier and more convenient to relegate cumbersome tasks to computer assistance. What used to take students many hours of flipping through dictionaries and grammar books can be converted to what *looks* like a plausible English composition in a matter of minutes or even seconds. MT is thus, at face value, a boon to students, saving them hours of labor to generate a translation of text. On the other hand, MT in EFL contexts is considered taboo among teachers, particularly as it may encourage not putting effort into language learning, or as a means to cheat or plagiarize (Giannetti, 2016; Lee, 2021). Teachers of composition are inundated with English that is awkward in a way that is more non-human than it is non-native. Or, as Susan Jones (2021a) put it, student submissions seem too good to be true – that is, students' actual ability is inflated by undetected MT.

There is, however, a commonality in the "boon for students" – "bane for teachers" MT dichotomy: avoidance of work. Students want to avoid hours of cumbersome learning, and teachers want to avoid hours of cumbersome editing. We propose, therefore, that a solution lies in engaging with MT in a way that raises the awareness of both parties. In other words, how can we help our students embrace MT in a technologically responsible way, a way that augments rather than replaces the way they own the words they use? We believe this skill has significant implications for the way students might engage with English in their post-academic lives.

The four activities described in this paper were conducted by the first author (Iwai) in her English Reading/Writing course during 2021, in response to observations of her students' behavior. Iwai notes an ongoing tendency by students to rely heavily on MT in her classes; for example, during the Presentation course, some students used their smartphones to translate questions that they wanted to ask their classmates following their peers' presentations. They typed their questions in Japanese and then read the translation results aloud, verbatim, from their smartphone screens. Sometimes students could not understand words or phrases in the translations on their smartphones, so they read the words on their screens in quiet, halting, mumbly monotone. In turn, the listeners (presenters) sometimes had difficulty understanding what was being asked.

Or for example, in the Debate course, some students hurriedly searched websites to find rebuttals to other students' arguments. They copied and pasted large portions of text from websites into translation software in order to scan the contents for useable counterarguments. While this effort is reasonably laudable, again, there is a tendency for students not to seek to understand the translation, but to rely on it verbatim. This lack of understanding is reflected in the way they recite it word-for-word, sometimes haltingly and with hesitation. Further, attempts to clarify meaning on the part of the listener may compound the misunderstanding, as the speaker does not have a sufficient grasp of what they are saying, and therefore, cannot paraphrase it.

At the first author's university, students are not allowed to use translation software to write reports for their English classes. Submissions are rejected if it becomes clear that MT was excessively relied on. However, as MT advances in its ability to handle subtle details in language conversion, it becomes harder and harder to detect, such that teachers may remain blissfully unaware of their students' actual writing ability.

We propose an about-face approach to these problems: Rather than vigilantly suppressing and weeding out MT use, we advocate providing students with hands-on experience using MT to raise their awareness of the language they are handling. Using online translation is simple. A variety of software like Google Translate, DeepL, and Papago can be accessed through a smartphone or a PC without downloading any apps. The goal of hands-on MT training activities is to raise students' awareness of three things:

What kinds of MT software are available
What kinds of limitations MT software has
The need for pre-editing and post-editing phases of translation

Iwai devised four MT training activities for a "workshop" that takes up one university class period (100 minutes) for a reading and writing course. The activities could, however, be adapted or expanded to run for several classes, or to become part of already existing classes.

Four Hands-on MT Activities for EFL Classrooms

During Iwai's 100-minute MT workshop in her English Reading/Writing class, students completed four translation activities in small groups, using a variety of MT software. For each activity, students discussed the results from the MT software they used and negotiated how to edit the MT output to achieve the best translation. The goals and procedure of each activity is given below, along with select student comments and the types of feedback that the teacher can offer students about the nature of each activity are given below. At the end of the workshop, students reflected on their experiences dealing with MT and shared their reflections with the whole class.

Activity 1. Recipe (English to Japanese Translation)

In this activity, students translate an English text (in this case, a recipe) into Japanese using two different kinds of MT software.

Goals for Students

- To become aware of how different translation software handles text differently.
- To realize that MT translation sometimes does not take cultural differences into account.
- To notice that some MT translation simply does not make sense.

Procedure

1. In groups, read and discuss the English text.
2. Translate the text to Japanese using two different kinds of MT software.
3. Compare translation results with classmates. Discuss which translation is better.

Activity 1. English Text: Recipe

Glazed Chicken Wings

Ingredients:

2 ½ pounds chicken wings	1/2 cup barbecue sauce
1/2 cup honey	1/2 cup soy sauce

Directions:
Cut chicken wings into 3 sections. Discard wing tip section. Place in a greased 13x9-in. baking dish. Combine barbecue sauce, honey and soy sauce. Drizzle glaze over wings and toss to coat completely. Bake, uncovered, at 350° for 50-60 minutes or until chicken juices run clear.

Table 2. provides Japanese renditions of the recipe by each of Google Translate and DeepL.

TABLE 2. Recipe Translations by Google Translate and DeepL

Google Translate	DeepL
艶をかけられた鶏の翼 材料： 2½ポンドの鶏の羽 1/2カップバーベキューソース 1/2カップハニー 醤油1/2カップ 方向： 鶏の羽を3つのセクションに切ります。翼端部分を廃棄します。グリースを塗った13x9インチに入れます。オーブン皿。バーベキューソース、ハチミツ、大豆ソースを組み合わせます。羽に釉薬をかけ、完全にコーティングするために投げます。蓋をせずに、350°で50～60分間、またはチキンジュースが透明になるまで焼きます。	グレイズド・チキン・ウィング 材料 手羽先2 ½ポンド バーベキューソース1/2カップ 蜂蜜1/2カップ しょうゆ1/2カップ 作り方 手羽元を3つに切る。手羽先部分は捨てる。油を塗った13x9インチの耐熱皿に入れる。バーベキューソース、はちみつ、しょうゆを混ぜ合わせる。バーベキューソース、蜂蜜、醤油を混ぜ合わせ、手羽先にかけ、完全に混ざるように混ぜる。蓋をしないで、350°のオーブンで50～60分、または鶏の肉汁が透明になるまで焼く。

Without any ability to read Japanese, one can easily see differences in the Japanese text (kanji and kana). The differences in these two renderings by Google Translate and DeepL alone can provide ample fodder for discussion among students.

Student Comments

- I didn't know that different MT apps translate the same text differently.
- I think DeepL can translate English text better than Google Translate.

One of the most significant differences, which has to do with different temperature scales in different cultures, is routinely commented on by students. The advertisement (from the U.S.) assumes degrees Fahrenheit, but... (see Teacher Feedback below).

Teacher Feedback to Students

- Both translations say 350 degrees, but which type of degrees (Fahrenheit or Centigrade) is meant? The original text is from an American website, which uses Fahrenheit, but MT is not aware of this (and students may not be, either).
- Google Translate renders *glaze* as 釉薬 (ゆうやく, *yuuyaku*). Do you know what this word means? [Most students do not, as it is a specialized word.] It refers to a thin layer of liquid that is brushed onto a piece of pottery before it is fired in a kiln. This liquid is called *glaze* or *glazing* in English. Would you want to put it on your chicken wings? If you find any unknown word in the translation, you should make sure you know what it is.

Activity 2. Transcription of Casual Speech (English to Japanese)

In this activity, students translate a casual spoken English text into Japanese using a machine translation application.

Goal for Students

- To direct attention to the need for the pre-editing phase of translation.

Procedure

- In groups, read and discuss the English text.
- Translate the text to Japanese using translation software.
- Correct any errors and make it better.

An unedited transcription of casual, non-native speech, as might be typed by a non-native speaker in a hurry, is shown below:

Text 2a. Transcription of Casual Speech

> I don't think what you think so you speak word can make easier to talk the next time you speak. So I think the first thing is important to talk by doing I think you spoken from the other side. That's how I think about making friends.

Student Comments

- I don't understand the translation.
- I don't know how to correct the translation.

Teacher Feedback to Students

- If you don't understand the original text, you won't understand the translation.
- Pre-editing is a necessary phase when using MT. Make sentences short, simplify grammatical structures, add or replace pronouns and subjects, change passive voice to active voice.

While Activity 2 is simple, the act of directing students' attention to the pre-editing phase of MT use is critical. Some literature differentiates computer-aided translation (CAT) from MT. Bowker and Fisher (2010) defined CAT as "the use of computer software to assist a human translator in the translation process" (p. 60), noting that the term centers the act of translation by a human. MT, alternatively, focuses on the machine or software doing the heavy lifting of translation. As Maruf et al. (2022) put it, MT "automates the translation process and reduces the reliance on human translators" (p. 1).

Teacher feedback for this activity follows the advice of Oda (2020, p. 31), among whose "golden rules" for successful MT use is the caution to students that they need to understand translation results in order to accept them. This refers to the post-editing (after-translation) phase of using MT. Activity 1, however, introduces students to the notion of dealing with language *before* it is translated in order to achieve better, more understandable results *after* MT is used. Text 2b shows the text from Text 2a pre-edited to achieve more understandable MT results.

Text 2b. Casual Speech Pre-Edited for MT

I don't think the same way as you think. So, you should say something. This can make it easier to talk the next time you speak. So, I think the most important thing is to talk. By doing so, I think other people will talk to you. That's what I think about making friends.

Activity 3. Formal Email from Student to Teacher (Japanese to English)

In Activity 3, students translate a formal email written by a Japanese student, addressed to a foreign professor, offering an apology for late submission of a written report due to the student's illness (Text 3a). Text 3b shows the resulting English text from Google Translate.

Goals for Students

- To draw attention to how MT often misuses subjects in clauses.
- To point out the need to adapt style and tone of the text to a reader (possibly of a different culture).

Procedure

1. In groups, read and discuss the Japanese text.
2. Translate the text to English using translation software.

3. Make it better.

Text 3a. Japanese Text of Formal Email to Professor Smith

スミス教授

いつもゼミでご指導いただき、ありがとうございます。○○大学△△学部××学科１年○○○○です。１月２５日の締切を過ぎての提出となり、大変申し訳ありませんが、ゼミレポートを提出いたします。インフルエンザに罹患していたため、期限までにレポートを完成できず、提出が遅れてしまいました。誠に申し訳ありません。今後は健康管理を徹底するとともに、期限までに余裕をもってレポートを作成するようにいたします。お忙しいところ恐れ入りますが、ご確認いただけると幸いです。

Text 3b. Google Translation (Japanese to English) of Formal Email to Professor Smith

Professor Smith

Thank you for your continued guidance in the seminar. ○○ University △△ Faculty × × Department 1st year ○○○○. We are very sorry that the submission has passed the deadline of January 25, but we will submit the seminar report. Because I had influenza, I couldn't complete the report by the deadline, and the submission was delayed. There is no excuse. In the future, we will thoroughly manage our health and prepare reports with plenty of time before the deadline. We apologize for the inconvenience, but we would appreciate it if you could check it.

Student Comments

- MT often says "we" where it should be "I."

Teacher Feedback to Students

- MT tends to make mistakes with clause subjects. This happens with pronouns particularly in English translations from Japanese because Japanese subjects are often omitted in clauses.
- If this professor is, for example, American, this email may sound strange. While it is common to apologize and thank superiors repeatedly with the utmost politeness in Japanese, such phrasing may sound unnatural in English.

Text 3c and Text 3d show rewrites of the Google Translate English in Text 3b. Each is influenced by cultural differences in apologizing:

Text 3c. English-Fluent Native Japanese Speaker (Iwai) Rewrite of Text 3b

Professor Smith,

Kindly receive my sincere apologies for being late in submitting the seminar report. I could not turn it in on January 25th because I had the flu. I am so regretful about the delay. That shall never happen again in the future. Please accept my report attached to this email.

Text 3d. Japanese-Fluent Native English Speaker (Rian) Rewrite of Text 3b

Professor Smith,

I hope you will forgive the late submission of my seminar report (attached). I had the flu at the time of the January 25th deadline.

Notably, both texts are much shorter than the Google Translate English text and the original Japanese text. Also, Text 3d is less apologetic than Text 3c. Maddux et al. (2011) note that Japanese tends to sound over-apologetic from a Western perspective. Results of a survey to American and Japanese respondents suggested that apologizing is seen more in the West as assigning personal blame, whereas in collectivist cultures such as Japan, apologizing simply reflects remorse. These differences are reflected in two rewrites, by an English-speaking non-native and a Japanese-speaking native (Text 3c and Text 3d, respectively). The native English-speaking rewrite omits apology for the act of getting the flu. Activity 3 helps introduce students to these kinds of cultural differences, which MT can in no way take into account.

Activity 4. Simple Sentence with Newer Colloquialism (Japanese to English)

In Activity 4, students translate into English a simple, casual Japanese sentence that uses a newer colloquial (slang) word.

Goals for Students

- To realize that machine translation cannot always keep up with new or colloquial expressions.

Procedure

1. In groups, read and discuss the Japanese text.
2. Translate the text to English using translation software.
3. Make it better.

Table 3 gives three different translations from three different kinds of translation software.

TABLE 3. Translations of Casual Sentence with a Newer Colloquialism (oshi)

Text	Google Translate	DeepL	Papago (Korea)
推しが生きてるだけで幸せ ***(<u>oshi</u> ga ikiteru dake de shiawase)***	I'm happy just because I'm alive.	I'm just happy that my guess is alive.	I'm just happy that my favorite is alive.

Student Comments

- MT cannot translate it.

Teacher Feedback to Students

- MT is not perfect. Often MT cannot keep up with trend words, colloquialisms, and slang that regularly appear in languages.
- 推し(*oshi*) comes from the verb 推す (*osu*), which roughly means "to recommend." As a noun (*oshi*), it refers to someone recommendable, such as a celebrity, singer, idol, or even an anime character, who you are passionate about.

As Table 3 shows, Google Translate chose to insert the personal pronoun "I," DeepL used the kanji 推 to mean "guess" (perhaps because it appears in the compound word 推測 (*suisoku*), which means "guess" or "estimate." Notably, the Papago software (currently popular in Korea) came up with the closest approximation, "favorite," as in "my favorite person." The suggestion is that Papago developers may be familiar with *oshi* as a newer slang term in Japan. It is also interesting to note that while DeepL is popular in Japan (though ironically it currently does not have a Korean conversion function yet), its developers have not yet incorporated this Japanese slang term into the software. We note that this text is considerably difficult to render into English of equivalent length and substance. Our best rendition of 推しが生きてるだけで幸せ might be "I'm just happy because my favorite person is alive," although it remains that *person* can include anime characters, and *alive* can also mean "exist."

Discussion

The four activities outlined above were conducted as a workshop in a single 100-minute class period and are not intended to be interconnected or sequential. We offer them as examples, as templates, that any teacher can mimic, adapt, or expand upon to suit their own students and their own needs.

A common element in the execution of MT training activities is that they draw students' attention to language. The importance of "noticing" language was advanced by Schmidt (1990, 2012), who proposed that learners improve their abilities through noticing, paying attention to, and becoming aware of the elements and facets of language. Enkin and Mejias-Bikandi (2016) observed that metalinguistic awareness is positively correlated with L2 proficiency.

Wong and Lee (2016) argued that interacting with MT can foster language awareness; that is, it can direct them to notice language. As Lee (2019) commented, "During the learning process with MT, students first notice their lack of L2 knowledge and identify items to be learned from the MT version (noticing)" (p. 14). However, through Activity 1, students notice not only things that they lack in their L2 (English) but also things they may lack in their L1 (Japanese).

Another element common to the activities is that they promote students' interacting with the language not only after it comes out of MT but, in some cases, before it goes into MT. A lot of literature is devoted to the post-editing phase of MT, that is, dealing with the language that comes out of MT (Vieira, 2019; O'Brien, 2022). Arguably, for some students, MT represents a convenient tool to avoid work. Copy, paste, click, copy, paste, voila: English-looking text that is better than they could ever do. The notion may be foreign to them that they can (and should) be involved in the act of translation as a process, with both before and after phases, and that they stand to learn a great deal by being active in this process. In so doing, they are taking ownership of English (Widdowson, 1994; Akkakoson, 2019). If indeed MT is, as Jones (2021a) put it, "here to stay," it makes sense to embrace the idea of showing our students how to use it judiciously

Conclusion

This paper and the MT training activities it outlines align with the theme of recent online presentations by Susan Jones (2021a, 2021b), associate professor in the English Department of Kobe College, who specializes in translation. Her message is that MT is so much a part of people's daily lives that it is an untenable pursuit to suppress its use in the EFL classroom. Rather, she advocates embracing its use as a learning tool. We wish to add the notion that the act of showing students how to use MT resides in the domain of teachers' willingness to embrace it, and that teachers need not think that successful incorporation of MT in EFL classes is only for teachers with translation or technical expertise, nor only for students with higher-intermediate or advanced levels of linguistic ability. Indeed, Lee's (2021) study discussed successful integration of MT with lower-level EFL writing students. In short, we assert that embracing MT requires an initial leap of faith by teachers, with the promise that they can learn as much from interactions with MT as their students do.

The Authors

Kio Iwai is an adjunct lecturer at Rikkyo University's Center for Foreign Language Education and Research, Tokyo. She holds an MA in TESOL from the Institute of Education, University of London. Her current interests include learner beliefs, communication strategies, and English remedial education. Email: kio-iwai@rikkyo.ac.jp

Joel P. Rian is an associate professor in the Faculty of Business Administration and Information Science at Hokkaido Information University, Ebetsu, Hokkaido. He also teaches part-time at Hokusei Gakuen University. He holds a PhD in linguistics from Macquarie University. His research interests include practical applications and training in communication strategies in the EFL classroom. Email: rianjp48@do-johodai.ac.jp

References

Akkakoson, S. (2019). Thai language learners' sense of English ownership. *PASAA: Journal of Language Teaching and Learning in Thailand*, *58*, 235–262.

Bowker, L., & Fisher, D. (2010). Computer-aided translation. In Y. Gambier & L. van Doorslaer (Eds.), *Handbook of translation studies* (Vol. 1, pp. 60–65). John Benjamins.

Dougill, J. (1987). English as a decorative language. *English Today*, *3*(4), 33–35.

Dougill, J. (2008). Japan and English as an alien language. *English Today*, *24*(1), 18–22.

Enkin, E., & Mejias-Bikandi, E. (2016). Using online translators in the second language classroom: Ideas for advanced-level Spanish. *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning*, *9*(1), 138–158. https://doi.org/10.5294/laclil.2016.9.1.6

Giannetti, T. R. (2016). *Google Translate as a resource for writing* [MA thesis, St. John Fisher College]. Fisher Digital Publications. https://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1358&context=education_ETD_masters

Jones, S. (2021a, August 25). *Machine translation*: *Here to stay* [Online presentation/workshop]. Online Teaching Japan. https://onlineteachingjapan.com/zoom-meetings/machine- translation-here-to-stay/

Jones, S. (2021b, November 12). Machine translation-supported writing [Conference session]. JALT International Conference, Online.
Lee, S.-M. (2019). The impact of using machine translation on EFL students' writing, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *33*(3), 157–175. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2018.1553186
Lee, Y.-J. (2021). Still taboo? Using machine translation for low-level EFL writers. *ELT Journal*, *75*(4), 432–441. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab018
Maddux, W. W., Kim, P. H., Okumura, T., & Brett, J. M. (2011). Cultural differences in the function and meaning of apologies. *International Negotiation*, *16*(3), 405–425.
Maruf, S., Saleh, F., & Haffari, G. (2021). A survey on document-level neural machine translation: Methods and evaluation. *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*, *54*(2), 1–36.
O'Brien, S. (2022). How to deal with errors in machine translation: Post-editing. In D. Kenny (Ed.), *Machine translation for everyone*: *Empowering users in the age of artificial intelligence* (pp. 105–120). Language Science Press.
Oda, T. (2020). How to make positive use of machine translation. *The Language Teacher*, *44*(2), 30–32.
Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *11*(2), 129–158. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.2.129
Schmidt, R. (2012). Attention, awareness, and individual differences in language learning. In W. M. Chan, K. N. Chin, S. K. Bhatt, & I. Walker (Eds.), *Perspectives on individual characteristics and foreign language education* (pp. 27–50). Walter de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614510932.27.
Vieira, L. N. (2019). Post-editing of machine translation. In M. O'Hagan (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of translation and technology* (pp. 319–335). Routledge.
Widdowson, H. G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(2), 377–389. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587438
Wong, T., & Lee, J. (2016). Corpus-based learning of Cantonese for Mandarin speakers. *ReCALL*, *28*(2), 187–206. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344015000257

Autoethnographic Exploration as "a Missionary of L2 Pragmatics"

Sanae Oda-Sheehan
Ochanomizu University, Tokyo, Japan

Although pragmatics constitutes a dynamic portion of communicative practice, it is less likely to be addressed in the classroom. As pragmatics involves cultural aspects, in exploring possible approaches to teaching L2 pragmatics, it is important to investigate teachers' perceptions and practices in multidimensional aspects and connect language teaching to lived experiences. By employing the method of autoethnography, which utilizes self-reflection and the connectivity between self and others to address sociocultural complexities in a personally engaging style, I qualitatively analyzed data from my own teaching journal entries as well as interviews with members of communities of practice to which I belong. The results suggest that autoethnography can facilitate meaningful exploration, optimizing constructive subjectivity and open vulnerability, and this innovative approach demonstrates the significance of theoretical and methodological integration to spread "the Good News" among a wider range of readers/audiences.

INTRODUCTION

Pragmatics can be defined as the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context (Kasper, 1997), and its primary objective is to understand what is actually meant through the interpretation of what is being said in words. Because of its importance in developing communicative competence, there has been a substantial amount of theoretical research conducted on second language (L2) pragmatics (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). However, pragmatics is less likely to be addressed in the EFL classroom mainly due to low pragmatic awareness among teachers. As teachers can be the most powerful agent in the classroom, developing teaching methods alone might not suffice without teachers who can appreciate and implement them. Therefore, it seems necessary to investigate teachers' practices and perceptions to raise their pragmatic awareness and promote pragmatic pedagogy.

Then, how can you explore such possibilities? LoCastro's (2012) suggestion of "One can 'do an ethnography' of family interactions to learn how to handle discussions and use politeness" (p. 308) inspired me to surmise that, as pragmatics involves many cultural aspects, it may be effective to utilize an ethnographic approach in search for ways to promote pragmatic pedagogy. Also, as language is not just a linguistic system, and there should be a linkage between language learning and teachers' lived experiences (Norton, 2016), it may be necessary to have more holistic views of EFL endeavors in the complexity of human lives. That is how I found it significant to study threads of people's experiences and interweave their lives and stories, leading to my decision to employ an autoethnographic approach in this exploration.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Due to its invisible and cross-cultural nature unfolded in situational dynamics, learners tend to make unintended pragmatic errors, causing communication breakdowns referred to as *pragmatic failure* (Thomas, 1983). Pragmatic failure can result in discord and mutual distrust between interlocutors, as native English speakers (NESs) are more likely to attribute such breakdowns to personality issues rather than linguistic causes (Gass & Selinker, 2008), while non-native English speakers (NNESs) are "generally unaware of this aspect of language and may be equally unaware of the negative perceptions that NESs may have of them as a result of their pragmatic errors" (p. 289).

In the EFL context, even advanced learners and teachers often show a marked imbalance between their pragmatic and grammatical knowledge (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). Also, as pragmatic rules usually work on a subconscious level, even NESs are less likely to be aware of the existence of pragmatic rules until they are violated (Polyakov, 2014). Simply stated, teachers cannot teach what they are not aware of (Judd, 1999). Furthermore, teachers are more likely to follow their own learning practice when they teach, because their teaching beliefs and conceptualization tend to be based on their own learning experience (Borg, 2003; Pajeres, 1992). Many teachers, unfortunately, have hardly had any experience of being explicitly taught pragmatics even during their teacher training (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010) and hence continue to be unaware of pragmatic force and its pedagogical needs.

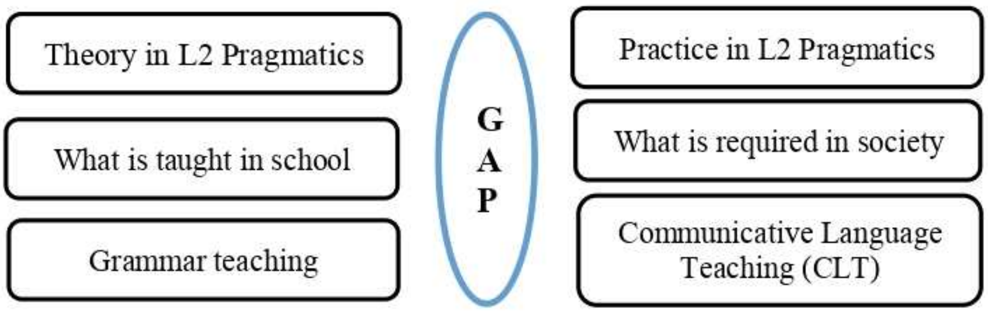
Teaching-Induced Pragmatic Failure

As a result, learners' pragmatic failure is often due to teaching-induced errors. The lack of explicit instruction on pragmatic aspects as well as the negative transfer based on the L1–L2 equivalence perception could lead learners to try to converge with what they perceive to be NESs' norms, only to bring risks of pragmatic failure. It is not fair to learners because they may end up making those errors as a result of their diligent classwork! As Thomas (1983) maintains, "It is the teacher's job to equip the student to express her/himself in exactly the way s/he chooses to do so – rudely, tactfully, or in an elaborately polite manner. What we want to prevent is her/his being unintentionally rude or subservient" (p. 96). Teachers must help learners be better prepared to meet communicative expectations in social enterprise.

Gaps and Integration

Those cases of pragmatic failure and teaching-induced errors may result from several problematic gaps prevailing in many EFL contexts. There seem to be critical gaps hindering learning effectiveness, including the gap between theory and practice in the pedagogy of L2 pragmatics, the gap between what is taught in school and what is required for practical communication in society, and the gap between grammar teaching and communicative language teaching (CLT) in the classroom, as shown in Figure 1 (Oda-Sheehan, 2017).

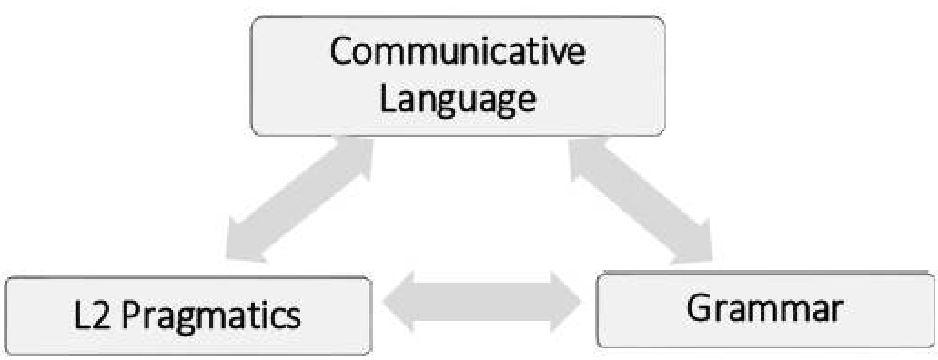
FIGURE 1. Critical Gaps to Be Bridged



Note. Based on Oda-Sheehan, 2017.

Bridging those gaps seems to be urgently required to promote pragmatic pedagogy. To this end, taking into account the various requirements surrounding many EFL classrooms, I developed a framework called the *Pedagogical Trinity* (see Figure 2; Oda-Sheehan, 2016). This framework aims to promote the pedagogy of L2 pragmatics by integrating it with grammar pedagogy and facilitating the implementation of CLT in the classroom. The combination of pragmatics and grammar pedagogy should work because EFL teachers are more likely to be accustomed to teaching grammar, which is often required for various test preparation efforts in EFL contexts. Therefore, the effort to promote teaching pragmatics within the scope of grammar teaching may be the most practical and sound approach. At the same time, this integration could provide a clearer focus to EFL teachers who may still be confused about what to teach in CLT. Having a specific focus and target on pragmatics could inspire them to promote CLT in their practice.

FIGURE 2. The Pedagogical Trinity



Note. Based on Oda-Sheehan, 2016.

In this framework, it may seem inappropriate to treat L2 pragmatics and communicative language separately because, theoretically, pragmatic competence is categorized as a construct of communicative competence (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980). However, in light of the fact that the level of pragmatic awareness is generally low in the EFL context and "many teachers have no idea what pragmatics is, let alone how to make use of it" (Talandis et al., 2020, p. 3), I believe it is necessary to separate and highlight pragmatics so it will not remain as an abstract element of communicative language. Teachers' clear awareness should be the first step to promote teaching L2 pragmatics explicitly, which will eventually help learners with their practical communication.

Teachers' Perceptions and Practices in Narratives

Recently, many TESOL studies have stressed reflections and narratives of lived experiences as a powerful tool for teacher development (e.g., Golombek & Johnson, 2017; Nagatomo, 2016). Narratives are sequentially told stories of individuals unfolding their lived experiences (Creswell, 2007) and "analyzing teacher narratives is a valuable way to investigate language teaching as it is actually practiced" (Menard-Warwick, 2010, p. 566).

To explore ways to bring about the integration in the Pedagogical Trinity, I found it necessary to investigate teachers' perceptions and practices of teaching pragmatics, grammar, and communicative aspects in a qualitative approach (Oda-Sheehan, 2017). At the same time, it seemed important to investigate multidimensional elements surrounding teachers' perceptions and practices such as sociocultural challenges and community requirements. Furthermore, as pragmatics can work in the sphere of our unconsciousness, it might be necessary to examine the deep nature of human quality related to identity.

It is true that studies involving such a wide scope may carry the risk of losing focus and leaving the analysis somewhat superficial and insufficient. Therefore, to prevent such an unfavorable outcome, I felt the need to anchor my research orientation so that I could take full ownership of the holistic approach and, at the same time, probe deeply into my research agenda. After a prolonged pursuit of the most effective research approach, I finally encountered the method of autoethnography.

Autoethnography

Autoethnography is a qualitative approach to study lived experiences by combining characteristics of ethnography, biography, and systematic self-analysis (Adams et al., 2015; Chang, 2008). Utilizing a form of self-narrative, autoethnography allows researchers to use themselves as the research subject to enhance sociocultural understanding of complex issues (Ellis & Bochner, 2000). It can offer "a way of giving voice to personal experience" (Wall, 2008, p. 38), and thus the researcher's own lived experiences and self-narratives may become a powerful data mining site as well as methodological and analytical tools.

One of the most appealing features in autoethnography is making human connections. Chang (2008) stresses that autoethnography can invite readers "to compare and contrast themselves with others in the cultural contexts they read and study, in turn discovering new dimensions of their own lives" (pp. 33–34). Autoethnography allows the researcher to experience self-reflections, self-discoveries, and transformations, and through such connectivity between the researcher and others within the same context, readers/audiences can go through the same process and become aware of the realities and their potential that they may not have been aware of. In this way, the presence of readers becomes a very important element of autoethnographic research, and it would not be an overstatement to say that both the researcher and the reader constitute the research as co-participants (Doty, 2010).

Also, this feature of connectivity allows autoethnography to create spaces that "make scholarly writing more accessible to wider audiences" (Doty, 2010, p. 1050). Chang (2008) describes this advantage as "reader-friendly" (p. 52), highlighting the significance of the personally engaging writing style that can appeal to more readers and touch their lives. This is a distinctive advantage of autoethnography because academic writing is often criticized as being overly abstract and inaccessible to non-academic audiences who could actually benefit from its findings (Adams & Manning, 2015). Through the use of personal experiences and storytelling techniques, autoethnography makes it possible to merge science and art (Ellis & Bochner, 2000).

Autoethnographic Research Experience

The Exploratory Study

Through the autoethnographic approach, I have strived to share my life experiences with interested others in a scholarly manner and explored the way to bridge the problematic gaps illustrated in Figure 1. In particular, I conducted an exploratory study during the period of 2018–2020 employing the approach of "analytic autoethnography" (Anderson, 2006). Analytic autoethnography utilizes "empirical data to gain insight into some broader set of social phenomena" (Anderson, 2006, p. 387), and it aims to bring about methodological transparency to challenge the common criticism that autoethnography lacks socially situated data and analytic rigor.

As the details of the study are reported in Oda-Sheehan (2022), I conducted face-to-face interviews with 12 participants from the communities of practice (CoPs) to which I belong (two participants each from the CoPs for EFL learners, teachers, researchers, businesspeople, parents, and intercultural family members). Also, I kept journal entries of my teaching practices for nine months so that I could reflect on them and capture my deepest thoughts for my professional and personal development.

With the analysis guided by two theoretical frameworks: community of practice (Wenger, 1998) for the in-depth interviews and reflective practice (Schön, 1983) for the journal entries, the results indicated that it might be of help in bridging the critical gaps and bringing about the integration in the Pedagogical Trinity if teachers have

- multiple perspectives based on their multiple identities,

- long-term visions,
- readiness for necessary transformations, and
- awareness of the boundaries for each element (L2 pragmatics, grammar, and communicative language) in teaching.

Through the analysis, I concluded that teachers should be aware of their own multiple identities so that they will have multiple perspectives in their teaching (Oda-Sheehan, 2022). More specifically, teachers should have various experiences outside the school framework and look beyond the classroom learning and teaching so that they may realize what their students will have to deal with once they go out into the world. This realization will provide long-term visions to see learning as a continuum from school to society, in which pragmatic competence plays a vital role for practical communication. Teachers should also teach the integrated contents of the Pedagogical Trinity with clearer awareness of which element is being focused on at a given time. Such awareness will show a clearer learning focus to their learners and help promote explicitly teaching L2 pragmatics in the classroom while addressing pedagogical requirements such as grammar for test preparation. Having multidimensional perspectives and a flexible mindset should help address various pedagogical needs both in and outside the classroom, bridging school and society.

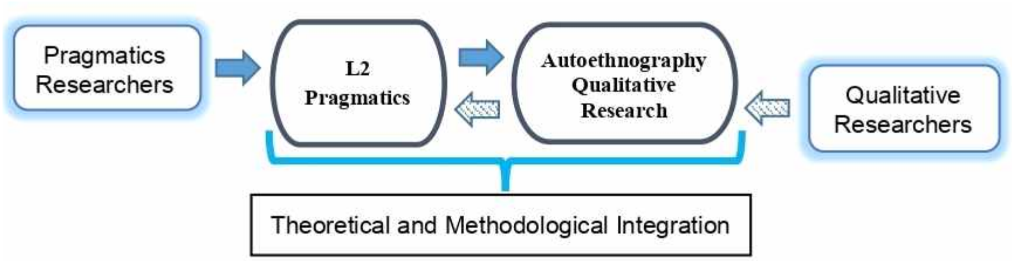
As "a Missionary of L2 Pragmatics"

In this exploratory study, one of the journal entries read, "As a missionary of pragmatics, I need to spread 'the Good News' among more teachers and learners," indicating my strong commitment to stress the importance of L2 pragmatics and its pedagogical needs. I had spent years trying to raise pragmatic awareness among learners as well as teachers while presenting my ideas at many conferences both in English and Japanese. However, right before making the journal entry, I had noticed that most of my audience were those who were already interested in pragmatics and/or aware of its importance, which led me to realize that I may have been just "preaching to the choir." This realization made me keenly feel the need to talk to people outside the field of pragmatics research.

That was one of the reasons I started shifting my research focus to qualitative studies, autoethnography in particular. By studying and discussing the method of autoethnography, I aimed to appeal to people in the qualitative research field and guide them to learn the importance of pragmatics through my study. In other words, I used the methodological variation to spread the theoretical insights, just as the Christian missionaries used measures such as trading and education to spread the faith!

In fact, this shift gradually began to draw attention from people outside the field of pragmatics. I realized the change because I started receiving more and more questions about basics of pragmatics during Q&A sessions, which indicated the audience's unfamiliarity with pragmatics. At the same time, there were other positive results yielded from sharing this research experience. For example, I seemed to have been able to encourage pragmatics researchers to learn more about qualitative studies, particularly autoethnography. I noticed this outcome because, during the Q&A sessions, I started receiving more questions about the basics of qualitative research from people in the pragmatics research field. They seemed fascinated by the research approach that was very new to them, such as using first-person voice, embracing productive subjectivity, and addressing open vulnerability, all of which are distinctive features of autoethnography. This outcome was totally unexpected or unintended, but this expansion of the research interest should be recognized as one of the achievements in the theoretical and methodological integration, as shown in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3. Expansion of the Research Interest



Subjectivity

Subjectivity can be caused by the blurred boundary between the researcher and the subject in autoethnography. It can become the target of criticism against autoethnographic methodology because, in scholarly work, researchers' personal voices are usually disconnected from their studies by employing standardized writing styles such as third-person voice (Bolen, 2017). In reality, all writings are in some ways subjective in that "they reflect authors' perspectives and preferences in their choices of topic, writing style, direction, and conclusion" (Chang, 2008, p. 35). As Yazan (2018) argues, "neither language nor what is produced or (re)presented with language is neutral and objective" (p. 3).

Instead of hiding from such reality or assuming the issues of subjectivity do not exist, autoethnographers at least acknowledge and accommodate such issues and the researcher's influence on research (Ellis et al., 2011). In addition, through the aforementioned connectivity between the researcher and readers, what is presented in autoethnography would not be the researcher's story alone but could become the readers' own stories. By challenging the traditional views of silent authorship and encouraging "readers to *feel* emotions, *visualize* experience, or have an overall *lived sense* of a situation" (Adams & Manning, 2015, p. 360; emphasis in the original), autoethnography allows researchers to embrace the subjectivity of life and become robust agents and participants within their own studies. The results of my exploratory study powerfully indicate this type of constructive subjectivity can be utilized in academia.

Vulnerability

Another result confirmed in this autoethnographic research lies in the significance of the researcher's open vulnerability. Many autoethnographers write about their lives "as offerings of their vulnerable selves for others to see the unseen, hear the unspoken, and/or beg questions about our communicative practices that may constitute oppressive structures" (Bolen, 2017, p. 76). While disclosing personal life requires courage and integrity (Jain, 2021), this vulnerable openness has the potential to enhance the interconnectivity between self and others across sociocultural differences (Ngunjiri et al., 2010).

In my exploratory study, I described some "messy" aspects of my life with multiple identities, including the loss of confidence and motivation as a teacher, frustration as a part-time worker at universities, a sense of failure as a mother, and the dilemma I felt in the intercultural family environment (Oda-Sheehan, 2022). Although those accounts were never flattering, I hoped that my vulnerable openness would contribute to making my discussions and interpretations compelling and persuading enough for readers/audiences to start reflecting on their own lives through the connectivity between us.

Furthermore, by revealing my vulnerable self during the face-to-face interviews, I was able to establish connection and solid rapport with my 12 participants so that they could open up and share their deepest feelings during the interviews. This outcome led me to believe that researchers using vulnerable openness may have a methodological significance, eliminating the negative impact of a hierarchical relationship between the interviewer and interviewee. By showing such vulnerability, researchers can create an open and flexible atmosphere to facilitate discussing sensitive matters that interviewees may hesitate to share otherwise, bringing about profound analysis in the interpretive process.

Open Communication

When I presented those positive outcomes of the exploratory study in academic conferences, many of my audience initially seemed quite surprised by the novel approach. Some of the interactions with them developed into active discussions or "open dialogue," which Ellis and Bochner (2006) claim autoethnographic studies can bring to the academic arena.

As qualitative studies are not conclusion-oriented but leave both the researcher and readers pondering the essential issues that perplex them (Wolcott, 2001), such studies can encourage open communication for various interpretations. While traditional analysis is about transferring information in monologue, qualitative analysis is about sharing the platform for dialogue to find other meanings (Ellis & Bochner, 2006).

Providing this platform for open communication was another development yielded from my sharing this research experience. By presenting the results of the exploratory study and showing what can be the critical factors to bridge those critical gaps, I may have been able to set up a platform for open communication with the audiences and readers. Through such dialogue, we have been able to collaboratively explore possibilities to bring about the Pedagogical Trinity, and that collaboration has continued to date.

Discussion

Through the exploratory study, I obtained interpretive insights as to what can be the critical factors to bridge the gaps and promote teaching L2 pragmatics.

However, it is not my intention to claim that those factors are the only path or solution. The insights should not be generalized as an explicit answer because qualitative studies are not about uncovering a single interpretive truth (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). Rather, my autoethnographic study demonstrates a significance in generating open communication for alternative understandings and collaborative exploration among a wider range of readers and audiences.

Despite such advantages of autoethnographic research, Wall (2008) shares her frustration indicating that personal narratives such as autoethnography are often marginalized in journal publication because they are more likely to be dismissed as self-indulgence lacking a scientific rigor and theoretical base. Unfortunately, "as a non-traditional methodology that is slowly gaining traction in mainstream qualitative research" (Jain, 2021), autoethnography is yet to be widely accepted in academia, including the field of TESOL.

Likewise, to those who are not familiar with this methodology, the interpretive insights I have presented in my study may seem too personal for scholastic discussions. Still, discussing personal findings is the core of autoethnographic research, in which the researcher's personal insights can be theorized to enhance sociological understanding of the research topic. Through the lens of personal findings and connectivity with others, autoethnography can offer interpretive opportunities for highly complex matters in sociocultural contexts.

Perhaps my work as "a missionary of L2 pragmatics" has now evolved into a new dimension, that of "a missionary of autoethnography," aiming to spread "the Good News" of the innovative qualitative approach. Autoethnographers strive to speak to people outside of a highly specialized field by addressing the heart (emotions) and the intellect (analyses; Adams et al., 2015). As "a missionary," I may be able to reach out to multiple audiences and connect life to academia in more meaningful ways. By sharing my experience in exploring possible approaches to the integration in the Pedagogical Trinity, I strive to encourage others to raise their pragmatic awareness and, at the same time, reflect on their own experiences in their EFL endeavors.

CONCLUSIONS

In this exploratory study, I used autoethnography as the methodological variation to draw attention of qualitative researchers so that I could spread the theoretical insights of L2 pragmatics in the EFL community. The results have demonstrated the significance of theoretical and methodological integration, stressing the effectiveness and justification of using necessary measures to work as "a missionary" of what you believe in.

Chang (2008) states that autoethnography can guide practitioners such as teachers to gain profound insights and to "function more effectively with others from diverse cultural backgrounds" (p. 13). This claim implies that using autoethnography may be most suitable for studies in the field of TESOL, in which sociocultural diversity and complexities are often intertwined in language learning and teaching. Autoethnography can make a significant contribution to TESOL research, cultivating a new scholastic direction of language education in interdisciplinary dimensions.

The Author

Sanae Oda-Sheehan is a graduate of Teachers College, Columbia University and received her PhD from Ochanomizu University in 2020. She teaches at the tertiary level in Tokyo and also works as a communication consultant utilizing her business background. Her research interests include teacher identity, L2 pragmatics, and communicative task effectiveness. Email: sanaesheehan@gmail.com

References

Adams, T. E., Jones, S. H., & Ellis, C. (2015). *Autoethnography*. Oxford University Press.

Adams, T. E., & Manning, J. (2015). Autoethnography and family research. *Journal of Family Theory and Review*, *7*, 350–366. https://doi.org/10.1111/jftr.12116

Anderson, L. (2006). Analytic autoethnography. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *35*(4), 373–395. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891241605280449

Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(2), 233–262.

Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2012). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A road map from beginning to end*. SAGE.

Bolen, D. (2017). Autoethnography. In M. Allen (Ed.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of communication research methods* (pp. 73–76). SAGE.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81–109.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1–47.

Chang, H. (2008). *Autoethnography as method*. Routledge.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (2nd ed.). SAGE.

Doty, R. L. (2010). Autoethnography: Making human connections. *Review of International Studies*, *36*, 1047–1050. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026021051000118X

Ellis, C., Adams, T. E., & Bochner, A. P. (2011). Autoethnography: An overview. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, *12*(1), Article 10.

Ellis, C., & Bochner, A. P. (2000). Autoethnography, personal narrative, reflexivity: Researcher as subject. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 733–768). SAGE.

Ellis, C., & Bochner, A. P. (2006). Analyzing analytic autoethnography: An autopsy. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *35*(4), 429–449. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891241606286979

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. Routledge.

Golombek, P. R., & Johnson, K. E. (2017). Re-conceptualizing teachers' narrative inquiry as professional development. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *19*(2), 15–28. https://revistas.unal.edu.co/index.php/profile/article/view/65692

Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. (2010). *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*. Pearson.

Jain, R. (2021). (Re)Imagining myself as a translingual, a transnational, and a pracademic: A critical autoethnographic account. In B. Yazan, S. Canagarajah, & R. Jain (Eds.), *Autoethnography in ELT: Transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices* (pp.

109–127). Routledge.

Judd, E. L. (1999). Some issues in the teaching of pragmatic competence. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 152–166). Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G. (1997). *Can pragmatic competence be taught?* University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center. https://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/NetWorks/NW06/

LoCastro, V. (2012). *Pragmatics for language educators*. Routledge.

Menard-Warwick, J. (2010). A methodological reflection on the process of narrative analysis: Alienation and identity in the life histories of English language teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, *46*, 258–279. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.256798

Nagatomo, H. D. (2016). *Identity, gender, and teaching English in Japan*. Multilingual Matters.

Ngunjiri, F. W., Hernandez, K. C., & Chang, H. (2010). Living autoethnography: Connecting life and research. *Journal of Research Practice*, *6*(1). https://jrp.icaap.org/index.php/jrp/article/view/241/186

Norton, B. (2016). Identity and language learning: Back to the future. *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(2), 475–479. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq293

Oda-Sheehan, S. (2016). What teachers can do in the Pedagogical Trinity: Pragmatics, grammar, and communicative language teaching. *Accents Asia*, *8*(2), 1–8.

Oda-Sheehan, S. (2017). Bridging the gaps: Teachers' perceptions and practices of pragmatics, grammar, and communicative language teaching. *Journal of the Ochanomizu University English Society*, *7*, 24–40.

Oda-Sheehan, S. (2022). *An autoethnography of teaching English in Japan*: *Bridging life and academia*. Candlin & Mynard.

Pajeres, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307–332.

Polyakov, G. O. (2014). Developing ESP learner L2 pragmatic awareness through interviewing native speakers of English. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *154*, 148–154. https://doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.10.127

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. Basic Books.

Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Talandis, J., Ronald, J., Fujimoto, D., & Ishihara, N. (Eds.). (2020). *Pragmatics undercover*: *The search for natural talk in EFL textbooks*. Pragmatics Special Interest Group of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT).

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*(2), 91–112.

Wall, S. (2008). Easier said than done: Writing an autoethnography. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *7*(1), 38–53. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690800700103

Wenger, E. (1998). *Community of practice*: *Learning*, *meaning*, *and identity*. Cambridge University Press.

Wolcott, H. (2001). *Writing up qualitative research* (2nd ed.). SAGE.

Yazan, B. (2018). Toward identity-oriented teacher education: Critical autoethnographic narrative. *TESOL Journal*, *10*(1), Article e00388. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.388

Machine Translation: Friend or Foe?

Rachelle R. Meilleur
Kyoto University of Foreign Studies, Kyoto, Japan

Teachers have dealt with different types of plagiarism issues over the years, but recently machine translation (MT) programs such as DeepL and Google Translate have changed the game for many. While no one would argue the benefits of using MT in everyday situations, the issues are not so clear-cut when it comes to language learning. How much MT is acceptable, especially within a second language program or a writing or research course? Should MT be considered the same as other types of plagiarism, with the same types of penalties? This paper provides some contextual background to the current situation and issues surrounding MT in second language learning situations, and provides a variety of techniques to aid students, teachers, and administrators in navigating them.

Introduction

Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, the most common forms of plagiarism many EFL teachers would encounter were the standard copying and pasting from the internet, translating previously published foreign works, collusion, or self-plagiarism. The use of machine translation (MT) was often done using a program such as Google Translate, which had different "tells" according to the languages being used, and was often quite easy to identify. Yet, in the first year of the pandemic, when schools around the world went into emergency remote teaching, or online learning, teachers were noticing something else. The written work from students was good. Too good. Yet the standard tool kit for finding plagiarized online content came up with nothing. To the writing teacher with years of experience, seeing an A2 student submit work that sounded nearly native-like was a big red flag, but there was no "proof" of wrongdoing, other than the instructor's sixth sense based on years of experience. A newcomer had come on the scene, and it took a while for many teachers to recognize what it was – a newer, better form of machine translation, which was embodied by the artificial intelligence (AI) that is known as DeepL. Before looking at the influence of DeepL, and what its use means for the various stakeholders in the academic world, some definitions are in order.

Definitions

Plagiarism is using language, ideas, or other creative work that is not common knowledge, and presenting it as something that one has originally created, without acknowledging the original source or the help received from elsewhere. Whether or not it is intentionally done, if a person uses another's work without citing the original source, it is considered plagiarism. This is a form of academic dishonesty and can have serious consequences.

With regard to student work in academia, plagiarism can take many different forms, including direct quotations or copying and pasting work from other sources without acknowledging them, paraphrasing or summarizing another person's work without acknowledging them, self-plagiarizing (using work created for one class for a different assignment), using machine translation tools without acknowledging the translation, making minor adjustments to another person's translation and submitting it as one's own work, translating from a foreign text and presenting the work as one's own, and collusion or copying work from another student or allowing another student to copy one's work. These guidelines are clear and common across institutions worldwide (see Appendix).

Machine translation can be defined as using online AI tools such as Google Translate or DeepL to translate work from one language to another. Using machine translation in and of itself is not plagiarism. It is useful in many different contexts, whether one is translating work written in other languages for personal or academic use, for communication with non-native speakers in their own language, or of course, as a language learning tool. However, there are instances when the use of machine translation in academic settings can be considered plagiarism. The first falls under the classic definition of plagiarism, as listed above: translating existing work from one language to another and using the translated version in an assignment without crediting the original source of the translation; or writing an assignment in the L1 and then using machine translation, in whole or in part, to translate the work into the L2 for submission, again without acknowledging the translation.

The former (using MT to translate existing work) has been around for some time and can be discovered by using "reverse translation" techniques, although most plagiarism checkers available today have this ability, making it much easier to trace. It is the latter form (translating one's own work written in the L1) that is the most problematic, as there is no way to detect the translation through plagiarism checkers, since the work does not exist online and is an original creation.

A Short History of Machine-Translated Text

While there are a number of different machine translation tools that can be used, two of the most popular applications worldwide are Google Translate and DeepL. However, these tools work slightly differently from each other.

Google Translate was created in 2006 using statistical machine translation, which is what most online translators had been using since the early days of the internet (acutrans19, 2020). Statistical machine translation relies on using parallel texts or example sentences to translate from one language into another. The results in the early years of machine translation were not great but were generally good enough to understand the meaning or the context. However, in 2015 Google

Translate began using neural machine translation, which used neural networks and AI to translate larger sections of text more accurately. Neural machine translators (NMTs) are able to learn from their mistakes and improve translations with every use (acutrans19, 2020).

DeepL is a relatively recent NMT, having been released in August 2017, with its data set based on Linguee, a translation search engine. In the beginning it had a small set of languages it could translate, those being Dutch, English, French, German, Italian, Polish, and Spanish (History of DeepL, n.d.). Chinese and Japanese were added in March of 2020, almost in step with the shutdowns happening around the world and online learning becoming the default for many months to come. A year later, 13 new European languages were added, making for a total of 23 languages, a much smaller set than the 133 languages offered by Google Translate. However, although Google Translate does offer significantly more language pairings, the quality of the translations is not necessarily equal among languages, with lesser-used languages often suffering from poor translations. On the other hand, despite DeepL's smaller language set, the limited offerings appear to offer more accurate translations across the languages used.

Several studies have compared the translation abilities of Google Translate and DeepL and have found that DeepL outperformed Google Translate most of the time, whether from French to English (Isabelle & Kuhn, 2018), German to English (Macketanz, et al., n.d.), or having the lowest incidences of gender bias when translating gendered adjectives and verbs in a study that also included Microsoft Translator (Troles & Schmid, 2021). Nevertheless, the majority of the most popular translation applications available today are NMTs and provide varying degrees of accurately translated work, whether for personal, professional, or academic use. One of the main issues for language instructors, however, is being able to identify the use of machine translation when evaluating students' work.

MT for Educators: Identifying the Use of DeepL and Other Applications

As students began to discover how accurate and easy these various NMTs were to use for their assignments, many teachers noticed extremely well-written work from students who, based on their real-life language abilities, would not have been able to construct such accurate and native speaker-like text without help or standard plagiarism techniques. On social media groups, such as the OTJ (Online Teaching Japan) group on Facebook, many teachers would ask for help about what to do in these situations, as they were coming up empty with their usual methods of finding plagiarized work. Usually, the answer to those questions was one word: DeepL. As instructors began to explore what DeepL could do, there then came the realization that students were writing their assignments in their L1 (in this case, Japanese), putting most, or all, of the text into DeepL, and then copying and pasting that text directly into the text-based application that the instructor was using for online assignments. Since the writing was not plagiarized from an existing source, no plagiarism checker could recognize it for what it was. As such, teachers needed to find new ways to discover the use of machine translation in their students' work.

There are several issues that need to be considered when it comes to the use of machine translation. The first, and most obvious is, if it is the original work of the student, does it matter if it is machine translated or not? This is a huge issue that each teacher and institution needs to resolve at some point, but for the purposes of this paper, the assumption is that it does matter, especially in language learning courses. If someone presents translated work from another source without credit, it is considered plagiarism. Even though NMTs are a form of AI and are not human, the program did the translation, not the student. Thus, the language presented is not an accurate representation of what the student is capable of producing, and if they do not acknowledge that the work presented has been translated by machine translation, then it should be considered plagiarized work.

Another issue is that, while NMTs like DeepL are very good, they are not perfect. There will still be phrases or vocabulary usage that may not be entirely native-like. These slight inaccuracies are in fact what can be troubling to an instructor looking at the work: It is very good, but with enough mistakes to make it seem like it is possible the student wrote it themselves.

The final issue is that of policing student work and constantly needing to consult with students as to whether the work is really theirs or not. Many teachers do not enjoy this aspect of evaluating student work, as it is often time-consuming and can lead to perceptions that any and all good student work must be machine translated, when in fact there are students who are very diligent in their language studies and work hard to produce good work through more traditional means. Additionally, even when confronting students about the origin of their work, with a question such as “Is this your work,” students most often will answer in the affirmative as they absolutely consider it their work, not knowing or realizing that machine-translated work can be considered plagiarism or a form of cheating. In fact, in some high schools in Japan, many students have been told that using machine translation tools is perfectly acceptable. Thus, it is very important that teachers be aware of their own cultural assumptions regarding plagiarism and translation tools as well as being specific in language used when discussing these issues with their students.

With these issues in mind, there are several actions available for teachers to evaluate whether a certain text has been machine translated or not. These include the following:

- **Trusting one’s own intuition and experience**. While no teacher wants to accuse a student of plagiarism without proof of some sort, when it comes to machine-translated text, this may be the only way to determine that the work could not have, in all probability, been produced by the student without the help of machine translation.
- **Realizing that students do not always proofread their work**. In situations where students translate large chunks of text, they will often copy and paste everything in the translated text box. This may include a line from DeepL that reads “translated by DeepL.” Similarly, DeepL sometimes provides more than one alternative translation of a sentence or a phrase, which can result in double sentences that are almost the same, but with slight differences. Students do not always notice this and will keep these double sentences in

their work. Finally, in very large chunks of text that have been translated, the separation of ideas into separate paragraphs is often missing, and a paper may have a paragraph that runs several pages long. These pages-long paragraphs may be a "tell" that machine translation has been used.

- **Plagiarism checkers may give near perfect scores on machine-translated texts**. When students are required to write research essays, consulting and referencing previously published works, plagiarism checkers such as Turnitin or iThenticate will often give scores of 15–30% on work that has been properly sourced and formatted. However, in this author's experience, work that was submitted by low-level students (A1–A2 level) that was almost completely done by machine translation resulted in a nearly perfect score of 0–5% on iThenticate, whereas the work that was correctly done by high-level students (B2 or above) had higher percentage rates that were over 20%. This is based on the assumption that the students in question wrote the papers in their L1, used all the sources from their L1, and then used machine translation to create the English text.
- **The "loss" of commonly mistranslated words**. This is a more difficult and subtle "tell" of machine-translated work. In Japan, students often use English words that are not quite correct, based on traditional dictionary translations. A few problematic words that often show up in academic writing include the use of the word "precious" for a fun or heart-warming experience (e.g., "Going to Tokyo Disneyland was a precious experience for me") or using the word "human" when "person/people" would be more appropriate (e.g., "There were seven humans at the park"). However, when machine translation is extensively used, these mistranslated words often disappear.

The Great Debate: Is Machine Translation Unavoidable?

In the time since the pandemic began, as teachers have discovered how good DeepL can be, several debates have ensued as instructors grapple with how to deal with it both in and out of the classroom (Zemach, 2021). Many instructors have argued that it is here to stay and, just like a calculator used in a math class, that is should be considered as a classroom tool. However, this is a very simplistic outlook that disregards a number of variables.

The first variable is the subject taught in the class itself. If students are not language learners, is it fair to expect them to produce understandable work in a second language without the use of machine translation? On the other hand, if the students are language learners, how can a teacher effectively evaluate the student's own language abilities, if most of it is done through a translator? Does machine translation matter more in a writing class than it does in a speaking class? What about grammar or reading classes?

The second variable is that of the language abilities of the students themselves. High-level students with a good understanding of the L2 may indeed be able to use machine translation as a tool to aid their language learning and not as a replacement for it. However, for many lower-level students, most would not be able to check whether or not the machine translation is fully accurate, and in fact would tend to use it as a time-saving tool to simply translate their L1 quickly, without studying or learning from the machine-translated text. This may initiate a domino effect where once a student realizes how easy it is to use MT, they begin to use it more and more, which would have a detrimental effect on actually improving and learning a language, but also on their academic career, should their institution have strict policies and consequences concerning the use of MT in graded assignments.

If one accepts that machine translation is here to stay but that there should also be limits on how much of it is used for assignments, then both teachers and the institutions they work at need to create policies and curricula that incorporate learning and using MT in various academic settings.

From an institutional or departmental level, decisions and policies need to be made regarding the following:

- Does the institution consider machine translation to be plagiarism?
- If yes, then how much machine translation is acceptable, with or without acknowledgment, in an assignment? Is one sentence too much? One paragraph? 10% of the total? 20%? In a second-language learning environment, it is expected and necessary that students use dictionaries and machine translation tools to help them communicate in their L2 and, in fact, to learn from it. However, at what point does the use of machine translation become too much? If machine-translated text of one's own work in the L1 is acceptable, does this need some kind of citation or acknowledgement? At the moment, there is no official form of citation that one can use to indicate machine-translated text of one's own work.
- Accordingly, if machine translation (in whole or in part) is considered plagiarism by the institution, what are the consequences for violations? Should there be varying stages of punishment or is one incident enough?
- Finally, if one does not already exist, institutions should consider creating a language or writing center that can help students learn about and work through these issues so that they can be more confident in how and when to use machine-translated texts in their own work.

It is important that institutions make clear policies concerning the use of plagiarism in general and more specifically, on the use of machine translation for graded assignments. This is essential for all the stakeholders involved – the administration, the faculty, and the students. If everyone is aware of what the guidelines are and what the consequences are for violations, it will make it easier for everyone to follow and accept them.

MT for Educators: In the Classroom

For educators, there are several things that they can do to ensure that their students are aware of what is and is not acceptable, and how the students can protect themselves from false accusations, or in extreme cases, expulsion. Many of these suggestions have been presented elsewhere (Eaton, 2021; Pecorari & Shaw, 2019; Weber-Wulff, 2014) in response to dealing with plagiarism in general, but they can be easily adapted to include the more current issue of machine translation:

- **Be open and have clear expectations**. It is important to acknowledge the issue of plagiarism and machine translation (PaMT) with students, and that they are aware of what it is and what the consequences are for clear transgressions. If the institution, faculty, or department does not have clear and specific guidelines regarding PaMT in the student handbook, instructors should include it as part of their syllabus and course expectations.
- **Have at least one class per semester to deal with these issues**. This will be most useful in writing and presentation classes but could be discussed in any type of class. The first class may be an introduction to the issue of plagiarism in general, with student discussions on various types of plagiarism. This may include recent news items (Chiba, 2021; Im, 2022) or more famous examples, such as the Tokyo 2020 Olympics logo scandal (Murai, 2015) or music plagiarism cases (Cooney, 2022). Getting students to consider these examples, as well as the consequences, is a useful way to get them to think critically about this issue. After a discussion on plagiarism, then the issue of machine translation can be brought up, again with discussions as to what is too much, when is it appropriate, and what is the best way to use it.
- **Teach students about paraphrasing and citations**. Naturally, any discussion on plagiarism should be followed by several classes on how to paraphrase work, and the proper ways to cite and reference it.
- **Have realistic expectations**. One reason why students may resort to using MT for most or all of their assignments, rather than just parts of it, is that they may lack confidence in their L2 and want to present the best work possible. Reminding students that they are still learning the language and that it is perfectly acceptable to make mistakes may reduce to temptation to use MT this way.
- **Keep samples of student work for reference**. This may include having students do hand-written work in class with a specific time limit and with limited resources (e.g., 20 minutes; only paper dictionaries or textbooks allowed). This will allow instructors to have a record of how much work a student is capable of producing within that time frame and provides a standard baseline from which to judge future work. Doing this several times over the semester or year would allow teachers to see how much progression is being made as the student is exposed to more vocabulary, grammar, and writing techniques. While hand-written work done in class is suggested as it provides the most “secure” form of writing without help from external electronic sources, teachers should be aware of inclusivity issues to ensure that all students are catered to appropriately and may have to adjust this assignment accordingly.

  Instructors may also follow up on these hand-written pieces and get students to improve them using the online tools they would normally use. This author often recommends having students color-code any work that is not originally theirs, whether it is from a dictionary, machine translation software, or other sources. For example, translated words from a dictionary could be in green, machine-translated work could be in blue, etc. This allows both the student and the teacher to have a clear visual representation of how much is coming from the student and how much other sources are being relied upon. For students, they may come to realize how much they depend on these applications and can adjust how they approach future work.

- **Consider having students sign a pledge (in both the L1 and the L2) for major assignments**. To combat the issue of students saying "I didn't know" when confronted by the charge of plagiarism, many teachers often require their students to sign a pledge and attach it to their assignment. The pledge may say that the student understands what plagiarism and machine translation are, that they know what the consequences are for any violations, and that the work presented is their own and properly sourced and formatted.
- **Be clear about consequences and follow through on them**. One reason why students may continue to try to plagiarize or overuse machine translation is that they often get away with it with minor consequences. Teachers are often reluctant to fail students completely, but if they are fair and consistent in giving reduced or failing grades for PaMT assignments, students will be less likely to try to get away with it.
- **Do not assume the worst or the best of the students**. Many students can be quite sincere in their expressions of innocence or lack of knowledge about plagiarism or machine translation tools, but in the present day, with social media, students are much savvier about tips and techniques concerning how to get away with cheating (Viral TikToks, 2020). For example, with many online programs (Word, Google Docs, etc.), it is possible to track any work that has been cut and pasted into the document (often a red flag for PaMT). However, many students get around that problem by working with multiple windows or devices – they can have the translated text from DeepL open on one device, while they type directly into the online document, making it look like it is their original work. The author has witnessed this both in her classroom and outside of it, often in cafes or other areas where students like to work.

These are just a few examples of what teachers can do to deal with these issues. Sadly, these will likely not be one-time events but discussions and techniques that need to be repeated and adapted continually.

Machine Translation for Students: How to Protect Themselves

Plagiarism and machine translation is an issue that students need to be aware of. In particular, they need to know their rights as students, how to avoid falling to the temptation of PaMT, and how to protect themselves if they have been falsely accused of wrongdoing. These issues can and should be discussed in any classes dealing with PaMT, as mentioned in the previous section. Teachers can remind their students of the following:

- First and foremost, try to avoid the temptations of plagiarizing or using too much machine translation. Often, this happens because of poor time management skills, procrastination, and other issues such as physical and mental health conditions. Keeping a schedule, knowing who and where to ask for help, and feeling comfortable enough to ask their teacher for deadline extensions can all help.
- It may not be clear to the younger generation that grew up on smartphones, but there is a skill set when it comes to academic work. Keeping a clear chain of progression, such as saving each edit as a unique name (Draft 1a, Draft 1b, etc.) can provide proof of how the student improved their work. Similarly, saving all work, both paper and online, until their course (or their degree) is finished, is also essential. Once things are thrown away or deleted, it can be difficult to prove anything.
- Finally, students need to be aware that if they are asked to prove that they wrote something, that they need to be prepared to do so. This may be through a simple explanation, by showing what resources they used to produce the work, or by producing similar work under supervision of the instructor. If they cannot provide sufficient proof, then they may face the consequences of plagiarized or machine-translated work.

Conclusion

This paper has provided a small introduction into the issues that many language teachers may face in regard to dealing with machine translation in academic settings. All the stakeholders involved – students, teachers, and institutions – need to be aware of these issues and develop clear guidelines for everyone to follow. This will be an ongoing process as technologies continue to emerge and improve. The impact that machine translation has on the language learning community is one that will need to be engaged with for some time.

The Author

Rachelle R. Meilleur is an associate professor in the Department of British and American Studies at Kyoto University of Foreign Studies in Kyoto, Japan. Her ongoing research interests include self-regulated learning, collaborative online international learning (COIL), intercultural competence, and the use of machine translation in ELL settings. Email: r_meille@kufs.ac.jp

References

Acutrans19. (2020, December 1). *The surprising history of machine translation*. Acutrans. https://acutrans.com/history-of-google-translate/#:~:text=However%2C%20in%202006%20Google%20launched,good%2C%20but%20they%20were%20convenient

Chiba, N. (2021, May 26). Kyoto Univ. revokes doctorate for plagiarism in 1st move of its kind since foundation. *The Mainichi*. https://mainichi.jp/english/articles/20210526/p2a/00m/0na/003000c

Cooney, L. (2022, April 7). From Shape of You to Blurred Lines: 8 of the biggest music plagiarism cases. *The Independent*. https://www.independent.co.uk/arts-entertainment/music/news/songs-plagiarism-cases-blurred-lines-b2052287.html

History of DeepL. (n.d.) DeepL. https://www.deepl.com/en/press.html#press_history_article

Im, E-B. (2022, June 26). SNU research team busted for blatant plagiarism. *The Korea Herald*. https://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20220626000141

Isabelle, P., & Kuhn, R. (2018). A challenge set for French → English machine translation. *National Research Council Canada*. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1806.02725

Macketanz, V., Burchardt, A., & Uszkoreit, H. (n.d.). *TQ-Autotest*: *Novel analytical quality measure confirms that DeepL is better than Google Translate*. Globalization and Localization Association. https://www.dfki.de/fileadmin/user_upload/import/10174_TQ-AutoTest_Novel_analytical_quality_measure_confirms_that_DeepL_is_better_than_Google_Translate.pdf

Murai, S. (2015, September 1). Contested Tokyo 2020 Olympic logo scrapped amid plagiarism claim. *The Japan Times*. https://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2015/09/01/national/tokyo-2020-olympic-logo-dropped-amid-plagiarism-claim/

Pecorari, D., & Shaw, P. (2019). So what should we do? In D. Pecorari & P. Shaw (Eds.), *Student plagiarism in higher education*: *Reflections on teaching practice*. Routledge.

Troles, D.-J., & Schmid, U. (2021). *Extending challenge sets to uncover gender bias in machine translation*: *Impact of stereotypical verbs and adjectives*. Cornell University. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2107.11584

Viral TikToks. (2020, April 19). *Online school hacks|TikTok compilation* [Video]. YouTube. https://youtu.be/2Cswb1IAJO4

Weber-Wulff, D. (2014). *False feathers*: *A perspective on academic plagiarism*. Springer.

Zemach, D. (2021, September 17). *Are machine translation tools a threat to English teaching?* Bridge Universe. https://bridge.edu/tefl/blog/are-machine-translation-tools-a-threat-to-english-teaching/

Appendix

Bibliography of Plagiarism Guidelines

Academic Ethics/Plagiarism. (n.d.). Department of Translation and Interpreting Studies at Boğaziçi University. https://transint.boun.edu.tr/academic-ethics-plagiarism

Academic Integrity at MIT. (n.d.). Massachusetts Institute of Technology. https://integrity.mit.edu/

Academic Integrity Essentials. (n.d.). National University of Singapore. https://libguides.nus.edu.sg/copyright_essentials_teaching_learning_research/plagiarism

Academic Misconduct. (n.d.). University of British Columbia. https://www.calendar.ubc.ca/vancouver/index.cfm?tree=3,54,111,959

Plagiarism. (n.d.). University of Oxford. https://www.ox.ac.uk/students/academic/guidance/skills/plagiarism

Plagiarism Guidelines (n.d.). University of Cambridge. https://www.hps.cam.ac.uk/students/plagiarism

Final Assessment Items for TOEIC in the Remote Learning Context

Nathan P. Krug
Saitama University, Saitama, Japan

Teaching classes online has enormous benefit, though it comes with challenges. One important challenge includes how educators can implement assessment items for students in assorted and remote locations. In the case of final examinations, how can educators do so while maintaining test validity, reliability, and fairness? Using one well-known learning management system, and using a TOEIC-preparation course as a model, this paper will outline an approach to effectively administering end-of-term examinations. After having formulated the appropriate assessment items, educators are encouraged to split examinations into amenable but separate parts specifically for online delivery. Educators must make use of question-order randomization and limit access times of their students. Importantly, educators must generate backup duplicates of the examinations in advance, backups that may be executed immediately as needed. As will be demonstrated, whether synchronous or asynchronous, observing such procedures and guidelines will ensure that both teachers and students are satisfied with the online examination experience.

INTRODUCTION

At the start of the 2020 academic year, many learning institutions were forced to move rapidly to remote learning modes of delivery due to COVID-19 and its characterization as a global pandemic (WHO, 2020). In short order, teachers had to re-design their classes to work in online environments with a plethora of variables. I was one teacher among them. In this paper, I will discuss my approach to managing assessment items in my classes from that time to the present day. I will limit the focus to one type of class that I am responsible for teaching and one type of assessment item. Specifically, this is a practical report on my attempt to make effective use of one online learning management system (LMS) for the administration of end-of-term TOEIC-style examinations.

The Classes

The classes discussed herein are for first-year students at a tertiary-level institution in Japan. They are compulsory classes that meet once per week for a duration of 90 minutes per class. The school year follows the quarter system (i.e., the academic year is comprised of four equal-length terms per year). Adhering to the quarter system is relevant to this paper and important to note, as it is during the final class of each term (i.e., four times per year) that final examinations are conducted. The design and online implementation of these final examinations are the primary foci of this report.

The Content

The classes under investigation in this paper center on preparation for the TOEIC® Listening and Reading examination. According to the makers of this examination, Educational Testing Service (ETS; n.d.-a, n.d.-b), this test sets out to assess the English-language listening and reading skills needed in the workplace and everyday life. "The TOEIC Listening and Reading test measures the everyday English listening and reading skills needed to work in an international environment" (Exam-Practice, n.d., What's a Good TOEIC Listening and Reading Score? para. 1). Multiple-choice listening and reading questions simulate real-life situations that are relevant to the global workplace. TOEIC Listening and Reading scores provide feedback about a test taker's strengths and weaknesses, along with a description of the skills typical of test takers at various levels.

As test-focused classes, there is a required test-focused textbook: *Tactics for TOEIC: Listening and Reading Test* (Trew, 2008). This textbook is a straightforward and user-friendly approach to becoming familiar with each part of the TOEIC Listening and Reading examination. As can be seen by the sample included in Appendix A, the textbook is divided into units, each unit focusing on one part of the TOEIC Listening and Reading examination. Each unit contains test-taking tips (green text), warm-up-like exercises that focus on a specific skill or test-taking strategy, and finally, mini-test exercises (with answer boxes in the style of optical mark recognition [OMR] sheets) to prepare students for sitting the actual TOEIC Listening and Reading examination with life-like time constraints.

The Learning Management System (LMS)

Just prior to the 2020 academic year (i.e., being just prior to April 2020 in Japan), I had about two weeks available to prepare for the prospect of moving to fully digital classrooms and wholesale online class delivery. I began to canvass potential online systems and methods available to someone like me (a language teacher with some degree of freedom over what and how I assist student leaning and the reaching of educational goals). Naturally, I experimented with well-known (and free-to-user) options such as Google Classroom (Google, n.d.) and Schoology (PowerSchool, n.d.), among others.

However, based on past experiences interacting with students in certain online systems, I was somewhat hesitant to take on Google Classroom or Schoology (and so on) for all classes due to technical difficulties I had encountered previously, such as registering students (and gathering students into virtual classroom groups/rosters). Surprisingly, unbeknownst to me until this time, I discovered at the eleventh-hour that my employer had an LMS in place. It was available to me, should I choose to use it. And amazingly, it solved some of these potential difficulties I was concerned about (were I to choose to use an aforementioned option).

WebClass (designed by Data Pacific [Japan], Ltd.) is the LMS that my employer made available to staff. It is a domestic, paid-for, institution-based LMS developed for Japanese universities. It is utilized by some, but by no means all, universities in Japan, and likewise, within each institution it is used by some, but by no means all, teaching staff.

With WebClass, it is possible to create teaching materials and tests necessary for tertiary-level education, submit reports, collect and collate grade-related data, message students, and meet the usage needs of faculty members, students, and managers. This was what I needed. These tasks were what I needed to be able to achieve with certainty early in 2020. It seemed that WebClass could do what I needed, so, with no time to explore further options, I settled on using WebClass as my LMS for online class delivery from 2020.

WebClass describes itself as easy, speedy, flexible, convenient and cost effective (Data Pacific [Japan], 2020). As you will clearly see later in this paper, WebClass is, however, somewhat old-fashioned in design and usage at first glance. For example, there is no drop-and-drag. There are no colorful background templates. It is very "mathematical." But it does what I needed it to, in its own way.

Most importantly for me, being adopted by my employer on an institution-wide basis, I was able to receive assistance from my institution's administrative staff. For example, my students were placed into virtual classrooms within that system by office administration – a tremendous and potentially continuous problem solved for me as I did not need to concern myself at all with student registration or password-related problems! Classes were set-up by the office staff. Each student was then efficiently able to log-in to WebClass, simply using their institutional account details (already known to each student individually). Any access problems related to this LMS that did arise were solved by office staff in consultation with the respective student.

This left me with the time to simply make my classes work as digital classes with the system available to me: WebClass. I could design materials, distribute them, grade them. I could focus solely on teaching (without consuming vast amounts of time on system management).

Effective TOEIC-Like Final Assessment Tasks: Online

Working with the opportunities *and* limitations that WebClass simultaneously provides, this section will describe how I managed and structured the design of final assessment items for my TOEIC preparation classes in the online context. Following these pointers and suggestions will make an online assessment task clear and straight-forward for test takers.

Appendices B, C, and D portray the on-screen view and/or some of the optional settings that an assessment maker may modify for each specific assessment item being created in the WebClass LMS. Optional settings include whether or not questions within the system are ordered by numbers (e.g., 1, 2, 3, ...) or letters (e.g., A, B, C, ...). For the sake of brevity, I will mention only the most important choices and/or settings used by me (i.e., the options I found most useful for my specific teaching context). Refer to Appendices B, C, and D as necessary.

Provide Clear Directions

Firstly, like every formal examination, on-screen instructions must be up-front and plain to see to convey important information and set the "tone" of the task. WebClass allows an opening page to be displayed to users, before the exam itself begins (i.e., after pressing "Start"). This opening page allows for clear instructions to be conveyed to students as per the needs of the test or assessment task. See Appendix B for the most pertinent instructions that I found necessary, that can be displayed concisely on any screen size, and that I used for the TOEIC-like final examinations.

Set Accessible Period (Date)

Secondly, Appendix C shows some further settings that may be adjusted inside WebClass when creating an online assessment task. Under the section entitled "User Access Options" (at the top of Appendix C), the test maker can set the accessible period of the assessment task. I found it was crucial to restrict final examinations (such as this TOEIC-like examination) to the regular class timeslot (despite the teacher and students being off campus, in disparate remote locations). That is, teacher and students alike attend class (e.g., via videoconferencing) at the same time and take the test at the same time – just like they would do in their regular face-to-face classroom situation. Access outside of this period is not possible (unless deemed necessary by the test maker on a case-by-case basis).

Accessible One Time Only (Openable Once Only)

Thirdly, WebClass allows for the setting of an "access limit." Certain assessment tasks may not need any access limit whatsoever – such as a written report or book review. However, in the case of a final examination, an access limit of once only is preferred and appropriate. Thus, a test taker can only click "Start" and begin the test once (within the accessible period).

Assign Realistic Time Limits (TOEIC-Like Time Limits)

Fourthly, a test such as the TOEIC Listening and Reading examination has guidelines concerning the pace a test taker should move through each part of the test. Trew (2008) also provides guidelines for the maximum time per question for each part of the TOEIC Listening and Reading test (and this is the set textbook for the course being investigated in this paper). Thus, it is a relatively simple procedure to follow these guidelines and calculate the time needed for each section of a TOEIC-like test made and administered via WebClass, and to then set the time limits strictly within the LMS when assessment tasks are "live" for test takers.

Randomize Answer Options *and* Question Order

Fifthly, under the section entitled "Question Display Option" (see Appendix C), WebClass provides the test maker with the possibility to adjust the ordering of questions. Will each test taker view consistent or somewhat varied questions on-screen? I found that randomizing both the multiple-choice answer options *and* the order of questions for each test taker helped to prevent instances of cheating (in combination with all test takers accessing the test at the same time, with the tight time limits mentioned above).

Split the Test into Parts *and* Duplicate Them!

Finally, administration of an online final examination is vulnerable to certain complexities. Aside from the aforementioned possibility of cheating (should two or more test takers take the test in the same remote location at the same time – but beyond the gaze of their teacher), various technical problems may arise during test implementation. Possible problems include, but are not limited to, internet connection issues and battery-charge issues of various devices. For these reasons, I found it essential to divide larger-sized assessment items (such as final TOEIC-like examinations) into more manageable pieces and to then duplicate them. That is, all sections of larger assessment items are duplicated in advance of needing them; in other words, they are “back up” assessment items that remain “on the ready” – ready to be administered as needed on a case-by-case basis.

For further clarification, please see Appendix D. As shown under the section entitled “Final Examination,” this single TOEIC-like test has been split into the following (more-manageable) three sections:

GES1c SECTION 1 (TOEIC Parts 1 and 2 and Tips).
GES1c SECTION 2 (TOEIC Parts 3 and 4)
GES1c SECTION 3 (TOEIC Parts 5, 6, and 7)

In total, the above sections (1, 2, and 3) comprise one final TOEIC-like examination. Should a test taker experience any kind of test-taking hinderance or trouble, only the current part being attempted at that time would be adversely affected (not the whole exam). That is, the whole exam is not negatively impacted or, worse, the entire exam data are not lost completely.

Furthermore, in such unfortunate situations, duplicate parts can be prepared in advance and implemented immediately on the spot, as necessary. As shown in Appendix D, under the section entitled “Final Examination,” the following duplicate parts have been prepared for, in advance of needing them:

(TRY AGAIN!) GES1c SECTION 1 (TOEIC Parts 1 and 2 and Tips)
(TRY AGAIN!) GES1c SECTION 2 (TOEIC Parts 3 and 4)
(TRY AGAIN!) GES1c SECTION 3 (TOEIC Parts 5, 6, and 7)

In the particular instance depicted in Appendix D (N.B. a view from the test maker’s administration screen), a sum total of 38 students attempted the WebClass examination. As it happened, one of those students experienced some kind of trouble during the test. For that student, the duplicate version of Section 1 was opened and completed by that student – note the active (blue-colored) link entitled “(TRY AGAIN!) GES1c SECTION 1 (TOEIC Parts 1 and 2 and Tips).” The duplicated versions of Sections 2 and 3 were ready in waiting but were not needed (they remain grayed-out, i.e., invisible and inaccessible to all test takers) – note the inactive (gray-colored) links entitled "(TRY AGAIN!) GES1c SECTION 2 (TOEIC Parts 3 and 4)" and "(TRY AGAIN!) GES1c SECTION 3 (TOEIC Parts 5, 6, and 7)" as shown in Appendix D.

Test Design Principles

This section will briefly discuss some of the facets of sound test design and how I strived to make valid, reliable, and fair final assessment tasks in an LMS available to me at the time when classes were urgently converted to online modes of delivery. WebClass was chosen and used here for the purpose of implementing a realistic TOEIC-like examination in the online context.

Sound design principles that assessment tasks ought to embrace have been well noted in the literature (see Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Brown & Lee, 2015; Fulcher, 2010; Krug, 2008; Livingston, 2018; Wall, 2012). By following the suggestions made in this report, test makers and educators should be able to work with the strengths and limiting constraints of the LMS available to them in their teaching context; to make use of similar functions or options or methods; and to strive to administer valid, reliable, and practical assessment tasks.

Reliability

A reliable test is consistent and dependable. In terms of test reliability, the WebClass test discussed herein uses ETS-approved TOEIC-style questions (derived from Trew's [2008] ETS-approved textbook and practice tests, and from other official TOEIC practice tests). Each test item is accurate and of an appropriate and realistic real-world TOEIC-like difficulty level. Focusing on test administration reliability, the WebClass TOEIC test can be administered at an appropriate time. The test takers can take the test in an appropriate setting (e.g., a quiet classroom, a comfortable home, etc.). In the case of administration reliability problems (e.g., internet connection problems) or student-related reliability problems (e.g., a student is unwell), the test can be re-scheduled (in whole or in part) as necessary. In terms of scorer reliability, scoring of the WebClass TOEIC-like examination is consistent and dependable. There is not much subjectivity in scoring for this type of examination. That is, TOEIC questions are designed to have only one correct answer (or a clearly "best" answer). Thus, after careful input (and triple checking!), the test can be very accurately computer graded. Additionally, the computer can grade at any time, and for any number of tests (with consistent accuracy higher than a human grader in many instances, given that each test item has been carefully fed into the system).

Validity

A valid test measures what it is intended to measure. This WebClass test accurately and sufficiently measures the test taker for the objective of the test. In terms of content validity, the course builds grammatical skills and business

English vocabulary – all appropriate to the real-world TOEIC test. The course (and set textbook) provides strategies and advice to assist test takers when they sit the real-world TOEIC examination. The course develops familiarity with all parts of the TOEIC test. The test requires the learners to put those skills into practice in an authentic context (with a realistic TOEIC-like test and under realistic conditions, such as time constraints and volume of reading material). Focusing on face validity, the WebClass TOEIC-like test is testing what it claims to test. The test samples approved TOEIC test items (ETS-approved items). Thus, this test is a realistic TOEIC test to the test takers themselves. In terms of construct validity, the WebClass test is an adequate replication of a real-world TOEIC test. The test mirrors the same constructs that make up the TOEIC test, which Educational Testing Service (n.d.-b) discusses as being valid, reliable, and fair.

Authenticity

An authentic test task is one that is likely to be enacted in the real world. The WebClass TOEIC-like test replicates the real-world TOEIC examination – an examination that undergraduate test takers will likely encounter as part of their studies and/or as part of their job hunting endeavors before graduation.

Washback

Useful feedback should be provided to test takers, including their strengths or weaknesses. As a type of formal assessment, for this test there is minimal washback (it is a competitive test in nature that ranks test takers). However, following the quarter system with four terms per year (and therefore, four final TOEIC-like assessment tasks in WebClass), test takers sit a total of four equivalent tests throughout the academic year. In addition, they receive numerical scores for each individual section of the test (i.e., Sections 1, 2, and 3 of the example examination shown in Appendix D). Thus, test takers can monitor their own performance for each section (and the overall combined total). They can identify and work on their own areas of challenge. They can compare their own performance to the class average scores (also displayed in WebClass for test takers). The teacher can praise (and coach concerning identified weaknesses). Moreover, the teacher can focus students' attention on each test being a mini accomplishment in its own right – something students strive to complete to a high standard and strive to better themselves at in the future. The teacher can encourage more preparation before the next class test (or before the real-world TOEIC test). The teacher can stress the importance of an overall trend of improvement and familiarity over time (with WebClass TOEIC-like tests and with the real-world TOEIC examination itself). Always, the teacher can encourage test takers to seek clarification, as needed, about their grade or specific test (or textbook) items.

Practicality

A good test is practical. Practicality is a primary issue in the design of the

WebClass test outlined in this report. Such a test can fit within the time constraints of the class period and the course as a whole. It is deliverable to large numbers of students. It is easily administered (once it has been carefully created). After careful construction of all items, the test can be reliably graded automatically. As discussed previously, attempts to cheat can be thwarted or hindered. Importantly, sufficient measures can be taken to overcome problems that may arise during test implementation.

CONCLUSIONS

The value and quality of this TOEIC-like test are dependent upon the practical considerations mentioned in this report. The WebClass final examination discussed above provides a chance for test takers to practice a realistic TOEIC examination under TOEIC-like conditions in assorted, remote locations.

The author found that for such final assessment tasks to be reliable, valid, and authentic, there needs to be clear test-taking instructions provided to the test takers. The test has to restrict the accessible period (to be truly exam-like), with an accessibility limit of one attempt only permitted. The test has to be crafted in such a way that there is a realistic time limit (TOEIC-like time limit, in this case). To reduce the temptation or possibility of cheating, questions can be randomized in terms of answer options and question order (each test taker sitting the same test items, when all is said and done). Finally, dividing the test into more manageable parts, with duplicates at hand, allows for the staving off of possible problems before or as they arise during test implementation.

Moving all classes and final assessment items to an all-digital, online format forced me to look at what online tasks work well – what computers and learning management systems can do well. It forced me to consider testing more deeply and encouraged me to try to make more effective final assessment items in the online context. Even though WebClass is old-fashioned in design in some respects, it is quite detailed and offers a lot of scope for making various kinds of assessment items deliverable in an online format – with audiovisual and text elements in combination.

The author hopes that something from this brief demonstration and report can be of benefit to educators when contemplating the design and implementation of assessment items, wherever the classes may be and whatever the platform may be. In the future, further online tasks need to be explored and analyzed, including reflective feedback of the entire process from the points of view of both assessment creators and test takers.

THE AUTHOR

Nathan P. Krug is working in Japan as an English language educator. He is interested in the fields of sociolinguistics, learner autonomy, and CALL. With specific reference to CALL, Nathan is interested in the development of tasks and approaches that make the best possible use of the computer-mediated environment, particularly in terms of guiding students to use language productively, to negotiate meaning, and to extend critical reasoning skills. Email: nkrug(at)mail.saitama-u.ac.jp

References

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. (2010). *Language assessment in practice*. Oxford University Press.

Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (2015). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (4th ed.). Pearson Education.

Data Pacific (Japan). (2020). *WebClass*. https://www.datapacific.co.jp/webclass/index.html

Educational Testing Service. (n.d.-a). *About the TOEIC® listening and reading test*. https://www.ets.org/toeic/test-takers/listening-reading/about

Educational Testing Service. (n.d.-b). *The TOEIC program*. https://www.ets.org/toeic

Exam-Practice. (n.d.). *What is a good TOEIC score?* https://exam-practice.com/what-is-a-good-toeic-score/

Fulcher, G. (2010). *Practical language testing*. Routledge.

Google. (n.d.). *Google workspace for education*. https://edu.google.com/intl/en_ALL/workspace-for-education/classroom/

Krug, N. P. (2008). Sound principles of subjective assessment: A focus on language learning. *Ritsumeikan Higher Educational Studies*, *8*, 175–185. http://www.ritsumei.ac.jp/acd/ac/kyomu/cer/kanko/kiyo8/11_N_P_Krug.pdf

Livingston, S. A. (2018). *Test reliability: Basic concepts* (Research Memorandum ETS RM–18-01). Educational Testing Service.

PowerSchool. (n.d.). *Schoology learning*. https://www.powerschool.com/solutions/unified-classroom/schoology-learning/

Trew, G. (2008). *Tactics for TOEIC: Listening and reading test*. Oxford University Press.

Wall, D. (2012). *Washback*. Routledge.

WHO. (2020, March 11). WHO Director-General's opening remarks at the media briefing on COVID-19 – 11 March 2020. *World Health Organization (WHO)*. https://www.who.int/director-general/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-media-briefing-on-covid-19---11-march-2020

APPENDIX A

Sample of Set Textbook (Trew, 2008)

3 Listening Test Part 3 Conversations

Unit 3

A

Focus: Skimming to predict the context before listening

The questions and answer choices in this part of the test can help you predict what you are going to hear. Using the time available to skim them before listening will help you to identify the key parts of the conversation.

Test tip

Predicting the context of the conversation can make the listening easier

Use the key information in the answer choices to make a rough guess about what you are going to hear.

unit 3

1 Language building: Paraphrasing

Match the statements 1–4 with those with a similar meaning a–d.

1. You can run it with an AC adapter	a The adapter is missing
2. Look to see if they have the item	b Buy the part
3. The part wasn't included	c Check the parts stock
4. Purchase an adapter	d You can plug it into a socket
5.	e Provide a replacement
6.	f The label is incorrect
7.	g It's an expensive model

Follow up: Now listen to three more statements, 5–7, and match them with the remaining three phrases with a similar meaning in e–g.

2 Test tactic: Pick out key words to predict the context

A Skim the questions and answer choices and underline key words (10–15 seconds per item). Compare with a partner and discuss what the conversation may be about. Try to predict who and where the speakers are.

1. What does the woman want to do?
   (A) Buy batteries for her CD player
   (B) Purchase an adapter
   (C) Have a missing part replaced
   (D) Check the part is in stock

2. What does the man tell her?
   (A) It doesn't run on batteries.
   (B) The label is incorrect.
   (C) The adapter isn't included.
   (D) She should buy another model.

3. What does the man offer to do?
   (A) Order the item
   (B) Check the box label
   (C) Give her a new model
   (D) Include the adapter

B Focus on the answer choices as you listen. Mark the best answer. Guess if you aren't sure, and then move on to the next question.

1	A	B	C	D
2	A	B	C	D
3	A	B	C	D

B Mini-test

Now practice what you have learnt at the actual test speed with questions 1–12.

> Use any time available to skim the questions and answer choices before the first listening starts. When you finish answering the questions about one conversation, immediately start previewing the questions for the next conversation.

1. What does the man want the woman to do?
- (A) Visit some customers
- (B) Send some packages
- (C) Attend a meeting
- (D) Give him some names

2. What is the man's problem?
- (A) He cannot find the post office.
- (B) He has to buy a present.
- (C) He does not know the woman's address.
- (D) He is late for a meeting.

3. What does the woman request?
- (A) A list of addresses
- (B) The time of a delivery
- (C) The location of a meeting
- (D) A map of the city

4. What does the woman want?
- (A) To share a ride
- (B) To go shopping
- (C) To borrow Eric's car
- (D) To look at new cars

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Unit 3 | **Listening Test** Part 3 **17**

- (D) Drive the woman to the central office

7. What does the man suggest the woman should do?
- (A) Visit the theater
- (B) Move her vehicle
- (C) Lock her car
- (D) Enter the building

8. What does the woman ask?
- (A) Directions to a city park
- (B) Assistance reading a sign
- (C) Information about a theater
- (D) The location of available parking

- (C) It does not keep time correctly.
- (D) It is expensive to repair.

11. What will cause a delay?
- (A) There is a problem with the battery.
- (B) A strap must be ordered.
- (C) New watches have not yet arrived.
- (D) The watch must be sent out of town.

12. When will the watch finally be ready?
- (A) On Monday
- (B) On Tuesday
- (C) On Wednesday
- (D) On Thursday

Unit 3

1	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	7	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ
2	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	8	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ
3	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	9	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ
4	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	10	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ
5	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	11	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ
6	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	12	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ

APPENDIX B

Provide Clear Directions

GES1c SECTION 2 (TOEIC Parts 3and4)

*** THIS IS AN EXAMINATION ***
(1.) The use of dictionaries, textbooks, phones, websites or other unauthorized aids is PROHIBITED.
(2.) Do NOT record, save or copy this exam.
(3.) Cheating during an examination amounts to an abandonment of one's own right to learning and will result in a student's DISQUALIFICATION from study.

*** これは試験です ***
(1.) 辞書、教科書、電話、ウェブサイト、その他の認められていない補助教材の使用は禁止されています。
(2.) 本試験の録画、保存、コピーはしないでください。
(3.) 試験中の不正行為は、自己の学習する権利を放棄したものであり、失格となります。

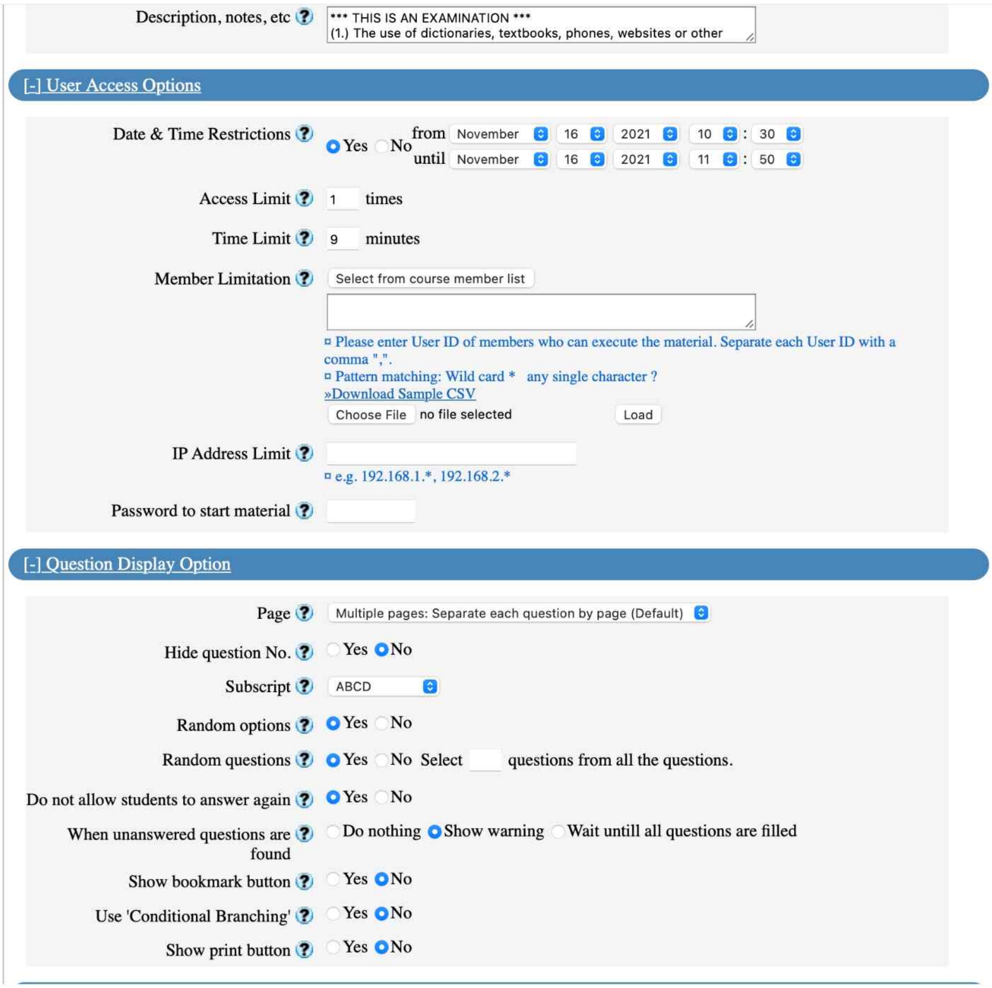
Please note the following: 以下の点に注意してください:

¤ Passing Score [11Point]
¤ The number of operations allowed [1 time(s)]
¤ Time Limit [9 minutes]
¤ After moving on to the next question, you can't answer already-answered questions.
¤ Valid Period(d/m/y) [11/16/2021 13:30 - 11/16/2021 14:50]
¤ Course Manager can access unlimited times

Start Quit

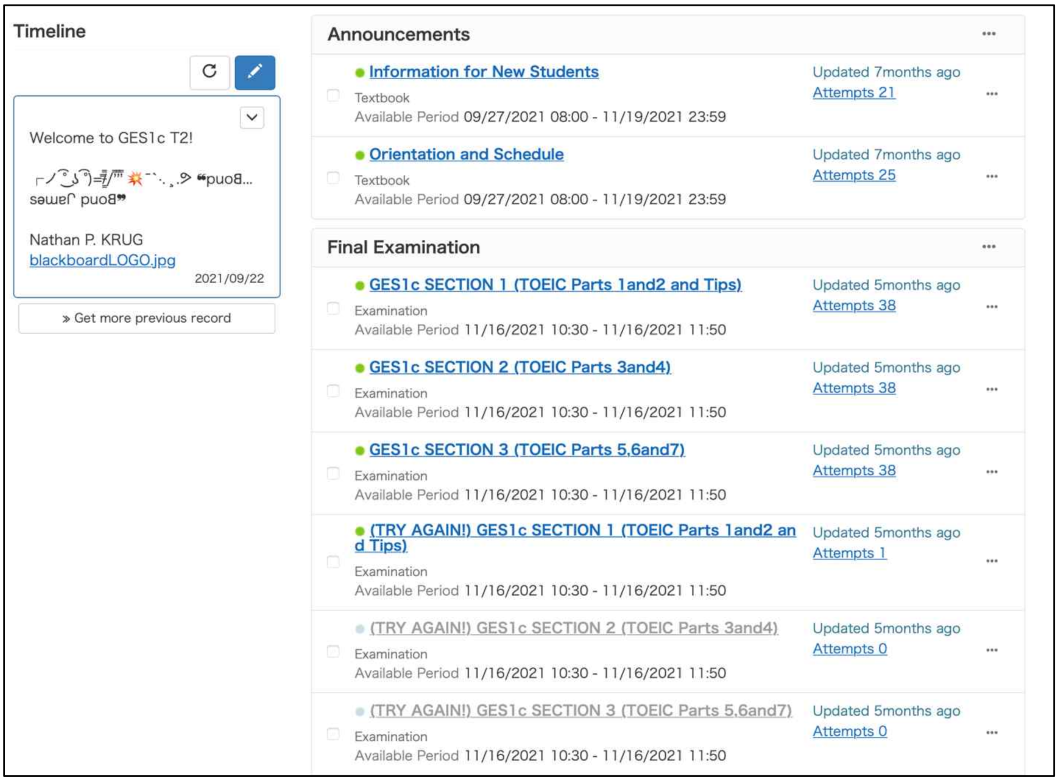
APPENDIX C

WebClass' User Access Options and Question Display Options



APPENDIX D

Manageable Parts and Ready-to-Go Duplicates



CALL After COVID: Asynchronous e-Learning in Higher Education

David P. McCurrach
Kwansei Gakuin University, Nishinomiya, Japan

Due to both a falling level of English proficiency in Japan as well as the COVID-19 pandemic, asynchronous online English as a foreign language (EFL) learning has received renewed research interest in higher education (HE). From researching the advancements in EFL e-learning, the author argues that whenever the pandemic abates, asynchronous platforms should be continued to be used in conjunction with traditional HE EFL classroom teaching. Since learning ought to focus on increased interactions between speakers, educators should increase the use of tools that promote learning inside and outside the classroom. This paper focuses particularly on exploring the strengths of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), as it increases agency and interactions through location-independent learning, autonomy, self-efficacy, and collaborative learning. This is exemplified in the e-learning app Flipgrid, as it encapsulates the advantages of MALL.

INTRODUCTION

An abrupt and seismic educational shift occurred in 2020; due to the COVID-19 pandemic, students of the world were forced to undertake their studies remotely through the internet. Likewise, with the severe disruption to the pedagogical status quo, teachers across the globe scrambled to maintain a semblance of normality by offering online lessons. In higher education (HE), some disciplines translocated to the new environment more successfully than others; more lecture-heavy programs could be provided through recordings, and student questions abated via email.

Yet, for more practical HE programs, such as EFL (English as a foreign language) courses, this proved more problematic. Fundamental to language learning is the degree of exposure to the L2 (non-native language), meaning beginning EFL early and learning with high regularity is crucial (Larson-Hall, 2008). Repeated L2 exposure is bolstered through the negotiation of meaning (Long, 1983), as students need to create output to efficiently retain knowledge to learn effectively, particularly with regards to speaking (Chenoweth et al., 2006). With COVID-19-related classroom restrictions and a lack of in-person tuition, a student's ability to create verbal output is limited. Although synchronous platforms such as Zoom promise a real-time online classroom solution, a combination of hardware issues, increased fatigue or anxiety from both teachers and students (Wiederhold, 2020) pushed the present author to consider asynchronous solutions to meet this language output goal for his students. Such solutions provide students with lower speaking confidence to plan their responses, allow for text and oral communication, and gives additional time to avoid dealing with potential hardware issues.

Although the possibility of COVID-19 abating at the time of writing is unclear, students will undoubtedly gradually return to traditional face-to-face classrooms, and the prominence of e-learning platforms in their current state seems all but inevitable to wane. However, neglecting the potential of asynchronous learning in the EFL sphere might be a mistake; instead, this study proposes that they can quite easily be integrated into traditional tuition as a regular homework exercise using smartphones as part of a blended learning course.

To corroborate this, a case will be made in this paper by investigating the origins of e-learning and its evolution into location-independent technology. Through this, the autonomous, self-efficacy, and collaborative advantages they purport will be explored, and finally, the Microsoft platform, Flipgrid, will be highlighted, since it shows signs of incorporating these fundamental concepts.

Computer-Aided Language Learning

To begin with, however, it is important to establish clarity in the e-learning space, and how it has evolved into, and dictated, the status quo. The overarching area guiding L2 e-learning research is computer-aided language learning (CALL). It can simply be described as "the use of a computer in the teaching or learning of a second or foreign language" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 110). The multimodal nature of CALL perhaps explains the recent surge of interest: a symptomatic shift displaying "the growing salience of non-linguistic forms of communication" (Nelson, 2006, p. 57), which can include significant learning advantages (Mayer, 2019).

Bridging the CALL Divide

However, blindly mandating CALL initiatives would be a fruitless endeavor unless teachers and students are willing to adopt technology as part of their teaching and learning. This is illustrated through Prensky's (2001) widely cited "digital natives" and "digital immigrants" paper, which highlighted that learners who have grown up with technology (digital natives) "think and process information fundamentally differently" (p. 1) compared to the majority of their teachers (digital immigrants). The latter are teachers without this digital upbringing, and with an accompanying reluctance to use it in the classroom, resulting in a divide between teacher and student. While the age of Prensky's paper belies the fact that many digital native learners have become digital native teachers themselves, simply adopting technology without being aware of current trends might be an insufficient bridge to effective CALL practice.

In other cases, teachers may lament the inability to directly control student learning through a digital medium, which misaligns their ideals with student-centeredness (Reinders & White, 2016). For example, when tasked to decide on using a tablet (an iPad) to use in a university context, one study highlighted that teachers preferred larger devices as they matched the size of A4 paper; students, in contrast, gave preference to the smaller tablet as they were more portable (Runnels & Rutson-Griffiths, 2013). Ultimately, teachers not only need to adapt to the digital needs of their students continually, but they also need to fully understand the learning advantages technology affords, which is why more attention should be given to the platforms and devices that they use.

The Shift to MALL

In more recent years, attention is being paid to these portable devices due to their increasingly versatile nature. Part of this is owed to “Web 2.0,” an evolution of the internet seen in the mid-2000s that, according to Franklin and Van Harmelen (2007), saw an increase in internet speeds, user-generated content and participation, mobile communication usage, “always-on” computing, and the rise of social media platforms. This was assisted by lower barriers of entry, such as technical prowess compared to computers, which allowed for mass adoption (Akiyoshi & Ono, 2008).

For language learning, the transition to Web 2.0 prompted the emergence of a subgenre of CALL: mobile-assisted language learning (MALL). MALL distinguishes itself by removing the constraints set by CALL to freely allow learning to occur at any place or time (Burston, 2013). This liberation also allows for student-centered learning that creates better contextualization and encourages authentic language use (Al-Shehri, 2011). One can imagine, for example, an EFL lesson whereby a teacher provides students with GPS coordinates to a location to record a video and annotate what they see by using their smartphones. This unobstructed facilitation of the environment as an embedded system is one of the goals of MALL: to be part of “a constant and seamless lifestyle ... operating more and more in the background, invisibly and automatically” (McCartney et al., 2017, p. 6).

While few can dispute the versatility of the smartphone for learning, the small physical dimensions of the screen and reliance on touch-based input can inhibit the creation of engaging learning activities (Stockwell, 2016). Indeed, larger screens with clearer audio are undoubtedly more likely to engage students, but then, convenience of mobility is curtailed. Objections are also raised with regards to touch input versus pen or pencil for learning, since the physical nature of books has a definite advantage in terms of spatial memory – a study of the use of tablets versus books made it clear that the lack of physical space in digital media impeded memory with regards to chronology and recall of story events (Mangen et al., 2019). For EFL, this means that the use of digital materials in lieu of regular textbooks is unlikely to be effective.

Ultimately, e-learning idealism ought to be met with caution: Anticipating technology to “get better” despite current shortcomings is a fallacy. Failed e-learning implementations are numerous (e.g., Joshi et al., 2010; Nakano & Nakayama, 2019; Njenga & Fourie, 2010) and only serve as expensive wastes of time that deter future initiatives, however promising they initially may seem. Hence before any consideration of e-learning adoption such as that proposed in this study, a thorough understanding of the key benefits of CALL and MALL needs to be realized.

E-LEARNING ADVANTAGES

Learner Autonomy

The first of these benefits that necessitate inquiry falls under the umbrella of motivation. Generally purported to be a key predictor of successful second language acquisition (Dörnyei, 1997), in an online e-learning environment, it is especially crucial for students. After all, learning remotely, while undoubtedly convenient, also requires discipline. It also brings with it the opportunity for distractions and procrastination, which can lead to poor attainment and missed deadlines (Sadeghi, 2019). Opponents of technology would quickly attribute blame to portable devices such as smartphones. However, while Ishii (2011) found a correlation between poor school grades and high mobile phone use in Japanese junior high school students, it was shown to be more a result of motivation control than the adverse effects of the phones themselves. It can be surmised that it is the lack of motivation that causes students to overuse such devices, rather than the devices themselves being the source of demotivation.

In fact, motivation has become a somewhat synonymous component of EFL (Oxbrow & Juárez, 2010), but it is questionable how the term can be applied equally in different learning environments, that is, classroom versus online. Motivation is complex, covering more than the typical extrinsic and intrinsic strata, involving more dynamic factors (Tuan, 2012), and it is outside the scope of this paper to address its various facets. However, with regards to e-learning and MALL, perhaps the most crucial motivational component is autonomy. After all, "online learning is a highly learner-autonomous process in which the student accepts the responsibility to make learning decisions and maintain active control of the learning process" (Yen & Liu, 2019, p. 348).

Autonomy is largely an inherent aspect of educational technology; however, it ought not to be confused with self-instruction, since with distance between students, a teacher transitions from a central role to a more supportive one (Popescu & Cohen-Vida, 2014). This control of learning also brings with it the decision-making of learning techniques (Oxbrow & Juárez, 2010). E-learning only makes this simpler, as task completion and learning goals can be displayed numerically through automatically generated data.

One metric to note in particular is engagement time. Lee and Tsai (2011) argued that simply measuring online engagement is a strong indicator of self-regulated learning. They assessed the amount of time spent on the internet, and it positively correlated to their online course success. Yen and Liu (2009) similarly found that online learner autonomy was a high predictor of course completion and higher grades that allowed them to give specific recommendations relevant to the course.

Self-Efficacy

A second key e-learning advantage, self-efficacy, may be confused with autonomy, but they are quite distinct. While autonomy relates to the control of learning afforded to a student, self-efficacy relates to their belief in success. Ponton (1999) further clarified that learner autonomy is a construct that exists as a *cognitive* learner domain, whereas autonomous learning is the resulting cognitive *expression*.

Anxiety with regards to unfamiliar technology is still common despite the prevalence of the technology in society. Self-efficacy is directly correlated to anxiety, given that steps to reduce anxiety in students positively impact the degree to which an e-learning platform is used (Saadé & Kira, 2009). Self-efficacy has, of course, a significant role in language acquisition, which Bandura (1993) argues is key to regulating learning and thus their overall academic achievement. In a meta study, Raoofi et al. (2012) determined that a variation of learning strategies, contextual variables (e.g., location and experience) and emotional intelligence were the most cited factors influencing EFL self-efficacy. Saadé and Kira (2009) highlighted that the likelihood of a learner using an e-learning platform is generally determined by both their attitude towards the system as well as the perception of its ease of use. This means that self-efficacy is correlated to system accessibility, which is an especially critical consideration for the type of online environments that are the target of this study, where help is less readily available.

There are several cognitive theories used to measure self-efficacy. One is expectancy–value theory (EVT), a model which proposes that how much a task is valued, in addition to the degree of success expectation, influences the amount of time spent on the task and the learner's overall success (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). This would imply that if participants view an e-learning platform as a valuable tool that will improve their English, then they ought to spend more time on the platform.

Collaboration

As topics of investigation, self-efficacy and learner autonomy complement each other because they focus on the individual learner, but language learning is also a social phenomenon and thus cannot be ignored. Vygotsky (1978) considered the learning process as part of a "zone of proximal development," or a means of cognitive restructuring through scaffolded learning. Language learning through collaborative tasks increases this scaffolding through interactions with others. This dictates the need for investigation for the current study with regards to collaboration, the third and final key area.

Swain (2000) viewed collaboration in EFL as increasing opportunities for constant reflection from utterances, resulting in "problem-solving, and hence knowledge-building" (p. 113). When language learners create misunderstandings, they need corrections via clarification requests, which provide them with new input that, in turn, can generate new output (Yilmaz, 2011). In the classroom, this can happen through both teacher and student corrections, which ultimately promote knowledge and utilization of the target language.

Online collaboration facilitates the key Web 2.0 and MALL construct of promoting location-independent communication, allowing for further opportunities to increase L2 output. Online L2 communities can be formed where learners can exchange messages, questions, and videos (McCarty et al., 2017).

One type of online platform that might be thought of as "real time" or "live" is Zoom, which allows for instantaneous collaboration. As previously mentioned, such platforms bring technical and logistical challenges, which is why asynchronous platforms are still popular; in fact, the majority of online courses center on text-based discussions (Lowenthal & Moore, 2020). This isn't stated to diminish the effectiveness of such courses, since some studies highlight online text-based language learning as still being beneficial (e.g., Davis & Thiede, 2000; Kotter, 2006; McCarty et al., 2017;), but rather to point out that the medium of instruction evolved little until the COVID-19 pandemic, and this is why video-based asynchronous platforms have grown in popularity. This is because they allow for both written and spoken means of collaboration while being unconstrained by immediate connection or hardware difficulties that plague synchronous online classrooms.

However, due to this convenience, online class sizes may be increased. Teachers with many students may struggle with giving constant individual feedback, which is why collaboration through peer review is valuable. Aydin and Yildiz (2014) showed that online EFL collaboration promoted a co-construction of knowledge that allowed them to scaffold and learn from each other. Giving opinions and solving problems collaboratively gave students more opportunities for giving and receiving feedback, increasing their L2 output. Lan et al. (2007) also argued that MALL-based reading activities increased collaborative skills, reduced anxiety in EFL, and enhanced oral reading confidence. It must be admitted that asynchronous collaboration does not provide instantaneous feedback akin to speaking, which would facilitate better scaffolding. However, it does allow students to plan their answers carefully and allow more introverted students another avenue for communication. Besides, Lee and Tsai's (2011) study showed that engagement time with the e-learning platform also positively correlated to an increase in collaboration, suggesting that an examination of data provided by the platform would be highly insightful.

FLIPGRID

Given that autonomy, self-efficacy, and collaboration are determining factors of a successful e-learning platform, Flipgrid was chosen, as it shows strong signs of supporting these factors. As per the official description, "Flipgrid is a video discussion platform that helps educators see and hear from every student in class and foster a fun and supportive social learning environment" (Microsoft, 2021). It allows teachers to create classes and distribute video questions or assignments, which students reply to in pre-recorded video form. Flipgrid incorporates social media functions such as "liking" other videos, commenting either by video or text, and displaying the number of views. Videos can be further customized with "stickers," photos, and music. Flipgrid can be accessed from any PC with a webcam, but due to smartphones being the preferred method to access the internet in Japan (Akiyoshi & Ono, 2008) and since portability and convenience are key advantages to MALL over CALL, students are encouraged to exclusively use Flipgrid on their smartphones. Flipgrid has been integrated as part of all courses that the author has taught for several semesters.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, it is unsurprising that EFL-based research has focused on online platforms, including Flipgrid. In a study by Budiarta and Santosa (2020), the researchers found that speaking performance, collaboration, and creativity were increased through the use of the app. Noting that the platform emphasized oral communication, Tuyet and Khang (2020) also found that Flipgrid reduced speaking anxiety and increased motivation in Vietnamese students. Peterson et al. (2020) found that students engaged positively with the platform and that it could easily be incorporated into existing learning management systems. Innes (2020) found positivity concerning the social media and platform-specific features of Flipgrid, but technical problems and embarrassment were highlighted as negative characteristics. Pickering (2021) found that while e-learning platforms were useful in promoting a CALL pedagogy, Japanese teachers felt they were inadequate in replacing in-person classes. This is, perhaps unsurprising, why the author contends the usage of asynchronous apps like Flipgrid be limited to homework activities.

Conclusions

Ultimately, the wealth of CALL and MALL research suggests that asynchronous platforms such as Flipgrid would be beneficial for second language learners, even in lieu of a pandemic that heavily promoted their use. The CALL concepts of autonomy, self-efficacy, and collaboration are further enhanced by the location independence and convenience that MALL facilitates, and solutions such as Flipgrid exemplify this. Naturally, adoption is dependent upon instructors and course planners, and technical challenges will no doubt persist. However, by being used as part of a blended-learning course, asynchronous e-learning apps will prove themselves to be highly useful to EFL learners. A future study could more thoroughly evaluate engagement time to assess autonomy and collaboration between students and assess self-efficacy more comprehensively through questionnaires.

The Author

David P. McCurrach is an English as a foreign language instructor and researcher at Kwansei Gakuin University, School of Economics, Japan. He holds a BA from Durham University, an MA in TESOL from the University of Nottingham, and is currently a doctoral student at the University of Bath, where he specializes in educational research. His interests include computer-assisted language learning (CALL), corpus linguistics, and virtual reality learning environments (VRLEs). Email: davidm@kwansei.ac.jp

References

Akiyoshi, M., & Ono, H. (2008). The diffusion of mobile Internet in Japan. *The Information Society*, *24*(5), 292-303.

Al-Shehri, S. (2011). Mobile social networking in language learning: A transformational tool. *International Journal of Mobile Learning and Organisation*, *5*(3/4), 345–359.

Aydın, Z., & Yıldız, S. (2014). Using wikis to promote collaborative EFL writing. *Language Learning and Technology*, *18*(1), 160–180.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning.

Educational Psychologist, *28*(2), 117–148.

Budiarta, I. K., & Santosa, M. H. (2020). TPS-Flipgrid: Transforming EFL speaking class in the 21st century. *English Review*: *Journal of English Education*, *9*(1), 13–20.

Burston, J. (2013). Mobile-assisted language learning: A selected annotated bibliography of implementation studies 1994–2012. *Language Learning and Technology*, *17*(3), 157–225.

Chenoweth, N. A., Jones, C. M., & Tucker, G. R. (2006). Language online: Principles of design and methods of assessment. In R. P. Donaldson & M. A. Haggstrom (Eds.), *Changing language education through CALL* (pp. 147–167). Routledge.

Davis, B., & Thiede, R. (2000). Writing into change: Style shifting in asynchronous electronic discourse. In M. Warschauer & R. Kern (Eds.), *Network-based language teaching*: *Concepts and practice* (pp. 87–120). Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (1997). Motivational factors in second language attainment: A review of research in Hungary. *Acta Linguistica Hungarica*, *44*(3), 261–275.

Franklin, T., & Harmelen, M. V. (2007). *Web 2.0 for content for learning and teaching in higher education*. https://staff.blog.ui.ac.id/harrybs/files/2008/10/web-2-for-content-for-learning-and-teaching-in-higher-education.pdf

Innes, A. (2020). Student evaluation of Flipgrid at a Japanese university: Embarrassment and connection. *Lublin Studies in Modern Languages and Literature*, *44*(3), 151–166.

Ishii, K. (2011). Examining the adverse effects of mobile phone use among Japanese adolescents. *Keio Communication Review*, *33*(33), 69–83.

Joshi, A., Pan, A., Murakami, M., & Narayanan, S. (2010). Role of computers in educating young children: US and Japanese teachers' perspectives. *Computers in the Schools*, *27*(1), 5–19.

Kötter, M. (2006). Language education and networked online environments (MOOs). In R. D. Donaldson & M. A. Haggstrom (Eds.), *Changing language education through CALL* (pp. 169–196). Routledge.

Lan, Y. J., Sung, Y. T., & Chang, K. E. (2009). Let us read together: Development and evaluation of a computer-assisted reciprocal early English reading system. *Computers and Education*, *53*(4), 1188–1198.

Larson-Hall, J. (2008). Weighing the benefits of studying a foreign language at a younger starting age in a minimal input situation. *Second Language Research*, *24*(1), 35–63.

Lee, S. W. Y., & Tsai, C. C. (2011). Students' perceptions of collaboration, self-regulated learning, and information seeking in the context of internet-based learning and traditional learning. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *27*(2), 905–914.

Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*(2), 126–141.

Lowenthal, P. R., & Moore, R. L. (2020). Exploring student perceptions of Flipgrid in online courses. *Online Learning*, *24*(4), 28–41.

Mangen, A., Olivier, G., & Velay, J. L. (2019). Comparing comprehension of a long text read in print book and on Kindle: Where in the text and when in the story? *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*, Article 38. http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00038

Mayer, R. E. (2019). How multimedia can improve learning and instruction. In J. Dunlosky & K. A. Rawson (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of cognition and education* (pp. 460–479). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108235631.019

McCarty, S., Obari, H., & Sato, T. (2017). *Implementing mobile language learning technologies in Japan*. Springer Singapore.

Microsoft, (2021). *What is Flipgrid? Engage and amplify with Flipgrid*. Available at: https://education.microsoft.com/en-us/course/45068800/0

Nakano, Y., & Nakayama, Y. (2019). Tough situation of teachers in information technology in Japanese junior and senior high schools. In *The IAFOR International Conference*

on Education–Hawaii 2019. https://papers.iafor.org/submission45019/
Nelson, M. E. (2006). Mode, meaning, and synaesthesia in multimedia L2 writing. *Language Learning and Technology*, *10*(2), 56–76.
Njenga, J. K., & Fourie, L. C. H. (2010). The myths about e-learning in higher education. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *41*(2), 199–212.
Oxbrow, G., & Rodríguez Juárez, C. (2010). Language learning motivation and learner autonomy: Bridging the gap. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses*, *61*(November 2010), 57–72.
Petersen, J. B., Townsend, S. D., & Onak, N. (2020). Utilizing Flipgrid application on student smartphones in a small-scale ESL study. *English Language Teaching*, *13*(5), 164–176.
Pickering, B. (2021). From class to screen: Educator perspectives on the transition to virtual classroom teaching in Japanese universities during a global pandemic. 金沢星稜大学人文学研究 [*Kanazawa Seiryo University Bulletin of the Humanities*], *5*(1), 33–42.
Ponton, M. K. (1999). *The measurement of an adult's intention to exhibit personal initiative in autonomous learning*. George Washington University.
Popescu, A. V., & Cohen-Vida, M. I. (2014). Communication strategies for developing the learner’s autonomy. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *116*, 3489–3493.
Prensky, M. (2001). Digital natives, digital immigrants, Part 2: Do they really think differently? *On the Horizon*, *9*(6), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1108/10748120110424843
Raoofi, S., Tan, B. H., & Chan, S. H. (2012). Self-efficacy in second/foreign language learning contexts. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(11), 60–73.
Reinders, H., & White, C. (2016). 20 years of autonomy and technology: How far have we come and where to next? *Language Learning and Technology*, *20*(2), 143–154.
Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2013). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. Routledge.
Runnels, J., & Rutson-Griffiths, A. (2013). Tablet PCs in a paperless classroom: Student and teacher perceptions on screen size. *JALT CALL Journal*, *9*(3), 275–285.
Saadé, R. G., & Kira, D. (2009). Computer anxiety in e-learning: The effect of computer self-efficacy. *Journal of Information Technology Education*: *Research*, *8*(1), 177–191.
Sadeghi, M. (2019). A shift from classroom to distance learning: Advantages and limitations. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, *4*(1), 80–88.
Stockwell, G. (2016). Mobile language learning. In *The Routledge handbook of language learning and technology* (pp. 322–333). Routledge.
Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97–114). Oxford University Press.
Tuan, L. T. (2012). An empirical research into EFL learners’ motivation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(3), 430–439.
Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Socio-cultural theory. *Mind in society*, *6*(3), 23–43.
Wiederhold, B. K. (2020). Connecting through technology during the coronavirus disease 2019 pandemic: Avoiding “Zoom fatigue.” *Cyberpsychology*, *Behavior*, *and Social Networking*, *23*(7), 437–438.
Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy–value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 68–81.
Yen, C. J., & Liu, S. (2009). Learner autonomy as a predictor of course success and final grades in community college online courses. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, *41*(3), 347–367.
Yilmaz, Y. (2011). Task effects on focus on form in synchronous computer-mediated communication. *The Modern Language Journal*, *95*(1), 115–132.

The Power of Obsidian: A Digital Approach to Note-Taking

Michael Walker
Asia University, Tokyo, Japan

Note-taking is a skill that is recognized as essential for knowledge-building, yet at the same time is often neglected in terms of formalized teaching methodology. This is particularly prevalent in English-for-academic-purposes contexts, in which many curriculums fail to implement a systemized and effective approach to this skill. The repercussions are significant, resulting in substandard essays and presentations being submitted by students who have not received the necessary training to organize their learning or structure their thinking. This paper will begin by exploring the importance of note-taking, followed by an exploration of an associative linking system called Zettelkasten. The final section of the paper will introduce the powerful note-taking application Obsidian, which provides a digitized approach to smart notes and will aid teachers and students alike in optimizing the thinking process.

INTRODUCTION

Note-taking has long been recognized as a necessary skill in the field of academia. This is due to its wide array of benefits such as improved comprehension, increased memory retention, and maintaining an organized record of learning (Kneale, 1998; Laidlaw et al., 1993). Additionally, notes are useful not only when they are recorded but also become the basis for even greater comprehension and recall when later reviewed (Helgesen et al., 1996). Finally, the compound effect of developing a systemized approach to knowledge-building leads to a greater level of self-efficacy, which research has shown is a reliable indicator of academic success (Wernersbach, et al., 2014).

In the fields of both ESL and EFL, note-taking also addresses comprehension and vocabulary challenges unique to students studying in a second language. The ability to simultaneously capture content and write down unfamiliar phrases that can be referenced post-class offers a concrete learning strategy for language improvement (Tsai & Wu, 2010). Furthermore, note-taking provides a viable solution to the weak quality of writing commonly found amongst students composing content in a second language. This is particularly evident in an English-for-academic-purposes (EAP) context where the combination of limited academic vocabulary and poor critical thinking skills often result in essays that lack appropriate structure and cohesion. Although this issue is by no means confined to non-native speakers, it is certainly symptomatic of the difficulties faced by language learners when attempting to translate their thoughts into coherent communication.

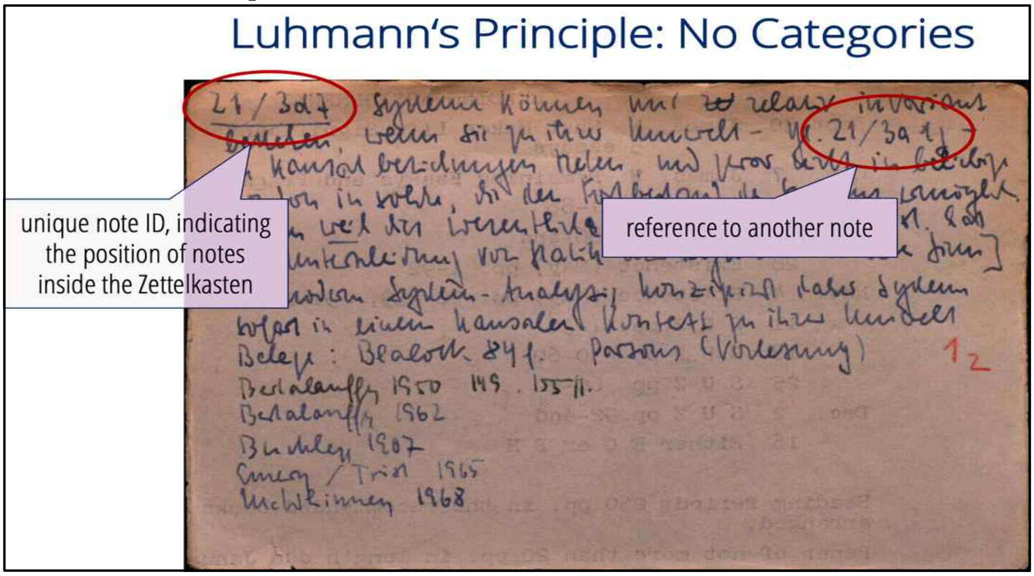
THE ZETTELKASTEN NOTE-TAKING SYSTEM

Whilst comprehension and knowledge retention are the primary focus of many note-taking systems, the Zettelkasten method incorporates an alternative objective. It was designed not just as a memory retention tool but more predominantly as a way of finding connections between disparate ideas that could then be developed into written content.

FIGURE 1. An Example of the Zettelkasten Note-Taking System

A Zettelkasten, which literally translates to “slip box,” is simply a physical container that holds cards on which notes are taken (see Figure 1). The Zettelkasten system was developed by Niklas Luhmann, a twentieth-century German sociologist whose prolific publishing record derived from the vast collection of ideas he recorded over his lifetime (Ahrens, 2017). What made his system different to other academics was the way he developed ideas in interconnected groups by linking each note to an index code. As can be seen in Figure 2, Luhmann would give each card a number and then use that as a reference to other cards, thereby building a network of interrelated notes (Lü decke, 2015).

FIGURE 2. An Example of Luhmann's Card Annotation



Once the card was written, Luhmann would then file it in a box arranged by similar areas of interest. Within each box, further classification took place in the form of keywords. Subsequently, individual ideas would build into an interlinked cluster of information that provided raw material to generate content.

Whether by design or otherwise, by creating a system that went beyond note-taking as simply a record of learning to one intended to highlight connections, Luhmann was in fact replicating the workings of the human brain (Cevolini, 2018). A Zettelkasten, therefore, in its broader meaning, is a methodology for thinking that subsequently lends itself to written output.

WHY NOTES ARE IMPORTANT FOR GENERATING TEXT

As previously mentioned, one of the biggest challenges facing non-native students is the process of writing in English. This often relates to language deficiencies and the inability to adopt appropriate modes of register, both of which are key areas in writing courses. Hyland (2016), in discussing the process by which students attain academic literacy, claimed that because academic competency is so often determined by the skill shown in writing, "writing instruction often becomes an exercise in 'fixing up' language problems" (p. 39).

However, beyond the linguistic and stylistic limitations is an even greater consideration that rarely gets addressed: that of knowledge-building, particularly for those going through an EAP course. This is primarily due to the interdisciplinary learning environment found in EAP curriculums where language skills are developed through topic-based study. Students are, therefore, not only contending with linguistic issues but also gaps in general knowledge and cultural awareness.

To manage this effectively, EAP students require a system that not only caters to their language needs but also accommodates the gathering of information. If no such system is in place, prior learning is mostly forgotten, and every time an output task is required, the student is essentially starting from a "blank page." As a way of compensating for their missing knowledge reservoir, many try to generate ideas by brainstorming, which is an ineffective way of beginning the writing process, particularly in an academic context where content is heavily dependent on research (Ahrens, 2017). Therefore, a record of learning that promotes knowledge-building, tracks source material, and connects disparate ideas that can be applied to critical thinking is essential for any student looking to develop quality academic writing.

OBSIDIAN - A DIGITIZED NOTE-TAKING SYSTEM

Having established the importance of taking notes, the next issue is how to apply note-taking to a digitized context. Students in today's learning environments are heavily dependent on technology and subsequently require a format that allows for notes to be taken on electronic devices. For methods such as the Cornell method or Outlining, this is a relatively straightforward process that can easily be done in any number of applications. However, having a tool that operates on the same principles as Luhmann's original Zettelkasten is less common and requires a more specialized program. Some of the applications that have been developed to meet this need include Roam Research, Microsoft OneNote, and Evernote, to name a few. However, the one that caters most effectively to the goal of linking ideas together is Obsidian.

Obsidian is a knowledge storing system that uses markdown language, which is essentially a stripped-down language that computers employ for writing and formatting plain text documents. Obsidian uses markdown language as opposed to the more convenient formatting tools used with applications such as Word and Google Docs so that files can be stored on a local folder. This means that all the notes taken in Obsidian are kept on the hard drive and can only be accessed by those who have permission to open the computer's files. Unlike the other applications mentioned such as Roam Research or Evernote, which are online platforms and whose notes are accessible to others, Obsidian is totally localized. For anyone uncomfortable with the possibility that their notes may be seen by others, Obsidian is the best option for preserving the security of your work.

To access Obsidian, visit the website (https://obsidian.md) and download the application. Obsidian can be used on both Mac and Windows platforms, and as previously discussed, all files will be stored in a folder on the user's local hard drive.

Obsidian promotes itself as a "second brain" (see Appendix, Figure A1). This is based on the principle that a person's "first brain" is not really designed to hold a wide array of information that can easily be retrieved at a later date. What the first brain does best is focus on the here and now. For long-term knowledge storage that is easily accessible, a "second brain" is required, and that is what Obsidian has been designed for.

The other thing that is highlighted on the Obsidian homepage is the interconnectivity of the program (see Appendix, Figure A2). This correlates with the Zettelkasten method, where ideas are generated through building clusters of notes. Obsidian operates on the same principle but offers the added functionality of connecting notes in different ways such as via the use of backlinks or outgoing links. Obsidian also has a graph view, which is one of its most useful tools in identifying separate notes and translating them into new and original ideas.

After the application has been downloaded, the next step is to create a new vault. A "vault" is simply Obsidian's terminology for a folder and is the digital version of Luhmann's slip box. A vault, therefore, could be used to build knowledge around a general topic, establish a specific project, or as a research location. There are options to either open a pre-existing folder or create a new one (see Appendix, Figure A3). Once established, the vault will usually be visible on the left-hand side with the pathway to its hard drive location (see Appendix, Figure A4).

After the folder has been created, the vault can be accessed. The blank slate of the Obsidian interface consists of the main window, and then to the left, a directory list (called "File Explorer"), and a thin side panel, which provides access to settings, opening of other vaults, and general functionality. There is also an arrow in the upper-right corner, which when opened, offers more information on the note (see Appendix, Figure A4).

To create a new note, move to the icon directly above the vault name and click on it. This will generate an untitled note (see Appendix, Figure A5).

The first thing to do is rename the note, which is as straightforward as right-clicking on the note name. Once correctly labelled, the content is then recorded in the main window. Whilst this is similar to how notes are written in other applications, Obsidian offers additional functionality specifically designed to harness the power of connectivity. This is exemplified by the ability to link notes to one another.

In Figure A6 of the Appendix, the untitled note has been renamed "Zettelkasten" and content has now been recorded. However, formatting for the word "slipbox" is different to the rest of the text in that it is encased by two sets of brackets: [[slipbox]]. This is the first example of markdown language, where the use of twin brackets functions as a direct link to other notes. In the case of the bracketed "slipbox," it serves as a link to an as-yet uncreated new note. Therefore, the brackets are acting as a placeholder for a future note that can elaborate on this concept. When it comes time to convert the link into an actual note, press Command-Click on the bracketed word and a new "slipbox" note is automatically created.

Figure A7 of the Appendix reveals in the File Explorer that the new "slipbox" note has now been made and is ready for content. On the right-side is information about the note, which includes all the other notes in which it is mentioned. This is known as *linked mentions* and is an easy way of identifying where the note stands in correlation to other similar notes. Having the ability to easily see other locations where the note is referenced becomes a powerful tool in making associations that can be developed and converted into written content.

Another way of identifying labelled notes is by using the hashtag (#) key. By giving each note a hashtag, they become connected and this allows all notes sharing the same hashtag to be viewed in the sidebar. The word "zettelkasten," for example, has been hashtagged across numerous notes in Figure A8 of the Appendix. To view the notes containing this keyword, use Command-Click on the hashtagged word and all correlating notes will be revealed in the File Explorer. This is yet another way of looking to see how connections can be made between notes via Obsidian's functionality.

The last tool to look at is the graph view (see Appendix, Figure A9). This provides a visual way of seeing how notes interconnect within a vault. To access this mode, click on the graph icon in the side panel. It brings up a view of all the selected notes with identifying lines to highlight the relationships between them. The power of this mode is in its overview of how a group of notes interact. By providing a broader perspective at an entire collection of notes, it allows for the ability to see new connections that perhaps may not be evident when looking at them in isolation. Additionally, there are numerous options to control how the user views the graph, including determining which notes are visible, how they relate to one another, and variations on the way the visual components are presented.

Drawbacks

In spite of the clear benefits Obsidian offers, there are some drawbacks to be aware of. The biggest one relates to sharing notes across devices. As the Obsidian application stores files on a local hard drive, the ability to access notes outside of that network is severely restricted. Currently, the only way to share notes to other devices is via iCloud, which means those who use other platforms such as Dropbox or Google Drive will be limited in accessibility.

Another related issue is that at this stage Obsidian is primarily a computer-based system. Whilst plans are underway to make it available on iOS-operated phones and tablets, it is currently designed to be mostly used on computers.

Finally, the last obstacle to be aware of is that there is a steep learning curve in implementing Obsidian into a learning workflow. Not only is the markdown language an issue for those not familiar with it, but there is a lot to learn about the program's functionality. Whilst this paper has covered the basics, understanding the program's wider capabilities will require time and patience, along with adapting how both the learning and the writing processes are conducted.

Conclusions

Note-taking is a skill that is essential to academic success yet often remains overlooked in curriculums. Part of this is attributable to a lack of understanding of the potential around note-taking to be a tool for organized knowledge-building. Particularly in an EAP context, where students are not only struggling with language concerns but with also a general lack of cultural and topical awareness, it is essential that they are taught a system that caters to both issues. Furthermore, the lack of critical thinking and analysis often prevalent in student writing cannot be resolved by better essay planning strategies but must be addressed by examining how ideas are collated and developed. The Zettelkasten approach is a comprehensive method that expands note-taking from a record of learning into a vehicle for creativity and insight, and gives learners a platform within which to write work that is both accurate and insightful. Obsidian adopts this principle by framing it within the technologically orientated learning environment that now exists in most institutions. Finally, it adds tools and functionality to make it a powerful application that has the potential to revolutionize how we think, build knowledge, and write.

THE AUTHOR

Michael Walker has over 20 years of experience as an ESL educator in both Australia and Japan. He has taught general English at language schools, oral communication as an ALT on the JET program, and academic skills at the tertiary level. He is currently based in Tokyo and teaches academic reading and writing skills to university students. His other interests include theatre and filmmaking, which he incorporates into the classroom when applicable. His research areas include adopting creativity into curriculums and the impact of culture on learning attitudes. Email: michael@asia-u.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Ahrens, S. (2017). *How to take smart notes: One simple technique to boost writing, learning, thinking – For students, academics, and nonfiction book writers*. Createspace Independent Publishing Platform.

Cevolini, A. (2018). Where does Niklas Luhmann's card index come from? *Erudition and the Republic of Letters*, *3*(4), 390–420.

Helgesen, M., Brown, S., & Smith, D. (1996). *Active listening: Expanding understanding through content*. Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2016). *Teaching and researching writing* (3rd ed.). Routledge.

Kneale, P. E. (1998). Note taking for geography students. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, *22*(3), 427–433.

Laidlaw, E. N., Skok, R. L., & McLaughlin, T. F. (1993). The effects of note-taking and self-questioning on quiz performance. *Science Education*, *77*(1), 75–82.

Lüdecke, D. (2015, October). *Introduction into Luhmann's Zettelkasten – Thinking and its technical implementation* [Conference presentation]. Trier Digital Humanities Autumn School. Trier, Luxembourg. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322931870

Tsai, T., & Wu, Y. (2010). Effects of note-taking instruction and note-taking languages on college EFL students' listening comprehension. *New Horizons in Education*, *58*(1), 120–132.

Wernersbach, B. M., Crowley, S. L., Bates, S. C., & Rosenthal, C. (2014). Study skills course impact on academic self-efficacy. *Journal of Developmental Education*, *37*(3), 14–33.

APPENDIX

FIGURE A1. Obsidian Homepage View 1

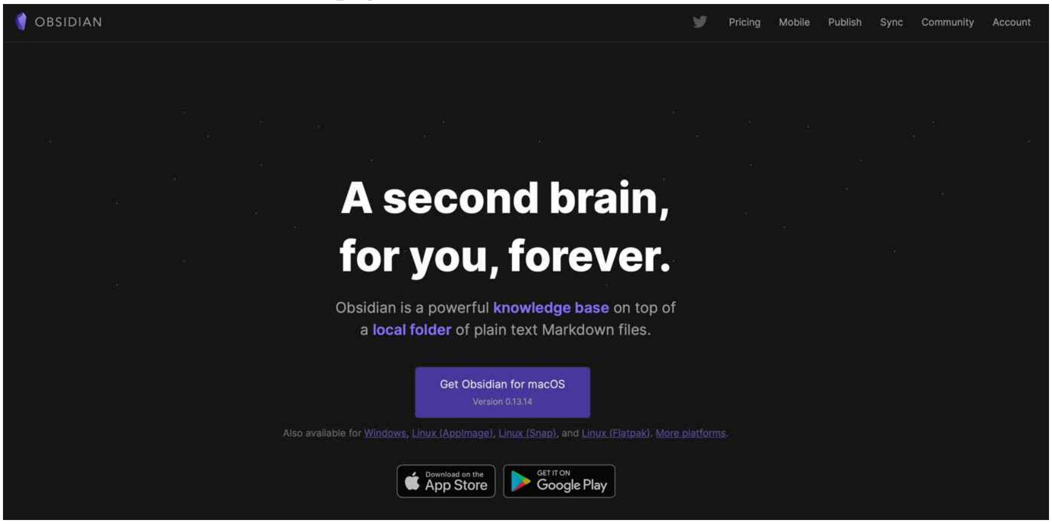


FIGURE A2. Obsidian Homepage View 2

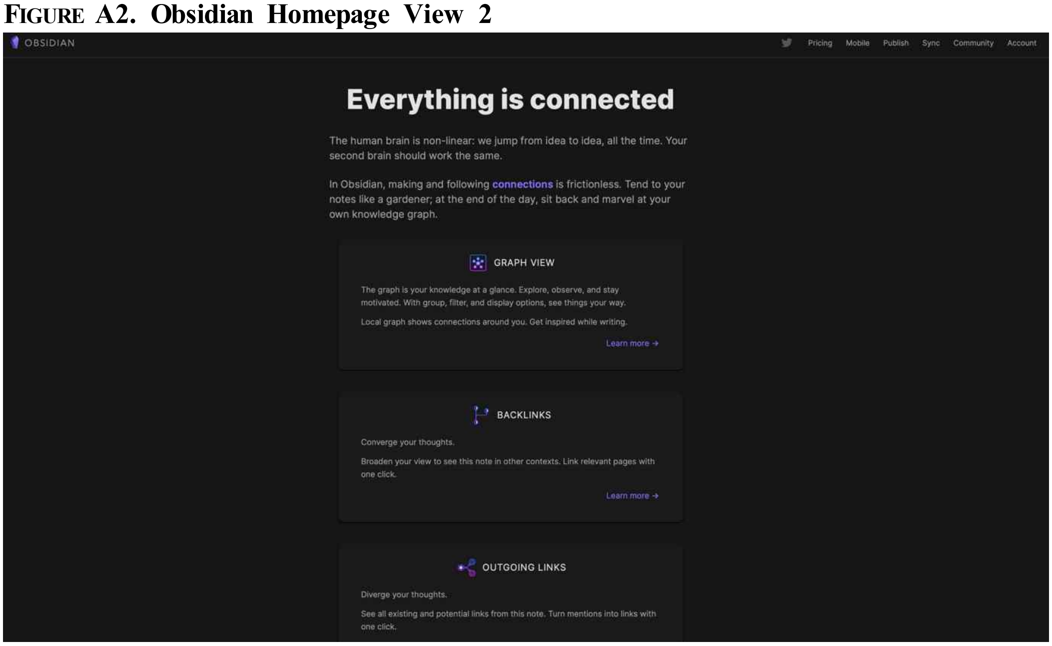


FIGURE A3. Creating a New Obsidian Vault (Folder)

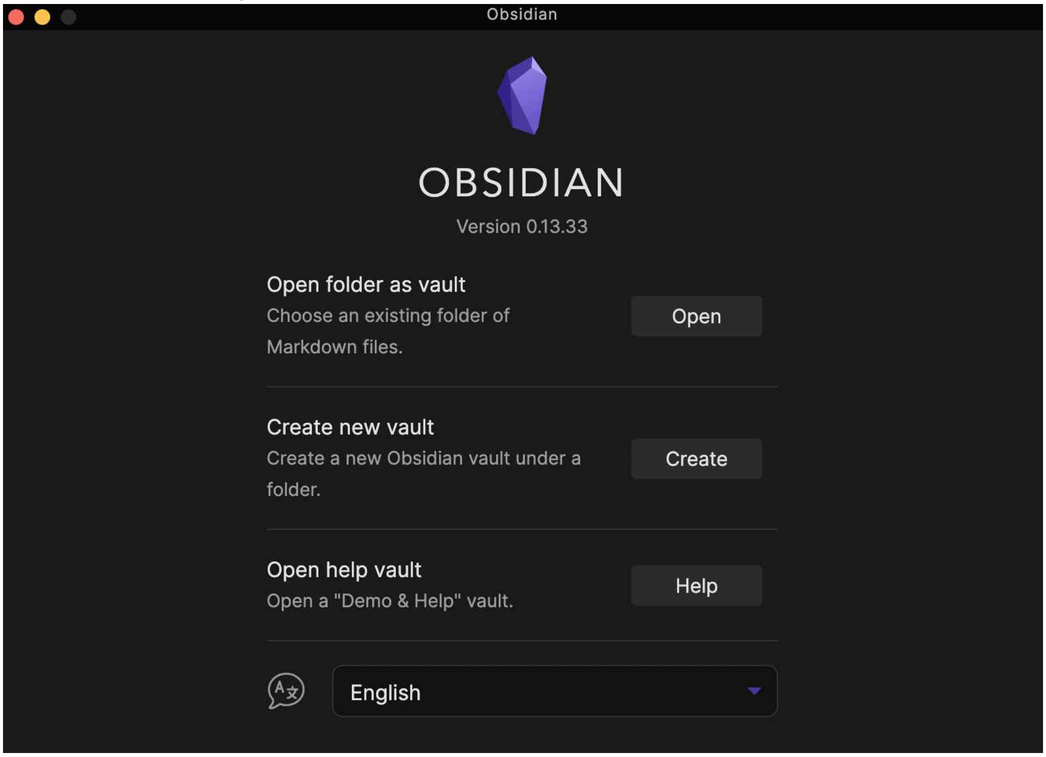


FIGURE A4. Obsidian Interface

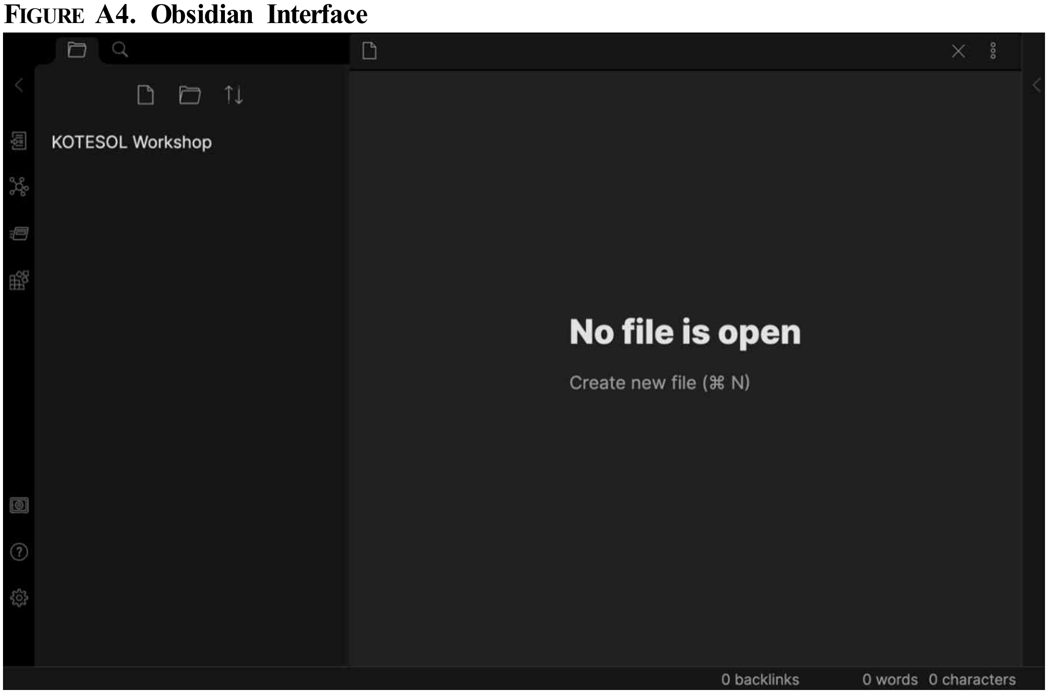


FIGURE A5. Creating a New Note in Obsidian

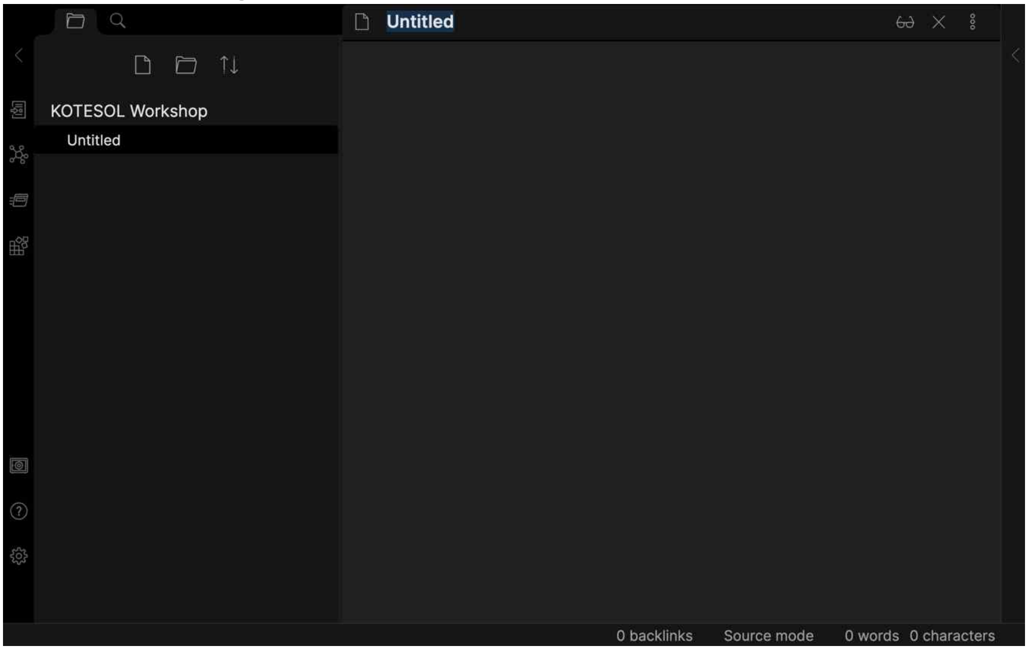


FIGURE A6. Linking Notes in Obsidian

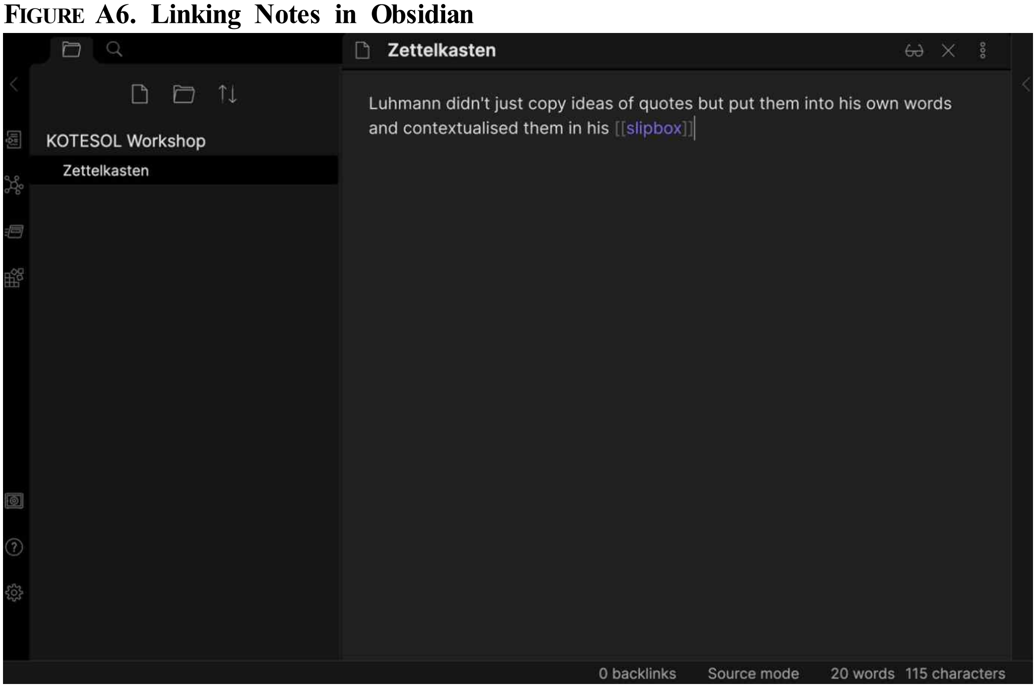


FIGURE A7. Creating a New “Slipbox” Note in Obsidian

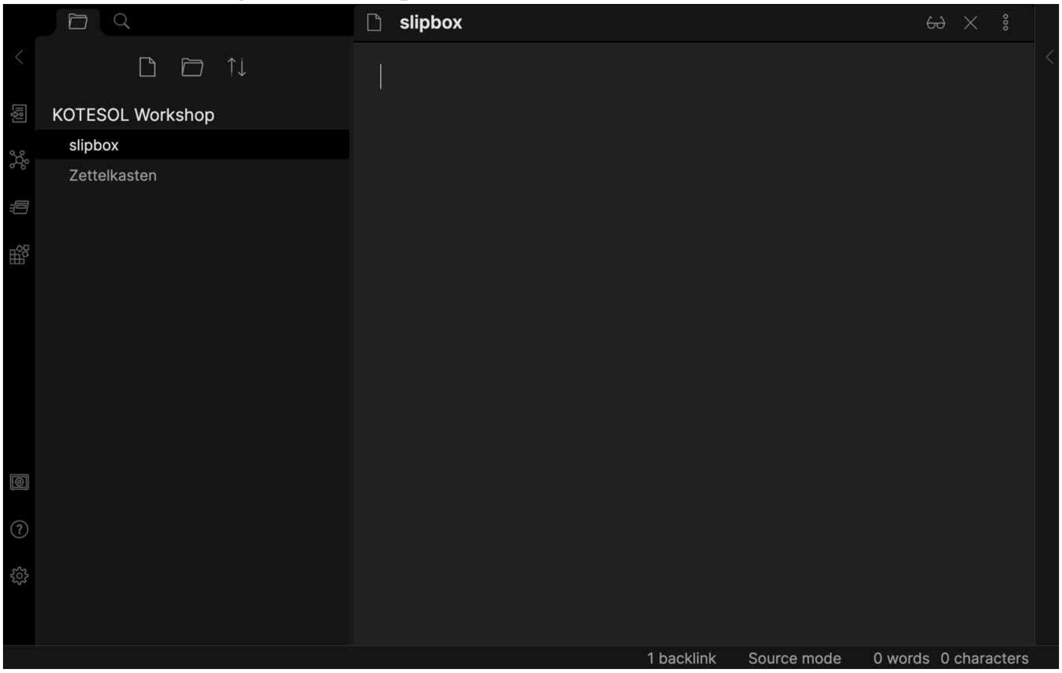


FIGURE A8. Using the Hashtag Tool in Obsidian

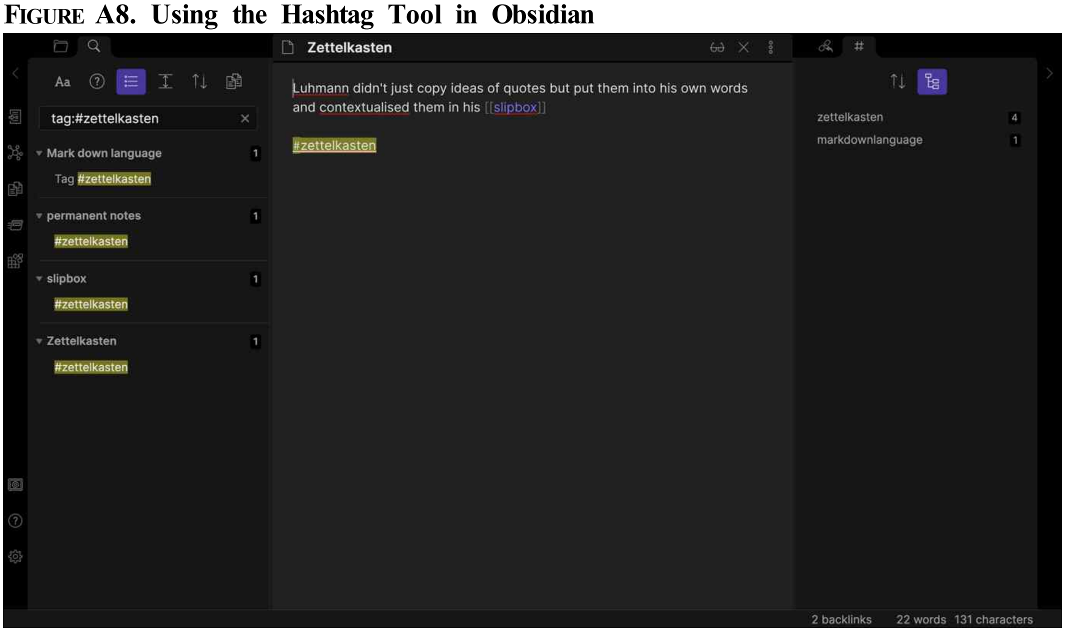


FIGURE A9. The Graph Tool in Obsidian

The L2 Motivational Self System in English Writing Through the Process Writing Approach

Ei Phyoe Maung
Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

When students learn a second language (L2), their cognition and perceptions may be influenced by various social and environmental factors at the same time (Csizér, 2019). Understanding the underlying constructs of the L2 motivational self system (L2MSS; Dörnyei, 2005) becomes vital for language learners and teachers alike, as it plays a key role in directing the success or failure of the language learning process in the language. The L2MSS is composed of three constructs that direct learners' behavior: the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self*, and the *L2 learning experience*. This literature review focuses on the L2MSS in English writing through the process writing approach – one of the writing approaches theorized by Hyland (2021) – which centers on the writer and describes writing in terms of the processes used to create texts, and which emphasizes the personal creativity of the individual writer, the cognitive processes of writing, and the writer's immediate context.

MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Motivation is the psychological term that is widely used not only in everyday life but also in educational research (Dörnyei, 1998) and many branches of science (Csizér & Kálmán, 2021). Several researchers have acknowledged that the idea of motivation to learn a second language (L2) is complicated, and it is more than exploring human behavior due to the fact that it is related to human's psychological processes (Csizér & Kálmán, 2021), such as an individual's effort that is used to obtain their goal, their willingness to learn the target language, and their satisfaction in learning that language (Gardner, 1985).

Although many researchers have been involved in researching motivation in second language learning and teaching, there is no general agreement among them on its definition. Gardner and Lambert (1972) claimed that motivation to learn an L2 is concerned with a combination of an individual's effort and desire to achieve the goal of learning the target language and their favorable attitudes towards learning the language. According to Lamb et al. (2019), motivation to learn an L2 is an individual's wanting, which is centered on their subjective sense that desires change in their selves and their environment while learning the target language. However, most motivational researchers agree with Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2021) definition of motivation in language learning: that "it concerns the direction and magnitude of human behavior, that is, the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it, and the effort expended on it" (p. 4). Based on the claims of the most influential figures in L2 motivation research discussed above, it cannot be denied that motivation significantly plays a key role in determining the success or failure of a learner's second or foreign language learning.

English Writing: Why Is It the Challenging Skill to Master for ESL/EFL Students?

Acquiring English writing skills is quite complex, and it is more than a matter of writing down speech due to the fact that writing skills include several complex cognitive processes (Hayes, 1996; Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022; Onozawa, 2010; Tillema, 2012), which consist of pre-writing, drafting, editing, revising, and publishing (Hyland, 2021). Since English writing skills require such complex cognitive processes, teaching writing becomes a challenging skill to teach for English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers, and acquiring writing skills becomes a difficult skill to master for EFL students in the language education world. Consequently, students fail at writing. For instance, they do not know how to start an essay, how to provide supporting ideas in paragraphs, or how to conclude the essay. They are afraid of writing about a topic, as they find it difficult to compose a text systematically and correctly, since they have few technical writing skills (Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022; Nwet, 2017).

Therefore, it has become vital for EFL teachers to help their students improve their English writing skills. On the one hand, although students are facing challenges in writing, several researchers have observed that motivation greatly influences a learner's academic and professional performance in L2 learning, including the acquisition of writing skills (Csizér, 2019; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021; Winke, 2013). In this regard, the idea of an L2MSS, theorized by Dörnyei in 2005, becomes essential for both EFL teachers and students to achieve desirable goals in language learning and teaching. This is the reason the author became concerned with the presentation of the present literature review paper, which focuses on mapping the L2MSS and English writing, especially the process writing approach, which will be explained in the following section.

Understanding the L2 Motivational Self System, Significant Others, and Instrumentality

The Hungarian psycholinguist, Dörnyei, theorized his original model of the L2MSS in 2005 taking into account a combination of Markus and Nurius' (1986) theory of possible selves and Higgins' (1987) theory of self-discrepancy. In fact, it was rooted in Dörnyei and Csizér's (2002) nationwide study in Hungary, which explored Hungarian students' L2 motivation. In Dörnyei's L2MSS, there are three main components that direct learner's behavior: the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self*, and the *L2 learning experience* (see Figure 1). In 2011, Dörnyei and Ushioda developed the original model by adding motivational dispositions, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, significant others, and instrumental motivation (see Figure 2).

FIGURE 1. Dörnyei's (2005) Model of the L2 Motivational Self System and Motivational Dispositions

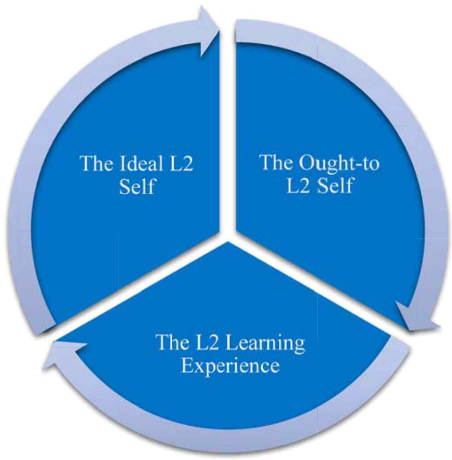
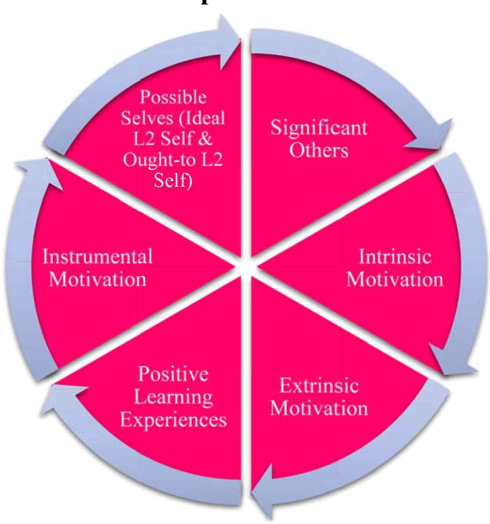


FIGURE 2. Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) Model of the L2 Motivational Self System and Motivational Dispositions



Markus and Nurius (1986) claimed that the possible self, which is one of the most powerful motivators connecting the self with action in learning a second or foreign language, has a great impact on shaping an individual's behavior, as it represents the individual's imagination of what they might become in a future state, what they want to become in the future, and what they want to avoid becoming in the future (Csizér, 2019; Csizér & Kálmán, 2021; Maung et al., 2022). Markus and Nurius (1986) reckoned that possible selves are very close to real situations for the individual, as they can imagine a possible self in learning an L2, whereas Markus and Ruvolo (1989) regarded possible selves as super motivators that are very close to the individual's actual thoughts and feelings, and linked with their motivated learning behavior and instrumental action in their L2 learning.

In Higgins' (1987, 1998) view, there are various possible selves: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the actual self. In this respect, the ideal L2 self is concerned with an individual's hopes, dreams, and aspirations, and the ought-to L2 self is related to the individual's duties and obligations, and how they visualize themselves in a future state, whereas the actual self is coupled with the way the individual currently sees themself (Csizér, 2019; Horváth & Kálmán, 2020; Maung et al., 2022). In this regard, Higgins (1987, 1998) added that the ideal L2 self is a super motivator that can guide a learner's academic achievement, and the ought-to L2 self is also a powerful motivator that represents a learner's sense of duties, obligations, or moral responsibilities in learning an L2. This idea is acknowledged by Csizér's (2019) conceptualization:

> While the ideal L2 self captures the extent to which the learner can imagine him- or herself as a highly proficient user of the L2, the ought-to L2 self encapsulates the external pressures that the individual is aware of throughout the learning process. (p. 73)

However, it should be noted that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self are similar to each other, to some extent, in such a way that both of the selves are ultimately attached to a learner's desire to achieve a goal (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Regarding this, Higgins (1998) postulated that possible selves can be regarded as future selves, since they are concerned with the learner's desire and imagination of how they visualize themselves in the future. In this respect, there are two types of future self-guides, that is, ideal self-guides and ought-to self-guides, which have a great impact on the success or failure of the learner's learning in the second or foreign language. Csizér (2019), Horváth and Kálmán (2020), and Maung et al. (2022) stress that the ideal self-guides have a promotion focus, since they are connected with the learner's hopes, aspirations, achievements, growth, and accomplishments, whereas the ought-to self-guides have a prevention focus, as they are linked with the learner's attribution to the absence or presence of negative outcomes coupled with failing to live up to various responsibilities and obligations while learning the L2.

The L2 learning experience, which is the third construct of the L2MSS, is related to the learner's attitudes towards classroom processes. Furthermore, it embraces situated executive motives that relate to the immediate learning environment, such as the impact of classmates, teacher's teaching strategies and feedback, and the curriculum, as well as positive learning experiences; that is, the learner's experiences of success in the past (Csizér, 2019; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Here, it should be recognized that some components, such as the impact of the teacher, classmates and/or peers, and the impact of the curriculum, which compose the L2 learning experience, may be regarded as significant others in the learner's motivation to learn the L2, since the learner's motivated learning behavior in learning the language is greatly influenced by these components. Csizér (2019) supported this notion claiming that when students learn a second language, their cognition and perceptions may be simultaneously influenced by various social and environmental factors, whereas Williams and Burden (1997) argued that "an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences" (p. 23). They added that "the social and contextual influences include the whole culture and context and the social situation, as well as significant other people and the individual's interaction with these people" (p. 23). Adding to their claims, it may be regarded that the learner's environment plays a significant role in motivating them to learn the L2 due to the fact that all people from that environment surrounding the learner may have an impact to a great extent on shaping the learner's academic achievement, including second language acquisition.

Williams and Burden (1997) differentiate motivational factors from the learner's surroundings as learner-internal and learner-external. The former includes intrinsic interest, perceived value of the activity, mastery, and self-concept, whilst the latter involves significant individuals, interaction with significant individuals, the learning environment, and the broader context. Csizér (2020) acknowledged that these aspects of significant others have a positive influence on the L2 learner and can thus have pragmatic benefits by generating the learner's effort needed to learn the L2.

A landmark concept in L2 motivation research, instrumental motivation, was conceptualized by Gardner (1959) and declares that instrumental motivation is concerned with the practical benefits of second language acquisition, such as passing an examination, getting a higher grade in class, or winning a scholarship to study abroad. Since instrumental motivation is strongly associated with external regulations, which have a pragmatic focus (Horváth & Kálmán, 2020; Maung et al., 2022), it may also be assumed to be a kind of extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2018). Additionally, Gardner and McIntyre (1991) recommended that instrumentally motivated learners exhibit goal-oriented behaviors, and they are also motivated by external rewards such as appraisal, personal fulfillment, status, or power. Based on the influential motivational researchers' propositions presented above, it may be concluded that instrumental motivation is also an essential motivational factor of the L2MSS that may facilitate the learner's second language acquisition including writing skills, academic achievement, performance, achievement goals, and even well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2013; Liu et al., 2018; Ryan & Deci, 2018).

In concluding this section, it may be assumed that the motivational dispositions or constructs discussed above that make up the L2MSS are strongly interconnected with each other, and they may have an impact on the learner's motivation in their second language acquisition, including writing skills. If the teacher understands the motivational dispositions of the L2MSS and is familiar with ways to encourage these motivational dispositions by strengthening students' motivated learning behavior in the English writing class, it is certain that students will have favorable achievements in learning the L2.

Three Approaches to Teaching Writing

Ken Hyland (2021) highlighted that writing is a bridge that interconnects between a writer and their readers through texts. However, acquiring English writing skills is more than writing down speech (Hayes, 1996; Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022; Onozawa, 2010; Tillema, 2012) as it involves various cognitive activities (Hyland, 2021). Consequently, teaching writing becomes a difficult skill to teach for ESL/EFL teachers to develop students writing performance. In this regard, Hyland (2021) and Tribble (1996) affirmed that there are three broad approaches to teaching writing that focus on writing theories: the product approach, the process approach and the genre approach.

The Product Approach:
A Traditional Approach to Teaching Writing

The product writing is an approach to teaching writing, that is centered on the traditional writing class in which the teacher uses conventional techniques such as lecturing while teaching, controls the class, assigns students to produce a text or an essay, and evaluates their final products. In this approach, students are not required to brainstorm ideas before writing, despite being encouraged to focus on their end products (Hayes, 1996; Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022; Tillema, 2012). Subsequently, students' communicative skills and interactive classroom activities, which may have a major impact on their second language acquisition, including writing skills, are neglected due to the fact that only their final products are favored. As a result, students become weak in their creative thinking skills (Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022; Tribble, 1996).

The Process Approach:
A Creative Approach to Teaching Writing

The second approach to teaching writing, which focuses mainly on the writer and the writing processes, is the process writing approach. This approach places stress on the creativity of the individual writer and classroom practices to create good student writing rather than emphasizing their final product. This is a learner-centered approach in which the teacher's role is to help students write better by aiding them in the actual process of writing (Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022; Tribble, 1996). Badger and White (2000) acknowledged that process writing is associated with linguistic writing skills, which include planning, drafting, editing, and revising, rather than focusing on the structure of the text and sentence patterns, which is linguistic writing knowledge. One advantage of this writing approach is that students' thinking skills are mainly emphasized, and as a result, student creativity in the texts they write may be anticipated (Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022). Furthermore, Tribble (1996) and Hyland (2021) implied that process writing is the most appropriate approach for beginner-level writers, as it concentrates mainly on the process and stages of writing. In addition, this approach is time-consuming for the teacher and learners, since the teacher needs to take time to familiarize the students with the writing stages, and it takes effort to facilitate the class and give students individual feedback. Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that this writing approach prioritizes the students' creativity and thinking skills by concentrating on the actual writing processes, which may lead to better writing performance. Due to these reasons, this writing approach has become one of the major areas of the present literature review paper, which follows Hyland's (2021) five stages of process writing:

1. Pre-writing

2. Drafting
3. Revising
4. Editing
5. Publishing

The Genre Approach:
An Extension of the Process Approach to Teaching Writing

Badger and White (2000) claimed that the genre approach is the advancement of the process writing approach, which in main part concentrates on the contextual aspects of a text, for instance, the purpose of writing, the subject matter, the target audience, the connection between the writer and the audience, and the organization patterns. As it is the extension of process writing, Tribble (1996) and Hyland (2021) discussed that the genre approach is more suitable for advanced-level writers due to the fact that this approach is thoroughly considered on the social dimension by elaborating the relationship between the writer and the target audience in creating texts. However, it should be remembered that the genre approach does not place adequate emphasis on students' linguistic writing skills, which may have a major impact on their writing performance (Hyland, 2021; Maung et al., 2022) as this approach only emphasizes the context of the target audience.

Conclusions

By understanding the motivational dispositions in the L2 motivational self system and the process writing approach presented above, the teacher may help students improve their writing performance by strategically combining the application of the process writing approach and the encouragement of students' motivational disposition in their L2 writing class. In conclusion, this literature review will hopefully to some extent fulfill the needs in second language motivation research, especially in English writing through the process writing approach, and yield insights into ways to strengthen students' motivated learning behavior to produce favorable outcomes in second language learning and teaching.

Limitation and Recommendation

As this is a literature review study, follow-up empirical evidence is needed, and thus, further empirical research is recommended to be carry out based on the theories discussed in this paper.

The Author

Ei Phyoe Maung is a doctoral candidate of the Doctoral School of Education, Faculty of Education and Psychology, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest. She has over 12 years of experience in teaching English to learners in basic education schools and English language

teaching to preservice teachers at a teacher training university in Myanmar. Her research interests are English language teaching, motivation in language learning and teaching, professional development of EFL/ESL teacher educators, academic writing, teacher education and higher education studies and policies, and teacher resilience and well-being. Email: maung.ei@ppk.elte.hu

REFERENCES

Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal*, *54*(2), 153–160. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.153

Csizér, K. (2019). The L2 motivational self system. In M. Lamb, K. Csizér, A. Henry, & S. Ryan (Eds.), *The Palgrave handbook of motivation for language learning* (pp. 71–93). Palgrave Macmillan.

Csizér, K. (2020). *Second language learning motivation in a European context*: *The case of Hungary*. Springer Nature.

Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, *55*(4), 613–659. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0023 8333.2005.00319.x

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2013). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, *31*(3), 117–135.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner*: *Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2002). Motivational dynamics in second language acquisition: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics*, *23*(4), 421–462. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/23.4.421

Dornyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*. (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2021). *Teaching and researching motivation* (3rd ed.). Longman.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitude and motivation*. Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*(1), 57–72. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263100009724

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue canadienne de psychologie*, *13*(4), 266–272. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0083787

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. In R. C. Gardner & W. E. Lambert (Eds.), *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning* (119–216). Newbury House.

Hayes, J. R. (1996). A new framework for understanding cognition and affect in writing. In C. M. Levy & S. Ransdell (Eds.), *The science of writing*: *Theories*, *methods*, *individual differences*, *and applications* (pp. 1–27). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, *94*(3), 319–340. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295x.94.3.319

Higgins, E. T. (1998). Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 30, pp. 1–46). Academic Press.

Horváth, I., & Kálmán, Cs. (2020). Motivational disposition of translation and interpreting graduates. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, *15*(3), 287–305. https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399x.2020.1838180

Hyland, K. (2021). *Teaching and researching writing*. Routledge.

Kálmán, Cs. (Ed.). (2021). *Second language learning motivation in a European context*: *The case of Hungary*. Springer Nature.

Lamb, M., Csizér, K., Henry, A., & Ryan, S. (Eds.). (2019). *The Palgrave handbook of motivation for language learning*. Springer Nature. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-28380-3

Liu, Y., Hau, K., & Zheng, X. (2018). Does instrumental motivation help students with low intrinsic motivation? Comparison between Western and Confucian students. *International Journal of Psychology*, *55*(2), 182–191. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijop.12563

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist*, *41*(9), 954–969. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.41.9.954

Markus, H., & Ruvolo, A. (1989). Possible selves: Personalized representations of goals. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Goal concepts in personality and social psychology* (pp. 211–241). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Maung, E. P., Kálmán, Cs., & Győri, J. G. (2022). Myanmar EFL pre-service teachers' motivational disposition in English writing: A pilot study. *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge*, *and Innovation*, *5*(2), 60–70. https://doi.org/10.1556/2059.2022.00061

Nwet, Y. (2017). *An investigation into the impact of process approach to teaching writing in Myanmar language at the high school level* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Yangon University of Education.

Onozawa, C. (2010). A study of the process writing approach: A suggestion for an eclectic writing approach. 共愛学園前橋国際大学論集 [Kyoai Gakuen Maebashi International University Review], *10*, 153–163. https://gair.media.gunma-u.ac.jp/dspace/bitstream/10087/7218/1/2010-onozawa2.pdf

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2018). *Self-determination theory*: *Basic psychological needs in motivation*, *development*, *and wellness*. Guilford.

Tillema, M. (2012). *Writing in first and second language*: *Empirical studies on text quality and writing processes* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Netherlands Graduate School of Linguistics.

Tribble, C. (1996). *Writing*. Oxford University Press.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*: *A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Winke, P. (2013). An investigation into second language aptitude for advanced Chinese language training. *The Modern Language Journal*, *97*(1), 109–130.

The Use of Instagram to Enhance EFL Learners' Speaking Skills

Asiya Tabassum
Nizwa College of Technology and Applied Sciences, Nizwa, Oman

Speaking skills demand preparedness from the learners, but students are not motivated to speak, a major reason being the lack of vocabulary and fear of making mistakes. Therefore, to enrich preparedness among EFL students, educators are adopting different web tools. One such tool that is gaining immense popularity due to its users is Instagram. This research explores whether short vlogs on Instagram can help students in improving their speaking skills and how learners perceive the integration of Instagram into their speaking classes. Twenty-two students from the Foundations Level 4 program at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Nizwa, Oman, participated in this study. The author administered the pre-test and post-test to analyze the effect of Instagram vlogs on the speaking competence of EFL learners. A significant difference was found in the students' speaking. Therefore, it is recommended that vlogs can be implemented to enhance EFL learners speaking skills.

INTRODUCTION

In this era of globalization, social networking sites are gaining immense popularity due to their usage and availability. These networking sites are not only easily available, but they are also so user-friendly that even novices can use them with ease. The use of such social networking sites and other web tools has become very useful after the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, as everyone is relying on them not only for their everyday communication but also for educational purposes. Though the situation has confined students to their homes, it has also provided educators with an opportunity to experiment with new learning methods. This scenario has made learning a foreign language easy and fun.

Speaking is considered a difficult skill to acquire by EFL students for many reasons (Luoma, 2004). Firstly, a great deal of practice and exposure to the language is required for its mastery. Second, EFL learners' speaking competency is affected by psychological factors such as self-confidence and anxiety (Aydin, 2001). Effective production of the target language is hampered by anxiety (Pasaribu & Harendita, 2018). This hurdle can be overcome if the language teachers assign a task to the learners that can promote a sense of achievement and lessen their speaking anxiety, resulting in boosting their self-confidence (de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009). Another major difficulty in developing speaking skills is that the learners get minimum exposure to language and fewer opportunities to practice the language outside the classroom, resulting in the classroom being the only place where they can learn to speak. Therefore, it is expected of language teachers to apply social media ingeniously so that learners get more exposure and opportunities to practice extensively outside the classroom rather than being dependent on in-class practices (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). The emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic has completely taken away in-class exposure and practice opportunities from learners, resulting in the need for teachers to use social media.

There are a large number of social media sites at our disposal: WhatsApp, Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, Snapchat, YouTube, and others (Ali, 2018, Bolat, 2018, Kavaliauskiene & Ashkinazi, 2014). According to Statista (2020), 3.6 billion people are using social media around the world. Out of these one billion are Instagram users. Incorporating social media in speaking lessons can help students improve their speaking skills. According to Hashim et al. (2017), learning a language can be aided by using mobile phones. This author chose Instagram as a tool to assist EFL students in boosting their confidence, as it is a communicative social media platform and can be used by students to record videos that in turn would give them first-hand experience (Aloraini, 2018). The use of social media in education motivated and engaged students in the learning process, as they have the opportunity to collaborate, share their novel ideas, develop innovative content, and publish it online. All these are part of 21st century skills (Dunn, 2013; Handayani, 2016).

Social media affects the human brain in a variety of ways. According to Sherman et al. (2018), the "likes" that people get on social media from others on images, videos, and posts lead to activation in the brain implying reward, and as rewards have a positive relationship with motivation, these social media rewards motivate students to engage in speaking, even outside the classroom. For this reason, the author opted for Instagram as a tool to enhance EFL students speaking skills. Students are very comfortable using social media, so this tool could help them to use language conveniently and comfortably. Omani students are more inclined to use Instagram; hence, this was also a factor in choosing Instagram to help students improve their speaking skills.

Research Purpose

The aims of this study are

- to analyze the effect of using Instagram on students' readiness to speak English outside the classroom and
- to explore how students perceive social media in learning a language.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

RQ1. Do foundation students at UTAS Nizwa perceive Instagram as a helpful tool in learning a language?
RQ2. What is the general attitude of students towards using social media in learning?
RQ3. What are students' opinions on video blogs on Instagram for practicing

language outside the classroom?

Literature Review

Teaching English Speaking

Speaking skills are considered the most important skill for language learners, as without communication skills, it would be difficult to progress in professional and personal life. Speaking effectively helps us in forming connections and facilitates the speaker in conveying their message in a more persuasive manner. People need to communicate not only to fulfill their needs but also to express their feelings and emotions. It is very easy to convey these feelings in one's own native language, but it can be a herculean task to convey the same feelings and emotions in a foreign language.

Many are of the opinion that speaking need not be "taught" like other skills but can be obtained naturally. Hence, it is neglected by many educators who teach EFL students. One of the most indispensable characteristics of second or foreign language learning is speaking skills, the success of an EFL student depends on their ability to converse effectively in this foreign language (Nunan, 1992, p. 23). According to Zhang (2009), the ability to speak skillfully and fluently in a foreign language remains the most difficult skill to master by anyone who learns a foreign language. In addition, anxiety about making mistakes while speaking, lack of sufficient vocabulary, unwillingness, lack of motivation, and thoughts of being criticized by peers are problems pointed out by Omani students in classroom speaking at UTAS, Nizwa. Thus, it is the responsibility of language teachers to design tasks and activities in such a way that students will be motivated to do them and that they will enjoy doing them and learn from them.

Instagram

The Instagram app was launched in October 2010, and in the decade since its inception, it has gained immense popularity and usage. With over one billion users, it has become the most popular social networking site. It is designed to be used as a mobile phone application. The users of Instagram can perform a variety of tasks, including posting content; following other users; adding captions to pictures; adding location, comments, stories, and hashtags; checking feeds and reels; liking content; and sending messages. The content posted on Instagram can be shared with others through other social media apps.

Social media networking sites have gained immense popularity over the last decade and EFL learners have started using these sites to improve their language proficiency. In fact, social media networks have fascinated educators. Educators have realized the importance of the growth of smartphones connected to the internet and have used these networks with youths (Bal & Bicen, 2017).

Instagram is one such social networking site that has been created mainly for sharing images and videos. Users can post a picture or a video with attractive captions on their profile page. There are over 40 billion photos and videos posted on Instagram every day as reported by Instagram Press (2017). Individual users on Instagram record their conduct, performances, talents, and other actions and post them. People who follow users are able to view their feeds (videos and images) and can respond to their posts by liking or commenting on the posts. These likes and comments are public and anyone who follows that particular account can read all the comments and see the number of likes on the post. Instagram also allows users to communicate with each other personally through the Direct Message feature. This feature has made both synchronous and asynchronous communication possible. It also provides the users with the option to keep their account private or public.

Consequently, Instagram can be used as a platform to enhance EFL/ESL learners' speaking skills, as it provides an ideal environment for language exposure. Many EFL learners have said that they have improved their target language through online apps such as online gaming, social network sites, and vlogging (Throne & Black, 2007). Hence, EFL educators are investigating how formal EFL education and these online applications can be blended (Harrison & Thomas, 2009; Kabilan et al., 2010; Kern et al., 2008).

One of the most popular activities using social media platforms is vlogging. Vlogging involves users recording a video of themselves or anything else communicating information on a specific topic and then uploading the video on YouTube, Instagram, or other video hosting platforms (Gao et al., 2010). The users of Instagram can post videos of up to one minute in length, but Instagram is working on extending the length of videos allowed in order to help users to better communicate with their audience through these videos.

Moreover, another special feature of Instagram, the "swipeable carousel," enables users to share a series of images or videos. One can share up to 10 images or videos at a time in a single carousel, and followers can watch these by simply swiping through them. This feature can be well utilized for enhancing EFL learners' speaking skills, as they have the opportunity to post multiple videos of up to one-minute each. If utilized properly, this activity can provide students with a genuine social environment that motivates them to acquire the language in a fun way.

The video-recording activity is advantageous for EFL students in many ways. The students can learn to devise strategies to improve their delivery of successful oral presentations, which in turn, improves their proficiency in English speaking. Furthermore, it boosts their self-confidence and provides them with the courage to take risks while experimenting with the target language. EFL learners also have an opportunity to learn from their own videos and improve them in the future by way of self-reflection.

The Essence of Vlogs in Teaching Speaking

Vlogs can be enjoyable and individualized tools to practice any target language (Rakhmanina & Kusumaningrum, 2017). Speaking is a crucial element of vlogging (Christian, 2009). Vlogs are advantageous in the way they help improve students' English speaking skills and can be used as project assignments to empower students (Rakhmanina & Kusumaningrum, 2017). Though these assignments promote personal communication skills, they do have some shortcomings for unmotivated students. Such students perceive vlogs as burdensome, as they struggle to sort out their perceptions, emotions, and intentions. Apathetic learners ultimately no longer show interest in the learning activity (Rakhmanina & Kusumaningrum, 2017). In order to overcome this issue pertaining to less-motivated students, it is necessary to use easy and related topics as project assignments so that the students don't have to struggle to practice the target language. In this study, the vlogs created by the students were very short (a minute), and the topics are easy and personalized. Students found it very easy to record themselves using their smartphones, uploading their vlogs to Instagram was also easy, and the personalized topics used helped to keep them motivated.

METHOD

Research Design

This study was conducted by employing a quasi-experimental design. A one-group pre-test/post-test was implemented by the author to unveil the results of employing Instagram to improve EFL students' speaking skills.

Research Setting and Participants

The participants in this study were 22 male students of the Foundations Level 4 program, aged 20–22, at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Nizwa (UTAS, Nizwa), which is located in Al-Dakhilya Province in the Sultanate of Oman. The participants were selected based on convenient sampling.

Research Instruments

In this study, data were collected in two ways. First, the qualitative data were obtained through classroom observations and interviews with the students. Second, the quantitative data were obtained through speaking tests (oral exams) and questionnaires.

- **Observation**: The teachers observed and wrote down everything that occurred in the classroom, for example, student readiness to respond in English in class. Observations were made on students' perceptions of using social media in learning.
- **Interviews**: Interviews were conducted to discover if students found Instagram helpful in learning a language outside the classroom and what their opinions were on video blogs.
- **Questionnaire**: A survey questionnaire containing 10 questions was distributed at the end of the study to collect information from respondents.
- **Speaking Test**: A speaking test was conducted at the beginning of the study (pre-test) by a fellow teacher at the request of the author. The oral speaking exam was again conducted at the end of the study as a post-test. The rubrics were similar to the IELTS general rubrics, which are used in all UTAS colleges in Oman to assess the students' speaking skills.

Procedure

At UTAS, Nizwa, the speaking course prepares foundation-level students to use pre-speaking strategies and techniques. It also expects students to be able to explain their viewpoints fluently on a wide range of topics using a wide range of lexical and grammatical resources. The students are also required to demonstrate self-correction abilities for misunderstandings. Students need to present clear and detailed descriptions of a range of topics using effective presentation skills for at least five minutes. The following procedure was followed in conducting the study.

A quasi-experimental research design was applied to a pre-existing group of students. The one-group pre-test and post-test design supported the author in detecting the effect of Instagram vlogs on the speaking skills of the Omani EFL students. The author chose the one-group pre-test and post-test design, as it was the most preferred method to juxtapose the participants and assess the amount of change in language proficiency after the implementation of the study.

While maneuvering Instagram, the author created weekly assignments based on personal, social, academic, and work-related topics. Each topic was accompanied by prompts to make it easy and interesting for the students. The students were advised to make a one-minute video on the topics using the prompts given. Each week a different topic was given as an assignment. For the first three weeks of the course, all the students were given the same topic and for the next three weeks, each student received a different topic. This was done to slowly increase the level of complexity from simple to difficult.

Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed by processing the results of the pre-test and post-test using SPSS (statistical package for social sciences). The following statistical analyses were conducted on the data:

1. The difference in students' scores on the pre-test and post-test.
2. Calculation of the mean score for the pre-test and the post-test.
3. Calculation of the significant difference between the two tests.

The data collected were analyzed and interpreted, then the data were presented for discussion and to answer each research question. Finally, the author concluded the results of the research.

Results

In this study, the author wished to discover if there was any progress in the students' performance, especially in speaking skills. Consequently, a pre-test and post-test were conducted. The results were processed and analyzed and appear in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	*N*	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-test	11.9565	23	2.42109	.50483
	Post-test	16.2609	23	1.65742	.34560

The results show that the mean value of the post-test is greater than the mean value of the pre-test, while the standard deviation for the post-test is 1.65 and that for the pre-test is 2.42, which indicates that there is no prejudice between the two mean values.

TABLE 2. Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-test – Post-test	-4.30435	1.36298	.28420	-4.89374	-3.71495	-15.145	22	.000

A paired samples test was administered to compare the pre-test and post-test. The results indicate that the sig. value (*p*-value) of 0.000 is less than 0.05, which means that there are significant differences between the mean of the pre-test and the post-test. As a consequence, there is a positive influence of Instagram vlogs on student performance. In other words, there was a significant increase in student performance when using Instagram vlogs in learning speaking skills.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This experimental research was initiated to investigate the repercussions of introducing Instagram as a tool to improve the speaking skills of Omani EFL learners. The study supports that there is a positive impact of using Instagram videos on students speaking skills. It is usually a tough task to get students out of their personal spaces and get them to speak. If it is a male–female mixed group, the girls feel shy towards the guys. The experiment was carried out in an all-male group; hence, it was a bit easy to get the work done. Initially, they didn't want to use Instagram for studying and also were not keen on using their personal accounts for this purpose. The author asked the participants to create a separate account for this purpose and that worked well with all the participants. The study results concluded that the students perceived the use of Instagram as a positive learning experience. Feedback gathered from students through interviews and questionnaires and their post-test results disclosed that the majority of the students expressed a positive attitude toward the use of Instagram in teaching and learning, although initially, they were not in favor of it.

During the interviews, students acknowledged that at first, they were not in favor of learning to speak through Instagram videos, as they perceived Instagram to be an app that could be used only for business and entertainment. A few others commented that they felt shy to record themselves when many people were watching them. However, over the course of the process, they gradually came to understand that the Instagram videos were fun and also an easy to way to learn. They were happy that they were getting enough time and vocabulary to make their videos, which contributed to the success of the approach.

However, the observations revealed that a few students faced difficulties in recording and posting their videos. The students created their Instagram accounts privately, which made it difficult for others to see their posts. Also, many page suggestions would come in between the students' posts, and many posts from random pages also appeared, making it strenuous for students to find their classmates' posts, like them, and comment on them. The private accounts from the students' side compelled the teacher to post the students' videos so that all the students could view their posts. Furthermore, some students refused to accept the "follow" requests from their peers, so the teacher had to remind them constantly to follow each other so that they could see each other's videos and comment on them. All these actions are manifestations of student shyness and consciousness of being watched by their peers.

Limitations and Recommendations

There are several limitations to this study: research methodology, sample size, and research variables, which deserve serious consideration. The study was carried out using a quasi-experimental design, the sample size was small and only male students were participants in this study. Moreover, the duration of the study was also short.

Despite the limitations, the study yielded practical results. It is recommended that a similar study be conducted over a longer period of time and with both male and female participants or with two different groups of students to discern the potency of the approach. Overall, it can be concluded that the obtained results cannot be generalized because of these limitations.

The Author

Asiya Tabassum has been working as a lecturer at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Nizwa, Oman, for ten years. She has published two research papers on the flipped classroom approach: *Experimental Research on Using Flipped Classroom Approach in the Writing Classroom Using Edpuzzle* (2020) and *A Comparative Analysis of Traditional Flipping Versus Virtual Flipping* (2021). Her research interests are using education technologies and experimenting with writing skills using different platforms. Email: Asiya.tabassum@nct.edu.om

References

Aloraini, N. (2018). Investigating Instagram as an EFL learning tool. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ), Special Issue on CALL*(4). https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/call4.13

Aydin, S. (2007). The use of the internet in ESL learning: Problems, advantages, and disadvantages. *Humanizing Language Teaching*, *9*(1), 1–3.

Bal, E., & Bicen, H. (2017). The purpose of students' social media uses and determining their perspectives on education. *Procedia – Computer Science, 120*, 177–181. https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/call4.13

de Saint Léger, D., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System*, *37*(2), 269–285. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.01.001

Dunn, L. (2013, April 13). Teaching in higher education: Can social media enhance the learning experience? In *6th Annual University of Glasgow Learning and Teaching Conference*, Glasgow, U.K. http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/78491/1/78491.pdf

Gao, W., Tian, Y., Huang, T., & Yang, Q. (2010). Vlogging: A survey of video blogging technology on the web. *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*, *42*(4), 1–57.

Hamidah, E. (2017). Indonesian EFL secondary school teachers' perception and preferences on authentic speaking performance assessment. In *English Language and Literature International Conference (ELLiC) Proceedings*, *1*, 90–96.

Handayani, F. (2016). Instagram as a teaching tool. Really? In *Proceedings of the Fourth International Seminar on English Language and Teaching*. http://ejournal.unp.ac.id/index.php/selt/article/view/6942

Harrison, R., & Thomas, M. (2009). Identity in online communities: Social networking sites and language learning. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies and Society*, *7*(2), 109–124.

Hashim, H., Yunus, M. M., Embi, M. A., & Ozir, N. A. M. (2017). Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) for ESL learners: A review of affordances and constraints. *Sains Humanika*, *9*(1–5). https://doi.org/10.11113/sh.v9n1-5.1175

Kabilan, M. K., Ahmad, N., & Abidin, M. J. Z. (2010). Facebook: An online environment for learning English in institutions of higher education? *The Internet and Higher Education*, *13*(4), 179–187.

Kern, R., Ware, P., & Warschauer, M. (2008). Network-based language teaching. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (2nd ed., pp. 281–292). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_105

Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511733017

Nunan, D., & Swan, M. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Pasaribu, T. A., & Harendita, M. E. (2018). English language anxiety of pre-service teachers: Causes and coping strategies. *LLT Journal*: *A Journal on Language and Language Teaching*, *21*(2), 134–147.

Rakhmanina, L., & Kusumaningrum, D. (2017). The effectiveness of video blogging in teaching speaking viewed from students' learning motivation. *Proceedings of ISELT FBS Universitas Negeri Padang*, *5*, 27–34.

Saienko, N., Semyda, O., & Akhmad, I. (2020). Using social networks in teaching ESP to engineering students. *Advanced Education*, *7*(14), 38–45. https://doi.org/10.20535/2410-8286.198083

Sherman, L. E., Hernandez, L. M., Greenfield, P. M., & Dapretto, M. (2018). What the brain "Likes": Neural correlates of providing feedback on social media. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, *13*(7), 699–707. https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nsy051

Zhang, Y. (2009). Reading to speak: Integrating oral communication skills. *English Teaching Forum*, *47*(1), 32–34.

A Comparative Study of EFL MOOCs in Chinese Higher Education Institutions

Linlin Liu
The Education University of Hong Kong, SAR, P.R.China
Wenjuan Guan
Yibin Vocational and Technical College, Yibin, P.R.China

Over the past several years, the field of English as a foreign language (EFL) education has seen a growth in MOOCs as a form of online education. Since COVID-19 led to massive shutdowns of schools and affected classroom-based learning, MOOCs have been widely acknowledged and implemented by educators during these difficult times and, as a result, have generated a lot of debate in mainland Chinese higher education. However, little is known about the variations in EFL MOOCs between universities and vocational and technical colleges, two Chinese higher education environments. This study examines the use of MOOCs in these two distinct higher education settings in mainland China with the goal of identifying the variations in the two settings' content and learning outcomes, teaching and learning methodologies, assessment, and digital platforms and resources. Based on a comparison of the integration of MOOCs into college English courses in the two settings, this study gives various recommendations on how high-quality MOOCs could be designed for EFL learners.

INTRODUCTION

Since the Kahn Academy's model was formed at the beginning of the twenty-first century, MOOCs, a recently evolved type of online education, have been the focus of intense debate in the education community. Over the past few years, they have rapidly gained popularity throughout the world, but mainly in mainland China. Due to the traditional limitations of place and time, a new kind of teaching and learning can be realized thanks to MOOCs, which also expands the methods for learning (Cao, 2017). MOOCs have recently shone brightly in China's educational landscape, twice. The first time took place in the winter of 2016, when severe environmental pollution and heavy smog affected most of China and caused school closures. Since then, MOOCs have been viewed as a means of fostering innovation in both teaching and learning. Another time occurred at the beginning of 2020, when a pandemic brought on by COVID-19 made MOOCs an urgent solution for establishing online education on a national scale, as all levels of schools were reminded to remain closed until the end of this year. Even while schools are closed, learning should continue. Therefore, MOOC implementation is a must, given that online education is the sole option. The creation of high-quality MOOCs to support efficient online teaching and learning has become a hot topic after as much as 10 months of MOOC application in teaching and learning. However, there aren't many studies that compare the various degrees of higher education in China. In Chinese universities and vocational and technical colleges, English language instruction and learning are quite different. The diverse ways that MOOCs are applied in the two different settings are determined by different learner conditions, educational resources, and teacher levels. This study compares the integration of MOOCs into college English courses at Chinese universities and vocational and technical colleges in order to make recommendations for how high-quality MOOCs could be created for EFL learners.

Literature Review

MOOCs in China

Massive open online courses are known as MOOCs. They were brought to mainland China in 2013 and are of American origin. As implied by the name, MOOCs provide everyone with an equal opportunity to gain access through a network to a wide variety of courses on various topics, most of which are free. Since they were introduced into China, universities and vocational and technical colleges have all seen a progressive increase in their popularity. Top universities in mainland China developed Chinese University MOOCs in 2014, creating the first platform for local MOOCs. More than 4,000 MOOCs are now available to the entire country, with more than 50 million people choosing the courses. MOOCs are now used in collaboration with 749 institutions and universities. Similarly, in 2016, a new platform for local MOOCs called the ICVE (Intelligent Center of Vocational Education) was launched, based on the organization of Chinese University MOOCs and focusing on vocational and technical education in China. Currently, it collaborates with 224 vocational and technical colleges, and provides the public with a total of 2,925 MOOCs for free.

Importance of MOOCs in the Chinese EFL Context

The development of MOOCs in mainland China was sparked by the need for improvements in the college English course, one of the required courses in Chinese universities, colleges, and vocational and technical colleges. According to the College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR) published by the Higher Education Department, Ministry of Education (2007), modern technology should be used in classrooms to support the development of pedagogy and promote students' independent and personalized learning (p. 18). More recently, in 2018, the Ministry of Education announced the Education Informatization Action Plan 2.0 and mandated that all schools, regardless of level, develop online learning environments to support online teaching and learning, guarantee students' access to vast amounts of data and resources, and promote unrestricted learning. As a result, more academic institutions began to utilize online MOOCs and even create their own custom MOOCs for use. A total of 777 MOOCs for English language learning are currently available to the public on the Chinese University MOOCs platform (at the university and college level), and almost 100 EFL MOOCs are available on the ICVE platform (vocational and technical college level). MOOCs are being used by universities and colleges to demonstrate that English language teaching and learning has successfully undergone transformation.

Additionally, MOOCs could assist in addressing the issues from the traditional approachs of English teaching and learning in higher education. According to Wang (2015), including MOOCs in English language instruction could augment the monotonous approach to instruction that is solely characterized by the teacher-centered model. Numerous educators claim that the teacher-centered approach to teaching and learning is to blame for language learners' lack of enthusiasm in learning (Fan, 2016; Liu, 2016; Lv, 2016; Rong, 2016; Wu, 2015). According to Wang and Yang (2015), incorporating MOOCs into college-level English courses could alter the teacher–student relationship by encouraging students to take crucial learning initiatives. This, in turn, could promote individual learning and lifelong learning because students would be able to access a wealth of online resources and materials to support their own learning. This is also in line with the specifications outlined in the government's CECR.

Problems in Developing High-Quality MOOCs

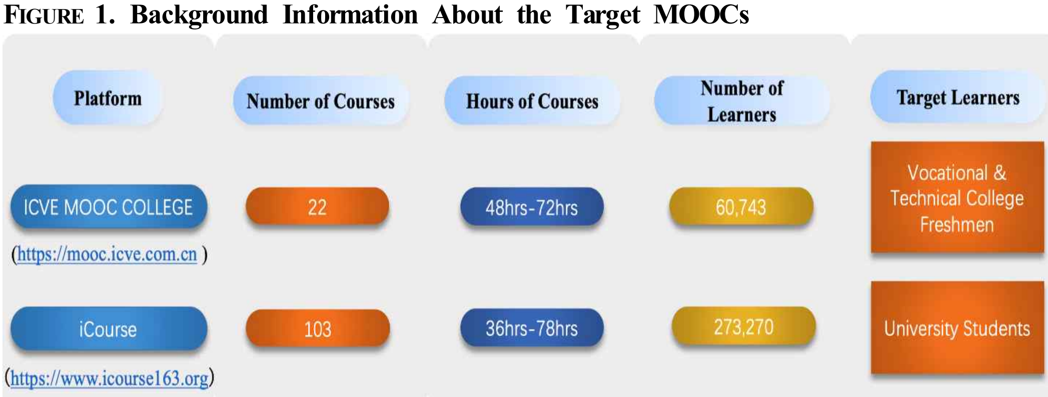
Since MOOCs were first used in mainland China, there has been discussion over their quality. Five major issues have been noted. First, the lack of a systematic design for the online–offline blended learning curriculum, according to educators, will cause students to become overwhelmed by the teachers' combined, voluminous resources, which would eventually lead to a sharp decline in student engagement (Zhou, 2020). Second, by estimation, the completion rate of MOOCs ranges from 4 to 15 percent. The biggest issue with using MOOCs for English language learning is the high registration rate but low participation and completion rates (Bai et al., 2016). Third, teachers would find it incredibly challenging to track every student's progress in online learning, since MOOCs have no time or space restrictions. The data analysis offered by the MOOC platform is, however, extremely constrained. Therefore, inadequate teaching and learning may result from insufficient monitoring functions. Fourth, Zhou (2020) expressed concern that the ideological and political education provided in Chinese higher education settings may conflict with the political functions carried out by various online courses. Fifth, there are further difficulties with teachers' beliefs. The same curriculum and design have been used by many teachers for many years. As a result, individuals could find it challenging to experiment with some novel instructional techniques. Senior teachers may also have a tough time utilizing contemporary technology, such as creating cartoon movies, aesthetic PPTs, and mini-lectures, and leaving behind the intricate and varied digital features associated with MOOC platforms. These problems would be issues for designing premium MOOCs in mainland China.

METHOD

Target MOOCs

English language MOOCs from the two most prestigious currently available online platforms were specifically chosen for this study during the second semester of the 2021–2022 academic year (see Figure 1). It is worth nothing that the two platforms, ICVE MOOC College and iCourse, are the most recognizable and widely used ones in mainland China. While the iCourse focuses on providing online courses for universities, the ICVE MOOC College was specifically created for vocational and technical colleges. As shown in Figure 1, there were a total of 103 college English courses offered on iCourse and 22 college English courses offered by ICVE MOOC College during the second semester of the 2021–2022 academic year. In addition, courses on the ICVE MOOC college platform last 48 to 72 hours, depending on the various teaching strategies, whereas courses on iCourse last 36 to 78 hours. There were 60,743 EFL students who registered for courses on ICVE MOOC College throughout the research period, whereas 273,270 EFL students completed their coursework on iCourse. Since the college English courses offered on ICVE MOOC College only target freshmen learners, the difference seen above may be the result of the different target learners of each platform. In addition, university students, regardless of their year in school, may all enroll in the college English courses that are offered on iCourse.

FIGURE 1. Background Information About the Target MOOCs



Procedure

Once the target MOOCs were selected, the comparison was conducted targeting four main aspects concerning the pedagogy in classes, including the content and learning outcomes, teaching and learning strategies, assessment, and digital platforms and resources. The comparison was conducted from these four main aspects to further examine the differences in implementation of MOOCs in EFL classes in two sub-sections of Chinese higher education, namely, universities and vocational and technical colleges.

Discussion

Content and Learning Outcomes

Since both universities and vocational and technical colleges are using MOOCs to augment traditional classroom teaching and learning, there are commonalities in the learning content across the two levels of higher education. The most popular method of incorporating MOOCs into EFL lessons is for teachers to choose appropriate MOOCs from the platforms that are closely related to the material contained in the unit intended for classroom instruction. According to Wang et al.'s (2020) empirical study, before-class activities, discussions, and after-class problem-solving activities are the key uses of MOOCs. Their research demonstrates that adding MOOCs to college English courses had a comparable positive impact on student CET-4 (College English Test Band 4) scores. This method of implementation is mostly based on flipped learning. Similar research by Hu and Wu (2014) revealed that EFL students with limited English proficiency benefit most from MOOCs. According to their research, students who take MOOCs tend to learn more vocabulary and get noticeably higher listening test results. Although it also implies that when MOOCs are implemented, curriculum design should be given more thought, educators still believe that MOOCs can help to promote effective learning. Similarly, Zhao et al. (2018) claimed that using MOOCs could help students achieve better learning outcomes.

Teaching and Learning Strategies

The teaching and learning methods used by teachers and students in universities and vocational and technical colleges have a lot in common.

Regarding teaching, educators must take into account completing two primary tasks: designing class-based MOOCs and in-class teaching and assessment activities. Selecting appropriate MOOCs and online resources to complement their in-class teaching materials before the lesson is taught is one of the teaching tactics that teachers frequently use (Wang, 2020). On the learning group for the class that is established via social media such as WeChat or QQ, teachers regularly first post the link to the appropriate MOOC. To get students to discuss before class, they then post some related questions. These exercises are used to make sure that learners are conversant with the subject matter and to make clear what learning objectives are being set for them. The majority of MOOC videos are used in classroom instruction. Additionally, since they may take advantage of the automatically generated feedback and the data restoring features, teachers also utilize the MOOC platform to assign after-class projects such as writing or speaking tasks, vocabulary or reading quizzes, and discussions.

College students' adoption of EFL MOOCs was studied in a case study by Ding and Shen (2019). They discovered that the frequently used techniques could be separated into metacognitive, motivational, and emotional control techniques. Students were found to commonly employ the metacognitive strategies of planning to select the learning material, setting up learning goals, creating schedules, and controlling attention by temporarily pausing learning for modification or moving learning to a different area to eliminate distractions. Additionally, it was found that students may support their learning in EFL MOOCs based on a variety of motives, including professional goals, MOOC certificates, exams, academic goals, social connections, competence and knowledge, curiosity and stimulation, and academic reasons. According to the study, when students experience negative emotions that could hinder their ability to learn in an EFL MOOC, they may take a brief break from their studies in order to unwind, continue their studies, actively work through their emotional issues, remember themselves by creating goals, or take notes to kill boredom. These are the techniques that students use to control their emotions when participating in EFL MOOCs.

Differences could only be found in the degree to which these tactics were used by teachers and students from universities versus technical schools.

Assessment

There is little doubt that incorporating MOOCs into college English classes can be a realistic strategy to develop a multi-dimensional dynamic evaluation system that can support more effective learning in English languages (Ma, 2015). Universities and vocational and technical colleges anticipate that by implementing MOOCs, the traditional teacher-centered assessment system might be transformed into a hybrid approach that includes teacher evaluation, peer assessment, technology-assisted assessment, and self-assessment. The new philosophy of modern language teaching and learning, which emphasizes the crucial role that students can play in the learning process, can also be achieved by doing this.

However, there might be some variances in how the evaluation system works in universities and technical institutes. In universities, formative assessment plays a crucial role. It is thought that when combined with summative assessment, formative assessment may be used to produce a more thorough evaluation that aims to evaluate the methods, attitudes, tactics, and efficacy of students' learning and, as a result, can help students adapt their learning in real time, build their confidence and enthusiasm for learning, and improve their cooperation skills (Niu, 2017). Niu's research supports Ma's (2015) assertions regarding the development of a multi-dimensional dynamic evaluation system based on the adoption of MOOCs in college-level English courses. She also provided a list of techniques employed in this regard, including maintaining notes on assignments, recording peer and instructor comments, compiling transcripts of teacher interviews and surveys, keeping tabs on test and quiz results, and so forth. Formative assessment, in contrast, is more challenging to implement, and the efficiency of the application is also unknown, despite the fact that it is also a hot topic in English language teaching in vocational education. In Hu's (2019) empirical study, students were asked if they had ever been engaged in regular formative assessment. Of those, 57 percent said they had never been, and roughly 62 percent said they had never engaged in goal-setting or self-evaluation. College English courses in technical institutions continue to be evaluated using a traditional method that mostly relies on summative assessment.

Therefore, it is evident that even while MOOC platforms at various levels of higher education in mainland China can provide both summative assessment by evaluating students' performance in online quizzes and examinations and formative assessment by providing some formative feedback via big data technologies, the usage of various assessment tools and functions in vocational colleges awaits more efforts for improvement (Chu, 2017).

Digital Platforms and Resources

There are numerous websites, mobile applications, and platforms utilized in China's higher education system to teach English; these include Rain Classroom, Study 163.com, Ke.qq.com, WeChat, QQ, and others. Two of them, Chinese University MOOCs and Intelligent Center of Vocational Education MOOCs, are the most well-known and are particularly welcomed by universities and vocational and technical colleges, respectively. Chinese University MOOCs requires students to be equipped with higher-level English proficiency and learning skills and cooperates with top universities worldwide. The courses are more general topics with a great number of academic topics in comparison to Intelligent Center of Vocational Education MOOCs, in which courses are meant to be more career-driven and have more work-related topics.

Resources relating to EFL MOOCs differ across the two platforms. In Chinese University MOOCs, additional English language test courses, such as those for the CET-4, CET-6, TOFEL, IELTS, Cambridge Business English Certificate, and others, can be found in addition to the general English language courses. On the other hand, English language courses at Intelligent Center of Vocational Education MOOCs are frequently created in accordance with major- or work-related knowledge and subjects, such as Hotel Service English, English for Traveling Abroad, Cabin English, Practical English for Midwifery, Dentistry English, English for Automobiles, English for Architecture, and so forth.

It is plausible to infer that the differences in EFL MOOCs in universities and vocational and technical colleges are due to the various needs of teaching and learning in relation to the various English proficiency levels of enrolled students. When compared to vocational college students, who are expected to find decent employment as soon as they graduate, university students are supposed to have higher levels of English proficiency. They are also expected to achieve more in academic studies and possibly move on to further higher education after graduation.

Pedagogical Implications

Redesigning the Course Content

Studying the research on how MOOCs are being integrated into college-level English courses at both academic and vocational and technical colleges, it is clear that the most popular approach is to choose MOOCs that are directly connected to the course's topic to supplement in-person instruction (Wei, 2017). Students may become overwhelmed by the vast amount of resources provided to them because there is no guarantee that the MOOCs that are selected will be fully integrated into the original instructional topic. In this regard, it is imperative that teachers redesign the course material from the very beginning. The problem might be solved by creating custom MOOCs based on the course materials and internet resources or by modifying already-made MOOCs to fit the new course materials.

Implementing EFL MOOCs on a College English Course

According to recent studies, blended learning, or using EFL MOOCs for online activities while supplementing in-person activities based on flipped classroom teaching, is commonly used in most college English courses. It is reasonable to think about how to facilitate effective teaching and learning via a MOOC platform without class-based teaching and flipped-classroom teaching, despite the issues that may be discovered from this mode, given the teaching situation during the COVID-19 pandemic time when schools are all closed and teaching and learning can only be performed online assisted by technology.

The realization of efficient teaching and learning entirely online could be facilitated by creating a teaching approach that fully utilizes the MOOC platform and livestreaming tools. However, this would necessitate a more robust, theoretical, and systematic design of teachers' own MOOCs, which is incredibly demanding of instructors, as it calls for teachers to be proficient in high-tech abilities in addition to their professional expertise.

Building Up a Systematic Plan for a Multi-Dimensional Evaluation System

Effective teaching and learning of the English language require the development of a multi-dimensional evaluation system that realizes a somewhat perfect assessment. This is the consensus of educators, researchers, and policymakers. It is thought that a multi-dimensional evaluation system can be successfully implemented with the use of internet technologies, including MOOCs.

E-portfolios may be considered a viable option in this regard. The e-portfolios should include a task-sheet book that is designed in electronic form and can be accessed by students by just scanning a QR code. The task-sheet book is personalized for each student and contains the background knowledge, prior learning experiences, goal-setting, goal-fulfillment checklist, task-links to MOOCs, self-evaluation sheet, peer-evaluation sheet, and teacher-feedback sheet for every teaching and learning session. Students merely need to scan a QR code to log in and begin working on the content because it is all easily accessible online. In order to remind themselves of their learning progress, students can always refer back to their electronic portfolios. However, this method also requires further empirical studies in the future.

CONCLUSIONS

MOOCs will inevitably be incorporated into college English courses in the future, in both universities and vocational and technical colleges in mainland China. The incorporation of MOOCs into college-level English courses is thought to benefit students by enhancing their vocabulary and communicative abilities, increasing their exam scores, piquing their interest in studying the language, fostering cooperative skills, and enhancing their sense of independence as learners. However, despite the many advantages of implementing technology into teaching and learning, there are many drawbacks as well, particularly now that the COVID-19 pandemic has affected the entire planet. The closure of schools and the inability to deliver class-based teaching and learning as a solution to the significant issues brought on by the pandemic in education have also contributed to the growth of online learning, particularly MOOCs. It is evident that the platform and resource construction is drastically inadequate. It is therefore necessary to change the course material by altering already-existing MOOCs or creating new MOOCs. In the meantime, implementing e-portfolios to continuously track students' learning progress as part of developing a systematic multi-dimensional evaluation system may be a fair strategy to actualize effective MOOC education.

Although it is highly recommended for teachers to take advantage of MOOCs, adapt them, and even create their own MOOCs to help with their teaching, they are rarely given structured instructions on how to create such online courses or engage in experience-sharing activities. It takes more than just willingness to adopt MOOCs because creating a MOOC demands knowledge, expertise, the right tools, and funding. Therefore, higher levels of management and even the government should offer more assistance. When it comes to the students, self-learning advice should be provided, and a pilot lesson on how to use MOOCs and how to study while using them should be offered at the very beginning of the course. It is possible for students to overcome their apprehensions about learning with the support of their teachers. Teachers can also keep students engaged and interested in the classroom, which will increase the likelihood that they will finish the course on time and make significant success. Once the difficulties are successfully overcome, it will be possible to accomplish not only a high-quality MOOC education but also a more efficient and affordable method of teaching and learning that is advantageous to both teachers and students.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the Sichuan Foreign Language Literature Research Center and Higher Education Press Project of Foreign Language Education Reform and is part of a project named "An Empirical Research on Cultivation of Intercultural Competence and Critical Thinking for College Students" [SCWYGJ21-22].

THE AUTHORS

Linlin Liu is a doctoral student in the Department of English Language Education at the Education University of Hong Kong. Her research interests include computer-assisted language learning, online teaching, and second language emotions. Email: s1138612@s.eduhk.hk

Wenjuan Guan is a senior lecturer in English language teaching at the Yibin Vocational and Technical College. Her research interests include computer-assisted language learning and second language acquisition. Email: 524461186@qq.com

REFERENCES

Bai, Q., Zhou, L., & Zhang, S. Y. (2016). Present learning situation and reflection of MOOC: From the perspective of the factors affecting the demotivation of Chinese MOOC learners. *Modern Educational Technology*, *26*(12), 65–71. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1009-8097.2016.12.010

Cao, M. (2017). The impact of MOOCs on college English reform in mainland China. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *8*(3), 571–576. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0803.16

Ding, Y., & Shen, H. Z. (2019). Delving into learner autonomy in an EFL MOOC in China: A case study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *35*(3), 247–269. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1681464

Fan, W. J. (2016). Reflections on the reform of English teaching in higher vocational colleges based on MOOC education. *English Square*, *6*, 145–146. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1009-6167.2016.06.080

Higher Education Department, Ministry of Education. (2007). *College English curriculum requirements*. Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Higher Education Department, Ministry of Education. (2018). *The education informatization action plan 2.0*. Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Hu, Er. J. (2019). Research on typical problems and strategies of autonomous English learning based on a network learning platform. *Journal of Qiqihar Junior Teachers' College*, *4*, 146–148. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1009-3958.2019.04.052

Hu, J. H., & Wu, Z. J. (2014). An empirical study on the MOOC-based college English flipped classroom instructional model. *Technology Enhanced Foreign Language Education*, *6*, 40–45. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1001-5795.2014.06.006

Lv, L. X. (2016). Research on the reform of English teaching in higher vocational colleges under the background of MOOCs. *Overseas English*, *15*, 39–41.

Ma, G. H. (2015). The construction of multi-dimensional dynamic evaluation system for autonomous learning of college English via MOOC based on multiple intelligences theory. *Journal of Hubei Correspondence University*, *28*(8), 145–146. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1671-5918.2015.08-069

Rong, H. L. (2016). Research on innovative ways of English teaching in higher vocational colleges under the background of MOOCs. *Forum on Science and Technology*, *7*, 156–157. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1000-8519.2016.07.086

Sun, C. Z. (2015). Challenges and opportunities of English teaching in higher vocational colleges under the background of MOOCs. *Journal of Xiangyang Polytechnic*, *14*(3), 112–114. https://doi.org/14.3969/j.issn.2095-6584.2015.03.000

Wang, F. L. (2015). Research on innovative ways of English teaching in higher vocational colleges under the background of MOOC. *China Training*, *18*. Available from: https://doi.org/10.14149/j.cnki.ct.2015.11.075

Wang, Z. (2020). Research on the new strategies of reform of English teaching in higher vocational colleges under the background of MOOCs. *Overseas English*, *11*, 258–259.

Wang, L. L., & Yang, F. (2015). Research on the reform and development of college English teaching under the background of "internet +." *Heilongjiang Researches on Higher Education*, *8*, 159–162. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1003-2614.2015.08.046

Wang, B. H., Wang, L., & Li, L. J. (2020). An empirical study on mobile English learning under the background of MOOCs. *Testing and Research*, *32*(2), 30–31. https://xueshu.baidu.com/usercenter/paper/show?paperid=1c520mr0ad340e104k6g0jt06n683043

Zheng, Y., & Yang, R.-Y. (2017). The rise of MOOCs: The literature review of research progress and hot spots of MOOCs education in mainland China. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics Science and Technology Education*, *13*(9), 165–174. https://doi.org/10.12973/eurasia.2017.01056a

Zhang, N. N. (2014). Exploration and research on college English classroom teaching mode based on MOOC era. *Science and Technology Innovation Herald*, *36*, 103–104. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1674-098X.2014.36.067

Zhou, L. J. (2020). Reflection and prospect of online college foreign language teaching based on MOOCs. *Journal of YuZhang Normal University*, *35*(6), 67–70.

Zhang, X. (2018). A brief study on the teaching and learning strategies of English language teaching in vocational colleges based on the MOOCs education. *Modern Vocational Education*, *28*, 90. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.2096-0603.2018.28.233

Workshop Reports

ClassDojo as a Neurodiversity-Friendly, Adaptable Learning Management System

Meagan Renee Kaiser
Tokushima University, Tokushima, Japan

A simple-to-use, organized, and welcoming learning management platform is something many of us sought out during the pandemic in hopes of creating greater stability and connection. Though it was not originally intended to be a learning management system (LMS), re-imagining ClassDojo to function in this capacity, even at the university level, has turned out to be a solution worth sharing. Workshop attendees learned about how ClassDojo could be set up effectively as a university-level LMS and how the tools on the platform could be used to support neurodiversity and mutual understanding through communication between student and teacher.

Introduction

Class Dojo describes themselves as a “free school communication platform that teachers, students, and families use every day to build close-knit communities by sharing classroom moments at home through photos, videos and messages” (ClassDojo, n.d.). Since the pandemic began in 2020, they have also made leaps in adapting the platform to better meet the needs of teachers and learners for remote learning, which has resulted in the creation, essentially, of a learning management system (LMS) founded on principles of communication and community-building. When remote learning began for me as well in 2020, I chose to try ClassDojo at the university level in Japan because it seemed to meet the criteria I was looking for best in terms of student privacy protection, simplicity of design, and what looked like the capacity at the time to turn into a decent homework management tool that could handle multimedia better than our university integrated LMS.

After more than two years working with ClassDojo as an LMS, I’ve found that in addition to what I hoped it would do, I had underestimated its capacity as a tool for student–teacher communication and for creating a neurodiversity-friendly environment. It is one of the tools that will remain as part of my teaching going forward whether in the classroom or online. This workshop at KOTESOL combined a walk-through and tutorial on ClassDojo as an LMS and an exploration of why it might be a good option for other teachers as well, as we transition towards more neurodiversity-friendly practices in our pedagogy. In this paper, I will recap the key points talked about in the workshop. The live workshop focused a bit more heavily on the how, and this paper will go into greater detail as to the why.

Key Points

Defining Neurodiversity, Disability, and Universal Design

Neurodiversity is not the opposite of neurotypical but rather is an acknowledgement and respect for the differences we all have in the way our minds process information. Disability rights activist and autism care professional Aiyana Bailin (2019) summarized the beliefs of the neurodiversity movement as follows:

> Autism and other neurological variations (learning disabilities, ADHD, etc.) may be disabilities, but they are not flaws. People with neurological differences are not broken or incomplete versions of normal people. Disability, no matter how profound, does not diminish personhood. People with atypical brains are fully human, with inalienable human rights, just like everyone else. People with disabilities can live rich, meaningful lives. Neurological variations are a vital part of humanity, as much as variations in size, shape, skin color, and personality. None of us has the right (or the wisdom) to try and improve upon our species by deciding which characteristics to keep and which to discard. Every person is valuable. Disability is a complicated thing. Often, it's defined more by society's expectations than by individual conditions. Not always, but often. (para. 2)

Disability is also a concept that needs to be clearly defined as it is evolving in the way we understand it. An increasingly accepted and favored definition among people who identify as Disabled is that of the Social Model of Disability. Social Model (n.d.) provides this definition:

> The Social Model of Disability was developed by Disabled people and describes people as being disabled by barriers in society, not by our impairment or difference. If modern life was set up in a way that was accessible for Disabled people, then we would not be excluded or restricted.
>
> The social model of disability helps us recognise barriers that make life harder for Disabled people. These barriers are identified as being the physical environment, people's attitudes, the way people communicate, how institutions and organizations are run, and how society discriminates against those of us who are perceived as "different." Removing these barriers creates equality and offers Disabled people more independence, choice, and control. (para. 1–2)

The Social Model is in contrast to the Medical Model used in previous generations, which operated under the assumption that people were disabled by their impairments, without an understanding that how we choose in our societies to design the world around us can cause or alleviate disability. The Social Model of Disability and the Neurodiversity movement align closely with the philosophy of Universal Design. The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) described Universal Design as

> the design of products, environments, programmes, and services to be usable by all people, to the greatest extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialized design. "Universal design" shall not exclude assistive devices for

> particular groups of persons with disabilities where this is needed. (Article 2..., n.d.)

Since 2008 in South Korea and 2013 in Japan with the ratification of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), considering equal opportunity and inclusivity in education became not just something we should consider but a protected right under the commitments of the convention. Article 24 – Education (n.d.) reads as follows:

> 1. States Parties recognise the right of persons with disabilities to education. With a view to realizing this right without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunity, States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning directed to:
>   a. The full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth, and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms, and human diversity;
>   b. The development by persons with disabilities of their personality, talents and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities, to their fullest potential;
>   c. Enabling persons with disabilities to participate effectively in a free society. (para. 1)

The CRPD defines disability similarly to Disability Rights UK as follows:

> Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual, or sensory impairments that in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others. (Conventions..., 2006)

Reasonable Accommodations

Reasonable Accommodations Supporting Organization

Difficulty focusing in class, forgetfulness, working memory deficits, a tendency to lose things, and struggles with organization are among the common challenges faced by students with ADHD. Anxiety (34%), depression (29%), and bipolar disorder (12%) are also co-existing conditions that students with ADHD may be coping with every day (Zeigler Dendy & Zeigler, 2017). From a social model of disability and universal design perspective then, and in accordance with Article 24, we understand that it is important to reduce these recognizable barriers and take a supportive approach to co-existing conditions through reasonable accommodation.

The CRPD defined a reasonable accommodation as "necessary and appropriate modification and adjustments not imposing a disproportionate or undue burden, where needed in a particular case, to ensure to persons with disabilities the enjoyment or exercise on an equal basis with others of all human rights and fundamental freedoms" (Article 2..., n.d.).

In using ClassDojo at the university level over the past two and a half years, several features in ClassDojo's design have stood out as helpful to reducing disabling factors for students with ADHD. Firstly, ClassDojo doesn't require students to remember any passwords or complicated logins. The teacher creates a list of names and each student is sent a URL to their own account. The only action a student has to take is to click on the link. If the link gets deleted or lost, it is easily sent again.

In contrast, many email and administrative systems require students to remember a number-based ID as well as a password. Loss of either, in the case of the system at my own institution, would result in a student needing to visit the IT office during business hours on the main campus, fill out paperwork, and wait up to 24 hours (or more over a weekend) for their account to be reinstated. For a student who struggles with managing time and often loses important information, the potential is there for it to become a significant burden – created by the system. ClassDojo has stood out as a significantly better solution in this way for managing assignments.

The next feature in the design that stood out was the student view interface. In many LMSs, students need to navigate through folders and drop-down menus, clicking deeper into the system to get to all of the resources available. Because ClassDojo was designed for elementary school students and with simplicity in mind, nearly every tool and bit of information is on display on the homepage, and everything can be found by toggling between just two views: Classroom (home) and Portfolio (completed work).

In Classroom View – the default when a student enters ClassDojo – on the left, the student can see a running total of their points so far for the semester and what they were awarded for. In the center, there is a to-do list of assignments that need to be completed. At the top of the page, there is an icon toolbar for photo, video, whiteboard, journal, and file attachment that students can use to independently send assignments or messages to their teacher. Here also, there is no need to remember an email address for the teacher, which simplifies communication.

As students complete assignments, the assignments disappear from the to-do list automatically. If a teacher sends an assignment back to a student for edits, it automatically reappears on the to-do list. Also, students can always review their past work by clicking on Portfolio. There is no need to remember what the homework was or whether it was completed or not – it is apparent immediately when a student checks their page, and a student can review past work at any time, as it is there for both the student and teacher to revisit for the duration of the course.

Within assignments, it is possible for teachers to create video instructions for students that can be re-watched as many times as necessary, and it is also possible to include hyperlinks to tutorials, support materials for the assignment, more detailed instructions, etc. Everything needed for success on an assignment is kept there together in one place.

These features are ADHD-friendly (Helping students with ADHD…, n.d.; General assignment accommodations, n.d.), and they follow best practices in universal design. They benefit everyone and help to remove systemic barriers to success for students who need it.

Reasonable Accommodations Supporting Activity and Instruction Differentiation

Following the principles of universal design, neurodiversity considerations should be woven through the process of planning of curriculum and classes. Even so, adjustments and a certain amount of accommodation beyond even the best planning will likely always be needed. We rarely have the luxury of knowing our students well before they join us in the classroom, and throughout the entire spectrum of neurodiversity, we are all individuals with individual needs and preferences. It is only through dialogue and relationship-building that we can learn more precisely about what we can do to support our students.

Some examples might be a student who processes spoken instructions better than written words, or a student who struggles with speaking on the spot but is great at expressing themselves on paper. There might be a student who needs to know what to expect ahead of time, or someone who needs to step out for a break due to sensory overload and would benefit from being able to look back at a recording of a discussion with group members and add their own thoughts a bit later. In some cases, it is sensible to incorporate the accommodation into the universal design of the course, but in other cases, what is an appropriate accommodation for one student might be disabling or frustrating for another, and differentiation of instructions or activities becomes the more sensible choice.

ClassDojo's teacher interface allows for setting an assignment for the whole class or for specific students. It is possible within ClassDojo to send out differentiated instructions, differentiated activities, and extra supports to students as needed within the assignment. It is not an accommodation "tagged on" to a neurotypical assignment, rather it is a tailored version of the same assignment sent directly to the student's individual device.

Because of the stigma still associated with neurodivergence, students with impairments might be reluctant to reach out for accommodations they have a right to access. Finding a platform that allows for personalized differentiation that isn't broadcast to the class as a whole may allow more students to feel their dignity is respected and encourage them to reach out to share how we as educators can better meet their needs.

Class Dojo also allows teachers to add text or video messages to student portfolios, and the students in return are able to send messages in the format of their choice using the toolbar at the top of the Classroom page. It opens up a literal space for dialogue between teacher and student about how best to reasonably support their learning and, as described above, provides a way of meeting those needs discreetly.

Reasonable Accommodations Supporting Iterative Process Learning and Communication

Neurodivergent students may feel that they are navigating the neurotypical world to a certain extent as if it were a foreign landscape – the teacher and student aren't necessarily "speaking the same language" when they first meet. It takes time to get to understand a different way of thinking on both sides, potentially making instructions more confusing, expectations for assignments harder to fathom, and time for finding common ground on both sides necessary

(Bailin, 2019; Fast facts, n.d.; How to ADHD, 2021; Living well with schizophrenia, 2021; McCabe, 2019; Zeigler Dendy & Zeigler, 2017). Making room for misunderstanding and space to address it is part of meeting the needs of Disabled persons under the CRPD Education guidelines. As such, setting up try-and-try again or iterative process policies for as many assignments as possible should be part of the universal design of the course.

The ability in ClassDojo for a teacher to return an assignment as a "Draft" for further edits, with options for multiple forms of feedback, and on the student side for a student to be able to save an assignment during the creation process before turning it in, in a way that both the teacher and student can see and discuss is friendly to iterative process learning. Until the teacher archives an assignment in ClassDojo, it is always live as well, which is also an iterative process-friendly feature built into the platform.

Reasonable Accommodations Supporting Time Flexibility Needs

As for how time factors into the equation, both Jessica McCabe, the creator of How to ADHD, a leading resource on YouTube for understanding ADHD, and Lauren Kennedy of the Living Well with Schizophrenia channel, a growing source for advocacy and understanding of people living with schizophrenia and schizoaffective disorder, have shared their own experiences as case studies in which lack of flexibility played a major role in their failures at university (McCabe, 2019; Living well…, 2021). They were academically capable, but the system couldn't accommodate their needs for flexibility in scheduling, in assignments, and also in terms of time. For a person with ADHD or a person experiencing good and bad days with schizoaffective disorder, strict deadlines aren't teaching responsibility, they are a form of discrimination.

The design of an LMS can hinder or help a teacher's ability to be flexible with when and how assignments are handed in. As described above, flexibility on deadlines is already part of ClassDojo's design, making time-related accommodations easier to meet.

Room for Improvement on the Platform

In 2022, from a universal design perspective, there is still room for improvement on ClassDojo when it comes to language and subtitling. Currently, there is no way to include subtitles within the teacher instruction videos created on the platform, an issue that could be disabling or non-inclusive for some students. The workaround is to include a hyperlinked video created on a third-party platform that does allow for subtitling inside the instructions text box, but it would be beneficial if this were a feature that could be added at some point. There is also currently a lack of multilingual support for students. ClassDojo does have multilingual communication tools for parent progress reports and notifications, but as of yet, there are no multilingual settings in the student view. It would be great if this also were something the company would consider offering in the future.

CONCLUSION

As of 2022, 184 countries in the world have committed to supporting neurodiversity in education as part of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Beginning to look more closely at the tools and techniques of our profession from the perspective of neurodiversity friendliness and universal design is something we as teachers can do to help our countries begin to meet the commitments of the convention. In this paper, the reasons why and how ClassDojo could potentially be an aid toward creating a neurodiversity-friendly classroom were described. I hope it is a perspective that can be useful to other teachers and that perhaps other teacher researchers will give it a try in their own classrooms, adding to the body of knowledge on this learning platform.

THE AUTHOR

Meagan Renee Kaiser is a TESOL specialist working in the Institute of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Tokushima University, Japan. She holds an MA in TESOL from Ball State University. Her undergraduate training from the same institution is in foreign language education, music education, and music performance. She is interested in cross-disciplinary theories and approaches to education, education policy, curriculum development, and the intersection between general education theories and second language acquisition. Email: kaisermeaganrenee@tokushima-u.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Article 2 – Definitions. (n.d.). United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Disability. https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities/article-2-definitions.html

Article 24 – Education. (n.d.). United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Disability. https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities/article-24-education.html

Bailin, A. (2019, June). Clearing up some misconceptions about neurodiversity. *Scientific American*. https://blogs.scientificamerican.com/observations/clearing-up-some-misconceptions-about-neurodiversity/

ClassDojo. (n.d.). *An introduction to ClassDojo* [Video]. YouTube. https://youtu.be/oufeciODPuo

Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities. (2006). United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner. https://www.ohchr.org/en/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/convention-rights-persons-disabilities

Fast facts. (n.d.). College Autism Network. https://collegeautismnetwork.org/home/research/fastfacts/

General assignment accommodations. (n.d.). *CHADD*. https://chadd.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/GeneralAssignmentAccommodations.pdf

Helping students with ADHD using the instructional process. (n.d.). *CHADD*. https://chadd.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/InstructionalProcess-1.pdf

How to ADHD. (2021, October). *Why do we hold ourselves to neurotypical standards?* [Video]. YouTube. https://youtu.be/IMeCxDQZeqY

Living well with schizophrenia. (2021). *My experience with mental illness and university* [Video]. YouTube. https://youtu.be/b5wJNv7bDlQ

McCabe, J. (2019). *Failing at normal*: *An ADHD success story*. [Video]. YouTube.

https://youtu.be/JiwZQNYlGQI
Social Model of Disability: Language. (n.d.). Disability Rights UK. https://www.disabilityrightsuk.org/social-model-disability-language
Zeigler Dendy, C. A., & Zeigler, A. (2017, July). *Explaining ADHD to teachers*. ADDitude. https://www.additudemag.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/Explaining-ADHD-to-Teachers.pdf

Selecting, Grading, and Using TED Talks in Listening Lessons

Naheen Madarbakus-Ring
Nagoya University of Commerce and Business, Nagoya, Japan

This paper reviews the main components of the workshop that I conducted on selecting, grading, and using TED Talks in listening lessons. This interactive workshop aimed to present practical and accessible approaches to teaching listening in academic contexts. This paper provides an overview of the three components. The first component discusses how to select TED Talks that are appropriate for the teaching context. The second component describes an approach to grading TED Talks using an online vocabulary profiler. Finally, the third component makes activity suggestions to practice listening in the classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Listening is an innate and ephemeral skill in which measuring tangible progress can be difficult. In teaching listening, the search for tangibility has traditionally led to a dependency on comprehension questions with pre-determined answers as a measure for learner progress.

Teachers may lack the instructional expertise to provide their learners with practical and accessible activities beyond the traditional approaches. They may also find it difficult to help learners visualize their progress in the skill in the English for academic purposes (EAP) classroom.

Rost (2011) presents four listening processes to describe how people listen:

1. *Neurological processing* concerns our consciousness and the attention we give to input when we hear it.
2. *Pragmatic processing* refers to adding our own ideas from previous experience to the verbal or non-verbal input heard.
3. *Linguistic processing* refers to how one perceives speech and the decisions they make to parse (or break down) the speech and how one deals with prosodic (e.g., intonation, tone) features.
4. *Semantic processing* refers to our short-term and long-term memory and activating schemata to create new meaning from the input heard.

Neurological and pragmatic processing are often influenced by the individual's prior experience and also their confidence with listening practices. Linguistic and semantic processing often involve linking the individuals' experience to the input. Simply put, listening includes hearing the input that we assemble or put together through cognitive processing. Previous knowledge and experience are then added to the input to achieve comprehension. It is at this point that the listener makes a decision as to whether the input warrants a response, whether it will be stored in the short-term or long-term memory, or discarded. The two latter processes can be used as a foundation by teachers to prepare more appropriate listening input for learners.

How Do We Teach Listening?

Teaching listening involves using different approaches and strategies to suit the appropriate teaching context. Two of the more common methods are using (a) bottom-up and top-down approaches and (b) metacognitive, cognitive, socio-affective language learning strategies in listening instruction.

Bottom-Up and Top-Down Approaches

In the listening realm, bottom-up and top-down approaches refer to how the listener adds meaning and context to the input to understand it. Bottom-up approaches concern the decoding of smaller units in language. This involves learners focusing on the phonemes, syllables, or word-level meaning to understand the input. Bottom-up approaches tend to focus on vocabulary, such as key words, to help learners understand details in the listening text. Top-down approaches involve the learner using their background knowledge to predict the content that they will hear. This involves thinking about what learners already know about the topic and adding their own prediction to the new information. Top-down approaches tend to focus on context, such as the gist, to help learners understand the main idea of the listening text. Field (2011) comments that learners tend to rely on one approach or the other, depending on their listening ability. However, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) advocate that listening instruction should orchestrate the two approaches to provide learners with both bottom-up and top-down opportunities to comprehend the text while listening.

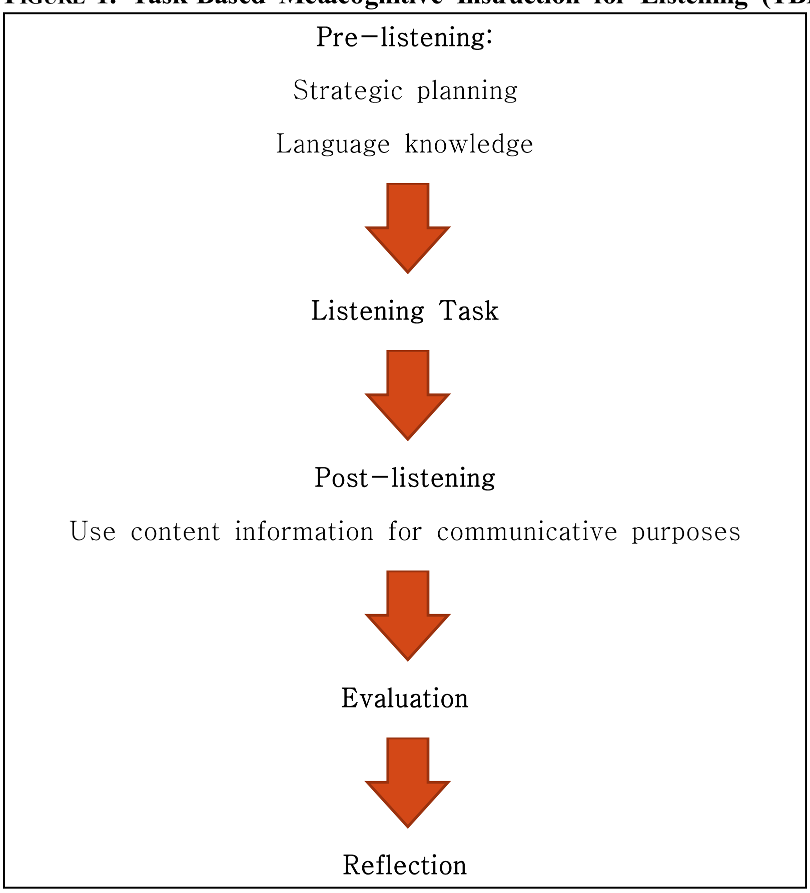
Metacognitive, Cognitive, and Socio-affective Strategies

Another approach to help learners to listen in the classroom is using language learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) describe three strategies that can be used in listening instruction. Metacognitive strategies focus learners on the process of listening. Metacognition helps the learner to monitor, evaluate, and reflect on their listening. Cognitive strategies focus on the practical aspect of listening. Specifically, cognition focuses learners on what they actually hear when they listen. Socio-affective strategies focus learners on their experience of listening. Learners can interact with the text or with each other to discuss their understanding, approaches, and experience of listening. These three language learning strategies can provide learners with a foundation to plan, act, and reflect on their listening in the classroom.

Task-Based Metacognitive Instruction for Listening Framework

Teachers can integrate bottom-up/top-down approaches and language learning strategies into an instructional framework to support learners in listening lessons. Goh's (2018) TBMIL (task-based metacognitive instruction for listening) framework provides learners with five stages: pre-listening, the listening task, post-listening, evaluation, and reflection (see Figure 1). Metacognitive instruction is integrated into the traditional pre-listening, listening task, and post-listening stages throughout the lesson. To start, an additional strategic planning task helps learners to think about how they will approach their listening before they consider the language knowledge that will help them to understand the listening topic. After the listening task, learners can evaluate their understanding of the bottom-up and top-down details, usually by focusing on the vocabulary and context. Evaluation provides learners with further opportunities to think about if they approached the listening as they had planned in the pre-listening. Reflection encourages learners to consider how to address the difficulties they encountered in their next listening.

FIGURE 1. Task-Based Metacognitive Instruction for Listening (TBMIL) Framework



Note. Adapted from Goh, 2018.

Developing TED Talk Listening Lessons

TED Talks was chosen as the resource for the listening lessons. These content-rich talks (e.g., technology, education, design) are given by professionals and experts who talk about their topic in an engaging and innovative storytelling manner. TED Talks are often used as a primary listening resource in academic contexts due to their online access, free transcripts and subtitles, and availability in English and 40 other languages.

Selecting TED Talks for Listening Lessons

To aid selection of TED Talks for listening lessons, Romanelli et al. (2014) examined twelve common aspects of TED Talks and academic lectures. Table 1 shows six aspects that are appropriate for second language learning contexts.

Table 1. TED Talks vs. Academic Lectures Aspects List

Aspect	TED Talk	Academic Lecture
Subject	New idea/argument or well-formed idea	Concept/principle around curricula
Timeframe	18 minutes (attention span for topic)	45-90 minutes (rationale unknown)
Style	Storytelling mode	Structured/rigid lecture style
Speaker	Topic expert, passionate about idea	Subject matter expert, often dispassionate
Structure	Explain idea, audience reacts	Introduction/objectives/conclusions
Visuals	Images/photos/graphs/tables	Text bullet points

Note. Adapted from Romanelli et al., 2014, p. 2.

When selecting talks, the subject should be relevant to the course curriculum or relate to learner interests. The timeframe should ideally be 6–12 minutes to align with the learners' cognitive demands. Most TED Talks are told in an engaging style, but choosing a speaker who is passionate about their topic or renowned in their field gives learners a better presentation model. Although TED Talks tend to follow the same structure, choosing a speaking or writing model that is close to one of the curriculum assignments can be useful in transferring skills for learners. Finally, choosing a TED Talk with visuals helps learners to notice and monitor what they hear while they listen.

To select a TED Talk, try using the following steps:

1. Go to www.ted.com
2. Search for a topic of your choice (e.g., business). Use the "search" function or "watch" function to narrow your search.
3. Check the following:
   - Timeframe (under 12 minutes?)
   - Style (of speaker?)
   - Structure (argument? experiment? concept?)
   - Visuals (PowerPoint? gestures? mime? acting?)
4. Check if the TED Talk has:

- Language options (e.g., English, Japanese, Korean subtitles?)
- Speed options (e.g., 0.75, normal, 1.25)
- Transcript/subtitles (e.g., interactive, on/off)

Grading TED Talks for Listening Lessons

Researchers have created vocabulary lists to help teachers understand the suitability of texts in language learning. Nation (2013) found that identifying high frequency words (i.e., K1 = the first 1,000 words, K2 = the second 1,000 most frequent words in the English language) in learning texts can help teachers to understand how many words learners need to achieve 95% comprehension. Coxhead (2000) concurs, adding that the AWL (Academic Word List) can also be used to identify the 570 word families (e.g., *study*, *student*, *studious* are in the same word family) that are found in academic texts.

With these vocabulary parameters in mind, a vocabulary profiler (https://www.lextutor.ca/vp/eng/) can be used to understand the vocabulary level of a chosen text. (See Appendix A for the vocabulary profile of one TED Talk.)

The vocabulary profile provides teachers with a guided approach to grading the listening text. The profile generates several lists, dividing the words into frequency (e.g., K1, K2), academic (e.g., *appreciate*, *areas*), and off-list (e.g., *styrofoam*) categories. These lists can check the suitability of the text level for learners. Pre-teaching frequency lists can reduce learners' cognitive demands while listening. Academic vocabulary lists help provide learners with a broader repertoire for academic contexts. Off-list words help learners familiarize themselves with novel or unique proper nouns.

To create a vocabulary profile for a TED Talk, try using the following steps:

1. Go to www.lextutor.ca/vp/eng
2. Copy and paste the TED Talk transcript into the box.
3. Check the following:
    - BNC/COCA list chosen (K1–K2 or K1–K25)?
    - AWL list chosen?
    - K1 proper noun box checked?
4. Click "Submit" to run the vocabulary profiler.
5. Copy and paste the lists and/or export the Excel table to develop your listening materials.

Using TED Talks for Listening Lessons

Using pre-listening, listening, and post-listening stages with a TED Talk provides learners with supportive metacognitive instruction in listening (see Figure 1). The following five tasks can provide an orchestrated approach to listening.

Predictions

Before class, source 2–4 images that relate to the topic or the talk. Show learners the images and ask them what similar texts they have read or listened to about the TED Talk topic/title. Learners then use bullet points to create a list or write a short phrase or sentence to predict what the talk is about.

Vocabulary Box

Using the vocabulary profile generated for the chosen TED Talk, create a vocabulary list (e.g., academic, frequency, or off-list words). Give the list to the learners and ask them to circle new words and look up the meanings in a dictionary. Groups can also divide the list between them and look up the meanings for their words before sharing with the group.

Note-taking

Divide the note-taking page into two sections by drawing a vertical line about a third of the way from the left-hand side of the page. Check the transcript and/or vocabulary list to identify cues (e.g., key words, phrases) from each paragraph. Add the identified cues (about 10) to the left-hand column of the note-taking page, leaving a double space between each cue. Learners use the cues to prompt their listening and write notes on the right-hand side as they listen. Ask learners to change pens to differentiate their notes when they listen the second time.

Questions

Before class, use the transcript to prepare 5–10 questions (e.g., true/false, matching, comprehension) about the listening. After listening, learners can use their notes to answer the questions. Learners can then work in groups to check their answers.

Opinion

Write 2–5 opinion prompts (e.g., reflect on the content, relate to oneself) about the talk. After listening, learners use their notes and key words/bullet-point list to plan their answer. Learners then work in groups to share their opinions. An example of these tasks is shown in Appendix B.

CONCLUSION

Selecting, grading, and using TED Talks for listening lessons brings an innovative and accessible resource to the listening classroom. Learners can practice listening using the text (cognitive strategy) and each other (socio-affective strategy) to reflect on the listening content and their listening approach, and to consider how to address their listening difficulties using metacognitive instruction.

THE AUTHOR

Naheen Madarbakus-Ring is a lecturer at Nagoya University of Commerce and Business in Japan. She has taught in South Korea, the UK, and New Zealand. Naheen has a PhD in applied linguistics from Victoria University of Wellington (NZ). Her research areas include listening strategies, and curriculum and material development. Email: drnmring@gmail.com

References

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, *34*(2), 213–238. https://www.lextutor.ca/myanmar/2/coxhead_2000.pdf

Field, J. (2011). Into the mind of the academic listener. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *10*(2), 102–112. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.04.002

Goh, C. (2018). Building a listening curriculum. In J. M. Newton, D. R. Ferris, C. C. Goh, W. Grabe, F. L. Stoller, & L. Vandergrift (Eds.), *Teaching English to second language learners in academic contexts*: *Reading*, *writing*, *listening*, *and speaking* (pp. 145–162). Routledge.

Nation, I. S. (2013). *Learning vocabulary in another language* [Google eBook]. Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.

Romanelli, F., Cain, J., & McNamara, P. J. (2014). Should TED Talks be teaching us something? *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, *78*(6), Article 113. https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe786113

Rost, M. (2011). *Teaching and researching*: *Listening*. Routledge.

Vandergrift, L., & Goh, C. C. (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening*: *Metacognition in action*. Routledge.

APPENDIX A

Example of a TED Talk Vocabulary Profile

How to Become a Smart Tourist

	Families	Types	Tokens	Percent
K1 Words (1 - 1000):	179	215	726	83.26%
Function:	–	–	(476)	(54.59%)
Content:	–	–	(250)	(28.67%)
> Anglo-Sax	–	–	(152)	(17.43%)
K2 Words (1001 - 2000):	25	30	42	4.82%
> Anglo-Sax	–	–	(14)	(1.61%)
1k+2k		–	–	(88.08%)
AWL Words:	30	37	49	5.62%
> Anglo-Sax	–	–	(4)	(0.46%)
Off-List Words:	?	37	55	6.31%
	234+?	319	872	100%

AWL types: [30:37:49] appreciate_[2] areas_[1] aware_[1] challenges_[1] communicate_[1] communities_[2] community_[3] consequences_[1] consume_[1] consumer_[1] consumers_[1] consuming_[1] contributing_[1] create_[1] cultural_[1] defined_[1] dynamic_[2] economic_[1] economy_[1] environment_[1] environmental_[1] environments_[1] global_[2] goals_[1] impact_[3] individuals_[1] interact_[1] items_[1] jobs_[1] lecturing_[1] obviously_[1] participate_[3] percent_[1] perspective_[1] positive_[2] potential_[1] target_[1]

OFF types: [?:37:55] beaches_[1] coastal_[3] conservation_[1] crafts_[1] diplomatically_[1] effortless_[1] effortlessly_[1] empathy_[1] excursions_[1] flimsy_[1] garage_[1] gracious_[1] harnessed_[1] hopefully_[3] imported_[1] jagged_[1] mindset_[1] monster_[1] photo_[1] plastic_[2] polystyrene_[1] recreation_[1] resilience_[1] reusable_[2] reusables_[1] scenic_[1] smart_[5] souvenirs_[1] stalked_[1] stalker_[1] stereotyped_[1] styrofoam_[1] tourism_[1] tweak_[1] unexpected_[1] vacation_[1] wildlife_[2]

Words re-categorized by user as 1k items (proper nouns etc.): NONE WTO GDP

END OF LIST (total 2 tokens)

APPENDIX B

Example of a TED Talk Listening Lesson

FIGURE B1: Before Listening

Kristin Weis - Smart Tourism: How

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tWIJ7Xqga58 / http://www.tedxherndon.com/videos/

Before Listening

E-i) What other texts have you read or listened to which are similar to the topic *How to be a smart tourist?*

E-ii) Write your predictions before listening in the space below. Check your ideas after listening.

Ideas Before I Listen	Ideas After I Listen

E-iii) Check new words in a dictionary. Write the definition, translation and/or synonyms under the new words.

Appreciate	Areas	Aware	Beaches	Challenges	Communicate	Communities
Consequences	Conservation	Consume	Contribute	Create	Culture	Diplomatic
Define	Dynamic	Effortless	Empathy	Economy	Environment	Excursion
Flimsy	Garbage	Gracious	Global	Harass	Import	Interact
Jagged	Mindset	Plastic	Polystyrene	Participate	Perspective	Potential
Recreation	Resilience	Styrofoam	Scenic	Stalk	Stereotype	Tweak

How much did I understand about the listening in this section? (0%-100%)	

FIGURE B2: While Listening

While Listening

TOP TIP! Use the cues given to make detailed notes when the speaker talks about these ideas.

F. Listen to the talk twice. Write your notes in the space below as you listen. Change pens the second time you listen.

Coastal areas	
Problem	
Message	
Tourism	
Smart People	
Question	
Three Ways	
Respect the locals	
Reusables	
Target your money	
Smart Tourism	

How much did I understand about the listening in this section? (0%-100%)	

FIGURE B3. After Listening

After Listening

G. Use your notes to match the information with the answer key below. Discuss these ideas.

A. Coastal Areas	B. Problem	C. Message	D. Tourism
E. Smart People	F. Question	G. Three ways	H. Respect the locals
I. Use Reusables	J. Target your Money	K. Smart Tourism	L. Gracious hosts

1. Break from our responsibilities but do not experience the consequences	2. See people, places and natural world – not products to consume	3. To be a better visitor and participate in smart tourism	4. Look for business that contribute to/support the local community
5. If I'm a visitor, who is the host?	6. Do not stalk or harass the wildlife	7. Our relationship when we visit the coast as tourists	8. Think of yourself as a visitor, not a tourist
9. Avoid using single-use items to reduce the waste left behind	10. Defined as the act of traveling for recreation	11. Tweak our perspective when on vacation	12. Working toward encouraging locals and tourists to interact

A7	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L

G-i) Go back to the prediction boxes. Write about if your ideas changed in the 'Ideas after I listen' box.

H. Look at the ideas from 'Focus on…Inferencing'. What do you understand about these ideas now?

Smart Tourism	Coastal Areas	Break from Responsibilities
Respect the Locals	**Use Reusables**	**Target Your Money**

H-i. What are your opinions?

Would Smart Tourism work?	What is the best way to participate in Smart Tourism?	How does Smart Tourism make you a responsible tourist?

Engaging EFL Learners Through the Game of Go

Daniela Trinks
Myongji University, Yongin, Korea

Motivating EFL learners is a daunting task as exam-driven teaching requires drilling students to memorize vocabulary and grammar rules. Typically, teaching and learning materials cover unfamiliar topics from foreign countries that students can't easily relate to, thus impeding the learning process. Practical alternatives are needed to overcome this challenge. This workshop report aims at demonstrating how EFL educators can design lessons based on the East Asian board game Go to improve student motivation and engagement. The first part of the workshop elaborates on why Go is worth learning and what makes it different from other board games. The second part of the workshop focuses on some hands-on activities that EFL teachers can easily incorporate into their classrooms without being an expert in the game.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching a foreign language in a country like South Korea, where the students' English proficiency can determine their future university and job prospects, is a daunting task. Most often, teachers focus mainly on drilling their students to pass standardized exams. Finch (2017) compared English language acquisition in Korea with learning the board game Go, and concluded that the latter is far more successful when considering the invested time and costs in reaching a profound level. Finch proposed that English educators should learn from Go education and "inspire their students to become involved in flow-based learning that is enjoyable, voluntary, and worthwhile" (Conclusion, para. 3). He addressed the important issue of motivating and engaging students in class as well as choosing content that students are interested in.

Studies have shown that game-based learning has many educational benefits in EFL and ESL classrooms, such as providing emotional experiences (Squire, 2022), enhanced listening comprehension (Berry, 2020), increased student motivation and participation (Cervantes, 2009), student engagement and promoting students' spontaneous and authentic use of a foreign language (Marshall & Dzieciolowski, 2020).

This workshop aimed at introducing the game of Go and demonstrating how it can be used in the EFL classroom. The workshop was held in a highly interactive way so that the attendees could take the role of a student while learning how to teach the game in class.

The Game of Go

The game of Go is an ancient game that is believed to be the oldest board game that is still being played. It originated in China where it is called *wei qi* and later spread to South Korea and Japan, where it is called *baduk* and *igo*, respectively. In these three countries, the game has been developed extensively through governmental support and private sponsorships, and many Go professionals are respected celebrities. The national media regularly report on the successes of players in newspapers and on TV. In South Korea, there are two 24-hour channels dedicated to Go. Furthermore, the top players from these three countries dominate international Go tournaments (Cho, 2021), and they earn high annual salaries of $100,000 to $1,100,000. Therefore, most students in these countries are aware of Go and take great pride in their players' international success.

Nowadays, Go has spread to many more countries, the official representative body of Go, the International Go Federation, has 77 members (International Go Federation, 2017). As mentioned above, the name of the game differs according to country. However, the basic rules are essentially the same.

Educational Benefits of Go

Japanese Go professional Yasuda Yasutoshi taught the pre-game Capture Go to kindergarten children and the elderly as well as to the mentally and physically handicapped. He discovered big changes in the behavior and attitude of his learners: The unruly became calmer and more interested in school in general, withdrawn children began to interact with others, and the indifferent turned into animated learners (Yasuda, 2002). He described his methodology, philosophy, and observations in detail in his book, which inspired many Go teachers in Japan and abroad. Yasuda also emphasized the importance of educational knowledge over Go skills, stating that people who do not know Go should teach the game. Even though it sounds contradictory, it is true because Go experts often overwhelm beginners with too much information. Instead, teachers should focus on short explanations and engage the students in hands-on experiences where they can explore related skills while playing.

In Korea, Go is widely considered an educational tool. According to a Gallup Korea survey held in 2016, 64.3% of Korean adults intend to have their children learn Go, and as many as 94.8% regard Go as beneficial for their children's education. The reasons stated were enhanced concentration (39.6%), intelligence (31.5%), and endurance (10%). In other words, the game of Go enjoys a positive image in Korean society (Gallup Korea, 2016).

The above beliefs were partially confirmed by Kim and Cho (2010), who conducted an experimental study in which a group of kindergarten children learned Go three times a week for seven weeks, while a control group did not. The former displayed higher intelligence, and a better ability to solve problems and delay gratification.

Utilizing Go in EFL Classrooms

The second part of the workshop was dedicated to demonstrating in an interactive way how to engage learners of English as a foreign language through the game of Go. Three educational methods were illustrated, namely, (a) learning through play, (b) problem-based learning, and (c) discussion.

Learning Through Play

Depending on the learners' age and the time constraints, the teacher might consider teaching students a pre-game called Capture Go. Below are two ways of describing the game in simple terms.

Capture Go Instructions: In this game, the player with the black stones goes first. The two players take turns placing their stones on empty intersections of the board. The objective of the game is to surround the opponent's stones and capture them.

Simpler Capture Go Instructions: Put a stone down where two lines meet. If you surround a stone, you can capture it.

Capture Go has been used extensively by Yasuda in Japan and abroad (Yasuda, 2002). Its big advantage is that it can be played immediately without requiring lengthy explanations or a teacher's expertise in the game. Capture Go can be played as a team game or in pairs of two. If there are no boards and stones available in class, it is recommended to use Gherman's application, which is available online for free (British Go Association & Gherman, 2021).

The game of Go is very complex because of the numerous variations associated with each move. Yet, its basic rules are simple and can be taught in five minutes. Even kindergarten children can learn how to play it. The basic rules are as follows.

Go Game Instructions: You need a board, black and white stones, and usually two players. It is recommended to start on a smaller board, such as 7x7 or 9x9, as the complexity and length of the game are lower compared to the regular 19x19 board. There are five basic rules: (a) The game starts with an empty board. One player takes the black stones, the other takes the white stones. The player with the black stones begins by placing a stone on an empty intersection. After that, white plays a move and the cycle repeats (see Figure 1). (b) The objective of the game is to surround a bigger area of the board than your opponent. In Figure 2, you can see that black surrounds an area on the right, while white takes the left side. (c) You cannot move stones after placing them on the board. However, you can capture the opponent's stones. In Figure 2, the black stone on the left is almost surrounded. If white blocks the last adjacent point as shown in Figure 3, the black stone is captured and taken from the board. A captured stone is kept until the end of the game, and it is worth one point. (d) The game continues until both players pass their turn consecutively (Figure 4). (e) Lastly, remove all dead stones from the board, and then count all empty spots surrounded by one color. In Figure 5, black has 15 points, and white has 13 points of territory and a captured stone (1 point), so black won this game by 1 point.

FIGURE 1

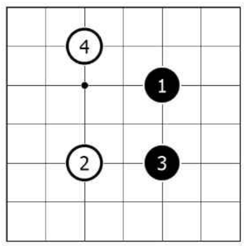


FIGURE 2

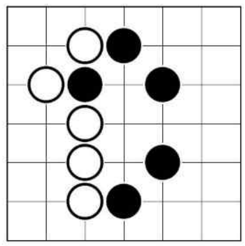


FIGURE 3

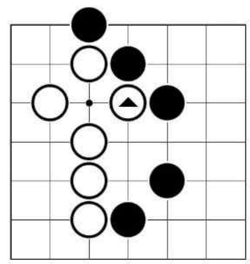


FIGURE 4

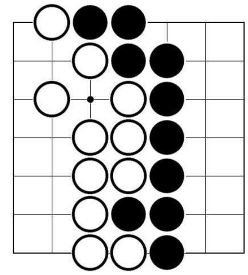
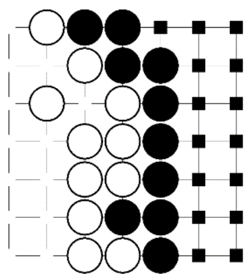


FIGURE 5



The game of Go is usually played by two players, however, for educational purposes, you might also consider team games (teacher versus students, team A versus team B, etc.). Face-to-face games are preferable, however, for one-time instruction, you might opt to use websites such as Online Go Server (https://online-go.com) and a projector to engage all the students.

Problem-Based Learning

The second category of activities is problem-based learning. For this, easy Go puzzles that have short instructions, such as “Black to Capture” or “Save the White Stone” can be employed. The teacher can take advantage of interactive online applications, such as Online Go Server and GoProblems.com (www.goproblems.com). Presenting Go problems to beginners with short English instructions in class does not require any prior knowledge. The learners can guess the correct answer and will get immediate feedback thanks to the interactive nature of the applications. If the student fails to solve the problem correctly, they can get another chance or lose their turn. Such a problem-solving activity can be done individually on the students’ devices or as a team game.

Furthermore, intermediate- and advanced-level language learning can be enhanced by creating quizzes based on top professional Go players, results in international Go competitions, celebrities who know how to play Go, or other interesting fun facts about Go. It is recommended to prepare multiple-choice or true/false questions to keep the difficulty level low. Some answers might be taught in class beforehand, while others are new to the students, and a hint might be hidden in the question. In the workshop, the attendees could experience this activity and were able to guess most questions correctly.

Discussion

The third type of learning activity is discussion. It is recommended to prepare some reading material, perhaps slightly revised, to match the learner's English level. There are various resources available, such as local Korean newspapers in English (search for "baduk"), or websites of Go organizations (such as the American Go Association, the British Go Association, the European Go Federation, and the International Go Federation). Ancient Go stories (Yutopian Enterprises, n.d.) can be used to create a storytelling class, especially for a younger audience. In addition to preparing the text material, there need to be some instructions for the students to practice their English, such as comprehension questions, opinion questions, or open questions. While the reading and the problem-solving task is an individual activity, it is possible to extend it to a teamwork speaking activity where the students discuss with each other what the correct answer might be and why they think so.

Conclusions

In this workshop, it was demonstrated that the ancient board game Go can be utilized in EFL classrooms to improve student engagement. Due to its simple rules, Go is very easy to teach and learn. Different from other games, the game of Go has a long-standing tradition in China, Japan, and South Korea, where it gets regular coverage in the electronic and print media. Therefore, students in these countries can easily relate to the game, and EFL teachers can take advantage of this to design lessons based on background information on players, competitions, or legends of the game. They can utilize the familiarity of the game and develop lesson plans for a single class, a short series of lessons, a camp activity, etc. that engages students while practicing English. A Go class in the EFL classroom can consist of game instructions, gameplay, problem-solving, pop quizzes, reading, or listening followed by a small-group discussion activity. It is expected that students would enjoy a Go class, as it is part of their culture and a fun activity, and be motivated to engage with the foreign language.

The Author

Daniela Trinks has a PhD in Go studies. Currently, she is an associate professor in the Department of Go Studies at Myongji University in South Korea, where she has been teaching subjects such as Go English, Go education, Go culture, Go content development, etc. She has also translated Korean Go books into English and German. Her research interests include Go culture in Korea and abroad, and education, as well as learning and teaching foreign languages. Email: dtrinks@mju.ac.kr

References

Berry, D. (2020). Game on: Impact of Spaceteam ESL on listening comprehension. In *KOTESOL Proceedings 2019: Proceedings of the 27th Korea TESOL International*

Conference (pp. 47–52). Korea TESOL.

British Go Association, & Gherman, S. (2021). Play Capture Go. https://www.britgo.org/capturego/play

Cervantes, E. P. (2009). Livening up college English classes with games. *English Teaching Forum*, *47*(3), 20–25.

Cho, N. C. (2021). 2021-nyeon sin baduk samgukji [The New Three Kingdoms of Baduk in 2021]. *Baduk*, *648*, 32–39.

Finch, A. E. (2007). Baduk and second language learning: Effortful study and balanced flow. *Studies in British and American Language and Literature*, *85*, 231–249.

Gallup Korea. (2016). Baduke daehan gukmin-insik mit gyoyuk-siltae josa [Survey on the Koreans' perception of baduk and the status of baduk education]. In *A White Paper on Korean Baduk 2016* (pp. 12–89). Korean Baduk Federation.

International Go Federation. (2017). *IGF general members*. https://www.intergofed.org/members/igf-member-countries.html

Kim, B., & Cho, B. H. (2010). Baduk-nori-hwaldongi yua-ui inji-neungnyeok, munje-haegyeolryeok mit manjok-jiyeon-neungnyeokemichineun hyogwa [The effect of baduk play activity upon a child's intelligence, problem-solving, and delay of gratification]. *Korean Journal of Human Ecology*, *19*(2), 245–256. https://doi.org/10.5934/KJHE.2010.19.2.245

Marshall, A., & Dzieciolowski, L. (2020). Promoting language production through classroom games. *KOTESOL Proceedings 2019*: *Proceedings of the 27th Korea TESOL International Conference* (pp. 209–213). Korea TESOL.

Squire, K. (2022). Emotionally oriented approaches to game-based learning. *Korea TESOL Journal*, *17*(2), 3–16.

Yasuda, Y. (2002). *Go as communication*: *The educational and therapeutical value of the game of Go*. Slate & Shell Press.

Yutopian Enterprises. (n.d.). *Go stories online*. http://www.yutopian.com/go/gowinds/gostories.html

Online Flipped Learning Approach for Improved Communication, Collaboration, and Engagement

Marina Goto
Temple University, Tokyo, Japan
Daniel Dusza
University of Southern Queensland, Toowoomba, Australia

This workshop review discusses how to incorporate flipped learning into online and hybrid classes. The presenters adapted Helaine Marshall's (2017) Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach (SOFLA®) in Japanese junior high school online classes. This review first discusses the challenges of an emergency remote teaching in Japan during the pandemic. The workshop discussion focused on the SOFLA eight-step cycle and how to decide what kind of activities should be moved out of class and what activities should be practiced during class. By understanding these decisions, teachers can see improvements in student interaction, participation, feedback, and accountability. Finally, examples of using technology to monitor student participation covertly and to provide formative feedback and assessment were provided. This workshop demonstrated the benefits of the SOFLA framework and how it motivates students to become knowledge providers. Participants in this workshop could realize that flipped learning provides students with the direction they need for learning, thus changing the roles of both teachers and students throughout the SOFLA process.

INTRODUCTION

During the COVID-19 pandemic, teachers were forced to conduct emergency remote teaching and instruction online. Most schools in Japan provided knowledge-based content through recorded lectures. However, this style of online teaching provided little opportunity for students to communicate with their peers, which adversely affected student learning and motivation. Very soon, teachers became aware of the need to go beyond these temporary solutions and adopt methods that allowed students to share knowledge and learning experiences during class. However, many teachers in Japan could not adapt to online learning requirements; many more were searching for "concrete steps" to guide their online learning experiences.

This workshop discussed the implementation and follow-on effect of implementing Helaine Marshal's (2017) Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach (SOFLA®). The workshop results indicated that SOFLA could improve students' collaboration, communication, and motivation. The following sections provide essential points from the workshop.

FLIPPED LEARNING

Flipped learning is a pedagogical approach that moves direct instruction from group learning, usually conducted in the classroom, to the individual learning space. Flipped learning differs from traditional pedagogical approaches in that it focuses more on how the class time itself is utilized (Talbert, 2017) as opposed to what is performed in class. In conventional classroom models, students' initial exposure to the new material occurs in the classroom. Cognitively demanding tasks are taken home to a student's personal space, void of teacher guidance. Flipped learning "flips" this process, exposing students to the new material before class. As a result, students can bring individual, specialist knowledge from these assigned tasks into the classroom. In this way, the in-class learning space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive group-learning environment where teachers guide students in applying concepts and engaging creatively with the subject matter (Flipped Learning Network, 2014). Therefore, in-class information exchange depends on the knowledge learned by each student, and social guided exploration can be realized through projects or collaboration.

Flipped learning is more than merely asking students to complete questions, homework, or readings prior to the lesson. The following four pillars are characteristic of a flipped learning approach: (a) flexible environment, (b) learning culture, (c) intentional content, and (d) professional educator.

Firstly, flipped learning should provide a flexible environment, allowing students to interact and learn content in different places and times in the lesson cycle. The teacher monitors and makes adjustments to the lesson as needed. Secondly, flipped learning culture provides opportunities for students to engage in meaningful activities that the teacher scaffolds. Additionally, the teachers should provide more individual, differentiated feedback for each student than mere general feedback typical in conventional models.

Furthermore, flipped learning provides opportunities for learners to access material at their own pace, asynchronously. The teacher purposefully chooses this "intentional content" material to complement direct instruction. In this manner, students can decide when and how much instruction they receive.

Finally, teachers who practice flipped learning take responsibility for transforming their lessons and implement continuous formative assessments to inform their instruction (Flipped Learning Network, 2014). These skills foster professional development beyond that of conventional teaching methods.

SYNCHRONOUS ONLINE FLIPPED LEARNING APPROACH, SOFLA®

SOFLA® is a distance-learning model that aligns the aforementioned flipped learning principles with online interaction. SOFLA was chosen by one of the presenters for their online classes because it provides a well-defined framework that replicates both synchronous and asynchronous classroom teaching (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). SOFLA includes structured, multimodal, and interactive tasks to create "fertile spaces for learning" (Marshall, 2017, 2020). Furthermore, SOFLA consists of eight steps: (a) Pre-Work, (b) Sign-In Activity, (c) Whole Group Application, (d) Breakouts, (e) Share-Out, (f) Preview and Discovery, (g)

Assignment Instructions, and (h) Reflection.

The first step in the eight-step cycle is Pre-Work. Pre-Work corresponds with the flipped learning out-of-class work. Pre-Work is where direct instruction is provided to the students, who interact with the course content individually and asynchronously. Students are prompted to answer an open-ended question related to the pre-work, which is posted in a shared space in the Sign-In Activity.

The Sign-In Activity provides a review of the pre-work. Whole Group Application is where the teacher clarifies students' understanding and provides opportunities for students to apply knowledge as a whole class. In the subsequent Breakout step, students collaborate with other members to solve a task in breakout rooms and then report the results in Share-Out.

Preview and Discovery, like a movie trailer, is where the teacher shows a preview of what is coming in the next class. This Preview and Discovery stage is crucial because it fosters student curiosity and pre-teaches some concepts that students may encounter in the next Pre-Work. Assignment Instruction is the step where the teacher gives clear information about how to access, complete, and submit the assignments.

The final step is Reflection, where students report what they have learned in the lesson, which fosters long-term retention and metacognitive skills. Each step of SOFLA demonstrates that both the teacher and students have specific roles to play that maximize communication, interaction, feedback, and accountability (Marshall, 2017).

Using SOFLA With Young Students

The SOFLA framework was introduced in one of the presenter's junior high school classes in the summer semester of 2021. The course was Expressive Speaking and Writing, where students had to make one presentation about the topic for each unit, for example, Unit 1: "My Dream Job." All the pre-work materials were provided and sequenced through Google Classroom. Pre-work was reading the textbook unit and watching an assigned YouTube video (e.g., a video about the job of waterslide tester) incorporated into EdPuzzle (https://edpuzzle.com/).

EdPuzzle is a browser-based application that allows teachers to embed target questions and provide structured guidance. In addition, EdPuzzle provides records of student responses and the time they spend on each question. This feedback enables the teacher to monitor student progress and inform what is necessary to scaffold students during the in-class activities.

Padlet was chosen for the Sign-In Activity. Padlet (https://padlet.com/) is a collaborative whiteboard that allows students to respond to the question about the pre-work video (e.g., Do you want to be a waterslide tester and why/why not?) in Padlet. The Sign-In Activity was important because the question engaged students in "retrieval practice" (Schell, 2017). Retrieval practice raises students' awareness of the content and provides an opportunity to use the target language. Additionally, this step signaled to the students that preparing for class is necessary. As a result, students were motivated to watch the video before class to respond confidently without embarrassment.

During the Whole Group Activity step, identifying errors in the pre-work was the focus of attention. One question that many teachers pose is what to do when students fail to do pre-work? Teachers should refrain from teaching the pre-work content because re-teaching stifles the motivation of coming prepared to class the next time. Alternatively, the appropriate action is to playback the video section where students did not comprehend the content and recast it or ask other students who know the answer.

In the Breakout step, students were assigned a shared Google Docs document that contained guiding questions for students to choose one job and brainstorm the kinds of qualifications that are required to get that job. Students searched for the job online and collaborated to write a paragraph about it. The breakouts work well if students can produce their work "live" in a shared Google Docs document. Subsequently, in the Share-Out step, students returned from breakout rooms. They reported what they had worked on in their groups by either using the chat, selecting a spokesperson to summarize orally, or sharing their writing on a Google Docs document. Students were instructed to offer peer feedback using Fethi and Marshall's (2018) SHAC (share, help, ask, comment) protocol. Explicit understanding of the SHAC protocol resulted in meaningful discussions and was evident in the way the students went beyond providing mere facts and opinions.

In the last three steps, students were shown a sample presentation of their "dream job" because they had to make a presentation in the next lesson. The Assignment Instruction step took longer than planned for the lower-level students and young learners. Students at this level required step-by-step procedures for accessing the materials, which demanded extra time and attention. However, the higher-level students became familiar with these processes quicker, which consequently took less time.

For the final Reflection step, Padlet was used for students to post their ideas on what they learnt in the lesson (e.g., new skills, content, language). Students were permitted to write their ideas in Japanese when writing in English was too difficult. They were reminded to write concrete and specific comments, not generic responses such as "I learned a lot" or "the lesson was very useful."

Conclusions

The data presented during the workshop indicate that SOFLA improved interaction with pre-work material, student motivation, and content retention. Flipped learning changed the center of information in the classroom. Students became the disseminators of knowledge, and the material provided asynchronous directed instruction according to student needs. The follow-on effect was that students were intrinsically motivated to engage with learning beyond the classroom and share their ideas with their peers. By using the SOFLA eight-step work plan, teachers can create courses based on specific steps, select appropriate technology, and comprehend the new roles required of online teaching that are distinctly different from traditional face-to-face classrooms. The participants in this workshop were provided with an understanding that the SOFLA eight-step approach offers valuable insights that can help explore the possibilities of technology-enhanced flipped learning.

The Authors

Marina Goto has a master's degree in TESOL from Temple University and has been teaching English face to face and online for over ten years. She is currently working at an edtech company. Her academic interests include task-based language teaching, computer-based language teaching, and phonics instruction. Email: marina.goto@temple.edu

Daniel Dusza is a teacher/researcher in Tokyo, Japan, specializing in second language psycholinguistics and cognition. He is interested in the effect of technology on cognition and pedagogy. Daniel is an award-winning writer and presenter, and he has worked for leading tech, science, and engineering companies and universities in Japan and worldwide. Email: daniel.dusza@usq.edu.au

References

Fethi, K., & Marshall, H. W. (2018). Flipping movies for dynamic engagement. In J. Mehring & A. Leis (Eds.), *Innovations in flipped learning in the language classroom*: *Theories and practice* (pp. 185–202). Springer Nature.

Flipped Learning Network. (2014). *Definition of flipped learning*. FLIP Learning. https://flippedlearning.org/definition-of-flipped-learning/

Marshall, H. W. (2017). The synchronous online flipped learning approach. *FLGI Community Blog*. https://community.flglobal.org/the-synchronous-online-flipped-learning-approach/

Marshall, H. W. (2020). *SOFLA*: *The Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach* [Video]. YouTube. https://youtu.be/gLW1mNWlo_0

Marshall, H. W., & Kostka, I. (2020). Fostering teaching presence through the Synchronous Online Flipped Learning Approach. *TESL-EJ*, *24*(2), 1–14. http://tesl-ej.org/pdf/ej94/int.pdf

Schell, J. (2017). *Defining a pedagogy of retrieval*. FLIP Learning. https://flt.flippedlearning.org/fln-member-spotlight/defining-a-pedagogy-of-retrieval/

Talbert, R. (2017). *Flipped learning*: *A guide for higher education faculty*. Stylus.

Conference Overview

Presentations of

The 29th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference – 2022

More Than Words: Teaching for a Better World

April 30 – May 1, 2022; Online

The 2022 Korea TESOL International Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following individuals for providing thought-provoking talks, presenting research, conducting workshop sessions, and leading discussions of various types at the 29th Korea TESOL International Conference.

Featured/Invited Sessions

Anu Gupta	Building A Better World by Breaking Bias: Thoughts for Educators
Arran Stibbe	TEFL, Culture, and Environment: From Analysis of TEFL Textbooks to Inclusive Pedagogy
Constance Steinkuehler	Language and Literacy in Online Games and Esports
Francis Daehoon Lee	Global Citizenship and Capacity-Building for Peace
Francis Daehoon Lee	Transformative Pedagogies for Peace Education
Grazzia Mendoza	The Power of Collaboration: Building Networks, Connecting Educators
Grazzia Mendoza	How to Create Engaging Lessons in Virtual Contexts
Kurt Squire	Learning Language Through Games
Luis Javier Penton Herrera, Gilda Martinez-Alba	Preparing English Language Teachers for Social-Emotional Learning
Marc Helgesen	The Science of Happiness (Positive Psychology) in Your Classes and Your Life
Meng Huat Chau	Teaching and Researching for an Inclusive World: Ecojustice, Personal Power, and Changemaking
Nikki Ashcraft	Cultivating Connections in Our Classrooms and Communities
Rebecca Oxford	Teaching Language, Teaching Peace: Bridges to a Better World
Rebecca Oxford	Exciting EFL-Peace Activities for a Better World: Strengthening EFL Competence and Fostering Peace
Ryuko Kubota	Enacting Antiracism in Teaching English
Ryuko Kubota, Youngeun Jee	The 10 Myths of English Language Teaching and Learning
Staci B. Martin	Applying Critical Hope in Research and the Classroom
Tammy Gregersen	A Research-Based, Practical Exploration of Language Teacher Wellbeing
Willy A. Renandya	Practical Tips to Grow Your Teaching, Research, and Service Impact

Invited Panel Session

Joo-Kyung Park, Sterling Plata, Yilin Sun, Kyungsook Yeum, Ilene Winokur	ELT Professionals for a Better World: Lives of Leadership and Service

Research Sessions

Aaron G. Jones, George E.K. Whitehead	Effective Education for Refugees: A Case Study on North Korean Educational Perspectives
Aika Ishige, Yanning Dong	Emotional Presence in EFL Students' Virtual Study-Abroad Experiences Under the Pandemic
Alan Seaman, Ester Ham, Daniel Kim	Developing Multilingualism Through Immersion: The Importance of Motivation
Anita Greenfield	English Language Ideology Reproduction and Revision by "Native" Speaking Teachers in South Korean Classrooms
Asiya Tabassum	The Use of Instagram to Enhance EFL Learners' Speaking Skills
Asoko Ha Nguyen	A Study on Students' Difficulties in Learning Latin-Rooted Vocabulary
Brett Reynolds	Teaching Prepositions in a Modern Grammatical Context
Chin-Wen Chien	Elementary School Teachers' Design and Implementation of Pushed Output for CLIL Lessons
Cristina Gomez Martinez	Vocabulary Development and Intercultural Awareness Through Digital Storytelling in Primary Education
Daniel Dusza, Ryouma Ishikawa	The Role of World English Homophones in Accidents, Incidents, and Incidence
Daniel Markarian, Gordon D Carlson, Steven Hecht	Utilizing Online Exchanges to Enhance Experiential Learning and Intercultural Competence
Daniel Savage	Perceived Efficacy of Content and Language Integrated Learning Across Academic Subjects
David McCurrach	CALL After COVID: Asynchronous E-Learning in Higher Education
Demet Yigitbilek	Taking and Making It Personal: Life Writing in Adult ESL Instruction
Dennis Laffey	Korean University Students' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in the 21st Century
Ei Phyoe Maung	The L2 Motivational Self-System in English Writing Through the Process Writing Approach
Elton LaClare	Creating Online, Asynchronous Assignments to Develop Learners' Listening Skills
Eng Hai Tan	An Overview and Evaluation of a Cultural Awareness and Intercultural Communication Course
EunJeong Park	Exploring Flipped Learning Through Preservice Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions
George MacLean	Incorporating Student Peer Evaluation Rating Feedback in the Calculation of Participation Scores

Gunther Breaux	Improve Speaking 50% in One Semester. By Speaking.
Gyewon Jang	Exploring Language, Culture, and Interculturality in Korean EFL Education Through Mediated Discourse Analysis
Heemal Bhat	Pedagogy of Compassion and Service Learning
Hsiaoping Wu	Developing Critical Literacies Through Learning English as a Second Language: Discourse Analysis Study
Hsiu-Pin Cheng	Reviewing Narrow Reading for Incorporating Informal Learning into Classrooms
James Broadbridge, Hyunsuk Park, Miori Shimada	Does TESOL Teacher Motivation Matter? Values vs. Rewards
Jason Pipe	Encouraging Innate Speech Production to Improve Fluency and Pronunciation
John Syquia	Development of a New Rubric for Assessing Interactional Competence in Group Discussions
Kevin Kester	Challenges and Opportunities for Peace (or Conflict) in Higher Education
Kevin Kester	Education and Prefigurative Politics: Six Pedagogies for Working Toward Peace/Justice Today
Kyongson Park	How Monolingual Teachers Can Run a Bilingual/Bicultural Story Time
Kyongson Park	Second Language Online Teaching in K–12: Challenges and Recommendations
Linh H. Tran	Why Do We Teach? A Case Study of Vietnamese University EFL Teachers
Linlin Liu	Chinese EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate in an Online Class: An Idiodynamic Approach
Lori Zenuk-Nishide	Technology in CLIL Model United Nations Preparation and Simulation
Maria Teresa Martinez-Garcia	Exploring How to Improve Language Skills in a Language for Specific Purposes Course
Matthew Nall, Rod Case	"Did You Say Pragmatics?": Advancing Instructional Design to Address Negative Transfer
Matthew Skidmore	Virtual Exchange Effects on Motivation for Learning English
Michael D. Smith	An Introduction to the Usage of Hermeneutics in Cross-cultural Research
Michael Rabbidge, Abdul Saboor Zaheeb	Ideological Shifts and Developing Language Identity in Afghanistan
Michael Rabbidge, Altyn Hallayeva	Ideology Complexes in the South Korean Private Education Sector
Miori Shimada	The Effect of Anxiety on SLA Through Double Case Study
Miriam Guadalupe Vasquez, Lidija Elliott	Teacher Role in Decreasing Student Anxiety in the Language Learning Environment
Monaliza Mamac, Titmonyneat Chalk	Teaching English Listening and Speaking Through Service-Learning in Southern Thailand

Naheen Madarbakus-Ring	Reflecting on Listening: Learner Insights from Metacognitive Journals
Narantsetseg Ravjaa	The Impact of ESP on Student Development
Natasha Hashimoto	Fulfilling a Dream: Two South Korean Students in Japan
Nathan Krug	An Approach to Teaching a TOEIC-Based Textbook Class in the Remote Learning Context
Nicole Moskowitz	The Effects of Biweekly Videos on L2 Speaking Anxiety
Nigina Misirova	Different Types of Innovations in English Language Teaching in Primary Schools
Philip Head	Benefits for Foreigners of Producing Theatre in a Japanese Regional Dialect
Rachelle Meilleur	Machine Translation: Friend or Foe?
Rob Dickey	Teachers Helping Teachers Teach for a Better World
Sanae Oda-Sheehan	Autoethnographic Exploration as "a Missionary of L2 Pragmatics"
Scott Walters	Test Validation Issues in Remote L2 Assessment
Shaun Manning	Do Zoomers Outperform Roomers in EFL Writing Peer-Review Tasks?
Stuart Benson, Naheen Madarbakus-Ring	Using Context-Specific Word Lists to Analyze the Lexicon of Academic ELT Textbooks
Taehee Choi, Hyun Jin Kim	Korean English Teachers' Professional Development Needs: National Survey
Tomoko Hashimoto, David McLoughlin	How Different Sequences of Engagement in Cooperative Learning Affect Students' Motivation
Travis Past	Teach Business English Responsibly: Case Studies for Social Responsibility and Sustainable Development
Walter Evans Lasula	The Lived Experiences of Non-native EFL Teachers in Vietnam: A Phenomenological Inquiry
William Tiley	Art in the ESL Classroom: More Than Just a Discussion Topic?
Yi-chen Chen	The Effects of Learning Style on Mobile AR-Facilitated Chinese Character Learning
Yossiri Yossatorn	An Investigation into the Promotion of Cultural Awareness in Locally Produced English Learning Materials in Thailand
Yukie Saito	Effects of VR and Online Public Speaking Lessons on Students' Speaking Skills
Yutaka Fujieda	The Meaning of Writing in English: Focusing on Writers' Felt Sense
Zsuzsanna Mikecz Munday	Navigating Through the Discipline as Novice Researchers: Citation Practices in Academic Writing

Workshop Sessions

Autumn Wright	Wide Reading in the Elementary Classroom
Cheryl Woelk	Real World English: Negotiation Skills for Intercultural Conflict Resolution in ELT
Courtney Nicolaides	Uniting Students with Experts Around the World in the Global Classroom

Daniel Dusza, Marina Goto	Learning from Teachers' Perceptions About Moving to Online Education During COVID-19
Daniel Dusza, Marina Goto	Online Flipped Learning Approach for Improving Communicative Competence, Collaboration, and Student Engagement
Daniela Trinks	Engaging ESL Learners Through the Game of Go
Elizabeth Norman	Critical Media Literacy: Encouraging Critical Thinking in the 21st Century Classroom
Emmy Min, Linshuang Jiang, Yue Huang	Developing Equity-Driven In-Class Assessment
Eric Flynn	Group Drawing Activities 101
Frederick Dunn	Five Forgotten Minutes for Creating a Positive Classroom Environment
Garrett DeHond	Scaffolding in the Margins: Using Digital Tools to Annotate and Collaborate
George Kokkolis Papadopoulos	Paving the Way for Communicative and Professional Development in ESP
George MacLean	Using Cloud Computing to Accelerate Feedback and Promote Transparency
Gregg Sotiropoulos	What's Our Students' Biggest Fear in the Classroom? SPEAKING!
Ian Matheson	Improving Employability Through Innovating the English Assessment Experience with Mobile Technology
Ilene Winokur	Asset-Based Teaching Approach: Changing Perceptions to Create a Sense of Belonging
Jason Gold	An Ecolinguistics Approach to Education
Jocelyn Wright, Dana Han	Connecting Through Nonviolent Communication in ELT
Joel Rian, Kio Iwai	Making Friends with Machine Translation: A Hands-On Approach
John Breckenfeld	Don't Simply Write Your Opinion – Show a Critical Analysis
John Breckenfeld	Money Drives Modern Life, So Why Not Utilize Economics-Driven Content?
John Breckenfeld, Chris Kobylinski	The "Why" and "How" of Student Presentations: Two Distinct Approaches
Joshua Cohen	The Dictoquiz: A New Adaptation to an Old Approach
Julia Christmas	Prosody Interventions 101 in the Online or Offline Speaking Fluency Classroom
Kara Ann Mac Donald	Diversity in Learner Negotiation of English L2 Identity: Implications for Korean ELT Praxis
Meagan Kaiser	Re-imagining ClassDojo as a Learner-Friendly, Adaptable Learning Management System
Michael Walker	The Power of Obsidian: Revolutionizing How We Take Notes
Naheen Madarbakus-Ring	Selecting, Grading, and Teaching TED Talks-Based Listening Lessons
Nehemiah Park	Developing L2 Oral Fluency Through Digital Storytelling 101

Paul Goldberg	Online Speed Reading: The Fastest Way to Improve Reading Fluency
Paul Goldberg	The Benefits of Doing Extensive Reading with Xreading
Quy Huynh Phu Pham	Creative Use of Corpus of Contemporary American English in Teaching Collocations (101)
Richard Harrison	Five Ways to Introduce Critical Thinking into the Language Classroom
Vicki Bos	Beyond the Lyrics Gap Fill: Low-Preparation, High-Participation Activities Using Songs in Class
Wayne Malcolm	Unpacking Global Competence as a Guiding Philosophy

Graduate Student Showcase Sessions

David Scott Bowyer	The Effects of Recursive Conversations on L2 English Learners' Speaking Competence
Emily MacFarlane	Using Open Questions vs. Closed Questions During Picturebook Read-Alouds
Holly Kuyper	Comparative English-Learning Experiences: The Case of North Koreans in the United States
Jiahao Liu	Revisiting Language Assessment Literacy: Past, Present, and Future
Junjie Shen	Mobile Game-Based English Vocabulary Learning App: A Study of Learning Outcomes of First-Graders
Rahmila Murtiana	Poetic Transcription in Narrative Data Analysis: A Study of EFL Teachers in Indonesia
Shiroyama Tomotaka	Comparing Syntactic Complexity and Lexical Complexity in Two Modes of CMCs
Yihan Xu	Improving L2 Learners' Spoken English Proficiency in Mainland China

Dialogue/Roundtable Sessions

Conor O'Reilly, Jocelyn Wright	Social Justice and the Future of English Language Teaching in Korea
Keirah Comstock	Multilingual Learners: Why Do We Need to Use the Right Terminology?
Naoko Kato	Peer Editing and Feedback in L1
Victor Reeser	Overcoming the Limitations of COVID-Affected Classes Through Educational Technology

Panel Discussion Sessions

Both Champa, Phan Makara, Thorn Va, Ragil Afriansah, Rizky Uly, Jihyun Sung, Mary Gertrude Lorenzo, Enrico Pelino	Training Teachers for a Better World: Cross-cultural Pre-service Teacher Perspectives
Joanne McCuaig, Tom Jeffery	MA and PhD Perspectives from University of Birmingham Students

Pecha Kucha Sessions

Brett Reynolds	AI-Generated Voices for Diversity in ESL Materials
Jennifer McMahon, Both Champa, Suy Kasan, Phan Makara, Thorn Va	Beyond Words: Using Photo Voice for Community Engagement and Language Development
Stewart Gray	How to Include Justice, Debate, and Rhetoric in EFL Classes
Tim Edwards	Teaching Online: How Does the New Zealand Experience Match International Experiences?
Wesley Martin	Developing American Cultural Knowledge and Sensitivity Through Historical Fiction
Wesley Martin	Developing Inferencing Skills for Literature Through Students' Personal Experiences

Poster Session

Robert Dykes	Considerations of Using COTS Video Games as a Language Learning Tool

KOTESOL Proceedings 2022