Korea TESOL Journal

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Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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About Korea TESOL

Korea TESOL (KOTESOL; Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their self-development and to contribute to the improvement of ELT in Korea. Korea TESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an Affiliate of TESOL (TESOL International Association), an international education association of almost 12,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA, as well as an Associate of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language), an international education association of over 4,000 members with headquarters in Canterbury, Kent, UK.

Korea TESOL was established in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) joined with the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE). Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals, Korea TESOL seeks to cooperate with other groups having similar concerns.

Korea TESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL and IATEFL, but also with PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium of Language Teaching Societies), consisting of JALT (Japan Association for Language Teaching), ThaiTESOL (Thailand TESOL), ETA-ROC (English Teachers Association of the Republic of China/Taiwan), FEELTA (Far Eastern English Language Teachers' Association, Russia), and PALT (Philippine Association for Language Teaching, Inc.). Korea TESOL in also associated with MELTA (Malaysian English Language Teaching Association), TEFLIN (Indonesia), CamTESOL (Cambodia), and ACTA (Australian Council of TESOL Associations), and most recently with ELTAM/Mongolia TESOL, MAAL (Macau), HAAL (Hong Kong), and ELTAI (India).

The membership of Korea TESOL includes elementary school, middle school, high school, and university-level English teachers as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, material writers, curriculum developers, and other interested individuals.

Korea TESOL has nine active chapters throughout the nation: Busan-Gyeongnam, Daegu-Gyeongbuk, Daejeon-Chungcheong, Gangwon, Gwangju-Jeonnam, Jeonju-North Jeolla, Seoul, Suwon-Gyeonggi, and Yongin-Gyeonggi, as well as numerous international members. Members of Korea TESOL are from all parts of Korea and many parts of the world, thus providing Korea TESOL members the benefits of a multicultural membership.

Korea TESOL holds an annual international conference, a national conference, workshops, and other professional development events, while its chapters hold monthly workshops, annual conferences, symposia, and networking events. Also organized within Korea TESOL are various SIGs (Special Interest Groups) – Reflective Practice, Social Justice, Christian Teachers, Research, Environmental Justice, and Multimedia and CALL – which hold their own meetings and events.

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The *Korea TESOL Journal* is a peer-reviewed journal, welcoming previously unpublished practical and scholarly articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. The Journal focuses on articles that are relevant and applicable to the Korean EFL context. Two issues of the Journal are published annually.

As the Journal is committed to publishing manuscripts that contribute to the application of theory to practice in our profession, submissions reporting relevant research and addressing implications and applications of this research to teaching in the Korean setting are particularly welcomed.

The Journal is also committed to the fostering of scholarship among Korea TESOL members and throughout Korea. As such, classroom-based papers, i.e., articles arising from genuine issues of the English language teaching classroom, are welcomed. In its expanded scope, the Journal aims to support all scholars by welcoming research from early-career researchers to senior academics.

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Research Papers

Achievement Goals and Foreign Language Performance Among High School Students

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Achievement goals in academic contexts have influenced the students' motivation and performance. Research in foreign language learning (FLL) has also shown that achievement goals are relevant in English learning and that they ultimately influence academic performance. Nevertheless, research on motivation in FLL among Korean students has received little attention. Therefore, this research examined the levels of achievement goals (mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals) and the relationships between these goals and academic performance among 228 high school students in Korea. The students reported the highest means for performance-approach goals, indicating high competition in English academic achievement and strong achievement motivation. The findings for SEM showed that mastery-approach and performance-approach goals were positively related to performance, whereas performance-avoidance goals were negatively related to performance. The findings indicate that students' achievement goals in FLL are significantly associated with their academic performance, emphasizing that language teachers should take these motivational aspects of students into consideration in their instruction.

Keywords: Achievement goals, motivation, academic performance

INTRODUCTION

Achievement goals in academic contexts have been mostly well-researched constructs in motivation literature. A large body of research has shown that the achievement goals that students adopt influence their motivation and performance (e.g., Dweck, 1986; Elliot, 1999; Ranellucci, Hall, & Goetz, 2015). Having recognized the

importance of motivation in learning, educational researchers have conducted countless studies on achievement goals (e.g., Elliot et al., 2016; Lee, 2014; Pekrun, Elliot, & Maier, 2009). Research in foreign language learning (FLL) has also shown that achievement goals are relevant in English learning, and they ultimately influence academic performance (Lee, 2014; Liem, Lau, & Nie, 2008; Luo, Hogan, Yeung, Sheng, & Aye, 2013). Nevertheless, research on this significant motivational factor in FLL among Korean students has received little attention.

In the English language classroom, developing language skills are measured frequently with quizzes or tests; this is particularly the case for high school students who, in many countries, must take high-stakes English tests to attend university (Horwitz, 2001, 2010). Particularly in Korean high schools, English has been one of the crucial subjects, and scoring well in English heavily influences admission to prestigious universities. Accordingly, students are likely to value the subject highly, and English learning situations promote a competitive atmosphere (Lee, 2014). This situation calls for the need for research on significant motivational factors in learning English among Korean students. Therefore, this study concentrated on Korean high school students' achievement goals and performance in English class. Specifically, this study examined the levels of achievement goals as well as the relationships between the students' goals and academic performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Achievement Goals

Achievement goals are defined as a "future-focused cognitive representation that guides behavior to a competence-related end state that the individual is committed to either approach or avoid" (Hulleman, Schrager, Bodmann, & Harackiewicz, 2010, p. 423). More specifically, Pekrun et al. (2009) describes achievement goals as being "competence-relevant aims that individuals strive for in achievement settings" (p. 115). Achievement goals were initially proposed by Dweck (1986) and Nicholls (1984) in a dichotomous goal framework that consists of mastery goals and performance goals. They suggest that

mastery goals concentrate on developing competence and task mastery, while performance goals emphasize the demonstration of competence compared to others. Approach and avoidance goals were further revised, generating a trichotomous goal framework that consists of mastery goals, performance-approach goals, and performance-avoidance goals (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Elliot & Church, 1997).

Furthermore, Elliot (1999) claimed that achievement goals can vary on two dimensions: how competence is described (performance vs. mastery) and how competence is valenced (approach vs. avoidance). Combining these two dimensions produces a 2 x 2 goal framework that includes mastery-approach goals concentrating on a positive absolute standard (attempting to achieve intrapersonal competence), mastery-avoidance goals concentrating on a negative absolute standard (attempting to avoid intrapersonal incompetence), performance-approach goals focusing on a positive normative standard (endeavoring to attain normative competence), and performance-avoidance goals focusing on a negative normative standard (attempting to avoid normative incompetence; Elliot, 1999; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; see Elliot, Murayama, & Pekrun, 2011, for an extension of this model). This 2 x 2 goal framework is considered in the present study.

Previous research on achievement goals in FLL has suggested that these goals are related to English learning and, ultimately, academic achievement. For example, Liem et al. (2008) found that students learning English adopted both mastery-approach and performance-approach goals. They also discovered that students wished to study hard to develop competence in English. The students also possessed mastery-approach goals and also attempted to do better than their peers by adopting performance-approach goals. Other studies by Luo and colleagues (2011, 2013) reported that students endorsed mastery-approach goals, mastery-avoidance goals, and performance-avoidance goals in English classes. Although these studies did not produce consistent results regarding goal adoption in English classes, they emphasized that achievement goals are highly associated with English learning. Thus, these goals should receive empirical attention in the field of FLL.

Achievement Goals and Academic Performance

Previous research on achievement goals has claimed that

mastery-approach goals have a positive influence on learning (Ames, 1992; Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006), whereas mastery-avoidance goals have been associated with maladaptive learning, which is negatively related to intrinsic motivation and perceived competence (Cury, Elliot, Da Fonseca, & Moller, 2006). With regards to performance goals, performance-approach goals are positively associated with intrinsic motivation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996), achievement (Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot, & Thrash, 2002; Pekrun et al., 2009), deep learning strategies (Diseth & Kobbeltvedt, 2010), and self-efficacy (Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996; Wolters, Yu, & Pintrich, 1996). In comparison, performance-avoidance goals are related to low self-efficacy, anxiety, help-seeking avoidance, self-handicapping strategies, and low academic performance (e.g., Urdan, 2004), as well as more frequent use of shallow learning strategies (Diseth & Kobbeltvedt, 2010; Muis & Franco, 2009).

Earlier research on the relationship between students' achievement goals and their academic performance is abundant (e.g., Bipp, Steinmayr, & Spinath, 2012; Finney, Pieper, & Barron, 2004; Lee, 2014; Pekrun et al., 2009; Tanaka, Takehara, & Yamauchi, 2006), including meta-analyses and comprehensive reviews (e.g., Huang, 2012; Hulleman et al., 2010; Wirthwein, Sparfeldt, Pinquart, Wegerer, & Steinmayr, 2013). For example, mastery-approach goals are often positive predictors of performance (e.g., Bipp et al., 2012; Lee, 2014; Pekrun et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2006), and performance-approach goals positively predict academic performance (e.g., Lee, 2014; Pekrun et al., 2009; Urdan, 2004), whereas performance-avoidance goals negatively predict academic outcomes (e.g., Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Finney et al., 2004; Pekrun et al., 2009). Hulleman et al. (2010) summarized in their meta-analysis that among the existing studies mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals have been documented to be positively related to academic outcomes, while mastery-avoidance goals and performance-avoidance goals tend to be negatively associated with academic performance.

AIMS AND HYPOTHESIS

The present study aimed to examine the levels of Korean high

school students' achievement goals in FLL and further investigate the relationships between their goals and academic performance. Based on previous research, the following research questions and hypotheses were proposed:

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

- *Hypothesis 1*. Mastery-approach goals are positively related to academic performance.
- *Hypothesis 2*. Performance-approach goals are positively associated with performance.
- *Hypothesis 3*. Performance-avoidance goals are negatively associated with performance.

With respect to mastery-avoidance goals, there has been little empirical evidence for this construct, even though these goals are inclined to be negatively related to academic performance (Hulleman et al., 2010). Therefore, specific hypotheses about the relationship between mastery-avoidance goals and academic performance were not proposed. Rather, the investigation of this relationship was more exploratory in the present study.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

The sample consisted of $N = 228$ 10th- and 11th-grade students from 6 classes (58.3% girls; mean age = 16.43, $SD = .64$) in a high school located in Gyeonggi Province in Korea. Assessment was approved of by the principal and teachers. A one-page introductory letter was provided to the students, informing them about the present research and assuring them of the confidentiality of their responses. Voluntary students completed both the questionnaire that measured achievement goals and an English performance test. This was performed during their regular

English class under the supervision of the English teacher. Twenty (20) minutes for the questionnaire and 25 minutes for the English performance test were assigned. Students were told to complete the questionnaire first and then start the English performance test. When they completed the questionnaire and the English performance test, students were asked to put their test paper in the middle of the questionnaire and hand them to the teacher.

Measures

Achievement Goals

The Achievement Goals Questionnaire-Revised (Elliot & Murayama, 2008) was adapted to measure mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals for learning English. Each goal consisted of three items (mastery-approach goals, e.g., "I am striving to understand the content of English class as thoroughly as possible"; mastery-avoidance goals, e.g., "My aim is to avoid learning less than I possibly could"; performance-approach goals, e.g., "My goal is to perform better than the other students"; and performance-avoidance goals, e.g., "My goal is to avoid performing poorly compared to others"). Participants answered on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The a coefficients were good, displaying .76, .75, .78, and .82 for the mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals, respectively.

Regarding the translation procedure, the author first translated the English version of the achievement goals measure to Korean. Then another Korean−English bilingual blindly back-translated the translated items to English to ensure consistency (Brislin, 1986). The translators compared the back-translated items with the original English items to check accuracy. Finally, they discussed all the items considerably until they agreed with each other in terms of clarity and precision.

Academic Performance

To measure the students' academic performance in English, a performance test (reading and writing) was conducted, and the students' self-reported final English grades from the previous school year were assessed. In terms of the English performance test, reading and writing skills were evaluated among all of the four English skills (i.e., listening,

reading, writing, and speaking) due to the time limit as well as potential problems such as the rating issue for listening and speaking skills. Given that listening and reading are conceptualized as receptive skills, and writing and speaking are categorized as productive skills, the effort to balance these four skills was made by deciding to evaluate one receptive skill (reading) and one productive skill (writing). In addition, the writing skill was assumed to be integrative of other English skills.

Reading items (eight multiple-choice questions from the two main passages) were provided from the validated test instrument (TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language) to assess the ability to use and understand English in an academic setting. The writing task was to write an email message in the given situation or write an email message to the company to get a refund or exchange a newly purchased cellphone with another new cellphone. Writing an email task was chosen because all of the students should have some degree of familiarity with email writing, at least in their first language.

Finally, in order to measure academic performance, it was decided to utilize the final grades for English from the previous school year and only the writing test scores from the English performance test. This is because the reading test scores presented a low reliability of Cronbach's alpha (.50).

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

Table 1 shows the intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations among all the study variables. The overall means of the participants' achievement goals were well above the midpoint (2.5) of the scale, with performance-approach goals being the highest ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .86$). All of the achievement goals positively correlated with each other, with the correlation between the mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals being the highest ($r = .69$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, both the mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals were positively related to academic performance (i.e., English grade and writing score), whereas the performance-avoidance goals were negatively related.

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

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

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

Relations Between Achievement Goals and Academic Performance (Hypotheses 1−3)

Structural equation modeling (SEM) using Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998−2012) was conducted to test the study hypotheses. Figure 1 shows the results of the SEM for relations between the achievement goals and academic performance as well as correlations among the four goals. The model was evaluated by the comparative fit index (CFI, Bentler, 1990), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI, Tucker & Lewis, 1973), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980). The model fit was good, displaying: χ^2 (110) = 249.78, CFI = .93, TLI = .91, and RMSEA = .055, given that CFI > .90, TLI > .90 (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006), and RMSEA < .080 if N < 250 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) are recommended as adequate fits.

The path coefficient from the mastery-approach goals to academic performance was positive, demonstrating a value of β = .31, p < .01, whereas the effect from the mastery-avoidance goals to the performance was not significant. The path coefficient from the performance-approach goals to academic performance was positive, presenting a value of β =

.36, $p < .01$, whereas the effect from the performance-avoidance goals to performance was negative, displaying a value of $\beta = -.19$, $p < .05$.
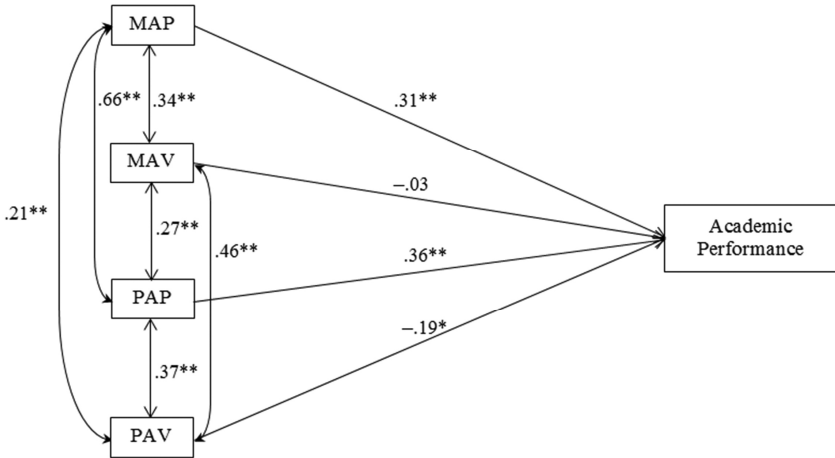
FIGURE 1. Structural Parameter Estimates of Achievement Goals and Academic Performance.

Note. MAP = mastery-approach goals; MAV = mastery-avoidance goals; PAP = performance-approach goals; PAV = performance-avoidance goals. Academic performance = English grade and writing score. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

DISCUSSION

Regarding the mean levels of achievement goals in FLL, performance-approach goals had the highest means among the Korean student participants, explaining high competition in academic achievement. In Korea, outstanding English performance is very important for gaining admission to reputable universities, and English performance is graded relative to other students' performance. Moreover, Dekker and Fischer (2008) suggest that Eastern collectivists tend to exhibit high achievement motivation because they wish to earn social recognition through the demonstration of competence. These situations might have accounted for the higher performance-approach goals among the Korean high school students.

The findings also show a strong positive correlation between

mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals, supporting the idea that the mostly positive correlations between mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals have been found in Eastern literature (Tao & Hong, 2000). This indicates that students in Korea, an Eastern country, might aspire to not only learn new skills but also demonstrate their outstanding performance through individual competition in the English subject. In addition, students in Eastern countries are able to develop mastery-approach goals because they consider ability and effort undifferentiated (Luo, Hogan, & Paris, 2011), which encourages them to concentrate on the mastery of the task (Nicholls, 1984; Salili & Hau, 1994). This might also explain higher levels of mastery-approach goals in the present sample, which are similar to the levels of the performance-approach goals.

As hypothesized, the results of SEM for relations between achievement goals and academic performance showed that mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals were positively related to academic performance, whereas performance-avoidance goals were negatively related to performance. However, the link between mastery-avoidance goals and performance was not significant. These results are in line with previous findings that mastery-approach goals had a positive relationship with learning (Ames, 1992; Meece et al., 2006) and academic performance (e.g., Bipp et al., 2012; Lee, 2014; Pekrun et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2006). These findings also indicate that performance-approach goals had a positive association with academic performance, while performance-avoidance goals presented a negative relation with performance (e.g., Lee, 2014; Pekrun et al., 2009; Urdan, 2004).

Although scant research employing mastery-avoidance goals reported that these goals tend to be negatively associated with academic performance (Hulleman et al., 2010), the present study did not demonstrate a specific link between mastery-avoidance goals and academic performance. More systematic attempts to elucidate the relations between mastery-avoidance goals and achievement should be made in future research.

The findings emphasize that language teachers should consider the motivational aspects of students in their instruction, given that these individual factors could potentially affect academic performance in FLL. This highlights the importance of regarding students' achievement goals as one of the precursors of their academic outcomes. It is important to

recognize that mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals may be advantageous for students by improving their performance in FLL, while performance-avoidance goals may be destructive to students by negatively influencing performance. Thus, it is crucial for language teachers to encourage students to adopt mastery-approach goals or performance-approach goals, but dissuade students from adopting performance-avoidance goals. In order to promote high-mastery and low-avoidance classroom environments, teachers' instructional and motivational support for students may be effective (Turner et al., 2002). For instance, through instructional scaffolding, teachers can enhance the students' understanding. They can also lead more enjoyable classes by encouraging and emphasizing learning itself and effort (Patrick, Anderman, Ryan, Edelin, & Midgley, 2001), which potentially promote a positive learning environment in FLL.

The present study has several limitations to consider, and accordingly, additional directions for future studies. First, this research was conducted in one school in Korea, assuming that the student sample from the school would represent students from other schools in Korea. We must be careful of generalizing the results to other student populations. In order to investigate the relationships between achievement goals and academic performance more accurately and comprehensively, future studies should expand the number of schools and students.

Second, the present findings were drawn based on self-reported data; therefore, the participants might have been influenced by a common method variance, which is error variance due to the measurement method rather than the constructs that the measures are supposed to represent (Gorrell, Ford, Madden, Holdridge, & Eaglestone, 2011). In addition, the self-reported questionnaire might not accurately reflect psychological phenomena such as achievement goals among high school students. Future studies might benefit from integrating self-report data with other methods, such as interviews or classroom observations.

Finally, like most existing studies on the relationship between achievement goals and academic performance, the current investigation examined the relationship between goals and performance using cross-sectional data. Therefore, the causal relationship between achievement goals and academic performance cannot be confirmed. To mitigate this drawback, future research should conduct longitudinal studies that reveal an accurate relationship between goals and

performance. Particularly, considering the empirical findings that the rate of adoption of achievement goals changes over time (e.g., Fryer & Elliot, 2007; Meece & Miller, 2001; Senko & Harackiewicz, 2005) and that changes in achievement goals have a significant influence on academic outcomes (Gehlbach, 2006) as well as perceived ability and competence (Kumar & Jagacinski, 2011), longitudinal studies may be useful for a more thorough investigation.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study attempted to fill an important gap in the current FLL literature by focusing on achievement goals, which are one of the under-examined motivational factors in FLL. Specifically, this research examined the level of achievement goals and further investigated the relationships of goals with academic performance among Korean high school students. The findings indicate that students' achievement goals in FLL are significantly associated with their academic performance, and accordingly, teachers should take these motivational factors into consideration in their classroom.

In addition, the results expand scientific knowledge of FLL and contribute to the practical improvement of language teaching by producing new insights on students' achievement goals in foreign language classrooms. This study also has educational implications for English teachers by underscoring the consideration of motivational perspectives from students in their instruction and provides a basis for effective strategies to improve students' learning. Finally, this research is significant in that it made an attempt to integrate psychological perspectives from motivation research into the FLL field, thus, contributing to interdisciplinary research in this field.

THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX

Achievement Goals Questionnaire

This questionnaire concerns your **goals** when learning **English**. Read each item carefully and write a number in the blank.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. _____ My aim is to completely master the material presented in English class.

2. _____ I am striving to do well compared to other students.

3. _____ My goal is to learn as much as possible.

4. _____ My aim is to perform well relative to other students.

5. _____ My aim is to avoid learning less than I possibly could.

6. _____ My goal is to avoid performing poorly compared to others.

7. _____ I am striving to understand the content of English class as thoroughly as possible.

8. _____ My goal is to perform better than the other students.

9. _____ My goal is to avoid learning less than it is possible to learn.

10. ____ I am striving to avoid performing worse than others.

11. ____ I am striving to avoid an incomplete understanding of the course material.

12. ____ My aim is to avoid doing worse than other students.

EMI in South Korea: Exploring Strategies to Overcome Challenges in the University Classroom

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English as a medium of instruction (EMI) courses have become commonplace in South Korea as universities strive to become more nationally and globally competitive. Despite the tremendous emphasis on English education in South Korean society, many students and professors are ill prepared for numerous challenges in either taking or teaching EMI classes. This paper explores some of the common challenges that students and professors experience in the South Korean EMI context and provides practical recommendations for improving these classes. Professor-level issues that are addressed include English language proficiency problems, class planning time, correcting mistakes and building confidence, examining the English proficiency levels of students, and eliminating excessive presentations and projects. At the student level, the following topics are discussed: English proficiency problems and preference for classes in the native language, lack of interaction, class enrollment, exchange students, and excessive preparation time.

Keywords: EMI, English language learners, South Korea, university education

INTRODUCTION

As English as a medium of instruction (EMI) becomes the norm at many universities around the world to increase global and national competitiveness, it is critical to examine methods for improving EMI classes. English is the international lingua franca, and proficiency in the language is essential for many fields as well as international communication (Byun et al., 2011). Global competitiveness is critical in South Korean universities, and one major aspect of competitive

advantage is the number of academic courses offered in English (Choi, 2013; J.-Y. Kim, 2014). Beginning in 1995, English language education became a focal point in the South Korean education system (G. J. Lee, 2014). There is also an emphasis placed on English in South Korea, which results in children spending a significant amount of time studying English in private academies and parents investing hefty sums of money on English education (Kang, 2012). EMI has gained popularity in South Korea as universities strive to become more globalized, improve evaluation rankings, and increase the number of foreign faculty and students (Choi, 2013) as well as foreign exchange programs (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). In 2003, there were 4,682 exchange students in South Korea (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). This number of foreign exchange students in South Korea now exceeds 100,000 (Park, 2016), but most are not from English-speaking countries (Kim, Tatar, & Choi, 2014). The need for EMI in South Korea has also been ascribed to the importance of English in the job market (Chung, 2009). In 2004, the push for EMI began when the South Korean government began providing support for universities that implemented EMI classes (Byun & Kim, 2011), which has resulted in increases in the number of EMI courses offered at universities (G. J. Lee, 2014). In addition, universities are evaluated on the number of EMI classes that are offered in major subjects, and foreign faculty and students (K.-R. Kim, 2011).

Since the nascent stage of EMI implementation, universities have developed various policies related to EMI that center on the hiring of new professors who are proficient in English, requiring classes to be taught in English, and making students complete a specific number of EMI courses as a requisite for graduation (Byun et al., 2011). Initially, EMI implementation in South Korea was met with considerable frustration and criticism, but as time progressed many came to understand its value as the importance of English continued to grow in society (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). Even though EMI is more widely accepted and there are many benefits, it is still often criticized by faculty, students, and other stakeholders. Professors and students have discussed various aspects of EMI that need to be altered or improved. This paper provides practical recommendations to overcome challenges in the EMI classroom based on research that highlights some of the primary challenges faced by professors and students, especially in South Korean university EMI classes. Although there are numerous challenges that can be discussed, for the sake of clarity and brevity, dominant issues

highlighted in the research will be expanded on.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Primary Challenges of Professors

Previous research has indicated several major challenges that professors experience in the EMI classroom. The first primary challenge relates directly to English language problems or professors expressing that their English ability is not sufficient. It can be difficult for non-native professors to clearly articulate their ideas (Vinke, Snippe, & Jochem, 1998). Vinke (1995) found that professors who had limited English ability were not able to introduce as many topics in the EMI classroom in comparison to classes taught in their native language; furthermore, they struggled with pronunciation and felt more rigidity in how their classes were conducted. As a result of an insufficient command of the English language, course content may also not be delivered effectively (Chang, 2010; Ibrahim, 2001; Kennedy, 2002; Manakul, 2007; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). Second, some professors have reported spending more time preparing curriculum in EMI classes (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014; Prophet & Dow, 1994; Sercu, 2004). With numerous demands on professors, including research and student advising, it may not be feasible or practical to invest significant time in planning EMI classes. Third, if professors do not feel confident in their English ability or if they genuinely are not proficient English speakers, they may be hesitant to correct students' English mistakes or may not be able to identify mistakes (Tatzl, 2011).

Students also reported not receiving feedback on their use of English in the EMI classroom (Kang & Park, 2004). Additionally, students have also stated that they were not convinced of their professors' abilities to conduct classes in English (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011). Conversely, studies have also reported that professors struggle to teach classes with students who have low English proficiency (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011). Moreover, teaching students of varying English levels was perceived to be a major limitation in teaching EMI classes (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011) since activities or lessons may need to be adapted for different students depending on their level.

Finally, professors also added more student presentations and projects during class time, which students have reported as being unfair (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). There are numerous drawbacks when considering issues that center on the professor's role in the EMI classroom. Although there is no way to alleviate all of the problems, some practical steps can be taken to make improvements.

Primary Challenges of Students

Various studies detail students' challenges in EMI classes and highlight burdens that students face in achieving academic goals. First, students may not be proficient enough in English to understand the course content, and they may prefer to take a particular course in their native language for better comprehension or ease of learning. Students have stated that they should have the option of taking a class in their native language (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). Students in EMI classes have reported that they might have improved their English vocabulary, but their understanding of the course material did not improve (Bang, 2007); furthermore, students have reported that English is only a method for learning and English proficiency improvement is limited in EMI classes (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). Additionally, students who are not proficient in English may not benefit as much from EMI classes (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). EMI courses may result in decreased discussion and activity in comparison to classes taught in the native language (J. Lee, 2007). A second primary issue is the lack of interaction between professors and students (Airey & Linder, 2006, 2007; Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014; Kang & Park, 2004; Kang et al., 2007). It is critical for professors and students to be fully engaged in the course, which may also improve overall course satisfaction.

Third, older students or upperclassmen may fare better if they have had more exposure to English and have taken more EMI classes. Juniors and seniors may have better results in EMI classes in comparison to freshmen and sophomores who have taken fewer English classes (M.-J. Kim, 2007). Fourth, although EMI is connected to internationalization and increasing the number of exchange students in South Korea, the vast majority of international students coming from China are not fluent in English (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). These students may struggle immensely in EMI classes, leading to a lack of motivation, learning improvement, and satisfaction with the class. Finally, EMI can also be

troublesome for students due to the excessive time needed to study in comparison to other classes that are taught in the native language (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). The same number of credits is normally earned for EMI classes in Korea, but EMI classes can often be exceedingly difficult for students since they are not taught in their native language. Taking these classes may feel like a waste of time for students who are balancing many responsibilities and preparing for a very competitive job market when they graduate.

OVERCOMING CHALLENGES IN EMI UNIVERSITY CLASSES

Although research has evaluated and reported many benefits of EMI, it is vital to critically examine the weaknesses so that steps can be taken to improve learning output. The following section provides five suggestions for professor-level improvements as well as student-level improvements in EMI classes. These practical suggestions are based on challenges related to EMI discussed in the literature, especially in a South Korean context. The list of suggestions is not exhaustive, and certainly there are other disadvantages of EMI that can be discussed. These suggestions are meant to build on past research and provide practical examples of how to improve the EMI classroom.

Improvements for Professors

English Language Proficiency Problems

It is imperative that professors have a sufficient ability to convey the course material through English (Oh & Lee, 2010) and be given ample English language preparation classes (Maeng, Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011; Oh & Lee, 2010). Some professors may believe that their English is insufficient or underreport their English language capability, but they may very well be able to conduct a course in English without significant problems. Even professors who are proficient in English may not have regular opportunities to practice the language and may feel uncomfortable using the language. However, some professors may not actually be proficient in the language and should not be forced to teach classes in English. Requiring professors who are not proficient in

English, or at least at an advanced level, to teach EMI classes can actually be counterproductive since students may lose valuable learning opportunities, which may significantly reduce their understanding of the course content. For those professors who are proficient in English and may want extra practice, some suggestions would be for the university to provide special English classes for them that can be offered by South Korean professors who teach English language classes or native English speakers. Other options include participating in English classes at a private academy or online classes through platforms such as Skype. MOOCs may also provide some valuable learning opportunities, albeit less personalized. Professors may also want to stay current in their field by following English websites or reading journals in English related to their field. In addition, they may be able to get aid from graduate students who are more fluent in English by assisting with partial class teaching or assignment development and assessment.

Class Planning Time

EMI classes can take a considerable amount of time to prepare. This may be inevitable, especially if the professor is teaching new classes and does not have prior materials to build on. To help lighten this burden, universities could consider decreasing a professor's course load if they teach EMI classes (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014). However, due to financial constraints, this may not be possible. In this case, professors and administrators need to think of proactive ways to promote academic achievement while not burdening professors with excessive course planning. Professors need to balance many responsibilities including teaching, research, administrative work, conferences, presentations, and professional memberships. A practical suggestion is to reduce curriculum preparation time by creating a course sharing platform online where professors from various universities upload course content in their fields that can freely be adapted and used by other professors. Another option especially for undergraduate classes is to have graduate students assist more with course preparation, especially if they are fluent in English and knowledgeable about the course subject. They can help prepare the lessons, and professors can adapt them or make corrections as needed. A final option is to get assistance from more experienced faculty and English language professors (Huang, 2012). Experienced faculty may be able to provide helpful resources or materials in English related to the field, and English language professors may be able to assist with

accuracy and general language problems.

Correcting Mistakes and Building Confidence

Since Korean professors are not native speakers of English and may not be confident in their ability to speak English, they may not feel that they are knowledgeable enough to correct students' mistakes, especially grammar errors. If the university has a writing lab that is staffed by native English speakers or people who are proficient in the language, students can take their papers to the lab before submission to have grammar mistakes corrected. Students can also be authorized to participate in peer review and assess their peers' grammar and content. There are also online tutoring services for a fee that students may want to consider using. In addition, text analysis software (paid and free options are available) such as Grammarly, Paper Rater, Grammar Base, Ginger, and White Smoke is becoming more advanced and can help students identify mistakes independently. However, the students should be informed that these types of sites are not completely accurate but can generally provide helpful correction input for papers. EMI professors who are proficient in English should be comfortable and confident in correcting students' mistakes. However, the professor may want to be careful and avoid overcorrecting, which may cause unnecessary stress for students who may feel that their English language skills are already deficient. Some students prefer to have their papers fully corrected and criticized, so that they can develop their writing more and find specific mistakes. The professor can inform students that for assignments or assessments, grading and correction will largely be based on content and perhaps critical thinking or creativity. If students want heavy corrections, the professor can mention this in class and make note of students who prefer deep revisions and feedback. One of the most important points is for professors to strive to be confident in their English ability. Students may be able to sense when professors do not feel confident in their ability to speak English and as a result may not perceive the class and the professor favorably.

Examining the English Proficiency Levels of Students

It is important for students to be competent enough in English to be able to successfully master course objectives. Professors could consider giving students a short English test or an English test related to the subject to ensure that students are prepared enough to take the class. If

students are not sure of their English ability, they may be able to do a short telephone or in-person interview with the professor or a graduate student working under the professor to ensure that they are proficient enough. Students could also be required to complete a certain number of English language classes prior to taking EMI courses. Another option is that students provide evidence of English mastery through practical English exams that assess speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. Students who are not proficient in English should not take EMI classes until they are prepared. For some majors or fields, EMI classes may not be necessary for graduation, but many students will need to take EMI classes. Another problem that professors face is having students with mixed English levels in the classroom. In this case, strategies used in regular English language classrooms can be applied to the EMI classroom. Professors can arrange students by language ability and perhaps provide differentiated instruction or activities. Mixed levels can also be used at times, so that students with lower proficiency can be challenged more through scaffolding. However, this can often be at the expense of advanced students who spend a considerable amount of time helping the beginner or intermediate students. Graduate assistants could be placed in the classroom to assist different groups of students or individual students. They can also be added to more advanced groups to help promote critical thinking and engagement.

Eliminating Excessive Presentations or Projects

Students will generally expect that an EMI course will follow the same framework as similar classes taught in the native language. When constructing EMI courses and planning lessons, assignments, and assessments, professors have to strive to be reasonable in their expectations. Although an EMI course is not going to be identical to a comparable course in the native language, the professor should not burden the students with excessive presentations or projects to just fill the class time. Students may feel that they are being academically neglected and that the professor is not stepping up to the bar in fulfilling instructional duties. It is critical for the students to interact and participate in the classroom to help foster a positive learning environment and promote academic achievement, but professors have to play their part in providing a quality education to students. Professors certainly do not have to lecture for the entire class period, but it also is not reasonable for students to do presentations and projects every class

period for all or most of the class without any genuine instruction and engagement with students. Students need guidance and should be informed about the class content. Professors can also incorporate other activities into the class lesson such as audio or video clips, virtual field trips, guest lectures, etc. to ease some of the burden of conducting lengthier lectures. Graduate students may also do short lectures or instructional activities to provide assistance to professors. In addition, they may be able to provide clarification in English if professors are not able to clearly explain course topics.

Improvements for Students

English Proficiency Problems and Preference for Classes in the Native Language

English language development should be emphasized in universities since English is the language of globalization and is often necessary for cross-cultural exchanges but not at the expense of limiting students' academic expertise. The language benefits of EMI may not be worth the reduction of academic content knowledge since students may not be proficient enough in the English language to fully understand the course concepts (Kang et al., 2007; M.-J. Kim, 2007). Although universities may have to offer a certain number of EMI courses for various reasons, often for global competition and university rankings, students should not be denied a quality education because they have to take classes in English, which may very well result in a limited understanding of the subject. English is certainly important for global communication and for entry into many jobs in Korea, but there are fields in Korea that do not require English. Additionally, even though many South Korean companies look favorably upon individuals with a strong English background and high English text examination scores, potential employees may not use English at all or on a regular basis when they enter the job. In order to reduce some of the problems related to students' English levels, there are several strategies that can be considered. In Byun, Jon, and Cho's (2014) study, students discussed having EMI classes that are divided based on students' English level and mentioned the importance of offering more general English communication courses to help students improve their English level before taking EMI classes. It is also important for universities or professors to state the level of English needed when students apply for

EMI classes (Byun et al., 2011). In addition, pass/fail courses can be implemented (Byun et al., 2011) so that there is not so much stress on students to receive high marks, especially if they are not proficient in English and are very knowledgeable about the class content in the native language. There are also various ways that students can improve their English through language exchange programs, online classes, English language classes offered at the university, private academy classes, private tutoring, etc. Since EMI courses are dominant in South Korean universities, the importance of improving English should be emphasized in the early stages of university entrance so that students are not burdened in their final years because they are not proficient enough in English.

Lack of Interaction

It is important for professors and students to interact, which can help with building rapport and understanding student needs and interests. Students generally do not want to view the professor as someone who is unapproachable and disinterested in the learning experiences of the students. The professor should strive to learn more about students' needs in the classroom so that the professor can work on fostering an improved learning environment that promotes engagement and active learning. Students should also be encouraged to interact with other students to enhance the learning process. Class discussions, debates, and other engaging activities can be implemented to get students to think critically and apply what they have learned to real-world situations or practical scenarios related to their field. Professors should also make themselves available outside of class time. Office hours should be made known to the students as well as when professors are available to take phone calls. Understandably professors have intense loads when considering all of the responsibilities that they need to fulfill, so graduate students may take an active role in participating in classroom activities and join group discussion and activities to provide assistance, guidance, and feedback. Once again, many professors are very busy, but they may also want to consider calling students if their class sizes are not large to find out more about their students' needs. With larger class sizes, they may want to give informal needs' analysis forms a few times throughout the semester on which students write comments about the class instruction and their progress in the course.

Class Enrollment

Students who have had more exposure to English, especially older students or upperclassmen who have already completed English classes are likely to perform better in the classroom. Although EMI classes are often being pushed by many universities, perhaps most if not all EMI classes can only be offered to juniors or seniors. Freshmen and sophomores may be able to take the classes if they can provide evidence of their English proficiency. Alternatively, more basic classes may be offered at the freshmen or sophomore level with students completing higher-level classes at the junior or senior level. However, in this case, the English still may be too challenging even if the course content itself is not. Freshmen and sophomore level classes may also be authorized to allow partial communication in Korea or the students' native language. As students advance to junior or senior level EMI courses, the classes can be conducted completely or mostly in English. University administrators and professors alike should strive to ensure that students are fully prepared to participate in EMI courses so that they can actually benefit from the course and not feel as if they are wasting time or are heavily burdened by the difficulties related to English. Even juniors and seniors may have to prove that they are capable of understanding the course content and taking the course without unwarranted stresses and challenges. The ultimate goal of the course should be to gain knowledge. If students are not proficient enough in English, taking the course will not benefit them and may actually be harmful.

Exchange Students

As Korea entices numerous foreign exchange students to help bolster enrollment rates in a country with a declining birth rate, there are myriad challenges that must be addressed. Many of the exchange students, especially those from China, which accounts for the highest number of exchange students in Korea, are not fluent in English, and some are not even proficient enough in Korean. They often suffer immensely because there may not be enough classes appropriate for them, and when they take classes in a language that they are not fluent in, they often cannot understand the lectures, course materials, and textbooks. Some may even resort to translating course materials and books nearly word for word. This type of learning is not conducive for actual development and understanding of the class lessons. Although South Korean universities may be desperate to increase enrollment, they need to ensure that the

exchange students can benefit from studying at a South Korean university and will not face extreme difficulties in adapting because of language challenges in the classroom. Prior to arriving in Korea, students should provide evidence of language proficiency in Korean or English, depending on which courses they will take. Furthermore, professors who are teaching EMI classes need to be cognizant of the language challenges of foreign students. Even EMI classes that are required to be taught completely in English may very well include Korean language instruction despite policies that require classes be taught in English. These students come with the expectation that courses listed as EMI will be taught in English. Universities need to hold professors accountable and confirm that EMI courses are actually taught in English. In addition, administrators and professors need to regularly check the progress of exchange students and make adaptations to classes or policies as needed to promote academic development and understanding of the course content.

Excessive Preparation Time

Similar to the challenges discussed by professors in terms of the amount of time needed to prepare for classes, students also express the same challenges. Students should not assume that an EMI course will be identical to a comparable course taught in the native language; however, it is also unrealistic to significantly increase the course assignments, projects, and assignments. Professors may want to do a pilot test with several students to determine roughly how much time assignments should take. The assignments should not take drastically more time to complete than those offered in comparable courses taught in the native language. Even though students need to master the course objectives, it may be necessary to reduce some of the assignments or provide alternatives. Students can also participate in peer review to give substantive feedback to classmates, which may improve the quality of their writing. Universities may want to set up writing labs or language labs with English language instructors who can provide assistance with students who are struggling with assignments. If there are budgetary concerns about opening either type of lab, they can be staffed by students who are proficient in English and want to complete volunteer work. Peer mentoring programs can also be of aid to students who spend a considerable amount of time on EMI assignments. Students need to be challenged in the classroom, but they should not be overwhelmed by

unnecessary assignments or activities that inhibit their development in other areas because of a lack of time.

CONCLUSIONS

When implementing or developing changes to current EMI policies, it is critical for administrators to focus on effective learning and take time to examine the views of professors and students regarding their EMI courses. Universities should also be aware of the different backgrounds and capabilities of professors and students, and realize that a one-size-fits-all approach to EMI is not beneficial (Byun et al., 2011). However, it is also essential that universities and professors are following policies regarding EMI. In order to ensure that EMI policies are effective and consider the needs of students and professors, universities should regularly carry out research and make improvements as necessary to address shortcomings or problems. It may not be possible to improve all aspects of EMI policy and implementation; nonetheless, universities and professors should examine practical and cost-effective ways to make improvements.

Flexibility and practicality are both important elements that should be considered in implementing and maintaining EMI programs. Universities should focus on professor and student satisfaction even if their perspectives may not wholly align with administrative policy. Furthermore, as discussed by Byun, Jon, and Cho (2014), universities need to confirm that stakeholders are aware of the purpose of EMI classes. Without highlighting the benefits and importance of EMI, students and professors alike may be less than enthusiastic to participate in EMI classes. In addition, universities need to get input from students and professors (Byun, Jon, & Cho, 2014) to help foster a positive environment that focuses on the needs of the learning community as a whole rather than just the views of administrators who may not even be active participants in the routine educational functions of the university.

Despite EMI having disadvantages that can be problematic for professors and students, there are many benefits. Students can get more practice using the English language and can learn about their field through English. With a job market in Korea that emphasizes English proficiency, getting more practice in using the language can be

advantageous for students. English is also the language of international exchange, and as the world becomes even more connected, English proficiency is often necessary. Although there do not appear to be many direct benefits for professors, they may be able to improve their English, which may be helpful in writing international journal articles or attending and presenting at international conferences. There are various benefits at the institutional level, one mainly being improving competitiveness on a global level (E. G. Kim, 2014). By implementing best practices and regularly getting feedback from students and professors, EMI classes can be drastically improved even without major changes or costs. The suggestions provided in this paper can be considered when developing EMI courses or examining EMI policy. Future papers can build on these suggestions; additionally, as technology advances, there may be practical tools and resources that can be used to help develop EMI classes.

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Student Views on Visiting Foreign Countries and Studying English Abroad in a Globalized Era

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Responses from 147 students on a closed-item questionnaire at a "global B-type" university in Japan show some surprising views on learning and using English related to overseas travel and assimilation in this global age. These views are often linked to anxiety, confidence, and self-esteem issues that are also relevant in the Korean context. The implications are that perceived language proficiency affects the student's desire to participate in overseas programs because negative self-evaluations create a cycle of self-deprecating cognition. This paper reports on how to raise and model expectations about future learning selves and to reduce negative stereotypes to heighten interest both in studying English and in becoming global citizens.

Keywords: globalism, travel abroad, language proficiency, learner interest

INTRODUCTION: THE FOCUS OF THE STUDY

In a lesson on traveling abroad with low-English-level university students, I decided to use the "Why?" activity, a whole-class activity in which I tell the class which country I would particularly like to visit, and then six students elicit reasons by asking "Why?" The purpose is to model answers such as "I want to try the local food" or "I'd like to take photos of Machu Picchu because photography is one of my hobbies" so that students can visualize reasons for traveling abroad. I elicited responses from one student to model examples, but in contrast, during the follow-up paired activity, the student replied to his interlocutor simply that he did not, in fact, wish to go abroad. When asked why, he responded simply, "I love Japan."

I was a little perplexed because, in the public, front-of-class activity, the student stated that he was keen to travel, yet in the private activity with a classmate, he negated his previous interest saying he would rather stay in his home country. I had made the elementary and erroneous assumption that because the student seemed to like and was receptive to English, this would mean that he wanted to go abroad. This seemed a little incongruous, and in post-class reflection, I considered this merited further classroom-based inquiry. This feeling of incongruity came about not only because the student seemed to like English but also because the university in which I teach is a "global B university," which aims to enhance the international compatibility and competitiveness of higher education in Japan (Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, 2014).

Similar to the views of the student saying he did not want to go abroad, MEXT (2017) sees the growing inwardness of Japanese youth as being problematic in this global age. The concerns are that inward-looking students will be isolated from the global network of societies, thereby further reducing the role of Japan in global research and education. This view is partly borne out by findings from the Japan Youth Research Institute (2012), which found, among 2,458 Japanese and 2,292 Korean high school students, an unwillingness to go abroad, that there is a perceived "language barrier," that they have little confidence in their ability to live alone, and that their own country was easy to live in. Korean students added that they doubted whether they could become "used to foreign lifestyles," while Japanese students responded that it was "bothersome" to go abroad, which was the highest among the four countries surveyed. Yang and Kim (2011), indeed, reported that Korean and Japanese students exhibited low motivated L2 behavior, as learners in these countries do not visualize themselves as positive English users in their future.

In an ideal classroom, as Macintyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998, p. 547) demonstrated, the ultimate goal of the English learning process "should be to engender in language students the willingness to seek out communication opportunities and the willingness to actually communicate in them," and as such, one of the objectives for English learning classes should be to engender in the students the willingness to communicate in surroundings where the language is used for natural communication, most obviously, abroad. However, another assumption teachers have made is that students want to communicate. Yashima (2012, p. 119) drew parallels with students' naturalistic learning in that

"if they are unwilling to communicate, they will not learn the language since they will not develop social networks, and thus they fail to communicate." Similarly, Hoskins (2017) found that Korean university students are uncomfortable with one-to-one interactions with "native speakers," while Life and Kim (2008) found that Korean students were noticeably less confident in their ability to use English in a dominantly English speaking environment. Assuming that, ideally, students wish to increase communicative skills, they need to speak. Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, and Shimizu (2004) stated that students who have more interest in international affairs and a desire to be involved in international vocations and activities seem to be more willing to communicate in English and voluntarily engage in communication more frequently. Additionally, learners who are internationally oriented tend to be more motivated to study English. International posture is seen as part of the construct "integrativeness," which is seen as a necessity for learner motivation and which reflects a positive affect disposition towards speakers of the target language.

In a global age, there is a sense of urgency within the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) leading to the English Education Reform Plan (MEXT, 2014), formulated with the 2020 Tokyo Olympics in mind, to promote an educational environment that "corresponds to globalization." This makes it imperative for students to develop second language (L2) abilities in English to compete and cooperate with people from other countries through the experience of living and studying abroad. There has been much focus in the literature on the effects of studying abroad on English proficiency, but there have been few studies that looked at the effect of proficiency on the students' desire to participate in overseas programs (Fukuzawa, 2016). Similarly, there have been studies on the effects of studying abroad on the individual's sense of self (see, for example, Block, 2009), but little on the influence of the sense of self on the desire to go abroad. While "global universities" have been created in Japan to lead the internationalization of Japanese society, few of my students over the years have availed themselves of the chance to go abroad, even for a short-stay program. To gain insight into this apparent academic lethargy, I decided to investigate student attitudes about studying abroad and their "international posture" through a closed-item questionnaire in a variety of classes.

METHOD

Participants

The research setting was a global B-type university in western Japan where students develop liberal arts strength, linguistic ability, and specialized knowledge. The university's 10-year plan promises that 1,200 Japanese students will study abroad, and across the student body, students will gain cross-cultural experiences. Upon entering the university, students take a form of TOEIC test that serves as a placement test.

A total of 147 students from six classes participated in this study: 95 males (64.6%) and 52 females (35.4%), and 53 were assigned to two classes in social sciences (letters, education, economics, law), 48 students were in two life sciences classes (medical, dentistry, pharmacy), and 46 students were in two natural sciences (engineering, science, agriculture, environmental science) classes. Each class had a range of TOEIC scores. For example, one class had a range from 180 to 320 with an overall average of 271 (it was not known if this represented the median or mean average). The mean TOEIC score for the six classes was 295, so these six classes were the lowest scoring groups studying English Communication (EC1) on this day.

Instrument

The students were asked to complete a 25-item questionnaire in English, with the occasional translation of words into Japanese (see Appendix). It was explained that the questionnaire should be completed anonymously, the findings would not have any impact on their grade, and the findings would only be used in research. The students responded to a six-item Likert scale anchored from "strongly agree" (6) to "strongly disagree" (1). At first, students appraised their self-perceived English ability level. This was important in terms of student confidence and competence. The questionnaire data were analyzed using SPSS software version 22.0. A one-way ANOVA was used to calculate differences in means for the self-perceived student level, and a test of homogeneity of variances was carried out followed by a post-hoc Scheffe test to compare all groups of participants with each other. A basic Pearson chi-square

test was also ran to detect whether there was a significant association between the variables. An alpha level of .05 was set for all the statistical tests.

RESULTS

The mean score for the whole survey was 3.465 with the highest score of 4.65 on the six-item scale. If the scores of 4, 5, and 6 in the scale are added together, we get a sense of agreement with the proposition. Similarly, the scores of 1, 2, and 3 suggest disagreement. For space reasons, the entire statement is not included, and the reader should refer to the Appendix. I wanted to see the extent to which the views of high school Japanese and Korean students reported in the Japan Youth Research Institute's (2012) findings earlier were shared. Therefore, the questions asked whether it was "bothersome" to go abroad, whether learners possess confidence to communicate in English, or conversely, whether they feel there is a "language barrier," and whether they would have confidence in their ability to spend time alone.

Concepts of Yashima's (2002, p. 58) "international posture" and Hoskins (2017) Korean findings were explored, including the student's individual tendency to either "approach" or "avoid" interaction with people from different cultures, which is a sign of willingness to communicate, and which is a necessary motivation for language improvement. This includes the social-cultural dimension of motivation, including interest in foreign or international news affairs and foreign cultures. Similarly, I wished to explore their readiness to interact with intercultural partners on campus in the L-café (a language-learning, café-type area) or other social events or through SNS, whether they have an ethnocentric bias towards others by gaining insight into whether learners feel "foreigners" have different values, and whether students believe that learning English would help their future job prospects so as to gain insight into how English might fit in with their future self.

On the first item (Item 1), 81 students out of 147 agreed that they have an interest in studying in a foreign country, while 66 disagreed. However, if we look at Table 2, we can see that the mean score based on the self-appraised level is the lowest for the 64 beginner students (B) at 3.52, while the 23 intermediate students (I) had a score of 3.70. Item

2 asks whether the students would like to go to a foreign country and meet and talk using English, and encouragingly, 93 out of 147 agreed that they would. When looking at Table 2, we can see the mean is lower for beginner students.

TABLE 1. The Overall Results (N = 147)

	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	SD	M
1	Interest	10	31	25	39	25	17	1.45	3.61
2	Meet and talk	4	39	20	43	25	25	1.43	3.88
3	Japanese	6	7	23	30	47	34	1.34	4.41
4	Rather travel	4	12	38	36	28	29	1.34	4.08
5	Homestay	14	33	31	23	26	20	1.56	3.50
6	Bothersome	15	32	31	34	22	13	1.45	3.37
7	Coincidence	42	52	33	14	6	0	1.10	2.25
8	Dangerous	12	34	34	26	31	10	1.42	3.41
9	Socialize	86	31	16	6	4	4	1.22	1.80
10	Values	46	56	24	14	6	1	1.14	2.19
11	Inward	16	22	29	36	25	19	1.52	3.61
12	Job	2	8	9	39	51	38	1.16	4.65
13	Food	15	23	18	40	28	23	1.56	3.76
14	Excited	5	8	29	39	32	34	1.34	4.27
15	Parents	16	22	24	34	28	23	1.57	3.71
16	Tobitate!	100	13	7	14	10	3	1.42	1.84
17	News	12	28	29	36	28	14	1.44	3.56
18	Friends	94	13	6	6	13	15	1.81	2.16
19	Culture	58	46	24	7	9	3	1.28	2.13
20	Language	4	9	13	40	48	33	1.26	4.48
21	Movies	4	11	15	27	43	47	1.37	4.60
22	Widen	7	14	17	31	42	36	1.45	4.33
23	Being alone	14	26	36	23	35	13	1.49	3.53
24	Anxious	5	17	24	43	44	13	1.29	3.96
25	Credit	16	27	27	41	21	16	1.48	3.50

Note. 6 = Strongly agree, 1 = Strongly disagree. The figures are the numbers of students.

The third item asked whether the students would be happier going to a foreign country knowing that they would be spoken to in Japanese. It can be very daunting for lower ability students to go to a foreign country if they have no recourse to their mother tongue when they cannot express themselves or face an emergency situation. It was predicted that the lower the perceived ability level, the less confident the students would be at expressing themselves adequately in English. In other words, they still do not feel ready to communicate. With a mean score of 4.41, this was one of the highest levels of agreement, and only 63 out of 147 disagreed, with a slight fall in mean score for the intermediate students, as shown in Table 2. Item 4 asked whether the students would rather stay in Japan than go to a foreign country, and this proposition was raised after the student mentioned in the introduction to this paper that he would not like to travel abroad because he "loves Japan." Ninety-three (93) out of 147 agreed with this statement. There were quite different mean scores based on level displayed in Table 2 with a large drop in the mean score for intermediate students indicating they would rather go abroad.

Item 5 asked whether students would like to do a homestay abroad to learn about a foreign culture. With a mean score of 3.5, there was student ambivalence about being in close proximity with foreigners and a realization that communication would probably not be in their mother tongue. However, there was a difference in mean score between student levels displayed in Table 2. In addition, Item 6 showed disagreement that it is "bothersome" to go abroad, which is in contrast to the Japanese and Korean high school students who cited this as a reason not to go abroad (Japan Youth Research Institute, 2012). Item 7 had a very low mean score with only 20 out of 147 students agreeing that they have confidence in their ability to communicate abroad, with no student at all strongly agreeing that they possess confidence. This has impact as those students who are more willing to communicate in interpersonal situations tend to have higher confidence. Self-confidence, which can be seen as a combination of perceived communication competence and a lower level of anxiety, is crucial for willingness to communicate. This will be expanded on later, but it does suggest learners need strategy training to overcome this lack of confidence, and that learners seem to have become accustomed to feelings of failure in their English learning. It is probable that being assigned to the lowest "ability" group after poor results in the class placement test has done little for their confidence. Class streaming

reduces opportunities to interact with peers who have felt some degree of success in their learning and the strategies that success requires.

In Item 8, 80 students cited reasons of danger for not wishing to go abroad, and recent terrorist events in Europe and America have caused further discouragement to students. However, students need to realize that many destinations are safe, and, although understandable to a degree, it does illustrate the occasionally sensationalist reporting in the Japanese media and the risk-aversive nature of Japanese students. Item 9 asked the extent to which students seek out opportunities outside of class to socialize with foreigners in, for example, the on-campus L-café. One of the university aims is for bridge-building and daily cross-cultural experience to produce practical-oriented human resources in a global community, but only 14 out of 147 have actively socialized with foreigners at campus events, illustrating a lack of readiness to seek out and interact with intercultural partners (Yashima, 2002; Hoskins, 2017). This avoidance (rather than an approach) tendency towards people from different cultures may be a sign of a lack of willingness to communicate, which is often seen as necessary motivation for language improvement. However, the students did not seem to have negative views towards the values held by foreigners and did not display ethnocentrism. This meant they did not evaluate foreigner behavior using their own standards, nor did they show a negative bias towards different patterns of behavior, as only 21 students agreed that different values would be an impediment to their traveling abroad.

Item 11 asked the students whether they have an "inward disposition," a character trait that has been put forward to explain a reluctance to go abroad, with 80 out of 147 agreeing they had. Looking at Table 2, there is only a marginal fall for intermediate students with beginners and lower intermediate students (LI) having the same exact mean score. Looking at Item 12, 128 out of 147 students agreed that if they studied abroad, it would help their job opportunities, a perhaps surprising result that makes one wonder why students do not avail of the opportunities. Worries about whether the local food (Item 13) would suit their tastes is an item that 91 students seemed to be concerned about, yet 105 felt excited about traveling abroad (Item 14). Eighty-five (85) students, perhaps naturally, felt that their parents would be "very worried" if they went to a foreign country these days, which may impact the willingness of parents to bear the financial costs (Item 15) and illustrate their position as "risk managers" weighing the benefits.

Twenty-seven (27) students knew about the "Tobitate!" (Leap for Tomorrow) program, which is one potential way to defray costs through government or corporate sponsorship, while 100 students claimed to have no knowledge of it at all, which is surprising, considering the large amount of information posted on bulletin boards around campus (Item 16). As interest in foreign news is also seen as important for international posture, it was interesting to note that 69 out of 147 said that they did not like to learn about foreign news on the Internet or TV (Item 17), and similarly, only 34 students had foreign friends on SNS such as Facebook or Twitter (Item 18). Item 19 involves a degree of disagreement with a negative statement, which partly accounted for the low reliability of the study. Also, only 19 students agreed that they would not like to go abroad because they are not interested in foreign culture.

Item 20 refers again to the Japan Youth Research Institute (2012) results where high school students pointed to a "language barrier" as a primary reason for not wishing to go abroad. Similarly, 121 students in this study had similar worries, which can be linked with the students' feelings about "confidence in communication" and "willingness to do a homestay," showing that learners possess language anxiety to a large degree. However, linked to foreign culture, 117 students said they were interested in foreign movies, which is illustrative of an interest in foreign affairs (Item 21), and 109 students said they wanted to go abroad to "widen their thinking" (Item 22). However, this, alongside culture, does not necessarily require direct communication or assimilation with foreigners and could just involve mere passive observation.

In Item 23, 76 students said that they had no confidence in being alone, which may have links to the unwillingness to do a homestay situation as they may imagine having to use public transport to commute daily to the foreign school and being unable to meet friends during the weekend if they are in a homestay environment. In Item 24, 100 students agreed that thinking about going abroad made them feel anxious, perhaps indicating that, while they were excited (Item 14), it would not be a trip that they might particularly enjoy. The last item asked whether the students were taking this class for the purely instrumental purpose of fulfilling a graduation requirement, and 78 out of 147 indicated that they were placing little investment in the success of their language learning (Ryan, 2009). However, the lower the students' self-appraised ability level, the more the students were likely to agree, indicating that learners

may have felt little success with their English skills and regard English as just a necessity for graduation.

TABLE 2. Mean Scores by Student Level (N = 147)

	Item	B (n = 64)	LI (n = 59)	I (n = 23)
1	Interest	3.52	3.63	3.70
2	Meet and talk	3.64	4.05	4.04
3	Japanese	4.39	4.47	4.35
4	Rather travel	4.23	4.10	3.74
5	Homestay	3.28	3.54	3.91
6	Bothersome	3.58	3.17	3.43
7	Coincidence	1.88	2.39	2.91
8	Dangerous	3.47	3.41	3.35
9	Socialize	1.70	1.83	1.91
10	Values	2.11	2.31	2.17
11	Inward	3.69	3.69	3.26
12	Job	4.73	4.61	4.48
13	Food	3.81	3.85	3.43
14	Excited	4.08	4.47	4.22
15	Parents	3.73	3.76	3.65
16	*Tobitate!*	1.89	1.76	1.96
17	News	3.59	3.36	4.00
18	Friends	2.20	2.07	2.09
19	Culture	2.08	2.27	1.96
20	Language	4.55	4.61	4.13
21	Movies	4.63	4.47	4.78
22	Widen	4.09	4.46	4.57
23	Being alone	3.53	3.71	3.17
24	Anxious	4.14	4.14	3.13
25	Credit	3.72	3.54	2.91

Note. *Only 1 student responded to "Upper Intermediate." These results have not been included.

Of the 147 students, 64 saw themselves as beginners, 59 as lower intermediate, 23 as intermediate, and 1 student considered themselves to be upper intermediate. No student chose the advanced option. For statistical analysis in the ANOVA, the data from the one student was discarded as post-hoc tests could not be conducted with fewer than 2 cases. As success-oriented students often show high ability, the students' self-perceptions of English ability are often gauged through a classroom focus on testing or appraisal, which leads to comparisons with classmates. While acknowledging research findings that suggest Japanese downplay their sense of ability (Heine, Takata, & Lehman, 2000), a low self-perception, despite having studied English for six years, may indicate a lack of self-esteem and low feelings of achievement compounded by the results of the TOEIC placement test.

While the results do show some interesting trends, only two results out of 25 showed statistical significance. Item 7 asked the students whether they had confidence that they could communicate in English, and the Bonferroni post-hoc test showed strong significance ($f(2,143) =$ 9.356, $p < 0.001$). The results of the Pearson chi-square test showed that 50 out of 64 beginning students either strongly disagreed or disagreed that they had confidence, while only 3 of the intermediate students said they agreed. In Table 2, the beginners responded with 1.88, rising to 2.39 for lower intermediate students and to 2.91 for intermediate students. While this is still low, it does reveal that the higher the self-appraisal of their level, the more confident the students will be, which has implications for willingness to communicate, the international posture, and on the likelihood of a more enjoyable overseas experience.

While beginner and low intermediate students had the same scores for Item 24, which asked whether thinking about going to a foreign country caused anxiety, there was quite a large drop to 3.13 for lower intermediate students. The Bonferroni post-hoc test showed strong significance ($f(2,143) = p < 0.001$), while the chi-square test revealed that 47 out of 64 beginning students and 43 out of 59 lower intermediate students agreed they felt anxiety about going abroad compared with 10 out of 23 intermediate students. Learners develop expectations concerning the likely outcomes of various classroom behaviors, and if the experiences are negative, language anxiety begins to develop. If these negatively perceived experiences continue, foreign language anxiety may become a regular occurrence, and the learner begins to routinely expect to be nervous and perform poorly.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CLASSROOM

There are implications for classroom practice in both Japan and Korea concerning student confidence and anxiety when seen in terms of student-perceived levels with which there is a high correlation. A picture has emerged of students who are largely indifferent to visiting abroad to use English but are keen to visit foreign countries to learn culture, gain experience, and widen their thinking.

Interest in studying English increases as the self-perceived level gets higher (but this is not a statistically significant finding), indicating students have an "avoidance" rather than "approach" tendency (Yashima et al., 2004). This avoidance is also seen on campus at their university, where students have almost no social contact with foreigners, for example, at the L-café. While many feel studying English would help their job opportunities and that going to a foreign country makes them feel excited, many would rather stay in Japan and feel that it is bothersome to go abroad. From an English language perspective, the overall findings echoed those outlined in Fukuzawa (2016, p. 54), who reported on "uninterested" students who showed little or no desire to visit, work, or study abroad using English. The English level affected the desire to travel abroad and the perceptions of the difficulty students would have abroad, showing that the students at these levels see themselves as not ready for contact with English speakers using English (i.e., they would rather be spoken to in Japanese).

Raise Confidence and Reduce Anxiety

Looking back at Table 1, Item 7, overall only 21 out of 147 agreed that they had confidence that they could communicate in English abroad, with Table 2 showing a mean score of 1.95 for beginner students. Also, in Table 2, 100 out of 147 stated that thinking about going to a foreign country made them feel anxious, with beginner and low-intermediate students responding with mean scores of 4.14 on Item 24. Anxiety or "communicative apprehension" (McCroskey, 1997) can lead students to avoid "threatening" individuals as expectations are developed about the probable outcomes of engaging in interaction. MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement (1997) noted that anxious learners focus attention on perceived inadequacies, leading at worry and rumination to "self-derogation" (p.

269), which may have influenced claims that the students were "poor" at English and see themselves as beginners, despite being in their seventh year of English. This echoed the findings of Hoskins (2017) and Life and Kim (2008), who found Korean students to be uncomfortable. Learners may indeed be poor as the cognitive performance diminished due to the divided attention. Indeed, the students may have performed poorly because they have learned less, leading to further negative self-evaluations, thus continuing the cycle of self-deprecating cognition and further impairment of performance. If learners have little faith in their own abilities, they may begin to expect a poor outcome or poor performance, thereby laying the ground for the loss of self-esteem.

Creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere is clearly an important requisite for language learning success. Teachers need to encourage learners to recognize irrational fears and anxiety-provoking situations. Teachers can encourage learners to reflect upon experiences, and going through some introspection can help students become more in tune with their impressions of competence and provide them with a means for modifying their approaches. Foss and Reitzel (1997, p. 135) referred to "rational emotive therapy," whereby the teacher asks learners to verbalize fears, and through doing so, can realize that they are not alone in the fears they hold. If these beliefs can be recognized, students can learn to interpret such situations in more realistic ways. Assessing the performance more positively could also raise the learners' level of motivation and effort, thereby leading to better language learning strategies. Teachers must address negative expectations or "probable outcomes," challenge the "I can't speak English" beliefs, and focus on past achievements. Murphey (2006) suggested coaching students in "positive affirmations" dealing with the "inner voice," as well as removing "junk thoughts" and focusing on successful "past learning" to support beliefs in accomplishment by reflecting on a time when students learned and mastered something easily. This can help students recognize that "proper practice" can lead to positive outcomes, as four useful skills teachers can encourage. This would also benefit Korean students who shy away from "native-speaker" interactions (Hoskins, 2017; Life & Kim, 2008).

Making English Personally Relevant

Teachers need to raise the relevance of English so that students

would be more receptive to the idea of investing time and money in going abroad. Through task-based learning, the students need to be initially drawn to the task and stimulated to persevere, meaning that tasks need to be seen to be personally relevant. Engaging in activity-based tasks that pique their interest and give opportunities to make choices motivates students. If learners do not believe that performing tasks will lead to beneficial learning or successful outcomes, they will lack the will to complete the task. Engaging in activity-based tasks that pique their interest and give opportunities to make choices motivates students. Fryer (2012) said students need to be motivated towards studying abroad through real-world communicative tasks where the classroom focus is to prepare students for time abroad to help prevent language attrition and to help learners become accustomed to natural discourse in addition to being socially and culturally relevant. Activities that promote real-world L2 discourse and that are deemed relevant by the learners have the capacity to increase and sustain learner involvement.

Need to Fight Negative Perceptions of Abroad and Raise Interest

Not only do students have stress dealing with an anxiety-inducing language, but perceived cultural differences can weigh heavily, allayed with worries, and hold stereotypical outdated views of local food, while the media can occasionally portray negative images and biases. Sensationalistic reports of violence and crime in the media together with indifference among staff and faculty who themselves have not sojourned abroad may unwittingly spread negative images. Attitudes towards other countries are created through education and exposure to media. Munezane (2013, p. 154) said that positive attitudes towards "English-speaking countries, culture, and people, should find a place in L2 learning models as the backbone of motivation to study," meaning that, at the very least, teachers should raise awareness of the diversity of foreign cultures and how much "fun" can be had. In a Japanese context, Aspinall (2012) saw the importance of Japanese students seeing themselves as "risk managers," weighing up the costs and benefits. In a Korean context, Talbert (2017) illustrated that "linguistic investment" in English gives an advantage in the job market while English study leads to linguistic capital, or an enhanced value, in a globalized world.

Imagined Community and Vivid Self-Image, Ideal Selves

Ushioda (2012, p. 65) reminds us that "motivation is shaped by aspirations towards desirable future images of oneself as a proficient L2 user" so teachers need to reinforce the ideal self, or one's future representation, as an English language user. Yashima et al. (2004) hypothesized that learners who clearly visualize "possible" or "ideal" English-using selves are likely to make an effort to become more proficient and develop WTC and engage in interaction with others using English. Kim and Kim (2018) found that, among Korean university students, visual- as well as auditory-style preferences were strongly correlated to motivated behavior and that imagination was identified as an important factor predicting motivated L2 behavior. Kim (2010) noted that in Korea, mediated by the L2 learning experience, a learner's ought-to L2 self can be transformed into an ideal L2 self. The result supports the claim that vivid and elaborate imagery of the future self can lead to a more powerful motivation. Sampson (2016) found using a tree diagram to describe "possible-self trees" to be particularly helpful in encouraging students to consider their future-life areas. The trunk is the self with three branches or hopes for themselves as an English speaker, a worker, and in general life.

Point of Comparison

Lastly, in this global era, the teacher needs to remove the point of comparison of ability level with a native speaker but emphasize that English could be a means of communication with Asian neighbors. As Graddol (2006, p. 29) reminds us, international tourism is growing, but the "proportion of encounters involving a native English speaker is declining," and nearly three-quarters of visits involved visitors from a non-English-speaking country traveling to a non-English-speaking destination. Jeon (2014) adds that, in reality, there is more communication between non-native speakers of English, for example, English communication between Koreans and Japanese people, than there is between native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English (e.g., English communication between Koreans and Americans). All too often, English teaching emphasizes native-like pronunciation and behavior where the learner is positioned as an outsider so that the "target

language is always someone else's mother tongue" (Graddol, 2006, p. 83). Teachers need to emphasize that most interactions are between non-natives who are using English as a means of communication and mutual understanding, and not as a competition to see who comes closer to native-speaker norms. This might also encourage learners to seek out more interactions with foreigners who are not native speakers of English or socialize at the campus L-café.

CONCLUSIONS

This research project, which grew out of a student saying he "loved Japan," has raised a number of implications. Teachers need to create a classroom that encourages high self-esteem, aids learner confidence, and raises interest in foreign countries while actively reducing negative images or false stereotypes. Raising and modeling expectations about their future English-learning self will help to focus their learning and encourage learners to approach, rather than avoid, interaction with people from different cultures. This will help them raise their willingness to communicate, which is a necessary motivation for language improvement.

THE AUTHOR

Peter Burden gained his doctorate in TESOL from Exeter University in his native Britain. He has been researching teacher and learner dissonance, learner motivation, student evaluation of teaching, and learner likes and dislikes about learning English for many years and has published and presented widely on these themes. He always likes to hear other teacher's views on learner motivation. Email: burden-p@po.osu.ac.jp

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire

*Please tell me your **HONEST** opinion about travelling to a foreign country. There are no right or wrong answers. This information is for my research only. I will not show your answers to anyone. **Thanks! Dr. Peter Burden***

Male / Female: M   F
My English Level:
   Beginner Low-intermediate Intermediate Upper-intermediate   Advanced

1) I have an interest in studying English in a foreign country
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

2) I would like to go to a foreign country to meet other people and talk in English
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

3) I would be happier going to a foreign country if foreigners spoke to me in Japanese
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

4) I would rather travel in Japan than go to a foreign country
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

5) I would really like to do a homestay abroad to learn about a different culture.
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

6) It is bothersome for me to go to a foreign country
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

7) I have confidence that I can communicate in English abroad
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

8) I would not like to go to a foreign country because other countries are dangerous
          Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

9) I socialize with foreigners at the L-café or other social events on University campus

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

10) I don't want to travel abroad because foreigners have different values from me

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

11) I think I have an "inward disposition"

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

12) If I studied English abroad, it will help my job opportunities

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

13) I am worried about if I can eat the local food if I go to a foreign country

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

14) Thinking about going to a foreign country makes me feel excited

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

15) My parents would be very worried if I went to a foreign country these days

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

16) I have knowledge of the TOBITATE RYUGAKU program

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

17) I like to learn about the news in foreign countries on TV or the Internet

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

18) I have foreign friends on Facebook, Twitter, or other SNS

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

19) I don't want to go abroad because I am not interested in foreign culture

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

20) I will have a language barrier in a foreign country*[1]

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

21) I have an interest in foreign movies, music, art, or books.

      Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

22) I would like to go abroad to widen my thinking*[2]
   Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

23) I would not like to go abroad because I have no confidence in being alone*[3]
   Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

24) Thinking about going to a foreign country makes me feel anxious
   Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

25) I am only studying English to gain credits towards graduation
   Strongly agree   6   5   4   3   2   1   Strongly disagree

"Of Course We Need to Have a Choice": Does Agency Affect Perceptions of English as a Medium of Instruction? An Exploratory Study

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In the era of globalization, non-Anglophone higher education institutions worldwide have begun to implement English as a medium of instruction (EMI) policies with a strategic aim of generating funding and maintaining global competitiveness. While research into student perspectives on EMI has become commonplace, this paper seeks to examine a hitherto unexamined area of interest: the influence that choice has on student perspectives of EMI. Twenty undergraduate students from two universities in South Korea participated in qualitative interviews for this study. The findings show that the role of choice had an influence on not only how the students perceived EMI but also how they discussed EMI. Revealed in the findings is that students with no choice in EMI perceived EMI much more negatively than their peers who had a choice. These students also displayed a skeptical perception of EMI policies, found the classes difficult, and noted the stress and pressure associated with EMI. In comparison, students with a choice in EMI reported benefits including a confidence in language skills and found the classes easier with experience. This study raises many issues regarding EMI policies, such as issues in fairness, and notes how specific implementation of EMI policies with regard to agency can lead to benefits. This study is exploratory in nature; however, it highlights the need to examine the role of choice and student agency in research into EMI.

INTRODUCTION

While there is no doubt that English is currently the lingua franca of choice in many global domains, its ascent in higher education behind the façade of "internationalization" has been overwhelming. The rise of

English in higher education institutions worldwide has become an indicator of internationalization resulting in an ideology of internationalization as Englishization, that is, the increased use of English, which is demonstrated in higher education as English as a medium of instruction (EMI). Shohamy (2013) states that the spread of EMI is a demonstration of power of both the English language and of higher education institutions (hereafter, HEIs), which associate the use of English with status and reputation. In today's globalized society, institutions are competing for prestige and funding, and ranking systems have an influence on how institutions implement policies regarding internationalization. Piller (2013) notes that the ranking stipulations tend to be language dependent, which has led to a rise in EMI as it is a cost-effective means through which institutions can increase their rankings (Piller & Cho, 2013).

The use of an alternate language as the medium of instruction first emerged in bilingual societies as a means of facilitating the growth of the other language (Shohamy, 2013). The emergence of English as the global lingua franca advanced the implementation of EMI in a wide variety of contexts. One particular context, and the focus of this article, is South Korea (hereafter, Korea). With Korean HEIs aiming to become competitive players in the global HEI market, the last ten years has brought considerable growth to EMI in Korea, and it is suggested that the use of English has "overwhelmed all levels of the Korean educational experience, especially at higher education institutions" (Palmer & Cho, 2011, p. 119). It is against the backdrop of competition and university rankings that the growth of EMI is set. As Piller and Cho (2013, p. 35) state, "Mass-mediated university rankings must be understood as yet another pillar in the discourse of global competitiveness and one that is specifically played out on the terrain of English."

While EMI policies were first implemented in 2000–2001, the small number of international students at Korean HEIs did not lead to major policy changes regarding the use of EMI (Byun et al., 2011). However, the launch of the Study Korea Project by the Korean government in 2005, with the aim of attracting international students and staff to Korean HEIs, gave EMI due attention. A variety of government funding projects were related to the proportion of EMI courses among all courses offered by the HEIs. As Byun et al. (2011, p. 435) note, although this did not necessarily influence EMI policy at the time, "EMI has recently

become a prerequisite for universities wishing to receive government financial support." As with many policy initiatives, these plans have not remained without scrutiny and criticism. The question of whom and what EMI is serving is one of significance with regards to Korean HEIs. There is no doubt that it is of value to some students, particularly those who feel their chosen academic disciplines such as business or international relations benefit from English knowledge (Byun et al., 2011).

However, missing from the literature into EMI in Korea, and indeed other areas, is the role that student choice may play in perspectives and conceptualizations of EMI. One reason for this may be the tendency of Korean EMI researchers to focus on institutions in the capital, Seoul, or indeed on other top-ranking institutions whose policies tend to insist on EMI. I attempt to explore this gap by presenting data that was part of a wider study into the role of English in internationalization and global citizenship in Korean HEIs. While I acknowledge that there may be other contingent circumstances regarding such perspectives, the role that choice plays is worthy of exploration and may provide further suggestions for EMI policy, particularly in countries such as Korea where EMI policies attract some hostile commentary.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH INTO PERSPECTIVES ON EMI

As stated, the status of English as the global lingua franca has progressed the implementation of EMI in a wide variety of contexts with the pedagogical aim of enabling the student to gain proficiency in both language and content. It is alleged that EMI policies benefit an academic community through the use of a common language that will lead to employment opportunities and an ease of collaboration amongst institutions through student and staff mobility (Björkman, 2013). Due to the rise in EMI, empirical research into the perceptions of staff and students has become more widespread. As far as benefits of EMI are concerned, EMI practitioners tend to note the international status that HEIs develop through these policies (e.g., Botha, 2013; Channa, 2012; Muthanna & Miao, 2015). Studies have also found that language proficiency improved in certain contexts (e.g., Ament & Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Belhahi & Elhami, 2015; Tatzl, 2011) and that students developed

more confidence in their English, leading to language enhancement (Channa, 2012; Tatzl, 2011). Perspectives on EMI are sometimes found to be faculty dependent with studies showing that students from faculties such as business tend to be more favorably disposed to EMI (e.g., Botha, 2013; Jon & Kim, 2011). Recent studies also suggest that students may adjust to EMI over time (e.g., Im & Kim, 2015; Knock, Rouhshad, Oon, & Storch, 2015).

Despite the above studies reporting benefits to students, in general, research into EMI tends to highlight complications and negative attitudes towards EMI, particularly in Korea. A predominant issue emerging across contexts is comprehension difficulties and lack of effective learning, which tends to center around the language proficiency of students and professors (e.g., Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013; Kuteeva, 2014; Li, 2013; Mahn, 2012; Zacharias, 2013) and is particularly prevalent in research from Korea (e.g., Byun et al., 2011; Joe & Lee, 2013; Kim, Kweon, & Kim, 2017; Kim et al., 2009; Lee, 2014; Palmer & Cho, 2011). Research findings regarding proficiency issues tend to pinpoint barriers to content acquisition, lack of student participation, and the need to frequently resort to one's native language. In Korea, Kim, Tatar, and Choi (2014) found that Korean students' need to use their L1 was associated with a desire for academic achievement. Academic achievement and the pressure and competition that arises in Korean academia tended to result in adverse perceptions of EMI among Korean students (Kim, 2011) due to the difficulties that arose from EMI. However, Kim et al. (2009) note that Korean students report high satisfaction levels when they receive high grades, which suggests that the ends are paramount regardless of the linguistic means they need to get there. Researchers also report a large gap between policy implementation and actual EMI practice with classroom practices rarely mirroring institutional and national policy directives (Hu & Lei, 2014; Li, Leung, & Kember, 2001). In Korea, the contradictions between policy and practice are leading to students questioning who actually benefits from approaches to internationalization such as EMI (Palmer & Cho, 2011).

THE ROLE OF CHOICE: AGENCY AND MOTIVATION

In order to investigate the role of choice in EMI, there is a need to

focus on several related concepts that incorporate many different disciplines and theories of knowledge. Two of the most used concepts related to choice, in both language learning and education as a whole, are those of agency and motivation. Martin (2004, p. 135) defines agency as "the capability of individual human beings to make choices and act on these choices in a way that makes a difference in their lives." From this definition, the role of choice is clear; however, the philosophical arguments that revolve around human agency are complex and perpetual. In general, two diverging conceptualizations of learner agency are assumed. From a constructivist perspective, learning is viewed as an internal process and attempts to describe "the interaction between the progressive competence of the organism and the opportunities provided by the environment" (Paris & Byrnes, 1989, p. 170). The other perspective is that of socioculturalists, most prominently Vygotsky (1978), who focus on the structure provided by social interaction. From this perspective, the learner is embedded within social structures with learners participating in joint activities and co-constructing knowledge and meaning. Beyond a constructivist approach, more recent poststructuralist approaches to learning that emphasize agency in individuals have been explored, specifically in language learning.

Bandura (2001) outlines four core features of human agency: intentionality, forethought, self-reactiveness, and self-reflectiveness. According to Bandura, "An intention is a representation of a future course of action to be performed" (p. 6). There is an emphasis on self-motivation to bring about future actions rather than merely expecting them to happen. As Bandura further explains, a major factor of agency is to act according to purpose irrespective of the eventual outcome. However, the second factor, forethought, provides an understanding of agency that directs individuals to anticipate future events in order to plan accordingly for desired outcomes. Bandura believes that forethought provides "direction, coherence, and meaning" (p. 7) to our lives, and allows us to strategize and prioritize in order to retrieve the most favorable outcomes. Beyond intention and forethought, agency also requires self-direction, which is the focus of self-reactiveness. This factor also requires a level of behavioral self-monitoring to match standards that should relate to personal goals. Finally, self-reflectiveness denotes the ability to critically assess situations and make a choice in how to act accordingly. As is evident from these factors, motivation features heavily

in conceptualizations and research into agency.

Motivation is a well-researched topic in both learning theory and second language learning. For the latter area, Gardner (1985, p. 10) referred to motivation in second language learning as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity." Gardner and Lambert (1972) outline two strands of motivation: instrumental and integrative motivation. The former refers to a learner's desire to acquire a language for educational or employment purposes. The latter refers to reasons for learning based on integration into a culture or target language group. While various motivational frameworks (e.g., Dornyei, 2005) have developed since, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) ground-breaking theory highlighted the effect of the social and cultural world on a learner's acquisition. From a poststructuralist perspective, Pierce (1995) suggested that theories on motivation tended to frame learners in narrow contexts, such as motivated/unmotivated, without a deeper investigation into how speakers are positioned within their own particular environments and the power relations that influence these positionings. This led to poststructuralist scholars redefining motivation as "investment," prioritizing historical and social influences that impinge on language learners' relationship to the target language.

METHOD

Site and Participant Selection

Two universities are featured in this study and both are located in the same city in the southeast of the Korean Peninsula. While UNI-A is a private university and UNI-B a national, public university, both institutions are explicit in their internationalization agendas, which encompass English language programs. The initial recruitment of participants was facilitated by professors at each university. The requirements for participation were as follows: second year of university or above, experience in English instruction, the ability to conduct interviews in English, and no participants majoring in English language teaching or linguistics. This purposive sampling initially encouraged 15 students to participate, 5 students from UNI-A and 10 from UNI-B. A

further 5 participants were recruited via snowball sampling. Therefore, the final number of participants from UNI-A was 8 and from UNI-B there were 12. The participants from UNI-A were all taking the same major (public administration and social welfare) while UNI-B participants were from a mix of majors including business administration, English literature, molecular biology, and economics. UNI-A's participants' major featured a class that had parallel language use of English and Korean as well as an English Language for Special Purposes class in conjunction with their major. All UNI-B students received some or all their classes through EMI.

Interviews

As researchers often attest, one of the primary methods of data collection in qualitative research is interviewing (e.g., Bernard, 2000; Perakyla & Ruusuvuori, 2011; Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). Qualitative interviewing is flexible, rich, and detailed and focuses on the participants' perspectives rather than the researcher's own agenda (Bryman, 2012). However, given that the focus of the research is not the interviews themselves but the topics that are discussed, "the researcher is in more direct touch with the very object that he or she is investigating" (Perakyla & Ruusuvuori, 2011, p. 529). Another aspect that made interviewing an attractive data collection method for my research was the notion that interviews can span "distances in both space and time" (p. 529), allowing an account of "what people remember doing" (Arksey & Knight, 1999, p. 2). So, along with an exploration of perceptions, understandings, and opinions based in the here and now, qualitative interviews in the context of my research provided access to the past experiences of participants, which granted a unique insight into their lives.

I initially decided to rely on semi-structured interviewing for my first round of interviews. This approach to interviewing was selected as it allowed me to "maintain discretion to follow leads" (Bernard, 2000, p. 191), but with a clear set of interview topics already devised that had to be covered. Experience from these interviews and my rapport with the participants gave me the confidence to approach the second round of interviews differently in that they were largely unstructured in nature and followed a more informal, conversational style. This approach required a different set of skills compared to the semi-structured interviews. As

Berg and Lune (2012, p. 111) note, "Interviewers must develop, adapt, and generate questions and follow-up probes appropriate to each given situation and the central purpose of the investigation." While this proved to be a more arduous task in some ways than the semi-structured interviews, it was a more rewarding experience in many other ways. The participants enjoyed the more personal and individualistic nature it allowed, and as Berg and Lune (2012, p. 111) state, "The individual responses and reactions are the data we want."

Analysis

In order to provide a rich description of the data set, I utilized two analytical methods: thematic analysis (TA) and discourse analysis (DA). Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 15) propose six phases of TA; however, they emphasize that these phases do not necessarily need to be followed in a linear pattern and that analysis will inevitably involve "moving back and forward between the entire data set." Phase 1 involves familiarizing oneself with the data and in order to do this, I first transcribed the data. Phase 2 requires generating initial codes that organized my data into meaningful groups. My coding was at first driven by a deductive process whereby the themes were theory-driven followed by inductive coding. Once all the data were coded, I moved on to Phase 3, which "re-focuses the analysis at the broader level of themes" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 19). Overall, there were, at this stage, six overarching themes with a large number of sub-themes. I then began to refine the themes (Phase 4), which allowed me to acknowledge that some of my themes were not reliable. Once all themes were refined and the data were adequately coded, I could define and name all my themes (Phase 5). Phase 6 in the framework involves writing up the findings obtained from the analysis. Each interview extract was analyzed separately at the three levels from Fairclough's (2001) framework, which focuses first on the linguistic features of text and their description (e.g., grammar, mode, structure, and vocabulary). These features are then interpreted against a background of assumptions about the text (Stage 2) and, finally, an explanation is given of the social structures that give rise to specific discursive practices (Stage 3). The addition of discourse analysis allowed me to understand underlying themes and ideologies implicit in student perspectives.

FINDINGS

Motivations

I begin this section with a focus on the motivations for EMI. To reiterate, students at UNI-A had no choice regarding EMI, and while most of the students at UNI-B explained that it was their decision to participate in EMI, the science students tended to note that they had no choice regarding the EMI policies. This led to two different conversations regarding motivations, with those students who had no choice tending to focus on institutional motivations for EMI and those with a choice focusing more on their own personal reasons for choosing to participate.

Students from UNI-A were clear regarding the HEI motivations for the use of English in the major. All of these students stated that their major − public administration and welfare − had originated in the United States, and therefore, it was necessary to study a portion of the class through English in order to fully grasp the concepts. The following example illustrates this point:

    I: Why do you have an English book?
    S4:   Public Administration is from America(.) I told you Korean
          government or Korean economy is impressed with America so
          America economic(.) or government system is really good(.) so
          we always replica or study America system and bring here

S4's direct response to my question is a statement of his argument. First, he attempts to inform me of a self-perceived fact and then, after a slight pause, recalls a previous discussion in order to explain why English is used in his major. This is representative of UNI-A students, who seemed to see the use of English as less to do with internationalization and more a necessary approach in order to view the topic through an American lens. Related to this, other students, most notably science majors from UNI-B who had little choice in EMI, expressed the opinion that there were not adequate Korean coursebooks for their topic. The example below examines this opinion:

    S16: Most of my major classes are(.) progress(?) progressed with

> English...because of many books written(2) many books are
> written by English so they said if that kinds of books translate
> in Korean we can't(.) we can't fully understand the context(.)
> so we always use English books

The dominance of English in science and publishing has almost necessitated the use of English. This provides an explanation why these students have no choice in EMI. Interesting in this extract, however, is that S16 first notes the explanation as fact suggesting that she agrees that most of the science textbooks are in English. However, when she notes that Korean translations would inhibit understanding, she presents this line of thinking as opinion ('they said'). Her use of *they*, while vague, implies the institution management and stands in contrast to the use of *we* for the students. An interpretation of this could read that while she accepts the fact that textbooks are written in English, her opinion of Korean as detrimental to understanding is more skeptical.

Around half of the students interviewed at UNI-B, however, had a choice whether or not to participate in EMI classes. These students had a mixed group of majors including business administration, psychology, and economics. This group tended to ascribe their motivations for opting for EMI to internationalization and international student recruitment. The conversations with these students then tended to turn to their own motivations for taking courses in English. From the data, three sub-themes emerged: competition for Korean classes, increased grades, and future employment. The example below incorporates two of these sub-themes and is representative of how this portion of students discussed their motivations for choosing EMI:

> I: Did you start slowly(?) like(.) did you take some classes in
>   English and then
> S12: [actually]
> I: =increase
> S12: =it's really really hard to get in the class cause it's too
>   competitive
> I: Lots of people want to take the English courses?
> S12: No no no the business class is limited(.) and students is very
>   very many so like mandatory class is REALLY really
>   competitive to get in so(.) but the English class is less and it's
>   better grade@@@

My initial question was based on an interview with another student, S10, who had discussed taking one EMI class at first to get used to it and then increased her participation over time. However, S12 interrupts my question with a discourse marker, which she used to indicate a change in topic (*actually*). At first, I misunderstand her and attempt to clarify what she was talking about. This shows assumption on my part, as I had been persuaded by the literature that EMI was such a significant part of university life in Korea and incorrectly assumed that the English classes were over-crowded. S12 instantly repairs the conversation by clarification and explanation. She uses the word *repetition* to emphasize her point about student numbers.

After a lengthier explanation about class size, she casually adds that participation in EMI classes affords an opportunity for higher grades. Due to the increased speed of her speech and the ensuing laughter, I believe she intentionally began with details of secondary importance and postponed a more essential fact. This indicates the student feels unsure about this policy and this apprehensiveness was evident in other interviews with students who discussed their choice to take EMI classes based on the absolute grading policy.[1]

Skepticism

When it came to perceptions of the disadvantages of EMI, a large portion of negative attitudes tended to come from UNI-A students and again from the UNI-B students who had less of a choice. These students generally displayed a degree of skepticism surrounding institutional policies, particularly EMI. The example below highlights these attitudes:

I: So do you think the Public Administration English and Korean books(.) do you think it's useful(?)

S2:   Not really useful but I study my major(.) my major is fun

I: So you have to do it?

S2:   Yes

I: What are the bad things about it(?)

S2:   (.)It doesn't useful in real life(.) I don't have to speak English in my major(.)

I: So then why do you do the English book(?)

S2:   @@@@@ (sighs) talk to [UNI-A]

The skepticism evident in this example is centered on the idea that there is no purpose to the use of English in her classes: S2 doesn't have to speak English for her major, and ultimately it will not serve her in "real life," presumably she means in both everyday life and in her future employment. Skepticism is also evident when S2 jokingly directs me to discuss the reasons for EMI policies with the university. I infer from this that the university does not explain or justify their decisions to have an English portion to their major, and that there is a general lack of communication between the institution and the students regarding these policies.

This perception stands in opposition to those students who chose EMI, who tended to display less skepticism towards the policies. Many of these students reported positive experiences in the EMI classes and appeared to understand why the institution offers these classes. The next example is from such a student:

I: Do you think it's a good or bad idea to have English classes?
S14: I think(.) for me(?)(.) I think that is a very good idea actually in [UNI-B] there is lots of exchange students...I really want to talk with them...but when I take the class in only Korean there is no foreign student...when I take English class there is lots of foreign friends so I talk with them...so I think it's quite good

As this example illustrates, S14 is very positive and enthusiastic about the EMI classes. His clarification request (for me?) does suggest that he is aware not all students on campus share his opinions. His reasoning behind his positive perceptions are based on the presence of international students in the EMI classes, which allows this student to develop friendships beyond his Korean peers. Interestingly, the students who had no choice regarding English classes tended to report that there were no international students present in their classes. This seemed to lead to further negativity and skepticism regarding the policies as some students noted the incongruity they felt in a class with Korean students and a Korean professor but using English.

Degree of Ease

The next sub-theme that emerged when speaking with these students was the ease of the EMI classes compared to Korean. One student

explained this to me in detail:

> S12: [...]English class it's really fun to study...because most professors they (2) assume that we are kind of behind behind English than Korean(.) so they make it easier(.) it's not really dense
>
> I: [So for example if you're doing a class in Korean you have to study the details]
>
> S12: =Every detail every word
>
> I: =But with the English classes you can take more of an overview(?)
>
> S12: YES YES(.) it might be really really difficult to memorize all of them in English so they make it easier(.) but it's not really easy

After her statement in Line 1, I responded with surprise and asked her to justify her "fun" statement to which she responded immediately. The student takes a pause to find the correct word to use (*assume*), which suggests that S12 perceives the students as not necessarily as deficient in English as the professors believe. In order to fully comprehend her explanation, I provide an example during which she interrupts to not only repeat my words but to elaborate the specificity of Korean. Her final point was spoken quickly, as if she was regretting her opinion and wishing to express that the English class was not too easy for her. However, she was not the only student to state that the English classes were easier, and one student noted he would choose English classes over Korean, as he ultimately found them easier.

A major issue arising from these differences is whether or not students who have high levels of English are at an advantage. One student, S17, explicitly mentioned that the policies were not equitable for students and, as discussed earlier, some students who chose EMI classes tended to covertly express an unease at the grading policies, even though they were benefitting from the policies. With the issues of fairness in mind, I present the following exchange with a UNI-B student who, at the time of our conversation, had just received grades for a recent midterm test:

> S19: I had test and professor want student to do in English(.) and some do in Korean one do in English and she has great score almost perfect

I: Just because it was in English(?)
S19: (.)No(.) because it was answer well AND also English
I: Did you do your test in English or Korean(?)
S19: Korean@@@
I: [@@@ why(?)]
S19: @@@I don't have 100% my score is poor@@
I: Because you wrote in Korean(?)
S19: Yes@@
I: Why did you write in Korean and not English(?)
S19: @Because content is difficult to me(.) so I don't write English
I: How many people in your class(?)
S19: Thirteen
I: And just one did in English(?)
S19: Yes@@@

An interesting aspect of this example is the student's laughter throughout her explanation. Her laughter begins after she admits that she wrote her test in Korean despite her professor declaring it should be in English. She continues laughing throughout our exchange, despite the fact that the content of our conversation was not particularly humorous. Therefore, her laughter in this segment was more of a reflection of the absurdity and frustration of her situation. On a content level, this example illustrates a situation of a student who finds the use of English in her class too difficult, especially compared to other students, who have a higher ability at the language.

It also appears from the data that students who had a choice in EMI believed that they got used to the classes over time or had time to build up their abilities by taking classes at a slower pace. One student noted that she first audited an EMI class so she could experience how the classes progressed without the additional stress of grading. In opposition to this, students who had no choice tended to report the same level of difficulty despite the fact that many of them had been taking EMI longer than those with a choice.

Learning Outcomes

While the easy nature of the English classes arose in conversation, a benefit I was keen to explore was whether the students perceived a growth in language skills could be attributed to the EMI classes. In

general, there was a consensus that the EMI classes were beneficial to language skills. However, two students approached this topic with more explanation than others. Both S11 and S13, two UNI-B students who had opted to take EMI classes, were enthusiastic about the benefits EMI conferred, especially for their English skills. Both students were also keen to express the view that while their English had improved, the benefits regarding English went beyond the mere acquisition of language skills. They noted that the classes had made them more confident in their English ability and encouraged them to use English more. Below is an extract from S13's interview where he discusses these points:

I: Do you think the classes in English have helped your English(?)
S13: My English(?) Of Course
I: @@Is it a stupid question(?)
S13: @@no no I think uh just my opinion(.) many students want to do that speaking in English(.) they just want it not try to but(.) I think(.) If I want to good at speaking English I have confidence to speaking English(.) I think it's all the way to study English I think to when I take the English class there are lots of opportunities to talk to foreign friends and even Korean students in English so(.) yes(2) after that my English ability is gradually better than before

As is evident, S13's response to my question was an attempt at confirmation of meaning and then a definite response. His response implies my question was rhetorical in nature for him. After I asked him about his response, he responded with an explanation for his abrupt statement. He is aware of the effort required in learning another language and implies that he makes an effort to learn English when other students do not. He also equates speaking English well with having confidence to do so, which was a theme that arose with other students, particularly S11, as I mentioned above. Therefore, for S13, the EMI classes offered a chance to speak in English with both international and Korean students, which afforded the opportunity to develop his language skills.

In contrast to this, for many of the students who had no choice, the EMI classes were positioned as a means of competing in Korea's competitive job market. Such positioning led to negative perceptions of EMI usually revolving around the stress and pressure they were subject

to regarding the English language policies, yet they were often located within the stress and pressure of Korean society as a whole. The example below illustrates these points:

> S17: I don't understand(.) [there is] very little use of English in normal life(.) we don't use English in normal time in my class with my friends why should we choose English(.) I'm not sure at all (2) I don't know why people want us to study English (.) they kind of give us pressure and some students protest...it's very hard to live in Korea as Korea student because parents or teachers or professors always want so much like learning English(.) study our major(.) make a job(.) I mean they are giving us lots of pressure and I'm not satisfied with them

The above exchange took place while we were discussing the concept of internationalization and S17 was arguing that the HEI should retain its Korean identity and not attempt to be global. Most evident in this example is S17's confusion at the policies, which is emphasized through his use of rephrasing. Throughout the extract, S17 uses *we* or *us*, which positions his argument as representative of Korean students as a whole and locates the pressure he feels from university as an aspect of "student life" in Korean society. While this student was particularly hostile towards internationalization policies, his arguments about English are representative of those students who had no choice on EMI.

DISCUSSION

As the findings illustrate, for the students who had no choice in EMI, internationalization does not "involve many choices" (Altbach & Knight, 2007) but rather is imposed on them. This lack of agency may explain in part why these students had negative perceptions of EMI, as agency can play a crucial role in learning outcomes and provide more drive to accomplish goals (e.g., Lidgren & McDaniel, 2012). Reflecting on Bandura's (2001) conceptualizations of human agency also provides an insight into the student perspectives of EMI. Students who have agency in their education may feel self-motivated to apply their experiences in an EMI class to a future action in either education or employment, and have the "forethought" to plan and strategize for future

outcomes. They may be able to "self-react" in order to align their behavior with personal goals relating to their education and "self-reflect" on the situation to provide them with meaning to act accordingly. In direct opposition, such features of human agency are absent for some students, which leaves them questioning why they have to participate in EMI. The findings reveal that skepticism surrounding the EMI policies were prevalent among students with little to no choice in EMI.

The interview findings also showed that issues of fairness were a concern, and those students who cannot use English effectively are at a disadvantage, particularly when students have no choice but to adhere to EMI policies. Such instances of educational inequalities mirror other studies on EMI from both Korea and other contexts (e.g., Hu, 2009; Hu & Lei, 2014; Mahn, 2012; Piller & Cho, 2013) and, to repeat Shohamy's (2013) assertion, raise discrimination concerns. These suggestions of inequality are also emphasized when considered against the findings from students who were given a choice whether or not to take EMI courses. The results show that students who chose to take EMI classes were usually positive about the classes and discussed more advantages than disadvantages. Also found was that exposure to EMI classes over time resulted in a positive experience, especially when the students could proceed at their own pace, which echoes other research in this area (Im & Kim, 2015; Knock et al., 2015). However, one of the main reasons for their enthusiasm was that they could receive higher grades when taking a subject through English, which correlates with previous research (Kim et al., 2009), where it was found that higher grades lead to increased student satisfaction.

The argument that those who choose to pursue EMI should receive higher grades or points is not a new one; however, conversations surrounding the topic tend to center on international students in Anglophone universities (see Jenkins, 2014). Moving this argument to a non-Anglophone setting raises more problematic issues surrounding fairness, whereby content may take second place to language. Therefore, students with a better grasp of English might always be at an advantage, which was a concern expressed by a small number of interviewees. It also follows that those students who have high English ability, or perhaps self-perceived high English ability, are always more likely to choose EMI. This was further implied by my findings, which show that EMI classes tended to be easier than the Korean equivalent for those students who chose EMI.

Those students with negative perceptions of EMI also discussed the stress which they felt in EMI classes, which aligns with the controversies reported from Korea (e.g., Piller & Cho, 2013). This differs from the students who chose EMI, who tended to report the benefits of taking an EMI class and showed little stress. Perhaps here the poststructuralist perspective of investment is a useful concept to investigate student perceptions. Allowing for a focus on how the students who lack agency are positioned, both by the institutions and Korean society, as merely acquiring language for future potential (Park, 2016) and without any agency in their own learning influences their perceptions on EMI. However, the group of students who had a choice in the process do provide examples on how EMI can contribute to language acquisition through gaining confidence in using English regularly, particularly in a multilingual group.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although this study has presented some initial findings into the influence of choice on perceptions of EMI, I acknowledge the various limitations that are inherent and reiterate that the findings presented here are exploratory. Such limitations will be discussed in relation to future research, which may further examine and explore this area.

First, the sample of students constitutes a major limitation of the study. Future research should aim to incorporate a larger number of students representing a wider number of faculties. While I noted that students of different faculties tend to have opposing viewpoints of EMI, I have not allowed for the consideration of this having a large influence on the students. This is due to the fact that issues of choice were usually raised by students rather than faculty influence; however, future research needs to acknowledge and incorporate such influences.

While issues of fairness arose in the findings, the scope of this study did not allow for an examination on whether the students who chose EMI were linguistically advantaged. Further to this, other demographics such as gender or socioeconomic privilege were not considered, which could have an effect on how students perceive EMI and the English language. It needs to also be raised that using a concept such as

"agency" in this context is subject to critical examination.

Societal expectations and socioeconomic competition within national employment in Korea need to be taken into account and may suggest that no student is truly an agent regarding English. Future research could therefore broaden the research context to allow for external influences.

It must also be stated that this research was undertaken in a relatively short length of time. A longitudinal study of this nature could build on many initial findings such as the benefits of the EMI class regarding language acquisition and how it changes over time. While I approached this study from a qualitative perspective, as it was appropriate for the larger study at hand, I suggest that studies of a quantitative nature may serve to shed light on aspects of the student experience such as attitudes and/or the change in perceptions over time.

CONCLUSIONS

In spite of these limitations, I believe that the role of choice in perspectives on EMI is worthy of further examination and provides a clear blueprint for improving EMI. This is of particular relevance for Korea, where EMI has received much criticism and been the subject of controversy. A reflection of the benefits presented in this study, including the ability to interact with international peers to raise confidence and allow for an adjustment to EMI over time, could help guide university policies regarding EMI. Issues of fairness must also be addressed and the policy of awarding higher grades to students who choose English should be critically analyzed due to the social inequality that can stem from such policies (e.g., Mahn, 2012). This leads to the conclusion that universities begin to listen and acknowledge student opinion in higher education, particularly when it comes to internationalization policies and language policies and practices. All participants in this study were eager to discuss the issues raised in the present research and were enthusiastic to provide information and opinions. This, they stated, was due in part to the fact that the universities never afford an opportunity to these students to discuss their needs and experiences. It is therefore important that universities provide a platform to enable student voices to be heard and that this dialogue result in EMI programs that benefit the entire campus community.

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FOOTNOTE

[1] The Korean-medium courses were graded using a process of pure curve grading while the EMI courses were graded using absolute grading. As the participants in this study explained it, only 30% of the students in the Korean-medium courses could receive "A" grades. This percentage increased to 50% for the EMI classes.

Comparing Explicit-Inductive and Deductive Teaching Methodologies: A Quantitative Study of Motivation

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There has been some debate as to whether inductive or deductive language teaching methodologies are preferential for students' learning in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. This study compares the results of a motivational survey from classes that were taught deductively ($n = 42$) and classes that were taught explicit-inductively ($n = 37$). A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was performed to compare the groups in three constructs: attitudes toward the course, linguistic self-confidence, and classroom anxiety. Although the results yielded no significant difference between the two groups in each of the three categories of motivation, there were slightly higher observed classroom anxiety levels for students who had, on average, higher grades in their respective classes. These results conceivably reveal that the effects of teaching grammar explicitly do not vary significantly by the timing of introducing a focus on form. In other words, the students' motivation may not decline significantly from a semester of making them think about how to say something while they are trying to say it.

Keywords: deductive, inductive language instruction, explicit language teaching, focus on form, motivation

INTRODUCTION

Motivation in language learning has received a great deal of attention in applied linguistics research. If a language learner has poor attitudes toward the course, a lack of linguistic self-confidence, or high classroom anxiety, perhaps the learner is hindered in their ability to learn. This is why it is relevant to know whether different strategies of

teaching lead to greater motivation. The present study delivers an attempt at discovering whether two explicit strategies of teaching known as explicit-inductive and deductive instruction can lead to differing motivational levels in these areas. The body of this paper provides a brief literature review drawing a comparison between these two teaching methods. Next, the results of the questionnaire administered in South Korea will be explained. There is then a discussion of how the findings validate the need for future research despite there being no significant difference in the three constructs of the survey. Finally, the limitations of the study and pedagogical applications are brought out in an attempt to guide future research in this and related areas.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Does the type of instruction used in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom have an impact on the students' levels of motivation?
2. What differences (if any) can be observed between the motivation of second language (L2) students taught explicitly with inductive instruction and those taught explicitly with deductive instruction?

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are several dichotomies that are frequently examined in well-known applied linguistics journals. One of the lesser examined dichotomies is known as inductive versus deductive instruction. Inductive and deductive instruction are considered by some to be generally explicit constructs of language teaching (Graus & Coppen, 2016). However, Glaser (2013) differentiates between what can be called "explicit-inductive" instruction and the more "implicit-inductive" approach. Explicit-inductive instruction involves embedding rules in meaningful contexts and language use instead of merely presenting those rules in isolation first, which is how deductive instruction is done.

This study used explicit-inductive instruction, which involves introducing a focus on form (FonF) that directly calls attention to the

grammar itself. Graus and Coppen (2016) explain that inductive instruction differs from deductive instruction in that no generalization about grammar is given before they start observing and using it. This leads to learners coming up with their own generalizations about grammar from exemplars. The explicit way of doing this resembles deductive grammar instruction placed in the middle of an inductive exercise. Some may not believe this to be truly inductive instruction. However, this sort of instruction does involve learners making inductive generalizations during the exercise and then *confirming* what they have already discovered in the middle or at the end of a task.

Deductive instruction, on the other hand, involves equipping students with "metapragmatic information" (Glaser, 2013). Bardovi-Harlig (2017) explains that "metapragmatic statements provide learners with information about the form, use, distribution, or other characteristics of the pragmatic construct selected for instruction" (p. 233). In other words, Ellis (2015) defines deductive instruction as "providing learners with an explicit rule which they then practice in one way or another" (p. 315). There is evidence to suggest that deductive instruction could facilitate better learning than inductive instruction. For instance, Erlam (2003) found that deductive instruction yielded a significant advantage over inductive instruction for teaching French.

According to Glaser (2013), even though there have been five instances where deductive instruction was found to be superior to inductive instruction, there have been fourteen instances that suggest inductive instruction was found to be superior. For instance, Takimoto (2008) suggests that there is more of a long-term benefit with inductive instruction. Miri (2016) also provides evidence in support of inductive instruction. It may be the case that inductive instruction is superior in more instances than deductive instruction because inductive instruction can be implicit and can be followed up with explicit instruction, whereas deductive instruction forces learners to consider grammar rules explicitly. The teacher participants in Graus and Coppen's (2016) study had a "remarkable preference" for inductive instruction for teaching pupils in secondary school at the highest level (p. 590). Willis and Willis (2007) point out the difficulty of trying to figure out what one wants to say while also thinking about how they should say it. This is why it is worth examining whether the deductive approach of making learners think about what they are saying and how they are saying it at the same time is demotivating.

The main commonality between explicit-inductive instruction and deductive instruction is that grammar rules and metapragmatic information are involved in the context of the lesson. Thus, grammar is taught explicitly in both approaches. Some have argued that there is no place for grammar instruction in the L2 classroom and that it even hinders L2 development (Truscott, 1996). This argument may often boil down to an individual's style and preferences for learning. It is notable that these individual differences can have an influence on a learner's success in the L2 classroom (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014). However, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) point out that certain features of learners, as well as their general behavior, tend to remain quite stable and predictable. For this reason, we are able to make some generalizations about how L2 learners learn and what we can expect in the L2 classroom. For instance, one study shows that on average, learners did not like to be corrected, and yet they found grammar to be an essential component for learning a second language (Loewen et al., 2009).

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants in the present study consisted of 79 students across four first-year mandatory EFL (College English 2) classes that were one semester long at a national Korean university. Of all the students, 85% were in the 17–20 age range, 14% were age 21–24, and 1% were age 25–27. Fifty-two students (66%) were male and 27 (34%) students were female.

Data Collection

In the present study, a questionnaire was administered to a control group that received deductive instruction ($n = 37$) and an experimental group that received explicit inductive instruction ($n = 42$) throughout the 15-week term. The questionnaire consisted of three sections with a total of 20 questions. The questionnaire was extracted from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), who investigated the effects of various motivational strategies on students' motivation.

Data Analysis

The data was compared by the methodologies each of the respective classes were taught by. The control group was presented with grammar rules in the target language each class. They would then use this information to complete various spoken and written tasks. The experimental group would be introduced to the tasks first and then would be encouraged to generalize grammar rules for themselves. They would be given the same grammar instruction as the deductive group at the end of the related spoken and written tasks. The questionnaire was used to explore three different categories of motivation: attitudes toward the course (9 items; Cronbach alpha = .85), linguistic self-confidence (8 items; Cronbach alpha = .80), and L2-classroom anxiety (3 items; Cronbach alpha = .63). Each item on the questionnaire was given a numerical value between 1 and 5. Each item was randomly placed in the questionnaire based on a random selection in Excel. Excel was used to store the data and calculate the statistical values. The statistical analysis was also done on paper by hand to ensure accuracy and consistency.

RESULTS

For each of the three constructs of the questionnaire, there was no significant difference found between those who were taught with the deductive approach and those taught with the explicit-inductive approach. The overall mean (n = 79) for attitudes toward the course was 3.543 (SD = 0.632). There was no significant difference between the sectional scores for students taught with the deductive method (M = 3.598; SD = 0.567) and students taught with the explicit-inductive method (M = 3.480; SD = 0.662); $t(77)$ = 0.848, p = 0.050 (see Tables 1 and 2). Therefore, the different teaching styles had no significant impact on the students' observed attitudes toward the course.

TABLE 1. Group Statistics for Attitudes Toward the Course (ATC)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Deductive (x)	42	3.598	0.567	0.087
Explicit-inductive (y)	37	3.480	0.662	0.096
General	79	3.543	0.632	0.143

TABLE 2. Independent Samples *t*-test for Attitudes Toward the Course (ATC)

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	*df*	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal Variance Assumed	0.848	77	.050	0.118	0.009	3.404	3.682

The second construct was linguistic self-confidence. The overall mean for linguistic self-confidence was 3.540 (*SD* = 0.607). There was no significant difference between the sectional scores of the students taught with the deductive method (*M* = 3.574; *SD* = 0.592) and the students taught with the explicit-inductive method (*M* = 3.500; *SD* = 0.593); *t*(77) = 0.552, *p* = 0.050 (see Tables 3 and 4). Therefore, the respective teaching styles had no significant impact on the students' observed linguistic self-confidence.

TABLE 3. Group Statistics for Linguistic Self-Confidence (LSC)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Deductive (*x*)	42	3.574	0.592	0.091
Explicit-inductive (*y*)	37	3.500	0.593	0.086
General	79	3.540	0.607	0.137

TABLE 4. Independent Samples *t*-test for Linguistic Self-Confidence (LSC)

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	*df*	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal Variance Assumed	0.552	77	.050	0.074	0.005	3.407	3.673

The final construct was L2 classroom anxiety. With this construct, a higher number indicates a higher level of anxiety, and consequently, less motivation. In the other two constructs, a higher number indicates

higher levels of motivation. The overall mean for L2 classroom anxiety was 2.717 (SD = 0.936). Once again there was no significant difference between the sectional scores of students taught with the deductive approach (M = 2.817; SD = 0.917) and the students taught with the explicit-inductive approach (M = 2.604; SD = 0.909); $t(77)$ = 1.034, p = 0.050 (see Tables 5 and 6). Therefore, the respective teaching styles had no significant impact on the students' observed classroom anxiety levels.

TABLE 5. Group Statistics for L2 Classroom Anxiety (CA)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Deductive (x)	42	2.817	0.917	0.142
Explicit-inductive (y)	37	2.604	0.909	0.133
General	79	2.717	0.936	0.211

TABLE 6. Independent Samples *t*-Test for L2 Classroom Anxiety (CA)

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal Variance Assumed	0.552	77	.050	0.213	0.009	2.511	2.923

DISCUSSION

The lack of a significant difference between each of the three questionnaire constructs seems to suggest that explicit grammar instruction influences motivation levels similarly, regardless of when the instruction takes place in the lesson. Interestingly, the deductive classes showed higher average scores for attitudes toward the course and linguistic self-confidence, and yet they scored higher for classroom anxiety as well. Perhaps, if the difference was greater between the two groups for the CA construct, then we might reasonably conclude that encouraging learners to discover grammar rules for themselves before delivering form-focused instruction at the end of a lesson leads to less overall classroom anxiety than asking students to consider a grammar

rule at the outset.

Even so, it is apparent from the present study that we cannot expect the motivation levels to vary significantly in any of these three constructs based on the way in which form-focused instruction is delivered. It may be the case that some of the slight differences (or lack of greater differences) may be on account of the average grade for the deductive classes (3.716 = B+) being higher than the average grade for the explicit-inductive classes (3.064 = B). The students in the second group may have implicitly felt less motivated than the first because of the grades they received on the midterm and other assignments throughout the course. This is why it is intriguing that the explicit-inductive classes actually had a lower reported level of CA than the deductive classes who did better in the class.

LIMITATIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This pilot study was done for the exploratory purpose of seeing if there was a significant difference between the motivation levels of students taught with explicit-inductive and those taught with deductive instruction. Because of the small sample size and the requirements of the university to teach to a certain textbook, there were many limitations to what could be done. Nassaji (2017) points out that focus-on-form instruction occurs more naturally in one-on-one negotiations. Despite this finding, there were many students and not much time for one-on-one negotiation of meaning. Thus, most of the focus-on-form instruction occurred as a group in small segments. Corrective feedback was given, but this was mostly verbal corrective feedback in response to written work. The amount of studies that have examined this kind of corrective feedback are relatively scarce (Nassaji, 2017).

Because this is a short paper, the discussion of motivation itself and the merits of the questionnaire used to measure motivation is left out, and the reader should instead refer to Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) and related works for such a discussion. Furthermore, it is relevant to consider the beliefs about motivation that the students hold (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012) because of a mismatch between the beliefs of the learners and their teachers (Shulz, 1996, 2001). The specific beliefs and preferences of learners were not accounted for in this pilot study. This

account may have been useful, for instance, in the issue of whether equipping students with metapragmatic information before they attempt a task helps or hinders their motivation.

The results from this study are preliminary because the study is only a cross-sectional representation of motivation levels near the end of the semester. To examine this issue more thoroughly, a mixed-methods approach should be used to gauge how motivated students feel at the time of attempting various tasks in contrast to their general levels of motivation near the end of the course. Furthermore, there needs to be an inclusion of data that represent the use of the widely regarded implicit-inductive approach.

The importance of motivation is contestable in the literature, particularly with the depth of processing hypothesis, which suggests that the depth or thoughtfulness of the mental processing at the time of learning is more important than remembering and motivation (Nation & Newton, 2010). Because this study isolated explicit forms of teaching grammar, it is worth noting that the best approach to L2 teaching could arguably involve combining explicit and implicit teaching. This comes from reasons briefly outlined in Tatzl (2015): "An explicit strategy relies on conscious learning, consciousness-raising, and problem-solving, whereas an implicit strategy trusts in subconscious acquisition, automatization, and incidental learning" (p. 17). However, it should be examined whether implicit forms of teaching grammar can lead to greater observed motivation than these explicit approaches.

CONCLUSIONS

From the present study, we cannot reasonably conclude that there is a significant difference between deductive and explicit-inductive styles of teaching grammar. The slight differences observed may suggest that having to think about what one is trying to say in an L2 while also thinking about how to say it may lead to slightly higher levels of classroom anxiety. However, this is only a preliminary finding and needs further quantitative backing and qualitative support to validate that it is indeed the case. Future research should find a way to include the qualitative beliefs of the students in the study. It should also include a third teaching style known as the implicit-inductive approach, where no

explicit explanation about grammar is given to the students. This would lead to a discussion about whether grammar teaching itself helps or hinders the motivation of L2 learners.

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L2 Listening Homework: Intensive vs. Extensive

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This study compared the L2 listening proficiency gains of groups that were assigned extensive and intensive listening homework, respectively. The L2 listening proficiency of the groups was measured over the course of a single semester (six months) through a pre-test and post-test listening comprehension exam, and gains in three exam variables (all items, textbook items, and non-textbook items) were compared. This study involved 80 first-year Japanese university students, with the extensive listening (EL) group ($n = 60$) assigned 30 relatively easy listening texts (and encouraged to listen to more) with minimal accompanying homework, and the intensive listening (IL) group ($n = 17$) assigned six relatively difficult listening texts with more rigorous accompanying homework. Results indicated that the IL group's improvement on two exam variables (all items and non-textbook items) was significantly greater than that of the EL group; ($t(78) = -3.02$, $p = .00$) and ($t(78) = -2.39$, $p = .02$), respectively. There was no significant difference observed in the textbook items variable. The authors concluded that the intensive listening approach used in this study was preferable to that of the extensive listening approach used in this study.

Keywords: L2, listening, extensive, intensive, pedagogy, *t*-tests, homework

INTRODUCTION

Unfortunately, in most L2 listening classes around the world, the skill of listening is not taught but rather assessed (Brown, 2011). Instead

of equipping students with the skills necessary to decode a listening text, most teachers will play a listening text and have students complete listening comprehension questions to determine if students understood what they heard (Siegel, 2014; Vandergrift, 2007). While it is discouraging that this is the predominant method of teaching listening in L2 classrooms, there have been studies recently indicating an increasing interest in how to teach listening. Among the methodologies that have emerged, two that will be contrasted in this article are a top-down, extensive-listening approach (Renandya & Jacobs, 2016) and a bottom-up, intensive listening approach (Siegel & Siegel, 2015). This study aims to determine the most advantageous methodology for students in a first-year university L2 listening course.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Defining Extensive and Intensive Listening

When comparing extensive listening (hereafter, EL) and intensive listening (hereafter, IL), it is necessary to first define each concept, with clear distinctions between the two. Unfortunately, there are conflicting views in the research on how to define these concepts, with some studies establishing boundaries between the two concepts that would seem to enhance one while disadvantaging the other, in particular, expansive conceptions of EL and constrained conceptions of IL (which are discussed in the following paragraphs). Further, there is an occasionally noticeable disparity amongst studies on how to describe the concepts and the benefits that they provide, so rather than relying on any one study to establish a definition of these concepts, it is preferable to identify the core, overlapping ways in which these concepts have been defined within the field at large and use that shared ground to define the concepts that will guide this study.

Renandya and Jacobs (2016), among others, have suggested that EL is similar to extensive reading and have defined it thusly: "EL involves students listening to large amounts of motivating and engaging materials which are linguistically appropriate over a period of time where they listen with a reasonable speed for general understanding with a focus on meaning rather than form" (p. 5). This definition includes several

qualifications, not all of which should be considered exclusive to EL, most notably, the use of the phrase "motivating and engaging materials." Using materials that motivate and engage students is something that should underpin as much L2 instruction as possible, and enhancing motivation is universally regarded as a central tenet to language teaching (Dörnyei, 2011). The dichotomous nature of EL and IL suggests that if EL is to be motivating and engaging, then IL is in contrast "unmotivating and disengaging," yet there is no reason why intensive listening materials cannot also be motivating and engaging. If the phrase "motivating and engaging" solely refers to the difficulty level of the listening texts used in EL classes, this would seem to be redundant with the latter portion of the definition that stresses the need for general understanding, which is why the inference seems to be that the thematic focus of EL materials should be more motivating and engaging than that of IL. If this is the case, this is an instance in which the definition of EL is expansive to the point where it has constrained IL, especially if one considers the large number of authentic and motivating materials online that can be used in IL activities.

While this portion of the definition is potentially problematic, the latter portion of the definition can be useful in creating a distinction between EL and IL in that, with EL, the vocabulary, rate of speech, and other linguistic features should be close to the listener's ability level, and the primary goal of EL activities is for general understanding. This is generally viewed as a top-down approach, where listeners break down the meaning of a whole text into comprehensible parts, relying on prediction, inference, and contextual understanding in order to correctly interpret the meaning of a text (Siegel & Siegel, 2015). Conversely, IL is geared towards developing bottom-up processing skills by having listeners focus intensely on the form of the language, such as decoding segmentals (small units of sounds that include phonemes, syllables, and words) and supra-segmentals (slightly beyond the segmental threshold, such as syntactic parsing, sentence stress, and intonation). A simple way to conceptualize the top-down notion of EL suggested in Rendanya and Jacobs' definition, and the bottom-up notion of IL, is that top-down approaches are "conceptually-driven" (Howard, 1983, p. 292) while bottom-up approaches are "stimulus-driven" (Howard, 1983, p. 291).

In their article, Renandya and Jacobs (2016) outline several benefits to EL, such as enhancing the learner's ability to deal with speech rate, improving students' oral word recognition skills, enhancing students'

bottom-up listening skills, increasing familiarity with common language features of the spoken form of language, providing many opportunities to experience a higher and deeper level of language comprehension, and attaining higher overall proficiency in the L2. However, some of these stated EL benefits could be construed as another example of an expansive conceptualization of EL, especially if EL is being contrasted with IL. All of these benefits should theoretically be available to practitioners of IL as well and, in some cases, are more oriented towards IL than EL; for example, enhancing student's bottom up listening skills is in conflict with EL's prioritization of meaning over form but perfectly consistent with the segmental parsing goals of IL.

Another area of potential confusion in defining EL and IL is the frequent use of the terms *meaningful* and *meaning*. Renandya and Jacobs (2016) stressed that EL must be meaningful for learners, a sentiment echoed by others (Mayora, 2017; Northall, 2017). However, other studies have suggested that IL input must also be meaningful and comprehensible (Chun, 2010; Schmidt, 2016). If both EL and IL can be meaningful, then this is an ineffective way to differentiate these terms. Instead of *meaningful*, the term *meaning* seems to be universally agreed upon as a central principle of EL in that learners must prioritize meaning over form, while prioritizing form is a central principle of IL (Chun, 2010; Mayora, 2017; Northall, 2017; Renandya & Jacobs, 2016; Schmidt, 2016).

Other research suggests that the differences between EL and IL are evident in the following ways: EL involves listening to large amounts of text, limiting the number of tasks associated with the listening texts, and using listening texts that are at or below the learner's proficiency level to facilitate comprehension (Mayora, 2017; Northall, 2017; Schmidt, 2016). In addition to these principles, Mayora adds that EL requires learners to move at their own pace with listening texts of their own choosing, that learners focus on meaning not form, and that learners be held accountable with comprehension tasks to be completed after the listening is completed (Mayora, 2017). Conversely, IL involves listening for specific information, listening for specific items within texts, mimicking a text (such as dictation), and using listening texts that are above the learner's proficiency level (Northall, 2017; Schmidt, 2016). These definitions appear to be more exclusive to either EL or IL, and as a result, can serve as a guideline for how to view these concepts.

In sum, the commonly agreed upon characteristics of EL include

learners listening at or below their level, learners listening more frequently, learners having a degree of autonomy over what they listen to, and assigning fewer accompanying tasks with the listening text (Ducker & Saunders, 2014). Conversely, the commonly agreed-upon characteristics of IL include prioritizing form over meaning, learners listening above their level, learners listening less frequently, learners having less autonomy over what they listen to, and assigning more accompanying tasks with the listening text.

It should be noted that of the limited research that has been conducted on effective teaching methodologies for L2 listening, there does not seem to be a clear consensus on which is the most effective L2 listening methodology. As is noted by Li and Renandya (2012), research focused on lower-level learners has yielded contradictory evidence, with some studies claiming lower-level learners excel through top-down, strategy-focused listening approaches, while others advocate a bottom-up approach. It should also be noted that in Li and Renandya's examination of the research on top-down and bottom-up teaching methodologies for L2 listening, their conception of top-down teaching methodologies is predominantly focused on strategy instruction, which they have contrasted with EL, suggesting that they view EL as being in opposition to top-down approaches. However, because EL is primarily concerned with comprehension rather than parsing linguistic components of language, this study regards EL as a top-down methodology to L2 listening instruction. Interestingly, in the Li and Renandya (2012) study, results were partially based on the interview data of just ten Chinese EFL instructors who "enjoyed reputation for offering effective listening lessons" (p. 86), which limits the generalizability of their findings. Just as the Li and Renandya study indicated that existing research was mixed on the most effective way to teach L2 listening, with most studies endorsing either a top-down or bottom-up approach, the ten instructors in their study also provided mixed responses, advocating approaches that facilitate general understanding (e.g., providing background information on the topic to help with understanding, slowing the listening text to match the ability level of the learners, and pre-teaching vocabulary) as well as approaches that facilitate better processing of segmentals and suprasegmentals (e.g., dictation, pronunciation practice, and studying the intonation patterns of English). This suggests that a hybrid of top-down and bottom-up approaches may be the most advantageous approach to L2 listening instruction, a sentiment that is echoed in other studies

(Nguyen & Abbott, 2016; Schmidt, 2016). Nevertheless, in the existing research, besides those studies advocating a mixed approach, there are several studies that advocate for either an EL or IL approach.

Studies Favoring EL

In a study by Mayora (2017), it was reported that 20 Colombian university students had relatively high degrees of comfort and understanding when reading their EL texts. While it was suggested by Mayora that a greater degree of locus of control on the part of the learners could have resulted in improved understanding, it was also pointed out that the improvement in understanding may have been the result of learners choosing more comprehensible texts. It was also reported that learners generally had a favorable view of EL (Mayora, 2017); however, in the case of both student comprehension and affect, there was nothing in this study to compare to. The research design of the study did not incorporate a control group with which the EL group could be compared, nor did it have a longitudinal design that could provide insight as to the change in comprehension and affect with pre-treatment levels. In a similar Japan-based study (Ducker & Saunders, 2014), it was reported that amongst 423 university students, a positive correlation existed between affect towards EL and comprehension; however, the study notes that the directionality of this relationship is unclear.

In a study involving 115 Taiwanese university students (Chang & Millett, 2016), it was determined that students who did more extensive listening significantly outperformed groups who listened less or not at all. Specifically, the group of 26 students who completed 11−15 extensive listening assignments over the course of a semester significantly outperformed students who did 6−10 EL assignments, 1−5 EL assignments, and no EL assignments, on three measures of listening proficiency: two listening comprehension tests developed by the researchers and a TOEIC practice test. The researchers concluded that the high amounts of EL practice directly led to increased L2 listening proficiency for the first group.

Studies Favoring IL

Despite the importance of bottom-up listening skills when attempting to gain L2 fluency (Nguyen & Abbott, 2016), the TEFL field has tended towards top-down approaches, evident most through the prevalence of comprehension-based activities in listening classrooms (Siegel & Siegel, 2015) and the ubiquity of top-down approaches over bottom-up approaches in listening textbooks (Nguyen & Abbott, 2016). Yet, there is a growing body of research that identifies the importance of bottom-up approaches such as dictation, where speech is parsed into words (Siegel & Siegel, 2015).

In a study by Chun (2010), it was reported that significant gains in TOEFL and dictation scores were observed for 50 undergraduate students who practiced IL twice a week over the course of a 12-week semester. Further, Chun included a survey and interview component to the article, which indicated that the students' attitude towards dictation and overall L2 language proficiency improved over the semester. In a similar study by Siegel and Siegel (2015), the scores of a control group (26 students) and a treatment group (18 students) on a dictation test and a standardized listening proficiency test were compared after a semester of bottom-up intervention for the treatment group, which included six different bottom-up listening activities (of which dictation was one). Results indicated that the treatment group showed significant improvement in both the dictation test and listening proficiency test, while the control group exhibited no change. Further, this study included a survey component in which participants were asked about their perceptions of bottom-up learning. Siegel and Siegel (2015) concluded that most participants had favorable views towards bottom-up listening activities, and that teachers should attempt to include bottom-up approaches when teaching listening, even in classes where the emphasis is on meaning-based comprehension and global understanding. In a study set in Iran (Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002) involving beginner-level students at a language school in Tehran (ages 20−35), two groups of 30 were compared: one a control group that was only required to complete listening activities from the textbook and a treatment group that was required to complete listening activities from the textbook as well as 11 dictation activities over the course of a school term. Results indicated that the treatment group's gain in listening proficiency, as measured by the NCTE Elementary Listening Test, was significantly greater than the

control group's gain in listening proficiency.

HYPOTHESIS

L2 listening homework with an intensive, bottom-up focus will result in greater L2 listening proficiency gains over the course of a semester than L2 listening homework with an extensive, top-down focus, as measured by a one-hour listening comprehension exam.

METHOD

Participants

Participants consisted of 80 first-year university students from a major private university in central Tokyo. All students were enrolled in a four-year intercultural communication program and were taking at least nine hours of compulsory English education per week, covering six 90-minute periods (two speaking classes, two listening classes, and two reading/writing classes). Some students also took elective English classes, most notably TOEFL preparation, which would have added an additional three hours of English instruction to their weekly total (two additional classes). All students were in advanced-level English classes, which meant a TOEFL score within the range of 55–75. The students in the study were drawn from four different listening classes taught by two different English teachers. The four classes consisted of 23 (18 female, 5 male), 22 (17 female, 5 male), 18 (13 female, 5 male), and 17 students (12 female, 5 male), respectively. The three former classes were taught by a teacher utilizing an EL teaching methodology and labelled the "EL group," while the one latter class was taught by a teacher utilizing an IL teaching methodology and labelled the "IL group." In class, both groups used the same textbook, *Mosaic 2: Listening and Speaking* by Jami Hanreddy and Elizabeth Whalley, and completed the same tasks. Outside of class, each group completed different homework assignments, oriented towards either an EL or IL approach.

Instrument

There were two listening exams (a pre-test and a post-test) used in this study, with both exams following the same format. Each exam was based on seven listening passages, each five minutes in duration (totaling 35 minutes of listening). For each listening passage, there were six comprehension questions, three of which were oriented towards general comprehension, and three of which were oriented towards specific comprehension (such as small details within the listening passage). Of the seven listening passages, two were taken from the textbook (the teacher's version) and five were taken from the website TED.com. In sum, each exam had two textbook-based listening passages, five non-textbook-based listening passages, and 42 questions. The tests took an hour for students to complete.

Procedure

Students were given the pre-test listening exam at the completion of the spring semester (the final week of July).

During the autumn semester, the EL group was requested to listen to at least one EL text for homework after each listening class and were encouraged to listen to more if they wished. With the class meeting twice per week over the 15-week semester, this meant a minimum of 30 distinct EL tasks, with possibly more if students were motivated to listen to additional EL texts. Students were instructed to visit the website Randall's ESL Cyber Listening Lab and to choose one or more listening texts to listen to. On the website, listening texts are categorized as "easy," "medium," and "difficult," and typically last up to a maximum of five minutes in length. Each listening text is accompanied with a five-question comprehension quiz, which students were requested to complete after listening to their chosen EL text. It was hoped that the ease of the available EL texts would spur students' confidence in their listening abilities, that the large library of EL texts to choose from would satisfy students' need for autonomy, and that the students' increased confidence and autonomy would ultimately encourage students to develop a listening habit.

The IL group was assigned one IL text every two weeks, for six total IL texts over the 15-week semester. Each IL text required students

to watch a 42-minute television program, in which they would need to transcribe one A4 page of continuous dialogue from the program. Additionally, students were asked to identify five new words and three new phrases that they had encountered in the dialogue of the program. The television program chosen for students was the American travel reality show *The Amazing Race*. Because the students were enrolled in an intercultural communication program, it was believed that the travel nature of the show would be appealing to most of the students. It was also believed that the students' interest would be sustained because of the narrative structure of each season, in which the personal relationships, successes, and failures of contestants were dramaticized. Because of the tedium that can arise in dictation activities, preserving students' enjoyment of the activity was of great importance, and the travel theme and narrative structure of *The Amazing Race* was thought to be much better in this regard than typical textbook listening texts, or even listening texts from popular websites such as BBC.com or TED.com. Each student was assigned a different season of the program to watch and was expected to complete half of their 12-episode season during the autumn semester.

Students were given the post-test listening exam at the completion of the autumn semester (the middle of January).

Analysis

Upon completing each exam, students' scores were entered into a text file and converted into Rasch person ability scores using the software Winsteps. Rasch person ability scores provide greater accuracy in assessment than raw scores (Weaver, Jones, & Bulach, 2008). Rasch person ability scores were then transferred into SPSS 22, and independent-sample *t*-tests were conducted on the change in overall test scores (from the pre-test to the post-test) exhibited by the EL and IL groups. Independent-sample *t*-tests were also conducted on the change in textbook-based test items (related to the two textbook-derived listening passages) and non-textbook-based test items (related to the five non-textbook-derived listening passages). These three variables were termed "all items," "textbook items," and "non-textbook items," respectively.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for the three pre-test variables (all items, textbook items, and non-textbook items) and three post-test variables (all items, textbook items, and non-textbook items) are shown in Table 1. Of note, with regard to overall test scores (all items), both groups improved from the pre-test to the post-test; however, the IL group's improvement was larger. With regard to the textbook variables, both groups improved from the pre-test to the post-test, but again the IL group's improvement was larger. Finally, with regard to the non-textbook items, only the IL group improved.

TABLE 1. Descriptive Statistics of Rasch Person Ability Measures for EL and IL Groups

		Extensive Listening Group	Intensive Listening Group
Pre-test all items	M	.05	–.28
	SD	.54	.55
Pre-test textbook items	M	.71	.42
	SD	.93	.91
Pre-test non-textbook items	M	–.11	–.37
	SD	.55	.58
Post-test all items	M	.22	.40
	SD	.59	.40
Post-test textbook items	M	.80	.70
	SD	.71	1.03
Post-test non-textbook items	M	–.12	.08
	SD	.70	.48

Note. Extensive listening group $n = 63$; Intensive listening group $n = 17$.

In Table 2, the results of the independent samples *t*-tests are shown, comparing the change for each group in three variables: all items, textbook items, and non-textbook items. For all three variables, the groups passed the Levene's Test of Equal Variance, suggesting that variance between the groups was equal. Of the three variables being examined, the IL group's improvement between the pre-test and post-test

was significantly larger than the EL group's improvement in two instances: for overall test score (all items) and for non-textbook items. For textbook items, there was no significant difference between the two groups' improvement.

TABLE **2. Independent Samples *t*-Tests of Differences Between EL and IL Groups**

		Levene's Test		*t*-Test for Equality of Means					95% CI	
		F	sig.	*t*	*df.*	sig.	Mean Difference	SED	Lower	Upper
Test Change	Equal variance assumed	1.70	.20	–3.02	78	.00	–.52	.17	–.86	–.18
	Equal variance not assumed			–3.45	31.24	.00	–.52	.15	–.82	–.21
Textbook Change	Equal variance assumed	.25	.62	–.61	78	.54	–.19	.30	–.79	.42
	Equal variance not assumed			–.59	23.88	.56	–.19	.32	–.85	.47
Non-textbook Change	Equal variance assumed	2.59	.11	–2.39	78	.02	–.46	.19	–.84	–.08
	Equal variance not assumed			–2.14	22.15	.04	–.46	.21	–.90	–.01

Note. SED = standard error difference; CI = confidence interval; *t*-test significance is 2-tailed.

DISCUSSION

The results of this study would seem to suggest that an IL, bottom-up approach when teaching L2 listening is advantageous when compared with an EL, top-down approach. While the insignificant result in the textbook variable does not support this study's hypothesis, the significant results for the other two variables do support the hypothesis. The insignificant result for the textbook variable may stem from the EL group being able to prepare themselves for any shortcoming in listening ability by rigorously compensating through studying vocabulary or themes that were present in the textbook. If students in the EL group could sufficiently prepare themselves for the exam, they may have negated the possible advantage in listening ability accrued by the IL group over the semester. This suggestion would seem to be borne out

by the scores of both groups on the textbook variables, which were higher than their scores on the non-textbook variables. Both groups may have been better prepared for these items by studying the textbook, hence the higher scores on this portion of the test than on the non-textbook items that were more unfamiliar to the students. The textbook items may have also been easier for students since they were essentially tethered to the difficulty of the textbook.

Looking at the result of the non-textbook variable, the IL group had a significantly larger improvement than the EL group, suggesting that without the aid of textbook preparation through vocabulary and thematic familiarity, the EL group was at a significant disadvantage. During their dictation homework, even though the IL group used fewer listening texts, within each IL text, students were exposed to a variety of accents, speaking speeds, and formats (such as narration, dialogues, and group discussions). The IL group's experience with diverse listening texts probably helped them when they heard five different TED speakers on the listening exam, speaking with differing accents, speeds, and on a variety of topics. Conversely, even though the EL group had many more listening texts over the course of the semester, they were much less diverse in terms of accent, speed, and listening format. Ironically, the goal of extensive reading, and by extension, extensive listening, is to expose students to a large and diverse collection of listening texts; however, the website used in the EL class lacked diversity, possibly handicapping students in their preparation for the final exam.

A better approach may have been to use the university's graded readers, provided that they were accompanied with an audio CD. Unfortunately, almost none of the university's graded readers came with an accompanying CD because the university decided on stocking the library with the cheaper no-CD versions of the graded readers. Also, ironically, the IL texts were much more motivating than the EL texts, something that tends to be the opposite in most conceptions of IL and EL. It has been demonstrated that students respond favorably to authentic materials (Wu, Tsai, Wang, Huang, & Shan, 2011), and that video can aid in comprehension (Vandergrift, 2007). Both factors may have contributed to the IL group's significant improvement, while the EL group was constrained by the EL principle that listening texts must be at or below students' comprehension level, thereby limiting the choices of listening texts to those that were likely deemed inauthentic by students. Ideally, EL and IL classes should both use authentic and

motivating materials, but this may be a more significant obstacle when procuring EL texts because of the requirement that they be less challenging.

Further to this point, EL is supposed to give students control over what and how much they listen to and motivate them to listen more; however, that did not occur in this study, with EL students listening to the bare minimum suggested by their teacher. For EL teachers, procuring a library of suitable EL materials can be extremely difficult (Ducker & Saunders, 2014). Unfortunately teachers must choose from one of two options, both of which are problematic. Teachers can rely on the university's collection of EL materials, which are usually the audio CD that accompanies graded readers. However, these graded readers tend to be more expensive than typical graded readers and many universities do not possess them because of the higher cost. Alternatively, teachers can locate materials by themselves, but this can be difficult because much of what is available for free online is intended for native speakers, and authentic materials are often too fast for students to understand, which can negatively affect confidence and motivation. In this study, it was actually easier to find IL materials and assign listening texts to the students because a listening text "being too difficult" was not a concern for the IL group. While the EL group did not seem compelled to listen more, the IL group did seem interested in the narrative direction of their IL texts. Despite the difficulty and tedium of trying to complete dictation assignments, the IL texts were able to sustain student motivation throughout the semester.

Over the last twenty years, and especially in the last five, the availability of authentic listening materials has become widespread. Through video websites such as YouTube, streaming sites like Netflix, and consumer websites like Amazon, it has never been easier for TEFL teachers to procure authentic materials that might appeal to their specific students. Whereas in the past, intensive listening was associated with dense and decontextualized textbook activities, today authentic materials can serve as a superior substitute. No longer are teachers bound to a textbook's CD when implementing IL tasks, but instead, they can quickly and easily locate movies, lectures, audio books, television programs, speeches, and virtually any other sort of aural material that aligns with the interests of their students.

Traditionally, the difference between extensive-oriented methodologies (in the case of extensive reading and, to a lesser extent, listening) and

intensive-oriented methodologies (in the case of intensive reading and, to a lesser extent, intensive listening) has been one of ideological contrasts. ER and EL are often viewed as liberating in that students are not bound to a textbook but are directed to supplementary materials outside of traditional classroom materials, empowering in that students are given full autonomy in their choice of materials (provided they have been approved by the teacher beforehand) and motivating in that students can engage with what interests them amongst the texts that the teacher has made available. IR and IL, on the other hand, are often viewed unfavorably in all regards: constraining in that students must adhere to the textbook, dictatorial in that the teacher decides what the students must listen to, and demotivating since the textbook rarely aligns with the interests of students. However, with the easy availability of digital media, these IL preconceptions must be reconfigured. With the wide array of listening material that is now available online, an astute teacher can select IL texts that liberate students from the textbook and align with their motivations. The difference between EL and IL should now solely be considered a methodological contrast, where issues of meaning versus form, task frequency, difficulty, and intensity are the prime concerns, and any notion of meaningfulness can be applied equally to both concepts. As the results of this study indicate, an IL methodological focus can yield significant benefits in an L2 listening course.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There were several limitations with this study that must be considered when evaluating the results, chief among them was the ultimately ineffective nature of the EL texts. The website used to procure EL texts neither motivated nor engaged students, which should be a primary goal of EL. If students were able to choose from a large and diverse library of EL texts, the results of this study may have been different. Unfortunately, however, few universities in Japan have made a significant investment in amassing a large and diverse collection of EL texts. Any researcher wishing to further explore this topic would be well-served to incorporate EL resources into the research design that align with students' interests and mimic the appeal of graded readers in an ER class.

Also, this study only examined learners with a relatively high degree of proficiency. In the case of beginner, or even intermediate, learners, the results may have differed. Whereas advanced learners may have been disinterested with the simplified EL texts and motivated to engage with an authentic TV program, the opposite may have been true with less proficient learners. In the case of less proficient learners, their motivation might not have carried them past the initial difficulties they might have faced when doing bi-weekly transcriptions of an IL text, whereas the ease of an EL text might have enhanced self-efficacy and motivation for the first time in their L2 learning experiences. When looking at ER research, it has been demonstrated that in some instances, less proficient learners may enjoy greater benefits from ER than advanced learners (Karlin & Romanko, 2010). If a similar phenomenon exists in EL, it would not have been captured by this study.

Additionally, this study was situated in Japan, and as a result, is subject to the unique peculiarities of the Japanese educational context. Countries with similar educational contexts, particularly those in East Asia, may find this research to be more generalizable than those with significantly different educational contexts. Among the factors that need to be considered when generalizing these results to another educational setting are the dominant teaching methodologies present in each setting, language histories, orthography, cultural proximity to English, and the organizational structure of educational institutions. Nakamura (2005) notes that the countries most similar to Japan in an educational context are East Asian countries, and South Korea in particular. With a European country, where the language may be related to English, the dominant teaching methodologies may be less intensive and expectations of students more relaxed, students may have been more motivated by EL texts, and the results of this study may have been different.

Finally, this study's timeline was only six months, with no follow-up testing to determine if the improvement stemming from IL was sustainable. While some of the research cited in this study's literature review (Chang & Millett, 2016; Chun, 2010; Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002; Siegal & Siegal, 2015) investigated EL or IL over a similar length of time as this study (roughly one semester), there would be benefits to examining EL and IL performance over a longer timeline. When looking at ER research, Jeon and Day (2016) conducted a meta-analysis of existing ER research to determine if gains were more pronounced over time. While the researchers expected this to be the case, they were

surprised to discover that, at least in their meta-analysis of existing ER research, there was no difference in the effectiveness of ER based on the length of treatment (Jeon & Day, 2016). The researchers indicated that this unexpected result may have stemmed from the small sample size of longer studies (only four). As research involving ER accumulates, it is worth noting the length of the treatments in ER studies for hints to see whether a similar phenomenon is mirrored in EL and IL. Future research involving EL and IL may wish to establish a longer longitudinal design, such as a year or several years, and to incorporate follow-up testing to assess the stability of the improvement in L2 listening proficiency after the treatment has ended.

CONCLUSION

While many listening classes around the world still emphasize the assessment of listening over the teaching of listening, or as Nguyen and Abbott (2016) have suggested, prioritizing product over process, hopefully we are in the beginning stages of a paradigm shift. The growing number of studies examining extensive listening and intensive listening, as well as other teaching methodologies for listening, suggests that an evolution within the L2 teaching field is underway. Hopefully, this study can spur further discussion on how teachers should be teaching listening and enhance the learning process for listening students.

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NSs or NNSs for ELT in Myanmar? A Way to Inform Korean ELT

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This small-scale study explores 26 Burmese (Myanmarese) learners' experiences and perceptions of learning English from native and non-native English-speaking teachers. The purpose of this paper is to identify what type of teacher is preferred by Myanmarese students. The results show that two-thirds of the participants are pleased to learn the language with any kind of teacher, and some prefer non-native-speaker (NNS) teachers who share the same L1 to be able to discuss and ask questions if there is something that is unclear. According to the participants, their main reason for learning English is because it is used as an international/world language; some believe they need to use English as their second language, and others think that English is useful for communication and business. The findings are then examined to see how the perception of learning English from native speakers (NSs) and NNSs in a Southeast Asian country, Myanmar, may have implications for other Asian countries, and Korea in particular.

Keywords: learning English, ELT setting, NSs and NNSs of English, perceptions

INTRODUCTION

The use and study of English has dramatically increased with globalization and the perceived need to be competitive. For example, there is the perception that when individuals of different language backgrounds meet (e.g., a cashier and a tourist as a shopper) and interact when a purchase is made at a tourist shop, or even at a department store in the United Kingdom or possibly in Korea, there may be a need to use English on the part of both individuals. In other scenarios, when exchanging information at a meeting, or an academic or trade

conference, where there are many different first-language speakers, English is the language of communication. Such cases affirm that "English has an important status in international contexts" for "[it] is the most frequently spoken and taught language all around the world" (Ürkmez, 2015, p. 329). Christen (2008, p. 1) stresses the importance of English in the modern world as it is the main language, which enables individuals to be able to communicate. Al-Nawrasy (2013, p. 252) explains that English is "considered as a universal language that many people, institutions, and countries are competing to learn and use [as a] lingua franca."

In terms of the use of English as a medium of instruction in higher education settings, Wilkinson (2013, p. 3) emphasizes that it "has become commonplace in many institutes of higher education in countries where English is not the native language." According to Kedzierski (2016) many institutions in South East Asia and Asia use English as the medium of instruction to deliver lessons and workshops, and there is an extra effort made by staff and students to use it elsewhere in their institutions for instruction when appropriate. Another reason for this is the development of transnational education (i.e., setting up branches of British universities in foreign countries). For example, the University of Nottingham has two foreign campuses, in China and Malaysia, and these serve to make people more aware of the use of English internationally. Similar global satellite campuses of U.S. and British universities are in Korea and Japan. Moreover, the English language is used not only in higher education settings but also in elementary and secondary education in places like Saudi Arabia, where English is used as a core subject from 5th to 12th grade (Albakrawi, 2014, p. 87). Korea also has English as a core subject from middle school to high school, and it is often taught as an extracurricular subject from early childhood (Chung & Choi, 2016). Korea has also continually responded to globalization in terms of English language teaching. One response is an in-service teacher certification policy, which promotes English as the medium of instruction for teaching English in Korea (Choi, 2014). Tsou (2013) suggests that "English has evolved into the most widely learned and internationally used language because of the increasing numbers of learners as a result of the globalization process." In addition, Jessner (2006) contends that English, in fact, is a foreign language with a unique status, suggesting that it is slowly spreading not only through the educational context but is also exhibiting prominent use in the media and social media (e.g., TV

channels, social media, etc.). As a consequence, there is a social perception that anyone who may have interacted with foreigners or foreign media may need to be able to do so in English as a lingua franca.

The Role of Teachers' Nativeness in ELT

Many private English language schools, university intensive English language programs, and public school English programs have placement tests for learners in order for them to be able to reach the appropriate level of proficiency and to enable them to be able to enroll in specific academic preparation and academic foundation courses (e.g., advanced level, Foundation IELTS, or IELTS practice). These programs receive numerous candidates for such placement tests before students register for courses. Students receive both native-speaker (NS) and non-native-speaker (NNS) teachers. Within English language teaching (ELT), Alseweeda (2012, p. 42) highlights that a "growing number of teachers are not native speakers of English" in an ELT setting, and Liu (2005, p. 156) mentioned that "studying English under these [NNS] instructors in an English as a foreign language (EFL) setting (e.g., Japan, Korea, or China) has become common, despite an assumed existing preference for NSs. Sarikaya (2013, p. 2) also supports this by assuming that "EFL has widely been taught by non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in many countries, including Turkey." Based on anecdotal evidence and author experience, the same situation exists in Myanmar, where the majority of English teachers are NNS who are mainly Burmese speakers, and this holds true today. However, the author, a Burmese speaker native to Myanmar, never had any lessons with NSs while attending English classes in Myanmar.

Despite the above-mentioned fact, there are some students who prefer to learn from NS teachers who have learned English naturally in an inner-circle country (Kachru & Nelson, 2006). Christen (2008), for example, found in her study that 85% of her participants preferred to have NS teachers for language learning, 13% stated that they wanted NNS teachers with the same L1 as their own, and the other 2% asked for NNS teachers who had a different L1 from theirs. Participants in the study by Nelly and Arvizu (2014, p. 10) pointed out that they wanted "an NS teacher in the beginning levels." According to Holliday (2006, p. 1), the "*native speaker* brand is an ideological construction in that the

native–non-native speaker [NS–NNS] distinction is not self-evident on technical linguistic or even nationality grounds." Thus, I became intrigued to study what type of teacher is preferred by Myanmar students and their reasons for choosing that specific group. Their experiences with these two types of teachers are also examined in this study. Finally, the findings are considered for the Asian context, and with respect to Korea in particular, as the hegemony of the NS impacts not only Myanmar within Southeast Asia, but the entire Asian context and beyond.

Teaching English as a Language of Use

Kubota (2012, p. 63) stresses that "English no doubt plays an important role as a lingua franca in various communicative contexts" and can therefore encourage more people to acquire English as an additional language. This second language status gives them an opportunity to use it professionally. For example, this permits many NNS to teach and share their knowledge with others in various educational contexts. When teaching a language, Al-Nawrasy (2013) explains that teachers ought to help learners to be fluent in the four language skills. When applying skills, reading and writing are usable in a day-to-day setting, but effective speaking and listening skills are essential for communication and are the key interaction between speakers of two different first language. As a consequence, Al-Nawrasy (2013, p. 244) states that "students must be able to produce the expected patterns of specific discourse situations" to be able to convey messages that they want to deliver and to engage in successful conversations. However, there is a common concern that learners are worried about bad pronunciation that may inhibit speaking in order to avoid feeling ashamed. For this reason, many researchers (e.g., Ürkmez, 2015) have shown that learners prefer NS teachers for speaking instruction to develop their own speaking skills so that they can mimic NS pronunciation. On the other hand, it can be said that not all NSs can deliver an effective and meaningful communicative lesson if not trained to do so, and therefore may not necessarily be helpful to learners in improving their spoken language skills. In the following sections, the possible advantages and disadvantages of having NS and NNS teachers for teaching and learning all four skills in EFL classrooms will be discussed.

Native and Non-native Teachers for Teaching English

Teaching English happens in every corner of the world, including in the UK where English is used as a first language, and in other parts of the world such as Japan and Korea where English is used as a foreign language in domestic and international communication in a variety of professional and personal contexts. Take, for example, English language education in East Asia: Taiwan boasts that students learn English from the age of 8–9 years old in their schools (Williams, 2017), and it requires many teachers to deliver their lessens in English. Consequently, this opens doors for domestic nationals and foreigners who would like to pursue their careers in language teaching. In terms of hiring an English language teacher, learners and schools can choose either an NS whose first language is English or NNSs who are as proficient as NSs. Despite equal proficiency in the language, Ürkmez (2015) explains that the teaching of English is formally organized by two types of teachers: NSs and NNSs. In terms of definitions, Al-Nawrasy (2013, p. 248) explains that NS teachers are those "whose first language is English, which they learned in their earliest childhood and have spoken it since then" and "those whose L1 is not English are called non-native English-speaking teachers" (Sarikaya, 2013, p. 1). This distinction is a significant one with respect to employment and students' perceptions of a teacher's particular competence in the language.

With regards to employment, Christen (2008, p. 2) mentions that "in many language teaching jobs it is a precondition to be a native speaker of the language to be considered a good teacher." Mariño (2012, p. 134) highlights the value of NS status in the teaching market as "in many Latin American countries, native speakers are given a higher position in the English teaching field [compared to Latin American nationals]." The same is true in Korea, where not only NSs, but white NSs, are given hiring preference and higher salaries for similar positions that Korean NNSs hold (Jeon & Lee, 2006). Considering these statements, it is clear that NS teachers are in greater demand for teaching English. However, this blanket image preference for NS teachers is not necessarily so across all educational contexts and English classes, as in Korea and many other Asian countries, there is a preference for a NS for teaching speaking and culture and a local NNS for teaching grammar and test preparation courses (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). However, Sutherland (2012, p. 61) highlights that one of the common problems NNSs have when

applying for a teaching post is that their "race or ethnicity can also play a role in the discrimination he or she faces" even when the perception of "nativeness" in a NS of English plays a significant role (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005).

Nelly and Arvizu (2014, p. 10), on the other hand, notes that "teacher qualifications, rather than teacher's native status, should be the most important aspect to consider when performing the task of teaching a second or foreign language." This is because teaching students to be able to use the language being learned is a key aspect of language teaching and an experienced teacher is able to predict what kinds of problems/issues might arise or what the likely outcomes of a specific lesson are. An inexperienced teacher, however, may struggle with classroom management and students are unlikely to be as happy as those who have been with skillful, experienced teachers. There are always, of course, pros and cons for both types of teachers (Nelly & Arvizu, 2014). For example, Cook (2005, p. 53) notes that NNSs who use English as their L2 "have different language abilities and knowledge, and different ways of thinking from monolingual native speakers," and it is believed that sharing these skills with their learners can help them to become quick and effective learners. The following sections will discuss the advantages and disadvantages of these two categories of teachers.

Why Are Native Speakers Favored?

Cook (2005, p. 49) states that "a native speaker is a person speaking the language they learnt first in childhood." Thus, anyone who was born in an English-speaking community and who has used English throughout their lives can be assumed to be a native speaker of English for they are rich in grammatical and lexical knowledge of the language. This is why Wahyudi (2012) suggests that one of the many strengths of the NS is that they are able to adapt and change topics according to students' interests (e.g., talking about crimes or weekend shopping), they can operate at any register of language (e.g., business language, hip-hop discourse), and/or they can address any specific sociocultural topic (e.g., English for particular holidays, English for reporting a theft, English for seeing medical professionals, etc.). Christen (2008) found that her respondents thought "native teachers are the better teachers due to their perfect proficiency and perfect knowledge of the target language" (p. 10), and Shin (2014, p. 10) states that the common belief in Korea is

that "native English speakers are the ideal teachers of English," while participants in Alseweeda's study (2012, p. 47) stressed that "NSs are friendly." Moreover, Christen (2008, p. 9) found that "the native teacher's pronunciation is perfect, as he or she has acquired the target language in early childhood and trained his or her mouth to pronounce certain sounds a non-native speaker might have problems pronouncing."

Tokumoto and Shibata (2011, as cited in Bissett & Ma, 2015, p. 3) claims that Korean students assigned a "bad view of their own accents"; however, they suggest that this can be eliminated by learning English with NS teachers for a significant amount of time, since this allows students to be familiarized with a standard and desirable English pronunciation through learning activities and teachers' instructions in the class. According to Christen (2008), those who want to learn from NSs for a particular accent should approach an NS; however, native speakers from different regions of inner-circle countries still have different accents. Therefore, again discrimination can come into play as one standard accent tends to be sought after. On the other hand, learning English from NSs, according to Nutt (2009, p. 2), has beneficial results because "students will be able to engage in real and regular conversations that English speakers use every day." This type of atmosphere can also be created by NNS teachers who have full proficiency in the language regarding fluency and accuracy. Hence, they will be able to give instructions and set tasks in English that are authentic and culturally and linguistically appropriate, and use English as the medium of communication on their school premises.

Abriel (2015) reflects on his past English teaching experiences in Korea, where he was assigned to do co-teaching with a Korean teacher, and explains that "[his] classes tended to involve more participation through language play and interactive videos and games, while NNESTs' classes taught grammar through lectures, reading, writing, and listening drills" (p. 9). This could be because of the use of different approaches and techniques between NS and NNS teachers although they were in the same school, but the students may view the NSs as better teachers because they keep the students' attention throughout the lesson.

The Advantage of Hiring Non-native English Teachers

Wahyudi (2012, p. 2) states that NNS teachers are better able to "share the learning strategies," since they have passed through all stages

of learning difficulties (such as the differences between L1 and L2 word orders in composing sentences, and some tonal or glottal sounds in terms of phonological issues). Christen (2008, p. 9) explains that an advantage of having NNS teachers is that they have "undergone the same learning process as their students, thus they know how to teach grammatical structures and explain those to their students." She found that a few of her respondents preferred NNS because of "their ability to explain grammatical rules and linguistic structures." Having a focus on English language accuracy can provide strong support for students' academic writing skills, as they will be able to control their tenses and make fewer grammatical mistakes. They will be able to produce quality written papers in English at the university level, where English is used in higher education settings (e.g., in Singapore or in the UK).

Vidal (2016) finds that one of the participants in that study preferred NNSs, and his reason was that he felt "more confident with teachers who shared his mother tongue" (p. 31). Wahyudi (2012, p. 1) similarly relates that NNS teachers can use their students' first language when the students seem not to understand clearly during the lesson if both parties share the same L1. In terms of linguistic aspects, many students and schools would prefer to have NSs than NNSs so that students can learn native accents rather than strong/foreign accents. However, as Sutherland (2012, p. 64) claims, "listening to these accents can reasonably be assumed to help prepare students for the various different accents they could possibly encounter in their daily lives."

Other Previous Studies into Native vs. Non-native Teachers

Benke and Medgyes (2005) conducted a large-scale survey of 422 Hungarian students' perceptions of the differences between NS and NNS teachers. They found that NNS teachers would always or often give a lot of homework, plan their lessons thoroughly, and consistently check for errors. They also mentioned that NNS teachers never or rarely lost their patience, whereas NS teachers were reluctant to set tests and spend time on grammar development. In addition, the NNS teachers were characterized as able to provide more thorough exam preparation. On the other hand, a disadvantage of NNS teachers was their high frequency of use of the Hungarian language during their lessons and how they became sidetracked in their mother tongue. Similarly, the students also mentioned as a recurrent criticism NNS teachers' poor pronunciation and outdated

language use in contrast with NS teachers, who were able to familiarize students with colloquialisms and who served as perfect models for imitation. A disadvantage was that lower-level students found it difficult to understand NS teachers. Due to coming from two different cultural and linguistic backgrounds (i.e., students' Hungarian background and native speakers' own backgrounds), Benke and Medgyes (2005) states that "a communication gap between them is often created" (p. 207).

In a similar study that included 76 university undergraduate students, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) found that participants preferred NS teachers due to linguistic knowledge aspects. For example, it was stated that NS teachers have "more knowledge of idioms and vocabulary," that "they correct your grammar or pronunciation mistakes," and that they have "good knowledge of the language" (p. 228). The participants felt that NS teachers allowed them to use English practically all the time, but pointed out some disadvantages: "If they have a non-standard English, it is really difficult to understand them" (pp. 229–230). Benke and Medgyes (2005) had similar findings. Their participants thought that low-level English students would not be able to cope with NS speech: "When you have a low level maybe you can't understand him/her, if he/she does not know another language you know" (p. 229).

In a quantitative survey study that involved 120 Turkish university students, Ürkmez (2015) found that 75% of the participants believed that NNS teachers are better able to understand and foresee their students' difficulties with the English language. This is because they are "more aware of the students' needs, as they passed through the same experience while learning English as a foreign language" (p. 330). As for the choice between two types of teachers (NS or NNS), 76% of the students agreed that they would have more positive attitudes towards the learning of English if they had an NS teacher. However, it was also revealed that 96% of the respondents wanted NS teachers for their speaking skills and 85% wanted NNS teachers for grammar lessons. It is interesting to learn that 60% responded that they would accept any type of teacher and that a teacher's mother tongue is not important if they are respectable teachers.

Hadla (2013) studied Lebanese students' and teachers' perceptions of NS and NNS teachers by using a closed-ended questionnaire, which was followed by semi-structured interviews with students and teachers. Participants voiced that they could improve their communicative skills (listening and speaking) with NS teachers. As with previous studies, it

was found that students thought that NNS teachers had the capability of "predicting students in learning English, more empathetic to the needs of students" (p. 135). NSs were characterized as being more self-confident, as they were proficient in using the English language, while NNS teachers were described as "more exam-oriented" than NS teachers (p. 141).

Significance of This Study

Many studies, as discussed above, have been conducted on NS and NNS issues, but little has been explored about Myanmar (Burmese) students' perceptions of learning English from these two types of teachers. Although Al-Nawrasy (2013, p. 244) underlined that NNS teachers "usually display a poorer competence, acquired through study and effort, which disallows spontaneity," the objective here is to explore the accuracy of this by surveying students who were learning English in Yangon, Myanmar, between November and December, 2016. Additionally, to expand the applicability of the findings, the study examined the findings in relation to literature focused on Korea. Although the contexts of Southeast Asian and East Asian countries are distinct, in addition to specific factors within each country, the two contexts and nations (i.e., Myanmar and Korea) share comparable social and educational factors in being expanding-circle countries (Kachru & Nelson, 2006). In these two countries, English plays no historical/governmental role, but it is, nevertheless, widely used as an increasingly necessary medium for international communication. This is true for much of the world, including Southeast Asian countries such as Myanmar, and East Asian countries like Korea, China, and Japan.

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to explore the expectations and experiences of Myanmar's learners of English with NS and NNS teachers (i.e., Myanmarese teachers of English) for their language learning. I therefore felt that qualitative methods would be the most suitable tools for this study to "produce descriptive data" (Taylor, Bogdon, & DeVault, 2016, p. 7) that bring actual findings (such as

participants' own words and their feelings) to the readers of the study.

Instrument

An questionnaire containing open-ended questions (e.g., How do you feel when you have to study with non-native English speaking teachers?) was designed, in which seven of the questions (e.g., Do you prefer to learn English with native English-speaking teachers?) were formatted as closed-answer questions or yes/no questions, which gives quantitative data to save participants time and to distinguish between different groups of respondents. This was then followed up with the open-ended qualitative question of "Why you do want to be a student of native-speaking teachers?" to delve into the understanding of the participants' perception, etc. In this study, "different groups of respondents" refers to participants with different learning experiences and preferences regarding NSs and NNSs. The open-ended questions helped to perceive "opinions, attitudes, and perceptions" which are the strength of using these types of questions (Kumar, 2014, p. 185). Since participation for this study was voluntary, participants were recruited randomly depending upon their availability and commitment. Data were synthesized manually and were saved in one Microsoft Excel file.

Participants

While recruiting participants, the author was assisted by a colleague who runs a local language school. She acted as a field administrator dealing with all participants and sending the completed questionnaires to the author, as the author was unable to return to Myanmar during the data collection period. All participants were asked to sign consent forms prior to their participation. As Denscombe (2014) cautions, care needs to be taken when disclosing participants' contributions to research, and I ensured that confidentiality was maintained. All data are, therefore, presented with pseudonyms such as "P1," "P20," etc.

A total of 26 Myanmarese (Burmese) students, who were in a bachelor of arts in English program at a local university (one had recently finished her study) and had attended some private language classes at language schools, took part in this study. However, one was eliminated as this person only completed three out of 18 questions. The

findings presented in this study are from the remaining 25 participants.

In Myanmar, English is taught as a school subject in primary education, as in Sweden, where English is taught at schools "as a core subject, which most students start learning in the first grade (age 7)" (Henry, 2014, p. 97). All participants from the present study have been exposed to the English language since the age of five, the age at which primary school education begins in Myanmar. This is similar to Korea, where early English education is through the school curriculum and/or extra-curricular instruction (Chung & Choi, 2016). Some of the participants in this study (eight of them) had even started studying English in their kindergarten classes, which is also common in Korea. Since English is one of the school subjects throughout their primary and secondary education, the participants had all learned English for more than five years. Some, as mentioned for Korea, went to extra-curricular private language classes and some had done this in addition to their formal self-study as well.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned above, some participants had learned English at both government and private schools or extra-curricular language classes. Those (17 out of 25 participants) who learned English at private language schools and carried out formal self-study stated that they were motivated to do so because English is an international/world language, and it is useful for communication. For example, P17 responded that English is the most popular spoken language in the world, and so this participant was motivated to gain proficiency in it. Some other participants expressed that English is useful for communication nowadays due to globalization. An example is P22, who answered, "I am interested in foreign languages, especially English, because it is a tool to communicate with each other [internationally]." Another expressed, "I'd like to communicate with foreigners" (P13), and "to improve my communication skills with foreigners" (P16). P23 said that "English is the most important language," and P17 stressed that "English is the most spoken language in the world." Some participants (e.g., P18 and P19) similarly thought that it is a "second language." P24 argued that "English is the most important language, and I think we should learn it."

After having analyzed their responses, it was found that they were aware that English is the most widely spoken language in terms of a medium of communication among NSs and NNSs, which has been claimed by authors such as (McKay, 2012); thus, this suggests that English is a lingua franca, or "a contact language among speakers of different linguacultural backgrounds" (Dewey, 2012, p. 139).

When the author explored why the participants thought they needed English as an additional language, many of them felt that it was because English is an international language (P12, P16, P18, P20, P23, P25). P19 highlighted that "English is the widest spoken language in the world." P22 shared her thoughts: "As for me, English is more useful than other languages.... Because the majority of people accept English as an international language nowadays."

P11 believed that learning and knowing the English language would give her a chance to work at foreign companies: "I can work at foreign companies, which are run in Myanmar." P6, by contrast, saw it as an opportunity for him "to work overseas." So, in sum, participants saw English as a tool of leverage for being competitive for opportunities within Myanmar and overseas.

This study aimed to determine Myanmar students' preferences between NS and NNS teachers and their reasons for the specific type of teacher group. As Myanmar has employed a low rate of foreigners compared with other countries such as Hong Kong, China, Thailand, Korea, and Japan, many of the participants in this study had only experienced learning English with non-native speaking teachers (i.e., Myanmarese teachers of English) when they completed the questionnaire, and only five participants had been exposed to English teaching by both NS and NNS teachers. Having had some experiences, they shared both the advantages and disadvantages of learning with NS and NNS teachers. On the positive side of being with NNS teachers, students (19 out of 25) felt comfortable and relaxed, and they had no fear to speak to or ask questions of NNS teachers (for example, P2, P3, P10, P13, P18, P21, P22). This is a different finding from Ürkmez (2015), whose respondents thought that NS teachers were friendlier than NNS teachers.

In terms of teacher-type preferences, P26 explained why she liked learning English with NNSs: "I can understand better because they can explain in mother tongue." P2 and P18 similarly said they felt it easier to understand what was being taught. P22 explained one of the benefits as "we can discuss openly," and P25 said that "they can explain more

about English language." Therefore, my findings from this study supports Coşkun (2013, p. 4) who said that one of the advantages of having NNSs (local teachers who share the same L1 as their students) is that they can "help learners better and establish good rapport with learners by sharing their mother tongue." As teachers and students share the same L1, P4 found that he could communicate well with his teacher, but he pointed out that NNSs have "strange strong pronunciation which is different from what I have heard from movies or songs."

There are other disadvantages to NNSs mentioned by some participants such as less improvement in spoken practice (listening and speaking) and pronunciation issues. P18 explained that she had a "lack of confidence to speak in English" and P9 felt that his language proficiency did not improve as much as when learning English with NSs: "less improvement in speaking and listening skills." In terms of pronunciation issues, P1 mentioned that "some teachers cannot teach the right pronunciation and usage," while P26 thought "I can't hear the English sounds," and P11 said NNSs have "strong-accented, incorrect pronunciations." Although they mentioned accents, participants did not criticize language accuracy or "a poorer competence" of NNSs (Al-Nawrasy, 2013), which I hypothesized at the beginning of this paper. Having a "foreign accent is unavoidable as a result of native language influence" for NNSs as Du (2010, p. 219) has explained. Therefore, students should have an understanding of the difficulties of having accents and the risks of mispronunciation. This is because not every native speaker pronounces their L1 the same (for example, there is a variation between English accents of London and those of other parts of England such as Newcastle and Suffolk).

To the question of whether they would rather be taught by NSs than NNSs if they had a chance to choose, two-thirds of the participants said they did not have a particular preference (e.g., P1, P3, P7, P8, P9, P10, P12, P16, P17, P19, P21, P22). For example, P22 explained why she did not have any preference towards a certain type of teacher this way: "I am OK with any type of teachers because I like both native- and non-native-speaking teachers as long as they are good at teaching." Similarly, P1 said that "each of them has good quality." Some participants preferred NNS, such as P3, who explained "I prefer non-native-speakers because they are easy to understand." P9 highlighted the quality of teaching: "I prefer NNS because they teach well." Some other participants wanted to learn English with NSs, and their reasons

were to learn correct pronunciation, to hear native sounds spoken by native speakers, and to improve their communication skills in English. The intention of trying to improve writing and reading skills was not mentioned, as opposed to oral-aural communicative skills. From these results, it can be concluded that the participants favor communicative skills and their reason for choosing NSs over NNSs (i.e., Myanmar teachers of English) is to improve those skills. For example, P4 said "I want to improve my speaking and listening skills"; P13 stated "I want to improve my pronunciation"; and P23 contended "they speak English better than non-native-speaking teachers."

The findings of this study are comparable to those of Nelly and Arvizu (2014), who found that, in a Latin American context, 46.7% of their participants preferred a NNS for reading skills and 37.2% would want a NS, whereas 14.4% did not have any explicit opinions about teacher type (NS vs. NNS). However, twelve out of twenty-five participants had no preference towards any specific teacher type in this study, which represented almost 50% of the total participants, while any mention of improvement of reading skill was neglected by the participants. Despite not having two specific target groups while recruiting participants, the result is in contradiction to Vidal (2016), where none of the respondents from an advanced level of English proficiency showed a preference towards NNS teachers and where there were only a few from the elementary level.

Implications for the Korean Context

Certainly not every Korean, nor every Myanmarese, ascribes to this NS–NNS dichotomy, or racial-linguistic hierarchy discussed. Yet, people try to gain the advantages of tangible and non-tangible capital to gain leverage based on their respective societies. Pennycook (1997) urges us to develop a means of addressing preferences and questions of NS power with English language teaching, since the use of English in many contexts is tied to questions of power.

Among others, Oh and Mac Donald (2012) highlight the preference for NSs in Korea, and such perceptions reflect discrimination, mirroring earlier differences versus equality debates on gender and racial identities in individual countries, regarding the view of NSs and NNSs. Therefore, the preference for a NS, and often a white NS, is not only tied to language but deeply embedded in local social, cultural, economic, and

political implications.

As a consequence, there is a vast degree of differences between the circumstances of Myanmar and Korean ELT, even within one sector, such as public K−12 education, regarding English language teaching. The implications and recommendations for addressing a change in perception on NS and NNS English teachers must be bound by local constraints and ultimately addressed distinctly. That is to say that this study does not suggest that the two contexts are parallel but rather aims to highlight a general and popular perception of NSs and NNSs in each context and what that means for English education and teacher practice in the classroom in Asia. This study, based on its scope and nature, cannot offer specific practice recommendations to classroom teachers in Myanmar, nor Korea, but it can offer a conceptual frame within which to approach classroom teaching, individual professional development, and action research that can improve classroom instruction, alter NS−NNS teacher perceptions, raise awareness of discrimination, and inform hiring practices.

Conference presentations and teacher collaboration in school projects can highlight the value of NNS teachers practice beyond the walls of their classrooms. As administrators or peer colleagues, NNS teachers can be encouraged to speak about their classroom practices and their personal or professional experiences as NNS teachers. This opens a venue for NNS teachers to demonstrate their competency in pedagogical practice and with the language. Small incidents accrue to build increased legitimacy not only for that teacher but also for other NNS teachers.

NNS teachers can seek professional development opportunities through academic associations and teaching forums, or even additional credentials, to place themselves among other educators and show their ongoing interest in professional development for their learners and themselves.

NS and NNS teachers and administrators can be encouraged to conduct action research on the NS−NNS dichotomy and how that impacts various aspects of the field, and suggest means to reduce the hegemony of the NS. Such research and sharing of this research in public academic forums raises awareness of the existing prejudice.

CONCLUSIONS

In closing, it is suggested that knowing an additional language (e.g., English) would help someone to be more competitive for employment, both domestically and internationally, and would also enable them to access information more readily, as they could more effectively search Internet webpages, books, and e-books because many of them are written in English these days. As the use of English has become widely popular and used increasingly for communication and because of the spread of international trade and e-trading (buying and selling goods online), there is a stronger imperative for non-native speakers of English to learn the language. P23 explained it like this: "We need it as an additional language. A man who is good in English can communicate with people from other countries."

Those who have been in NS teachers' classes have experienced some cultural issues such as P22, who explained that "our styles (the way we think and behave) are different." P25 also noted that "we have different cultures" and P1 stressed that "they don't learn our culture before teaching." Therefore, I would suggest that NS teachers explore some of the culture of their students (such as whether or not students dare to raise a question to the teacher or whether silence in the classroom automatically suggests that students have understood what a teacher has said to them). These factors will serve for the NS teacher to build a better relationship with their students.

Since the English language is a medium of instruction in many settings "for communication not only among native speakers and non-native speakers but also among non-native speakers themselves" (Saito & Shintani, 2015, p. 3), people use it for many reasons as explained above. In my experience, more research can be carried out to explore NS and NNS teachers' experiences and difficulties of teaching communicative skills in different settings. Comparative large-scale studies can be performed to compare learners' perspectives between two universities from two different countries or two to three local schools. Teachers can be classified into three main types: native speakers who are born and raised in one English-speaking country, local non-native-speaking teachers who hold the same citizenship of a country as their students have, and teachers who use English as their second or foreign language and who are from other parts of the world. Little research has

been carried out on students' perspectives on these three types of teachers. Such research could contribute additional knowledge to the ELT field.

The data presented in this study discusses Myanmarese (Burmese) English language learners' preferences towards NSs and NNSs, and their experiences in learning English with these two types of teachers. Since the number of participants was fairly small (25), the findings may be different or more generalizable if a larger-scale survey is carried out. Although half of the participants of this study explained that they would accept any type of teacher (NS or NNS), I would hope that NNS teachers practice their pronunciation to deliver better lessons. I would also suggest that knowing their students' language learning difficulties will help teachers to engage with them and produce better lessons.

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Uncovering EFL Teachers' Beliefs of English as an International Language

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This study was designed to unveil English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs on the issue of teaching English as an international language. Their beliefs were surveyed and analyzed quantitatively under three main themes: (a) the goals of teaching English, (b) native-speaker fallacy, and (c) the use of students' mother tongue. A set of questionnaires was distributed to twenty EFL teachers (henceforth, respondents) in this study. In general, the goals of teaching English were seen as passive by the respondents. In terms of native-speaker fallacy, the respondents view native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) as the "owners" of English language. They also consider "native-like proficiency" to be the target of students' language learning. Meanwhile, in terms of students' mother tongue use, they demonstrated positive beliefs, arguing that this approach to teaching English is necessary, albeit 15% of them voiced an avoidance of the use of the mother tongue in their English classes. Pedagogic implications of this study are offered at the end of this paper.

Keywords: Teacher belief, English as an International Language (EIL), World Englishes (WEs)

INTRODUCTION

If asked which English and how (Rasman, 2017) English teachers should teach today to school-aged children, what would probably be the answer? British English or American English (Martin, 2016)? Using the mother tongue or the English-only approach? Idealizing native teachers or non-native ones? In this paper, I would like to discuss "the whats and hows" of today's English language teaching under the main topic of EFL

teachers' beliefs with regard to the role of English as an international language (EIL). This issue, so far, has been discussed in teacher education programs, particularly in the Asian region. However, such studies in secondary schooling sectors have not been well explored, with regards to both teachers and students.

In the Indonesian context, for instance, three scholars attempted to investigate teachers' beliefs on EIL issues (Zacharias, 2003; Ubaidillah, 2015; Floris, 2013). The first two studies were carried out in teacher education programs, while the last was conducted in non-formal education institutions. It can be concluded that secondary high school teachers are still left with no conclusive findings regarding their beliefs on EIL issues.

A study on teachers' beliefs is said to be insightful in teaching practices. This can relate teachers to teaching approaches, students, and their role in classes (Richards, 1998; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001) as well as teaching techniques and activities (Donaghue, 2003). Each teacher may possess varied beliefs in language teaching and learning. Some teachers may believe that error correction in speaking should be immediately informed, but some may not (Ubaidillah, 2015). Teachers might believe in communicative language teaching (CLT), but some might not. In teaching practices, what teachers believe impacts their students' beliefs (Chapman, 2001).

Theoretically, a belief is defined as "the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom" (Richards, 1998, p. 66). It indicates that this belief internalizes in teachers' personal development and is later taken into account in their classes. Meanwhile, Pajares (1992, as cited in Mansour, 2009) defined *beliefs* as "messy construct[s]." It is commonly known by these terms:

> attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of, to name but a few that can be found in the literature. (p. 1)

With regard to the role of English as an international language, I

will begin by describing the theory of World Englishes (WE) by Kachru (1985). For many years, it has been acknowledged that the English language has shifted to being pluricentric, referred to as *World Englishes*, with countries separated into three groups of English use. In his theory, Kachru grouped countries into three circles: the inner, outer, and expanding circles. According to him, the U.K., the U.S., New Zealand, and Australia are included in the inner circle, as these countries use English as a native language (ENL). Different from the inner circle, countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, and Hong Kong use English as a second language (ESL), these areas are, therefore, the outer circle. Countries that speak English as a foreign language (EFL) are included in the expanding circle, countries such as Indonesia, Japan, the United Arab Emirates, etc. Figure 1 is a model of World Englishes as discussed by Kachru.
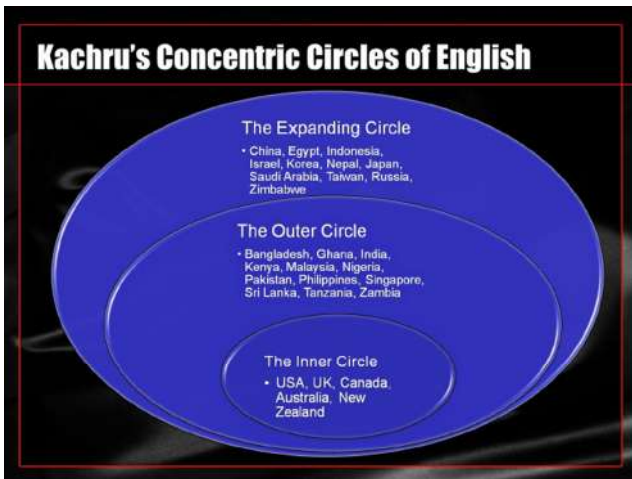

FIGURE 1. A description of World Englishes. (Kachru, 1985)

The topic of World Englishes was much discussed by other language scholars. McKay (2003), for instance, described what she called "English as an International Language" (EIL). She contended that "the teaching of EIL should be based on entirely different assumptions that have typically informed English language teaching pedagogy" (p. 1). This is true since the growing number of bilingual learners of English are using English along with their mother tongue, which then differentiates them from

monolingual speakers. Even before McKay, Smith (1976) was probably the one who defined EIL in the language teaching sphere. He mentioned that an international language is normally spoken by people from varied nations. He proposed three consequences of this idea: (a) learners have no need to internalize native speakers' cultural norms, (b) the goal to learn English is now to communicate ideas and cultures, and (c) the ownership of English has become "de-nationalized." Sugiharto (2007) also argued that World Englishes has shaped a "myth" in English language teaching.

The teaching of English language today, as it has become an international language, should no longer refer to its goals as being the inner-circle countries' norms, but they should allow students to be aware of local identities and entities. Communicating with people from diverse backgrounds, for instance, should also be a part of language teaching. Teachers can include in their listening class varied accents from speakers of English various parts of the world, as an example, particularly from the outer-circle countries to minimize the domination of inner-circle norms. Albeit English is used for business and other functional activities in Korea (Nicholson, 2015), the norms associated with the English language in Asian countries, however, still much refer to so-called native speakers as the norm.

In the Indonesian schooling context, the paradigm of English language teaching nowadays should be regarded as shifting as teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) reflect on their current teaching beliefs in the classroom. This really matters since students in this country are learning English as a foreign language, rather than a second language, and need a set of examples from native speakers of English in acquiring the language. Students also need more localized and situated learning conditions to bring together their multilingual competences in the English language as McKay (2012) has suggested: that language programs (and teachers) include the promotion of local varieties in English speaking, intercultural competence, and multilingualism in the classroom settings and localized teaching materials for EFL students.

In the Korean context, English as an international language has not yet been studied much. This can be inferred from a study by Watterson (2006) arguing that English in Korea is still spoken based on native forms though speakers of English in Korea realize that their daily communication in English is held mainly with other Asian people, mostly from China and Japan. This fact has informed us of a similar

situation in Indonesian English language communication. While Watterson researched the communication strategies employed by Korean speakers, the present study examines the belief systems of Indonesian EFL teachers on teaching English as an international language.

Influenced by the ideas of Kachru (1985) on WEs and McKay (2003, 2012) on EIL, this study examines English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs on teaching English as an international language in their classroom practice. The focus is an attempt to uncover teachers' beliefs on (a) their goals of teaching English, (b) the native-speaker fallacy, and (c) the use of the students' mother tongue.

METHOD

This study was carried out in a private secondary school based in Sidoarjo, Indonesia. For English, the school adopts the English Proficiency Program (EPP) curriculum from ACT Foundation, Surabaya, Indonesia. The use of English as a medium of instruction in all subjects in this school is highly encouraged. What is also intriguing is that the school invites a guest teacher (commonly native English speakers) to teach English during one semester to students every academic year. This practice supports the belief that English is "superior and owned by English-speaking teachers" and neglects, if not rejects, the importance of local varieties and localisms brought by students and teachers to the classrooms.

Respondents of this study were selected using the convenience sampling technique (Dornyei, 2007). There were 20 Indonesian teachers who participated. Fifteen of them were female and five were male. Their teaching experience was, in most cases, more than three years. All of them held a bachelor's degree in English language teaching from Indonesian universities. For privacy purposes, the respondents' were each given a pseudonym for this research.

This study employed a quantitative approach using a small-scale survey design. The quantitative analysis was made from the questionnaire distributed. The questionnaire contained five questions that the participants had to answer in terms of (a) the goals of teaching English, (b) native-speaker fallacy, and (c) the use of the students' mother tongue. Since the sample consisted of only twenty participants,

this study was not an attempt to generalize the findings. Instead, it was an attempt to reveal how these teachers construct their belief systems on the issue of EIL.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The Goals of Teaching English

Figure 2 indicates a variety of goals that teachers cite in teaching English. Three goals, which were selected more often than others are "to communicate with people from different countries" (90%), "globalization era (65%)," and "to study overseas" (65%). The first and the second of these support the status of English in the world, which is spoken largely for international communication (Ubaidillah, 2015; Zacharias, 2003). The third-most common choice, in addition, suggests that the teaching of English is viewed passively by teachers in this study.
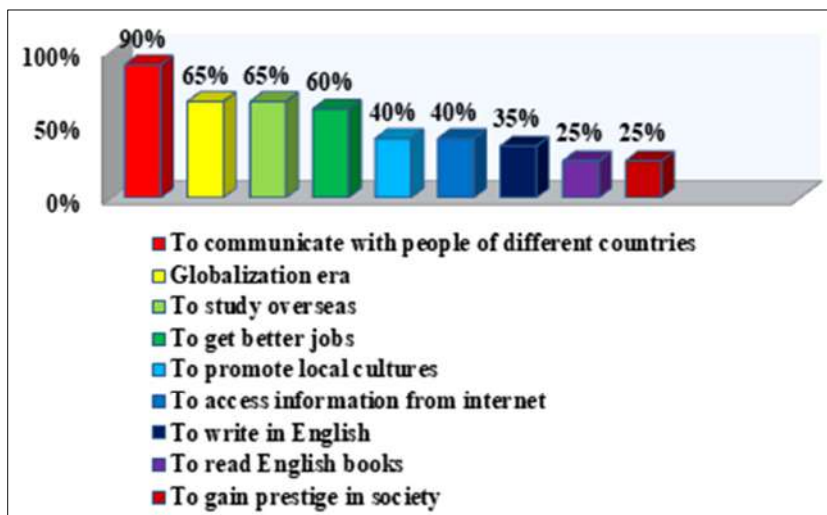

FIGURE 2. The goals of teaching English.

In this section, teachers' responses to the goals of teaching English are analyzed as being one of two benefits: passive or active. These terms were previously introduced by Zacharias (2003) in her study. *Passive*

benefits of English refers to what English can do for someone (e.g., using receptive skills), while *active benefits* refers to what someone can do with English (e.g., using productive skills). Options such as "to get better jobs," "to access information from the Internet," "to read English books," and "to gain prestige in societies" are included as passive benefits, while "to promote local cultures" and "to write in English" can be grouped under active benefits.

Furthermore, the three most-cited reasons in Figure 2, "to communicate with people from different countries" (90%), "globalization era" (65%), and "to study overseas" (65%) can also be deemed to be passive benefits since the respondents on the questionnaire agree that people would know nothing if they don't master English, so it still has a passive focus. Respondents in this study shared the "English fever" expression, a term used by Sugiharto (2015) in his newspaper article. He maintained that English has gained prominence and prestige within societies.

The Native-Speaker Fallacy

This section reveals the fact that the respondents preferred native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) to teach speaking (80%) and pronunciation (75%) as shown in Figure 3. The reasons varied among the respondants and are listed below:

- "NESTs have good speaking skills and their pronunciation is internationally accepted."
- "It is their language, so we must learn how they speak and pronounce words in English."
- "Students feel motivated when learning with NESTs in their speaking class. Yaa, just like my class, for example."
- "The more we speak with NESTs, the more we are fluent."
- "I like to listen American English speakers. Their accent is understandable and my students are motivated to imitate. I think this is a good standard for learning English."
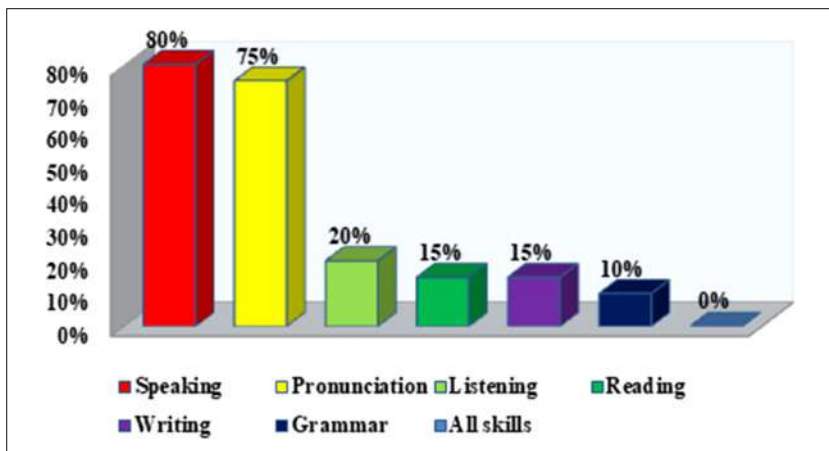
FIGURE 3. The native-speaker fallacy.

It is evident that the respondents view NESTs as "the owner of English language," thereby making them better teachers to teach language skills, especially speaking and pronunciation skills. In general, the present study has found that the respondents believe in the native-speaker fallacy, a term that Phillipson (1992) described in *Linguistic Imperialism*, though the term "linguistic imperialism" has been the subject of much debate among scholars (Martin, 2012). The respondents in this study are not aware of other varieties in English (Indonesian English, Singaporean English, Malaysian English, for example). One respondent even conveyed in the questionnaire the idea that American English is the "standard" for learning English: "I like to listen American English speakers. Their accent is understandable and my students are motivated to imitate. I think this is a good standard for learning English." Most of them consider "nativeness" as a contributing factor to students' success in language learning and a proficiency that students should attain. However, this status has been questioned by Richards and Schmidt (2010) and Mahboob (2010).

Dickson (1996) advocated the use of the English-only approach in language classrooms throughout the world. He argued in his work that use of the "target language promotes natural acquisition and that use of the mother tongue (L1) undermines this process by diverting attention from the object of pupils' learning" (p. 1). His theory has inspired English teachers to treat students with English-only as the medium of

instruction in the classroom. However, this issue has since been investigated in second language acquisition research. Cook (2008) argued that bilingual learners possess better ways of thinking than monolingual ones. More recently, questions of what a proficient language learner is like and what differentiates language learners from each other have been debated (Rasman, 2017). Usman (2014) also encouraged EFL teachers to

> debunk the obsession with trying to sound or relate ourselves to the "foreignism" of English language learning and communication, and start embracing our own accents and language styles. It is time to end the desperate attempt and pressure to sound native when speaking English. Such insecurity will only impede and discourage learning. (p. 6)

The Use of the Students' Mother Tongue

Most of the respondents in this section demonstrated a positive belief in using their students' mother tongue (Bahasa Indonesia). They thought that this approach benefits teachers in explaining grammar concepts, checking students' understanding, and giving instructions, with 45%, 30%, and 30%, respectively, responding with these three reasons. Their comments on why they chose these three benefits are best captured by these three comments from the questionnaires:

- "Yaa, students' mother tongue can be used to explain tenses and conjuction, yaa, grammar, I think."
- "Checking whether students understand our explanation or not is important. So it can be done through the medium of mother tongue."
- "Actually, I like using mother tongue when giving instructions to students. If I use English-only medium, they sometimes don't understand."
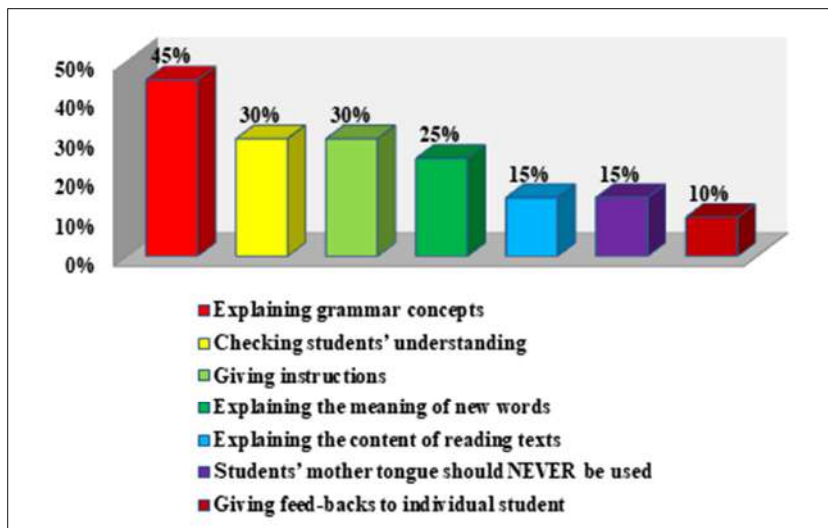
FIGURE 4. The use of the students' mother tongue.

Among the twenty teachers who completed the questionnaire, 15% of them responded that they avoid using the learners' mother tongue in their classrooms. According to them, using the mother tongue was believed to interrupt students' target language acquisition as seen from their comments:

- "I don't agree with using students' mother tongue. It disturbs my students' learning. If we teach English, so we must use English fully."
- "I always use full-English in my class though students sometimes don't understand. I can still use my body language."
- The more we speak English, the more we are fluent. So far that's what I know."

These findings, in general, portray the positive beliefs teachers have on using the students' mother tongue. Their reasons for using the mother tongue validate what Forman (2010) outlined in his work (Figure 5).

1	Cognitive	L2 development	To explain L2 vocabulary, grammar, usage, culture
2	Affective	Solidarity	To facilitate easy, 'natural' interaction amongst students and with teacher
3		Interpersonal development	To develop collaborative, team-work abilities
4	Pedagogic	Time-effectiveness	To make good use of limited classroom time
5		Comprehensibility	To convey meaning successfully
6		Inclusivity	To ensure that all students can participate
7		Contingency	To respond to immediate teaching/learning needs
8		Classroom management	To maintain discipline
9	Socio-political	Globalised communication	To enable students to move flexibly and effectively across two languages
10		Political positioning	To resist the political dimension of global English

FIGURE 5. Ten principles of mother-tongue use in the classroom.
(Forman, 2010, p. 78)

CONCLUSIONS

This study attempted to reveal insights about EFL teachers' beliefs on teaching English as an international language. The belief systems of the respondents have been from three main aspects – the goals of teaching English, the native-speaker fallacy, and the use of the students' mother tongue.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that in terms of the goals of teaching English, most of the respondents view English as a world language that is used for international communication. However, this belief is seen as being passive (i.e., as being something that English can do for someone) since one benefits from the "international" status English has. On the other hand, active beliefs (i.e., beliefs that someone can do something with English) were not found. On the issue of

native-speaker fallacy, the respondents view NESTs as "the owners" of the English language.

The respondents neglect other varieties of English, such as Indonesian English and Singaporean English, to name a few. They also believe that "native-like proficiency" should be the target of students' language learning. Lastly, student mother-tongue use is believed to pedagogically contribute to student comprehension. While 15% of the respondents avoid using the students' mother tongue, most respondents still agree that its use should be maintained in the classroom. Since the Korean context is similar to that of Indonesia with respect to the teaching of the English language, English should be taught in both countries with reference to that country's norms with respect to accent and language style.

The findings of this study may be open to challenges and more critical investigation from future research. Employing larger samples and observing teachers' teaching activity in the classroom are suggested. Also, to policymakers, it is suggested that the study of World Englishes and/or English as an International Language be included in the curriculum of the English language teaching programs in Indonesia's higher education.

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Teachers' Emotions and Emotional Regulation in Second Language Classrooms

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Research on teacher emotions has been increasing. However, most studies have been conducted in general educational contexts. Additionally, researchers have realized that emotional regulation should be considered a fundamental aspect in the emotional process (e.g., Gross, 2002). It is further believed that teachers regulate emotional experiences for more effective teaching, which underscores the crucial role of emotion regulation in the classroom (Sutton, 2004). Surprisingly, however, in the second language learning and teaching field, researchers have paid little attention to language teachers' emotional experiences and how they regulate their emotions. We believe that it is important for second language researchers to integrate psychological perspectives such as emotional domains into the field, highlighting the need for stimulating more interdisciplinary investigations. Therefore, in this paper, we aim to expand the research on teachers' emotions beyond general educational contexts and their emotional regulation by focusing on issues in second language contexts. Specifically, we will discuss issues of teacher emotions and their emotional regulation by reviewing the existing literature. Then we will discuss theoretical and educational implications, and offer suggestions for teacher education and future research directions in terms of teacher emotions and their emotional regulation in second language classrooms.

Keywords: teachers' emotions, emotional regulation, second language teaching

INTRODUCTION

The issue of emotion, or *affect*, as it is often termed in the field of second language (Brown, 2000), has been an important part of the field since its inception, and there is a long tradition of looking at affectual variables in learners (Brown & White, 2010) with an understanding that they have a large effect on classroom performance and overall learning. Indeed, the constructs of anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) and motivation (Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 1994) have been intensely studied in learners. Until fairly recently, however, the recognition of the importance of emotion in second language learning has neglected to look at the teacher as the focal subject. There has been a dearth of studies on second language teacher emotions (Cowie, 2011) despite the acknowledgement that teacher burnout is a serious issue (Chang, 2009).

Emotion is part of every event and not just what are thought of as emotional episodes. All experiences and the memories, both explicit and implicit, related to those experiences are infused with emotion (McGaugh, 2003). As such, emotion becomes an inclusive, and at times important, element in cognition (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2009). Ratey (2002), looking developmentally, proposes the idea of a four-streams model in which emotion, one of the streams of consciousness, interacts with all other streams to help shape perceptions and behavior. Teaching has now been recognized as not just an emotional (Sutton & Harper, 2009) but also a cognitively demanding endeavor. Teachers are required to make thousands of decisions before, during, and after any given class session (Richards & Lockhart, 1996), and each of these decisions is made with links back to previous experiences already stored with emotion. Thus, emotion is not just something evoked as a reaction to a given occurrence. It is something carried into and used in every occurrence (Damasio, 1994). This realization has a large effect on how emotional regulation can be perceived. In particular, teachers have a tendency to believe that they need to comply with certain display rules in class for more effective instruction, which include expressing positive emotions and suppressing negative emotions (e.g., Sutton & Harper, 2009; Zembylas, 2003).

We assume that in second language classrooms teachers might invest more effort on managing their emotions compared to other subject teachers. One of the reasons might be because many second language

classrooms are conducted in a second language rather than students' first language, and this environment could generate difficulties for teachers in class management, potentially evoking negative emotions. Obviously, this would result in leading teachers to regulate their emotions for more effective teaching. In order to better understand the emotional regulation and specifically of second language teachers, this paper deals with several interconnected issues. The paper first reviews how emotion arises and is used in certain contexts on the basis of interconnected systems such as memory and cognition (DeLancey, 2002). This is followed by an introduction to emotional regulation. The paper then turns to contextual aspects of second language teaching, looking at the varying contexts and conditions of second language teachers in second language classrooms.

EMOTION

Affect (n.) is a general term that denotes or includes cognitive systems related to emotion. For many, the terms *affect*, *emotion*, and *mood* are used interchangeably when describing a system. Kensinger (2009) sees emotion as a variety of feelings or states. LeDoux (1996) points out that emotions can be seen either as mental or as physical states. They are more commonly studied as mental states, probably because that is what they end up as, but he chooses to primarily describe and also study emotions as biological functions of the nervous system. Bower and Forgas (2000) provide a more detailed account stating that emotion is identifiable in and of itself as it occurs as a reaction to something. Once more, it is something that is typically short in duration and, importantly, is something the person is aware (conscious) of. They contrast mood from emotion by stating that it is for the most part less intense. Mood is also longer lasting and less prone to be subject to awareness.

Related to this, the cause of a mood is often not known to the experiencer, while the cause of an emotion is typically known. From a developmental perspective, moods are seen as being the more enduring effect of an emotion through memory store (Hall, 2007). As an emotion is experienced as a reaction to an event, it is stored as part of the episodic memory of that event (Eich & Schooler, 2000). Regarding

semantic memory, it has long been posited that words are also stored with emotive content (Shanahan, 2008), and Kousta, Vigliocco, Vinson, and Andrews (2010) see emotion as being particularly pivotal to the representation of abstract words.

A large body of research has linked emotion to memory in a recursive relationship. That is, emotions are experienced in specific situations and stored as memories, and since this is reoccurring on a regular basis, specific emotions are transformed into moods which are an omnipresent and integral part of the system of emotion (Smith & Thelen, 2003). Interestingly, the development and even the presence of these moods is often unknown. Moods are often part of implicit memory (Mace, 2007). This important relationship between emotion and memory is shown in three highly documented and interesting conditions; memory encoding looking at event-related potentials, mood-dependency, and mood-contingency. In two recent studies (Erk 2003, Kiefer, Schuh, Schenck, & Fiedler, 2007) neuroimaging support was found for theoretical accounts of the effects of emotion on memory encoding and retrieval (Damasio, 1994; LeDoux, 1996). In effect, a large body of research has shown that memories encoded in emotive contexts are easier to retrieve. In mood-dependent memory (Bower & Forgas, 2000, Lewis & Critchley, 2003) a person is better able to remember something when the emotional context in retrieval matches that of the encoding situation. In mood congruence (Mayer, McCormack, & Strong, 1995) people who are in a certain mood will interpret their current situation in light of that mood. Thus, if a person is unhappy, they will interpret the events around them in a negative way. Further, they will remember past events also following their current mood (Bower & Forgas, 2000). From this long and diverse body of research, it should be clear that emotion is something in the context of every situation, plays an important role in how current contexts are interpreted, and affects decisions.

An important realization of the recent cognitive revolution is the strong relationship between emotion and decision-making (Schwarz, 2000). It is not just the mood one is experiencing when making decisions, as would be predicted by mood congruence, but also the degree of awareness of feelings and recall at the time of making a decision. Andrade and Ariely (2009) look at what they term fleeting emotions in decision-making and conclude that this leads to self-oriented appraisals of one's behavior, which is an important part of identity (Martel & Wang, 2015). It was found in Dane and Pratt (2007) that

intuition, a nonconscious, rapid and holistic form of decision-making, often occurs when people are experiencing a positive mood and in more turbulent organizations. Different types of emotions, positive or negative, have also been shown to affect decision-making in different ways. Leone, Perugini, and Bagozzi (2005) found that negative emotions have a greater effect on the evaluative stage of decision-making, pushing the decision-maker to make use of more adaptive-oriented appraisals of the decisions to be made in order to reduce or avoid negative events. Frederickson (2001) claims that positive emotions lead to better teaching ideas in addition to better coping skills.

Hanselmann and Turner (2008) looked at the involvement of sacred values in decision-making. The issue of sacred values is an important point in looking at second language teaching because of deep-seated, and at times controversial, methodological and identity issues. They find that the number of sacred values involved in the decision affected the emotional situation. Decisions involving two or more sacred values were perceived as being emotionally stressful and very difficult, while those involving only one were more deemed negatively emotionally laden but also easier to solve.

Pfister and Böhm (2008) break emotions into four different types based on their functional role in decision-making. There are reducible emotions like joy for providing information. Affect-programs such as fear and disgust serve to enhance the speed of decision-making. Complex discrete emotions (regret) serve to establish relevance, and moral sentiments such as guilt or anger work to ensure commitment to the decision made. This model highlights the stages in decision-making, which in some ways correlate to the types of emotions one experiences as well the various contexts underlying those emotions. It can also be used to complement the appraisal perspective on emotions (Becker, Keller, Goetz, Frenzel, & Taxer, 2015). If emotion is omnipresent and is affected by mood and implicit memories, then it is not easy to isolate, pin down, or control emotions. A recent study by Ochsner and Gross (2008) looking at the reappraisal strategy in emotional regulation cite the integration of a wide variety of distinct constellations of brain functions.

BASES OF TEACHERS' EMOTION

Recent research in teacher emotions has tried to elaborate on the context of teaching in relation to emotion. Typically, emotion is seen as arising during events or situations. For teachers the main context in which they operate is the classroom; thus, the classroom is seen as the venue where emotion occurs, but this is a vast oversimplification. Cross and Hong (2012) see emotion as being generated based on the interpretation of the event. Again, as mentioned above, while emotion may originate as a physical reaction to a stimulus, something generated by the body (LeDoux, 1996), it is also something cognitive and becomes more so with more experience. Emotion is an internal reaction situated in a specific context that is, in turn, affected by a range of other contexts though the memories of those events. Schutz (2014) describes a nested system of emotion related to teaching contexts composed of four parts (social historical context; classroom contexts; teacher's goals, standards, and beliefs; and emotional episodes) with one system contained within a larger one. Thus, an emotional episode that occurs or a decision that needs to be made in the classroom is affected by those other contexts.

Cross and Hong (2012) use Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems model to examine teachers' emotions. The model consists of five nested levels with the individual at the center. Like the model proposed in Schutz (2014) and the cultural onion of Trompenaars and Hampton-Turner (1998), experiences and the emotions associated with those experiences are seen as being situated with a range of different nested contexts that affect each other in complex ways. Therefore, a situation or emotional episode that occurs, and how a teacher decides to deal with it is very much affected by all the other aspects of emotion. It is this collection of nested issues coupled with aspects of cognition like mood congruence that makes emotion both hard to understand and control. For this reason, the study of emotional labor and regulation is a very important aspect of emotion studies, not the least because it has been proposed that the way in which a teacher deals with emotive situations determine her or his overall satisfaction (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2009) and classroom efficacy (Lee & van Vlack, 2018).

EMOTIONAL LABOR AND REGULATION

Emotional labor has developed as a popular area of research in recent years in part because of reported links to burnout in jobs like teaching (Chang, 2013; Schutz & Lee, 2014). Studies of emotional labor and emotional regulation (Lee et al., 2016) highlight the effort it takes for teachers to manage emotional states in the wake of emotional episodes (Sutton & Harper, 2009). Hochschild (1990) claimed that emotion is composed of four elements: appraisal of a situation, changes in bodily sensations, a display of expressive gestures, and a culturally guided encapsulation of the entire process. Emotional labor occurs when teachers attempt to limit the intensity of the emotion being experienced, neutralize the emotion, or even change the emotion experienced. Emotions are fleeting and arise in interactions with stakeholders in emotional episodes (Golombek & Doran, 2014). These emotional episodes are typically seen as occurring with students in the classroom or they can occur outside the classroom with parents, co-workers, or school officials. Critically, emotional labor occurs in public spaces and in events related to teaching, whether that is directly interactional as with students in the classroom (Hagenauer, Hascher, & Volet, 2015), parents, or colleagues or is driven by issues related to teaching such as school reform (Hargreaves, 2005; Kelchtermans, 2005).

It has been shown that a range of variables affect the way a given person endeavors to regulate her or his emotions. These include beliefs (Zembylas, 2005), expectations regarding things like teacher roles (Oplatka, 2009; Yin & Lee, 2012), the types of emotion being experienced (Lee & van Vlack, 2018), and the perceived efficacy (Gross & John, 2003). Once more, different strategies are employed to regulate emotions. A distinction is often made between surface acting and deep acting with the former describing a process by which one displays emotions that they are not feeling and in the latter an attempt is made to try to alter the emotions being experienced. While some research (Grandey, 2003) has pointed to differences in stress levels caused by surface and deep acting, the choice of one strategy over the other is essentially a decision-making process. As with other decision-making, as mentioned above, the process itself is emotionally bound. Thus, emotional regulation itself is a process informed by, if not actually constrained by, the emotion and as a cognitive tool. This has impelled

some researchers to look at the relationship between emotional intelligence and efficacy in teachers (Gürol, Öyercan, & Zalcin, 2010; Kocoglu, 2011). Rastegar and Memarpour (2009), in looking at Iranian EFL teachers, found a positive significant correlation between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. As they report, this is a positive finding, as it is believed that both of these can be developed. As emotional intelligence, like other intelligences, is reliant on abstract reasoning (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001), teachers can be trained to be more aware of the interaction of their background knowledge and their experiences. And this brings us to the crux of the paper.

Emotional regulation is an action undertaken in the heat of the moment as a response to an emotionally charged episode. There are two important aspects of this. The first is that these emotive episodes do not occur in a vacuum. Underlying the specific emotion felt in the episode and affecting it is the mood. Mood congruence would state that a teacher who happens to be in a good mood will experience, both immediately and long-term in memory, episodes differently. In effect, teachers come into all situations emotionally pre-charged in one way or another, although they are not aware of it. Additionally, the emotions felt during such episodes become part of the memory of those episodes, regardless of the labor, as physical states are encoded as part of a memory. Research on emotional labor has focused primarily the episode (Curkur, 2009), but clearly, episodes do not occur in isolation. They are framed in a larger context, and the contexts involved in second language teaching are both multifaceted and complex. Once more, these issues have an underlying effect on how emotional episodes are perceived and handled.

SECOND LANGUAGE ANTECEDENTS AND CONCERNS

The research on emotion in second language teaching contexts has been somewhat scarce until recently. This may be due to the prevailing strength of the Cartesian divide between cognition and emotion (Zembylas, 2003), and a lack of awareness of advances in cognitive neuroscience, which sees emotion as a pivotal force in action. It may also be because of the rather vague notion of emotion coupled with the, as yet, indeterminate nature of second languages, their teaching and

learning, and indeed language itself.

It should not be a surprising claim that language is a school subject like no other. Language is a symbolic system used for encoding, transmitting, and understanding mental states. This very simple definition excludes the important notion that languages are shared, at least in part, with others and whole groups of others. There is a social aspect of language that encapsulates one group of people vis-à-vis another group. From the sociocultural perspectives, language is a tool that is used to shape our thoughts and interactions with others (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), and yet it is also shaped by these encounters. Language is inextricably linked with culture, being both the main vehicle of culture but is also defined by it (Shaules, 2007). From this perspective, in a theory called linguistic relativity, language effects, even shapes, perception and other cognitive processes (Pütz & Verspoor, 2000). Thus, language has a profound effect on societies and individual's as members of a society. One's language typically has an effect on identity (Joseph, 2004). People are defined, both inwardly and outwardly, by the languages they speak. Language, therefore, has a very important personal and cognitive dimension above and beyond its communicative function. Yet, for language's central role in defining individuals, societies, and humanity itself, there is still no unified or widely accepted theory of what language is and how it works (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen, & Spencer, 2009) or how it is learned (Karmiloff & Karmiloff-Smith, 2001), and this is especially true for second languages. These aspects of language are elements second language teachers carry with them long before they enter a classroom and are deeply tied to emotions and beliefs.

ISSUES IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Although the term *second language classroom* is an accepted term, it is by no means clear what is meant by that term. Second language classrooms are affected by a range of contextual issues to a greater extent than other subjects in school, even in their diversity. Teaching a second language is a very local endeavor. The contexts of second language classrooms are extremely diverse as they must fit within local norms. Attention should be drawn to some of those differences as they

strongly affect all stakeholders and especially teachers. In effect, the differences in the situations in which second languages are taught provide a very real backdrop for how teachers contain and regulate their emotions in the larger context of second language teaching. These different variables are contained within the four different teaching contexts mentioned in Schutz (2014), but it is hard to assign one neatly to a specific context because, as in the cultural onion, one thing relates to and affects another and in a non-linear way.

In looking at second language teaching, one of the main issues relates to the status of the target language. Hamers and Blanc (2000) describe a language as being endogenous or exogenous. An endogenous language is one that is used by a speech community in the context in which it is being taught. An exogenous language is spoken by speech communities outside the teaching context. This is an important distinction relating to what aspects of the language are taught, how they are taught, and by whom. This distinction also affects the way the language is perceived by the community; that is, is it local or distant (ours or theirs). Status can also relate to the legal status of the target language. A language that is an official language in the local community may be compulsory and/or more accessible than one that is not officially recognized by the government. It should be further noted that the status of the language in the community plays an important role not only in how the language is perceived (i.e., its importance; Sonntag, 2003) but also in the goals and methods for teaching the language (Phillipson, Skutnabb-Kangas, & Africa, 1986). Status can refer to the perceived value or power of the language. A language that enjoys a high value status regarding views on its power or cultural value will be conceived of differently then one with little or no perceived value status. This relates to the overall role of the second language in a given society. English, for example, is used as a gatekeeper in many societies (Qiang & Wolff, 2005), and languages in the societies where they are used tend to be used for a particular purpose (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). In Guinea-Bissau, for example, Portuguese has been used as a language for academic purposes but not for communicating with friends and family (Benson, 2004).

If speaking a second language and learning one is a political act (Sonntag, 2003), then certainly teaching one is a much stronger political act. Governments make political choices about what languages will be taught as well as how they will be taught (Tollefson, 1991). The

methods or approaches employed in teaching a language are designed to match the established goals, and these goals are made locally. Languages represent speech communities that have complex historical, economic, and political ties to the local community. The politics of the relationships between communities strongly affects teachers. Teachers of a second language are embedded often unwittingly in a quagmire of conflicting local norms regarding the status of the language they are tasked to teach.

More than other school subjects, second languages are taught in a much more diverse range of settings. These include age groups as well as institutional settings. Powerful second languages are often started earlier, with many English nursery schools popping up all over the world taking in children of any age (Pinter, 2017). At the same time, older people also learn second languages for a range of different purposes. Much of the teaching of second languages occurs in the private sector. Private language institutes can cater to locals learning a second exogenous language or non-locals learning an endogenous language or both, and in some parts of the world, these have become the main venue for second language learning. There are sets of beliefs regarding private institutes as they may have different purposes than public schools. Also, because private institutes are typically less regulated, they are thought of differently by the pubic and teachers as well (Heyworth, 2003).

There are many variables that are related to the personal attributes of the second language teacher. Whether the teacher is a native or non-native speaker of the target language or a local or expat is also of importance when thinking about teacher emotion (Arva & Medgyes, 2000). Native speakers of the target language may also be locals, or they may be non-locals. This can affect the way they are treated in the local community as well as how involved they may be in the local community (Cowie, 2011). This can also be heightened by ethnic differences between teachers and stakeholders.

Relevant to second language classrooms is the issue of teacher identity and the fact that L2 teachers have identity issues related to the L2 long before they enter the L2 classroom. The extent to which they associate with the target language (particularly if the target language is an exogenous or low value status one) and/or the local community play an important role in initial identity (Martel & Wang, 2015). The reality is that local teachers are often treated differently than non-local ones. And native-speaking teachers of the target language are also treated differently than non-native-speaking teachers (Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

There may be differences in pay and status that strongly color working environments. They may be asked to teach different types of classes with different goals. In South Korea, as reported in Lee, Schultz, and van Vlack (2017), native English-speaking teachers are generally expected to model language and make language fun, while their Korean counterparts teach grammar and vocabulary geared towards tests. The two types of classes run virtually in parallel with the classes offered by native English-speaking teachers seen as not teaching due to their lack of importance. The credentials of teachers, depending on origin and place of employment, can also vary (Braine, 2010). In government schools, teachers generally require local certification, while this is often not the case in private institutes or for non-local native-speaking teachers. Thus, the setting and contexts on which second language teachers operate are very complex indeed, but it is within these settings that teachers need to operate and with a wide range of beliefs.

There are also strong pedagogical differences regarding the processes of second language learning. This is particularly true of exogenous languages that may come to a new location packaged in an accepted pedagogy. A language like English, for example, is associated with pedagogies developed in inner-circle English-speaking countries (e.g., the communicative approach). But, as has been pointed out (Canagarajah, 1999), this approach does not always fit local traditions or goals. Liu and Xu (2011) look at how EFL teachers in China manage their identities in "the new work order" of teaching, where different pedagogies (liberal−traditional) exist, and report on the considerable stress caused by this. A study by Davidson (2004), comparing EFL assessment in Hong Kong and Australia, reveals stark differences between the approaches and problems encountered in the two locations.

CONCLUSIONS

The way that a teacher deals with her emotions has a very important effect on her overall efficacy and sustainability as a teacher (Meyer & Turner, 2002; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Much of the research on emotional regulation has focused on what transpires in the classroom or school setting in the form of emotional episodes, with the idea that a teacher identity is formed in the classroom (Shapiro, 2010). For L2

teachers, however, identity in relation to the L2 is formed before entering the classroom and affects all experiences. Not unlike a foreigner sojourning in a new environment, L2 teachers are embedded in contexts that interact with their pre-existing identities (Shaules, 2007). Also like sojourners in a new culture, they may not be aware of the causes of this stress. Emotional episodes in the L2 classroom are embedded within a grand scheme of contextual variables that have pre-disposed the teacher towards certain reactions.

The position taken here seeks to underscore the nature of emotional regulation by looking at the greater role of emotion in determining regulatory practices. This approach is driven by the very nature of L2 teaching in that teaching second languages is inherently emotionally bound even before the teacher ever enters the classroom. Teacher training programs for second language teachers, therefore, need to not only address the emotion faced in the heat of emotional episodes, but should, possibly following models of cultural training (Shaules, 2007), address underlying beliefs and identity. As speakers and not just teachers of a language, L2 teachers are particularly vulnerable to emotional incidents in the classroom and should be taught how to deal with these issues effectively through an awareness of the processes of emotional regulation.

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ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Schutz, P. A. (2014). Inquiry on teacher's emotions. *Educational Psychologist*, *49*(1), 1–12.

This paper covers many of the basic issues found in the area of teacher's emotions. It provides some interesting modeling of the ideas, including the contextual settings of teacher emotion.

2. Cowie, N. (2011). Emotions that experienced English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers feel about their students, their colleagues, and their work. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *27*(1), 235–242.

This paper looks at the emotions felt by different native English-speaking teachers in Tokyo. The research finds a series of conflicting emotions related to the students and the larger institutional settings.

3. Golombek, P., & Doran, M. (2014). Unifying cognition, emotion, and activity in language teacher professional development. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, *39*, 102–111.

Using Activity Theory as a theoretical lens, this paper looks at the development of emotion through practice and offers some pertinent suggestions for teacher training.

4. Bower, G. H., & Forgas, J. P. (2000). Affect, memory, and social cognition. In E. Eich, J. F. Kihlstom, G. H. Bower, J. P. Forgas, & P. M. Neidenthal (Eds.), *Cognition and emotion* (pp. 87–168). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

This paper provides an exhaustive and authoritative overview of the phenomenon of emotion as seen though the lens of modern cognitive studies.

Book Reviews

Jack C. Richards' 50 Tips for Teacher Development

Reviewed by Stewart Gray

INTRODUCTION

Jack C. Richards' 50 Tips for Teacher Development is a recent offering from one of the English education industry's most prominent veterans, Jack C. Richards. Anyone unfamiliar with Professor Richards need only refer to the image on the back cover of this slim, new book − a photograph of the author training teachers in Indonesia in 1973! − to get a sense of the extent of his experience. In *50 Tips*, one title of several in the Cambridge Handbooks for Language Teachers series, Richards brings his experience to bear on a topic of pressing significance in our industry today: the professional development of language teachers.

BOOK SUMMARY

The book opens with a brief statement of purpose. The author affirms the importance of ongoing professional development (PD) for teachers in the ever-developing language education industry and points out that his 50 suggested activities can be used by teachers for this purpose. He remarks that some of the activities can be used by individual teachers ("particularly those who a relatively new to language teaching" [p. viii]), while others depend on peer collaboration and institutional cooperation.

After this, the book proceeds uninterrupted through the titular 50 tips

for PD. The structure of the presentation of the tips is constant. Each and every tip occupies two pages. Every two-page tip begins with a short title (e.g., Tip 22 – "Try doing something differently" [p. 49]), which is immediately followed by a sentence of purpose that rephrases and clarifies the title (e.g., "to reflect on teaching by changing the way we usually do things" [p. 49]). This is then followed by a paragraph in which the author further expounds on the significance of the tip in question (e.g., "Much of our teaching is often based on fixed routines..." [p. 49]). Then, for the remaining page and a half or so, the author provides a series of numbered (1, 2, 3...) activities that carefully guide a reader through the implementation of the tip. These numbered activities are written in plain, easy-to-follow language, and for any given tip may

- provide questions to ask when reflecting on or observing something;
- provide statements to spark discussion with others;
- offer detailed instructions for engaging in some activity, such as having a teachers' group meeting (p. 46) or keeping a reflective journal (pp. 17–18);
- offer examples of the sorts of things the reader might like to write or say while engaged in the activity (these examples serve to clarify the sorts of reflection/discussion the author intends for the reader to do); and/or
- outline some relevant point of theory, such as the different types of teacher questions (p. 36).

Then finally, for many but not all of the 50 tips, the author provides a short list of citations and resources for the reader to look up if they should wish to take their reading further.

While all 50 tips are presented in a common format, there is a startling degree of variation in their focus and content. The author has grouped the 50 tips together under a dozen chapter headings according to the area of teacher PD that they relate to. Understandably, the first such area covered in the book involves reflecting on and setting goals for one's own PD. Thereafter, the areas covered range widely, from self-observation, to professional knowledge expansion, to research skills development, to creating an "institutional professional development culture," and more still. As so many disparate areas are covered, the array of particular PD activities for which tips are provided is staggering. In this single book, a reader can find two pages on analyzing the

learning needs of students (Tip 12), two pages on presenting at academic conferences (Tip 46), and two pages on being creative in one's teaching practice (Tip 35). And that is to name just three tips − there are 47 more besides!

EVALUATION

At this point in the review, I must make a confession. Before I had actually read this book, I did not anticipate thinking very highly of it. The idea of a paperback book of tips for teachers seemed to me a rather weak concept in this day and age. After all, speaking as a teacher, if I wanted "tips," I could Google them, and doubtlessly find a plethora of ideas at my convenience. However, having read the book, I will say that I was wrong to presume as I did − I have found this small book to be highly informative and accessible, such that it compares favorably in my mind even to the vast resources of the Internet.

The thing that makes this book so valuable is the sheer density of it. As mentioned previously, the range of tips on offer is enormous, and it would be understandable if such varied tips, each filling only two pages (or in some cases, slightly less!), were individually rather shallow. Particularly, you might well think that somewhat vague-sounding tips such as "Be creative" (Tip 35) could not be well treated in two pages. Yet somehow, the author has managed to do justice to that tip, and others like it. Drawing on his extensive experience and the wider academic literature of our field, he has produced and presented a selection of concise, well-crafted tips that manage to be accessible and practical without sacrificing the sort of detail and theoretical grounding that give them substance.

As I give this praise, I have in mind the following particular qualities of this book: (a) the author's use of clear, instructive language, (b) the inclusion of many high-quality prompts and examples, (c) the inclusion in each tip of *just enough* theory, and of course (d) the admirable concision of offering all this up in two pages or less. To take the very first tip ("Plan goals for professional development" [pp. 2−3]) as an example, one of the author's activities is designed to encourage readers to imagine an ideal future self. In this activity, the author first outlines in a short, clearly written paragraph the importance of having

an ideal future self-image for motivation. In this paragraph, he employs *one* item of jargon ("motivational self-system"), such that an interested reader might go and search about this term to find out more, while an uninterested reader can read on without being stopped dead by heavy theoretical exposition. The author then prompts the reader to "Take some time to think about" their own ideal future self and provides a short list of useful examples as a prompt for this thinking (e.g. "Running a small language school..."). After this list, just to keep things open (thus balancing support with openness), the author briefly reminds the reader that they can "visualize (their) own" ideal if none of his suggestions fit. With this activity duly completed, he follows up perfectly with another in which the reader is prompted to consider how the ideal image they just considered might be achieved by particular PD activities.

There is an appropriateness and an elegance to this activity that I feel is indicative of the author's level of experience. I am left thinking that a teacher at any stage of their career would be able to follow the flow of such activities, and that insight would likely result from doing so. Perhaps it would be a teacher's first time to consider an ideal future self, or perhaps that would be something they had thought of before, but not recently. In either case, a teacher might benefit from the opportunity to consider their goals. Furthermore, such activities could be done individually or could be used as the basis for a productive teachers' PD group meeting. Finally and significantly, the sheer brevity of this (and every) tip means that it is *not especially time-consuming* to read. A busy teacher could read through a tip on their break time, and this is no small benefit, considering how destructive an unending sense of busyness can be to ongoing PD.

So, for teachers new and veteran, and for those responsible for the PD of other teachers, I recommend this book. It is packed with valuable ideas, so numerous and varied that it is hard to imagine a teacher so experienced that they would be unable to find something to inspire them. That said, the book is no mere list of tips – it is a wonderfully concise, step-by-step guide that a teacher could really *use* to further their PD. And though one might search all over the Internet for "teacher professional development tips," one would be unlikely to find such a comprehensive, tightly structured, and actively supportive resource as this book.

THE REVIEWER

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L2 Selves and Motivations in Asian Contents

Reviewed by Tory S. Thorkelson

This volume in the Multilingual Matters' SLA series aims to address a gap in research on motivation in Asian contexts. The collected research studies represent a broad spectrum of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies while attempting to deal with a variety of levels and groups, from primary, secondary, and university students to teachers, and their attitudes about language teaching and learning. Finally, the authors propose an updated motivation model and predictions about research in this area to better encompass the diversity of motivations that the collection of studies represents within the broader realm of English language teaching in Asia. While I am always wary of researchers who propose new or revised models, the arguments put forward *vis a vis* an updated model for motivation within Asian contexts in particular are both convincing and well supported.

First, the editors have done a fairly good job of selecting studies from a much wider cross-section of Asian countries than is typically the case with volumes like this one; these countries include Taiwan, the Philippines, China, Korea, India, and Japan. Further, in chapters 1 and 2, the authors offer critical background and insights into how they selected the incorporated studies and why and how they created their updated model of motivation within L2 contexts. Of particular interest in this regard, are chapter 2, which reviews studies on causal attribution in EFL and ESL contexts in order to propose a revised model, and chapter 13, which covers language learning in Asia with critiques of existing models of motivation as well as predictions for the future.

Second, they balance fairly well the need for both quantitative and

qualitative research (etic and emic, respectively). There is a slightly higher representation of cases studies of various types (chapters 4, 6, 10) and qualitative research (chapters 3, 7) rather than other types of research, but as they say

> ...it is our hope that...bringing together the absolutist and relativist [perspectives] into a single book...[will] encourage readers...to consider motivation from the middle, universalist ground: the etic and emic as two sides of a coin, both...necessary to grasp language learning motivation as a whole of the individual learner within his or her cultural context." (p. 8)

Keeping in mind that "most...studies [of L2 motivation in language learning] take place in WEIRD (Western, educated, industrialized, rich, and democratic) countries...raises the question whether any of the existing theories of motivation apply to 'non-WEIRD' cultural contexts" (p. 2). Their alternative attribution model for independent and interdependent self (pp. 20–22), in response, covers causal attribution in motivation in

> ...both independent and independent modes...[it] starts from an *ontogentic maintenance level* encompassing cultural values, action regulation, and modes of being...followed by the *mesogenetic process level* which explains the response to a particular task or activity, identifying causal ascriptions (self-enhancement or self-critical bias) and causal dimensions.... The microgentic process level lists possible psychological behavioral consequences related to task outcome and persistence or abandonment of the task." (pp. 20–21)

The dynamic nature of the model is more realistic than previous models of motivation and avoids stereotyping by balancing dependence and interdependence as factors influencing motivation while helping to "view cultures and societies on a spectrum, and assum[ing] that causal ascription and dimensions are both affected by and affect culture at the ocogenetic level" (p. 22). As the final two chapters suggest, they are breaking new ground in these areas and addressing the deficiencies in the previous models of motivation as well as addressing the when's, why's, and how's for different groups and regions of Asia.

Third, the book's commentaries on the prevalent theoretical

frameworks are also definitely of interest to educators and educators-to-be in Asia. From a more academic perspective on L2 motivation per se, scholars will appreciate the concluding chapter in which the editors address the applicability of motivation theories that originate in Europe or North America within Asian contexts. They offer an engaging overview and critique of the major frameworks (complex dynamic systems theory, self-determination theory, Gardner's socio-education model, and Dörnyei's L2 motivational self-system, for example) and assess the strengths and weaknesses of each model's relevance through the lens of the researcher as well as the students. For example, the editors call into question the relevance of the *ideal L2 self*, the aspirational motivator in Dörnyei's framework, pointing out that since the native speaker–non-native speaker false dichotomy is accepted and reinforced in certain Asian contexts, students might define an ideal L2 user as a native speaker, a target often too distant and unrealistic to be motivating for those directly involved in learning English as a second or foreign language.

In summary, Asia is "where the vast majority of the world's L2 learners and L2 teachers live" (p. 228), and from India to Taiwan, primary to tertiary, critical discourse to complex dynamic systems, the book offers a valuable panacea of L2 motivation research in the Asia region that has been sadly lacking to date. However, the very diversity of the various age groups, target languages, theoretical frameworks, and methodological approaches could discourage readers from putting the information provided in perspective and combining findings across chapters. Apart from all being conducted in Asia, this compilation could benefit from a more explicit theoretical framework that more clearly links the chapters and research conducted together into a whole. Nonetheless, the book accomplishes the editors' objective of presenting diverse yet grounded perspectives on L2 learning and motivation within Asian contexts. Educators, teachers in training, and researchers will find much to consider as well as valuable and practical lessons to be learned from this collection of research studies along with the thought-provoking background and analysis provided at the beginning and at the end of the book by the volume's editors.

THE REVIEWER

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