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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 English language teaching (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 had its beginnings in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) and the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE) agreed to unite. 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 is also associated with MELTA (Malaysian English Language Teaching Association), TEFLIN (Indonesia), CamTESOL (Cambodia), ELTAM/Mongolia TESOL, MAAL (Macau), HAAL (Hong Kong), ELTAI (India), and most recently with BELTA (Bangladesh English Language Teachers Association. Korea TESOL also has partnership arrangements with numerous domestic ELT associations.

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, materials writers, curriculum developers, and other interested individuals.

Korea TESOL has nine active chapters throughout the nation: 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) – e.g., Reflective Practice, Social Justice, Christian Teachers, Research, Women and Gender Equality, People-of-Color Teachers – which hold their own meetings and events.



Visit <https://koreatesol.org/join-kotesol> for membership information.

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Korea TESOL Journal

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. The Journal aims to support all scholars by welcoming research from early-career researchers to senior academics.

Areas of interest include, but are by no means limited to, the following:

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Invited Paper

Emotionally Oriented Approaches to Game-Based Learning

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Emotions are increasingly understood to play a crucial role in learning. We often associate games with action and adrenaline; games also recruit feelings associated with accomplishment, exploration, and social bonding. Educators should be mindful of negative themes associated with games, particularly emphases on violence, domination, or misogynistic attitudes toward women, but closer inspection of even problematic titles reveals a complex reality in which players may infer from game experiences pro-social lessons. Analyses of game play during the COVID-19 pandemic reveal that youth also play games for a sense of progress and achievement, emotional soothing, social communication, and exploration. Second language educators tap into these same emotional drives with games, either through redesigning curricular experiences or integrating game technologies. Reflecting on two years of online, hybrid, and blended education reveals how much existing technologies reinforce predominant classroom patterns, and how far e-learning technologies have to go before they leverage games' capacity for clear goals, feedback, and personalized progress, as well as a sense of emotional connection, place, exploration, or play. As big technology companies promote a new wave of virtual and augmented reality technologies (currently packaged as "The Metaverse"), educators may benefit from looking past technological affordances and for the emotional experiences that we see missing in current learning technologies.

Keywords: games, learning, pandemic, COVID-19, *Minecraft*, second language acquisition

INTRODUCTION

Emotions, once thought to be largely orthogonal to learning, are now

understood to be central to how we perceive, process, and make use of experiences, including new information (Davidson & Begley, 2012; Pekrun, 2014). The specific mechanisms by which emotions affect learning are only beginning to be understood, however, and not even a perfect mapping of the neurological mechanisms of learning would necessarily tell us how to teach (Hinton et al., 2008); for example, low levels of cortisol, induced by stress, can improve learning, but that does not suggest that we frighten children first thing each morning (de Kloet et al., 1999; LeDoux, 1996). Rather, as educators and instructional designers, we are wise to attend to the emotional dynamics of learning situations and leverage emerging understandings. This paper synthesizes emerging findings from emotions, games, and learning to suggest implications for teachers of English as a second language.

Writing in early 2022, three themes pertaining to games and learning beg consideration: (a) the (at times) negative influence of games and game culture on global events, particularly the rise of extremism, (b) the ongoing pandemic from the COVID-19 virus, the educational inequities and challenges to our current educational system that it has revealed, and (c) the stark contrast between pedagogical models employed by schools and through games (see Squire, 2021). Analyzing youth deployment of games during the pandemic reveals lessons for language educators for how we use technology to promote progress, emotional safety, a sense of place, and exploration.

AN EMOTIONAL RECKONING FOR GAMES

Games in Light of Extremism

The last five years have challenged games and learning researchers. A series of events (Gamergate, Christchurch shooting, QAnon, vaccine denialism, a global rise of right-wing extremism) have games researchers re-examining the role games and game culture contribute to the current state of affairs (Beram, 2019; Lavin, 2020). The cultivation of young males by the alt-right toward extremist and fascist political ideologies has driven game scholars to re-evaluate the impact of games and game culture on society at large (Wells et al., in review). Violent and misogynist language continues to thrive over mainstream game services

such as Xbox Live and PlayStation Plus and is an accepted feature of Riot's commercially successful titles (*League of Legends* and *Valorant*), so many players are resigned to accepting trash talking and disruptive or abusive behavior as normal (Gray, 2016). Revisiting Gamergate from 2022, one is reminded of how even the most basic critiques of game tropes (e.g., Sarkeesian & Cross, 2015) were met by violent, systematic harassment (Braithwaite, 2016). Indeed, speech such as violent threats has become sufficiently normalized among game discourses that they fail to even regard it as problematic (Beram, 2019). However, games culture constitutes a portion of contemporary popular culture, and as such, the issues and themes playing out in games culture reflect those playing out in the culture at large. Similar themes emerge across society with blatant, even proudly misogynistic, authoritarian, and systemically racist values thriving in portions of athletics or other media discourse (see Kavanaugh et al., 2019, for an example in women's tennis). Primal emotional responses such as anger (even expressed as violence) and second order responses such as resentment may be fueled within corners of game discourse (particularly as cultivated by right-wing extremists, see Lavin, 2020), but they are also well documented among older rural voters (for example, see Cramer, 2016), which reflects their roots in broader social and economic patterns.

Analysis of emotional reactions to game experiences reveals that the ways in which emotions are produced through games are complex and not wholly determined by the game as a media property itself. To take *Civilization* as an example, the emotional experience of game play is a constituent component, but experience depends on players' goals, values, and prior experiences. Critics of the *Civilization* series have argued that its game play model based on expansion and conquest (particularly of native peoples) in the name of "civilization" is problematic, if not offensive (Pullen, 2018; Smith, 2018), whereas other historians have noted that depicting world history as a story of materialist progress is preferable to competing models such as the "great man" or "triumph of western civilization" approaches (McCall, 2012). Because *Civilization*, as a simulation, privileges access to material resources, investments in science and technology, strategic alignment of resources and social policy, and access to trade and political networks, exposing students to its historical depiction is like exposing them to a Marxist-materialist view. Emotional reactions to this depiction may vary from identification with a critical read of history to anger over imperialism packaged as

entertainment.

Empirical study of player experience reveals that meaning-making within a game is complex. One student I studied, Marvin, oriented to the game as an expansion/conquest game, and after several rounds of defeat, declared the lesson he learned from *Civilization* was that “War always leads to destruction and lost armies” and that, with respect to the United States, “If you become strongest nation out there ... there should always be peace.” Marvin treated *Civilization* as an expansionist simulator and concluded as a result that imperialism was immoral (Squire, 2005). Other students who turned the game into a reverse colonialist simulation, exploring under what conditions Africans or Native Americans may have conquered Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries. They concluded that imperial conquest was partially the result of global materialist conditions, although many students were reticent to abandon theories that Europeans were possibly morally inferior. The political views and values of *Civilization* players as a population have not been studied systematically, but analyses of game communities reveal that gamers hold a host of political positions, which again relate to personal beliefs and values, lived experience and history (including cultures and nations of origin), reasons for playing the game, and interpretations of game events (Squire & Giovanetto, 2005).

This object lesson of *Civilization* reminds us that as representations, media are historically situated and demand interrogation; what players do with games is at least as important as the game itself. Players can, and will, read different experiences into a game. Whether or not a game such as *Civilization* should be used in classrooms is a question with no simple answer. Should *our* emotional responses to colonialism preclude us from presenting the issues in an interactive system? Should distaste over “colonialism in a game” mean that it cannot be portrayed in an interactive system, or perhaps worse, it *can* be represented, but just in a boring way? Better questions are how are these issues presented, what is the impact of the media on those who experience it, and what kinds of experiences might it be replacing? Non-expansionist, non-colonialist, or otherwise sustainable interpretations of history would most certainly be valuable.

Having acknowledged that the process of extracting design lessons from games can be problematic, but also that researchers should account for the context of meaning-making in addition to the media itself, we turn toward more contemporary lessons from games, particularly, how

they have been used by players for forms of emotional regulation during the pandemic, and then, what lessons this may have toward learning.

GAMES AS EMOTIONALLY SOOTHING DURING TROUBLED TIMES

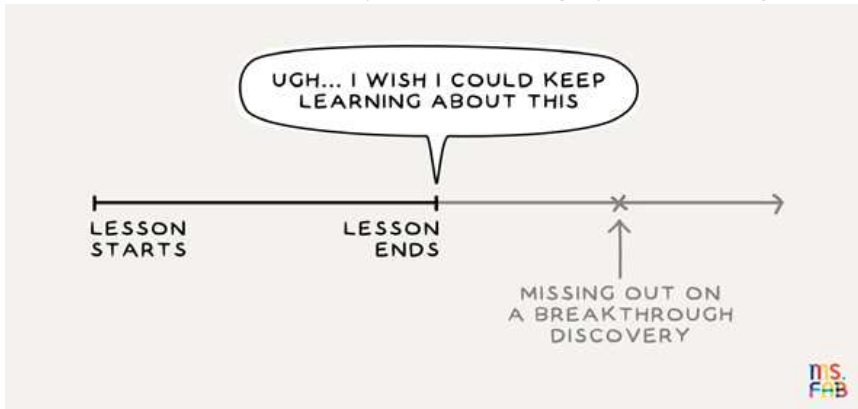
Foregrounding the traumatic nature of recent geopolitical events masks more commonplace gaming experiences that belie their continued social and cultural import. During the pandemic, games have fulfilled a variety of functions that are instructive for educators and instructional designers. This paper draws from a broader literature review on games, cognition, and wellbeing (Wells et al., in preparation), analyses of game play during the pandemic (Squire, 2021), and focuses on four qualities of games with importance for second language learning: promoting a sense of progress, soothing through coziness, giving people a place to go, and exploring the world.

Promoting a Sense of Progress, or “Dopamine Through Progress Quest”

A hallmark of games is that they establish clear goals, give players feedback on their progress toward goals, and enable constant progress toward more satisfying goals. Perhaps not surprisingly, games such as *World of Warcraft*, which provides an artificial sense of progress through the gridding of levels, experienced a resurgence during the pandemic. In a time in which one day seemed to bleed into another, people sought out experiences of joy through progress. Neuroscientists have long understood that this cycle of setting and achieving goals is rewarded within the brain through increases in dopamine levels, which is also important to the formation of memory (Wise, 2004). Issues arise *if* players seek dopamine highs through games instead of in “real” life, but a second question for educators has been “Can educators leverage these same dopamine reward cycles that games do?” As Gee (2004) described, a hallmark of games is that achievement is not held constant. Players are free to tackle as many challenges as they want, as often as they want without penalty. Indeed, designers hope that players will be so compelled by challenges that they continue playing their games.

Regardless of whether educators embrace fully interactive games in their instruction, evidence suggests that employing an open “gamified” approach to instruction whereby content is presented as a series of challenges and students are free to *progress* through content at their own pace can be effective (Aguilar et al., 2018). Within language instruction, Duolingo is perhaps the best example of this principle. In fact, Duolingo saw dramatic increases in usage during the pandemic, as people looked for constructive uses of free time, and perhaps a sense of progress (*Changes in Duolingo ...*, 2020). An implication of games for learning during a pandemic is that people desire opportunities to set and achieve goals wherein time is not held constant, and they can progress as quickly as they want. In formal learning systems, everyone proceeds at the same pace, so that a student is not able to go beyond what is presented, explore new areas, specialize their expertise, and develop a unique identity within a domain. Identifying opportunities in the curriculum for students to progress beyond what is presented is a hallmark of games learning, and indeed, in the *Civilization* curriculum, students self-organized into their own sense of expertise (Squire et al., 2008). This same principle is being advertised as central to the new Synthesis learning system started by Elon Musk and colleagues at SpaceX (see Figure 1). Synthesis offers a series of “competitive simulations” (i.e., games) that purport to raise student interest and then support learning in complex domains through problem-centered learning curricula.

FIGURE 1. Advertisement for Synthesis Learning Systems (Fabrega, 2021)



Note. Used under academic fair use.

Emotional Soothing with Cozy Games

We most often associate games with visceral emotional responses such as adrenaline-fueled rushes or excited states in which the sympathetic nervous system has been triggered so that the body is alert and ready for action. Games *do* do this, but a whole family of games has emerged that seek to offer “cozy” feelings of comfort, reassurance, or safety, perhaps engaging the parasympathetic nervous system (Short et al., 2017). Games such as *Farmville*, *Animal Crossing*, *Harvest Moon*, and even *Hearthstone* employ warm colors, texture, and evoke feelings of safety, nurturing, and coziness. Also perhaps not surprisingly, *Animal Crossing: New Horizons* was an early pandemic breakout hit, as people sought out a place of refuge during times of crisis. Games such as *Animal Crossing* provide self-contained worlds for gamers to inhabit and that they can exercise a degree of control over. *Animal Crossing*, like many games of the genre, employs main verbs of “grow, nurture, share, or explore,” all in worlds that are relatively safe and free from conflict. If games have generated criticism for offering experiences characterized by toxic interaction, they also should be noted for creating life-affirming worlds built around care and nurturing. Of course, much as one might play “counter” to *Civilization’s* themes of conquest, plenty of players trash stuff in *Animal Crossing*.

Cozy games such as *Animal Crossing*, particularly when played in a secondary language, offer an intriguing context for language practice. Playing a game in a second language for safe practice exemplifies a typical use of secondary language learning video games “in the wild.” Much as an earlier generation learned a second language (partially) through books or television programs, the most recent generation has played video games with either the explicit goal of improving second language (L2) skills or has developed second language skills so that they could enjoy media properties (d’Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999; Fernandez, 2009). To test this hypothesis, Jensen (2017) studied over 100 young Danish English language learners and found that time spent gaming, watching television, and listening to music in English (outside of formal instruction) led to higher vocabulary scores, particularly among boys. These results, and increasingly life experiences, have led developers of games for learning to wonder if language learning games might intentionally help students develop L2 skills, and games like *Animal Crossing* are hypothesized to be the perfect context because they

support and enable the use of language in context (Gee, 2004). Underlying this interest in games is a tacit understanding that games provide extra exposure and perhaps repetitive practice, so that the compelling components of games that keep us returning to them are employed toward pro-social ends.

Emotionally Safe Places to Learn and Play: Discord and *Minecraft*

During much of the COVID pandemic, educators (particularly K–12) have functioned as frontline workers who are responsible for identifying and supporting emotionally troubled youth, and radically reinventing their work on an ongoing basis (Beames et al., 2021). COVID highlighted for many the emotional work that goes into teaching, which includes exhibiting compassion, comforting students, and nurturing through problematic behaviors (de Ruiter et al., 2021). Part of this emotional work can be creating a sense of community, place, and belonging. Note how teachers describe their classes as places students *go*, for example, “when students *come* to my class” or “*in* my class, we ...” Classes are, for many teachers, places that they construct with their own sub-cultures, mores, and expectations of behavior. The pandemic reduced many classes to a list of online assignments and videos, with little *place* or interaction. Online classroom management systems limit student–student and teacher–student interaction, particularly through not enabling social co-presence outside of Zoom. As a result, ways to engage in informal social grooming were limited, and so were social bonds among participants (Squire, 2021). Whereas outside of class, students used a variety of tools (particularly Instagram and Discord) to create co-presence and support social bonds (Takano, 2018), participation in online classes was described by most people as hollow or shallow.

The pandemic has renewed questions of how to support hybrid learning environments in which students can communicate inside and outside of official class time and physical space. Big technology is converging on the metaverse as a solution to this problem, which educators may recognize as Second Life 2.0. Before we race to embrace a metaverse, we might recognize that *Minecraft* (and also *Roblox*) already serves many of these functions for students. Students use *Minecraft*, the 21st century playground (or more appropriately the empty lot, the woods behind the house, or the cave on the edge of town), to hangout, explore, create, and share. During the pandemic, as physical

playgrounds closed, *Minecraft* servers boomed. Students from Japan to UC-Berkeley created virtual campuses for holding graduation ceremonies. To be sure, ceremonies such as UC-Berkeley's live ceremony in *Minecraft* that featured the university's chancellor were relatively rare. It highlights how traditional e-learning technologies failed to meet these needs, how well adapted *Minecraft* was for this purpose, but yet how students were able to also commandeer these technologies to meet their needs.

Second language teachers interested in creating a hybrid learning space might consider *Minecraft* and Discord (particularly as alternatives to the metaverse). One teacher, Glen Irvin in Wabasha-Kellogg High School in Minnesota, created an online classroom and curriculum based on *Minecraft* for his Spanish language classroom (Irvin, 2017). Irvin reported increases in student engagement, successful completion of assignments, and communication skills. Irvin quotes a student telling an administrator, "It's the closest thing to being dropped in a country where everyone speaks Spanish." Part of Irvin's success in employing *Minecraft* for second language appears to be that he is using it to create a sense of *place* where students *go* with the expectation that they will employ second language skills.

Exploration: *Pokémon Go*

Stuck in our offices and bedrooms during the pandemic left few opportunities for exploration and informal socializing, which draws attention to how little exploration and informal socializing occurs in traditional classrooms. We rarely leave class outside of the occasional field trip, nature preserves are rarely integrated into science, neighborhoods are rarely tied to local history, and ethnic communities are rarely a part of the curriculum (Squire et al., 2007). Classrooms are largely shut-off from outside social processes so that the teacher is usually the sole provider of information, feedback, and evaluation. Closing physical schools during COVID did almost nothing to change this pattern.

Augmented reality games such as *Pokémon Go* offer a compelling instructional model for language teachers who hope to engage students in learning in places outside of the classroom. *Pokémon Go* is the mobile phone game in which students physically explore neighborhoods to catch virtual Pokémon and compete over the control of physical territory

through Pokémon Gyms. *Pokémon Go* has been researched extensively and shown to lead to increased physical activity, improved social connection, and feelings of connection (Khamzina et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021). Could a game like *Pokémon Go* be used to encourage second language learners to explore environments in which second languages are spoken and incentivize learners to communicate in second languages?

Julie Sykes and Christopher Holden created *Mentira*, a second language mobile learning game based in Albuquerque, New Mexico to encourage Spanish language learners to get out of the classroom and use Spanish. Instead of Pokémon Gyms, *Mentira* featured an interactive narrative set in local neighborhoods, so that they were encouraged to go into local stores, talk with merchants, and engage with Spanish-speaking people. Although *Mentira* was developed for iPhones, one could also create a similar language game using simply quests written with pencil and paper.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has argued for four uses of games in the second language learning classroom, connected to emotional experiences that they can provide. The paper begins by recognizing that building learning environments based on the emotional experiences from games is not without its challenges. Events occurring between 2017 and 2022 have game-based educators re-examining instructional approaches based on games. While interrogating the representational forms of games is worthwhile, we should also be mindful that it is how they are experienced and interpreted by players that matters; while all media affords interpretive flexibility, games are particularly malleable based on what we do with them.

Examining games during this same period suggests that if games have been (at times) part of the problem, they also point toward solutions. Games offer models for (a) giving learners a sense of progress, leading to dopamine rewards, (b) emotional soothing using coziness design principles, (c) creating hybridized places for learning, and (d) enabling models of exploration (physical and social). Many educators (particularly second language educators) already consider many of these factors and employ tools toward these ends. In this paper, I've suggested how tools that include foreign language practice software (i.e., Duolingo,

Animal Crossing, *Minecraft*) or place-based games such as *Pokémon Go* might also be used for learning. However, good paper-and-pencil adaptations of these principles also exist so that second language educators might re-examine their curricula in light of these principles to identify ways that their curricula might be enhanced.

COVID-19 forced educators to quickly adapt their teaching practices. Unfortunately, COVID-19 will likely not disappear entirely for months, if not decades. Periodic times of hybridized learning may become routine. Educators might, over time, look to these periods of quarantine as opportunities to try new learning experiences, such as creating a second language world in *Minecraft*. Such tools appear likely to proliferate as big technology companies invest in virtual reality, the metaverse, or other game-based approaches, and it will increasingly fall on educators to discern carefully how they might be employed to best support learning.

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Research Papers

Academic Sojourners: Promises and Pitfalls for Chinese TESOL Graduate Students in Korea

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In today's globalized economy, a growing number of students take graduate degrees in TESOL abroad. Specifically, a large plurality of these students are from China, and many of them are studying in Korea, where they make a vast majority of the international student population. As academic sojourners in Korea, these Chinese students face dual challenges caused by different cultures in Western-focused TESOL graduate programs and the Korean society in general. Their struggles, haunting them all through the sojourn, however, are often neglected. Thus, TESOL graduate programs in Korea face unique obligations in addressing the struggles and needs of these Chinese academic sojourners. By investigating the sojourn experience of twelve Chinese graduates from the TESOL program at a mid-sized Korean university through qualitative analysis, this study aims to shed light on their cultural and academic challenges as well as needs. The following suggestions for TESOL curricular reform in Korea are offered: fostering cultural ability among faculty, staff, and students; incorporating innovative and extra-curricular bilingual training; providing additional academic support; and building an active community of learners to promote cooperation among sojourners, local Koreans, and expatriates.

Keywords: Chinese non-native academic sojourners, expanding circle country, TESOL graduate program administration

INTRODUCTION

Within TESOL programs, non-native academic sojourners (NNASs) are a mainstay of the student population with growing numbers from all

over the world. Researchers have been exploring the challenges faced by NNASs in TESOL, specifically identifying issues including language deficiencies (Phakiti & Li, 2001), interaction with NS/local students (Liu, 1998), cultural issues (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; J. Liu, 1999), academic difficulties (Carrier, 2003), and identity confusion (Ilieva, 2010), among others. However, there are two gaps in the existing literature. First, popular studies (Liu, 1998; Pavlenko, 2003; Phakiti & Li, 2011) treat NNASs in TESOL programs from different countries as if they were a homogenous group. However, their differences should not be neglected, since they come from distinct social and cultural backgrounds with widely varying language proficiency, academic backgrounds, and self-perceptions. The non-differentiated treatment of NNASs commonly adopted in TESOL is one-sided and far from enough to meet the diversified needs of NNASs, which calls for more targeted study. Second, previous studies (Faez & Karas, 2019; Ilieva, 2010; Inoue & Stracke, 2013) have concentrated solely on NNASs enrolled in TESOL programs in inner circle countries, especially those from North American, British, and Australian universities. Little research has explored the experiences of the rapidly growing number of NNASs in TESOL programs in expanding circle countries.

Compared with TESOL programs in the core or inner circle countries, TESOL programs in an expanding circle country play a unique role in addressing the challenges of NNASs for the following two reasons. First, there is a need for NNASs to have flexibility in adjusting to their first (native) culture, the second culture in Western-based TESOL programs in microscopic scale, and the third culture in the social context in macroscopic scale. Second, there is a requirement for NNASs to have flexibility in balancing between the need for improvement of the second language commonly used in Western-based TESOL programs and the third language adopted in the social context at the same time. More research is needed to demonstrate the diverse challenges NNASs meet in expanding circle countries.

As a typical expanding circle country, it is estimated that 68,184 Chinese students were studying in Korea in 2017 (Kennedy, 2018). The many students studying abroad will result in some growing pains (Oberg, 1960), yet little research has been conducted on Chinese students in Korea, particularly on those studying in TESOL graduate programs. To that end, this study seeks to explore the lived experiences of 12 Chinese students in one of the TESOL graduate programs in Korea in order to

demonstrate their challenges and needs during their sojourn, and thus shed light on the commonly neglected domain in TESOL education and research, that is, NNASs in expanding circle countries. As the study progressed, two critical research questions emerged:

- RQ1. What cultural challenges do Chinese NNASs experience and how to address them?
- RQ2. What academic challenges do Chinese NNASs face and how to address them?

LITERATURE REVIEW

World Englishes

The end of the 20th century saw two tectonic paradigm shifts in understanding of the English language. On the one hand, there was a rapid decline in native speaker bias, as the legitimacy of World Englishes was ascendant in English language education. Bolton (2006) believes that World Englishes “functions as an umbrella label referring to a wide range of differing approaches to the description and analysis of English(es) worldwide.” Norton (1997) contends that “English belongs to the people who speak it, whether native or nonnative, whether ESL or EFL, whether standard or nonstandard” (p. 427). On the other hand, there is a further division in World Englishes. Kachru (1992) separates Englishes into three different, yet interdependent circles: the inner, the outer, and the expanding circle countries. In the inner circle countries, like the UK, English is the mother tongue. In the outer circle countries, predominantly postcolonial countries, English remains an official language. In the expanding circle countries, English plays no historical or governmental role but is nevertheless afforded a special place as a primary foreign language like in Korea and China. We argue that these two paradigm shifts have empowered NNASs in TESOL, since the prohibitively expensive inner circle TESOL programs are no longer their sole option, and even expanding circle programs are increasingly viable. However, while viable, such programs are new, and thus little research has explored the repercussions of such programs within the field or on the students within those programs.

Academic Sojourners

The literature in the field of international studies is awash with terms to describe the students: student sojourners (Anderson et al., 2016), international, foreign, and overseas students (Schartner & Young, 2015), and others. Bochner (2003) defines sojourners as “culture travelers, indicating that they are temporary visitors intending to return home after achieving their aims” (p. 3). Ward et al. (2005) further note that international student sojourners “mostly originate from less developed countries and sojourn in the industrialized world” (p. 142). Sato and Hodge (2015) add that during their travels, sojourners “are often positioned as outsiders and marginalized, and their sojourn is typified by a pattern of accommodation isolation and non-assimilation” (p. 79). Finally, while international students are required to demonstrate proficiency in the language of instruction, the vast majority of academic sojourners are non-native speakers who embark on their sojourn, in part at least, for “the opportunity to learn about and in English” (Maringe & Jenkins, 2015, p. 610), or the language of the country. Moreover, we uncovered no major studies into the lived experience of sojourners studying in English-medium programs in non-English-speaking countries. Thus, we have selected the term *non-native academic sojourner* (NNAS) for the primary participants to emphasize three things: their “dual non-nativeness” in both Korean and English, their academic motivations for sojourning, and the brevity of their planned stay abroad.

Chinese Non-native Academic Sojourners in Korea

Three aspects of Chinese NNASs’ status in Korea further illuminate the importance of this research: the predominance of Chinese students in Korea, their motivation for selecting Korea, and the role of languages in their study. Firstly, it is estimated that 68,184 Chinese students were studying in Korea in 2017 (Kennedy, 2018), accounting for almost half of the international students in Korea and that number will continue to grow. Secondly, popularity of Korean dramas and K-pop in China, relatively affordable tuition in Korea, the chance to study at a “better” university, and the geographic proximity to China are major motivational factors for Chinese NNASs (Betts, 2017). Thirdly, English-medium instruction (EMI) at universities around the world is a growing trend

(Macaro et al., 2018). Regarding the role of languages within Korean EMI, languages – with emphasis on the multiple languages involved – have paradoxical implications for Chinese NNASs. While “many Chinese students want to get their degree in South Korea and need to learn the language” (Betts, 2017), the growing presence and popularity of EMI degree programs means that Chinese NNASs need to learn or improve two different languages for widely different purposes: academic and technical English for their coursework and survival Korean for daily life. These divergent language needs make a Korean college education much more complicated for Chinese students.

With the increasing international student population, cultural strife and mismanagement associated with international students in Korea also rise (Bae, 2015; Borowiec, 2017; R. Lee, 2012; W. Lee, 2011; Shin & Moon, 2015; Williams, 2015). Typical issues found include admitting ineligible students through improper procedures, a lack of cross-cultural interaction, difficulties with food and socialization, and a high rate of students illegally staying in Korea. A few, but growing in number, academic studies explore NNASs in Korea. Kim et al. (2014) point to NNASs’ frustration with the Korean and English languages, and general lack of interaction in the academic and social communities. More ominously, J. Lee et al. (2017) find “neo-racism and neo-nationalism” and a wide variety of discriminatory acts revealing “anti-Chinese sentiments” (p. 116). To date, we find no studies specifically focused on Chinese NNASs in TESOL graduate programs in Korea and, therefore, undertake this study.

METHOD

This qualitative study combines descriptive statistics and grounded theory methodology, and follows the recommendations of Creswell (2008) for qualitative research and of Charmaz (2006) for grounded theory techniques. All institutional ethical requirements were met including informed consent and confidentiality procedures.

Setting and Participants

The study was conducted at a mid-range, moderately sized university in central Korea. The TESOL graduate program was an early adopter of

EMI methodology starting nearly 20 years ago. The program consists of three noticeably distinct populations. One group is Korean English teachers (KETs), that is, Korean nationality full-time English language teachers. The second group is expatriate English teachers (EETs), they are native speakers of English from Kachru’s inner circle countries who work as full-time instructors of English. The informants in this study are the third group, the full-time international students from other expanding circle countries (NNASSs).

Specifically, the participants are 12 Chinese students who recently completed the program, graduated, and returned to China: two male respondents and ten female respondents, which reflects the gender imbalance in the program. The participant names are pseudonyms (see Table 1) selected to reflect the gender of the participants.

TABLE 1. Demographic Information on Participants

Pseudonym	Gender	Length of Stay in Korea	English Level (L/M/H)	Interviewed
Xiao Ran	Female	Two years	M	yes
Wang Ting	Female	Five years	H	yes
Hai Yan	Female	Two years	M	no
Xu Fang	Female	Two years	H	no
Wen Jun	Female	Two years	M	no
Tian Jin	Female	Two years	M	no
Xue Yi	Female	Two years	M	no
Mo Yan	Female	Two years	H	no
Cao Hui	Female	Two years	M	no
Zhao Rui	Female	Two years	M	no
Zhang Weidong	Male	Two years	L	no
Song Xingliang	Male	Two years	L	yes

Three participants volunteered for the interview: Ms. Xiao, Ms. Wang, and Mr. Song. Ms. Xiao was in her early twenties and had just graduated from a university in China with no teaching or work experience. She did not speak English very well and could not speak Korea at all. Ms. Wang was in her mid-20s. She had been residing in Korea for three years before she took the TESOL course and was a fluent speaker of English and Korean. At the time of the interview, Ms.

Wang was completing a PhD while working as an assistant to the dean of international affairs at the same university. Mr. Song was in his mid-30s. He had worked as an English teacher at a Chinese university for four years before he came to Korea. He could speak neither Korea nor English well, but his years of work experience were compensatory in a professional sense.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected via questionnaire and individual interviews. Because most participants had returned to China, the questionnaires (see Appendix A) were administered via email, giving all participants ample time to consider their responses. While the questionnaire was written in Chinese and English, all participants responded in Chinese. The general situation of Chinese NNASs' sojourn experience in the TESOL program in Korea was identified through questionnaire analysis. After that, more detailed information regarding their sojourn experience was identified through individual interviews (see Appendix B). The interviews were semi-structured to encourage participants' freedom of expression while retaining researcher guidance. The interviews of Ms. Xiao and Ms. Wang were conducted face-to-face while the interview of Mr. Song was done online via QQ, a popular Chinese internet chat program. Each interview was conducted in a mix of Chinese and English for approximately an hour and audio-recorded with permission. Analysis of the interview data was done in recursive stages as suggested by Charmaz (2006), including initial coding, focused coding, and then axial coding procedures from which the theoretical codes of the propositions were ultimately derived. Finally, these theoretical codes and relevant audio segments were translated and transcribed by the primary researcher who then conducted member checks with the interviewees on these coded features before the final results were summarized and reported.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Challenges Experienced by Chinese NNASs

Regarding problems Chinese NNASs met during their sojourn in Korea, the most striking data point was that all of them expressed

feelings of chaos and a sense of confusion – even depression – feeling incapable of adjusting to their new life as an academic sojourner. Then they were asked to clarify reasons for their confusion or depression. All participants indicated difficulty with cultural adjustment and academic study, 25% worried about financial issues, and 17% mentioned other problems such as weather, diet, and loneliness (see Table 2). The most common problems these Chinese NNASs noted were cultural and academic ones; as other issues were much less of a concern, they were disregarded.

TABLE 2. Problems Met During the Academic Sojourn

Type	Percent Indicating the Presence of This Problem
Cultural	100%
Academic	100%
Financial	25%
Other	17%

Cultural Challenges Experienced by Chinese NNASs

Regarding cultural problems Chinese NNASs experienced during their sojourn in Korea, all respondents indicated that they had a hard time adjusting to the Western teaching culture in the program, 75% experienced conflicts between Korean and Chinese culture in day-to-day social contact, and 58% also faced problems in their interactions with local Koreans in the TESOL program (see Table 3). Differences between Chinese and Western educational cultures and differences between Chinese and Korean social cultures were the most common challenges among these Chinese NNASs, followed by differences between Chinese and Korean educational cultures.

TABLE 3. Locus of Cross-Cultural Problems Met During the Academic Sojourn

Place of Conflict	Percent Indicating the Presence of This Problem
Chinese vs. Western (at the program level)	100%
Chinese vs. Korean (at the social level)	75%
Chinese vs. Korean (at the program level)	58%

Loci of Cross-Cultural Difficulties

These Chinese NNAs are preparing for roles as “cultural workers” as Giroux (2005) and Duff and Uchida (1997) elaborate. The situations they experience will, in turn, affect their capacity as cultural workers as will their perspectives on the differences between cultures. The first location of conflict is between the Chinese and Western pedagogical cultures at the program level, as Ms. Wang explained:

Some Chinese instructors are more like baby sitters who tell you almost everything you need to do. You just need to follow their directions. But here, our Westerner professors are more like a friend who respect your liberty and freedom. They listen to your opinions and share theirs with you, but they never babysit you. You have to be the one in charge. It felt like that freedom came too suddenly, and I did not know what to do at all.

Interestingly, Ms. Wang’s response is filled with metaphorical references and loaded words that internally reflect how cross-cultural difficulties at the program level become embedded in Chinese NNAs’ understanding. Importantly, Ms. Wang sees both sides of the cultural divide as having positive and negative elements. Her Chinese professors provide clarity and precision, which can, unfortunately, devolve into “babysitting.” While the Western professors positively offer “liberty and freedom,” that freedom negatively “came too suddenly,” leaving her frustrated and unable to know “what to do at all.” This ability to see both sides of the divide shows that Ms. Wang is reaching toward the fourth stage of Oberg’s (1960) cultural adaptation, that is, complete culture adjustment since she “accepts the customs of a country as just another way of living” (p. 178).

Not just Western professors’ different teaching style is challenging to those Chinese NNAs, one more aspect, which Ms. Xiao mentioned, is that challenges from their native-speaking classmates (EETs) are also not negligible.

In Chinese classroom situation, teachers are generally regarded as authority and students just follow their guidance without questioning or disagreements. However, here in TESOL, the native-speaking students will discuss even argue with our professors about certain

part of the teaching. They are not afraid to challenge the authority of the professors and they are very confident to show their different opinions.

EETs dare to express and are better at expressing their own views and opinions, which is invisible pressure and learning-related culture shock for Chinese students who are always afraid of making their teachers, classmates, or themselves lose face.

The pedagogical culture differences between China and Western-focused TESOL programs in Korea were commonly addressed by the participants. However, only Mr. Song revealed the reasons behind them during the interview:

Teaching in China is still teacher-dominated due to the very large class size there, commonly with fifty or even more students in the same class. The free interaction atmosphere adopted here in our program is more suitable for a small class but it would be unimaginable or chaos if adopted in large class in China.

Even though these interviewees analyze the same problem from different angles, they were unanimous in their perception that a different teaching style and the teacher–student dynamic in the Western-based TESOL program was the first major cultural challenge for those Chinese NNASs.

Furthermore, the difference between Korean culture and Chinese culture at the social level highlights another major locus of cross-cultural difficulties. This was revealed in Ms. Xiao’s description of adapting to daily life in Korea:

Before I came to Korea, I thought Korea and China share so many things in common, so there would not be many big differences. But I was wrong. Korea is different from China in every possible way, from food to lifestyle. Everything is different from China. For example, kimchi with every meal, the popular drinking culture, slippers everywhere, age-telling whenever you are introduced, never eating alone, and on and on. As a Chinese, it is very stressful to figure everything out and adjust to it.

Ms. Xiao’s comment was more focused on cultural differences in daily life in Korea. Indeed, her story reflects the “genuine difficulty,

which the visitor experiences in the process of adjustment” (Oberg, 2006, p. 178). However, the cultural differences between China and Korea were more impactful for newcomers like Ms. Xiao and Mr. Song. For Ms. Wang, who had been in Korea for years, it was not such a big issue, since she had become used to the Korean way of life.

Mr. Song, looked at the loci of cross-cultural difficulties through a multifaceted lens:

Generally speaking, for Chinese students in TESOL program in Korea, the situation is more complicated. Besides educational differences between the Chinese and Western-based TESOL program and socio-cultural differences between Chinese and Korean, there will also be educational differences between Chinese and Korean in the program since our westerner professors generally focus on teaching more while the Korean teachers will do more administration work. Chinese students need to figure out how to get along with westerner professors and the Korean teachers in TESOL program too.

Mr. Song’s insight reveals that these Chinese students are, unlike traditional academic sojourners, not just exchanging home culture for foreign culture, nor have they joined a “blended-multicultural” environment, or to use Pennycook and Otsuji’s (2015) term “metro lingual interaction” (p. 9), but they operate in an environment where they must split their time in several thoroughly segregated and essentially mono-cultural worlds.

Chinese NNAs Sense-Making and Support

Beyond recognizing this distinction of having to operate in several distinct, mono-cultural worlds, Mr. Song went on to discuss the mechanisms and effects of this process: “We have to figure out the rules in play in different ‘channels’ and learn to adjust to the switch of channels. This frequent change of channels is another reason for our frustration and confusion.” Metaphorically speaking, these Chinese NNAs must complete a total social and cognitive shift between each distinct cultural world, like changing through the hundreds of channels on satellite TV but without a convenient remote control. Mr. Song pointed to greetings and naming practices as a juxtaposition of cultural differences between Koreans and Westerners:

Our Western professors value individuality and equality with students, so we are encouraged to call their names directly. However, it is not the same with Korean teachers in the program. We are supposed to bow and greet them with respect and obedience. So you have to follow the Western style with westerners, but whenever you meet Korean teachers, you need to be very careful and follow Korean style. Compared with international students from other departments who just need to follow Korean culture, we have to face dual challenges from both Korean culture and Western culture at the program level. It is really challenging.

The biggest cultural challenge for those Chinese NNASs is the educational differences between Chinese and Western culture at the program level, which are often in opposition to each other. Furthermore, the cultural differences between Chinese and Korean at the social level and at the program level are also reasons for their struggle during their sojourn. Indeed, the confusion caused by the distinct “channels” of Chinese, Korean, and Western cultures and, more importantly, the frequent change amongst these cultural worlds proved stressful for Chinese NNASs.

Academic Challenges Experienced by Chinese NNASs

Regarding academic challenges experienced, the Chinese NNASs mentioned insufficient TESOL understanding, language barrier, and competition with expatriates (EETs). All respondents indicated that the lack of specialized knowledge of TESOL was a major problem during their study. Eighty-three percent (83%) indicated language barriers and 67% indicated competition with EETs were also important issues during their TESOL graduate study in Korea (see Table 4).

TABLE 4. Academic Challenges Experienced by Chinese NNASs

Type of Academic Problem	Percent Indicating the Presence of This Problem
Insufficient TESOL understanding	100%
Language barrier	83%
Competition with NS	67%

Delving more deeply into these academic conflicts is important to first understanding and then meeting Chinese NNASs' needs. The follow-up interview questions focused on insufficient TESOL understanding, language barriers, and competition with EETs.

Insufficient TESOL Understanding

Interviewees were asked to clarify what "insufficient TESOL understanding" means. Based on their answers, two dimensions of this problem emerge, including the lack of basic knowledge for abstract new terminologies and theories, and their possible usage in China.

Mr. Song explained that many EETs and KETs in the program are "teachers and professors for years with both knowledge and experience. So, the technical terms and theories are easy for them and they also have the chance to put theories into practice during their teaching." While Mr. Song already had work experience before beginning the program, his experience was somewhat less than many of the EETs in the program. Moreover, the majority of his Chinese compatriots in the program were complete novices as English teachers. There is a lack of basic professional knowledge among those Chinese NNASs, let alone the application of theoretical knowledge in practical teaching. Unfortunately, Mr. Song felt that the program's curriculum and instruction did not accommodate these differences between the EETs and Chinese NNASs: "However different we [the various student populations] are, we are just treated exactly the same with our native-speaking counterparts without any differentiation."

Expressing similar anxiety, Ms. Xiao described her entry into the program: "For the first few weeks, I felt like the professors were talking about a sealed book, which I could never understand." She found herself resorting to metaphorical references to describe a cognitive, emotional experience that concrete language proves insufficient to express. A book of knowledge that she desperately wishes to unseal dominates her thoughts like an unrequited ghost. This response mirrors the participants in Phakiti and Li's (2011) study who indicated that academic vocabulary and other academic expectations were the greatest challenges in their TESOL study. Moreover, Ms. Xiao's reaction to those feelings is telling: "During that period, I spent most of the class time sitting quietly in the corner angry with myself and felt it was impossible to get involved in the class discussion." She returned to a Chinese metaphor to express her frustration at these twin, insurmountable problems: "The lack of

professional background knowledge and their isolation with teaching practice in China is like snow plus frost.” Ultimately, the metaphorical “double whammy” left her overwhelmed and exasperated. Ms. Wang expressed nearly identical feelings: “The inability to understand the academic talks and their importance to our future teaching in China was one of the major problems that we cannot deal with by ourselves.”

Mr. Song added a further layer of complexity to the overwhelming technical, theoretical, and academic jargon in reiterating his point about the relative experience in TESOL between the EETs/KETs and Chinese NNASs: “For most of the Chinese students, taking part in the program is their first touch with TESOL.” Ms. Wang, however, offered a way forward:

The transition into this hitherto unknown field, it would be much easier if some concentrated preparation courses were offered before the real teaching. What is more, we are going to go back to China after graduation, how can we use what we learn in TESOL in Chinese schools should also be mentioned in the program.

The pervasive stress caused by the lack of field-specific jargon, theoretical perspectives, and their actual value in future teaching practice in China is widely recognized by all of these Chinese NNASs.

Insufficient Language Proficiency

Language proficiency is crucial to Chinese NNASs as students in TESOL and as future EFL teachers. Eighty-three percent (83%) of the participants expressed a need for the improvement of language proficiency (see Table 4).

Ms. Xiao described the problem: “During class, I witnessed too many non-communications and miscommunications between Westerners and Chinese students.” Watching her compatriots struggle with English in class was a major worry for her, but the more egregious problem was how her EET classmates and inner circle instructors severely misjudged Chinese NNASs’ behaviors. She contends that the EETs thought that their Chinese classmates “are just shy or reluctant to express their ideas in class, but actually that is not the truth at all.” That misattribution combined with “limited English proficiency prevented us from effectively and actively participating in class,” Ms. Xiao met a recurring struggle that “made me very frustrated.”

Mr. Song expressed similar struggles: “I tried really hard to make myself understood in class discussion, but it did take a lot of time.” Critically, and in the same manner as Ms. Xiao, he found fault with his EET classmates:

Sometimes, the native speaker students found that I was stuck, and they tried to help me out, and then they began to speak or explain for me based on their understanding of what I want to say, you know, their starting point is good. But then, it always ended with their opinion. It made me sad and frustrated, and then I did not want to talk anymore, just listen to them speaking.

Rather than just being frustrated, Mr. Song recognized his language weaknesses and grew sanguine, yet continued to be a passive participant in the class.

Ms. Wang, however, expressed a contrary view in arguing that the Chinese NNAs only have themselves to blame: “I think the problem with Chinese students in this program is that they worry too much about making mistakes in front of the classmates and teachers.” Moreover, she stressed the pedagogical benefits of trying and sometimes failing to speak out in class: “It is natural to make mistakes in foreign language learning and only by making mistakes can we learn how to speak.” Ultimately, Ms. Wang showed disagreements with the other participants – and the literature – when she concluded, “So, I do not believe language proficiency is such a big challenge. They just need to be brave enough to stand up and speak more.” Her position needs to be taken just as seriously as the majority’s – given our goal to reach all students – while 89% of Murdoch’s (1994) participants thought proficiency was most important, 11% did not. Ms. Wang’s stance may reflect the generational differences that Rajagopalan (2005) found with “those with less teaching experience (and presumably from a younger generation) were less worried about their being non-natives than those who had been in the profession for upwards of 10 years” (p. 290).

Furthermore, Ms. Xiao and Mr. Song specially mentioned the need to improve their Korean proficiency since they found it really hard to communicate with Korean teachers (mainly teaching assistants) and sometimes their Korean classmates. Since Ms. Wang is fluent in Korean, it wasn’t a problem for her. One phenomenon worth mentioning is that even though there are increasing Chinese NNAs in the TESOL

program, there are few teaching assistants who can speak either fluent English or Chinese, which present great challenges for those Chinese NNASs in daily communication with Korean teachers. As Ms. Xiao expressed,

All the details of my first meeting with our teaching assistant are still fresh in my memory. I could not speak Korean, so I tried to communicate with her in English but failed due to my lousy speaking fluency and then she tried to speak Korean with me. I could not figure out a thing she's talking about, thank goodness there came a Chinese student who helped me out. Without her help, I did not know what I should do.

Mr. Song did not even try, since he could not speak Korean at all, so he just asked some Chinese friends fluent in Korean to help him.

To those Chinese NNASs, the need was to improve English proficiency for program study and also Korean proficiency for communication with Koreans. In our evaluation of the questionnaire and interview data, a sense of inferiority in English and Korean proficiency is common, but not universal, amongst these Chinese NNASs.

Competition with Native Speaker EETs

In this TESOL program, like most graduate programs in Western universities, all students must participate in group discussions and give oral presentations as part of their evaluation. These Chinese NNASs felt strongly that their relatively weaker English proficiency put them far behind their EET classmates. Sixty-seven percent (67%) of the participants in this study expressed concern about being compared to EETs (see Table 4). The three interviewees stated their feeling that EETs are generally regarded as superior, not just in language usage, but also in teaching experience and theoretical knowledge, and that no matter how much effort the Chinese NNASs expended, they could not catch up with EETs. Consequently, the associated cognitive and emotional stress should not be neglected. Indeed, this sense of competition with EET peers proves to be an unavoidable consequence of the program's environment, as Mr. Song explained:

Not that I did not want to take part in the class discussion. It is just that I am not good at English at all, and it made me so embarrassed

in front of those native speaker classmates when I could not make myself understood.

But in his next comment, Mr. Song took great care to absolve his instructors and colleagues of blame:

Of course, it does not mean that the professors made us compare or compete with native speaker classmates in any way. No, not at all. It is just that when you sit in the same class with them, you will see the big differences by yourself. It is a natural reaction.

Even though he found fault with no one for his discomfort and located the problem within himself, he remained sanguine and fatalistic about this “natural” problem. Ms. Xiao added a further twist to the EET–Chinese NNAS competition issue:

It is not just the big difference between how and what NSs and Chinese students speak about, it is also about time needed for preparation. Commonly, I had to spend three or four times the amount of time and effort to complete a task compared with my native-speaking classmates, and usually they did a better job. It seems that no matter how hard I try, I just cannot make it. What is so easy for them could be very challenging for me. It is really frustrating.

Ultimately, she too arrived at a point of fatalistic frustration. Ms. Wang, again, however, presented a contrary perspective:

I am not bothered by this comparison with native speakers [EETs]. Of course, you will feel inferior if you regard native speakers as your standard. But if you treat your identity as a non-native speaker more objectively, it is not such a terrible thing. To learn from these native speakers would be more beneficial for us as future teachers. There is no need to compete with the native speaker students. They are no threat to us but someone we can learn with.

Thus, not every Chinese sojourner felt threatened by competing with EETs in class. One thing is for sure, awareness of individual differences regarding comparison and competition with the EETs should result in better outcomes in TESOL programs in Korea.

Suggestions and Implications for EMI TESOL in the Expanding Circle

While the Chinese NNASs expressed great enjoyment and thankfulness for their program, especially for the free and friendly atmosphere, they offer the following suggestions: (a) Work on improving cultural abilities of all involved in the program, (b) redesign the curriculum for greater academic preparation, including language preparation and additional training in TESOL fundamentals for Chinese NNASs, and (c) build a stronger community within and outside the TESOL program.

Cultural Ability

Cultural ability was a key emergent theme for the Chinese NNASs in this study. Cultural ability goes beyond the more common term cultural awareness or “sensitivity to the impact of culturally induced behavior on language and communication” (Tomalin & Stempleski, 2013, p. 5) and is closely related to aspects of an individual’s cultural competence that “enables teachers to work with students from all cultures, ethnicities, races, and linguistic backgrounds” (Ward & Ward, 2003, p. 534). The questionnaire data reveals a need for adjustment at a variety of loci and at a number of levels: All participants wanted Chinese and Western educational differences addressed, three quarters struggled where local Korean culture conflicted with their own, and two thirds fought Chinese–Korean cultural battles at the program level. Ultimately, all of the interviewees pointed to better cultural ability – without naming it – as critical to a more successful sojourn. Their comments above call for cultural ability training and support for teachers and staff, as well as students. Indeed, as Chinese NNASs in Korea increase, stakeholders must better address the ethnic, educational, and other cultural differences between students. As Mr. Song argued above, targeted training addressing the rules of different cultural “channels,” and the capacity to manage such “channels” both at the program and society levels should be designed and implemented.

Academic Preparation

Beyond cross-cultural difficulties, these Chinese NNASs noted a desire for TESOL program changes to meet two specific academic needs:

language proficiency and TESOL training. Ten of the twelve participants expressed the desire for English language training in their questionnaire responses. Unlike students studying in a predominantly English-speaking country, the only readily available advanced-level English practice opportunities these Chinese NNASs had were the TESOL lectures. Language proficiency will indeed be an essential standard used to assess their professional qualifications. In turn, their self-perception of language proficiency will influence their confidence, which aligns with the 89% of Murdoch's (1994) Sri Lankan trainees who indicated that "a teacher's confidence is most dependent on his or her degree of language competence" (p. 258). Similarly, these results verify Tseng's (2011) description of the devastating effect that daily interaction with native-speaking EETs in a competitive graduate study environment can have on NNASs' faith in their foreign language proficiency to the point of leaving one feeling "inferior in the ELT profession" (p. 5). Moreover, language competence plays a vital role in students' achievement in the program. This TESOL program was their first time to be so fully immersed in an EMI environment, and students with higher language competence perform better in class and end up with higher scores on assessments.

In general, limited English language proficiency affects Chinese NNASs' confidence and restricts their performance and achievement during TESOL study. However, they face dual language challenges, including both English and Korean. They suggested both English and Korean medium extra-curricular training activities similar to the tandem learning model of Vassallo and Telles (2006). They were looking for flexibility in time, place, and form, as well, which would require only limited funding and frankly be fun.

Regarding TESOL training, all of the Chinese NNASs wanted additional foundational training in TESOL before the start of their study. As Mr. Song mentioned above, TESOL-related experience and background knowledge vary dramatically amongst the Chinese NNASs, KETs, and EETs in the program. Moreover, these differences are not initially apparent, nor are such deficiencies actively identified by the program. All three interviewees urged that theoretical TESOL knowledge and their use in teaching in the Chinese context be considered. Thus, it is recommended that incoming students with insufficient theoretical background be identified in the recruitment process and then receive additional "remedial" coursework and support regarding TESOL

fundamentals.

Building Community

Finally, two thirds of the participants indicated that conscious and unconscious competition with EETs was a particular challenge. Ms. Wang suggested that there is “no need to compete with” EETs because EETs are colleagues to “learn with.” Thus, we take up her recommendation and suggest that building a community of learners, “a place,” as Richards and Farrell (2011) put it, “where the individual members of the class cooperate and collaborate to achieve their common goals” (p. 126), should become a critical element in EMI TESOL programs. Providing such a platform for collaboration and cooperation amongst Chinese NNAS, KET and EET students would lead to more Chinese NNAS contributions and a better and more fruitful learning experience for all.

CONCLUSIONS

The continued rapid growth and expansion of EMI programs at Korean universities specifically marketed to Chinese and other Asian nationality sojourners raises many challenges, which in this study we categorize under culture and academics. Importantly, the loci of the cultural challenges Chinese NNASs face during their sojourn are substantially different from those reported in Kachru’s core English countries. Of course, NNASs in English-speaking countries had culture shock from the customs and culture in the host country (Carrier, 2003; Liu, 1998). However, Chinese NNASs in Korea face the additional burden of adjusting to Korean culture in daily life while blending in “Western” culture in the academic program. These Chinese NNASs must find a balance among three cultures – Chinese, Western, and Korean – which represents a substantial, nuanced challenge unmentioned in the literature.

On the academic side, the Chinese NNASs in this study reported similar academic challenges as previous studies with Asian NNASs in English-speaking countries, such as language proficiency (Andrade, 2006), lack of theoretical background in TESOL (D. Liu, 1999), and competition with NSs (Kamhi-Stein, 2000). Two areas of remarkable similarity with Asian NNASs in English-speaking countries is a lack of

theoretical background in TESOL and competition with native speakers (EETs). Kamhi-Stein (2000) suggests providing pre-service non-native English-speaking (NNES) teachers with opportunities to develop support networks where they could reflect on their language teaching experiences while being guided by an experienced NNES mentor. The language issues, however, are more complex than for NNASs in English-speaking countries, because the participants here need to learn Korean in order to navigate daily life in Korea as well as to manage daily study in the program, which in turn creates a double bind for their English acquisition goals, as it creates an additional time and culture-shock burden. Moreover, they lose an essential avenue for informal English practice. Needing to improve both Korean and English proficiency is the second critical distinction from findings in the literature on NNASs in English-speaking countries. In addition, one emergent and unexpected conclusion arose. In navigating the complexity of their cultural and academic struggles on the variety of levels they discussed, the participants return again and again to metaphorical references. Even when describing the experience in their first language the Chinese NNASs experience is tangled, dense, and nuanced in ways that make it inexpressible without the poetry of metaphor (see Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). How language and metaphor help sojourners shape their understanding of their sojourn is undoubtedly an area for further research.

In summary and moving forward, the participants offered four suggestions: (a) emphasize cultural ability for teachers, staff, and students, (b) expand language training options, (c) provide training and support for students with a limited theoretical background in TESOL, and finally (d) reduce the competition amongst the students via an active community of learners. We present these findings in hopes of helping TESOL educators better meet the diverse needs of international sojourners, and inspiring more TESOL professionals and scholars to promote reformation in TESOL curricula in the inner, outer, and expanding circle countries.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

1. What is your full name? 您的姓名 * _____
2. What is your gender? 您的性别 * Male () Female ()
3. How old are you? 您的年龄 _____
4. When did you start learning English? 您何时开始学习英语?

5. Did you have English teaching experience in China before your study at TESOL-MALL in Korea? 在您来韩留学之前, 是否有英语教学经历?
Yes () No ()
6. What is your English level? 你的英语水平如何? *
High () Medium () Low ()
7. What problems did you meet during your study in TESOL? You can choose more than one answer.
8. What kind of cultural problems have you experienced during your stay in Korea? 你在韩国期间, 遇到过怎样的文化问题? *
Differences between Chinese and Western educational culture ()
Differences between Chinese and Korean social culture ()
Differences between Korean and Western social culture ()
Others 其它 ()
9. What kind of academic problems have you experienced during your study in the program? 你在专业学习当中有过下列哪些难题? *
Language barrier 语言障碍 ()
Insufficient TESOL understanding 对 TESOL 缺乏理解 ()
Competition with NSs 与英语为母语学员的竞争 ()
Others 其它 ()
10. What do you think are the reasons for the problems that you have experienced?
你认为是什么原因造成你所经历的这些学术方面的问题?

APPENDIX B

Interview Questions

1. Have you experienced any culture problems during your stay in Korea?
2. What do you think are the reasons for culture problems in your stay in Korea?
3. What suggestions do you have to solve the culture problems for Chinese students in Korea?
4. Do you have any academic problems during your study in the program? What are they?
5. What do you think are the reasons for Chinese students' problems in language proficiency?
6. What do you think are the reasons for Chinese students' problems in TESOL understanding?
7. What do you think are the reasons for Chinese students' problems in competition with NSs?
8. What suggestions do you have to solve the academic problems for Chinese students in Korea?
9. Do you have any other suggestions for TESOL education?

Potential follow-up questions:

- What were the reasons for these cross-cultural problems?
- Why are Chinese students _____?
E.g., "silent during class"
- Why were _____ a big problem?
E.g., "academic theories and terminology"
- Tell me more about _____?
E.g., "the interaction and competition with NSs"

The Introduction of AI Chatbots into Korean English Education: Global and Local Perspectives

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This study explores the ongoing introduction of AI chatbots into South Korean public school English classrooms. Drawing upon global and local research into the efficacy and appropriateness of AI as an educational tool, this study explores the extent to which the current local implementation satisfies the conditions established as global best practices for introducing AI into educational environs. The study also explores the views and perceptions of Korean teachers on this topic, in an attempt to redress a lack of research in this area. The conclusion of this study is that while some aspects of the Korean implementation of AI into the English classroom show some gains in ability and some adherence to global best practices, there are still many ways in which current measures and research are falling short, and as such, considerably more research – particularly longitudinal - is required in order to fully establish a viable argument for introducing AI into the Korean public school English classroom.

Keywords: AI, AIED, elementary education, Korea, public education, 4th Industrial Revolution

INTRODUCTION

The introduction of artificial intelligence (AI) into English education in South Korea has been a topic of much debate in recent times, and the Korean government is in the process of employing AI chatbots in Korean elementary school English classrooms. The potential benefits that might be reaped from using AI in English education are indeed plentiful. However, there is also much research that warns of the hazards in using AI. This study will briefly recount global perspectives on AI in education as well as current research on AI in the Korean educational

context. It will then detail a research project carried out amongst Korean elementary school English teachers that explored their perceptions of and experiences with AI in their schools, before considering future directions for research that emerged from the study.

The scope of the study is small: It does not aim to reach final conclusions over the efficacy of AI in the Korean educational context. It aims instead to situate the debate within a global context, conduct an investigation at the local level, and offer some pointers for further research. It will be argued, however, that such future research will be essential if AI is to succeed in the Korean educational context.

Definitions of Terms

It is important to first understand several key concepts that are used when discussing AI.

AI (*artificial intelligence*) is perhaps the most well-known of the terms, but defining AI precisely is less easy (Leaton Gray, 2020). One definition is that AI refers to “the ability of a computer or software to reproduce skills considered typical of a human being” (Zanetti et al., 2020) and can encompass a variety of behaviors such as predictive learning, machine learning, neural networks, and social robotics (Leaton Gray, 2020).

AIED refers to *artificial intelligence in education*. Broadly speaking, AIED covers three areas: learning *with* AI, learning *about* AI, and preparing *for* AI (Artificial Intelligence in Education, 2019). This study will focus on the first element.

The 4th Industrial Revolution refers to the current process of the “convergence of digital, biological, and physical innovations” (Schwab, 2018) in technology, and expands upon the Third (Digital) Revolution by combining aspects of non-digital life with the digital, for example augmented reality, genome editing, and artificial intelligence; it is anticipated that the 4th Industrial Revolution will bring extensive and wide-ranging changes to society globally and is often connected to discussions about AI in the Korean educational context (for example, B. Lee, 2020; Park, 2020).

AI Chatbots refer to “a software system that can chat with a human user using natural language” (Kim et al., 2019) and is a subset of AIED. In the Korean context, these refer to basic computer programs that are designed to mimic human conversation, particularly for the purposes of language teaching. These can take the forms of machines that resemble or partly resemble human beings, or may just be simple apps and programs that can be interfaced with via mobile or computer.

Korea will in this article refer to the Republic of Korea (South Korea), not the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (North Korea), following the local custom of referring to the country as such.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Global Perspectives on AIED

There is a phenomenal amount of research on the topic of AIED globally, and it is impossible to summarize it all. Nonetheless, the following passages highlight several key issues that regularly arise in research about AIED.

AIED is a key element of national education policies in many countries worldwide, including China, the UK, and India (Vincent-Lacrin & van der Vlies, 2020). In 2019, UNESCO formulated a working framework that outlined a humanistic approach to AIED, named the “Beijing Consensus,” which was attended by representatives from approximately 100 nations, including Korea (Beijing Consensus ..., 2019). The ideas in the framework are also mirrored in academic recommendations for best practices in implementing and utilizing AIED. For example, the Institute for Ethical AI in Education compiled an interim report that listed recommended best practices for the use of AIED (Interim Report ..., 2020). A selection of both sets of recommendations can be seen in Table 1, arranged to reflect the concordances between the two frameworks.

TABLE 1. Recommendations of the Beijing Consensus and the Institute of Ethical AI in Education

UNESCO: The Beijing Consensus	The Institute for Ethical AI in Education: Interim Report
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That AIED should be human-controlled and centered around people, not AIED itself 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That there should be primacy of human oversight and agency in using AIED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That multiple stakeholders should be consulted in local contexts when implementing AIED 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That there is the necessity of transparency in usage of AIED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That teachers should be fully trained in, but also remain a critical force in, controlling AIED 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That there is the need for administrator accountability when using AIED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That human interaction between teacher and learner must remain at the core of learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That there is a need for the primacy of human oversight and agency in using AIED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That the implementation of AIED should not deepen existing inequalities nor create any new ones 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That there is a need for societal wellbeing as a result of implementing AIED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That administrators should be cognizant of the possibility of bias in AIED 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That diversity and inclusion for all are important when using AIED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That administrators should be aware of the lack of long-term studies in AIED and so invest in further research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That stakeholders should fully understand the impact of implementing AIED

Although these lists are incomplete for the sake of brevity, the political ideals laid out in the Beijing Consensus and the academic best practices suggested by the Institute for Ethical AI in Education are all broadly in agreement with each another. However, these best practices and suggestions represent only an ideal; current academic commentary suggests that the implementation of AIED in reality presents a considerably more complex picture. For example, much promotional literature surrounding the implementation of AIED has been criticized for employing circular, rhetorical arguments by claiming that AI is the future, therefore the future must be AI-centered (Leaton Gray, 2020). It has been argued that the key to successfully implementing AIED would be to find a “virtuous combination” (Savile, 2020) that empowers both teacher and student (as well as all relevant stakeholders) through the use of AIED rather than using AIED for the sake of using AIED alone.

Leaton Gray (2020) noted that AIED is reimagining the environment in which education takes place, leading to the dangers of educational experiences becoming commercialized and commodified by companies who become gatekeepers of AIED technologies and moving the ownership of the classroom away from teachers as a result. Saltman (2020) argued along similar lines, suggesting that this process of outsourcing of education might reflect and even magnify inequalities that already exist in neoliberal educational systems, while Zanetti et al. (2020) noted that the outsourcing of the educational experience leads to the cultural backgrounds and biases of the AIED programmers emerging within the experience of using AIED itself.

It could be argued that this latter issue might also affect the educational value of such tools for learners in the Korean context: For example, an AI chatbot designed in a North American context might be programmed with a dataset designed only to recognize North American English paralinguistic features and might struggle with recognizing the paralinguistic features of English users such as those in Korean English. This would run counter to the recommendation to encourage diversity and inclusion in learning with AIED as a global best practice, and would in the process disenfranchise teachers (Leaton Gray, 2020).

While this is a valid concern, it could also be argued that an AIED system programmed with a dataset specifically designed to accommodate Korean users would sidestep this issue entirely. Furthermore, the close involvement of teachers (and other key stakeholders) in the process of choosing, programming, and licensing an AIED system for the classroom might ameliorate any concerns regarding the commercialization and the “outsourcing” of the educational experience, so long as the focus remained on the quality of the educational experience being provided rather than any other concerns. Much, then, would seem to depend on the actual implementation of AIED in each local educational context. How then has AIED been introduced in the Korean context?

Korean Perspectives on AIED

There is also a massive amount of research on the topic of AIED in the Korean context, and it is again impossible to summarize everything. As such, this section will include more focus on established government policy (both past and present) while also spotlighting the most recent and up-to-date research on AIED in the Korean context.

The current government policy is to introduce AI chatbots into Korean elementary English classrooms (H. Lee, 2020; Park, 2020; Promoting Elementary English Education, 2019), which appears to align with a wider government purpose to foster greater use of AI in society generally (AI Education to Begin ..., 2020; 2020 Education in Korea, 2020), the rationale of which is that excellence in AI is needed for Korea to remain competitive in a changing world engaged in the 4th Industrial Revolution (National Strategy, 2019). Other aspects of government policy to implement AIED have a focus on decreasing inequality and combining AIED with other aspects of education to provide a fully rounded learning experience (Promoting Elementary English Education, 2019), which aligns with global best practices.

This is not the first time AI has been implemented into the Korean educational context; in the late 2000s, English robots – functionally similar to the current AI chatbots – were introduced into the classroom with much fanfare (Kim, 2010) with the aim of increasing fluency and decreasing anxiety about speaking English. These robots were deployed with (anecdotally) mixed to poor results at the time (Choe, 2010; English Teachers to Be Wiped Out ..., 2010), and it was suggested by commentators of the period that any early gains in student motivation were due to the “novelty factor” of using a new academic tool such as an AI chatbot (Here Come the Robots – Again, 2010), although it should be noted that no extant research into this matter appears to have been carried out. So far as this researcher is aware, this first generation of chatbots was only introduced in certain locales for a limited period and did not gain traction at a national level.

It is claimed that the new generation of AI chatbots in classrooms provide greater listening and speaking opportunities for students both inside and outside the classroom (Kim, 2020) and that this might decrease educational inequality, long a problem in the Korean context (e.g., Education Policy Outlook: Korea, 2016; Jeon, 2012). Present research strongly suggests that the use of AI chatbots appears successful in improving certain aspects of language ability (Kim, 2019) and in reducing anxiety in speaking English (Kim, 2019; Sung, 2020). It has been suggested that AI chatbots might decrease inequality as well; one study pointed out how students learning English in an urban area might have plentiful access to many “real life” English teachers, while a student in a rural area might be forced to travel great lengths and to sacrifice more time in order to have the same opportunities (Kim et al.,

2019). An AI chatbot, then, might level the playing field both in terms of access to communicative experiences, which would align with global best practices. Notably, the majority of these studies are short-term studies, and there is a severe paucity of longitudinal research on this matter. Nonetheless, these immediate, tangible improvements in language proficiency should not be discounted by any measure.

While many studies demonstrate how AI chatbots improve pure speaking ability (such as pronunciation or the formulation of grammatically perfect sentences), there is little evidence that chatbots have been programmed to help with topics such as intercultural communication, which is an especially pressing issue as intercultural communicative competence is a key ambition of the Korean Ministry of Education (Chang, 2018; Vinall & Shin, 2019). For example, a Korean fluent in English might need to use simpler language with someone whose proficiency was lower than theirs; this act of accommodation might often occur when speaking with citizens of countries where English proficiency is generally lower. However, present research suggests that AI chatbots have thus far not been programmed to deal with such linguistic situations. In one example, Kim (2019) mentioned that, while AI chatbots in their study were useful at improving grammar skills, they were not programmed to recognize context or accommodate errors, thereby forcing students to make improvements in grammar in order to be understood. This focus on communicative accuracy over fluency is also noticeable in other studies. For example, in almost all studies mentioned in Kim et al.'s (2019) extensive overview of AI chatbot research in recent years, there is virtually no mention of AI chatbots being used for anything beyond improving the accuracy of the four basic skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, and of decreasing foreign language learning anxiety. Connected to this, a recent example from a teacher working in the field noted that, while AI is capable of providing some aspects of communicative teaching, it is unable to teach other aspects such as creative ability in language use (B. Lee, 2020), which is again a stated goal of the Korean Ministry of Education (Chang, 2018; Policies and Programs, 2021; The National Curriculum ..., 2015). Indeed, from the evidence presented, it appears that the current generation of AI chatbots is effective mainly at basic situational patterns (Kim, 2019) and is not designed to exhibit or engender communicative skills such as accommodation, negotiation, or creativity in communicative situations.

One interesting feature of this discussion is that there appear to be varying definitions about what *communicative competency* actually consists of: While some government literature promoting the use of AI chatbots focuses on the ability of AI chatbots to engage in and improve student competence in basic speaking skills, other government literature promoting English education in broader terms defines communicative competence with a wider spectrum, including aspects aforementioned such as intercultural communicative competence and the ability to think and act creatively (Policies and Programs, 2021; The National Curriculum ..., 2015). This wider definition of communicative competence has a lengthy history in Korean education, having been introduced in the mid-1990s in the 6th National Curriculum, which emphasized a turn towards globalization and communicative language teaching (CLT) as the preferred approach for English education in Korea (Kwon, 1997; Park, 2009; Yook, 2011).

One gap in our understanding about AIED in the Korean context is knowledge of the perspectives of teachers working in contexts where AIED is being implemented. As key participants in the education of Korean students, their attitudes, training, and understanding concerning AIED might be critical to the successful implementation of AI chatbots. As such, this research aims to begin to fill that gap in understanding.

It should be noted that it was not the aim of this study to explore fully and completely the experiences of such teachers, only to begin to understand the question of AIED in the Korean public school classroom from teachers' perspectives and to start early mapping regarding what future research on the topic might look like.

RESEARCH: INTRODUCTION AND METHOD

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

- RQ1. To what extent are the Korean English teachers in the study prepared for the introduction of AI chatbots in their educational context?
- RQ2. What kind of relationship do the Korean teachers in the study wish to have between themselves and these AI chatbots in the classroom?
- RQ3. How do the Korean teachers in the study feel about the

introduction of these AI chatbots in their classrooms?

These questions were created in response to both global best practices for the implementation of AIED – specifically, that of the need for teacher training; the need for human oversight, agency, and accountability in AIED; the importance of the teacher–learner relationship; and the need to explore completely the implications of implementing AIED, including understanding the feelings of various key stakeholders in the process.

A survey was sent out to approximately 40 elementary school teachers. Given that English teachers in elementary education are rotated frequently, the survey requested that only teachers currently serving as English teachers respond, and as such 18 teachers were able to respond to the survey. All teachers were located in an urban environment in a single city. The survey questions, and their relationship to the study aims and global best practices, are displayed in Table 2.

Questions 1–5 were quantitative, while Question 6 was designed as an open-ended qualitative question. Participants were allowed to respond to Question 6 in Korean if they pleased. While there were risks to using a mixed methods approach, notably that the two are grounded in very different epistemological outlooks on reality (Mirhosseini, 2018), it has been suggested that the two can be effectively combined if done so carefully (Dörnyei, 2007). The qualitative aspect of the study was designed to give the researcher a wider view of teacher views and opinions that might create signposts towards future directions of research.

A breakdown of the responses to Question 1–5 is detailed below in the Results section. Responses to Question 6 were analyzed and then categorized according to emergent themes within the responses, without relying on pre-determined categories for analysis. This was done in an effort to minimize any researcher bias; nonetheless, it must be admitted that there will always be an element of subjectivity in analyzing any qualitative data.

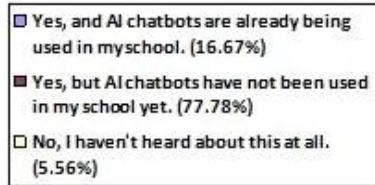
TABLE 2. Survey Questions and Their Relationship to Survey Aims and Global Best Practices

Survey Question	Survey Aim	Global Best Practice
1. The Korean government plans to use AI (such as chatbots) in elementary schools to improve students' English ability. Have you heard about this before?		
2. Have you received or heard about any training for elementary school teachers on how to use AI chatbots in the classroom?	To what extent are the Korean English teachers in the study prepared for the introduction of AI chatbots in their educational context?	The need for teacher training (Beijing Consensus); the need for human oversight, agency and accountability (Institute for Ethical AI in Education); the need to keep teacher–learner relationships at the center of the learning experience (Beijing Consensus)
3. Would you feel knowledgeable enough to effectively choose the best AI chatbot system for your students and give useful feedback to the chatbot designer to improve the system?		
4. Have you heard whether teachers will have a vote on how AI chatbots are introduced in schools, including a right to veto them completely?	What kind of relationship do the Korean teachers in the study wish to have between themselves and these AI chatbots in the classroom?	
5. Do you think teachers should have a vote on how AI chatbots are introduced in schools, including a right to veto them completely?		
6. What are your feelings about AI chatbots for English learning?	How do the Korean teachers in the study feel about the introduction of these AI chatbots in their classrooms?	The need to research fully the implications of AIED (Beijing Consensus); the need to explore and respect stakeholder opinions (Institute for Ethical AI in Education)

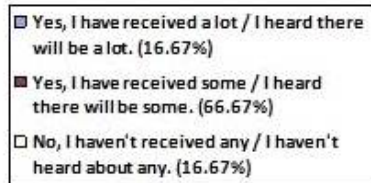
RESULTS

In response to Questions 1 and 2, respondents overwhelmingly answered in the positive:

1. The Korean government plans to use AI (such as chatbots) in elementary schools to improve students' English ability. Have you heard about this before?



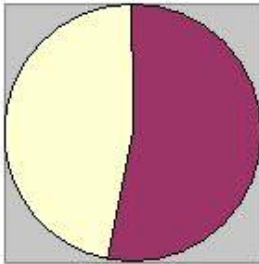
2. Have you received or heard about any training for elementary school teachers on how to use AI chatbots in the classroom?



Most respondents who answered positively to the Question 1 also responded positively to the Question 2. As the introduction of AI chatbots is an ongoing process, it was decided that responses could cover either having received training or having heard that training would be received; while this led to ambiguity in the data produced in the following question, it was hoped that this openness would allow the data to reflect a fuller picture of the planned training rather than just the training already achieved at the current midpoint of implementation.

Question 3 saw a more mixed response:

3. Would you feel knowledgeable enough to effectively choose the best AI chatbot system for your students and give useful feedback to the chatbot designer to improve the system?

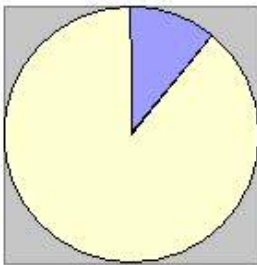


Yes, I'd feel knowledgeable enough to do these things. (0.00%)
 I'd feel somewhat knowledgeable enough to do these things. (52.94%)
 No, I wouldn't feel knowledgeable enough to do these things. (47.06%)

It would be interesting to see how many more teachers might respond positively to this once all training has been delivered to all teachers affected by the AI chatbot deployment.

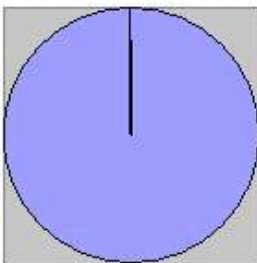
Questions 4 and 5 revealed very interesting responses:

4. Have you heard whether teachers will have a vote on how AI chatbots are introduced in schools, including a right to veto them completely?



I have heard that teachers will have those rights. (11.11%)
 I have heard that teachers will not have those rights. (0.00%)
 I'm not sure. (88.89%)

5. Do you think teachers should have a vote on how AI chatbots are introduced in schools, including a right to veto them completely?



Yes, I think teachers should have those rights. (100.00%)
 No, I don't think teachers should have those rights. (0.00%)
 I'm not sure. (0.00%)

Question 6 provided a range of interesting responses that illuminated some of the data presented in the previous questions. One of the strongest emergent themes respondents pointed out was that of positivity towards the educational potential offered by AI chatbots, especially that of helping low-level students and for differentiation in learning. For example:

- “If we use wisely, it can be helpful. Especially for low level students.”
- “Effective for individual learners and fun to learn.”

Nonetheless, this enthusiasm was not unqualified. Another strong theme that emerged from many respondents was the need for teacher control and input into the use of AI as well as the primacy of the teacher in the learning experience. For example:

- “They need SOMEONE OR SOMEBODY who monitors, encourages and guides their understanding. Because teachers should look at AI app and children. Even though AI says that the kids learned well, human beings should check if the students did or not.”

Many other themes emerged from the respondents’ data, and one thing that is noticeable is the apparent presence of multiple diverse viewpoints that cover a wide variety of attitudes and beliefs. Aside from a general – though by no means overwhelming – slant towards (qualified) positivity, other themes that were stated included the need for multiple stakeholder input into the implementation of AIED, worries about problems in using AIED, and, existing at odds to the aforementioned positivity about AIED, some outright cynicism about the implementation of AI chatbots into their educational contexts:

- “I do not like to force the use without any on-site opinion
- “Elementary school students had many difficulties to use it directly. It seems that technology development is needed so that it can be used more realistically.”
- “I wonder if chatbots are really needed in elementary school English classes?”

DISCUSSION

From the data drawn, we can make the following conclusions:

- *That to some extent, the teachers appear to be being prepared for the introduction of AIED in their classrooms.* However, there are certain caveats: We cannot answer to what extent the training the teachers receive will be sufficient or appropriate to the needs of the teachers and the students. Further long-term investigation on this topic would be required, as the need for teacher oversight and training is identified as a global best practice for AIED. Question 3 illustrated some ambiguity as to whether the training is sufficient for the purposes of controlling the AI chatbots to the extent recommended by global best practice, although this may be in part due to the fact that the training has not been finished yet.
- *That the teachers wish to have sufficient power to choose and possibly veto the use of AI chatbots if they feel it is inappropriate for their students.* This desire aligns with global best practices. However, based on the answers given in Question 4, it is unclear as to whether teachers will be accorded this right. Further investigation and clarification on this issue is therefore preferable. It could be argued that by neglecting to clarify the nature of the relationship between teachers and their AIED before the rollout of AI chatbots in the classroom, policymakers have already fallen short in adhering to this recommendation of global best practice.
- *That teachers have a variety of different feelings regarding the introduction of AIED, though many are tentatively positive.* While it would be accurate to say that the responses generally showed more positivity than negativity, it must also be stated that most responses' positivity was predicated on several caveats, most commonly on the need for AI chatbots to improve learner proficiency in order to prove their value and for the relationship between teacher and chatbot to be efficient and properly clarified. However, the most striking emergent "theme" from the data was the sheer diversity of opinions – and the lack of any single unifying theme thereof. Many respondents expressed opinions that aligned with those of global best practices: for example, the need

for discussions with various stakeholders before implementation, the potential for AIED to decrease inequality, and the need for the teacher to remain at the center of the learning experience for the student.

Combining insights from the literature review (in particular the ambiguity in policy documentation over how “communicative skills” are defined and the fact that the current AI chatbots are limited in communicative abilities beyond basic communicative exchanges) with the views expressed by the teachers in this study (in particular the positivity towards AI chatbots being qualified with the need to clarify the teacher–chatbot relationship) one key question that emerges is “Exactly what will the teaching roles of AI chatbots be in comparison to those of the teacher?” For example, will the AI chatbot be responsible for more “routine” aspects of communication, such as drilling and pronunciation practice, while the teacher will focus on more creative uses of the language? It is perhaps defensible to say that if AI chatbots are to be given a place in the English classroom, that place – and its boundaries – should be clearly defined. This might prevent the danger of the AI chatbot becoming used as a replacement for all communicative activity in the classroom. Given the KMOE’s long-term focus on teaching communicatively, AIED, despite superficially allowing more chances to communicate, might – if used as a wholesale replacement of the teacher as the medium of all spoken communication – actually narrow the scope and possibilities of the communicative experience. The purpose of the communicative approach, after all, was to escape the “chimera ... of situational events” (Howatt, 1984, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2012) and to emphasize the primacy of meaning and discourse over the accuracy of isolated phrases and sentences (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). If the AI chatbots used by Korean learners do not allow for, say, the possibility of such things as creativity, improvisation, or accommodation when communicating, this may make language practice with AIED a decidedly mechanical and inflexible affair. Of course, much will depend on the quality and programming of the AI chatbots that are introduced; however, clarity and consistency in how “communicative competence” is to be defined would also be of great benefit for these discussions. At present, it is difficult to pass full judgement on the matter.

These questions can also be conceptualized in geographical terms as

well. While one of the rationales for deploying AIED is to increase access to communicative opportunities in places where these are limited (e.g., rural or deprived areas), AIED might create equal opportunities for students in that context only if they are also provided with other communicative opportunities that are the same as those afforded to learners in richer, more cosmopolitan areas, for example, access to real-life teachers who can teach the intercultural communicative competence that an AI chatbot might not be able to. Should, on the other hand, AIED be seen as a full-scale replacement for such opportunities, then students might subsequently miss out on the chances for creativity, reflection, and intercultural communication that other, more affluent students enjoy. This issue is also mirrored in the matter of foreign language learning anxiety (the decreasing of which is another stated motive for introducing AIED). It is possible that a graduate, having used an AI chatbot all their academic lives, might “freeze up” in a real communicative situation, while someone who had experienced a steady stream of such situations throughout their schooling might handle the experience much more smoothly. In this case, much would depend on how AI chatbots were deployed in reality in these situations; once again, it is impossible to judge with any certainty at this juncture. In the end, any claim that AIED absolutely will decrease inequality will take some years of longitudinal research to fully prove, given that the implementation of AI chatbots is still in its infancy.

While the above suppositions remain admittedly theoretical at present, they have their precedents in local theses and real-life situations. Echoing Saltman’s (2020) concerns about AIED being an avenue that would exacerbate existing inequalities in neoliberal societies, Byean (2015) argued that identical inequalities (with identical neoliberal causes) already exist within the Korean education system, for which teachers were usually blamed (and for which new initiatives, such as the TEE program, were introduced) rather than the educational system itself. In a further real-life example, the EPIK and TaLK programs, which were created to place native English-speaking teachers in public schools with the purpose of improving communicative opportunities for students – the same reasoning behind the introduction of AI chatbots – placed more highly qualified teachers in predominantly urban areas (EPIK, which requires completion of a bachelor’s degree) than in rural areas (TaLK, where completion of a bachelor’s degree is not a pre-requisite). This policy held true until mid-2021, when the TaLK program was cancelled

entirely – with the closure notice encouraging qualified teachers to instead apply for EPIK positions (TaLK Program ..., 2021).

In summary, the implementation of AI chatbots in Korean elementary schools appears to have achieved some aspects of global best practices. However, in many other aspects, it remains unclear as to how well these goals have been achieved. Table 3 summarizes these conclusions.

TABLE 3. Global Best Practices: Status and Evidence

Recommended Global Best Practice	Status	Evidence
The need for teacher training	Possibly partly achieved	Q2 & Q3
The need for human control and oversight	Possibly not achieved	Q4 and Q5
The importance of stakeholder opinions	Possibly not achieved	Q4
The need to understand fully the implications of implementing AIED, including long-term implications	Probably not achieved	Literature Review, Q6
The need to keep teacher–learner relationships at the center of the learning process	Unable to define clearly until long-term research is carried out	Literature Review, Discussion

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR INVESTIGATION

There are several limitations to this study. The number of participants was small, and only teachers in urban schools were contacted for the study. As such, we cannot generalize these findings to a wider scope (Nunan, 1992). Future research should thus focus on a wider study of teachers in a variety of settings, including rural areas where access to English education may be lower and thus AIED be more welcomed or seen as more necessary. This would correspond with recommended global best practices. Another limitation is that this study only looked at one set of stakeholders. Further research into opinions and attitudes of other stakeholders – specifically parents, who play a large

part in student education in the Korean context (Park & Abelmann, 2004) – is required. This would also correspond with recommended global best practices.

Looking at the parallels between the wider literature and this individual study, the need for long-term research emerges as a vital strand of future research. For example, many teachers based their approval of AIED on the idea that their AI chatbots would decrease inequality; however, only further, long-term research can truly confirm this supposition. Longitudinal research might also address the issues as to how effective the teacher training for AIED actually is and whether it aligns with recommendations for global best practices. The need for understanding of the long-term implications of using AIED is also highlighted academically, for example, Zanetti et al. (2020).

It would also help if current ambiguity in the debates in the Korean context (for example, over what “communicative competence” is understood to consist of) were resolved with consistency in how such important terminology is defined across all government literature. Connected to the issue of these definitions – and thus what role the AI chatbot should take in the learning experience – it is vital that research illuminates what truly happens in the classroom over the long term, for example, whether AIED becomes an assistant and augmentation to the learning experience, or whether it becomes a wholesale replacement for students’ entire English communicative experiences at school; whether AIED truly decreases inequality in deprived areas, or whether it doesn’t; and whether the use of an AI chatbot decreases language learning anxiety permanently for learners, or whether these benefits melt away when faced with a real-life communicative situation.

While wider or long-term research would be costly in terms of time and effort, such research is arguably the most pressing. Just as the 4th Industrial Revolution is anticipated to bring large changes to society globally, so too might AI chatbots bring about great changes in the educational experiences of Korean learners. It is intuitive to suggest that the more that is understood about the AIED in our classrooms, the better teachers will be able to manipulate them to their learners’ ends.

CONCLUSIONS

This study tentatively shows that the introduction of AIED in Korean

elementary classrooms may follow some aspects of global best practices but cannot be said to definitely follow all such practices in others. It is the suggestion of this study that policymakers and researchers ensure that any implementation is carried out off the back of further, more detailed research, and that any such eventual implementation take great pains to follow the best practices already laid out globally. While some existing studies point to early gains in language proficiency made by Korean students when using AI chatbots, there is arguably insufficient research at this point to conclusively prove the worth of AI chatbots in the Korean educational context. Longitudinal research is especially lacking. The paucity of such research opens a large gap in our understanding, but unfortunately, any mistakes created as a result of academic and policymaker ignorance will most likely be paid for primarily by the Korean learners themselves.

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Building Communities of Practice in Adult ESOL Programs During COVID-19

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The COVID-19 pandemic led to a sudden shift to emergency remote teaching (ERT) in 2020. Face-to-face programs were forced to go online with little notice or preparation. This paper examines two different adult ESOL programs' transitions to ERT through the prism of virtual communities of practice. The first program is a faith-based community program and the second is a university intensive English program. This paper reports how they facilitated virtual communities of practice (vCoP) among their teachers to ease the stress of transition to remote teaching and to provide much needed professional development in a crisis. The authors describe the steps their programs took, analyze their experiences using literature from the field, and set out implications to educators in similar circumstances.

Keywords: COVID-19 pandemic, emergency remote teaching, communities of practice, ESOL program

INTRODUCTION

As COVID-19 began to spread at the beginning of 2020, we had no idea of the journey that we were about to embark upon. Like many others, our programs were forced to close face-to-face instruction, and we entered into a state of emergency remote teaching (ERT). ERT can best be defined as “a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an

alternate delivery mode, such as online instruction, due to crisis circumstances” (Hodges et al., 2020, para. 13).

ERT posed a number of issues to educators and administrators in regards to knowledge, resources, and logistics as they switched to an unfamiliar mode of instruction. In our experience, teachers are generally not taught to teach online and are therefore unfamiliar with how to transfer their pedagogy to online platforms. Internet access can also be an issue for teachers and students given that broadband access is far from universal. Access to devices such as computers by all members of a class or multiple users on location can also serve as a challenge to access. Scheduling and timing can also serve as an issue, as it is not always self-evident when the best time is for the class to occur for both students and teachers. Additional issues include how self-directed the ERT should be as well as how assessments might occur.

This paper will look at ERT through the prism of communities of practice (CoP) as applied to two different ESOL teaching contexts: a medium-sized, faith-based adult ESL program and a university intensive English program. Our goals are (a) to describe the successful transition from on-site to online classes in the two different adult ESOL-serving settings, (b) to discuss the steps taken, and (c) to offer suggestions and resources for similar ESOL programs that wish to replicate the experience at these two sites.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A community of practice (CoP) is a concept that dates back to Lave and Wenger’s (1991) work in the field of anthropology and apprenticeship. Over the past three decades, the definition has been generalized to include any situation in which people gather with a shared passion and desire to work together in order to improve their skills by consistent interaction, (Wenger-Traynor & Wenger-Traynor, 2015). Wenger-Traynor and Wenger-Traynor further define CoPs by three important elements: the domain, the community, and the practice. The domain is the shared area of interest to which the members commit themselves. The community is the relationship between members who share their experiences and the vehicle by which they interact in a regular manner. The practice is the shared resources and techniques that the members of the domain develop through their interactions and

discussions.

The CoP framework has been applied to different communities of practitioners within higher education. Kim (2007) found that East Asian graduate students were able to use CoPs to change their self-perception and to feel as if they were legitimate participants as they navigated graduate studies in their second language while studying at a university in the United States. Crawford and Sejula (2017) argued that by building CoPs, institutions of learning can continue to build collegiality and social bonds that may not occur when universities and schools become corporatized. Tavakoli (2015) applied CoPs to understand gaps between research and practice by teachers. In the context of education, the prime beneficiaries of CoPs are students, staff, the teaching institution itself, and the wider community (May & Keay, 2017).

Although CoPs have traditionally met face-to-face, it does not always have to be the case due to limitations of time, travel, and expense that can prevent participation (May & Keay, 2017). One such example comes from Deutschmann (2014), who described how he created a virtual CoP (vCoP) in his teaching at Umeå University. His institution is in a remote part of Sweden where face-to-face teaching is not always optimal for students and teachers. By using a vCoP, he was able to create opportunities for learning that would otherwise not have existed for his students.

Kimble and Hildreth (2005) found that a vCoP can be successful, providing that it adheres to the principles of face-to-face CoPs when they analyzed a case study of a vCoP established in the UK, the USA, and Japan. These vCoPs can use a mixture of online tools to facilitate participants sharing and discussion such as wikis, blogs, and social networking sites (Polin, 2010).

Furthermore, there is a history of vCoP's being employed to overcome barriers to teachers' professional development. Anas (2018) reported that Indonesian teachers of English used Facebook discussions and pages for professional development to interact with peers who were not in their immediate vicinity. Lim (2017) researched and found promising results in Korean teachers of English who helped each other to navigate teaching a flipped classroom for the first time using Naver Band. Lim found the outcome from that group so promising as to suggest that it could serve as a substitute for other forms of current in-service training.

Golden (2016) summarized some pros and cons to vCoPs, stating

that technology could be a barrier for some teachers but that use of online forums provided opportunities for some teachers who would not have otherwise participated due to personal or cultural reasons. Golden also concluded that additional training and learning were advisable so that teachers could take full advantage of the tools.

When considering any training of online tools, the preferences of the teachers involved should also be consulted by planners. If teachers do not feel in command of their own professional development with CALL, it is possible that they might resist the online tools and hinder their effective implementation even in an ERT situation (Tafazoli, 2021). Mercieca (2017) states that it is the goal of researchers to overcome issues with professional development.

BUILDING A vCoP IN TWO ADULT ESOL PROGRAMS

In this section, we introduce how two adult ESOL program teachers have successfully built a vCoP during COVID-19 emergency remote teaching: a medium-sized, faith-based adult ESOL program and a university intensive English program.

Case 1: A Medium-Sized, Faith-Based Adult ESOL Program

Before Building a vCoP: March 2020

This adult ESOL setting was a faith community-based ESOL program in Florida. Before the beginning of the pandemic, this program held 90-minute classes on Monday evenings. The program offered six classes, serving the needs of 85 learners in the spring of 2020. The program's fourteen teachers were volunteers who team-taught language and civics lessons for immigrants, refugees, and members of the church community. As the learner population were adults who worked, the program offered transportation and childcare services to its learners.

When the COVID-19 pandemic began, the church building in which we taught was required to close. As of March of 2020, there was no online presence for the program. The program did not have access to a learning management system (LMS) nor a separate videoconferencing platform. Because we were unable to pivot to online teaching, we decided to end the program eight weeks early. The final in-person class

was focused on helping learners to understand how the coronavirus was spread and best practices for prevention. We also made certain to follow up with our learners via text messages to ask how they were doing, and if they needed any help.

In the summer of 2020, we began to explore resources for reopening the program for that fall. There were a number of unknowns in trying to plan the re-opening of a volunteer-run program in a pandemic: such as whether or not the church building would be able to re-open and in what capacity, whether learners and volunteer teachers would feel comfortable returning to in-person classes, or what might happen if the program resumed in-person and was forced to close suddenly due to a COVID-19 resurgence. As director, I decided that the only thing I could plan with any certainty was to take the program completely online. This overcame potential difficulties with the church facilities, and learner and teacher comfort, as well as health and safety. On the other hand, it created a number of new challenges to tackle.

Beginning with the end in mind, I researched LMSs that would fit the situation of our learners, the majority of whom had access to smartphones but not laptops or personal computers. When considering the best outcomes, we arrived at the decision to find an LMS that would serve as a one-stop shop rather than trying to bundle together multiple platforms. Our priorities were (a) smartphone compatibility, (b) no requirements to download or install system software, (c) synchronous online classrooms, (d) asynchronous course websites, and (e) an integrated system for teachers and administrators. After researching and testing various products, we purchased a subscription to a web-based LMS in July of 2020 that matched our priorities.

Building a vCoP: Summer 2020

Once the church had purchased an account with a web-based LMS, our next step in August 2020 was to begin equipping volunteers for online teaching. We began by calling our roster of volunteer teachers to assess their interest in online teaching, with the knowledge that few of them had experience doing so in the past. Once we knew who was willing to return and to try teaching online, we began to schedule sessions to work with the new LMS.

The web-based LMS's sales representative provided us with a single training/orientation session for our volunteer teachers and administrators. We decided, however, that additional sessions to explore and learn the

system would be necessary. Due to most of the volunteer teachers having no previous online teaching experience, it was important to me that the process of equipping them to confidently take on this new teaching role be as positive and experiential as possible. For this reason, I named them “teacher sandboxes” rather than “teacher training sessions,” indicating the importance of group play (in the sense of a low-stress experience in the online environment to explore its key features) and getting dirty in the process (making mistakes, troubleshooting).

Each session provided the volunteer teachers with the opportunity to gain hands-on experience working with the LMS. The teachers had chances to enroll in courses as students and as teachers. They could therefore experience the LMS from both perspectives, allowing them to understand the LMS interface from the point of view of the learner as well as the teacher.

These sessions led to organic troubleshooting as the teachers quickly began to teach each other different techniques and aspects of the LMS. For example, initially teachers struggled with directing learners to the asynchronous learning activities in the LMS, as the teacher view of the LMS is different from what the learners see. One volunteer teacher who had a background in graphic design created a screenshot of the LMS page from the learner view, to which she added colorful arrows and simple directions, and shared this with the other teachers. The teachers could then easily add this image to the virtual whiteboard when talking about the asynchronous activities with learners at the end of each live class.

The teachers were also able to expand their mastery of the content of online teaching. In August of 2020, the focus was on essential aspects of teaching that worked in a simpler fashion, such as opening the classroom, sharing lesson content such as images and PDF worksheets on the virtual whiteboard, and encouraging online participation from learners. As time passed, additional features were added as the teachers’ mastery of the content became increasingly complex. For example, in November, I showed the teachers how to create low-stakes interactive quizzes in the LMS. I also observed that the teachers were able to move between focusing on the bigger picture aspects of teaching, such as adding content to a virtual whiteboard and eliciting information from learners, to finer details, such as moving back and forth between numerous whiteboards and using the highlighter tool to draw learners’ attention to a specific thread of content throughout the lesson.

As teachers became more comfortable in the domain of online teaching and as a community formed, the teachers took more of a lead role in these sandbox discussions. For example, in August of 2020, the director led the weekly sandbox sessions, but over the ensuing several months, the students became the teachers. The director facilitated discussion rather than leading the sandboxes to show the teachers the key features of the LMS. By January 2021, the sandboxes became less frequent, meeting once a month rather than once a week.

As of August 2020, the curriculum itself was a combination of commercial and in-house content. We continued to use a commercial ESOL textbook series, which offered PDF worksheets, online teaching components, and an interactive website for practice activities. Our in-house elements were (a) faith-based YouTube videos that I recorded, combining brief topical language and/or American cultural content lessons (e.g., cardinal vs. ordinal numbers, hurricane safety, etc.) with brief reading and listening practice activities based on Bible stories or video clips on the life of Jesus, and (b) teacher-created quizzes in the LMS. Learners were also emailed printed worksheets, the same ones shown on the virtual whiteboards during synchronous classes, and asynchronously on the class webpages, as most students did not have access to printers. We were able to share reproducible and in-house materials via the web-based LMS's asynchronous website as well as by using the built-in videoconferencing features to practice live with learners.

Building a vCoP: Fall 2020

Online classes began in September of 2020. We offered five class levels (3 ESL, 2 Citizenship) on Monday nights, online for 60 minutes. We had 50 students enrolled across the five classes. There were still two teachers assigned to each class. The two teachers would take different roles. For example, one might set up the course on the LMS each week while the other would provide the live instruction on Monday nights with the other teacher acting in a support role. Another teaching team pair took alternating turns adding course content and doing the bulk of Monday evening teaching. Another team kept the lead teacher in the role of chief content creator/uploader and Monday evening teacher with the assistant teacher acting as an aide to provide individual assistance to learners.

Overall, the roll out was successful. Our LMS met the needs of our

teaching context. We had 50 students enroll in our courses during the year, meaning that we were able to maintain roughly 60% of our pre-pandemic population. One interesting development was that the LMS's asynchronous content and our recorded videos enabled students to participate locally, domestically, and internationally. We also found that our students encouraged family and friends to join our online courses. Eighty-two percent (82%) of our students were local to our area, with 6% joining from different sites in the USA, and 12% joining us from international sites.

Our LMS also allowed us to diversify and decompartmentalize our curricular resources. Teachers could now watch each other's recorded lessons and learn from each other as they taught. This had not been possible during face-to-face teaching, since all lessons had been conducted simultaneously. Teachers had two opportunities to come together as a community within their domain of TESOL and to share their practice: sandboxes and watching each other teach.

Teachers reported surprising successes in the virtual classroom as well. One teacher observed that "my students talk more readily" in the virtual classroom than anticipated when comparing the experience to prior face-to-face classes. Another teacher remarked, "My students seem more focused on the content than they were in our in-person classes."

Case 2: A University Intensive ESOL Program

Before Building a vCoP: March 2020

This second case study was an intensive English program (IEP) that had a partnership with a public university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The IEP was part of a larger consortium of three English language institutes. Although the specific IEP at which I worked was technically a third-party under contract to the university, it was considered part of the university's international programs center; thus, IEP staff had access to university emails, ID cards, platforms, and resources.

Students at the IEP were typically (a) international students studying under full-time student visas, (b) spouses of international students, or (c) members of the community wishing to begin academic studies. IEP students would pay fees to the university to gain access to the same facilities and resources as students who had already matriculated into the program.

Full-time students received 20 hours of instruction per week, divided between a listening/speaking and a reading/writing course. Each term lasted nine weeks, and students would typically spend between a few months to a year in the program before matriculating into the partner university or another local university or college.

As of March of 2020, the teaching staff consisted of four instructors, a head teacher, and a director. Each instructor was a TESOL professional and possessed a Master of Teaching degree in that field. My role was head teacher of the program. Prior to the pandemic, all IEP instruction had been face-to-face without an online component.

Our IEP's partnership with the partner university provided us access to the online platforms and tools such as the university's LMS, "X." While instructors had been encouraged to use the LMS, it had not been a requirement to do so. Most instructors used the LMS to send announcements and used it as a place to collect links and resources for student work. We also used a cloud-based storage platform, "Y," that featured a built-in word processor, presentation, and spreadsheet software for sharing documents and administering the program.

Building a vCoP: March–April 2020

When the pandemic reached a crisis point in our state in late March of 2020, there was little chance to plan to transition to online teaching. We were lucky, however, that the complete shutdown of face-to-face classes occurred the day after the end of the Spring 1 term in late March of 2020. That gave us a week to plan and to consider our options. As head teacher, my responsibilities included curriculum development, teacher training, and facilitating staff meetings. I volunteered to research videoconferencing platforms and to formulate a plan.

During the week of March 23–30, 2020, the director and I researched and experimented with different videoconferencing platforms before deciding on "A" as the best option for our needs. We chose it because it provided advantages such as the ability to move attendees into smaller virtual spaces for small group conversations; additionally, it was the preferred videoconferencing method for the partner university.

By the end of the week, the director and I had adapted our placement tests for online platforms, prepared a training workshop for teachers, and recorded how-to videos for both instructors and students to help them to login and navigate our LMS and videoconferencing platform. The journey and process of building a community of practice,

however, had only just begun.

Our next term began on March 30, 2020, with a one-hour workshop for instructors on using the videoconferencing platform. While the workshop was useful as an initial orientation to the platform, it was clear from that session that instructors would need more support than this training or short how-to videos would provide. They expressed trepidation and concern going forward to teach with little preparation. As a group, we decided then and there that we would meet online twice a week to share any discoveries, concerns or questions that we had encountered during our online teaching.

Some questions that came up were related to how to move a curriculum that was project-based, student-centered, and experiential to an online format. Many of our activities required students to go on field trips to sites off campus and to interact with their future classmates and professors with whom they would study in regular university classes. We were able to brainstorm solutions for those issues such as virtual tours of locations, observing online lectures, and emailing or phoning off campus locations to gather information.

Instructor contracts had the expectation that we could be required to meet up to 90 minutes per week. Prior to the pandemic, we had typically met for 60 minutes per week, with the additional time to be used by instructors for additional collaboration, reviewing of student work together, or prep time as needed. We decided to use the full 90 minutes, divided into a half-hour session on Mondays and another half session on Thursdays. Any additional meeting time on Thursdays was devoted to brief announcements and policy discussions. Each of these meetings was conducted via videoconference to share screens and also to experience functions in real time.

We typically began our discussions with the following items: any new successes, concerns, and questions. We used reflective practice to process all of those elements: an instructor would describe what had happened. Others would pose questions to discover why this event had occurred. When we had identified the reason for the success or concern, we would suggest an action plan based on this experience. Instructors would test the plan and report back at a later meeting.

As instructors shared, a note-taker recorded whatever was brought up on a running online document. This document was maintained throughout the term and shared with all instructors for ease of referral. I also volunteered to research any questions about our new platforms and

to create how-to videos or documents as needed.

Building a vCoP: April–May 2020

As the weeks went on, we shared successes, solved problems, and answered questions together. For example, when one instructor shared that he had tried to play a listening passage from his computer speakers into his computer microphone with limited success, a colleague informed him of the option to stream his computer's sound directly through the screen sharing menu. Instructors also pooled ideas for activities and assignments that had been successful. In one instance, an instructor had used an annotation function when sharing her screen to good effect and explained how she used that function to facilitate students' analyses of each other's writing.

Each discovery, concern, and question was documented in the shared online document.

These discussions and the process of sharing were guided by the instructors. Any how-to videos were also linked to a document for ease of reference.

By late May of 2020, we had a bank of activities, solutions, and collaboration ready for the future. Instructors reported that they felt more at ease with teaching online and attributed that ease to our meetings. Our meeting times grew a little shorter as instructors had fewer questions or concerns, and a routine set in around teaching online.

We also decided as a group on policies and procedures for the next term. One example of this was teaching students who had unreliable internet connections to call into a videoconference so that they could follow along with work done on the LMS or online document with their classmates. We decided that we would demonstrate and practice this feature during the first lesson so that students would be able to join lessons by phone right away if an issue arose.

DISCUSSION

When stepping back to view the programs' ERT experiences, we believe that there were different factors for success. The first was working backwards from our goals in our planning, which led us to choose platforms that best suited the needs of both the IEP and

faith-based programs. We also used a similar process to choose the best method to support our teachers via sandboxes or regular meetings. The success we had in this regard calls to mind Wiggins and McTighe's (2011) concept of Backward Design as a successful process for instructional design. As has been found elsewhere, extending a process of Backward Design can also lead to successful outcomes when conceiving, evaluating, and revising teaching units and course curriculum (Butler et al., 2015).

The step-by-step support provided to both groups of teachers was another element that led to the success of the ERT. We also believe that success would not have been possible without a group of self-motivated and dedicated teachers and students. In addition, we would not discount the fact that in the faith-based program, participation in the program was voluntary for all stakeholders from administrators to teachers to students.

Although there were differences between the two programs, it is our belief that both the IEP and faith-based program took steps towards building a vCoP during this period of ERT. Returning to Wenger-Traynor's and Wenger-Traynor's (2015) criteria, teachers at both sites shared a domain of teaching English to speakers of different languages even if the content differed. Despite the differences between the teaching staffs (e.g., one site was staffed with TESOL professionals while the other was staffed by volunteer teachers), we established among each teaching staff a community of teachers who learned remote teaching together. This difficult situation helped the teaching staff at both sites to quickly form a community and to learn to rely upon one another in a way that had not occurred before. The less structured nature of the vCoP helped teachers to direct their own professional development thus avoiding some of the potential resistance to adopting new online tools described by Tafazoli (2021).

Both groups of teachers also met the practice element of a vCoP by sharing their experiences in the virtual classroom, resources that they had discovered, and effective techniques for remote teaching.

We would also return to Golden's (2016) conclusions regarding vCoPs as the teaching staff in the IEP and faith-based programs both benefited from the leadership's initial orientation and support to the platforms used during ERT and support at the very beginning of the process. We believe that this foundation was important to the eventual success of the vCoPs.

CONCLUSIONS

Our implications for other similar ESL programs are as follows. Online learning must be compatible with teachers' and learners' available technological knowledge and resources. Educators should also consider which platforms would fit the needs and resources of their teaching context. The IEP and faith-based programs arrived at different platforms that worked well for their own situations and student populations. Taking the time to explore options was a valuable step in our move to online teaching, and we would recommend that others do the same.

An online environment compatible with teachers' available resources and step-by-step support are required to prepare teachers for a successful online learning experience. We accomplished this via ongoing meetings and a comprehensive process of orientation and support to our virtual classrooms. Educators and administrators would do well to consider the needs of their teachers before planning out the best way to provide this support. As Tafazoli (2021) found, professional development may not be successful if teachers are not consulted about their preferences ahead of time.

Those in a position of leadership should also expect a transition period from the beginning of ERT to a later stage. The early sessions might be a little more top-down to help acquaint the teachers with the platforms chosen and to help increase their comfort levels. Having a dedicated person to research questions about the technology and then report back to the group can also be helpful at the beginning of the transition. Once this initial stage has passed, leadership may step back, allowing for a less structured time so that teachers can share openly and freely with less structure.

We also found that more time will be taken up by the vCoP in the initial stages as teachers struggle with a new mode of teaching. After time has passed, the meetings may become less frequent and shorter as teachers become familiar with remote teaching. Our teachers also reported lower levels of nervousness and stress as they became familiar with ERT and were able to help each other to learn. To sum up, the meetings will begin as more frequent, longer in duration, and more structured near the beginning of the move to ERT, but they will gradually become less so.

A final suggestion is to find methods of recording experiences and classroom practice. The running online document helped teachers at the

IEP to have easy reference to what had been discussed. Videoconferencing platforms also have the advantage of recording so that other teachers can learn by observing each other's practice as a supplement to discussion.

In conclusion, as we reflected on our experiences moving to online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, it resonates with us that the vCoPs our programs developed were an essential and effective meeting place in which we developed synergy, creativity, resilience, and ultimately mastery. While we hope to never experience a similar emergency in our careers, it could offer a path forward for future emergency remote teaching and beyond.

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Teaching Drama Online With and Without Zoom: A Comparison of Two University Classes

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Based on two versions of a drama course taught to second-year university students at a private university in Seoul within a course entitled “Communicative Competence 1,” this paper briefly outlines the history of drama in education (DIE) and the methodological foundations of the course as outlined and created in 2017. Then, it analyses the changes necessitated by the move to online-only classes on Blackboard in the Spring 2020 semester, followed by an additional move to Zoom classes in Spring 2021. While some theater games and activities were modified or replaced entirely, new online-friendly versions were also designed and tested mostly with success but occasionally resulting in failure as well. Examples of each of these will be presented and discussed briefly and several lessons and conclusions will be offered in closing so others may benefit from the lessons learned.

Keywords: ESL, EFL, Korea, university, drama in education, improvisation, Stanislavsky method.

INTRODUCTION

Before the advent of COVID 19, the idea of teaching drama classes in a non-face-to-face format would have been virtually unthinkable. In fact, the original course syllabus for the author’s introduction to acting class from 2017 (Appendix A) states the course objectives as (a) to introduce the basics of characterization, acting, and stagecraft and (b) to allow students to perform alone and in groups as much as possible. While objective “a” remains the same, how to accomplish objective “b” has been the real challenge over the past couple of years and has seen this course taught using only Blackboard (Spring, 2020) and on Zoom

with some materials shared on Canvas (Spring, 2021). This paper will review the background of the various iterations of drama in education along with the various applications and interpretations of these both pedagogically and methodologically. Then, it will outline the evolution of the offline course into an effective online course as well as the lessons that will, in turn, lead to an improved offline class post-pandemic. These lessons will hopefully be of benefit to others who have made or will make similar adjustments to their own courses.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In defining the differences between “theater in education,” “drama in education,” and “educational drama,” Valverde (2003) makes the following distinctions: (a) TIE, or *theater in education*, is the name given to a particular kind of theater, practiced by professional drama companies, or TIE teams, which work specifically in educational projects to be devised at schools, (b) DIE, or *drama in education*, is the term applied to the practice and use of drama in the classroom, as both subject and method. It can be introduced to deliver any aspect of the curriculum, often to explore cross-curricular aspects; in contrast to TIE, it relies upon the work of teachers, not actors. In this paper, (c) *educational drama* is used as a rather comprehensive or umbrella term intended to refer to any form derived from the act of using drama in the service of education. It is often used as a synonym to DIE, but it can also encompass educational projects carried out by theater groups. Thus, the term “educational plays” is usually given to those plays targeted to a specific age-range and exploring particular school issues (p. 8).

The courses discussed in this paper are best categorized as DIE and will be analyzed from that perspective rather than the other two, since it is being used to foster communicative competence and build the confidence of the students who enroll to study drama in English through doing improvisational games, monologues, and various types of short plays throughout the duration of the course (see Appendix A).

Burt (2020) provides Figure 1 as part of his multi-part series discussing the history of drama in education.

FIGURE 1. Drama in Education: 1900–1960

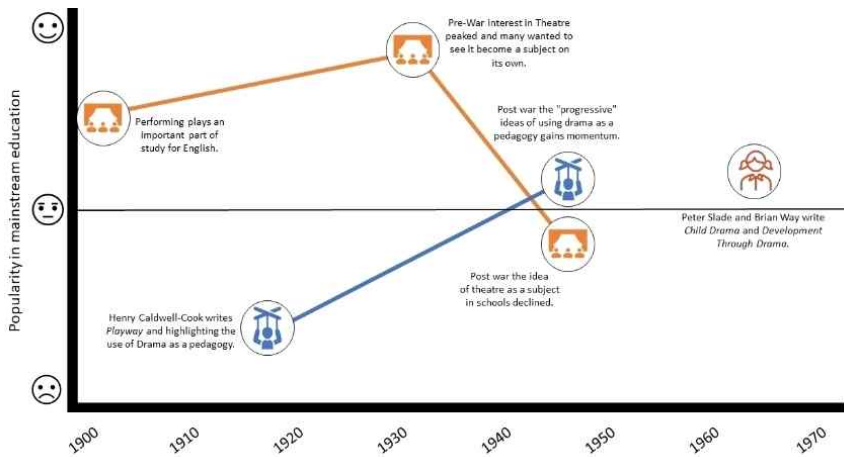


Figure 1 illustrates nicely the mismatch that often exists between methodology and pedagogy in many areas, including drama and its applications in the classroom. What drama is and how it has developed over many years are of importance for this paper. Gavin Bolton (as cited in Bresler, 2007) states that drama education as a field should “attempt to untangle the confused strands of classroom drama” to foster a better understanding of drama education’s scope in the 21st century (p. 45).

It all began perhaps with John Dewey (1915, 2011), who spread the idea of democratic and child-centered curriculum and education in the United States. At the same time, two teachers in the United Kingdom were, unknowingly to each other, engrossed with drama as a mechanism for teaching other subject content. Harriet Finlay-Johnson (1871–1956) and Henry Caldwell-Cook (1886–1939) were each challenging the idea that drama was concerned solely with skills development and training in such areas as speech, movement, elocution, and acting. Finlay-Johnson and Caldwell-Cook drew a clear line between using drama for skills development and standard setting, as endorsed by the British government of that period. They preferred the practice of drama such that “the subject matter, or content, of the drama was all important” for learning experiences (Bolton, 1985, p. 153).

In the late 1950s and early 1960s, British drama educator Dorothy Heathcote initiated a revolution in drama education while teaching at Newcastle-upon-Tyne University. She developed a process called

“Mantle of the Expert” as a means of empowering educators to use drama pedagogies in their classrooms:

I consider that Mantle of the Expert work becomes deep social (and sometimes personal) play because (a) students know that they are contracting into fiction, (b) they understand the power they have within that fiction to direct, decide, and function, (c) the “spectator” in them must be awakened so that they perceive and enjoy the world of action and responsibility, even as they function in it, and (d) they grow in expertise through the amazing range of conventions that must be harnessed. (Bolton & Heathcote, 1995, p. 18)

Drawing on Heathcote’s ideas, Bolton (1985), like Finlay-Johnson and Caldwell-Cook, determined that drama education should be experiential, spontaneous, and existential. It should not be “repeatable” as with scientific research and outcomes, for example. For Bolton, asking students to perform in drama was less spontaneous. It was public, was focused on “demonstration” and had an emphasis on “the external.” Such performance events were seen as outside true drama pedagogy.

Beyond the unquestioned impact of Heathcote and Bolton, British drama educators and drama theorists helped shape drama education and its diverse curricula. They have done so in diverse ways while acknowledging the mismatch between drama education and drama as an art form. O’Neill’s (1995), Ackroyd’s (2004), Fleming’s (2011), and Nicholson’s (2005, 2009, 2011) work pay homage to the influences of Heathcote’s methodology and pedagogy while also acknowledging that theater’s artistry impacts the artistry of classroom practice. Courtney’s (1980), Winston’s (2005), Kempe’s (2007) and Neelands’ (2009, 2010, 2011) practice and research have contributed extensively to drama’s curriculum in the United Kingdom and drama education in general. The debate about drama as pedagogy and drama as an art form, however, is ongoing.

In the 1980s, British drama educator and theater practitioner David Hornbrook put forward a critique of drama education during the 1950s and 1960s, and more recently. He argued that a truly natural response from children – fostered through process drama – wasn’t feasible, even in the drama classroom: “Children know or can sense approval and disapproval, and in the main will seek to please, within the dramatic framework which the teacher has defined for them” (p. 354). Hornbrook

(1985) pinpointed the irony that “drama in education ... had to distance itself from the very art form with which it is most readily associated – theatre” (pp. 347–348). He argued aggressively for a re-thinking of the growing gap created between drama education and theater skills calling that distance a “serious weakness” (p. 355). Hornbrook (1986) further argued that a critical history allows a subject such as drama to be accepted as an art form with “a coherent body of practices ... which make the word ‘drama’ intelligible to the world outside as well as inside the classroom” (p. 17). Hornbrook (1986) also stated,

I also see a growing willingness especially among younger teachers to tackle the important question of what young people should be learning about drama and to worry less about techniques designed to help student learn through drama. (p. ix)

Bruner (1996) put it another way, stating that one of the primary characteristics of drama in education is how students construct an imaginary world allowing them to expand their knowledge. The experience and understanding gained from this self-created imaginary environment aids them in the much more complicated real world.

Theories of educational drama that advocated for drama to be purely experiential, such as those previously mentioned – Dewey, Heathcote, and later Gavin Bolton (1995) – eventually had to be positioned against the need for drama education to establish its status and position in formal curriculum. According to Boudreault (2010),

Drama for second language learners can provide an opportunity to develop the imagination of the students. The students can go beyond the here and now and even “walk in the shoes” of another. It provides an opportunity for independent thinking (McCaslin 1996). Students are encouraged to express their own ideas and contribute to the whole. Creative drama will offer exercises in critical thinking and the chance for the students to be creative. A good example of this is role-playing in small groups. The ESL/EFL group will have many situations where they can develop their own ideas as well as skills of cooperation when interacting with classmates. The group work builds social awareness and understanding as we walk in the “shoes of another.” Drama gives an excellent method for studying human nature and working in harmony. The play acting provides the opportunity for a healthy release of emotion in a safe setting which

can work to relieve the tension of learning in a second language.
(para. 5)

Yet, despite these efforts and benefits, drama struggles to be viewed as a valuable technique in the teacher's toolbox at all levels of education. The majority of academic publications on drama in language teaching study its use in primary or secondary school and/or in general language learning. Not many publications look at using drama in the teaching of language to university students in ESL or EFL contexts, which is the intent of this article.

DRAMA AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL METHOD

Insofar as the method is concerned, as a former actor and part-time theater studies major, the author combines both more traditional theater styles like Stanislavski's and Spolin's with occasional content from ESL/EFL-focused classroom drama texts like those by Maley and Duff (1978, 1982, 2005) and Wessels (1987). It all began with an acting class based around *A Practical Handbook for the Actor* by Bruder et al. (1986). As David Mamet writes in the introduction,

This book offers some simple advice and suggestions The technical suggestions are reducible to a simple stoic philosophy: Be what you wish to seem. Stanislavsky once wrote ... "play well or play badly, but play truly." It is not up to you whether your performance will be brilliant – all that is under your control is your intention If you ... follow the truth you feel in yourself ... you will subject yourself to profound despair, loneliness, and constant self-doubt. And if you persevere, the Theater ... will grace you, now and then, with the greatest exhilaration. (p. xi)

This is the level of confidence and joy in expression through drama that the courses described below are focused on bringing to the enrolled students where possible. But Bruder's 94-page book is just the theoretical foundation along with the questions the author created for homework and in-class discussion (see Appendix B).

As can be seen from the sample syllabi and in the table comparing the changes to theater games and activities in Class A and B

in Appendices A and C, much of the course is devoted to improvisation games adapted from classes taken by the author in college, which were in turn based upon the book *Improvisation for the Theater* by Viola Spolin (1999). As Spolin writes in Chapter 1, Creative Experience,

Acting can be taught to the “average” as well as the “talented” if the teaching process is oriented towards making the theater techniques so intuitive that they become the students’ own. A way is required to get to intuitive knowledge. It requires an environment in which experiencing can take place, a person free to experience, and an activity that brings about spontaneity. (p. 4)

Her books are full of many of these, and this author has adapted many of them, or created his own, to develop and practice key skills like Warm Ups/Icebreakers (Memory), Imagination, Building a Character, The Character and the Scene, Body Language, Preparing for a Scene, The Greatest Prop is – YOU, Costumes and Creating a Character from Nothing, and Team Building (Thorkelson, 2021, pp. 29–33).

According to Gagnon (2004),

Theater games aren't games in the sense of winning and losing, and they aren't about being funny. They're about being in the moment; they're about being totally present to each other – being “in play.” If the rule of the game is that you have to mime eating a Thanksgiving dinner while having a conversation without once mentioning food or the activities involved in eating like “pass the cranberries” then that's what you have to do to successfully play the game (Theater Games, para. 1)... Improvisation is a viable way to involve individuals with fluency concerns in communication situations with peers. It involves intuition, imagination, and spontaneity while dealing with the heart of improvisation-transformation. (Summary, para. 1)

Spolin (1986) offers a list of characteristics of the amateur actor along with advice on how these can be overcome (pp. 190–192). Her ideas are supplemented by a few other authors and sources that have been useful and meaningful in developing students’ communicative competence and other skills through the two versions of the acting class that are compared in the second part of this paper.

Her first point involves dealing with stage fright. This comes from “fear of judgement,” especially if they make a mistake (p. 190). Wessels (1987) reminds readers and teachers that drama offers lessons in “spoken communication skills” by generating a need to speak in order to create drama, role-play, or problem-solve (p. 9). Even more importantly, students who are truly immersed in what is going on onstage forget about everyone and everything else around them except the play or scene they are immersed in at the time.

Second is the issue of not knowing what to do with the actor’s hands while onstage. By learning to act with the whole body and to focus, this problem will disappear (Spolin, 1986, p. 191). Maley and Duff (2005) state that drama “integrates verbal and non-verbal aspects of communication, thus bringing together both mind and body, and restoring the balance between physical and intellectual aspects of learning” (p. 1).

Third are awkward stage movements – shifting back and forth, moving aimlessly about the stage. Allowing the actor to move freely about the stage as they respond to the dramatic action around them rather than following stage directions imposed upon them will solve this problem (Spolin, 1986, p. 191). As Bruder et al. (1986) put it, “The difficulty of executing an action lies in dealing with that which is actually happening in the other person” (p. 40). As long as the actor is living in the moment onstage, stage directions are both unnecessary and a hindrance to a truthful performance.

Fourth is when the actor simply reads lines stiffly and mechanically or forgets lines. When rote memorization and simply getting the lines out becomes the focus for the actor rather than understanding their meaning, interrelationships, and the reality they are creating, then this is the outcome. (Spolin, 1986, p. 191). This may also initially lead to repeating a line the actor has misread or even mouthing the words of fellow actors as they are playing.

Fifth are poor enunciation and rushed speeches. Spolin suggests this is caused by the actor’s failure to recognize the importance of the audience to the theater (p. 191). Wessels (1987) writes that drama has its most important role in teaching of correct pronunciation especially in terms of rhythm, intonation, and prosodic features.

Sixth, the actor creates no theater “business.” The ability to create meaningful stage business only comes from a deeper understanding of the relationships between group members and their involvement in the

activity or scene going on around them (Spolin, 1986, p. 191). Bruder et al. (1986) state, “To live truthfully onstage and effectively perform your action you must learn to embrace each moment as it actually occurs ...” (p. 42). Stage business (or “theater business,” as Spolin calls it) is a natural side effect of pursuing the character’s action, not simply a time filler or meaningless pursuit while the actor is waiting to deliver their next lines.

Seventh, the actor has no sense of timing or drops cues and is insensitive to pacing. Timing can be taught and is a reality of theater (Spolin, 1986, p. 191). However, in the classroom, theater activities, games, etc., times given are simply an indication of the time each will take (Ladousse, 1987, p. 21). In fact, as Maley and Duff (1982) state, “When an activity is going well, ... [it may be] best to cut it off ... as ... too much time spent on an activity leads to a slackening of pace and a loss of interest (p. 20). Wessels (1987) offers slightly different advice for role plays, stating that teachers should set a strict time limit and stick to it (p. 12), which may not always be feasible or desirable, and it may also lead to an actor not projecting their voice or showing emotions.

Eighth, the actor “emotes” lines rather than talking to fellow actors. This results from a sense of isolation and using the stage as a focus for self. Such an actor is failing to interact with or relate to other actors or to the lines they are speaking in any meaningful way (Spolin, 1986, p. 191). Further, as Bruder et al. (1986) state when discussing the emotional trap, “Nothing is more interesting or dramatic than an actor working off the truth of the moment, so don’t take responsibility for the scene by charging it up emotionally” (p. 73).

Ninth, the actor “breaks” on stage. When an actor falls out of character, they have lost touch with the internal relationships and their focus (Spolin, 1986, p. 192). Acting, as Bruder et al. (1986) define it, involves “living truthfully under the given circumstances of a play” (p. 7).

Tenth, the actor cannot take direction. This results from a lack of objectivity or inadequate communication between the actor and director (p. 192). Of course, with drama in the classroom, there is a natural transfer of responsibility from teacher to learners (Maley & Duff, 2005, p. 1). The students will gradually take on the role of director leaving the teacher to step back and facilitate, and problem-solve where necessary rather than having to manage it all themselves.

Eleventh, the actor hangs on to furniture or props. This demonstrates

a fear of being seen by the audience as well as a lack of trust or team-building between the actors as a group (Spolin, 1986, p. 192). Given time, classroom drama will solve this problem by fostering more positive classroom dynamics and atmosphere by creating group bonds and team-building (Maley & Duff, 2005, p. 2).

Finally, according to Putnam (2020), the positive effects of theater education include

a correlation between drama involvement and academic achievement. In addition to having higher standardized test scores than their peers who do not experience the arts, students who participate in drama often experience improved reading comprehension, maintain better attendance records, and stay generally more engaged in school than their non-arts counterparts. Schools with arts-integrated programs, even in low-income areas, report high academic achievement. (Drama improves academic performances, para. 1)

EVOLUTION OF THE FACE-TO-FACE DRAMA COURSE TO THE ONLINE ENVIRONMENT

In this section the author will compare the key differences between the two versions of the same drama class done online during the COVID 19 pandemic period from the Spring semester of 2020 to Spring 2021 before offering some tips for adapting classes for online delivery.

The first major difference between these two courses involved replacing the final scene/skits (worth 30% of the final grade) with two separate assignments worth 15% each (a radio play and a puppet play script). These were done in groups assigned at random by the instructor, while coordinating time to work together in Spring 2020 (Class A) was up to the students. In Spring 2021 (Class B), it was all done on Zoom, and students presented their plays and scripts to the entire class on Zoom. Whereas Class A recorded their performances and commentaries on the scripts and sent the files to the professor who viewed and graded them, Class A reduced the interactive nature of a typical drama class significantly, while Class B utilized Zoom and allowed for a lot more of the typical class cohesion and interactions to occur although not nearly as much as is possible in a face-to-face drama class.

Secondly, the number and types of theater games used were

significantly decreased in the case of Class A, but Class B allowed for more of them to be revived or revised, and the instructor was even able to add a few new games and activities to the class. (See Appendix C for a detailed comparison of the games and activities used in Class A and Class B based on the syllabi in Appendix A.)

As can be seen in Appendix C, there were many changes required to teach drama online. Class A was a lot less successful than Class B, and improving the course is a never-ending process. However, there were some clearly successful modifications and additions. One definite change was that neither class could cover more than one or two games or activities per day or even per week due to the relatively large classes (around 20 in both cases) and the additional explanations needed when demonstrating in class was not possible. On the other hand, at least one student complained that they were embarrassed as they had to record their videos outside of their dorm room due to their roommate, but this meant that they were doing them in public and in front of random strangers (Class A). Another student used these strangers in many of his videos, which made them more interesting and fun to watch (Class A).

Additionally, drama is very rarely a solo endeavor in a typical offline class. While an actor may memorize their lines alone, almost every other aspect of the class involves other actors, the instructor, or other groups of people. Online classes (especially Class A in this case) require a lot more alone time for the actors, and this makes them more challenging as well as more likely to fail. For this reason, group chats or regular chats on the class LMS are a necessary part of the course. These can be set up by the instructor or by the students themselves.

Further, very clear instructions are even more important online than offline, as students do not have the chance to see what their peers or others are doing. Even good instructions may not work for every student, so supplementing with demo videos from YouTube or from previous students' work may be necessary. Obviously, permission from the students in previous classes is required whenever possible.

Doing the classes live on Zoom (Class B) solved most of these issues, as students got to interact with and rehearse in front of their peers before they did the games or activities for the whole class. The friendships formed also made them more comfortable performing in front of the entire class when that was required.

The last part of every class was reserved for students' questions, and this was also true for Class B on Zoom. That final five minutes or so

solved many of the possible problems arising from misunderstandings of instructions and deadlines as well as other problems if students used this time properly. Class A sent many more messages and emails asking questions than Class B did, and this question-and-answer period was a key reason. (See Appendix C for a detailed class-by-class comparison of the activities used for both classes, along with notes on what was done and how it was done.)

CONCLUSIONS

In considering what was changed or tweaked in these courses, some tips for successfully adapting courses designed for face-to-face teaching into effective online courses are here offered.

The importance of clear instructions and keeping communication open between instructors and students by all possible means has been discussed previously. In addition, providing the necessary course materials by alternate means is also essential. Whether it is posting class-related materials in weekly folders on the LMS or providing PDF and Word versions of the class workbook to students, materials must be made easily accessible to students in a timely manner. Whenever these failed to get the job done, announcements were posted on the LMS, but these were limited in number to ensure that students would take them seriously. Further, expect some activities that work well offline to flop online, while others may actually work almost as well online as they do offline.

Another major change that will remain after online classes end is online testing. While these courses do not normally include tests or quizzes, it was considered necessary to add a few review quizzes that were administered through an online testing site that was not part of the official LMS. While Blackboard allowed for effective online testing (Class A), the version of Canvas created as a hybrid with the university's system (Class B) did not, so an external site was used, and this was quite effective once the test questions were inputted.

Finally, the number of YouTube or other videos to demonstrate games or techniques has increased, and these have been added to the instructor's library of materials for use with future classes. This is of course an ongoing process, but the nature of online-versus-offline classes made this much more important for both classes discussed here. It is not

recommended to overuse materials like these, as they may hamper student innovation and originality in their performances, but moderate use will decrease the number of potential questions as well as the need for more detailed and step-by-step instructions, especially for the more well-known improvisation games and activities like the ABC game.

In closing, Wessels (1987) says of drama that it is a technique for teaching certain language skills while Bolton wants drama to be at the center of the curriculum and applied to all facets of learning (Wessels, p. 8). The authors' view is closer to Wessel's in many ways. Drama in education (or DIE) is both a subject and a method in these classes (Valverde, 2003, p. 8). It meets the communicative as well as the social needs of the students while building up their confidence and awareness of the English language and its accompanying culture in a novel way that many of them never even considered previously as a means to use real language in a non-threatening environment. While many of them had read plays or scenes previously, they had not yet had the experience of acting them out for an audience, unless they had taken part in our freshmen drama club, which many choose not to. The courses described in this paper offer students their first taste of live theater from the actor's perspective and also allows them to create and present their own ideas through theater games, monologues, dialogues, and the new radio play and puppet play projects that replaced the course's final plays for 2020–21. These will remain part of the class going forward but will not replace the final performances, once online classes finally end.

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APPENDIX A

Original 2017 and Revised Fall 2021 Course Syllabus

Original 2017 Introduction to Acting: Who am I?

Course Objectives

- a) To introduce the basics of characterization, acting and stagecraft.
- b) To allow students to perform alone and in groups as much as possible.

Resources

Bruder, M. et. al. "A Practical Handbook for the Actor." *

Gallo, D. R. "Center Stage: One Act Plays for Readers and Actors."

Harvey, A. "Duologues for Young Actors".

Martin, R., & Hill, R. "Modern Plays"

Yim, Choi-Kyu & Choi, Young. "20 Representative Modern Plays."

Laurel "Six Great Modern Plays."

Martin, A. & Hill, R. "Modern Plays."

Sculman, M. & Mekler, E. "Actor's Scenebook."

Spolin, V. "Improvisation for the Theater."

Zimmerman, S. "Introduction to Theatre Arts."*

Course Outline

Week 1: Course Outline/Warm Ups/Student Information Sheet. Handbook, pp. 3-11 (Name Game/California Game).

Week 2: The Theater Family and Bingo. (Pass the Object/Mirror Game/Where Are We?)

Week 3: Acting and Questions. The Action and the Scene. Handbook, pp. 11-18 (Musical Places/My Room).

Week 4: Basic Acting Terminology/The Stage. (Team Stories: Balls/Team Object exercise/The Party)

Week 5: Basic Play Terminology/Preparing for a Scene. Handbook, pp. 55-58 (The Circle of the Acting Process/Actor's Triangle).
The Character and the Scene. Lab Scenes / Handbook, pp. 19-39 (Analyzing a Scene).
(See "Walking Through Seaweed" [pp. 53-9; Methuen Duologues, 2 girls], "Beautiful Thing" [pp. 105-109; Methuen Dialogues, 2 boys].)

- Week 6: Improvisation/Monologues Rehearsals. The Scene: Troubleshooting & the Tools of the Craft. Handbook, pp. 59–65 (“ABCs”).
- Week 7: Monologues (rehearsals).
- Week 8: MIDTERMS (Monologue performances)!
- Week 9: The Actor’s Voice/Breathing/The Actor’s Body. The Greatest Prop is – YOU! (Object exercises/Rope Game/Human Pretzels)
- Week 10: The History of Theater. (Object Exercises)
- Week 11: Body Language. (Creating a Character from Nothing). Handbook, pp. 48-54 (Funny Hats)/Lab Scenes.
- Week 12: Review/Scene or Play Preparation. Handbook, pp. 66–67 (People and Places – Pictures).
- Week 13: Scenes/One-Act Plays Rehearsals.
- Week 14: Scenes/One-Act Plays Rehearsals.
- Week 15: Scenes/One-Act Plays Rehearsals.
- Week 16: Scenes/One-Act Plays Performed.

Possible Scenes

- “Walking Through Seaweed” (pp. 53–59; Methuen Duologues; 2 girls)
- “Beautiful Thing” (pp. 105–109; Methuen Dialogues; 2 boys)
- “Romantic Comedy” (Scenebook, pp. 36–41, Couple)
- “Betrayal” (Scenebook, pp. 59–63, Couple)
- “Bedroom Farce” (Scenebook, pp. 68–72, Couple)
- “Table Settings” (Scenebook, pp. 72–75)
- “The American Clock” (Scenebook, pp. 95–98)
- “Ondine” (Scenebook, pp. 131–134)

Possible Short Plays

- Durang – *Naomi in the Living Room*.
- Howe – *Teeth*.
- Kopit – *Success*.
- McNally – *Andre’s Mother* (Lit, An Intro.)

**Revised Fall 2021 Introduction to Acting: Who Am I?
Course Objectives**

- a) To introduce the basics of characterization, acting and stagecraft.
- b) To allow students to perform alone and in groups as much as possible.

Resources

Bruder, M. et.al. “A Practical Handbook for the Actor.”**

Crash Course Theater (YouTube).**

Spolin, V. “Improvisation for the Theater.”

Zimmerman, S. “Introduction to Theatre Arts.”

(**Related materials in Class Workbook) TBA

Course Outline (~30 contact hours; 3 hours a week).

Week 1: Course Outline/Warm Ups/Student Information Sheet. Handbook, pp. 3–11 (Name Game/California Game).

Week 2: The Theater Family & Bingo. (Pass the Object/Mirror Game/Where Are We?).

Week 3: Acting & Questions. The Action and the Scene. Handbook, pp. 11–18 (Musical Places/My Room).

Week 4: Basic Acting Terminology/The Stage. (Team Stories: Balls/Team Object Exercise/The Party).

Week 5: Basic Play Terminology/Preparing for a Scene. Handbook, pp. 55–58; The Circle of the Acting Process/Actor’s Triangle. The Character and the Scene. Lab Scenes/Handbook, pp. 19–39; Analyzing a Scene. (See “Walking Through Seaweed” [pp. 53–59; Methuen Duologues, 2 girls], “Beautiful Thing” [pp. 105–109; Methuen Dialogues, 2 boys].)

Week 6: Improvisation/Monologues Rehearsals. The Scene: Troubleshooting and the Tools of the Craft. Handbook, pp. 59–65 (“ABC’s”).

Week 7: Monologue Rehearsals.

Week 8: Monologues!

Week 9: The Actor’s Voice/Breathing/The Actor’s Body. The Greatest Prop is – YOU! (Object Exercises/Rope Game/Human Pretzels)

Week 10: The History of Theater. (Pair Exercises)

Week 11: Body Language. (Creating a Character from Nothing). Handbook, pp. 48–54 (Funny Hats)/Lab Scenes.

Week 12: Plays versus Scenes. Handbook; pp. 66–67 (People and Places: Pictures). Radio Plays.

Week 13: The Shortest Play in the World.

Week 14 & 15: Scenes/One-Act (Puppet) Plays, Rehearsals.

Week 16: Scenes/One-Act (Puppet) Plays.

APPENDIX B

Sample Class Materials

A Practical Handbook for the Actor: Sample Questions

Introduction

1. What are the problems with most acting classes?
2. What is Mamet's advice to actors?
3. What does Stanislavski say about acting? What does it mean?

The Job of the Actor

1. What is the actor's job?
2. What can actors control and develop for themselves? What things are out of the actor's control?
3. How important is talent?
4. What does "live truthfully under the imaginary circumstances of the play" mean?
5. Why does the world need theater?

Crash Course Theater History: Sample Questions

Preview +

1. Who is the host?
2. (See: https://everipedia.org/wiki/lang_en/mike-rugnetta/)
3. What will you learn in this course?
4. Why is theater important for us?
5. What does theater teach us/help us explore?
6. What will this course NOT teach you?
7. What are some styles/stories of theater that will be explored?

Episode 1: What is Theater? +

1. Who is Dionysus?
2. What is this episode about?
3. What are the definitions of "theater"?
4. What are some examples of plays?
5. What is an actor? Audience member?
6. Is everything theater?
7. What is not theater? (Narrow definition)
8. Which is better; theater or theatre?
9. What are some possible origin theories of theater?
10. How did Greek drama evolve supposedly? Why is it better than

previous ideas about this?

11. Why did the Ritualists fail to understand what they were trying to explain?
12. What are some theories of theater? How did they explain theater?
13. What are some examples of theater that do NOT fit into the above theories?
14. Where did theater come from?
15. Why does theater matter?

APPENDIX C

Changes to Theater Games and Activities in Class A and B

TABLE C1. Tabulated Course Changes by Class and Week

Week	Class A	Class B	Comments/Notes
1	Icebreakers: Name GameX/California GameX	Icebreakers: Name GameX/California GameX	Class A: Removed (replaced by acting questions). Class B: Questions and Find Someone Who done in Breakout rooms.
2	Objects and Places: Pass the ObjectX/Mirror GameX/Where Are We? Added: Tour Guides I and II.	Objects and Places: Pass the ObjectX/Mirror GameX/Where are we? Tour Guides I and II.	Class A: Removed first 2; Where are we? Done as Tour Guides I and II on video. Class B: Mirror Game and Tour Guides I and II done in breakout rooms and then in front of whole class on Zoom.
3	Musical Places/My Room Added: Emotional Tongue Twisters	Musical Places/My Room Emotional Tongue Twisters	Class A: Shared world music list and they submitted worksheet. Videos submitted of My Room exercise/Emotional Tongue Twisters. Class B: All done online and discussed with whole class on Zoom. A few students acted them out during the classes for the week.
4	Group Exercises: Team Stories (BallsX/Team Object ExerciseX/The PartyX Added: Silly Walks I and II	Group Exercises: Team Stories/Team Object ExerciseX/The PartyX Silly Walks I and II	Class A: Replaced by questions from handbook and online discussion on Blackboard as well as Silly Walks I and II. Students recorded videos and sent them to instructor. Class B: Groups worked in breakout rooms to create original stories/Silly Walks and, after rehearsing, performed them for the class live.
5	The Circle of the Acting Process/Actor's Triangle New Games:	The Circle of the Acting Process/Actor's Triangle New Games:	Class A: Instructor uploaded a video about their models of theater and students completed a worksheet for homework. Created and submitted video of a tour of their favorite place and ABC dialogues (solo).

	My Favorite Place (like My Room activity).	My Favorite Place (like My Room activity).	Class B: Instructor explained their models of theater and students asked questions before completing a worksheet for homework. They then rehearsed and performed a tour of their favorite place for the class and ABC dialogues in pairs/groups.
	ABC Dialogues	ABC Dialogues	
6	Character Sketch and Monologue details. Mirror Game moved here.	Character Sketch and Monologue details. Mirror Game moved here.	Class A: Short video by professor followed by online Q&A on Blackboard. Students sent mirror game videos for homework. Class B: Professor presented the information in class on Zoom, answered questions and the rest of the class showed us their tours of their favorite places. Mirror Games done in pairs in class 2. Some pairs chosen to do them for the entire class on Zoom.
7	Monologue Rehearsals	Monologue Rehearsals	Class A: Open tutorials on Blackboard. Class B: Done in groups on Zoom followed by Q&A as well as open tutorials for those who had further questions.
8	Monologues submitted (Videos)	Monologues live on Zoom.	Note: See Appendix 3 for games/activities descriptions.
9	Object Exercises: Object ExercisesX/Rope GameX/Human PretzelsX New: Imaginary Objects (videos)	Object Exercises: Object Exercises/Rope Game/Human Pretzels)	Class A: Deleted and replaced with Imaginary Objects (students mime an object and we guess what it is based on; video posts). Class B: Deleted and replaced with Imaginary Objects (students mime an object and we guess what it is as they acted it out on Zoom. Rehearsed solo in breakout rooms first).
10	The History of Theater: Crossword	Theater of History: Timeline info gap/Crash Course Theater questions. Added:	Class A: Crossword. Students did a crossword to find out about the history of theater and we discussed it on Blackboard. Class B: Students worked in pairs/groups to complete the timeline info gap (breakout rooms) and we went over the answers together on Zoom. We watched a couple of the

		Objects Symphony.	Crash Course Theater episodes on YouTube and discussed them together. Tried the objects symphony live, but it failed due to Zoom's noise cancelling filters.
11	Went over the play Scripts and Radio Play Information. Added: Open Ended Scenes.	Went over the play Scripts and Radio Play information. How will it end?	Class A: Assigned the students to groups to work on these together on Blackboard. Monitored their discussions and took questions online. Students had decided on the situations for the open-ended scenes and discuss online. Class B: Assigned the students to groups to work on these together on Zoom. Took questions from students. Students acted out the completed scenes in breakout rooms and then in front of the class on Zoom for random scenes.
12	People and Places – Pictures. Added: Mystery Ads	People and Places – Pictures Mystery Ads	Class A: Shared pictures through files on Blackboard. Students had to make up stories about the pictures to submit for homework. Students had to record a 30-second ad for a mystery product or acting class. Class B: Showed pictures to the class live and they had to brainstorm and then act out what happened before or after the pictures' activities for us after rehearsing in groups. Students had to record or act out a 30-second ad for a mystery product or acting class.
13	Students were given time to work on their play scripts/radio plays.	Play scripts discussed in breakout rooms and then revised for submission/ The Shortest Play in the World	Class A: Professor monitored discussions on Blackboard. Class B: Plays discussed by groups in breakout rooms. Shortest Play in the World viewed and discussed online (YouTube) and then worksheet assigned for homework.
14	Radio Play Rehearsals in groups on	Radio Play Rehearsals in groups on Zoom. Play scripts due.	Class A: Professor monitored discussions on Blackboard.

	Blackboard. Play scripts due.		Class B: Professor monitored discussions on Zoom/took questions when appropriate.
15	Radio Play Rehearsals in groups on Blackboard.	Radio Play Rehearsals in groups on Zoom.	Class A: Professor monitored discussions on Blackboard. Class B: Professor monitored discussions on Zoom/took questions when appropriate.
16	Play Scripts/Radio Plays submitted and graded by instructor.	Radio Plays performed on Zoom for the entire class.	

Note. X = Cut.

The Exploration of a Korean EFL Student's Motivational Factors over a Yearlong Intensive English Program

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Motivation has long been cited as key to student language learning, from involvement to persistence and success within classroom contexts, such as for those in a university-based intensive English program (IEP). This study explores the motivational factors of an adult Korean student who participated in a yearlong IEP at a university in the United States. The research data was collected from the student's dialogue journals written over a year, analyzed qualitatively, and cross-checked to ensure the trustworthiness of the analysis. Drawing on a qualitative content analysis approach, it was found that the student demonstrated eight motivational factors during the IEP program. The most frequently occurring factors referenced in the journal activity were self-determination, real-life goals, supportive friends, communicative needs, and peer influence. These factors are unique in that they are mentioned across the longitudinal data, rather than in a single instance or within a brief time period, allowing for a more in-depth understanding of how motivational factors may elicit continued effort and success in language learning. Practical and theoretical contributions of the findings as well as suggestions for further research are also discussed.

Keywords: motivation, motivational factors, English language learning

INTRODUCTION

“You can do it if you don’t lose your courage.” — EunJu

International students have grown as a key demographic in higher education, often beginning their enrollment abroad via intensive English programs (IEPs) – English immersion programs that are oriented toward international students, non-degree granting, and generally up to a year in duration. In the United States, these programs have seen a rapid contraction in recent years, particularly due to sentiments of political uncertainty and recent policy changes (Fischer, 2019). However, institutions of higher education in countries such as South Korea have seen a rise in international student enrollments (2021 Educational Statistics ..., 2021) facilitated in part due to a growth in English-medium instruction coursework, proximity to potential international student populations, relative affordability, and government policy focus (Jon et al., 2013; Kim, 2020). As IEPs and international enrollments shift towards Korea, and as Korean students less frequently enroll in programs abroad (Oh, 2020), such changes necessitate consideration of the IEP model for student success in Korea and abroad.

For students, the advantages of IEPs are often framed in terms of acculturation and target language immersion. Beyond overcoming sociocultural hurdles and gaining opportunities in a new country (Jackson, 2004), the benefits of IEPs for students are an English-based instruction with degree-specific coursework (Lo & Murphy, 2010), and building communicative flexibility fostered by the variety of language learning experiences utilized within IEPs (Jones, 2018; Lee, 2004). This is particularly pronounced for Korean students, as these benefits address the need for English conversational competence and confidence (Jones, 2018). Notable efforts have been expressed in literature in terms of IEP design and target language immersion. However, research on motivational factors for students has focused broadly on EFL contexts (Apple, 2005; Takase, 2007), IEP student surveys (Komiyama, 2013; Lin et al., 2012), and using a narrow range of motivational factors (Cave et al., 2018; MacIntyre et al., 2003). Within such research, the motivational factors that drive students to succeed after program enrollment and arrival, as seen through the lens of a qualitative, longitudinal approach, remain comparatively unfulfilled.

As such, the purpose of this study is to explore the fundamental

motivational factors for a Korean international student to succeed in English language learning. To do so, this study considers the student's ongoing motivation in her first year of enrollment in a university-based IEP in the US. Her persistence was marked by notable challenges as she navigated an unfamiliar culture and coursework within a diverse international student cohort. The longitudinal data, in the form of dialogue writing journals over an academic year, offer valuable insight into the participant's own motivational factors. Furthermore, amidst ongoing trends of declining IEP enrollment in English-speaking countries while Korean institutions of higher education grow as international education hubs (Jon et al., 2013), the long-term motivations expressed by students such as the participant in this study may shed light on key factors in building programming that provides an authentic yet supportive language immersion experience for Korean learners of English in IEPs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivational Factors in English Language Learning

Motivational factors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) for English learners can be defined as qualities that can help a student to keep moving forward to achieve their goal in a program, enhance their English language skills, complete their language tasks, and believe that they can be successful in English language learning (Schunk et al., 2008). Motivation itself has long been noted as key to student language learning, from involvement to persistence and success within the classroom context. Students in English language learning classes report influence from several motivators (Chen et al., 2005), and in the context of a Global English, acquisition of the language itself has shifted to a single essential educational goal (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In the classroom, motivation is navigated by teachers and students alike (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). For students in IEPs and similar programs, motivational factors have a greater effect on the desire to learn than that of previous language experience (Khamkhien, 2010), are linked to student expectations of career or cultural involvement (Kimura et al., 2000), and are implicated with post-program English usage itself (James, 2012). Particularly compelling within the context of diverse international

student cohorts, such as is common in IEPs (Cutler, 2019), is what constitutes motivation for language learners across cultural contexts (see Chen et al., 2005).

While a substantial amount of motivation research via survey has considered motivation in intrinsic and extrinsic forms (see Kimura et al., 2000), Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) posit that these models “do not attempt to account for the complex multiplicity of internal, situational, and temporal factors that may impinge on individual motivation” (p. 76). As such, the array of motivational factors for this study draws upon the work of Ebata (2008), Dailey (2009), and in particular, Komiyama (2013). From these, a set of five motivational factors were both recurring among the literature and showed emergence in the study data: self-determination, goal orientation, supportive environment, peer influence, and interest to learn English. What follows is a consideration of each motivational factor in the relevant literature.

Self-Determination

Self-determination theory states that people are driven by a need to grow and change through the psychological needs for competence, connection, and autonomy (Deci et al., 1996). Self-determined motivation considers that students who engage in activity based in their own values and interests are intrinsically motivated (Affuso et al., 2017). In terms of autonomy, self-determination as a form of motivation is one “where the behavior is freely chosen by the individual” (Cooke et al., 2016, p. 633). Previous research has documented that self-determined motivation is one of the vital factors that can affect students’ academic achievement (Manganelli et al., 2019). For example, Zhou and Zhou (2018) examined the effects of motivation and identity processing styles on English learning by using a questionnaire on 187 students at a high school in Macau. The results from correlation analysis showed that self-determined motivation was positively relevant to students’ English learning performance. This connection is also supported by Komiyama (2013), in that self-determined motivation, represented by a “preference for challenge” (p. 156), can drive students to find and enjoy success from complex language tasks. Likewise, studies by Manganelli et al. (2019) and Affuso et al. (2017) of students in Italy suggest that students with self-determined motivation were inclined to reach academic achievements by applying the skill of critical thinking, and that self-determined

motivation and academic self-efficacy positively affected academic achievement. As can be seen from the above discussion, self-determined motivation plays an important role in students' achievement and language learning.

Goal Orientation

Dörnyei (2001) made it clear “that one of the most demotivating factors for learners is when they have to learn something that they cannot see the point of because it has no seeming relevance whatsoever to their lives” (p. 63). Goal orientation gives purpose for a learner to engage in learning (Dailey, 2009; Komiyama, 2013) and can change learners' beliefs regarding motivation and learning performance itself (Li & Shieh, 2016). Goals that are specific and attainable might encourage students to perform with their best effort in learning the language (see Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Further, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) posited that non-academic goals might also shape students' learning motivation. For example, in an English language course in the Japanese EFL setting, Fukuda and Yoshida (2013) pointed out that doing class presentations to enhance engineering students' presentation skills might motivate the students because the job market valued employees with good English presentation skills. This belief aligns with what a student in the study reflected, “Being able to do presentations in English will be very useful in my future” (p. 36). In a similar vein, Rahman (2005) suggested that obtaining a job and building a successful career were the primary goal-oriented factors motivating students to learn an additional language. In the Korean IEP student context, this is reflected by Lee (2014), where in a study two interviewed participants stated a motivation to learn English so as to work for the United Nations and that learning English would facilitate job-related activities with peers internationally. This is also reflected in similar contexts; in a study of 131 adult international learners in an IEP at an American university, Weger (2013) found that the students' motivation to learn English was closely related to entertainment media and travel-associated purposes as well as developing an international personal identity. Therefore, teachers need to provide students with opportunities to complete authentic language learning tasks that resemble students' real-life goals.

Supportive Environment

Social environment can be another factor that facilitates language learners' motivation. This factor primarily enhances self-efficacy, one's belief in themselves that they can succeed (Bandura, 1997). Pajares and Schunk (2002) highlighted that persuasion or social influences were one source of self-efficacy. People who are close to students (e.g., parents, older siblings) might greatly affect attitudes toward language learning (Dailey, 2009). For instance, Lee (2014) describes a Korean student who, after losing motivation due to her isolation and losing a sense of belonging in the community, found renewed self-confidence and capacity to engage in the IEP after associating with a local Korean church. In particular, teachers can influence students' self-efficacy by giving them positive encouragement. To illustrate this, when asked about factors that motivated students to learn in an EFL writing class, a student in Mali's (2015) study said, "The teacher really cares and loves us. I like those kinds of things. He always motivates me, so I keep enthusiastic. I want to prove that I am able to do it, so he will not be disappointed" (p. 7). To boost language learners' self-efficacy as a form of motivation, learners need to surround themselves with supportive people and engage with activities – such as writing journals with teachers' responses – which provide supportive gestures.

In addition to supportive gestures from surrounding people, self-efficacy to drive language learners to succeed can also be enhanced by pressures from the social environment. For instance, Kim's (2009) research on English as a second language students' L2 learning experiences considered the effect of environment and community on motivation. Through qualitative analysis, the researcher claimed that if the motivation to learn English was from the pressures from the surrounding environment, such as the school system, friends, and family, the learners would then internalize the desire to work in an L2-speaking atmosphere as their learning goal. However, if the learners were made to feel tense by these surroundings and did not create a clear learning goal by themselves, they would not have powerful motivation to learn English.

Peer Influence

As mentioned earlier, people around language learners, including

teachers, friends, and family, can influence the learners' motivation. Among these groups of people, the interaction between language learners and their peers or friends is different from the interactions between the learners and other parties because the learners spend more time with their peers (Ng et al., 2018; Sato & Ballinger, 2016). At the individual level, Jones (2018) noted that Korean students in an IEP abroad valued interactions with American or international student roommates as a benefit, even more so than classroom engagement strategies. In a community of learners, Komiyama (2013) informed that peer sharing of language successes, as well as competitive desires, can be a motivating factor. Seifert and Sutton (2009) noted that, in general, desiring to be close to peers was also a non-academic goal that motivated students to get help from and support their peers, which eventually could lead to the students' higher achievement. Therefore, a close relationship between language learners and their peers can be another factor that affects student motivation.

Interest

In addition to the previously mentioned motivational factors, a class where teachers provide interesting topics and activities is a possible factor that can motivate students to learn a language (Komiyama, 2013). Interesting classes for language learners can involve content relevant to students' lives and experiences (Dailey, 2009). For instance, Lee (2020) noted that Korean university students in an EFL distance program ranked sharing and learning about peers' diverse cultures as an important motivational factor for their own desire to learn English. As supporting evidence, in their survey of 100 university EFL teachers in Japan on students' learning motivation and motivational strategies, Sakui and Cowie (2012) found that personalizing and relating lessons to students' lived experiences might be a way to spark student interest in learning English. Furthermore, in an EFL writing classroom in Vietnam, Tran (2007) reported that students might be more motivated specifically when they are encouraged to write about their own experiences.

The Current Study

In light of the literature above, and the models put forward by Ebata (2008), Dailey (2009), and Komiyama (2013), this study considers

motivational factors of a Korean English learner in an IEP as related to (a) self-determination, (b) real-life goals, (c) supportive environments, (d) peer influence, and (e) interest to learn English. Yet, while much consideration has been given to motivation in IEP contexts, a gap remains, as research often approaches motivation in a cross-sectional manner, involving a survey of a large sample of participants, with a “relative absence” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 208) of longitudinal data. Furthermore, when focused on studies that consider the experiences of Korean students in IEP and similar contexts, the lack of longitudinal data is noteworthy, with studies relying on retrospective interviews and surveys.

Informed by such a gap in the literature, this study is guided by the following research question:

What are fundamental motivational factors for an international student to succeed in language learning in the US?

The long-term motivational factors expressed by students such as the participant in this study may shed light on the “dynamics of motivation during an extended stay in the host environment” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 209) unique to Korean English learners, how these dynamics are invoked within the IEP setting, and the impact they make on students. Guided by extant research and the research question, the following section describes the study at hand.

METHOD

This study consisted of longitudinal qualitative research that endeavored to understand fundamental factors for an international student to succeed in language learning in the US. This type of qualitative research “offers a way by which to study people’s perspectives on the varieties of situations that characterize their movement in time” (Hermanowicz, 2016, p. 491). The longitudinal design of our research also enabled us to uncover the participant’s “individual stories, feelings, hopes, and plans overtime” (Reegård, 2018, p. 4) with regards to the participant’s English language learning. Moreover, with the qualitative approach (Creswell, 2007), we were able to situate the research participant as a storyteller who could relate unexamined or unheard

issues or everyday activities to her language learning trajectories.

Participant

We maintain Creswell's (2012) assertion that qualitative researchers might study a single individual to provide an in-depth picture of their exploration and present the complexity of information provided by the research subject, as "the larger number of cases can become unwieldy and result in superficial perspectives" (p. 209). We chose one learner, EunJu (pseudonym), a Korean woman in her late twenties. EunJu previously worked in the banking industry, and her goal was to study English at a university in the United States for one year and then enroll as a full-time undergraduate to receive a degree in accounting. EunJu was chosen as the single participant in this study because of the richness of her written self-reflections (around 20,000 words total), particularly around her own L2 English development. Regarding the single participant in this qualitative study, we echo the claim by Fossey et al. (2002) that there is no exact minimum number of participants needed to perform sound qualitative research. Fossey et al. also encouraged researchers to provide detailed information that fully described the phenomenon they were studying, which is addressed further in the next section.

Research Context and Data Collection

The data was collected from a yearlong self-observation of EunJu at the IEP of a midwestern university in the United States. This data collection was part of a larger study exploring language development among a cross-linguistic cohort of English L2 learners who began their studies in the first level of English language proficiency.

Students in the program enrolled in consecutive eight-week sessions and were placed in one of six proficiency levels based on an internal placement exam. The daily schedule of students included four hours of classes for five days a week. As a part of their coursework, they wrote dialogue journals in English similar to the instrument used in Liao and Wong's (2010) study of English language learners. As a component of the dialogue design of the journal, the students and their teacher were involved in "writing and exchanging their writing in mutual responses" (Lee, 2004, p. 73).

More specifically, students would write a journal entry in a blue book and turn that blue book in to the teacher who would then write a response to the student. Students had two blue books; thus, while the teacher was reading and responding to entries in one blue book, the students were writing in the other blue book. Students were rarely assigned topics to write on, but teachers could direct the written conversations through questioning strategies and responses.

EunJu's journal entries were marked by unprompted self-reflections on her L2 English development in the context of her life in the US, aspirations for professional development, and her experiences acculturating with many social groups (e.g., at church, at school, at the gym, with roommates). The journal entries covered an academic year plus the summer, beginning in September and ending in August of the following year. Total entries numbered 144 and averaged 140 words per entry, with earlier entries in the academic term being shorter and later entries being longer. To reduce the likelihood of identification, in addition to the pseudonym, we omitted identifying information, such as the name of the university, friends, and geographical locations that could indicate the real identity of the research participant.

Data Analysis

The authors employed a qualitative content analysis approach to summarize (Cohen et al., 2007), analyze, and interpret written material to better understand human behaviors and describe prevailing practices (Ary et al., 2019). The approach also enabled the authors to obtain information from their research participant directly without imposing any preconceived categories; in other words, knowledge generated from the analysis approach is based on the participant's perspectives and grounded in the actual research data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) that were EunJu's journal entries. In this process, the first three months of entries were initially coded by the authors for emergent themes, which were then cross-checked for consensus. At this stage, as Bloomberg and Volpe (2019) outlined, the authors reviewed the manifest (i.e., everything that is observable; in this case, the participant's writing journals) carefully and tried to interpret the latent (i.e., what is hidden or can be inferred). Care was taken not to overanalyze a section of text or connect it with extraneous or implied motivational factors; only those ideas that were explicitly linked to making an effort towards personal, academic, or

language goals were kept. One example may be seen in EunJu's entry on 1/11: "Seven years from now, I should live in the United States; therefore, I have to overcome this situation." This exemplifies the typical explicit connection between a goal (i.e., living in the United States) and her effort towards that goal.

With a set of initial themes, each research team member was given three additional months of journal data for coding. Subsequent meetings were held by the team to consider potential examples of motivation that did not fit into the initial themes, and codes were adapted or rejected as reviewed by the team. As the participant's checking of the data or results was not possible, journal statements that were ambiguous and could not lead to consensus among the group were culled from the final analysis. The method of peer debriefing is a powerful technique to promote trustworthiness in qualitative inquiry (Ary et al., 2019). Regular meetings and cross-checking of the data provided an opportunity to enhance the credibility and reliability of our findings. What follows are the findings of this study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After organizing the empirical data into a manageable pool of information, we found eight motivational factors that helped EunJu to keep moving forward in achieving her goals in the IEP program, enhance her language skills, complete her tasks, and believe that she could be successful in learning the target language. Table 1 depicts and ranks these eight motivational factors in order as the answer to the research question: What are fundamental motivational factors for a Korean student to succeed in language learning in the US?

As displayed in Table 1, self-determination (26%), real-life goals (21%), and supportive friends (16%) were the three most frequently mentioned factors in EunJu's journal, followed by communicative needs (14%) and peer influence (12%). While all these motivational factors provide some insight into EunJu's desire to succeed, this section will focus on the most common factors, particularly items 1–5 in Table 1. These factors are unique in that they are mentioned across the longitudinal data rather than in a single instance or within a brief time period. Furthermore, the factors that are more commonly represented also have a greater diversity of examples, allowing for more depth in

developing an understanding of how motivational factors may elicit continued effort and success in language learning. Further explanations of these motivations are discussed below. For clarity and to support the veracity of the findings (Ary et al., 2019), EunJu’s journal is quoted verbatim, without editing for spelling or mechanics.

TABLE 1. The Motivational Factors for the Participant

No.	Motivational Factors	<i>f</i>	%
1	Self-determination	11	26
2	Real-life goals	9	21
3	Supportive friends	7	16
4	Communicative needs	6	14
5	Peer influence	5	12
6	Supportive environments	3	7
7	Interesting lecture	1	2
8	Spiritual support (from books)	1	2
Total Number		43	100

Self-Determination

“I determine again that I will be a lot of speak tomorrow.” Self-determination represented the largest category of motivational factors in EunJu’s journals. Rooted in personal goals, this self-determining quality is the one that EunJu consistently maintains throughout the yearlong program. This motivating factor is paired with expressions as to the student’s understanding that if she continued striving, her effort could be rewarded with the achievement of her goal. Notable in this self-motivational aspect is the intrinsic tendency to assert courage and desire to do better than before. While seemingly connected to her perception of English performances, as seen in the entry on 11/10 (Excerpt 1), EunJu exhibits a habit of pushing herself to engage in the target language irrespective of any singular language event:

Excerpt 1

I always make a fresh determination every Monday for speaking better than last weeks, but it isn’t easy, because of my quiet

personality. This is useful for me. I determine again that I will be a lot of speak tomorrow. [11/10]

These instances show that, while placed within her life routines, EunJu's motivation to participate fully in English comes from a personal tendency and pressure to grow. This is also tied to an understanding on the part of EunJu on 4/7 (Excerpt 2):

Excerpt 2

If I continually make efforts to process my speaking ability. I will become skillful. [4/7]

Such intrinsic motivation is particularly compelling considering that the other motivational factors that are most often mentioned are largely extrinsic. The motivation of self-determination reflected in EunJu's journal aligns with the theory of Deci et al. (1996) that people are driven by a need to grow and change. EunJu fully realizes that she needs to improve her speaking skill through more practice and participation in class. EunJu also believes that if she keeps making efforts, her speaking ability will make progress, which is supported by the Zhou and Zhou (2018) study, which maintained that self-determination is positively correlated with students' English learning performance.

Real-Life Goals

EunJu's learning goals were mainly oriented around real-life purposes, which are an important part of goal orientation.

Excerpt 3

America is not as like as Korea in many cultures. America has many public facilities for citizen and many computers. Probably these can see in developed countries. I should study hard it so should teach it around many people. [10/30]

Excerpt 4

This situation is a tragedy of small and weak nation. Thus, I must study hard, so I can reconstruct my country! [11/13]

Excerpts 3 and 4, from entries on 10/30 and 11/13, respectively,

reveal that EunJu holds the belief that studying hard could equip her with the knowledge and skills to teach people and further develop and reconstruct her country following a historic financial crisis. This specific goal is an internal desire that might drive EunJu to study hard. Her desire reflects real-life goals as a motivational factor influencing EunJu's language learning. She is confident that she will have the ability to make positive changes in her country, so she motivates herself by giving herself the difficult and massive mission of better constructing her own country in the future.

This is a marked quality when compared to similar research of Korean students in IEPs, such as by Lee (2014) and Jones (2018), the participants of which did not express desire to return for the purpose of national development. Yet with this mission and goal orientation (Li & Shieh, 2016), EunJu might also have a reason and a purpose to study. Some researchers note that the internalized degree of learner beliefs plays a critical role in second language learning because learners' reasonable beliefs can be effective motivational tools to encourage them to learn an L2 (Yang & Kim, 2011) persistently. The more belief EunJu has in herself to learn English well, the stronger her motivation should become.

Excerpt 5

Seven years from now, I should live in the USA therefore I have to overcome such as this situation. I will have a strong will. [1/27]

This excerpt from the entry on 1/27 shows that EunJu wants to live in the USA after graduation, so she is attempting to overcome homesickness and other difficulties related to living abroad as mentioned in the context of this excerpt and across her journal entries. While similar long-term goals as a motivating factor are noted by Lee (2014), this particular framing of struggle and need to overcome it is unusual in that EunJu is relying on force of will as a solution. Similar to Kormos et al. (2008), Rahman (2005), Seifert and Sutton (2009), and Weger (2013), this real-life purpose should help EunJu reassert calmness and focus on her current English study. Some research (e.g., Deniz, 2010; Dörnyei, 2001) holds that students' performance can be improved by setting authentic goals. Since EunJu decides to stay in the US, she would have more drive to study English for a future job in the US, which is closely relevant to her achievement and belief in a future quality of life.

EunJu's determination to study in the US (e.g., her authentic goals) continues to motivate her to study English. Having specific goals might also encourage students to perform with their best effort in learning the target language (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Our findings about real-life goals demonstrated from EunJu's journals provide support for previous literature concerning goal orientation.

Supportive Friends

"But, I think that it is a good opportunity for my speaking progress." The third most common reference to motivation in EunJu's journals is related to supportive friends and classmates. In the quote above, from 10/27, EunJu notes both the context in which she first meets a conversation partner, Dannie, and how, despite this friend's need for study help on a thesis, EunJu sees this as a way to attend to her own desire for "a lot of speaking, because I don't like to speak Korean or English." While peers request EunJu's assistance, she emphasizes that these interactions are an opportunity to provide further, informal language practice in English.

Particularly in the early months of the IEP, EunJu often mentions the relationships with peers that she builds as well as the language opportunities that come from these interactions, such as can be seen from an entry made on 9/9:

Excerpt 6

Conversation time was very interested. It was a help to me so want more this time. [9/9]

Not only does EunJu recognize the plausibility of social interactions with friends to build English skills, but she also states that the benefit these interactions provide is a motivating factor. Her conversation with supportive friends in English provides further impetus to engage in a subsequent conversation. Concerning English conversation goals, these supportive friends form a large part of EunJu's statements concerning early success in practicing and creating a sense of comfort with the language, as well as confirming positions held by previous studies (see Ng et al., 2018; Sato & Ballinger, 2016) and findings from Korean IEP students (Lee, 2014) about friends as a potential source of learning motivation.

Communicative Needs

Communicative needs as a motivational factor put considerable pressure on EunJu to use the target language to communicate and solve some problems. This was reflected in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 7

I remember that I arrived to Los Angeles before about three months with Korean people. We couldn't speak and listen to English at all, but we had to change other airline in order to go Indianapolis. We had to find its gate, so we asked some American with English conversation book, but he didn't understand for us speak English. [11/5]

This excerpt from the entry on 11/5 recalls an instance when EunJu needs to use the English language to get the information she needs. Even though, by her admission, EunJu and her friend could not speak the language, they were forced by the situation to attempt to talk. This real-life situation could have impressed upon EunJu the value of acquiring language viable for authentic situations.

The situation at the airport seems to have a positive effect on EunJu's language learning motivation even though it places pressure on her to speak English. This pressure seems to play a major role in motivating her to learn the language in the future. EunJu mentions in her journal that she could not communicate in English well, but the later entry in Excerpt 8, on 1/21, shows her perseverance to progress her language skills to better communicate with a new conversation partner, communicate her ideas, and fulfill her role as a cultural ambassador. Her determination shows that she does not give up on using English to communicate:

Excerpt 8

Maybe our meeting is very helpful for me. And he wanted to learn Korean and Korea's culture. I will effort to progress my speaking and to teach Korean to him. [1/21]

This excerpt also demonstrates that EunJu's communicative needs become another motivating factor for her to make progress in English language learning. Even though EunJu is struggling when speaking

English, in her journals, she relates an ongoing effort to talk in English until her conversation partner understood her. Excerpt 8 implies that she understands that English is a fundamental tool to transfer her ideas, and Korean language and culture is to her interlocutors in the United States, who also use English as a medium of communication. In other words, the English language serves her communicative needs as an informal cultural ambassador. Her drive to improve her English speaking skills was internalized. To some extent, her ambition was associated with the ideal L2 self, which relates to the desire to be a competent L2 user in an L2 community (Dörnyei as cited in Kim, 2009). This effort is elaborated upon in a later entry:

Excerpt 9

I prepared one of my country's tradition. It was traditional dances such as a masque dance, a Buddhist dance and an instrumental music of peasants. I explained them. At first, he couldn't understand, but I tried to understand them again and again. At last he understood, and he was interested in them.

Excerpt 9 also presents EunJu's moment of accomplishment when her conversation partner understood her message. The communicative needs coded as EunJu's motivational factor to study English inform the extent to which the artifacts surrounding language learners can motivate them to learn a language. This coincides with a similar research context, where the importance of conveying Korean culture via formal presentations was a notable motivational factor to Korean students in a Korean IEP with Japanese and Taiwanese peers (Lee, 2020).

Peer Influence

"Other classmates look like having a good faculty about English." Also notable was EunJu's recognition of the English ability of her peers. She records in her journals a keen awareness of perceived ability gaps between her and other learners in her class who seem more advanced in English learning. The key to this point is that her motivation to improve is rooted in her perception, demonstrated in this excerpt from her 2/21 entry:

Excerpt 10

I know less than other classmates about English. [2/21]

While not quantified, these feelings impel EunJu in the same journal entries to express her desire to work harder to succeed in her English learning. These feelings are brought up in early entries, when she mentions her initial lack of English ability compared to peers while living in Korea, and continues even as she progresses in her program and language ability in the United States, as seen in Excerpt 11:

Excerpt 11

Today I am not satisfied with my presentation, but this time is better than last time. I envy my classmates. They do very well. They have good topics and speak very well. I'd like to do very well like them. [4/4]

The situation EunJu was encountering is in line with Bailey's (1983) model, which argues that moderate competitiveness increases language learners' motivation to study the target language. Indeed, her own perception of deficit aligns with reflections of Korean students in IEPs, a situation that asserts a motivational factor on the part of the students to study harder (Lee, 2020), seek out peer interaction in an effort to avoid outsider status (Lee, 2014), and – when guided by instructor effort – deconstruct the native/non-native speaker comparisons (Tanghe, 2014). In addition, rather than friends acting as a means of supporting EunJu's English practice through conversation, these instances show how peer influence motivates EunJu to progress in English performance. They represent her own desire to improve in language ability, serving as a way for EunJu to see her current situation in terms of a gap as well as to project her proficiency goals onto an advanced peer. The combination of EunJu's personal desire and the influence from peers that drives her to learn the target language echoes Chang's (2010) study that reveals that self-determination works together with peer influence to motivate language learners.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the yearlong journey of a Korean student in terms of motivation to learn English through careful analysis of dialogue reading

journals adds understanding to the fundamental motivational factors for an international student to succeed in language learning in the US. By expressions of self-determination, real-life purpose, supportive friends, communicative needs, and peer influence, the participant in this study demonstrates a notable amount of self-awareness in terms of expectations – and methods – to progress in learning English while abroad.

Teaching Recommendations

Based on these findings, we propose several practical recommendations for enhancing students' motivation in a similar IEP context (e.g., specifically relevant to the current COVID-19 situation). Our recommendations are as follows:

Creating an e-motivational friendship group.

The IEP teachers might encourage students to work in groups to meet regularly every month, for instance, through an hour-long Zoom meeting. These interactions can be a place to build supportive friendships, provide situations of authentic communicative need, and be a way to generate peer influence toward language learning. To practice their speaking skills, students can use English in their communication with the group members. Then, they can share the progress and challenges of their language learning in their IEP program. By listening to one another attentively without judgmental responses, such a group enacts a responsibility to contribute to the growth of the others. To do so during the meeting, they can support one another through words of encouragement or learning experiences so that peers can have fresh self-determination to perform better in their language learning. Teachers can also utilize one class session for students to report their experiences in being in the e-supportive friendship group.

Assigning authentic language learning tasks.

We also believe that IEP teachers need to consistently provide their students with opportunities to complete an authentic language learning task that resembles students' real-life goals. For example, to practice their presentation skills, teachers can assign students to create a two-minute “vlog” (*video log* or *video blog*) that describes their favorite places on campus or in the town where they stay (for examples, watch https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q_udLnd0q60 or

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aSSjMPIIM6c>). For speaking practice, teachers might also try to assign the students to interview English speakers on a topic of their choice. Afterward, students can create a podcast (via an app such as found at <https://anchor.fm/>) of their interview and, if possible, share it on social media. Such efforts can contribute to a “sustainable” model of IEP interaction and assessment (Chung & Choi, 2021), one that utilizes multimodal projects that can align with student goals and provide the opportunity for communicative needs. Overall, teachers and students can always discuss and discover what technology to use and the assignments’ format.

Exploring real-life goals of prospective students of an IEP program.

This exploration can be done through an (online) survey or an interview with the students to discuss, for instance, the life goals, missions, or hopes that they would like to achieve in learning English at the IEP. The IEP teachers can use the interview responses to inform their design and selection of learning materials and activities for authenticity as well as the design and selection of curriculum and activities that evoke the motivational factor of self-determination. That said, the students may do well and be more motivated in their English learning in an IEP program that is informed by recurring motivational factors identified through interviews or surveys.

Limitations and Future Research

In terms of research, the current study has some limitations that can be addressed in future studies. This study was confined to a single participant, a Korean EFL learner in a US setting. More research is needed to develop a complete picture of factors that motivate students to learn a language while abroad, whether in an English-speaking country or in a Korean IEP. Further studies would also benefit by attending to a diversity of students from various parts of the world coming to Korea for English language learning and considering possible links between expressions of motivation and correlating actions by the students.

Another limitation has to do with the data used in the study, as it relied only on a written journal. This journal data is rich in large part

because it was written in the development process of the student's second language acquisition. There is a sense of honesty and purpose to her journal entries across a range of topics, and in this paper, we have explored themes around her motivation to learn English. However, a year of observation may not be adequate to capture motivational factors for this English learner fully. We find difficulty in ensuring the extent to which our analysis and interpretation of events closely represent the actual experiences of the participant. Therefore, more elaboration on the learning experience can be revealed if classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, or other data sources are involved as supplementary to the learners' journals.

In the midst of dramatic changes in IEP enrollments and a shifting academic economy toward Korea, the motivational factors expressed by an international student in search of her own academic success continue to underscore the importance of how and why student language learning goals are made. Through careful analysis of journals written throughout a year in an IEP, a better understanding of what this particular student, as a Korean, leveraged to motivate her own success in an immersive language learning environment may also inform how program and pedagogy can further benefit the students we wish to serve.

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How Debate Helps Promote Global and Intercultural Competence

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The focus of this paper is on how debate can help promote global and intercultural competence. Evidence obtained will support the statement and help to elucidate how debate can also be a useful tool in providing language students with important issues to discuss and in helping them to express their opinions in real time. Further, during debate, students listen to the opinions of others, exercise critical-thinking techniques, and improve upon their language ability in meaningful ways. Initially, I will discuss the debate procedure and explain the rationale for implementing debate at the junior high school at which I am based. Then, student samples will be analyzed, both pre- and post-debate, and the subsequent discussion will show how the student research helped students become more globally aware and interculturally competent. Both quantitative and qualitative research will be analyzed to add conviction to the views discussed. Student responses will be highlighted and analyzed. Finally, the conclusions will offer advice for future debates and summarize the main findings.

Keywords: debate, cultural understanding, global citizen, intercultural competence

INTRODUCTION

In today's society it is incumbent upon educators to not only help develop student language ability but to also instill a sense of what it is like to be a global citizen. In order to achieve this, a number of tools are at our disposal. The focus of this paper is on how debate can help influence, motivate, and improve student L2 (second language) ability as well as encourage them to become global thinkers. This paper will also discuss how the actual process of preparing for debate allows students

to work together to become more autonomous in their language studies. Finally, debate also helps foster critical and creative thinking. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) note that critical thinking has been defined and measured in a number of ways, but typically it involves the individual's ability to do some or all of the following: identify central issues and assumptions in an argument, recognize important relationships, make correct inferences from data, deduce conclusions from information or data provided, interpret whether conclusions are warranted on the basis of the data given, and evaluate evidence or authority (p. 118).

Debate allows students to practice the above skills and hence utilize higher-level thought processes than they would otherwise be expected to use in a regular classroom in which they adopt a more passive attitude. Davis et al. (2016) state that debate involves the repeated practice of a number of skills such as critical thinking, reading, research, critical listening, processing information, and preparing and presenting arguments. They claim that debate is the most effective educational technique that they have found. I, too, will argue that debate enables educators to not only teach a second language but also allows students to engage with real issues of importance to them in real and meaningful ways, and thus, foster motivation to improve language and social skills.

Initially, I will mention the reasons why debate is important before discussing in-depth the process of preparing students for debate and show that the process helps foster critical thinking in students as they are encouraged to make inferences from data, make deductions based on information presented, and recognize relationships within an argument. The build-up to debate is instigated in the first year of junior high school. It is important to allow L2 students to become expressive and to feel comfortable discussing issues from an early age, as they become more reticent during later teenage years. Following this, I will highlight how third-year students choose topics that help them to become more globally aware. Then, I will analyze student responses to the survey questions. These are both quantitative and qualitative.

Throughout the paper, reference will be made to the transcript of a particular debate, lesson plans, L2 acquisition, and how debate is one of the most important and worthwhile tools to aid creative and critical thinking. Evidence will be provided to demonstrate how students enjoy working together to study and prepare for a debate. Survey results and student feedback will highlight how much students appreciated being afforded the opportunity to prepare and participate in debate, and I will

advocate that this means of language acquisition should be instigated nationwide in order to facilitate a learning environment that produces students capable of creative and critical thought and who will become the well-rounded global thinking adults that will be needed for tomorrow's world.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Why Debate?

Yunus (2019) writes about the importance of learning global issues and discusses how to incorporate these into the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. She mentions that “teachers should concentrate on how to teach rather than on what to teach” (p. 71), suggesting that classes should be student centered, with ample opportunity for learning to become more meaningful. In his KOTESOL proceedings paper, Herder (2018) mentions the fact that too many teachers in Asia rely heavily on the grammar-translation method and do not spend enough classroom time allowing students to become more fluent. This paper will show how the debate process not only aids students but also allows teachers to enjoy discussion on a more equal footing with their students.

According to Karyl et al. (2016, pp. 1–10), in the US, in excess of 70% of teachers replied that they would continue teaching because of their experience in using debate. They also discuss how students became more animated and willing to participate in class when doing debate. Although the survey was conducted among native English speakers in the United States, my experience is similar when teaching in Japan. I have been teaching debate for a number of years and student feedback has always been positive. Indeed, I occasionally meet former junior high school students when teaching at university who maintain that the skills they acquired during their junior years allow them to do considerably better during class discussions and presentations than students with no background in debate.

Beane (2016, pp. 11–21) mentions how debate can often disrupt the school-to-prison pipeline in the US. If her facts are correct, we should be encouraging debate in every class. When teenagers are permitted to express their opinions and share ideas with classmates, they are able to

learn more about the world in which they live and become more open to new ideas. When mobile phones first became widespread, a problem arose in Japan whereby female students were able to be easily contacted by adult males, and they were often compensated for a number of favors, including those of a sexual variety (McLellan, 2013). Being able to discuss issues such as this might have been a good way to dissuade female students from becoming victims.

When students debate matters pertinent to themselves, they are able to listen to the voice of reason and be less susceptible to being swayed by perverted adult men. As debate takes place in the classroom, and the argument is controlled and without animosity, students can see that there is no need for physical conflict when disagreements arise in the real world. Pratama and Yulianti (2016) discuss at length the responsibility educators have to equip students with necessary skills to become global citizens and not to simply focus on grammar or pronunciation. One way to do this is to teach global issues in the classroom. They provide examples of the methods used to do this, some of which are role play and discussion. Strangely enough, in my opinion, they do not mention debate. I will demonstrate that debate is an ideal way to raise student awareness of global issues. The data provided by students from the student survey questions (see Appendix B) and the sample from a debate booklet on school uniforms (see Appendix A) demonstrate how debate topics are influenced by the society in which we live. Never before were topics such as LGBTQ rights, the use of smart phones, and global warming highlighted by students as topics of interest for new debates.

As mentioned, teachers have to adapt and allow students to decide, within reason, on topics that they feel they would like to debate as a class. Obviously, topics such as which flavor of ice cream is better or which theme park should be declined as debate topics, but students should be informed as to the reasons why. In my case, I write a debate topic on the board and ask students to form pairs or groups and discuss if they think they would be able to debate the topic. They always decide upon a topic that has substance and is meaningful.

Additionally, in Japan and other Asian countries, a large number of students attend cram schools in order to pass high school and university entrance exams. According to Roesgaard (2006), this number has been steadily increasing and a number of reasons are cited. In my own ad-hoc survey at my junior high school, I learned that in excess of 80% of students regularly attend a cram school at least once a week, with many

attending more than that. They study mathematics and English grammar three or four years in advance of what they actually study at normal school in an attempt to secure a place at a renowned higher institute of learning. However, they rote learn and cram for tests and exams without actually being asked to think critically about what they are actually doing. Debate offers students ample opportunity to work in teams and do research, think critically about the findings, and present their opinions – all skills they will need in order to become internationally minded adults.

Lastly, Christopher et al. (2012, p. 184) discuss the benefits of collaborative learning and mention studies that show how this type of learning helps foster student satisfaction and helps them to retain information longer. By working in groups to engage in the debate process, students learn how to collaborate with peers to share information and prepare for the debate.

METHOD

For the present study, four third-year regular Japanese junior high school classes took part in the debate classes. Prior to the actual debate, students listened to some ideas generated by the teacher. This lasted for about three weeks. In Week 1, the teacher showed some pro arguments. Students then worked in groups to either agree or disagree with various statements mentioned. A sample of student materials can be found in Appendix A.

Students were then placed into eight teams of five students and were informed by lottery on whether they would be debating in the affirmative or negative. They were then informed about the debate rules and the times involved in each stage. A booklet was prepared in Japanese to help them prepare adequately. In previous debates, students often struggled during free question time, so the importance of predicting skills was stressed.

Consider this sample from a booklet showing how to enhance predicting skills:

S1: Proposition: Japan is a good country because the people are kind.

Reasons

- When people are kind, the crime rate is lower because there are fewer thieves.

Explanation in detail

- Kindness is infectious and it makes other people become kind, too.

Explanation in detail

- We can feel safe when we walk the streets at night.

Students were asked to imagine this scenario and to try to think of more detailed explanations and of how they might find evidence to strengthen their opinions. They were then asked to try to predict questions that another student might ask in reply to these statements and to think of how they might answer such questions.

Initially, students were put into pairs and asked to formulate questions and responses in their native language in order to become used to thinking about the topic. As their debate terminology increased, they were then asked to practice in pairs in English and share ideas with the whole class. Four classes of 36 students per class participated in the debate process, and classes were generally split 50–50, boys and girls, with slightly more girls per class. The exact numbers of students who completed the survey are as follows: boys = 61, girls = 72. The following section discusses the debate process in more details.

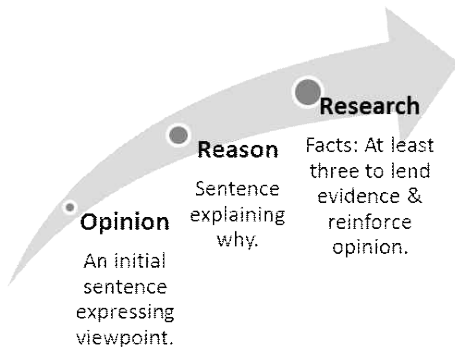
The Debate Process

Undoubtedly, there is a correct process to adhere to after deciding to initiate a series of debate classes with students and, in particular, L2 students of English. In order to not overburden students with information overload, it is necessary to wean them gently into the debate class and the correct conventions associated with debate. Failure to do so, may result in students being reluctant to participate to their fullest. Accordingly, the following paragraphs will briefly outline the rationale for debate topic and procedure. At the junior high school at which I am based, students begin practicing for debate from their first year (age 12 or 13).

In Year One, students are encouraged to prepare short presentations on a number of varying themes in order to become accustomed to public speaking. In Year Two, they decide upon a country they would most like to visit and do some research on that country before presenting before

their classmates. They then listen to the teacher make a PowerPoint presentation on, in my case, Scotland. Topics covered include history, geography, culture, and climate. Students then work in groups to prepare a presentation on one of the topics. Toward the end of the year, two students begin their first debate. The theme is “Which is better, summer or winter?” The idea is to keep the topic matter simple and introduce students to debate terminology, techniques, and procedure. Figure 1 highlights the way in which students are instructed to prepare and present their opinions (see McLellan [2017] for more details). When reasons are reinforced by evidence, they are then able to debate in a proper manner.

FIGURE 1. The Process of Debate Preparation



Bruschke (2016, p. 40) discusses how students are able to engage more fully with any given topic by sharing evidence and viewpoints. My research findings add credence to these findings as an overwhelming number of students expressed the opinion that they were able to learn from listening to the opinions of their friends.

Initially, students are provided with a debate booklet, a sample of which is shown in Appendix A. In previous years, students were given handouts each class, and as a consequence, many students forgot or lost their papers or had papers scattered throughout their files. As the debate class is independent from other English lessons, I decided that it might be better to provide students with a complete booklet prior to initiating the debate lessons. McLellan (2017b) discusses in full, how EFL practice is an evolving phenomenon and uses business models such as affinity diagrams, questionnaires, and appreciative inquiry to plan and implement

a new strategy. Lock (2013, p. 33) writes about how expected outcomes have to be defined and a set process has to be adhered to. White (1998, p. 37) makes use of Skilbeck's situational model for school-based curriculum development (see Figure 2).

FIGURE 2. Skilbeck's Situational Model



Teachers have to analyze any given class situation. At an obvious level, this might involve choosing subject-specific material for specialized classes, or especially in a debate class, teachers have to be conscious of shifting student interest and cater to their needs. As an example, when it is obvious that a number of papers are being lost, it is incumbent upon teachers to try to resolve this issue successfully. In my case, I advocated for not handing out individual papers each class, but instead, combining them into a booklet. The debate booklet contained a glossary of useful words and expressions, as well as information on how to prepare for debate, including a list of dos and don'ts. The booklet remains a work in progress and is constantly evolving to suit the needs of the students.

In order to define the objective, I conducted a survey of student attitudes toward debate three years ago (McLellan, 2017), and this second survey is important to discover if students share similar attitudes. The topic of debate also changes, as do student comments and opinions, with much more weight being given to information and communication technology (ICT) in recent debates. Teachers have to act accordingly and keep abreast of the latest technological innovations in order to help students with their research. Objectives have to be understood, and again, teachers have to evaluate and assess at each stage of the debate process in order to discover if objectives are being met.

At the moment, I am working on a new way to help students assess their peers during debate. According to Luoma (2004), it is important to ensure reliability when constructing a scholastic speaking test. Presently, students are not formally tested and are able to debate in a stress-free

environment, but formal testing might be something to consider, as students in Japan are rarely, if ever, tested on their communication skills at the junior high or high school level. I am also trying to find a meaningful way to help students reflect upon the debate process and topics discussed. This may take the form of a class discussion and/or a written account. Christopher et al. (2012, p. 184) discuss how this process helps students to develop their reflective sensibilities. Additionally, I am in the process of trying to find schools in other countries with common interest in debate to try to have an international competition. This would be a great way to motivate the students to compete to be the best team and subsequently represent their school. The program is constantly being re-designed in order to keep it current and relevant to students and teachers.

As the debate class is implemented, teachers should be aware of what works and what doesn't. They can then take appropriate steps to counter any problems and reinforce those parts that students seem to enjoy and relate to. By repeatedly assessing student feedback and survey responses, as well as observing what seems to work and what does not, teachers are able to tweak debate lessons and schedules to meet the needs of their own students.

Student Research for the Debate

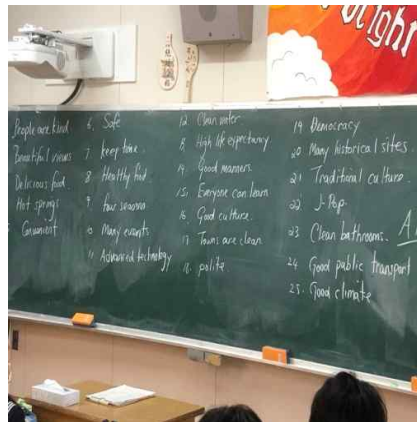
Before students begin to do research for the debate, the class teachers have a conversation in which one teacher is pro summer, or pro school uniforms, or believes Japan to be a good country. Students listen, answer questions, and then do a dictation exercise, before agreeing or disagreeing with the opinions of the teacher and stating their reasons why. This final point is important as students are asked to think about reasons for their opinions and to not simply have an opinion and expect other people to see why they think in a particular way. Many English tests in Japan now expect students to express an opinion and state reasons. Japanese education has long been criticized for not allowing students to think critically, but instead, to rote learn and regurgitate material for exams. Things seem to be slowly changing and students are becoming more aware of the need to communicate on a global scale. Perhaps the recent surge of foreign nationals to Japan has prompted some of this changing tide.

After writing their opinions, students sit in groups of four and share

opinions. This exercise helps them to use debate terminology and discuss opinions with classmates. They finally write down good or bad points about the topic. The following example is based on responses to the topic “Is Japan a Good Country to Live In?”

Figure 3 shows the way in which I elicited information from the students. There are 36 students in each of the four junior high school classes, and they were each given around five minutes to think by themselves of five good points about living in Japan. The following week, they had to think of five bad points. They were asked to write key words or key phrases and full sentences in English, or in Japanese if they were struggling. I only received two answers in Japanese and a large number of students in the classes raised their hands to express their opinions. My wish was to incorporate some IT into the classroom and utilize applications such as Padlet in order to have more communication between students and to allow the whole class to view the communication. However, due to the school’s policy of not allowing students to use outside applications, I was unable to do so. I present photographs (see Figure 3) to illustrate the way in which information was ascertained, and I will use tables to show evidence of subsequent student replies. Table 1 contains the same replies as those shown in Figure 3. For each item in Table 3, words and phrases are classified into groups. Good points are on the left and bad points on the right for each category: environment, society, convenience, leisure, and technology.

FIGURE 3. Student Responses to Good and Bad Points About Living in Japan (Class 3B)



There is obviously some overlap with some of the words and phrases. It is interesting to note how many topics the students were able to think of. Prior to the brainstorming session, they were instructed on how to use various methods such as mind maps, Venn diagrams, scattergrams, mandala, flowcharts, and so on. Students are thus able to learn various brainstorming techniques and feel confident about stating opinions in front of their classmates. A high number of good and bad points fall under societal issues, and students are further able and encouraged to develop their opinions in groups before searching for evidence to lend credence to their opinions prior to the class debate. Although the initial focus is on Japan, students, due to the nature of the debate topic, have to compare and contrast those issues with other countries.

TABLE 1. List of Student Brainstorming Key Words for Debate

1. People are kind / Many elderly people	16. Good culture / Don't speak correct Japanese
2. Beautiful views / Overcrowded cities	17. Towns are clean / Near North Korea
3. Delicious food / Don't worry about war	18. People are polite / Only Japanese, so not global
4. Hot springs / Strange Halloween	19. Democracy / Japanese is difficult
5. Convenient / Too many traffic lights	20. Many historical sites / Media isn't good
6. Safe / Japan can't produce enough food	21. Traditional culture / Almost all children want to be YouTubers
7. Keep time / Too many NEETs	22. J-pop / Many insects
8. Healthy food / Japanese grown food is expensive	23. Clean bathrooms / Don't use enough renewable energy
9. Many events / A lot of wasted food	24. Good public transport / Few trash cans in cities
10. Advanced technology / Many young people play games	25. Good climate / Depopulation of rural areas
11. Four seasons / Natural disasters	26. Many amusement parks / High and many taxes
12. Clear water / Small land area	27. / Overwork
13. High life expectancy / A lot of accidents	28. / Electricity is produced from coal
14. Good manners / Many rules	
15. Everyone can learn / High suicide rate	

Final Key Words

Table 2 shows the final debate topics for Class 3B. The classes were divided into groups and each group was asked to fill in a form with the key words and phrases that they planned to discuss during the debate. Each group kept a copy for themselves, gave a copy to the group they were to debate, and handed a copy to the teacher. The reason for this was to allow other students and groups some time and a warning as to what the other team would be debating. Four class debates were planned with Group 1 debating Group 8 in the first debate. Group 2 was to debate Group 7 and so on. Groups 1–4 were on the affirmative sides, and Groups 5–8 on the negative.

TABLE 2. List of Final Debate Topics Chosen by Class 3B

Group	Debate Topics Chosen
Group 1	Public transportation / Japanese products / Sightseeing / Everyday diet / Peace (safe)
Group 2	Peace / Transport / Technology / Safety / Convenient
Group 3	Delicious Japanese foods / Views – Buildings / Safety / Japanese events / Animations and Manga
Group 4	Culture / Technology / Peace / Four seasons / Convenient
Group 5	Natural disasters / Traffic jams / Work too much / Ageing society (only four students)
Group 6	Manu rules / Medical / Traffic accidents / Disasters / Climate
Group 7	Products are expensive / Traffic / Seasons / Tax / Environment
Group 8	Useful / Disasters / Money / Culture / Work

As can be seen, society was the main topic for debate. Although some topics could be categorized differently, I felt the main underlying theme was a societal one. Although some topics seem to be repeated in different debates, this was actually a positive trait as students researched the topic independently of other groups and researched different material. This enriched the whole process and may have helped to account for the high rates of students (around 30%) who changed their opinion at the completion of the debate.

I did not have enough time to transcribe all groups in all classes, and a simple coin toss decided the group debate to be transcribed. This

eventuated in my transcribing a debate from Class 3D. Since this class was ahead of the other classes, this afforded me most time to write up my findings. As can be seen, they discussed societal issues more than others, but technology was also an important topic for discussion. The topics covered in the transcribed class are highlighted in Table 3.

TABLE 3. List of Topics Covered in Transcribed Class

Affirmative	Negative
1. Robots	1. Expensive (taxes)
2. Peace (No weapons)	2. Natural disasters
3. Culture (People are kind and gentle)	3. Bad environment (Pollen and hay fever)
4. Infrastructure	4. Aging population
5. Science technology	5. Bad working environment (working hours)

Obviously, there were many errors made with grammar and word choice during the debate. However, the transcription will be discussed and analyzed in a future paper, along with an analysis of an initial second-year debate to discover how students are able to integrate debate language into their debate. I also intend to analyze student feedback to try to quantify how much they improve and to note the main differences made. A cursory read of the transcription, however, reveals that students were able to interact with the material and respond to questions in a relatively high-level way. It is also apparent that they researched the topics quite deeply and used the medium of English to express their opinions clearly. The responses from the judges (fellow classmates) indicated that they were able to follow the debate and learn from it.

FIGURE 4. Student Data Charts on Good and Bad Points About Living in Japan Made During Debate (Class 3A)



Table 4 shows the topics discussed during the Class 3A debate. Observation suggests that students were able to research the topics in detail, provide convincing arguments, and make use of a number of visual aids. It can also be noted that a number of countries were mentioned in the graphs and charts, and that Japan’s ranking was indicated. Students were able to compare their own country with others and reach a conclusion based on their findings. Although only 15 years of age, these students are now well on the way to becoming true global thinkers, a necessary trait for all of our futures. In initial debates, students were unsure as to how to present information and often tried to convey too much on any one particular visual aid. In other words, they failed to interact appropriately with their visual aids. However, after practice and feedback from teachers and peers, they became competent speakers and skilled communicators.

TABLE 4. Topics Discussed During a Class 3A Debate

Affirmative	Negative
1. Safety and security	1. Difficulty in raising children in Japan
2. Number of working women in Japan (compared to other countries)	(high cost of education)
3. Cancer survival rates (using data from OECD)	2. High cost of living (with a focus on rent and house prices in general)
4. Fat consumption (comparing France, USA, England, Australia, Sweden, and Japan), and this was correlated against life expectancy	3. Equal rights for women (focus on work and salary scales)
5. Natural disasters	4. Natural disasters
	5. Lack of English ability

Budesheim and Lundquist (1999) claim that debate is one of the most effective ways to develop nuanced comprehension of issues when students argue positions counter to their own initial viewpoints. Perhaps this is why around 30% of students claim to have changed their opinions post-debate. By putting oneself in the shoes of others, students are able to see balance and reach conclusions that without debate they may not have reached.

RESULTS

Table 5 shows the total replies in numbers and percentages for both the boys' and girls' responses to Questions 1–15 (see Appendix B). The total number of male respondents was 61, and the total number of female respondents was 72, providing an overall total number of 133 responding students.

TABLE 5. Total Numbers and Percentages of Boy and Girl Respondents

Question	Boys (<i>n</i> = 61)				Girls (<i>n</i> = 72)			
	SA/%	A/%	D/%	SD/%	SA/%	A/%	D/%	SD/%
1	33/54	24/39	4/7	0/0	35/49	33/46	4/5	0/0
2	5/8	27/45	22/36	7/11	13/18	36/50	15/21	8/11
3	14/23	32/52	12/20	3/5	11/15	38/53	21/29	2/3
4	31/51	22/36	6/10	2/3	30/42	34/47	6/8	2/3
5	10/16	32/52	16/23	3/5	8/11	43/60	19/26	2/3
6	25/41	29/48	6/10	1/1	31/43	34/47	7/10	0/0
7	16/26	25/41	16/26	4/7	22/31	26/35	22/31	2/3
8	14/22	29/48	15/25	3/5	27/37	25/34	18/26	2/3
9	9/15	19/31	26/44	6/10	12/17	19/26	35/49	6/8
10	17/28	28/46	13/21	3/5	29/40	22/31	18/25	3/4
11	28/46	25/41	8/13	0/0	31/43	32/44	7/10	2/3
12	30/49	29/48	2/3	0/0	42/58	27/38	3/4	0/0
13	24/40	33/54	3/5	1/1	25/35	42/58	5/7	0/0
14	13/21	36/59	11/19	1/1	10/14	49/68	13/18	0/0
15	22/36	27/45	10/16	2/3	27/37	38/53	6/8	1/2
Yes = 21, No = 40					Yes = 24, No = 48			

Note. SA = *strongly agree*, A = *agree*, D = *disagree*, SD = *strongly disagree*.

These numbers are represented in graphic form in Figure 5. A cursory glance indicates that both genders had similar views on the process, even to the extent that they claim to have altered their opinions upon completion of the debates. More students claim to have enjoyed the group debate as opposed to the micro-debate. They claimed that working as a group was more stimulating. A large number also claimed to have increased their vocabulary and were better able to present their opinions. Students filled in the forms anonymously and were asked to be as honest

as possible in their responses. As they had no reason to give false answers, the findings can perhaps be taken as being reliable.

FIGURE 5. Percentage Representation of Boys and Girls Survey Answers

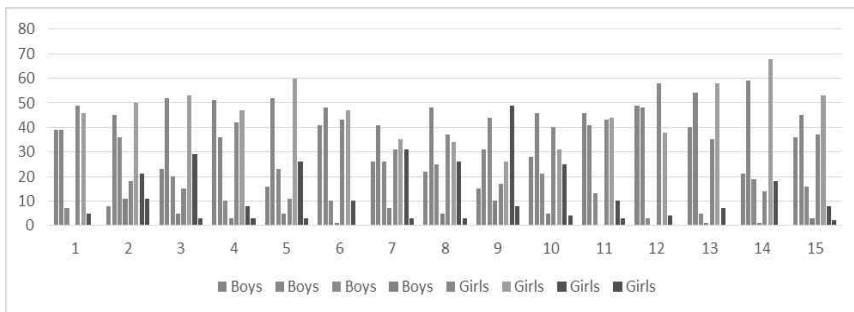


Table 6 shows the total numbers of respondents’ answers to the first fifteen survey items. They indicated their answers by checking a box to either *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, or *strongly disagree* with each of the 15 statements.

TABLE 6. Total Number of Respondents

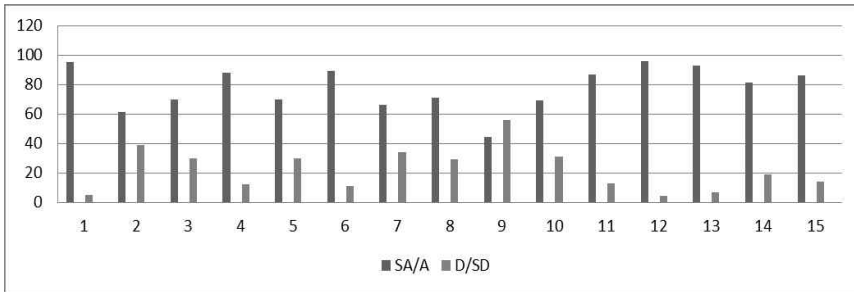
Question	SA	A	D	SD
1	68	57	8	0
2	18	63	37	15
3	25	70	33	5
4	61	56	12	4
5	18	75	35	5
6	56	63	13	1
7	38	51	38	6
8	41	54	33	5
9	21	38	61	12
10	46	50	31	6
11	59	57	15	2
12	72	56	5	0
13	49	75	8	1
14	23	85	24	1
15	49	65	16	3

Yes = 45, No = 88

Note. SA = *strongly agree*, A = *agree*, D = *disagree*, SD = *strongly disagree*.

Figure 6 shows the respondents answers in percentages in graph form. It is interesting to note the large number of respondents who seem to have thought that debate was a useful method to study a language and learn about global issues (see Table 7).

FIGURE 6. Total Numbers of Boys and Girls Voting For or Against



Note. SA/A = *strongly agree and agree*; D/SD = *disagree and strongly disagree*.

TABLE 7. Number of Respondents Answering SA/A and D/SD

Question	SA/A (%)	D/SD (%)
1	125 (95)	8 (5)
2	81 (61)	52 (39)
3	95 (70)	38 (30)
4	117 (88)	16 (12)
5	93 (70)	40 (30)
6	119 (89)	14 (11)
7	89 (66)	44 (34)
8	95 (71)	38 (29)
9	59 (44)	73 (56)
10	96 (69)	37 (31)
11	116 (87)	17 (13)
12	128 (96)	5 (4)
13	123 (93)	9 (7)
14	108 (81)	25 (19)
15	115 (86)	19 (14)

Note. SA = *strongly agree*, A = *agree*, D = *disagree*, SD = *strongly disagree*.

In reply to the Question 1, we can see that 95% of students believed that debate helped improve their English ability. Interestingly, only 61% wanted to debate more in the future. Reasons given were that some students were nervous about speaking in front of others. Responses to Question 12 and Question 13 show that students also enjoyed being judges, as they could listen to their friends' opinions and learn how to debate more successfully through watching their peers. Responses to Questions 10 and 15 show that students preferred the group debate as they could work together in a team. Some replied that the micro-debate was more fun, as they didn't have to rely on others, but could instead be more independent, and they had to face the consequences alone if they lost. The micro-debate is initiated after the full class debate. Students face each other head-to-head and are judged by two classmates. In this way, a large number of students are able to participate in debate and act as judges in one class. In previous years, we initiated the micro-debate before the team debate. However, students felt that after learning the new vocabulary for the team debate and gaining confidence in speaking, they were better able to perform individually. As previously mentioned, debate is an evolving entity, and teachers have to be prepared and able to adapt to the ever-changing needs of each individual class.

Replies to Question 6 show that students were able to address the topic more deeply and learn about the subject matter through doing research. Question 14 responses show that they believed they were able to improve their grammar by debating. The responses indicate that debate is a popular medium to engage in language acquisition, and it seems that the third-year students, both male and female, were able to enjoy their studies. Interestingly, the number of students who stated that they changed their opinions after debating is evenly matched at about 30% for both male and female students. This result is surprising, and it seems to indicate that students kept an open mind and were able to be convinced through the arguments made by their peers. The amount of research conducted on the topic was formidable, and I too was impressed by the arguments made.

Does Debate Help Build Global and Intercultural Competence?

In this section of the paper, I will examine Questions 3(iv), 3(v), 4(i) and 4(ii). They are as follows:

- 3(iv). Do you need more time to prepare?
- 3(v). Did the debate help you to have a more balanced opinion and better understand the opinions of your friends?
- 4(i). Do you think the final debate helped you to understand more about Japan and about other countries in the world?
- 4(ii). Do you think debate is a good way to improve oral communication and to help students understand about different countries and cultures in the world? Why?

In response to Question 3(iv), 52 students answered in the affirmative and 71 in the negative. This corresponds to 52% and 58%, respectively. Answers to 3(v) show affirmative answers of 124 to 5 negative (or 95% to 5%). Question 4(i) shows similar results of 121 affirmative answers to 6 negative (95% to 5%), and Question 4(ii) is 120 affirmative to 4 negative (97% to 3%). However, we can clearly see that an overwhelming number of students thought that debate helped them to have a more balanced opinion and to understand the opinions of their peers. Equally impressive are the results to Questions 4(i) and 4(ii), which show that students thought that debate helped them to understand more about their own country and other countries in the world, and that debate is a good way to help improve oral communication and help students to understand about other cultures and countries. The following are some sample responses to the questions.

Question 3(v). Did the debate help you to have a more balanced opinion and better understand the opinions of your friends?

- We could know a lot of opinions.
- It is good to listen to many opinions and think about them.
- I can understand much better.
- I could learn about good and bad opinions.
- I got a fair idea of my friends' opinions.

Question 4(i).

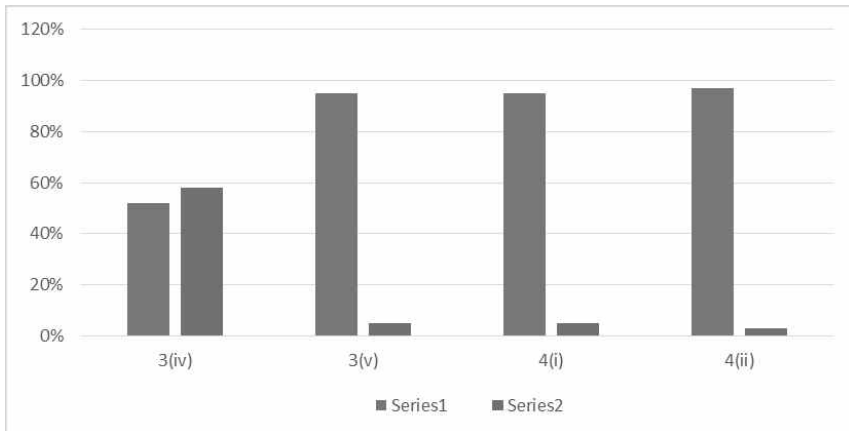
- It is good to compare Japan with other countries and learn new things.
- I learned a lot of differences between Japan and other countries.
- It was a good chance to learn about Japan and compare Japan with other countries. It was very useful. I came to love Japan more.

- I researched not only some countries information, but also the averages of the countries. That helped me to understand the countries more.
- I researched many things about Japan and other countries. I think knowing about other countries is important.

Question 4(ii).

- I researched a lot about foreign countries for the debate, so I learned about various rankings and features. I was able to learn more about the topic of the debate. I don't think about English communication, but I think I could communicate well.
- It's fun to express our opinions and share ideas and try to win the debate.
- We get to prepare and practice speaking and research things on our own.
- I could know other countries' culture as I did a lot of research.
- We have to translate from Japanese to English and think about how to present our opinions in English. We also increase our vocabulary, and it's a good way to express our opinions in English and think about other countries.

At the outset of this paper, I explained that I would provide evidence to add credence to my opinion that debate is a highly effective method of instruction in order to allow students to create and participate in language acquisition in meaningful ways and to express their opinions on issues that do or may have either a direct or indirect effect on them. Figure 6 demonstrates that overall replies to answers to the four questions, 3(iv), 3(v), 4(1), and 4(ii) of 52%, 95%, 95%, and 97%, respectively, give teachers a clear mandate to initiate debate classes at their institutes of learning. The fact that close to 100% of the students of both genders maintain that debate helped them to have a more balanced outlook, to understand more about their own country and that of others, and to improve their communication skills and learn about other cultures should not be regarded as frivolous. Some may point to the fact that debate was not compared to other types of teaching practice such as role play or reading class. Some of the students responded that debate was not the only way to learn about the world, however, the vast majority stated unequivocally that debate was the best way or one of the best ways to learn how to communicate.

FIGURE 6. Total Percentage of Responses to Questions 3(iv), 3(v), 4(i), and 4(ii)

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has focused on how debate helps students learn language skills and cultural awareness. Initially, we looked at the debate process, and I discussed at some length how we conduct debate at the school at which I am employed. It was felt necessary to provide this information to allow readers to see clearly the actual process. The transcript of one debate class was briefly touched upon to highlight how students are able to communicate in a foreign language and understand each other. I then focused on student answers to the survey questions, with a particular emphasis on the final four questions to highlight how they perceived debate helping them to learn about other countries and cultures. The majority of students responded with similar answers, demonstrating that the process had a similar effect on them.

I have taught classes in which students role-play being politicians and taking opposite stances. They work well, but in debate class, students can be themselves and express their opinions without fear of reproach. There is growing evidence that debate is the best way to advance linguistic as well as cultural awareness. If my plan to link debate classes internationally sees fruition, we will be able to provide students with a level of education hitherto unheard of.

This paper has shown how a large number of students from different

socio-economic backgrounds, although predominately Japanese nationals, viewed debate lessons. A high proportion of these students study both at their regular junior high school as well as at a cram school and another English conversation school. Some have also studied overseas on short home-stay visits, so a fair number were able to compare debate with other teaching methods. The favorable feedback they presented shows that there is or should be a definite case for persuading other schools to implement debate as part of their language courses. Data from the US also highlights how debate can be a positive force in keeping teachers happy and students out of prison, both highly desirable end results from any class course.

This study has also demonstrated that when students research topics of interest to them and of importance to the world, they are able to come to conclusions independently and are not afraid to change their opinions as they delve deeper into prior surface-level thoughts.

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APPENDIX A

Sample from Debate Booklet on School Uniforms

Are School Uniforms Necessary or Not?

1. True or False: Listen to the CD and answer the following True or False questions.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. /5

2. New Words: Write the following words in English and Japanese.



	Japanese	English	English
Necessary			
Reason			
Wear			
Same			
Waste			
Choose			
Formal			
Casual			
Fashion show			

3. Key Sentences

Write The Key Sentences in English and in Japanese

1	
2	
3	

4. Dictation

1. If everyone wears a school uniform, they _____.

So you can't see the differences between _____ and _____.

2. If you wear a school uniform:

You don't have to _____.

You don't have to _____.

So you don't have to _____ in the morning.

1. Students come to school _____, School isn't a place for _____, Students have to _____.

5. What do you think about these opinions?

Opinion 1	I think so, too	I don't think so
Me		
Opinion 2	I think so, too	I don't think so
Me		

APPENDIX B

Student Survey

Class Name: Circle one: Male / Female

Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. The debate helped my English ability				
2. I want to debate more in future.				
3. I feel more confident about speaking English because of debates.				
4. Debate is a good way to learn English.				
5. The topics were useful for me.				
6. I learned to think more deeply about the topic.				
7. I enjoyed speaking during the debates.				
8. I enjoyed using the computer to research new information.				
9. I enjoyed the micro-debates best.				
10. I enjoyed the group debates best.				
11. The debates helped me learn many new words.				
12. It was good to listen to the opinions of others.				
13. I now know how to present my opinions.				
14. I learned more about grammar during the debates.				
15. I enjoyed working in a team.				

2. Did you change your opinion during the debate? Please check the box.

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

3. Please write any other opinions in the box and try to answer the following questions:

- I. What other topics do you want to debate?
- II. How has your English improved?
- III. How can you do better in the next debate?
- IV. Do you need more time to prepare?
- V. Did the debate help you to have a more balanced opinion and better understand the opinions of your friends?

4. Please try to answer these last questions in as much detail as possible. If you cannot use English, it is okay to use Japanese.

- I. Do you think that the final debate helped you to understand more about Japan and about

other countries in the world?

- II. Do you think debate is a good way to improve oral communication and to help students understand about different countries and cultures in the world? Why?

EFL Writers' Metacognitive Experiences at the Macrolevel of the MASRL Model and Metacognition at the Social Level

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Metacognition with its various manifestations is crucial in discovering new paths of awareness and self-regulation. Metacognitive experiences are the pivotal points for awareness, activation, and self-regulation of task processing as well as person characteristics. Moreover, metacognitive judgment at the social level of metacognition indirectly contributes to a greater awareness of one's own as well as others' metacognitive experiences. Drawing on an analysis of the data collected from a group of EFL writers, the author explored their metacognitive experiences and how these metacognitive experiences contributed to general person characteristics. In addition, representations of metacognition in students' group work were investigated. It was found that the participants passed through three stages, and it was only in the third stage that they managed to explicitly understand their general person characteristics through metacognitive experiences and successfully regulate themselves. Metacognitive judgment in group work helped the participants to become self-aware in their writing tasks. Also, they learned how to uncover the rationale beyond their points of view. Therefore, it may be concluded that metacognitive experiences created a balance and revealed the actual circumstances and all the associated features when the students initiated writing, and functioned as a channel for short-term and long-term self-regulation. Due to the paucity of research on metacognitive experiences in the writing of Korean EFL learners, this study has pedagogical as well as research implications for second language writing.

Keywords: general person characteristics, metacognitive experiences, self-awareness, social level of metacognition

INTRODUCTION

Metacognition as a “model of cognition” (Efklides, 2006a, p. 4) is considered to be the key to becoming aware of the monitoring processes of thought and learning, and how an individual can apply the acquired knowledge to control their actions. Since learners are not always conscious of the processes of their cognition (Efklides, 2008), they are constantly involved in applying monitoring and control functions of metacognition to regulate their thoughts, actions, and behaviors. These facts emphasize the importance of metacognition, both for learners and educators, as an ever-burgeoning field in which self-awareness, including estimations, feelings, and knowledge, are the outcomes.

Shedding light on different aspects of metacognition empowers students to go one step beyond the regularities of their thought processes in action, notice new paths of awareness, and decrease their limitations through the endless process of interaction and feedback between the task the student is engaged in and characteristics like motivation, self-concept, and affect. This fact reinforces the essentiality of research on different levels of metacognition (Efklides, 2008, 2011). Moreover, in social relationships, metacognition improves “conflict resolution, error correction, and emotional regulation” (Frith, 2012, p. 221). “Explicit metacognitive awareness” (Efklides, 2008, p. 281; Frith, 2012, p. 2220) of different facets of metacognition leads to improvement in reasoning, discussion, judgment, decision-making, and collaboration (Briñol & DeMarree, 2012; Frith, 2012). The literature shows that different models and categorizations of metacognition have been proposed (e.g., Brown, 1980; Efklides, 2006a, 2008; Flavell, 1979; Nelson & Narens, 1994; Schraw & Dennison, 1994). Generally, metacognition is crucial for monitoring and regulating learning (e.g., Hacker et al., 2009; Veenman et al., 2006; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).

Additionally, Flavell (1979) noted that metacognition has a distinctive role in reading comprehension, writing, language acquisition, social cognition, and problem-solving. On the other hand, for those who pursue effective communication and academic achievement, competence in writing is important (Devine, 1993). For English as a foreign language (EFL), learners’ writing is not only the end but the means to achieving proficiency in English language. In fact, in this respect, what students need is the ability “to understand and regulate their own thinking and

learning” (Chamot, 2005, p. 124).

Metacognitive experiences (ME) as an “interface between the person and the task” (Efklides, 2009, p. 78) bring to light not only the feelings and judgments of writers but also their “online task-specific knowledge” (Efklides, 2006a, p. 4), which comprises the metacognitive knowledge (MK) of the task for processing. In addition, through intrinsic feedback (Efklides & Dina, 2004) ME are sources for choosing appropriate metacognitive strategies (Efklides, 2006a). In Efklides’ (2011) study, the ME that a learner was engaged in while doing a writing task led to awareness of one’s self-concept, motivation, and affect as personal characteristics that could be regulated separately and again influence the online task processing through ME and their interactions with metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive skills (MS). In addition, metacognition at the social level is associated with online ME when the students in group work deal with judgment, communication of thoughts, and expression of feelings with one another (Efklides, 2008).

Having manifold functions, ME and their interaction with the person level – that is, general characteristics such as “motivation, self-concept, affect, ability, control beliefs, MK, and MS” (Efklides, 2011, p. 7) – as well as at the social level of metacognition or “meta-metalevel” (Efklides, 2008, p. 283) in writing tasks, especially the ones done by second language (L2) learners, are areas demanding research. The role of metacognition in writing along with theories of self-regulation in writing are either limited to investigating the metacognitive processes in general (Hacker et al., 2009; Liu, 2014; Negretti & Kuteeva, 2011; Ruan, 2005; Zimmerman & Reiserberg, 1997) or metacognitive knowledge (Magogwe, 2013; Raphael et al., 1986; Surat et al., 2014; Victori, 1999), and self-regulation of writing tasks (Hammann, 2005; Jiangkui & Yuanxing, 2011; Kaplan et al., 2009). Accordingly, in this study, ME and their various interactions with the person level and the social metacognition of EFL writers have been investigated. To make the analysis clear, the related theoretical metacognitive frameworks (Efklides, 2008, 2011) are briefly explained in the following section.

METACOGNITIVE FRAMEWORKS

This section provides a brief overview of the concepts that form the background for the present study. Given the central role of the

monitoring and control functions of metacognition, in the first section, the metacognitive facets are clarified. In the second section, the enriched model of metacognition is introduced. Finally, the metacognitive and affective model of self-regulated learning (MASRL) is explained.

Facets of Metacognition

Based on the models of metacognition proposed by various scholars in this field, Efklides (2006a) specified two functions of metacognition as monitoring and control. Following Flavell (1979), she divided the monitoring function into metacognitive knowledge (MK) and metacognitive experiences (ME). Another facet of metacognition is metacognitive skills (MS), which are manifested as the control function (Brown, 1987; Efklides, 2006a).

MK is the “offline monitoring of cognition” (Efklides, 2009, p. 78) that consists of beliefs about ourselves and others, theory of mind, validity of knowledge, and goals. It also incorporates ME and MS. Being self-aware of MK, the learner can apply the constantly updated MK and make use of ME and MS to regulate themselves.

“Concurrent metacognition” (Efklides, 2006a, p. 5) or metacognitive experiences are characterized as metacognitive awareness (Lories et al., 1998; Efklides, 2011) of the task at hand, since they have cognitive, affective, inferential, and analytic characteristics. Metacognitive feelings include “feeling of knowing, feeling of familiarity, feeling of difficulty, feeling of confidence, and feeling of satisfaction” (Efklides, 2009, p. 78). Another category of ME is judgments or estimates such as “judgment of learning, source memory information, estimate of effort and time, estimate of solution correctness” (Efklides, 2009, p. 78). In addition to the above-mentioned categories, online task-specific knowledge is another ME. This feature helps the learner analytically, inferentially, or attributively (Efklides, 2008) to engage with task features and the associated MK and MS.

Finally, metacognitive skills have been demonstrated to be the control function of metacognition. According to Efklides (2009), metacognitive skills consist of the following strategies: (a) orientation strategies, (b) planning strategies, (c) strategies for regulating cognitive processing, (d) strategies for checking (monitoring) the implementation of planned action, (e) strategies for evaluation of the outcome of task processing, and (f) strategies for recapitulation and self-regulation. MS

gets feedback from MK and ME, and provides feedback for these two facets of metacognition (Efklides, 2008).

Overall, MK, ME, and MS are the three facets of metacognition that are considered as “multifaceted phenomenon” (Efklides, 2008, p. 280) due to the multiple relations and interactions they have with each other.

The Enriched Model of Metacognition

The multifaceted and multilevel model of metacognition posited by Efklides (2008) is based on Nelson and Narens’ model (1994). It consists of three levels: object level, metalevel, and meta-metalevel. The object level or the nonconscious level includes regulatory monitoring and control processes of emotion and cognition.

At the metalevel, which is the personal-awareness level, the person is consciously aware of the products of the object level. The components of self-awareness are emotions, ideas, thoughts, desires, and perceptions as well as ME, MK, and MS. At this level, the person is aware of the online task processing or the representation of the situation and its demands along with the actions or behaviors that end the accomplished tasks. At this level, metacognition is not “cold or purely cognitive” (p. 282); it is rather “hot” (p. 282) because, in the case of metacognitive feelings (ME), monitoring includes both affect and cognition. MS can be triggered by MK and ME. Monitoring at this level, by providing input for regulation, makes use of “cognitive and metacognitive strategies for the control of emotions, motivation, and the environment” (Efklides, 2014, p. 4). This kind of input takes the form of conscious and deliberate control of using cognitive strategies and metacognitive skills such as orientation strategies.

The meta-metalevel is the social level of metacognition. This is consistent with Nelson’s (1996) conceptualization that more than one metalevel may exist (Efklides, 2014). The personal awareness level interacts with the meta-metalevel. At this level, metacognitive judgment (MJ) means estimating one’s own or others’ metacognitive facets (i.e., MK, ME, MS). MJ is shaped by self-awareness as well as reflection and observation of thoughts or actions of others. Control strategies at this level include analytic instructions, group work, and the search for an appropriate strategy. Two implications are derived from the enriched model of metacognition (Efklides, 2014): first, at the various levels of metacognition, different processes in monitoring and control are

involved. Second, monitoring and control are influenced by cognitive and affective aspects of the task.

The MASRL Model

The metacognitive and affective model of self-regulated learning (MASRL) put forward by Efklides (2011) consists of two levels: The person level and the task×person level. The person level or “macrolevel” (Efklides, 2011, p. 6) contains person characteristics (i.e., self-concept, ability, motivation, affect, control beliefs, MK, MS) and the various interactions among them. At this general level, the task is viewed in general, not specifically according to its details, whether operating before or after task processing (e.g., self-concept in writing or mathematics).

The task×person level or “microlevel” (Efklides, 2011, p. 6) online task processing occurs that involves three phases equal to beginning (task representation phase), during (cognitive processing phase), and after performance (performance phase). In each phase, monitoring and control functions of metacognition are present. Also, metacognition, motivation, and affect are present at this level in the form of ME that the learners encounter in all phases of processing. What connects the two levels of the MASRL model are top-down (i.e., “person’s goal or the self”; Efklides, 2011, p. 15) and bottom-up (i.e., “awareness of ME and affect”; Efklides, 2011, p. 15) processes of self-regulation through metacognitive and affective feedback that the learner gets from both levels of the MASRL model.

Accordingly, metacognitive experiences are the pivotal points both for self-regulation and enrichment of macrolevel person characteristics. Furthermore, ME, by providing explicit metacognitive awareness of different aspects of the task, support metacognitive awareness at the social level. However, as the above literature review shows, no study has been conducted that explores the role of ME and the social level of metacognition in Iranian EFL writers. Most of the studies were limited to an investigation of general metacognitive processes, metacognitive knowledge, and self-regulation. As well, most of the studies done in the Korean context with the main theme of metacognition are either related to reading, or learning and learners in general (Choi & Kang, 2014; Haque, 2018; Hong-Nam & Page 2014; Kim, 2011; Kim & Cha 2015). Only Kang and Joo (2010) investigated how affective factors impact metacognitive strategy use in L2 writing, while other works only

indirectly refer to the concept of metacognition (Pae, 2008; Shin, 2008). These studies are considered in light of the metacognition frameworks used in this paper in the Discussion section.

Exploring ME that L2 writers use and how they contribute to person characteristics and metacognition at the social level of awareness are the aim of this study. Consequently, the following research questions direct the investigation:

- RQ1. How do students' metacognitive experiences in writing contribute to an awareness at the macrolevel of the self-regulated learning model?
- RQ2. How does students' awareness at the macrolevel of the self-regulated learning model contribute to metacognitive experiences?
- RQ3. What are the representations of metacognition in students' group work?

METHOD

Research Context, Participants, and Data Sources

The Essay Writing course is one of the writing courses senior students majoring in English language and literature attend. Instruction in this course focuses on teaching students how to write argumentative essays, that is, how to write an effective argumentative paper and also on the language and mechanics of writing. The Essay Writing course in the Department of Foreign Language and Linguistics at Shiraz University, Iran, was taught over a period of one semester that contained 16 sessions.

The six study participants ($N = 6$; 3 male, 3 female) were representatives of seventh semester Iranian university students taking part in an Essay Writing course. Study participants had Persian as their first language (L1) and the same cultural background. All the students had already passed two courses in writing at the university: Paragraph Writing and Essay Writing. In the former, they had practiced writing paragraphs using a variety of techniques of support and methods of development, and in the latter, they had learned how to write expository essays.

The data for this qualitative case study includes reflection on writing assignments, argumentative papers, and interviews. Of course, to make the students familiar with reflective writing, a training session was held by the instructor, and general instructions and examples were provided that were all irrelevant to writing. To avoid giving any clear hints about their own reflective writing tasks, the instructor explained that the students should express their thoughts, feelings, and ideas as well as the processes they go through during the whole process of writing, and then provide them with examples of reflective writings done in the fields of nursing and mathematics. The students were asked to write the reflections on their writings immediately after they finished the assignments for both group work and individual activities. At the end of the course, sixty (60) reflections were collected from all the participants. Students' argumentative papers were examined in different phases of data analysis in order to be compared with students' assertions in their reflective assignments as a method of calibration (Efklides, 2006a). In addition, after the analysis of the reflections, interviews were conducted to make some vague statements in participants' reflections clear.

Data Analysis

The MASRL model (Efklides, 2011) was utilized for answering the first and second research questions with regard to the ME contribution to the awareness of person-characteristics (macrolevel of the MASRL model). The enriched model of metacognition (Efklides, 2008) guided the author to find the answer to the third research question. It should be acknowledged that insights were sometimes taken from both models and metacognitive frameworks due to some overlap between them. Actually, this fact could be regarded as evidence that added to the credibility of interpretations. To answer the first and second research questions, MK, ME, and MS of the participants were specified and separated from each other and the components of the macrolevel of the self-regulated learning model in each of the students' reflections were recognized using specific codes (see Appendix). After the categories were identified, an observation was made to see how students' metacognitive experiences in writing contributed to an awareness of person characteristics and vice versa. To answer the third research question, the author went through three phases. In the first phase, she familiarized herself with the students' group work reflections. After that, she coded the reflections

(see Appendix) and specified the emerging categories, themes, and relationships among them. In the last phase, evidence was collected regarding how MK, MJ, and MS of the participants were illustrated at the metacognitive social-awareness level. Finally, interviews were conducted to confirm the assignment of participants' unclear reflective statements to specified categories and themes. To protect the identities of individuals taking part in this study, pseudonyms were used to refer to them.

FINDINGS

Contributions of ME to the Awareness of Person Characteristics and Vice Versa

The results reported below are representations of students' metacognitive experiences operating on the task×person level and of how awareness of ME contributed to the regulation of person characteristics. In this regard, data analysis indicated that participants went through three stages.

In the first stage, participants merely wrote about the various metacognitive experiences that they encountered when engaging with task processing, and they repeatedly mentioned the same experiences before they entered into the second stage. Mostly, they wrote about their feelings and judgments.

For instance, John, Nancy, and Jack expressed feelings of difficulty due to the “lack of idea or interest” (John and Joseph) and inability “to provide convincing reason” (Nancy and Joseph) whereas Martin, Ella, and Sara clearly mentioned feelings of confidence, satisfaction, and knowing, since they could fluently and easily write about topics of assignments:

Excerpt 1

I can imagine the situation of the topic that I want to write about and put myself in the shoes of someone who encountered with the situation in reality. I mean, I try to make the abstract topic, real. Putting other difficulties aside, it gives me an interest to write. [Ella]

Excerpt 2

I can reasonably support my ideas and reasons in a way that is justifiable for my readers. They flow easily once I start thinking; also, it helps me to focus on how to write rather than what to write. [Martin]

John and Sara frequently referred to the estimation of time in the middle of the task or at the end, and the associated feelings of dissatisfaction, stress, and confusion that they had due to the time constraint. For example,

Excerpt 3

I got anxious and stressful when I see my friends write faster and easier, and I see there is no time for brainstorming, for thinking. I just try to finish the writing. [Sara]

In addition, participants stated their feelings of difficulty when talking about online task-specific knowledge such as writing an introduction (Martin) and conclusion (Ella), and using a variety of grammar structures and vocabulary (Sara, Martin, Ella):

Excerpt 4

I always have a problem in writing a conclusion, and in this essay, I had problem in writing the conclusion, too. If you pay attention, you can see that it is written just in four lines. Really, believe me I did not know what to write about. [Ella]

In the second stage, awareness of metacognitive experiences led to regulation of one's actions and use of metacognitive skills at the same time that the students monitored their metacognitive experiences.

For example, those students who expressed feelings of difficulty due to the lack of ideas and interest in the topic, although they mentioned the same fact in the second phase, immediately after such an experience, they used their awareness and tried to find the best possible solution. This quotation from Joseph best exemplifies the above statement:

Excerpt 5

Another topic! As usual I have no idea but it is not impossible. Well, I use my imagination, real life experiences, what I heard and

read in news and magazines to start and continue my writing. Let's start brainstorming. [Joseph]

In fact, Joseph used the same approach to regulate himself several times before entering into the third stage.

In Stages 1 and 2, Sara's reflections indicate that estimation of time was one of her frequent ME, since she always struggled with time constraints. However, what distinguishes her reflection in second stage from the first one was her ability to partially overcome this shortcoming along with its associated affective experiences. These two quotations from Sara's reflections in Stage 1 and Stage 2 clearly illustrate her accomplishment:

Excerpt 6

I checked my mobile clock and I was shocked. I still didn't write anything.... As I started to write different ideas came to my mind, but I could not handle them in such a short time.... I wrote till the middle of the body paragraph and again looked at my watch, just 15 min. left! What should I do now? [Sara, Stage 1]

Excerpt 7

I was a bit lost and confused, fearing time limitations.... As I knew I may not have enough time, I started brainstorming, outlining, and writing the key words in the rough draft.... All in all, I felt satisfied because I finish the task on time. [Sara, Stage 2]

Finally, data analysis revealed that, in the third stage, students' metacognitive experiences in writing contributed to an awareness of the person characteristics, and in turn, the awareness of the person characteristics helped the participants to regulate themselves and create an opportunity for them to initiate writing with a new perspective.

In the last phase, Joseph and John reported that they tended to "spend too much time day-dreaming" about different subjects in their daily life and consider this MK of the self as one of the reasons for lack of sufficient time and lack of interest in the topic. As a result, taking into consideration the "audience" (John) and "channeling one's emotion and stream of thought" (John and Joseph) were the solutions they found to regulate their actions not only for their writing tasks but also in their everyday life.

Nancy, having the same feeling of difficulty and in a “foggy state of mind” because of disinterest and lack of ideas about the topics of the assignments, in the final stage verbalized how she enabled herself to change the state of her writing:

Excerpt 8

I decided to educate myself in different topics. In the past, there was no way I could encourage myself. But now, I look at the matter as a way to develop and even relaxing and easing my soul. Cause by writing about different subjects you get to know yourself more and more, discover things about yourself you'd never thought about before and challenge your mind. Now, I have more clear idea about how my mind works and I'll be more in control. [Nancy]

It seems that metacognitive experiences acted as a catalyzer for her to be more motivated to monitor herself.

Instructor's feedback on the students' writings was a source of motivation for Ella and Martin. Their problems were generally in writing introductions and conclusions as well as in using variety in vocabulary and structures. Their statements were all similar to Excerpts 9 and 10:

Excerpt 9

Whenever I see the instructor's feedback, feeling of improvement and accomplishment made me to ask myself why I had written in this way and why I had chosen these words and structures. Now, I think, I can write like a writer. [Ella]

Excerpt 10

Feedback from my own feelings and feedback from our professor helped me to be my own judge and change my viewpoint whenever I want to write the introduction. [Martin]

Sara found that the time constraint was the source of the stress she always faced. For the third stage, she put forward this statement:

Excerpt 11

To me, atmosphere is important since most of the time I feel stressed. I try to be more relaxed and less pressured and be patient, in that way time limitation is no more my problem. [Sara]

Representation of Metacognition in Students' Group Work

Analysis of the participants' reflections on group work revealed that metacognitive judgment about group members' MK, ME, and MS led to delving more deeply into one's self-awareness as well as a more critical attitude toward one's own writing, which contributed to self-regulatory behaviors. Martin and Joseph's reflections on one of the groups' tasks aptly illustrated this:

Excerpt 12

Whenever I tell my friends about my ideas or feelings, they try to find it out more clearly so they ask you to elaborate it, this is the time that I have to think more deeply about my ideas and look at it in another way. [Martin]

Excerpt 13

Group members find out what they like and what they don't like regarding writing because of variety of perspectives and ideas that a group work can bring to the final job. [Joseph]

Additionally, metacognitive judgment illuminated the weak and strong points in students' writing (Sara, Ella). For example,

Excerpt 14

I realized what vocabularies and structures I need to know and in what ways I have to try more and in which part I have more knowledge. It shows that the way I think about a subject may not be ok and it is better to be revised. [Sara]

Nancy and John commented on how metacognitive judgment helped them to creatively and firmly construct their stance toward writing:

Excerpt 15

Group work reinforces what I already knew, motivated me to learn and search about a given topic because I get positive reinforcement from my group work. [John]

Excerpt 16

It helps me to be clearer and surer about my own ideas, and

comparing writings makes me determined about what I myself write (help you to defend your style and ideas). It makes me to be clear about my ideas. [Nancy]

Furthermore, data analysis indicated that the participants had difficulty taking into account their group members' ideas and opinions. In the initial phases of group work, they highlighted this: "I should be careful not to hurt others feelings" (Nancy) and "We have to compromise so that no one emotionally hurt" (John). However, in the last phases of group work or in final reflections related to group activities, they were able to explicitly discuss the reason and logic underlying their point of view so that they could "write the result of discussions" (Martin). John pointed out, "I learn how to understand my group members' opinion that is I can put myself in their shoes now. It boosts my imagination and I can clearly discuss my standpoint so that there is no need to compromise."

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore how students' metacognitive experiences in writing contribute to an awareness of person characteristics and vice versa. In addition, the representation of metacognition in students' group work was investigated. Regarding the awareness of metacognitive experiences, the results indicate that participants passed through three stages, and it is only in the third stage that they were able to explicitly understand their general person characteristics through ME and successfully regulate themselves. Metacognitive judgment in group work helped the participants to be self-aware of their attitudes, ideas, strengths, and weaknesses in the writing tasks. Also, they learned how to uncover the rationale beyond their points of view in order to share their ideas successfully with group members. In light of the results of this study, in the next section, discussion is presented.

Regarding Metacognitive Experiences and Awareness of Person Characteristics

The participants reported their ME when operating on the

task×person level of the MASRL model. This microlevel entails bottom-up or online self-regulation. On the other hand, the macrolevel, which includes person characteristics, functions as a top-down process of self-regulation; that is, the individual sets their goal based on general person characteristics.

In the present study, awareness of ME progressively led to short-term regulation at the time of task processing (Stage 2) and then contributed to long-term regulation (Stage 3) when the participants became self-aware of their person characteristics, regardless of the writing task. Our observation is aptly explained by the fact that through ME, the individual monitors cognitive and affective characteristics of the task, which provide rich intrinsic feedback for learners (Efklides, 2001, 2011; Goodman, 1998). This kind of feedback instigated self-regulation and gradually assisted the participants to use metacognitive skills at the same time when experiencing a barrier or failure in task processing (Stage 2). Moreover, our observation aligns with Koriat (2000, 2007), Veenman and Elshout (1999), and Efklides (2001, 2006a, 2011) in finding that ME motivate the learners to use metacognitive skills when processing a task.

Furthermore, intrinsic feedback through ME eventually moved the participants to the person level. They changed self-regulation from a bottom-up to a top-down process. Operating on the person level, participants found the opportunity to reflect on and observe their metacognitive experiences in light of the stable person characteristics. Our finding in this regard is consistent with the justification put forward by Efklides (2011) that self-reflection and self-observation on metacognitive experiences that the person experienced during task processing as well as the external feedback activate the person level. When the participants activated the person level, they regulated the relevant components of the macrolevel to the task processing at hand (i.e., self-concept, motivation, MK of the self, etc.) and, in turn, informed the task×person level. What reinforces our finding is that the person level may act as a self-regulator before, during, and after the time the individual engages in task processing at the task×person level (Efklides, 2011).

It is important to note that two participants (Ella and Martin) referred to the instructor's feedback in the third stage as a strong motivator to self-regulate during the part of the task in which they encountered difficulty. This kind of feedback is referred to as

“task-generated feedback” (Goodman, 1998, p. 225). According to Efklides and Dina (2004), task-generated feedback is different from intrinsic feedback provided by ME because it doesn’t involve monitoring of cognitive and affective experiences. Task-generated feedback involves a comparison between “what is being done to task processing and/or outcome requirements” (Goodman, 1998, p. 225). Efklides (2006b) asserted that ME, by providing intrinsic feedback, indirectly influences whether the learner reaches the threshold level or not, and contributes to self-regulation. In fact, our observation concerning participants’ focus on the instructor’s feedback as an agent of self-regulation suggests that it was the result of the implicit function of ME as to whether the participants acquired the threshold concepts of essay writing or not (e.g., writing an appropriate introduction, conclusion, and using a variety of structures and vocabulary relevant to argumentative writing), since these are critical to writing an acceptable essay in English based on the rubric used in this Essay Writing course.

Regarding the Representation of Metacognition in Group Work

Our data analysis suggested that in addition to ME, metacognitive judgment contributed to the participants’ self-consciousness of their own writings by encouraging a critical attitude, shedding light on strengths and weaknesses, and helping to construct a position toward their own writings. Our findings confirm that the social level of metacognition is “a *meta* level of the personal-awareness level” (Efklides, 2008, p. 281) in the sense that it considers and turns to the personal-awareness level and provides the opportunity to compare one’s own MK, ME, and MS with those of others. In this way, the social level bestows the ability to envision “what is not present and actions that have not occurred” (Frith, 2012, p. 2219).

Also, this fact has the potential to make learners more attentive to their own MK, ME, and MS. At this level, metacognitive experiences have no distinctive role, but they are subject to metacognitive judgment and implicitly are taken into account through reflection and monitoring of one’s own ME and those of others. As a result, MJ is another source for the successful use of metacognitive experiences in the process of self-regulation.

Moreover, participants acquired the ability to discuss the logic and reason underlying their viewpoint. Development of learners in this aspect

of group work could be attributed to the awareness of ME, MJ, personal characteristics, and intrinsic feedback, as it was stated by Frith (2012) that metacognition helps the individual to discuss the process of formation of one's decisions and ideas.

Regarding Metacognition and EFL Writing in the Korean Context

In light of the literature review, all the studies done in the area of EFL writing indirectly refer to the concept of metacognition, and only one study focuses on L2 writing and metacognition.

Pae (2008) attempted to find factors that are predictive of Korean students' EFL writing performance. Among the factors that were found in the paper, positive attitude and cognitive knowledge of L2 writing are pertinent to metacognition. These two variables could come under the category of metacognition, since their participants' statements refer to the MK and ME of writers. For example, "To write essays on books and articles that are very complex is difficult" (p. 128) is tapping the ME of writers regarding the feeling of difficulty, and "I like to have my friends read what I have written in English" (p. 128) is an idea of the learner about oneself, coming under the category of MK.

In another study, Shin (2008) found the crucial effect of planning and collaboration in second language written production. Planning, as one of the stages of pre-writing, helps the writer to have the MK of the task, which leads to positive ME and successful control of the writing. Furthermore, in collaboration and group work, learners use their MJ to compare their own MK, ME, and MS with those of others and self-regulate themselves. As a result, MJ is a source for awareness and self-monitoring and regulation.

A Korean EFL approach to L2 writing based on metacognition and affectivity (Kang & Joo, 2010) is the only study that investigated the intersection of L2 writing and metacognition in the Korean context. There are several potential shortcomings in this study. The writers referred to both cognitive and metacognitive strategies in writing and then mentioned metacognitive variables. It is strongly recommended to use the recent metacognitive frameworks in the field of psychology. In addition, it is stated that "affectivity is potentially linked to metacognitive strategies" (p. 186). This statement has two flaws, based on metacognitive frameworks proposed by Efklides. First, mention is

made of affective factors and affective blocks and their link to metacognitive strategy use. Kang and Joo did not make it clear that affect refers to emotions or feelings, since it is only feelings that are the product of metacognitive monitoring and not emotions (Efklides, 2002). Second, if affect is considered as ME, then it can be linked to control decisions, which leads to conscious and deliberate use of writing strategies. Overall, the paper underscores the importance of metacognition, especially the importance of ME (feelings, estimates, and judgments) for regulation of cognition in writing.

In conclusion, Mordell (2016) implemented metacognitive strategy training with Korean L2 learners and emphasized the importance of metacognitive training on the improvement of language proficiency. Another concept that carries metacognition inherently is autonomy. Autonomy is an idea, an experience, and action that can be promoted by making students self-aware of their MK, ME, and MS, so that they can take responsibility for their own learning, especially in collectivist societies like Korea and other Asian ESL/EFL contexts in which it is expected that teachers take charge of the learning process (Haque, 2018).

CONCLUSIONS

Metacognitive experiences are dynamic informants. They contribute to the enrichment of metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive skills, and self-regulation processes. Sometimes learners experience a discrepancy between the goals, attitudes, perceptions, and expectations they bring to a task and the actual ME they glean from the environment (Efklides, 2009; Kruger & Dunning, 1999; McKenzie, 1998). In other words, there might be a difference between what the individual perceives (e.g., MK, MS, ability, self-concept, motivation) and the ME. In that case, ME create a balance by providing intrinsic feedback on MK, MS, and person characteristics. Consequently, ME reveal the actual circumstance and all the associated features when a learner initiates writing, and they function as a channel for short-term self-regulation and long-term self-regulation. Equally important, metacognitive judgment enhances this process, since it functions at the meta-metalevel and, in turn, influences one's metacognition by allowing the individual to compare one's MK, ME, and MS with those of others. This important feature helps the learner to be more insightful in the process of regulation.

Due to the influential role of ME, it is recommended that EFL writing instructors provide the opportunity for learners to probe their metacognitive experiences and talk about their feelings, judgments/estimations, online task-specific knowledge, writing reflections, and sharing their experiences with classmates and the instructor. For example, instructors could develop checklists using metacognitive frameworks, including questions about metacognitive experiences that learners may encounter prior to and during engagement with the task (e.g., How difficult do you think the task is?) and after the completion of the task (e.g., Are you satisfied with your planning and effort? Why?). The employment of such a checklist may heighten the learners' awareness and thus help them to calibrate and balance their feelings, judgments/estimations, and online task-specific knowledge by comparing their prospective and retrospective metacognitive experiences (Efklides, 2002). In addition, learners could keep journals for the writing tasks. Afterward, the journals would be a rich resource for the EFL writers to manage their writing in the best possible way and for the instructor to glean an insight into how it is possible to accelerate the process of self-awareness and self-regulation of EFL writers.

Limitations of the Study

An attempt was made to design this study as rigorously as possible; nevertheless, given practical considerations, the study actually suffered from a number of limitations. Firstly, an analysis of the ME of a greater number of writers is necessary. In addition, a future study may focus on how ME contribute to each of the person characteristics separately (e.g., motivation, self-concept, affect, MK, and MS) in writing tasks. Finally, future research could focus on an in-depth analysis of students' metacognition based on the MASRL model in group activities and how learners collaboratively regulate each other.

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APPENDIX

Coding System

A:	Audience
AE:	Affective Experience
C:	Control
CA:	Critical attitude
ET:	Estimation of Time
F:	Feedback
FC:	Feeling of Confidence
FD:	Feeling of Difficulty
FS:	Feeling of Stress
M:	Monitoring
ME:	Metacognitive Experience
MJ:	Metacognitive Judgment
MK:	Metacognitive Knowledge
MM:	Meta-metalevel
MO:	Motivation
MS:	Metacognitive Skill
PC:	Person Characteristics
PK:	Point of View
RA:	Regulatory Action
SC:	Self-Concept

The Evolution of 20th Century ESP Syllabus Design: A Critical Review

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The 20th century was evinced to be the era of experimentation in English language pedagogy. With the advent and decline of new teaching and learning methodologies and the evolution of the ESP movement in mainstream ELT, curriculum and syllabus design have been more often explored and re-examined for redefining the purpose, product, and process of language learning. This paper is concerned with undertaking a critical review of the available literature on ESP syllabus design in the 20th century and its impact on present-day language education. This study focuses mainly on understanding the relevance of ESP in needs-based courses and discusses how it has been affected by the major paradigm shifts in approaches and methods in language learning. It also emphasizes how the integrated and interrelated aspects of linguistic and nonlinguistic approaches to syllabus design can meet the target needs of ESP students in the 21st century.

Keywords: communicative competency, eclectic approach, ELT, English for specific purposes (ESP), needs analysis, syllabus design

INTRODUCTION

In the late 20th century, curriculum and syllabus design witnessed a massive change due to the increased use of “specificity” and “needs-based language learning” in English language education. As learners’ needs and learning needs have become core objectives of language learning, curriculum and syllabus design is much more focused on the specificity of content, genres, skills, and tasks in language

learning. It can be viewed that in the global context, the English language has been specifically learned to meet the academic and professional needs of students. As contextual needs-based syllabuses have become increasingly important to academics and the profession, language pedagogy is visualized as adopting both linguistic and non-linguistic approaches to language learning. Hence, English for specific purposes (ESP) has evolved, as the learner-centered approach is more oriented to the purpose, means, and ends of language learning, and it is more focused on developing target-level communicative competence of the students.

The ongoing and continuous enhancement of ESP in varied forms and contexts has been apparent since its inception in the era of colonialism to the present day. The venture of conducting needs analyses in designing ESP syllabuses has become so immanent that the whole process of curriculum development in English language education is attributed to the success of subject-specific content and context-based language learning. In purview to understand the broad perspectives of the development of ESP courses, this study aims to conduct a systematic critical review on the evolution of 20th century ESP syllabus design and analyze its significance in present English language learning. In this context, several questions arise on probing the influence of ESP in needs-based syllabus design: How far has the transformation of 20th century needs-based syllabus design penetrated the growth of the ESP movement along with the other approaches to language learning? How has the emergence of ESP as an approach to language education affected the communicative nuances of needs-based syllabus design? What has caused ESP courses to integrate and evolve with both the linguistic and nonlinguistic approaches to language learning? What is the impact of ESP courses on present language education and how can its specificity be explored in the 21st century? This paper attempts to review and discuss the evolution of ESP syllabus design in the 20th century and focus on how it has accelerated a positive impact on learning needs-based ESP courses today, in particular.

Research Question

What are the key studies of changes from one syllabus to another and how have they affected current ESP syllabus design?

This study was undertaken with a keen desire to review and conduct

objective analysis of the most authoritative books and reputed articles in international journals related to current theory and literature on ESP.

KEY STUDIES OF CHANGES FROM ONE SYLLABUS TO ANOTHER

The nature of language needs, learners' needs, and learning needs, and the contextual influences in procuring language knowledge, content, and skills do not remain constant. Change in syllabus design is inevitable, as language learning is oriented towards a multidimensional approach to developing communicative competence. Structural syllabuses are specified with discrete language items and structured with grammar and lexis; notional-functional syllabuses are explained with notional-functional categories with a foundation of structures and situation; situational syllabuses are primarily concerned with contextual use; genre-based syllabuses are concerned with discourse, register, and text analysis; content-based syllabuses emphasize subject-related information; topic-based syllabuses deal with the study of any interesting or specialized topic or theme; task-based syllabuses are created through conducting closed or open-ended cognitive and discursive tasks; and skills-based syllabuses envision developing generic and discipline-specific communication skills. ESP syllabuses are specifically oriented towards developing the oral and written discourse level of students with a defined purpose of learning through conducting needs analyses and systematically revising the content and method, and conducting regular evaluations of the language program. State-of-the-art and peer-reviewed research papers are widely consulted to gain a sufficient theoretical and practical understanding of the topic.

ESP vs. CLT in English Language Teaching and Syllabus Design

English language proficiency and communicative competency are the two interrelated phenomena that have paved the way for developing English for specific purposes (ESP) as a mainstream movement in ELT. Needs-based, specific objectives of language learning are seen as necessary to reflect the purpose of an ESP course. Tony Shaw (1977, as cited in Breen, 1987a) stated that he was finding himself in a "turbulent

and iconoclastic period” (p. 81) in syllabus design, in which “the whole question of curriculum and syllabus development is inevitably in the center of a storm” (Shaw, 1982, as cited in Breen, 1987a, p. 81) and Breen’s (1987a) reference to “the sea change” (p. 81) of language teaching and learning and its impact on syllabus design reflect how syllabus design has been playing a crucial role in both the theory and practice of language education. ESP pedagogy is generally concerned with the specific objectives of language learning in the context of the needs of the present and the target situation. It is very certain, substantive, and undeniable to reflect that ESP has accelerated the movement of communicative language teaching (CLT), or it can be inferred that CLT has fostered the development of ESP as well (Breen, 1987a; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The three phases of CLT that have genuinely marked the development of ESP pedagogy are (a) the need to develop a syllabus that was accustomed to the notion of target-level communicative competence, (b) to conduct a needs analysis, as it is an essential requirement to understand the specific objectives of language learning, and (c) to focus on the product and the process of language learning (Breen, 1987a, 1987b; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Johnson, 1982). Thus syllabus design, needs analysis, and a general concern for the process and procedures related to language learning and classroom instruction have followed a great consensus in adopting CLT for general and specific use in language learning. A distinction between “special” and “specific” purposes has been made in a few language learning contexts, and in due course, the “specificity” of learning English has become a more sought-after approach to language learning than learning the language for general purposes. Johnson (1982) discriminated between general and specific language and learning needs of the learner and distinguished how commonly shared language needs are provided for in a common-core syllabus and how specific learning needs are prescribed in specialized courses.

ESP, the major offshoot of ESL, plays a distinctive role in English language teaching (ELT) and its advancement, and owes much to the development of English for science and technology (EST) and vice versa (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Since the massive introduction of science, engineering, and technical education courses, EST remains the most important development of ESP, and its expansion is duly noted through the use of technical literature in respective disciplines. English for

disciplinary-based textual and register use has been prevalent for specific rhetorical and discourse purposes. Swales (1985, as cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) characterized the role of EST as “With one or two exceptions ... English for science and technology has always set and continues to set the trend in theoretical discussion, in ways of analyzing language, and in the variety of actual teaching materials” (p. 9). As ESP is in the mainstream of ELT today, it has been extremely influenced by EST at the different stages of the paradigm shift in pedagogical movements with respect to the scientific, technical, and industrial needs of language and communication. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 9, citing Swales, 1985) discussed the development of EST through the development of ESP in general, and consider the emergence of EAP (English for academic purposes) and EOP (English for occupational purposes) as its major offshoots.

The terms *linguistic competence*, *communicative competence*, and *communicative performance* have had a revolutionary effect on second language learning. Munby (1978) cites that the theoretical underpinnings of Hymes (1970), Halliday (1973), and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) laid the foundation of language teaching on communicative precepts. On the insurgence of CLT, Stern (1983) reflects that “the practical demands of a communicative approach to language teaching ran ahead of existing theory and research” (p. 178). While discussing the emergence of the communicative movement, Howatt (1984) characterizes its key concept as a unified event, as language is viewed as a whole in terms of utterances, texts, conversation, discourses, and so on. In commenting on the linguistic tradition and the theoretical background of the communicative era, Johnson (1982) explains that Chomsky’s (1957, 1965) psycholinguistic theories are much concerned with examining “how structures are acquired without reference to how those structures are used” (p. 17). Trim (1979), Wilkins (1976), van Ek (1979), and the team of Council of Europe experts (as cited in Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Munby, 1978; Yalden, 1987), propagated CLT with the tool of notionalism-functionalism to develop communicative use in language teaching.

Howatt (1984) explains that the Threshold Level project (1971–1975) commissioned their papers on the specifications of a general English course framework for gaining “common core” (i.e., basic) competence necessary to acquire required language skills to communicate effectively. The first paper of the Threshold Level project was concerned

with conducting needs and situation analyses to design a general purpose language course. In specifying the constructs of syllabus design for adult language learners, Richterich (1972, as cited in Howatt, 1984, p. 338) advocated a “needs analysis” to interpret the language needs and learning needs of the learners. Richterich (1972) provided a detailed taxonomy of the situational use of language learning and the role of learners and the activities they need to communicate effectively. Richterich’s needs analysis provided sufficient insights into the whole of the project to understand the “specifications of the nature of the language, learning needs, situations, and activities” (p. 338). In the second paper of the Threshold Level project and in the revised version, Wilkins (1976) advocated for notional syllabuses and described the use of semantico-grammatical categories that related meaning through grammar and vocabulary; categories of communicative function like greeting, inviting, apologizing; and categories of modal functions such as certainty and necessity. The third paper, *The Threshold Level* by van Ek (1973, as cited in Howatt, 1984, p. 339) discussed the general and specific notions that relate to the use of grammar and vocabulary, and details the use of language functions for effective communication.

Van Ek (1975) and Trim (1975, as cited in Howatt, 1984; Johnson, 1982; Stern, 1983) observed that needs analyses can be analyzed through defining the target group and understanding its situation and context-based language use. Wilkins (1976) considered grammar, vocabulary, and communicative activities as notions, while van Ek (1979) saw grammar and vocabulary as notional categories and communicative activities as a functional category. This comprehensive package of syllabus design is widely referred to as the “semantic syllabus” (Johnson, 1982) or the “notional-functional approach” to a communicative syllabus (Wilkins, 1976) that intended to enrich or replace the overly rigid structural syllabuses. Further reinstating the use of language, Wilkins (1976) affirmed, “The whole basis of a notional approach to language teaching derives from the conviction that what people want to do through language is more important than mastery of the language as an unapplied system” (p. 42).

Needs analysis initially emerged in the days of colonization and consequently expanded into the present era of globalization. Needs analysis was conducted first in India by Michael West in 1926 as he attempted to teach Bengali students to gain a command of spoken English (White, 1988). In his needs analysis survey, West found that the

students needed to improve their reading and vocabulary skills. Needs analysis is the process of understanding the present and target situations of the students, and it is the most extensively used tool by ESP syllabus designers in framing and developing needs-based syllabuses and curriculums. Van Ek (1975) and Trim (1975, as cited in Johnson, 1982), considered needs analysis as a tool to assess target learning needs. From a sociolinguistic perspective, Munby (1978) developed the Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) to analyze the profile of learners in the target situation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasized conducting Target Situation Analysis (TSA) to analyze the learner and learning needs for developing ESP courses.

Munby's (1978) model for communicative syllabus design is the most influential model to date, as it involves designing the content and methodology to the needs of the learner. Though Munby stands as a major advocate of needs analysis, his contribution of the Communication Needs Processor for conducting needs analysis in a target situation has attracted much appreciation as well as much criticism and has rarely been systematically followed or practically applied. Nunan (1988b) reflected on Munby's communicative syllabus design:

An important figure in the curriculum landscape is Munby (1978). The Munby model, which was at first thought to hold great promise for language syllabus design, has come increasingly under criticism in the last few years and is now generally regarded as the core document in the narrow-band approach, which sees course design largely in terms of the specification of the "what" of language teaching to the exclusion of the "how." The somewhat mechanical nature of the procedures for deriving course input and the atomistic approach to language specification and learning has been criticized as well. In fact, in some ways the Munby model can be seen to be antithetical to the learner-centered philosophy from which it was supposedly derived. Being based on data about the learner, rather than incorporating data from the learner, it could be argued that the model is only superficially learner-centered. (p. 24)

Munby's communicative syllabus design does provide factual information on content, though it sheds little light on methodology or the means of the learning process. Nevertheless, the initial attempt of conducting a systematic needs analysis through Munby's Communication Needs

Processor cannot be ignored.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) favored a wide-angle approach as it provides the necessary information to analyze and understand students' deficiencies in learning. The notion of "specificity" is gradually being recognized as meeting the language and communicative needs of academics and professionals (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Schmidt, 1981). It has been unanimously recognized that compliance with the target needs in the present situation should be the primary goal of learning in ESP courses (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Long, 2005; Schmidt, 1981; Schutz & Derwing, 1981; West, 1994). ESP has been the most popular and most specialized approach that emphasizes the learning of specialized genres, skills, and tasks for specific target situations. In an ESP syllabus, the specific use of task, content, and skills have been identified to be developed with specific genres and relevant text type as required by the students and target community. The specification of genres, skills, and tasks must necessarily meet the required communicative competence of the learner's target field.

Paradigm Shift in Syllabus Design from the Structural Syllabus to the Communicative Syllabus

Structural syllabuses are mainly concerned with the psycholinguistic approach to language learning. Ellis (1993) suggested that a structural syllabus can serve as a basis for the development of either implicit or explicit knowledge. The universal fervor surrounding the structural syllabus was due to its systematic and explicit approach to language teaching where the teaching, learning, and testing criteria are successfully organized with concrete solutions. Corder (1967, as cited in Ellis, 1993) exemplified the role of the "built-in syllabus" in learners' implicit understanding of structures. The structural syllabus follows a linear process of learning. Such a syllabus is product-based and concerned about "what" language items the students need to learn in language classes. Structural syllabuses are more constructive, well-planned, and structured to explicitly learn the language items in discrete forms. Structural units primarily focus on the accuracy of discrete language items rather than providing an opportunity to create sentences to use in discourse. With a lexical-driven view of language learning, Lewis (1993), Nation and Crabbe (1991), and Sinclair and Renouf (1988) focused on facilitating learning through a corpus-based syllabus. The

attempt to learn grammatical and vocabulary items in discrete forms facilitated language mastery rather than oral fluency. Krahnke (1987) considered that communicative ability could be better displayed through developing linguistic skills. This approach is often combined with other syllabuses to understand the structural and functional use of language.

Situational syllabuses are designed to develop survival-based learning, where the communicative function remains the priority of language learning (Nation & Crabbe, 1991). Dyadic communication is presumably apparent in developing a survival syllabus through situation-based language learning. In answer to the vivid questions raised about the grammar-translation method, it resolves to develop communication activity in both “realistic” and “real” situations (Taylor, 1982, as cited in Krahnke, 1987). The situation-based syllabus has been generally associated with both the cognitive and behavioristic modes of learning. It involves experiential learning through a communicative approach and situation-based linguistic and informative content. The significance of semantics, pragmatics, and discourse are generally apparent in situation-based syllabuses.

Wilkins (1976, p. 13, as cited in Johnson, 1982) considered the underpinnings of language behavior to be a key feature of semantic syllabuses and that is what structural syllabuses generally lack. Wilkins acknowledged that “since it is language behavior we are concerned with, it is possible, indeed desirable, that the linguistic content of any unit [in semantic teaching materials] should also be stated.” The vague itemized description of forms spurred a new revolution in terms of promoting language use in situational contexts through alternative theories of language learning and with the reformative attempts of Palmer, Hornsby, Malinowski, Firth, and Halliday, who constantly argued for the context-based situational and functional use of language (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; White, 1988; Yalden, 1983). Further, Firth and Halliday emphasized the importance of contextual meaning in communicative situations. Though context-based situational syllabuses replaced the rigid grammatical and lexical syllabuses, their content is much oriented toward the specification of structures, topics, and situational contexts. It can be assumed that the impact of structures on language teaching has not completely faded out and the trend of “pattern practice” has retained the learning of discrete items of grammar and vocabulary along with the focus on meaning, situation, and contexts.

Structural syllabuses will deal only with the pre-specification of

structures and forms as the basis for attaining linguistic knowledge and aims at achieving language mastery. It is generally preferred as the basic combination for content-, task-, and skills-based syllabuses. As the form and functional-based syllabus is widely known as the most treated combination in ESL/EFL contexts, form, function, and situational contexts are given priority in survival syllabuses. Forms and topic-based informative content are an essential component in rhetoric- and discourse-based EAP syllabuses. The notion of “survival”-based language learning has several connotations referred to with various terminology, with “survival” and “communicational” in the 1970s and 1980s; and at the end of the 20th century it has been strongly emphasized that along with communicative approaches, genre-, skills-, and task-based learning are crucial for developing students’ communicative performance.

The Transformation of Syllabus Design from a Communicative Syllabus to Genre-, Skills-, Task-, Topic-, Theme-, and Content-Based Syllabuses

The paradigm shift from the structural use to the functional use of language led the communicative movement to gain much popularity and practice (Brumfit, 1984; Canale & Swain, 1980; Candlin, 1984; Halliday, 1973; Hymes, 1979; Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981; Munby, 1978; Savignon, 1991; Widdowson, 1983; Wilkins, 1976; Yalden, 1983, 1987). The immediate effect of the communicative movement influenced language experts in designing the major framework for general and specific course design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Munby, 1978; Widdowson, 1983, 1990). The term “communicative” has become the household mantra of British applied linguists to refer to the development of language for communication. Brumfit (1984), Candlin (1984), Johnson (1982), Littlewood (1981), Savignon (1991), Widdowson (1983) and Yalden (1983) described “communicative” as a classroom experience that more closely approximates an environment of real language use. Syllabuses designed for such a situation are called “communicative syllabuses.” Savignon (1972, 1983, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986) emphasized providing communicative practice from the very start of instruction. This does not mean that grammar instruction needs to be given first and communicative practice be provided later. Both can be simultaneously taught and learned.

Wilkins' (1976) semantic taxonomy of the concept of notional syllabus is based on semantico-grammatical categories, categories of modal meaning, and communicative function. The explicit and experiential learning of language through the notional-functional approach has promoted the use of certain procedures and techniques in carrying out information gap tasks. The notional-functional approach is often associated with structural, situational, and task-based language learning. Though it is presumed that the approach may promote communication skills by acting in a communicative situation and promote the functional use of language, intense interpersonal and group communicative context is lacking in instructional content, and the predetermined functions do not give an in-depth realization of "realistic" classroom learning. Hence, comprehension is not facilitated. CLT is often attacked for lacking concreteness in defining its instructional procedures and for not providing concise guidance for teachers to sequence and grade communicative tasks and activities for practicing communication in a classroom environment.

Brumfit (1984) pointed out that approaches to syllabus design and content specification could be made through analyzing the linguistic product in terms of form, meaning, and use. Brumfit identified phonological, syntactic, morphological, and notional components as the categories for formal analyses, generally derived from descriptive linguistics. For interactional analyses, he identified situational, functional, discursive, rhetorical, and stylistic as the categories derived from social psychology, philosophy, anthropology, and stylistics; and for content/topical analyses, categories could be derived from the subject of discussion. Brumfit recognized that the prime objective of process-based language learning was communicative performance, that is, developing language skills and extracting communicative abilities through monitoring and undertaking classroom tasks. The skills-based syllabus became popular, as it focused mainly on communicative abilities. Skills-based learning is pertinent to analyze reading and listening comprehension, and extended speaking and writing production of students. Further, it helps them to observe their accurate and appropriate use of language in both discourse and discrete form. Skills-based pedagogical analysis can be conducted through individual, interpersonal, and group communication tasks. Pair, group, and classroom dynamics are quintessential in analyzing and assessing the communication skills and competency level of students.

The impact of ESP on academic and professional needs has contributed to the growth of genre-based communicative use of language (Bhatia, 2008; Hyland, 2004; Swales, 2000; Widdowson, 1983). The ESP framework is broadly associated with studies of genre, discourse, and corpus linguistics (Lockwood, 2012). Genre-based language courses are entirely focused on non-linguistic criteria, such as topic, theme, content, and tasks. Genre-based language learning adopts a top-down model where the emphasis is more on discourse, text, and contextual use. As Paltridge (2001) pointed out,

A genre-based approach to language program development aims to incorporate discourse and contextual aspects of language use that are often unattended to in programs based only on the lower-level organizational units of language, such as structures, functions, or vocabulary. (p. 6)

In the early 1960s, genre was generally associated with the form and functional components, and presently it is associated with specific discipline-based studies like move analysis, text analysis, register analysis, subgenre analysis, rhetorical analysis, and discourse analysis. Genre-based approaches mainly focus on written tasks, as their aim is the explicit learning of writing in academic and professional contexts.

Genre- and content-based language teaching gained momentum along with the ESP movement. ESP involves the concept of discipline-based studies through language learning and the belief that modern education involves immersion learning to comprehend the given instructional content in a course. The reading of scientific and technical literature and its focus on research and developmental activities are solely based on an analysis of genre, topic, theme, and content. The text type can be descriptive, narrative, and expository where students need to identify their topic of interest. Genre- and content-based approaches are associated with learners' needs in providing a sufficient package of information to develop discursive skills in second language learning (Richards, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Topic-, theme-, and content-based instruction can be widely practiced in developing communicative discourse in ESP courses in any technical discipline. Content-based instruction can be integrated with specific oral and written genres, skills, and task-based pedagogy to develop the disciplinary knowledge and information of students.

Widdowson (1983) focused on the importance of discourse in interactional communication. His contribution to ELT in major part has been an understanding on textual and register analysis, which has become a major source of research in the interactional use of language. Interpersonal and group communication are features of the interactive approach of language learning. The textual macrofunction is concerned with analyzing texts and discourse, and is rooted in the broad literary field of genre analysis. Halliday emphasized meaning at all levels of linguistic analysis (Stern, 1983). The seminal work of Halliday (1973) reflects on the three macro functions of language – ideational, interpersonal, and textual – as providing an influence on developing the perspectives of genre- and task-based language learning. The ideational macrofunction is concerned with the cognitive perspectives of language learning, from which Prabhu (1987) drew his basic ideas to conceptualize meaning-focused activities, and designing reasoning-gap tasks to induce intellectual and cognitive skills. Prabhu's procedural syllabuses are widely intended to cast intellectual activities to solve problems and puzzles through cognitive tasks. Nunan (2004) exemplified the purpose of conducting pedagogical tasks to develop language ability and to communicate in classroom situations, and target tasks to meet the communicative requirements of real situations.

Tasks have incorporated the immediate combination of both macro and micro skills to promote competency-based language learning (Klapper, 2003; Lambert, 2010). As tasks are basically concerned with the theory of learning, even the product-oriented content-based syllabuses, though they are mainly specified with forms and functions and with topics and themes, they are again combined with pedagogical tasks or classroom tasks where every component of language learning deals with tasks (Nunan, 1988a, 1988b). Task-based language teaching aims to develop the process orientation of language learning. It generates learner-centered methodology and places much importance on students' linguistic abilities and skills to perform real and pedagogical tasks. Task-based language teaching fosters the development of the real communication needs of the student in context for both academic and general situations. Structural and functional tasks have gained instant momentum in classroom instruction at all levels of language education. The general enthusiasm for practicing linguistic tasks is quite expected as classroom instruction specifically focuses on developing language proficiency through teaching and learning structures. Hence, the focus on

language use has idealized structural tasks to be a well-planned and authentic approach to language learning (Bygate & Samuda, 2008; Ellis, 1993, 2006; Long, 2016; Sheen, 1994; Skehan, 2003; Willis & Willis, 2007). Though tasks are meant to promote students' practical communication skills, this is exemplified only through the explicit learning of structures. As linguistic knowledge can be sought through lexical- and grammar-based tasks, the conventional use of pattern drills and exercises are transformed into teacher-controlled, authentic classroom tasks. With structural tasks practiced at every level of task-based instruction, structures and tasks are generally regarded as an effective combination for developing linguistic competence.

Candlin (1984) and Breen (1984, 1987b, as cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) advocated for the learner-led syllabus to negotiate content and the learning process to reflect the perspectives of the learners. Process-based syllabuses emphasize instructional practice and learners' preferences in language learning. Language and communicative tasks and interactive and discursive activities form the major component of learner-centered language learning. Breen (1987a, 1987b) explained that process-based syllabus design could be constructed and organized on four major principles: focus upon, select, subdivide, and sequence. Process-based syllabuses aim to develop students' required knowledge and abilities of language learning. Nunan (2004) drew a basic distinction between target tasks and pedagogical tasks – the former being language use beyond the classroom and the latter being language use that occurs in the classroom. Long (2005) and Skehan (2003) treated the task as the basic unit for syllabus design and emphasized interactional tasks to exchange information and negotiate meaning. They stressed that the “interpersonal” macrofunction of language can be facilitated through “negotiation of meaning.” Task-based instruction is specifically matched with the communicative approaches of language teaching and its objective is to perform real communicative tasks. Though the task orientation is to perform real communication, maximum effectiveness of tasks will be found in tasks associated with linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence (Canale 1983, as cited in Krahnke, 1987).

THE IMPACT OF INTEGRATED AND INTERRELATED ASPECTS OF LINGUISTIC AND NONLINGUISTIC APPROACHES ON 21ST CENTURY ESP SYLLABUS DESIGN

The integrated, interrelated, and interdependent approaches of form, function, context, topic, theme, content, genre, skills, and task can be braided together to design a communicative course (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Nunan, 1988a, 1988b; Yalden, 1983, 1987). In discussing the theoretical underpinnings of syllabus design and the specification of language and communicative content, Corder (1973, as cited in Brumfit, 1984) suggested an integrated and parallel set of syllabuses and classified syntactic, phonological, cultural, and functional as the four basic syllabus types. Swan (1981, as cited in Brumfit, 1984) recognized Corder's four syllabuses and added to them lexical, notional, topic, situational, discourse, rhetorical, and stylistics syllabuses. Brumfit (1984) cited Shaw's 1977 surveys on the development of communicative syllabuses that emphasized the behavioral objectives of language learning rather than just focusing on the nature of language and structural components. Brumfit considered situational, thematic, notional, and functional syllabuses as constructed to focus on the behavioral objectives of language learning.

Allen (1980, as cited in Stern, 1983, p. 261) adopted the structural to functional to instrumental use of language as the three levels of communicative competence for a multilevel curriculum in second language education. Littlewood (1981) described communicative language teaching through the sequencing of structural, quasi-communicative, functional, and social interactional activities. Yalden (1983) proposed a balanced proportional syllabus with the integration and combination of structural and communicative components in a fairly distributed ratio prescribed for all levels of education. Yalden's proportional syllabus with a three-dimensional approach described the duration of the course; balanced components of linguistic forms and communicative functions; the distinctive use of systematic language learning; non-systematic components like meaning, communicative functions, and discourse skills; and the methods and techniques applied to preparing a proto-syllabus and implementing the pedagogical syllabus in an EAP classroom.

Stern (1992) considered proficiency, knowledge, affect, and transfer as the multidimensional objectives to target in language learning. Stern's

(1980, 1983) and Ullman's (1982, as cited in Stern 1983) specification of a curriculum model for second language teaching was cross-tabulated with the four categories of content and behavioral objectives. Stern (1983) affirmed that the first and major objective was proficiency; the second was explicit knowledge of the target language and culture; the third objective was lowering the affective filter in relation to language and culture, and the fourth objective was transfer, which reflects the ability to generalize the scope of language learning. Maley and Brumfit's spiral model (1981, as cited in Yalden, 1983), Yalden's (1983) proportional model, and Stern's (1983) multidimensional model reflected the importance of a mixed or integrated syllabus (i.e., incorporating components of different syllabus types), where any one methodology could be given more focus in teaching.

As the components of the syllabus, such as genre, task, and skills, are interrelated and interdependent, it is not feasible to design a syllabus based solely on a single approach. It can also be noted that as the distinction between content and method has become tenuous; integrated and interrelated approaches to syllabus design are more preferred (Flowerdew, 2005). The synthesis of content and method are widely suggested in recent developments in ESP courses. No single method can be solely selected as best for language teaching, as none can promise to develop overall competency skills in both language and communication (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Prabhu, 1990). Dubin and Olshtain (1997) recognized the significance of the eclectic approach:

Course designers who carefully consider the various approaches to syllabus design may arrive at the conclusion that a number of different ones are needed and are best combined in an eclectic manner in order to bring about positive results. (p. 2)

The most desirable choice is to adopt eclectic approaches to specify appropriate content and instructional practices meeting the needs of the course. As no single theory can provide an adequate solution to language research queries, Rivers (1964, as cited in Stern, 1983) suggested and adopted the eclectic approach to psychological analysis and second language teaching. Synthetic or analytic syllabuses in their isolated form do not have a perfect orientation for strictly developing language and communicative ability. Though the proponents of formal, functional, process, and procedural syllabuses claim that such syllabuses solve

methodological and pedagogical issues related to language pedagogy, research on needs analysis provide a different insight by introducing integrated and interrelated components to syllabus design (Brown, 1995; Halim, 1976; Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984; Macalister & Nation, 2010; Robinson, 1991). Of most significance is that it has been found that no single-method-oriented syllabus can really claim to meet the subjective and objective needs of the learner.

The product approach and the process approach are two pertinent orientations applied to developing language learning skills (Nunan, 1988a, 1988b). The product approach is more concerned with the end product or the outcome of the course, while the process approach focuses on the learning experiences of the students in the due course of their program. Process approaches are generally applied within the extended framework of genre in combination with content-, task-, topic-, theme-, and skills-based language learning. The process of language learning is basically observed to help the students possess linguistic knowledge and have a greater inclination to exhibit productive skills in communicative acts with proper message conveyance (Sato & Mcnamara, 2019). Genre-based approaches to pedagogy emphasize encouraging both the product and process in language education. Students need to acquire adequate conceptual and thematic knowledge on the use of both oral and written genres and relevant strategic skills in academic contexts, and consequently, they should also acquire sufficient ability to apply and transfer the acquired knowledge and skills to target workplace contexts (Flowerdew, 2013; Hyland, 2004; Transferability of Skills ..., 2011).

English for placement purposes (EPP) has been the new paradigm shift for ESP in the first decade of the 21st century for determining academic placement in higher education and work placements in many multinational corporations (Fareen, 2017). The 21st century has recognized the need for workplace communication skills, and it has gradually been realized that soft skills and strategic skills needs to be incorporated along with genre-based learning to promote the skills of writing emails, business letters, project proposals, and scientific and technical reports; and in speaking, oral genres like oral presentations, group discussions, mock interviews, and online video-conferencing. These skills have to be specifically trained to meet academic and workplace demands.

Transcontinental industries that are keen on expanding and connecting their business networks consider English communication

skills as a major requirement to enter into both the national and international job markets (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991; Lockwood, 2012; Nickerson & Planken, 2009; Rogerson-Revell, 2007). Genre-based language learning is quite relevant in promoting specific oral and written genres through performing appropriate real tasks and skills. In designing the ESP curriculum framework, the specification of the linguistic and subject content should be accorded with the target needs and aim at developing those skills that are relevant to present-day workplace culture and context (Attan et al., 2016; Fareen, 2018; Williams, 2014). The specificity of learning needs and target needs is quite indispensable, as it has an incredible impact in realizing the purpose of present-day language education.

Teaching and learning of business communication skills relevant to target job needs has become the prime requirement of graduating students (Edwards, 2000; Jackson, 2005; Kassim & Ali, 2010; Una, 2018). Kayi (2008) emphasized the importance of conducting needs and situation analyses for developing an ESP program. Students need to develop specific genres and skills to articulate in target situations and should also be able to cope in formal, social, and casual situations. To incorporate the “what” and “how” of language learning, the specification of relevant genres, skills, tasks, and content should necessarily be done in relation to the findings of the needs analysis. With the aim of meeting the specific needs of the learner and learning, today’s ESP courses must specify the content, skills, methodology, and learning strategies required of students and target personnel. Decision-making for syllabus design that captures the “what” and “how” of language learning should be based solely on a thorough investigation of the present context and target needs analysis.

Basturkmen (2013), Belcher (2012), Brindley (1989), Flowerdew (2013), Graves (2008), Kayi (2008), Huhta et al. (2013), Johns et al. (2014), Javid (2015), Mackay (1978), Munby (1978), Strevens (1988), and Widdowson (1983, 1990) stressed the sociolinguistic and target needs of the learner and their purpose for language learning in contextual situations. Both previous and present studies exemplified the importance of social, cultural, and contextual influences in language education to meet students’ learning and target needs. The scrutinizing of individual and group communicative needs can be done through conducting present and target situation analyses, and an overall syllabus can be prepared with the consensus of both academics and industry. While planning a

needs-based ESP syllabus design, the specification of content, skills, and interactive tasks need to be determined through an understanding of the specialized genres and text types required in the target contexts. The specification of tasks should be done exclusively through undertaking an “open tasks analysis.” When analyzing the specialized content and skills of the target situation, the procedures to be followed to learn them and an understanding of the distinction between open and closed task types is necessary to develop the relevant skills for target communicative competence. The proper implementation of a contextual needs-based ESP communicative syllabus will invoke relevant learning and training in those employability skills that meet the requirements of the fields of education and industry.

ESP courses in the 21st century are booming due to the use of technology in both business and social communication. As professional and technical communication has become essential needs of any professional and any industry, today’s ESP courses are much focused on technology-enhanced language learning through digital platforms. Technology-enabled ESP courses have become more indispensable as they have to comply with higher educational and workplace needs in seeking and exchanging information and to disseminate knowledge and skills in a more systematic and technical way. Workplace-based ESP courses aim at creating business and social networks and helping professionals connect with their business counterparts to execute and report their professional ventures through business emails and online video-conferencing. A critical awareness of electronic literacy is pertinent, as it leads to an understanding of the use of electronic media and communication, and relates technology to language and pedagogy (Warschauer & Matuchniak, 2010). Being one of the major developments and tools of present ESP courses, technical online telecommunications serves as a digital platform and helps higher education students, researchers, and working professionals to develop their language acumen, communicative insight, and intercultural competence. As well, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) with multimodality-aided ESP courses are in full swing today, thanks to English-medium instruction (EMI), the desire for intercultural communication, the internationalization of English, and the popularity of subject-specific studies (Arnó-Macià & Aguilar, 2018). The use of computers, smartphones, and the internet has opened new spheres of global technical communication in language learning in higher education (Dashtestani & Stojković, 2015; Tikhonova

& Raitskaya, 2018), and hence, the impact of technology-enhanced language learning (TELL) is evident in designing professional needs-based ESP syllabuses. In a broad sense, it can be said that a blend of both linguistic and nonlinguistic approaches along with technology, media, and culture has become a prerequisite component for planning ESP courses today.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The significance of the “what” of theories, concepts, and principles and the “how” of practice and use are to be strictly balanced, integrated, interrelated, and interlinked to one another to evoke a sustainable language program. An ESP course should aim at framing the course’s target purpose and have a product and process-based curriculum, and every component that is integrated into the course should serve a positive role in promoting the performance objectives of language learning. The use of structures, genres, tasks, skills, topics, themes, and content should be given equal prominence as the core principles of syllabus design and should provide an understanding of the use of communicative and situational contexts. The topics and tasks should focus more on transactional or interactional functions rather than just place a vague focus on form. But form-based language learning is inevitable when the student lacks the ability to use language in discourse. As an ESP course aims at helping to provide the student with sufficient practice for communication through specific open-ended oral and written tasks, it envisages skills orientation. Though skills-based instruction aims to develop specific skills for specific purposes, it can be widely applied to promote integrated skills-based competency in both verbal and non-verbal communication. With a thorough understanding of the available 20th century ESP literature and previous studies that have contributed to the value and role of linguistic and nonlinguistic components leading to the ongoing evolution of syllabus design, this paper emphasizes the integrated and interrelated aspects of form-, function-, context-, topic-, theme-, content-, genre-, skills-, and task-based approaches to syllabus design and that the impact of technology, media, and culture remain crucial for developing needs-based ESP courses.

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Brief Reports

Extraversion vs. Introversion: Comparative and Contrastive Analysis of Empirical Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching

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The most evident polarity among different personality traits is extroversion and introversion. According to Jung (1921), extroverts possess subjective attitudes and a positive relation to objects while introverts have an objective relationship with objects. These attitudes and manners are reflected in their social behaviors; that is, introverted individuals often show shy characteristics while the extroverted are often characterized as being more sociable. Furthermore, their views of the world are different. Dörnyei (2014) mentioned that extroverts depend more on people and activities, but introverts obtain their energy from their inner world of experiences and understandings. Due to this discrepancy, many researchers have been studying the impact of second language learners' personalities on their learning. This study aims to explain the effects of being extroverted/introverted on learning a second language by comparing and contrasting empirical study results. Moreover, it analyzes which type obtains more benefits from language learning and how language teachers can incorporate the findings into their classes.

Keywords: extroversion, introversion, language learning, language teaching

INTRODUCTION

Research ranging from Kezwer to recent empirical studies has suggested that being extroverted has more advantages in learning a second language than being introverted. According to Kezwer (1987), extroverts have more potential abilities to learn a second language successfully. In fact, he concluded, "We can say that it seems that extroversion does have some bearing on second language learning" (p. 55). In addition to this, one study conducted on 145 Chinese

undergraduate students studying English at a university in India showed that extrovert students were better in speaking and reading; on the other hand, introverts performed better only in listening (Zafar et al., 2017). However, their findings can be easily questioned and criticized as extroverts outperformed introverts in listening according to Araghi et al. (2011). Therefore, it appears to be impossible to generalize through research on this issue that extroverts are better second language learners since studies on the effects of extroversion/introversion are not consistent across the findings.

Before proceeding to examine the impact of extroversion/introversion in second language learning, it is essential to acknowledge that it is still not clear which personality is more beneficial in acquiring overall second language proficiency. Indeed, the old claim of extroverts being successful language learners has been robustly contested in recent years by a number of studies that show that second language abilities and extroversion/introversion are not related:

- Overall proficiency: Chen and Tsai (2015); Özbay, Aydemir, and Atasoy (2017)
- Reading: Mall-Amiri and Nakhaie (2013); Soleimani, Jafarigozar, and Ramezani (2013)
- Listening: Alavinia and Sameei (2012); Araghi, Fam, and Ziaei (2011)
- Writing: Alavinia and Hassanlou (2014)
- Speaking: Gan (2011); Rahmawati and Nurmayasari (2016)

Even though a substantial amount of research has demonstrated inconsistencies in second language proficiencies between extroverts and introverts, it seems that each personality trait derives benefits from learning. In other words, being extroverted and being introverted each has its own advantage in learning a second language. Hence, the following section of this paper describes in greater detail the differences between extroverts and introverts in second language learning.

Extroversion vs. Introversion and Language Learning Strategies

A considerable number of studies have observed visible relationships between extroversion/introversion and language learning strategies (LLSs) through various empirical studies. According to Ameri (2013),

extroversion was found to be more frequent in the LLSs of all three areas: social, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. He argued that the more students were extroverted, the higher their LLSs were scored. However, Ameri's study is different from recent studies in numerous respects.

First, the different types of learning strategies used by extroverts and introverts were identified. According to Noprianto (2017), extroverts used more affective (i.e., social) learning strategies whereas introverts used more memory type (i.e., cognitive) learning strategies. The preference for cognitive strategies by introverts seems in line with a previous finding that introverts used more cognitive strategies while engaging in reading activities, such as content retrieval (Vahdat et al., 2016). It seems that more researchers agreed on introverts' preference for cognitive types of LLSs. On the other hand, extroverts' preference in using affective LLSs can be supported by another finding that extroverts preferred to study by socializing (Campbell & Hawley, 1982). This can easily be understood and drawn from the general characteristics of extroverts, such as being sociable, open, and friendly.

Even though extroverts are active users of affective LLSs, some research shows inconsistency in extroversion/introversion when examining the influences of emotional factors in learning a target language. Unlike the stereotypical idea of introverts, who may be unwilling and/or afraid to speak, a willingness to communicate was found to be unrelated to extroversion and introversion (Kim, 2010) as well as anxiety (Oya et al., 2004). With respect to risk-taking, however, extroverts appear to exploit more opportunities to use the language by joining diverse groups inside and outside of the classroom, while introverts seem to be more suited to learning in the classroom (Zafar & Meenakshi, 2012). To conclude, the findings from these studies indicate that emotional factors such as anxiety do not have different impacts on extrovert or introvert learners, although the studies may suggest the possibilities of other factors related to emotions, such as taking risks, influencing extroverts and introverts differently.

In relation to metacognitive strategies, their use by extroverts and introverts appears to be contradictory. Vahdat et al. (2016) concluded that extroverts used more metacognitive strategies than introverts. In contrast, Rekabdar et al. (2015) found that introverts made more use of metacognitive strategies than extroverts. By taking these opposing results into consideration, the frequency of use of metacognitive strategies

among extroverts and introverts requires further investigation.

Returning to the issue of LLSs, though extrovert and introvert learners can favor different LLSs, this favoring does not seem to be correlated to the learners' language proficiencies. Chen and Tsai (2015) concluded that there is no significance between personality traits and learners' TOEIC scores. Likewise, Liyanage and Bartlett (2013) stated that the relationship among LLSs, learners' personalities, and proficiencies had to be cautiously understood because the association between personality types and LLSs could be quite volatile. However, it is the type of LLSs that affects test scores. Chen and Tsai (2015) found that students' use of social strategies had more influence on listening scores, but it was the metacognitive strategies that served as a better predictor of their reading scores. Based on these findings, a conclusion may be carefully drawn that extroverts, who seem to use social strategies more (e.g., Noprianto, 2017), could have higher listening proficiencies, but this correlation between extroversion and listening ability must remain tentative.

In this section, the issues with LLSs and personality traits have been examined and explained. Notably, the literature has suggested that types of LLS can be preferred differently depending on the extroversion or introversion of the learner. In fact, there also seems to be a divergence in other learning strategies between extrovert and introvert learners. On account of this discrepancy, further investigation of personality traits and strategies follows in the next section.

Extroversion vs. Introversion and Communication Strategies

According to Wakamoto (2009), LLSs and learner strategies (LSs) are often mingled and understood to be the same. However, LLSs should be distinguished from other LSs (i.e., communication strategies [CSs]). Fundamentally, LLSs are not only for communicating, but for learning (Tarone, 1980, as cited in Wakamoto, 2009). Therefore, Wakamoto (2009) put these two types of strategies (CSs and LLSs) under the umbrella term "learner strategies" (LSs).

With CSs, Kaivanpanah and Yamouty (2009) found that there was no significant difference in the types of CSs used between extroverts and introverts, based on their study conducted with 182 Iranian students who had language skills ranging from elementary to intermediate levels at a private language school. Regardless of their level of language

proficiency, the study showed that the students used various types of CSs almost equally.

However, the above result seems to be different from recent findings indicating different CS frequencies for extroversion and introversion. For instance, it was found that extroverts tended to use more diverse types of CSs than introverts (Kayaoğlu, 2013; Mujahadah et al., 2018). It was discovered that extrovert learners used achievement, time-gaining, and self-monitoring strategies, whereas introverts used interactional strategies more. This suggests that extrovert learners are more likely to use CSs to solve problems. They would create new words to describe objects (achievement), use fillers (time-gaining), and correct their own mistakes (self-monitoring) according to Mujahadah et al. (2018). Due to a considerable amount of expressive language use, extroverts may seem to be more proficient target language speakers than introverts.

As a matter of fact, extroverts can be shown to be better speakers because they use more expressive types of CSs to continue the conversation, such CSs as fillers and descriptions. On the other hand, introverts, who are more likely to be concerned about receptive skills, seem to be deficient in speaking. In fact, introvert learners focus more on passive language functions for solving problems. The research indicated that introverts valued the listeners' understanding more (Kayaoğlu, 2013; Mujahadah et al., 2018). For example, it was observed that introverts often asked for confirmation as to whether the listener understood their utterances (Mujahadah et al., 2018).

Therefore, it is necessary for language teachers to consider this fact when their extrovert learners appear to exceed introvert learners. In truth, what the extroverts produce should not always be seen as a measure of higher proficiency than that of introverts because the two personalities focus on different problem-solving skills by using contrasting types of CSs.

Thus far, this paper has examined the differences between introverts and extroverts in the use of learning/learner strategies. In the next section, differences in second language learning between extroverts and introverts will be examined.

Extroversion vs. Introversion and Grammar Learning

Since accuracy is considered to be one of the factors that determines the successful attainment of a second language, it is arguable that

extroverts and introverts may pay a different degree of attention to the correct forms of sentences. According to Zainuddin (2016), it was found that extroverts paid less attention to syntax by creating fairly less accurate sentences than introverts while producing written products. Zainuddin completed his discussion by stating that “the findings show that extrovert EFL learners did worse than introvert EFL learners in language construction for essay writing” (p. 166). In fact, his argument seems relevant, since a number of empirical studies have found similar results (Boroujeni et al., 2015; Carrell et al., 1996; Layeghi, 2011). Therefore, this indicates that there is a strong possibility that language teachers need to pay attention to accuracy in extrovert learners’ second language use.

In addition to this implication for teachers, it is possible for learners to assist each other in achieving a higher proficiency when they are appropriately paired. In the early 1990s, Nakamura (1991) studied the potential of reciprocal influence between extroverts with low grammar skills and introverts with higher grammar skills. When they were paired, the antitheses of personalities and proficiencies helped each to overcome their weaknesses. Accordingly, this suggests the feasibility of positive and reciprocal effects between extrovert and introvert students through the teachers’ careful consideration of group/pair management.

Furthermore, it has been found that extroverts and introverts benefited differently from certain types of grammar learning. In a study by Vahdat and Pasideh (2014), it was revealed that extroverts received more benefits from using a grammar learning technique called “textual enhancement,” a technique using typographical cues such as font-enlargement, italicization, underlining, capitalization, shadowing and similar techniques, yet introverts learned more from usual exercises such as grammar-translation and the audio-lingual method. Therefore, a possible implication for language teachers would be to consider their students’ personality traits while implementing new grammar learning in order to help their students, especially extroverts, further develop their accuracy.

By considering notable differences between extroverts and introverts in grammar learning, the conclusion can be drawn that teachers will be able to provide more effective grammar lessons when the lesson is developed based on careful consideration of the learners’ personality traits. In other words, teachers can teach grammar more effectively when they select proper grammar teaching techniques that complement the

learners' personalities.

This section has focused on grammar learning. The following section of this paper will describe language learning on a grander scale by discussing language learning approaches in relation to extroversion/introversion.

Extroversion vs. Introversion and Language Learning Approaches

Not only in grammar learning but also in learning approaches, the efficacy of certain approaches with regards to extroverts and introverts has been found to be markedly contrasting. Thus, Table 1 presents diverse results in learning approaches between extrovert and introvert learners.

TABLE 1. Extroversion vs. Introversion and Efficacy of Language Learning Approaches

Approach	Personality Trait	
	Extroversion	Introversion
Ahour and Haradasht (2014)	Cooperative learning in reading comprehension	Competitive learning in reading comprehension
Marashi and Dibah (2013)	Cooperative learning in speaking	Competitive learning in speaking
Haradasht and Baradaran (2013)	Top-down TBLT in reading	Bottom-up TBLT in reading
Chew and Ng (2015)	Face-to-face discussion	Online discussion

Cooperative vs. Competitive Learning

Since the end of the 20th century, researchers have shed light on the value of cooperative learning in language class in comparison to competitive engagement. Dörnyei (1997) found cooperative learning to be a highly affective language learning approach in which motivational systems were created by peers. Furthermore, Oxford (1997) confirmed that cooperative learning could encourage the learners' interdependence and help them understand language learning.

However, some research affirms positive influences on introversion when competitive learning is conducted. According to Ahour and Haradasht (2014), introverts in competitive learning situations showed

better comprehension of the reading materials. On the other hand, extroverts did better in cooperative learning. This distinct efficacy of two learning approaches can also be applied to speaking areas, as extroverts benefited more from cooperative learning, which required them to speak more (Marashi & Dibah, 2013).

In summary, the effectiveness of cooperative learning can be found among extrovert learners, whereas competitive learning can be suitable for introvert learners. Hence, teachers have to acknowledge this difference of efficacy of learning approaches between extroverts and introverts. However, they should cautiously implement the approaches based on a proper understanding of their learners' personality types.

Task-Based Language Teaching

It is possible that task-based language teaching (TBLT) can be interpreted differently with regards to learners' extroversion/introversion traits. As shown in Table 1, Haradasht and Baradaran (2013) identified opposing results of impact on extrovert and introvert learners in two types of TBLT. While studying reading materials, the extrovert learners improved through top-down TBLT, which required them to apply their background knowledge ahead of the reading tasks; conversely, bottom-up TBLT, which provided detailed information such as vocabulary and sentence structures before students engaged in reading passages, was more effective when it was applied to introvert learners. However, it is also important to acknowledge that there was also no significant difference found when TBLT for reading improvement was applied to the two personality groups (Mall-Amiri & Nakhaie, 2013). Therefore, the efficacy of TBLT with introvert and extrovert learners still seems to be open for researchers to examine further with respect to these two personality traits.

Offline vs. Online Learning

Preferred mode of instruction can differ for extroverts and introverts. Chew and Ng (2015) reported that introverts who had high and low proficiency in English preferred online discussions, whereas extroverts who had a high proficiency preferred face-to-face talks. However, it was also revealed that low proficient extroverts preferred discussions online (Chew & Ng, 2015). Thus, it would be noteworthy to choose online

instruction (or mixed modes) to satisfy both extrovert and introvert learners. However, teachers should also be aware of the fact that there are more speaking opportunities in face-to-face discussion.

CONCLUSIONS

It is unclear whether a certain personality trait, extroversion or introversion, is more beneficial for learning a second language. Although some previous research indicated that there are more advantages with extroversion (Kezwer, 1987; Zafar et al., 2017), recent studies have shown the opposite or inconsistent results while comparing the effects of extroversion/introversion on second language learning (Alavinia & Hassanlou, 2014; Alavinia & Sameei, 2012; Araghi et al., 2011; Chen & Tsai, 2015; Gan, 2011; Özbay et al., 2017; Rahmawati & Nurmayasari, 2016). However, different language learning strategies (LLSs) were identified, that is, social LLSs for extroverts and cognitive LLSs for introverts (Campbell & Hawley, 1982; Noprianto, 2017; Vahdat et al., 2016). In addition, further examination of metacognitive LLSs in extrovert and introvert learners is required due to the inconsistencies between studies (Rekabdar et al., 2015; Vahdat et al., 2016). More importantly, no significant difference was found in extroverts' and introverts' proficiencies, though they preferred different types of LLSs (Chen & Tsai, 2015; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2013).

Though extroverts had been seen as more proficient speakers in a second language, it has been explained that this might be related to different choices of communication strategies (CSs): expressive CSs (extroverts) and receptive CSs (introverts) (Kayaoğlu, 2013; Mujahadah et al., 2018). In relation to learning and learning approaches, more distinct results have been found between extroverts and introverts. For the extrovert learner, learning was more effective when the learning method was fairly new to them, such as grammar learning through textual enhancement (Vahdat & Pasideh, 2014), cooperative learning in reading and speaking (Ahour & Haradasht, 2014; Marashi & Dibah, 2013), top-down task-based learning (Haradasht & Baradaran, 2013), and face-to-face discussion (Chew & Ng, 2015), while for the introvert learner, more advantage was found in traditional, competitive, bottom-up, and online learning. In conclusion, it is worthwhile for language teachers to be aware of their students' personalities and the effectiveness of

learning approaches to understand their learners' language learning better and apply learning approaches to their classes.

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A Reflective Practice of Project-Based Learning During Online Teaching: Insights from an EFL Reading Class

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This paper reports on a reflective practice of a ten-week teaching experience in an EFL short functional reading (SFR) online class through project-based learning (PBL). The purpose of this instruction was to engage students in an online reading class and introduce them to global issues through reading texts. Empirically, we assisted students in becoming involved in shared knowledge construction in the class and engaged meaningfully in critical global literacy issues. As evidenced in the class, students participated fully in a dialogic reading to understand the world issues as global citizens. Such an experience allowed them to understand real-life problems, avoid learning anxiety, and increase multimodal competence. Through this reflective practice, it is expected that other teacher educators can learn from our online teaching experience and implement PBL in their situated classroom contexts.

Keywords: COVID-19, online teaching, project-based learning, reflective practice, short functional reading

INTRODUCTION

Recently, the COVID-19 pandemic has shifted the ways knowledge is taught in educational contexts worldwide. The alteration from face-to-face teaching to online teaching modes has resulted in adaptations to teaching approaches (Moorhouse, 2020). The emergence of COVID-19, with the closure of schools and universities, and the need to rapidly move from face-to-face teaching to online teaching, entailed challenges for teachers, teacher educators, and policymakers (Flores,

2020). Impacted by this pandemic, the Indonesian government immediately advised all teachers to do emergency remote teaching. In other words, the times of a global lockdown forced classroom learning to be changed to full online learning. The changes required teachers to radically rethink their teaching approaches and their beliefs about what makes for an effective student learning experience (Livingston, 2018). It was a new challenge for all teachers in Indonesia, and Indonesian institutions of higher learning were no exception, to employ synchronous teaching approaches in facilitating learner engagement in their courses (Rinekso & Muslim, 2020).

There has been a growing body of research investigating how teaching has been adapted to the pandemic situation. Those studies deal with how to run effective instruction models of online learning in the time of COVID-19 (Luan et al., 2020; Tarrayo & Anuddin, 2021; Yandel, 2020), the shift from traditional to online learning during the pandemic (Jan, 2020; Kusumawati, 2020; Mishra et al., 2020; Pu, 2020; Tarrayo, et al., 2021), challenges of online learning during the pandemic (Badrkhani, 2021; Kim et al., 2021; Teng & Wu, 2021), and perceptions of teachers and students on online learning during the pandemic (Almekhlafy, 2020; Amin, 2020; Lim et al., 2021). In a recent study, for example, Kusumawati (2020) mentions that it is a challenge for educators to suddenly change the learning process from a face-to-face format to an online learning format and still maintain and guarantee their previous teaching quality (Pu, 2020). They must quickly learn and adapt their teaching and learning management to cope with this unprecedented situation (Amin, 2020). The challenges cause increased tension when teachers have no experience with new approaches to learning and teaching to draw from and access to professional learning to support them is limited (Livingston, 2018).

However, to date, there is no empirical evidence that showcases how English teachers in Indonesia reflect on their online teaching with project-based learning integrated into a reading class. Reflective practice, as argued by Rodgers (2002, p. 845), refers to “a meaning-making process that moves a learner from one experience into the next with deeper understanding of its relationships with and connections with other experiences.” Interestingly, reflective practice has been well acknowledged in general education and the language education realm (Farrell, 2015).

This article reports on a reflective practice of a ten-week teaching

experience in an EFL short functional reading (SFR) online class using project-based learning (PBL). Through this teaching model, it is hoped that other teachers can benefit from the implementation of PBL in their online classroom circumstances, particularly during this COVID-19 pandemic.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, face-to-face teaching and learning activities have been forcibly altered to full online learning. However, as agents of change, teachers are required to cope with all teaching problems by inquiring and applying appropriate instructional strategies to maintain and guarantee teaching quality (Pu, 2020). This reflective practice on the implementation of PBL sheds light on how effective teaching and learning, particularly in reading practice, can still be conducted meaningfully, despite physical distance.

Empirically speaking, EFL teachers must adjust to this situation, even if they may falter at times due to the suddenness of situation changes or lack of planning. Various types of information technology are very helpful for teachers to adapt themselves to the above situation though creativity in teaching and the dynamics of learning delivery. Such a move is assisted by the condition that digital students are knowledgeable about technology. Thus, teaching without the application of technical improvisation and creativity for teachers would definitely bore students.

As online learning is deemed to be lacking in terms of student engagement, teachers must realize that to increase student engagement, they need to incorporate some ICT elements into their lessons (Halili et al., 2018). Online learning must maximize its capacity in order to be equitable with traditional in-person learning. Therefore, the existence of technology in online learning is important.

There has been a significant expansion in the availability and use of new technologies in the classroom such as digital tools, social media, and virtual environments (Danniels et al., 2020). Prior to the COVID-19 crisis, e-learning, distance education, and main courses were widely regarded as forms of non-formal education. However, it now appears that if the current circumstances continue, it will progressively supplant the present formal education system (Mishra et al., 2020).

This reflective practice was carried out to describe our teaching experience in a short functional reading course. The reading course was situated in the PBL framework, as PBL is believed to be able to enhance learners' engagement (Belwal et al., 2020) in addition to the ICT requirement as previously mentioned. PBL has been found to have various merits for English language teaching and learning. Among them are increasing students' achievement (Cervantes et al., 2015), attitudes (Duman & Yavuz, 2018; Petersen & Nassaji, 2016), and learning engagement (Belwal et al., 2020). Previous research has also investigated how PBL integrated with technology is incorporated into a Korean EFL setting (Kim, 2013; Shin & Choi, 2019). This PBL approach was found to be able to boost students' engagement during instruction (Choi & Kim, 2019).

To this end, through our reflective practice, the present study aims at describing how PBL assists EFL learners to engage in expressing their critical global literacy. Within this context, PBL has been chosen, considering its valuable inquiry approaches to achieve the so-called 21st century skills (Jensen, 2015), one of which is characterized by students' critical literacy. The implementation of PBL is expected to boost students' critical literacy in positioning themselves and aid them in learning effectively within the current pandemic situation.

THE COURSE

As part of a global critical literacy course, we integrated PBL into an SFR online class as a platform to engage students with current global issues through dialogic reading. There are 32 students in the 2020–2021 cohort. They were introduced to reading texts in the form of infographics and asked to understand the issues depicted in the readings. At the end of the course, the students were asked to develop a product in the form of an infographic pertaining to a global concern (e.g., health crisis, environmental pollution, COVID-19 pandemic). In line with this learning design, the course aimed not only to invite students to read texts for information but also to lead them to understand global issues and provide critical comments on them (Ko, 2013; Yunus & Ubaidillah, 2021).

METHOD

This reflective practice was based on self-classroom observation in an SFR class within a ten-week teaching and learning enactment. Students were given a collaborative project-based learning task to do with their classmates in the class. The class was an additional session attached to the main, two-credit, regular classes of a reading course. The one-credit session of the SFR class aimed at contextualizing students' reading activities using authentic tasks, one of which was to enhance their critical global literacy. The activity provided authentic tasks compatible with the concept of PBL, which were prepared to encourage students to use their diverse backgrounds and capital for becoming global citizens while learning a new language (Yol & Yun, 2020). A class consisting of 35 students was divided into seven groups of five students. They were assigned to create a campaign project on COVID-19 in which they could have flyers on different themes depending on the group's tasks.

In this study, we collected ethnographic data and began writing reflective narratives of our teaching during the ten-week practice period. In the first phase of our teaching, the EFL students were introduced to critical global literacy understanding by being shown that they were not only a member of a particular country or a particular area in the nation but that they were a world citizen. Focusing on the topic of the COVID-19 pandemic, students were introduced to critical global literacy practice in the first class, and it was observed how these students actualized their critical thinking in response to the topic. The second through sixth weeks dealt with group discussion developing COVID-19 flyers on a variety of themes: (a) how to handle patients who tested COVID-19 positive, (b) how to live in the "new normal" era, (c) health protocol in public services, (d) how to handle the burial of patients succumbing to COVID-19, and (e) the social distancing mechanism (PSBB). Each group discussed the assigned topic by referring to the flyers related to the topics of discussion. The group Zoom meeting was formatted into a Zoom video to be presented and commented on by the teacher and the whole class.

At the end of the course, we reflected on our teaching by randomly asking students in the class about what they formerly did not know and what they came to know through the PBL portion of the course. Reflective field notes were made to determine whether students had

shown an indication of critical global literacy and positioned themselves as a world citizen. The sixth through tenth week was the time for student groups to present their posters and flyers regarding the project they had created for the campaign to make an effort to halt the spread of COVID-19. As this reflective study is deemed to be a subjective evaluation, a peer debriefing activity with colleagues teaching the same subjects was carried out to avoid bias in the reporting process. Feedback was given to the authors of the present study to enhance the trustworthiness of the report.

REFLECTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In the online SFR class, we note that students collaboratively shared insights, knowledge, perceptions, and opinions regarding the assigned topics. In addition, they not only learned about the world's issues as an individual and as a world citizen (Stein, 2021). The class also engaged passive students to negotiate their understanding through online dialogic reading. Such a condition may not happen in face-to-face teaching as these students tended to experience learning anxiety (Chen & Hwang, 2020) and might not have been able to bear the necessary degree of self-imposition during face-to-face interaction. Practically, PBL activities increase students' self-interdependence, active learning, self-confidence, and multimodal competence. As depicted in the PBL implementation, students negotiated meaning from their self-made posters at the end of the course and experienced shared understanding with peers. In addition, PBL can greatly promote students' self-reliance, active learning, and self-esteem. This reflective practice suggests that teachers employ PBL in their online classes, as it enables students to engage in real-life issues, avoid learning anxiety, increase multimodal competence, and experience shared knowledge negotiation with peers.

DISCUSSION

Empirically, our reflective practice on PBL implementation in the Indonesian context can also be brought into the Korean EFL context. Both Korea and Indonesia share the same situation of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Previous studies have discussed PBL in the

Korean EFL educational context. For instance, Kim (2013) revealed the benefits of PBL in teaching language skills and suggested that it be implemented in Korean EFL classrooms. Another study was done by Shin and Choi (2019), showing that PBL by way of a mobile messaging app, KakaoTalk, can significantly improve students' achievement since KakaoTalk is effective as a means of problem-solving, communication, uploading files, and educational activities. In line with the present study, Choi and Kim's (2019) research in the Korean context also gives evidence that PBL in Korea could improve students' engagement in learning.

While the present study focuses on reflective practice in the classroom, Miller's (2015) study in the Korean EFL context also shared the benefits of participating in reflective practice (RP) meetings or teacher development groups (TDGs). Such forums serve to distribute a wide range of information among ELT practitioners in Korea. In the same vein, the activity of sharing reflective practice in the form of TDGs in Indonesia has already flourished as well (Saputra et al., 2020; Sunra et al., 2020), giving evidence that reflective practice is an effective method that could be used to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The EFL teachers' reflections were primarily descriptive and dialogic in nature. They highlighted the teaching burden and a lack of awareness of reflective practice as barriers to reflection.

Engaging teachers in evidence-based reflective practice allows them to express what they do, how they do it, why they do it, and how their teaching affects student development. The outcomes of such reflective practice may include affirming present behaviors or making adjustments, but these changes will not be based on instinct, tradition, or the like; rather, they will emerge as a result of analysis of tangible data.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has shared our reflections on implementing PBL in an online SFR course. Future research should empower teachers with practical training in assessing students' work during the implementation of PBL. It is also essential, as learning assessment complements learning activities. This instructional practice is not deemed to be the most effective pedagogical approach to facilitating students' online learning engagement during pandemic situations, nor does it provide ample

evidence of its effectiveness. But, to some extent, teachers may benefit from our situated class and idea-making, since teachers who teach English as a foreign language worldwide are currently faced with complexities in their online teaching, especially in this time of crisis. Pedagogically, this reflective practice is worth consideration by teachers for self-reflection to improve teaching and learning quality, which is sometimes left unattended due to heavy teaching workloads.

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Book Review

Review of Language Teacher Education for Global Englishes: A Practical Resource Book

Edited by Ali Faud Selvi and Bedrettin Yazan

New York, NY: Routledge, 2021.

Pages: xxxiii + 316. (ISBN 978-0367536428, Paperback)

Reviewed by Tory S. Thorkelson

INTRODUCTION

To understand this volume's true scope and value, the reviewer would like to humbly suggest breaking a cardinal rule of book reviews, namely, that you read two books in tandem rather than just the volume that is the primary focus of this review. Having finished both Robert McCrum's *Globish* (2010) as well as the subject of this review, the divergent views on the roles and status of various Englishes helped the author appreciate the paradigm shift that has occurred in the place and status of the varieties of English in the world today. As McCrum (2010) states,

England ... [has made] its language and culture a "thoroughfare" for all kinds of expression ... [evolving from] ... a small family business, then a multinational, and finally a global brand, rarely has a language and its hegemony been more pervasive than Anglo-American culture. (p. 257)

Globish captures both the overall history of the English language and its associated cultures while serving as an ode to Anglo-American power at its pinnacle. Then a mere decade or so later, the *Global Englishes Resource Book* is published, encapsulating the many varieties of English that enrich and foreshadow the decline of Anglo-American hegemony in both global power and the field of English language teaching (ELT) in

general. This utilitarian book offers theoretical and practical applications for educators in many contexts by bringing a Global Englishes viewpoint into educators' experience for all stages of their teaching careers from pre- to in-service levels.

The relatively recent Global Englishes paradigm and its accompanying fields of Global Englishes language teaching (GELT), English as a lingua franca (ELF), English as an international language (EIL), and so on offers a promising response to the complexity of identity formation for teachers and learners, initiating and enhancing interactions, overall use, and instructional techniques, and provides a possible focus for discussions and teaching pedagogy surrounding the English language and culture as well as all it encompasses. It is essential to supplement and improve teachers' knowledge base – their specialized knowledge, skills, competencies, and commitments – concerning the ever-changing needs of ELT. This volume is not an attempt to solidify these into practice but rather as a way to showcase how far Global Englishes in both theory and practice has come and still has to go.

SUMMARY OF CONTENTS

The book chapters offer easily accessible theoretical overviews and insights into different aspects of the Global Englishes paradigm, from instructional materials to language assessment. A range of practical applications also complement and enhance teacher development.

Part 1 covers the global spread of Englishes and related pedagogy. It begins with the Global English language teaching (GELT) framework, then moves on to skills work targeted at specific groups, including pre-service teachers and in-service teachers' professional development, listening skills, or dialogic reflection within various contexts.

Part 2 looks at specific language teaching methods and instructional materials in Global Englishes. Again, pre-service teachers and graduate teaching assistants are two of the groups with chapters dedicated to their needs, with more traditional-seeming methods using the Oxford English Dictionary and using trilingual vocabulary learning to raise global awareness

Part 3 focuses on transculturality and identity in Global Englishes and digs into culture teaching, student-teacher identities, and interactions. Part 3 also raises critical awareness of these and the place

of the other varieties of English in the classroom as lesson material and lesson focus.

Part 4 is the section that was of most initial interest to this author as it addresses language assessment in Global Englishes. This section addresses the need to recreate language testing in both a broader and more focused skills-based way while raising the awareness of teachers and students and creating more representative and realistic testing in the long term.

Part 5 discusses curriculum development in Global Englishes in only three chapters. They cover curriculum development, phonology in language teacher education, and the issues of decolonizing ELT in a post-colonial context. Rather than reading the book in order, the author would recommend the reader start here to truly grasp the scope of what this volume is trying to accomplish before reading individual chapters of personal interest. Finally, there is the Conclusion, but as with the Introduction, it does not simply serve as analysis or overview of the entire volume. Instead, the Introduction and Conclusion serve as bookends, or prologue and epilogue, prompting the reader to ponder what this all means in terms of the present and future of ELT in a Global Englishes context.

EVALUATION

This resource book is recommended as a handy professional development tool for teacher educators looking for practical and valuable resources not easily found in other resources – all in one volume. This resource book is especially helpful in preparing teachers for a variety of teaching contexts at a time when the dominant varieties of English have finally begun to acknowledge the need to accept and value the teaching of the many varieties and dialects of Global Englishes. To be clear, Global Englishes does not have a preferred method, but rather attempts to move away from the native speaker as the model and focus of language teaching towards a multilingual environment that “promotes teachers’ and students’ self-image as legitimate users of English(es) engaging in ... contexts with individuals ... from diverse ... backgrounds, redefine culture and cultural content by being more sensitive ..., and favor ... ideas depending on the needs of the students” (p. 77).

Perhaps of more value and interest to both pre- and in-service

teachers are the inclusion of sample activities in the form of appendices or in-text insertions highlighting how instructors have tried to bring Global Englishes into their classrooms. These include Standard English Right or Wrong? (Blair, p. 35); Development of Lesson Plan Based on Needs (Farzi et al., p. 43); The GEO Q Survey on Personal Opinions on Teaching English (Funada, pp. 70–72); Global Englishes in ELT Coursebook Activities (Inal, pp. 91–93); Sample ELF Lesson Plan (Kemaloglo-Er, pp. 97–99); Various EAP Tasks Involving ELP and Student’s Lexical Resources Among Others (Yilmaz, pp. 128–129); and Creating Your Action Plan Lesson and Worksheet (Salerno & Andrei, pp. 156–157), just to name a few that are included in the handbook for both reference and direct classroom use.

While most chapters focus on university-level classrooms and teachers in training without regard to grade levels, Chapter 1.5 discusses a professional development program designed for Chinese EFL teachers all across China by Canadian educators, while Chapter 2.8 talks about a similar program for primary teachers in Italy. Suppose you are looking for results and outcomes. In that case, however, numerous chapters are based on yet-to-be-used materials or offer limited reflection sections that leave the reader looking for more details. This is an indication of the snapshot nature of this volume mentioned previously. Global Englishes methodology is still a work in progress, suggesting that a follow-up volume in 5 to 10 years (or a revised edition of this book) would be a valuable addition to documenting the ongoing evolution of this relatively recent paradigm shift within the ELT field as a whole.

This volume lends itself to being used as a resource book for in-service teachers while also potentially being used as a textbook for teaching and using Global Englishes. It also informs both students and teachers about the ever-changing place of the English language, its varieties, and their accompanying cultures in the world today. As D’Angelo suggests in his conclusion, it is too early to say conclusively what will happen to Global Englishes methodology and pedagogy. But the imperfections of the present volume illustrate the importance of this necessary shift. GELT, as a field, is moving forward and breaking away from its cumbersome and debilitating focus on Anglo-American language and culture.

THE REVIEWER

Tory S. Thorkelson (BA, BEd, MEd in TESL/TEFL, Ph.D. in Language Studies / Curriculum Development) is a proud Canadian who has been an active KOTESOL member since 1998 and has presented at many local and international conferences. He is a past president of KOTESOL's Seoul Chapter, a past president of KOTESOL, and a KOTESOL Teacher Training member. He is also an associate professor for HYU's English Language and Literature Program. He has co-authored research studies and textbooks, including a university-level textbook, *World Class English*, with a team of fellow KOTESOL members; several papers like this one; and a few e-books. Currently, he is a regular contributor to *EFL Magazine*. Email: thorkor@hotmail.com

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Appendix

Korea TESOL Journal General Information for Contributors

As an academic journal in the field of English language teaching (ELT), the *Korea TESOL Journal* welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and scientific excellence. Submissions should be of practical import, dealing with aspects of the Korean ELT context or directly applicable to it. As a journal that is dedicated to the nurturing of research among ELT practitioners, the Journal also welcomes quality submissions from the early-career researcher.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* invites submissions in three categories:

- 1. Full-Length Articles.** Contributors are strongly encouraged to submit manuscripts of 5,000 to 8,000 words in length, including references, tables, etc.
- 2. Brief Reports.** The Journal also invites short reports (approximately 2,500 words). These manuscripts may present preliminary findings, focus on some aspect of a larger study, or summarize research done in the pursuit of advanced studies.
- 3. Reviews.** The Journal invites succinct, evaluative reviews of scholarly or professional books, or instructional-support resources (such as computer software, video or audio material, and tests). Reviews should provide a descriptive and evaluative summary and a brief discussion of the significance of the work in the context of current theory and practice. Submissions should generally be 800–12,000 words in length.

Manuscripts are accepted for peer review with the understanding that the same work has not been submitted elsewhere (i.e., not pending review or currently under review) and has not been previously published, online or in print. A statement stating this should accompany submissions.

Manuscripts should follow APA style guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 7th ed.), especially for in-text citations, references, tables, and figures. Submissions should be made with tables, figures, and other graphics included in the manuscript text (and upon request, as separate files). All figures should be created in black and white, and graphs must display distinctive shades or patterning for readability. Manuscripts should be submitted as MS Word (DOC or DOCx) files.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* accepts submissions for two issues annually.

Inquiries/manuscripts to: journal@koreatesol.org

For more information on submissions to the *Korea TESOL Journal*, including paper submission deadlines, evaluation criteria, and manuscript formatting requirements, visit:

<https://koreatesol.org/content/call-papers-korea-tesol-journal>



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